

## A UNIFIED SPECTRAL FILTER FRAMEWORK FOR ILL-POSED LINEAR OPERATOR EQUATIONS IN HILBERT SPACES

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**ABSTRACT.** Regularization is useful for stable recovery in inverse problems with ill-posed linear operator equations in Hilbert spaces because small perturbations in data can make problems highly unstable. Tikhonov regularization, truncated singular value decomposition, and iterative polynomial filtering, classical methods, have been understood from singular value decay and the Picard condition. However, most literature analyses convergence, parameter choice, and saturation from separate perspectives. This study fills the gap by constructing a unified spectral filter framework that integrates bias–variance decomposition, polynomial and exponential decay, convergence rate analysis, and stability-consistent parameter choice frameworks, including the discrepancy principle and the L-curve criterion. To enhance saturation control and qualification, we propose extensions to fractional and generalized spectral filters. In the severely ill-posed setting, we identify logarithmic convergence barriers with the inductive method, thereby exposing accuracy limits that exist independently from filter design. The findings are directly applicable to stable inversion and are operator theoretically sound for real-world applications, including medical imaging, geophysical reconstruction, signal processing, and data-driven recovery of ill-conditioned systems.

**Keywords:** ill-posed operator equations; Hilbert spaces; spectral regularization; Tikhonov regularization; truncated SVD; iterative methods.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Within the sphere of applied mathematics and modern analysis, the mathematical theory of inverse problems has rapidly developing fundamentals and offers new challenges. Scientific fields, particularly medical imaging, geophysical exploration, signal reconstruction, non-destructive evaluation, and parameter estimation of partial differential equations, are utilizing new theory and computations to solve problems associated with retrieving partially concealed structures via indirect measurements. Forward models are typically well-structured and stable, whereas inverse reconstruction processes are typically unstable. Much of the current literature focuses on this instability, stating that the instability an inverse problem presents is not a numerical one but a structural one and that this instability is a result of the underlying operator equations [1, 2, 3].

The modern theory on ill-posedness focuses on a solution's continuous dependence on data, or the lack of it. Even when existence or uniqueness is proven, reconstructed solutions may still diverge under small measurement perturbations. Recent operator-theoretic analyses attribute such instabilities to operator compactness and spectral decay [4, 5, 6]. These findings show that inverse problem theory in infinite-dimensional spaces differs fundamentally from finite-dimensional linear systems and therefore requires specific regularization strategies. In the Hilbert space framework, inverse problems are written as equations involving linear operators in infinite-dimensional spaces. An unknown element is mapped by a forward operator to data, and the character of the inverse problem depends on the analytical properties of this operator. If the operator is compact, the inverse, if it exists formally, must be unbounded. By studying singular value distributions and the operator range structure, the ill-posedness of such problems can be classified more precisely [7, 8, 9]. These spectral properties form the foundation of regularization theory.

The degree to which a problem is ill-posed is determined by the speed of singular value decay. Polynomial decay is considered mild, while exponential decay is considered more severe. Contemporary analyses have studied the impact of such spectral characteristics on convergence rates and reconstruction accuracy [10, 11, 12]. Measurements are always accompanied by noise due to modeling error, discretization, or random noise, and recent studies have pointed out how reconstruction stability should be analyzed with respect to specific noise models and perturbation bounds [3, 13]. Without sufficient stabilization, inversion processes enhance noise affecting the small singular values of the data, producing reconstructions that are unable to provide useful information [4, 14].

Regularization offers one of the primary methods to increase stability. Instead of directly inverting the operator, one creates a sequence of stable approximations to the inverse determined by a regularization constant. Recent works have shown that classical Tikhonov-type frameworks can be generalized to include multi-penalty, fractional, and hybrid regularization [3, 5, 15]. Modifications to regularized iterative techniques, including Landweber and Newton-type methods, have also been made to enhance convergence rates and stability for large-scale problems [2, 16].

Recent spectral filtering methods provide a useful way of unifying mechanisms across disciplines. From this viewpoint, each method corresponds to a spectral filtering operator, where unstable components are reduced while stable modes are conserved. Recent theoretical studies have clarified that filter functions determine convergence, saturation behavior, and noise robustness [6, 8, 17]. Another important element of regularization theory is parameter choice, and recent research has focused on the discrepancy principle, adaptive parameters, and hybrid selection methods in which analytical and data-driven methodologies are combined [4, 10, 18]. In a broader computational context, learning-enhanced

predictive frameworks have also shown that integrating structured representations with optimization-based tuning can improve model reliability under complex data conditions [5]. The relationship between theoretical convergence rates and practical parameter selection continues to be a central concern in the inverse problem community [1, 19].

The most recent literature suggests that classical, generalized, and fractional regularization techniques, together with extended spectral filtering, still face limitations due to saturation phenomena, which restrict convergence rates even when the underlying solution has higher-order smoothness [3, 15, 20]. The Hilbert space environment remains especially useful for analyzing these effects, as its geometry supports the formulation of estimates and convergence rates. Recent research also emphasizes operator-based analysis of learning-based regularization and hybrid iterative methods [9, 16], whose integration with classical functional analysis further strengthens regularization theory in Hilbert spaces. The main aim of this paper is to provide an analytically complete study of regularization techniques for ill-posed linear operator equations in Hilbert spaces. It examines spectral descriptions of ill-posedness, compares classical and modern regularization methods, discusses parameter choice strategies, and studies asymptotic convergence, with emphasis on how operator compactness and spectral decay affect reconstruction quality. Subsequent sections elaborate on spectral analysis, compare regularization methods, and discuss stability and convergence under a range of structural assumptions.

## 2. SPECTRAL CHARACTERIZATION AND PICARD CONDITION ANALYSIS

The roots of the instability of inverse problems in Hilbert spaces lie in determining the spectrum of the forward operator. Unlike finite-dimensional linear systems, singular values of compact operators in infinitely-dimensional spaces accumulate at zero. This mechanism of spectral collapse is the primary cause of ill-posedness. This section builds the spectral theory of compact operators and explains the Picard condition in the solvability and stability framework.

The linear operator  $A : \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2$  is compact. In the separable Hilbert spaces, we have the singular value decomposition theorem, which gives orthonormal systems  $\{u_i\} \subset \mathcal{H}_2$  and  $\{v_i\} \subset \mathcal{H}_1$ , and a sequence of nonnegative singular values  $\{\sigma_i\}$  such that

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \dots \rightarrow 0, \quad (2.1)$$

such that

$$Av_i = \sigma_i u_i, \quad A^* u_i = \sigma_i v_i. \quad (2.2)$$

This decomposition leads to the spectral expansion

$$Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sigma_i \langle x, v_i \rangle u_i, \quad (2.3)$$

converging in  $\mathcal{H}_2$  for every  $x \in \mathcal{H}_1$ . The forward mapping defined in (2.3) is continuous, and while this is true the inverse mapping is unconstrained when  $\sigma_i \rightarrow 0$  [23].

The singular value sequence describes the extent and nature of ill-posedness [3]. For many inverse problems related to some smoothing operator or integral equation, the sequence has either polynomial or exponential decay. Polynomial decay of the type

$$\sigma_i \sim i^{-p}, \quad p > 0, \quad (2.4)$$

represents mildly ill-posed problems, while the singular value decay of

$$\sigma_i \sim e^{-qi}, \quad q > 0, \quad (2.5)$$

describes severely ill-posed problems [7, 24]. These two types of singular value decay are shown in Figure 1.

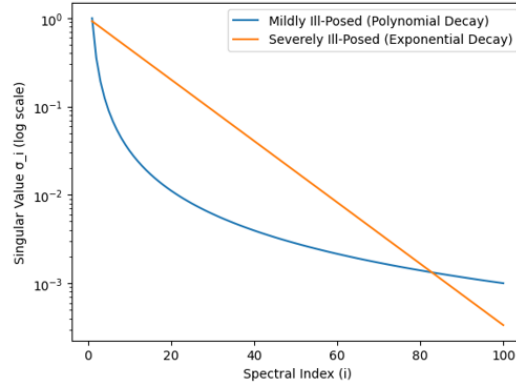


FIGURE 1. Singular Value Decay for Mildly and Severely Ill-Posed Operators

Formally, we have the operator of the equation

$$Ax = y \tag{2.6}$$

describing an operator being inverted, we can have the spectral description of the solution

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle y, u_i \rangle}{\sigma_i} v_i. \tag{2.7}$$

Expression (2.7) shows the source of the instability [21]. When  $\sigma_i \rightarrow 0$ , the factors  $1/\sigma_i$  grow, especially at high spectral indices. Let us say the available data has been perturbed by

$$y^\delta = y + \delta\eta, \tag{2.8}$$

where  $\delta > 0$  represents the magnitude of noise, and  $\eta$  is a disturbance with unit norm. Plugging (2.8) into (2.7) gives:

$$x^\delta = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle y, u_i \rangle}{\sigma_i} v_i + \delta \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle \eta, u_i \rangle}{\sigma_i} v_i. \tag{2.9}$$

Because the coefficients are divided by increasingly smaller singular values, the noise component dominates the expansion for large indices [8, 25]. Figure 2 demonstrates how the amplification factor  $1/\sigma_i$  grows with the spectral index. The coherence between the

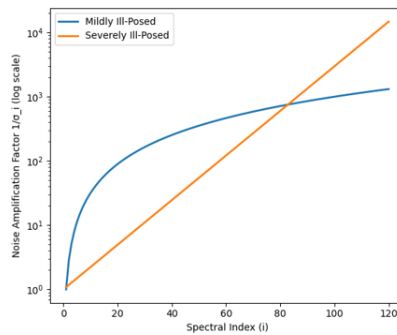


FIGURE 2. Instability of the Naïve Inverse: Noise Amplification vs Spectral Index

singular values and the data coefficients is formalized in the Picard condition [9]. A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a minimum-norm solution is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{|\langle y, u_i \rangle|^2}{\sigma_i^2} < \infty. \quad (2.10)$$

Condition (2.10) requires the spectral coefficients of the data to decay sufficiently fast relative to the singular values; otherwise, the series in (2.7) diverges. Figure 3 shows this through the Picard plot of  $\sigma_i$  and  $|\langle y, u_i \rangle|$  against the index  $i$ , where noise causes the coefficient curve to level out beyond a certain spectral index [22]. Figure 4 compares polynomial and exponential decay, showing greater instability in the exponential case, where components beyond the transition point become noise-dominated and amplify error through the factor  $1/\sigma_i$ .

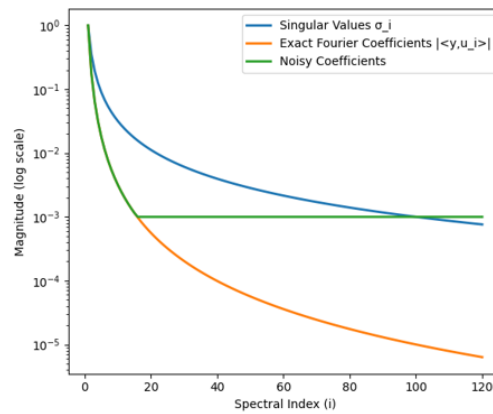


FIGURE 3. Picard Plot: Decay of Fourier Coefficients and Singular Values

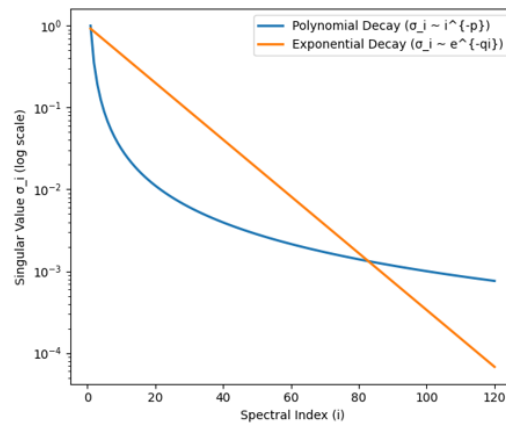


FIGURE 4. Comparison of Polynomial and Exponential Spectral Decay

The spectral analysis in this section shows that ill-posedness is linked to compactness and singular value decay [26]. The Picard condition describes the compatibility that must be present for a solution to exist, while the classification of mild and severe ill-posedness provides a measure of the extent to which the system can be unstable.

### 3. CLASSICAL REGULARIZATION METHODS AND ERROR DECOMPOSITION

The primary mathematical hindrance in inverse operator equations is not the lack of a formal inverse, but the loss of continuity of the inverse function when the forward operator is compact. Classical regularization techniques resolve this by constructing a de-parameterized family of bounded solution operators for which the user specifies a parameter that balances the trade-off between approximation and stability. Here, we look at the classical techniques through the unified spectral-filter framework and then examine the reconstruction error in terms of bias-type and variance-type components.

We state the regularized solution to be the response of a bounded linear operator corresponding to perturbed data. Thus we consider a parametric family of operators

$$R_\alpha : \mathcal{H}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1, \tag{3.1}$$

and associate the calculated solution with

$$x_\alpha^\delta = R_\alpha y^\delta, \tag{3.2}$$

where  $y^\delta$  is the noisy data and  $\delta$  is a measure of the level of perturbation. The regularizing structural requirement is that regularization should recover exact solutions for exact data. This is expressed through

$$\lim_{\alpha \downarrow 0} R_\alpha(Ax) = x, \quad x \in \mathcal{H}_1. \tag{3.3}$$

It is mathematically practical to define the operator of "reconstruction"

$$T_\alpha := R_\alpha A, \tag{3.4}$$

so that (3.3) becomes an approximation-to-identity condition

$$T_\alpha \rightarrow I \text{ strongly as } \alpha \downarrow 0. \tag{3.5}$$

Stability is satisfied if

$$\| R_\alpha \| < \infty \text{ for each fixed } \alpha > 0. \tag{3.6}$$

In the context of Hilbert spaces, classical regularization can be viewed in terms of spectral damping. We therefore write

$$x_\alpha^\delta = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} g_\alpha(\sigma_i) \langle y^\delta, u_i \rangle v_i, \tag{3.7}$$

where  $g_\alpha$  is the filter and  $\{u_i\}, \{v_i\}$  are the singular vectors and  $\sigma_i$  the singular values. The corresponding reconstruction operator acts diagonally in the singular basis,

$$T_\alpha x = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \phi_\alpha(\sigma_i) \langle x, v_i \rangle v_i, \tag{3.8}$$

where the damping factor is

$$\phi_\alpha(\sigma) := \sigma g_\alpha(\sigma). \tag{3.9}$$

For consistency in the noise-free limit,

$$\lim_{\alpha \downarrow 0} \phi_\alpha(\sigma) = 1 \quad (\sigma > 0). \tag{3.10}$$

In many classical schemes, stability is controlled by the growth of the filter. The third is data space residual governed by the complementary factor  $1 - \phi_\alpha$ . Figure 5 illustrates the functions  $g_\alpha(\sigma)$  and  $\phi_\alpha(\sigma)$  for several classical methodologies, showing how very high-index components are suppressed and very low-index components are approximately inverted.

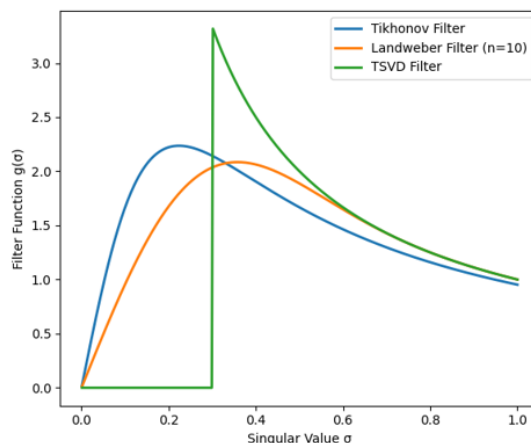


FIGURE 5. Spectral Filter Functions Associated with Regularization Schemes

We now consider Tikhonov regularization, the prototypical quadratic stabilization method for linear inverse problems in Hilbert spaces. Instead of attempting to solve  $Ax = y^\delta$  directly, one looks for  $x_\alpha^\delta$  that is the minimizer of the penalized functional

$$\mathcal{J}_\alpha(x) = \|Ax - y^\delta\|^2 + \alpha \|x\|^2. \quad (3.11)$$

The regularization parameter  $\alpha > 0$  determines the balance between residual minimization and penalization of the norm. The first-order optimality condition delivers the normal equation

$$(A^*A + \alpha I)x_\alpha^\delta = A^*y^\delta. \quad (3.12)$$

As a consequence, an explicit representation for the regularization operator can be formed as follows:

$$R_\alpha = (A^*A + \alpha I)^{-1}A^*. \quad (3.13)$$

In the singular value decomposition, the method is applied via the scalar filter function

$$g_\alpha(\sigma) = \frac{\sigma}{\sigma^2 + \alpha}, \quad (3.14)$$

and therefore, the damping factor is

$$\phi_\alpha(\sigma) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + \alpha}. \quad (3.15)$$

For large singular values,  $g_\alpha(\sigma)$  behaves approximately like  $1/\sigma$ , while for small singular values the denominator dominates and controls amplification. The operator norm satisfies:

$$\|R_\alpha\| \leq \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\alpha}}. \quad (3.16)$$

These relations explain the classical bias–variance structure of Tikhonov regularization. For large  $\alpha$ , the singular value filter suppresses small singular values, causing over smoothing and dominant approximation error. When  $\alpha$  is too small, the amplification bound increases and significant noise is introduced into the solution. Figure 6 depicts this trade-off.

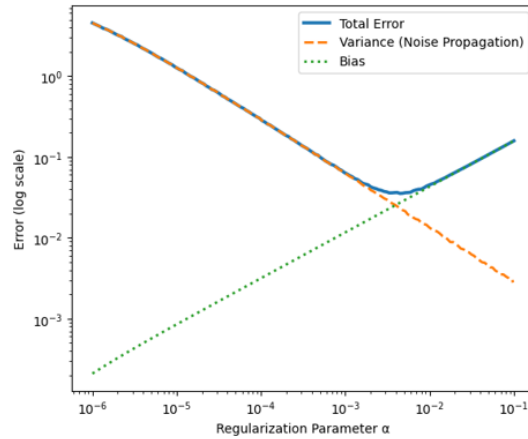


FIGURE 6. Bias–Variance Trade-Off in Tikhonov Regularization

The total error decomposition

$$x_\alpha^\delta - x^\dagger = (x_\alpha^\delta - x_\alpha) + (x_\alpha - x^\dagger). \tag{3.17}$$

The first term is the noise propagation term. Using (3.2) and (3.16),

$$\|x_\alpha^\delta - x_\alpha\| = \|R_\alpha(y^\delta - y)\| \leq \|R_\alpha\| \delta \leq \frac{\delta}{2\sqrt{\alpha}}. \tag{3.18}$$

The second term is the approximation error or bias. Using (3.8)-(3.9) and (3.15), the spectral bias satisfies

$$\|x_\alpha - x^\dagger\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\alpha}{\sigma_i^2 + \alpha} \right)^2 |\langle x^\dagger, v_i \rangle|^2, \tag{3.19}$$

which explains the bias-variance trade-off presented in Figure 6.

The Truncated Singular Value Decomposition (TSVD) controls instability differently through spectral truncation. Denote  $k$  as the truncation index, and define the truncated solution as

$$x_k^\delta = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\langle y^\delta, u_i \rangle}{\sigma_i} v_i. \tag{3.20}$$

TSVD can also be considered as the application of the filter

$$g_k(\sigma_i) = \begin{cases} 1/\sigma_i, & i \leq k, \\ 0, & i > k. \end{cases} \tag{3.21}$$

If  $k$  increases, the approximation improves, but stability reduces because the smallest retained singular values diminish and amplify noise. This balance is shown in Figure 7.

The total reconstruction error is described through a noise propagation term and a truncation bias term. Using the orthonormality of the singular vectors, we have

$$\|x_k^\delta - x_k\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{|\langle y^\delta - y, u_i \rangle|^2}{\sigma_i^2} \leq \delta^2 \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{\sigma_i^2}. \tag{3.22}$$

The truncation bias describes the second term:

$$\|x_k - x^\dagger\|^2 = \sum_{i=k+1}^{\infty} |\langle x^\dagger, v_i \rangle|^2. \tag{3.23}$$

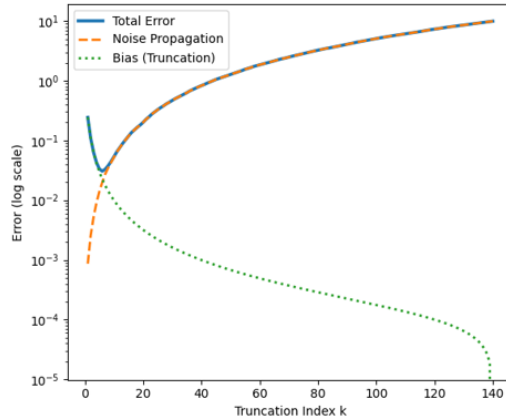


FIGURE 7. Error Behavior vs Truncation Index in TSVD

As  $k$  increases, this bias term decreases. TSVD may be viewed as the hard-cutoff analogue of Tikhonov smoothing.

Unlike other regularization approaches that rely on spectral modifications, iterative approaches use early stopping as their regularization mechanism. This is the classic semi-convergence behavior, where the reconstruction error, after initially decreasing as the dominant modes are captured, eventually increases as the noise-dominated modes are captured. This phenomenon is seen in Figure 8.

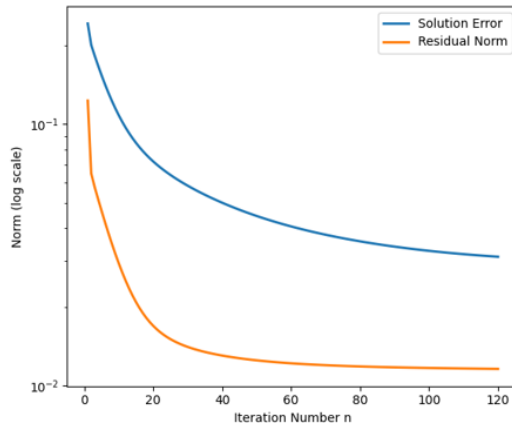


FIGURE 8. Convergence of Iterative Regularization Methods

In spectral form, the  $n$ -th iterate satisfies

$$x^{(n)} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} g_n(\sigma_i) \langle y^\delta, u_i \rangle v_i, \tag{3.24}$$

Landweber iteration induces a polynomial spectral filter whose shape depends on the iteration count. Early stopping therefore acts as a dynamic regularization parameter. The residual satisfies

$$\| Ax^{(n)} - y^\delta \|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (1 - \omega \sigma_i^2)^{2n} |\langle y^\delta, u_i \rangle|^2, \tag{3.25}$$

which shows that the data residual typically decreases as  $n$  increases. However, this does not guarantee monotone decrease of the solution error, as amplification of noise-dominated spectral components could happen at later iterations.

For any spectral regularization method, total error can be viewed in terms of the sum of a propagated noise term and an approximation term. Let  $x^\dagger$  denote the exact solution. Then one can write

$$x_\alpha^\delta - x^\dagger = R_\alpha(y^\delta - y) + (T_\alpha - I)x^\dagger. \tag{3.26}$$

Considering norm, we get

$$\|x_\alpha^\delta - x^\dagger\| \leq \|R_\alpha\| \delta + \|(T_\alpha - I)x^\dagger\|. \tag{3.27}$$

If the filter is classically qualified, one can derive a bias estimate of the kind

$$\|(T_\alpha - I)x^\dagger\| \leq C\alpha^\mu. \tag{3.28}$$

Finally, combining these bounds, one obtains the classical trade-off

$$\|x_\alpha^\delta - x^\dagger\| \leq C \left( \alpha^\mu + \frac{\delta}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \right), \tag{3.29}$$

which analytically captures what is shown in Figure 6. Table 1 summarizes the main methods.

**Table 1.** Comparison of Classical Regularization Methods in Hilbert Spaces

Method	Regularized Solution Representation	Spectral Filter $g(\lambda), \lambda = \sigma_i^2$	Stabilization Mechanism
Tikhonov Regularization	$x_\alpha^\delta = (A^*A + \alpha I)^{-1}A^*y^\delta$	$g_\alpha(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\lambda + \alpha}$	Smooth damping of small singular values
Truncated SVD (TSVD)	$x_k^\delta = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\langle y^\delta, u_i \rangle}{\sigma_i} v_i$	$g_k(\lambda_i) = \frac{1}{\lambda_i} 1_{i \leq k}$	Hard spectral cutoff at index $k$
Landweber Iteration (early stopping)	$x^{(n+1)} = x^{(n)} + \omega A^*(y^\delta - Ax^{(n)}), x^{(0)} = 0$	$g_n(\lambda) = \frac{1 - (1 - \omega\lambda)^n}{\lambda}$	Polynomial filtering via finite iteration
Iterated Tikhonov (order $m$ )	$x_\alpha^{(m)} = (A^*A + \alpha I)^{-1}(A^*y^\delta + \alpha x_\alpha^{(m-1)}), x_\alpha^{(0)} = 0$	$g_\alpha^{(m)}(\lambda) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{\alpha}{\lambda + \alpha} \right)^m \right)$	Repeated smoothing with bias refinement

#### 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION: PARAMETER CHOICE THEORY AND SPECTRAL REGULARIZATION EXTENSIONS

While the construction of bounded regularization operators offers stability on the operator scale, stability alone does not guarantee quality of reconstruction. A bounded operator prevents perturbations from growing uncontrollably, but this does not mean that the reconstructed solution will retain the essential structure of the unknown. For this reason, the regularization parameter becomes the main control mechanism in practical inversion. A regularization parameter that is too small reproduces the unstable inverse and allows noise to dominate the output. A parameter that is too large produces excessive smoothing and removes important features of the solution, thereby increasing bias. It is therefore appropriate to formulate parameter choice as the minimization of the total reconstruction error

$$\mathcal{E}(\alpha, \delta) = \|x_\alpha^\delta - x^\dagger\|, \tag{4.1}$$

where  $x_\alpha^\delta$  is the regularized solution associated with perturbed data and  $x^\dagger$  is the actual solution.

The discrepancy principle is a classic rule based on the residual between the reconstructed data and the perturbed observation, and suggests selecting  $\alpha = \alpha_\delta$  such that

$$r(\alpha_\delta) = \tau\delta, \quad \tau > 1. \tag{4.2}$$

This rule matches the residual to the noise level with a safety factor  $\tau$ , avoiding overfitting while still respecting the data. Under suitable source conditions and stability assumptions, the regularized solution converges to the exact one. This mechanism is shown in Figure 9.

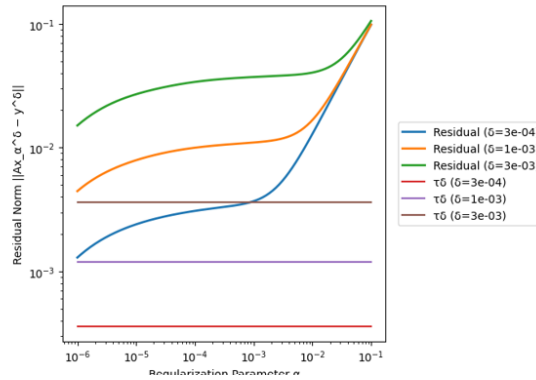


FIGURE 9. Discrepancy Principle: Residual Evolution vs Noise Level

When the noise level is not available, geometric parameter choice becomes attractive. The L-curve method examines the relation between the logarithm of the residual norm and the logarithm of the solution norm, which typically forms a corner separating high residual–low norm and low residual–high norm behavior. The optimal parameter is selected at the point of maximum curvature. Figure 10 shows this corner geometry.

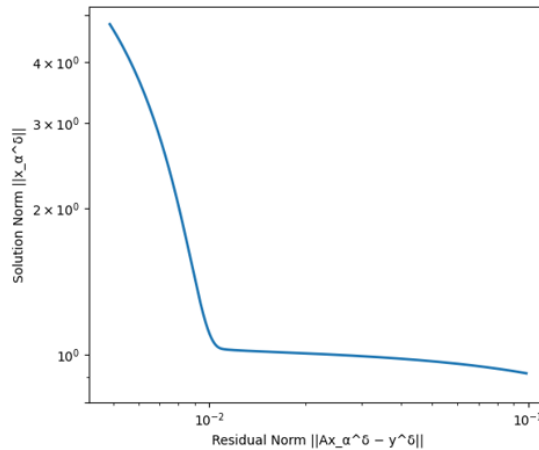


FIGURE 10. L-Curve Criterion: Residual Norm vs Solution Norm

Balancing the approximation and stability contributions leads to the scaling relation

$$\alpha_{opt} \asymp \delta^{\frac{1}{\mu+\nu}}, \tag{4.3}$$

which implies the optimal convergence rate

$$\mathcal{E}(\alpha_{opt}, \delta) \asymp \delta^{\frac{\mu}{\mu+\nu}}. \tag{4.4}$$

This shows that the optimal choice of the parameter leads to algebraic convergence rates resulting from the balance between the smoothness of the solution and the spectral decay. Figure 11 shows this scaling behavior numerically.

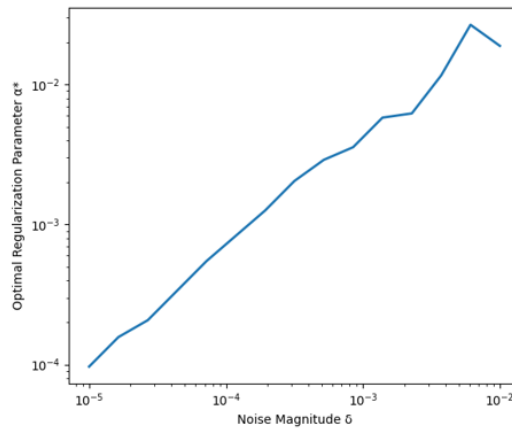


FIGURE 11. Optimal Regularization Parameter vs Noise Magnitude

Besides quadratic penalization, fractional spectral filters allow greater versatility in shaping the bias-stability trade-off. The additional parameter  $s$  adjusts the strength and profile of spectral attenuation, providing finer control of the balance between approximation and stability. Figure 12 shows that, for various fractional orders, the decay rate of the reconstruction error changes.

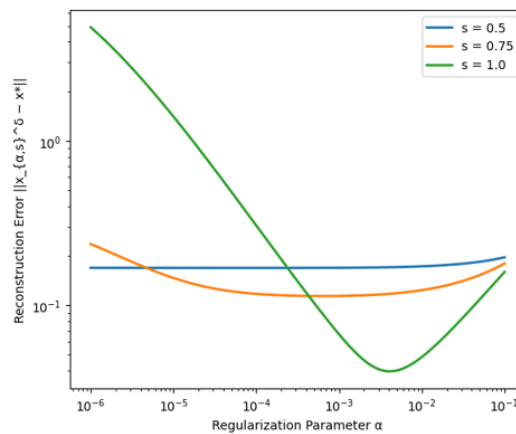


FIGURE 12. Error Decay under Fractional Regularization for Different Orders

In severely ill-posed problems, if the singular values decay exponentially,

$$\sigma_i \asymp e^{-\beta i}, \quad \beta > 0, \tag{4.5}$$

the inverse problem becomes fundamentally more unstable. The best choice of parameters yields convergence at best logarithmically,

$$\mathcal{E}(\alpha_\delta, \delta) \asymp |\log \delta|^{-\gamma}, \quad (4.6)$$

which describes limitations imposed by information theory rather than the regularization technique employed. This effect is demonstrated in Figure 13.

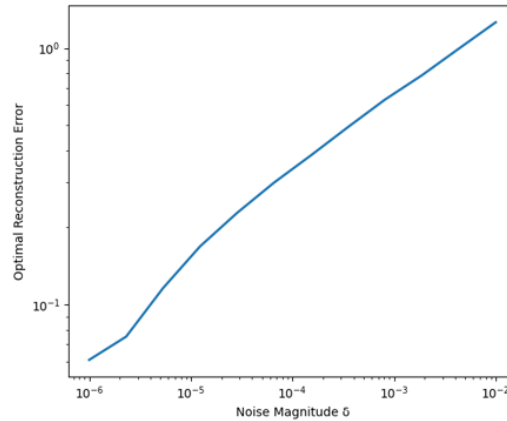


FIGURE 13. Saturation Phenomenon: Error vs Noise Level in Severe Ill-Posedness

Table 2 integrates the main strategies of parameter choice and the related theories of sufficiency, contrasting a priori scaling laws with a posteriori strategy such as the discrepancy principle and the L-curve criterion.

**Table 2.** Parameter Choice Rules and Their Theoretical Guarantees

Rule	Criterion	Guarantee
Discrepancy Principle	$\ Ax_\alpha^\delta - y^\delta\  = \tau\delta$	Strong convergence
L-Curve Criterion	Maximum curvature	Empirical convergence
Balancing Principle	Bias $\approx$ stability	Scaling law
Quasi-Optimality Principle	Minimize successive difference	Conditional convergence
Generalized Cross Validation (GCV)	Minimize predictive risk	Mean-square convergence
A priori Rule	$\alpha \asymp \delta^{1/(\mu+\nu)}$	Optimal convergence rate

## 5. CONCLUSION

In this research, a singular operator-theoretic framework has been proposed for the analysis of regularization techniques used for resolving ill-posed linear operator problems in Hilbert spaces. Beginning with the compact equation  $Ax = y$ , the analysis showed that the ill-posedness of such equations resides in the spectral decay  $\sigma_k \rightarrow 0$ , which alters

bounded invertibility and makes the formal inverse unstable. It was illustrated, via singular system representation, that instability is a product of the amplification components  $\sigma_k^{-1}$  due to small singular values. Encapsulated in the form of  $x_\alpha^\delta = R_\alpha y^\delta$ , regularization was seen as a means of spectral modification of the operator, incorporating stabilization into the functional calculus applied to  $A^*A$ . This operator-theoretic perspective provided a coherent way to analyze instability, approximation, and noise. Unified representations for spectral filters were developed for Tikhonov regularization, truncated singular value decomposition, and iterative polynomial filtering. Each method was developed to replace the unstable factor  $\sigma_k^{-1}$  with a bounded filter function  $g_\alpha(\sigma_k^2)\sigma_k$ , which suppresses high-frequency amplifications. For the reconstruction error, the structural decomposition  $\|x_\alpha^\delta - x^\dagger\| \leq \|(I - R_\alpha A)x^\dagger\| + \|R_\alpha(y^\delta - y)\|$  illustrated the bias-variance decomposition that affects the regularization process.

In the mildly ill-posed regime, polynomial spectral decay for the convergence rate demonstrated that the optimal parameter balancing produced algebraic convergence rates like  $\|x_{\alpha(\delta)}^\delta - x^\dagger\| \asymp \delta^{\mu/(\mu+\nu)}$ , linking reconstruction accuracy to the smoothness of the exact solution and the decay behavior of the forward operator. The investigation also clarified that regularization design cannot be disentangled from parameter choice theory. The optimal parameter is achieved by balancing approximation and perturbation, leading asymptotically to  $\alpha_{opt} \asymp \delta^{1/(\mu+\nu)}$ , a relationship that forms the basis of both a priori scaling laws and adaptive rules, including the discrepancy principle  $\|Ax_{\alpha_\delta}^\delta - y^\delta\| = \tau\delta$ . Geometric choice methods such as the L-curve method were seen as concrete instances of this balancing mechanism. Thus, parameter choice is not merely a computational device, but an essential element of convergence theory.

The research further considered fractional spectral regularization and showed that stability is maintained while approximation behavior can be improved through continuously adjusted qualification order. However, in the extremely ill-posed case, where exponential spectral decay  $\sigma_k \asymp e^{-\beta k}$  is present, a logarithmic convergence barrier  $\|x_{\alpha(\delta)}^\delta - x^\dagger\| \asymp |\log \delta|^{-\mu}$  remains, reflecting an intrinsic saturation behavior that does not depend on the particular filter. This shows that the spectral structure of the forward operator determines the ultimate limit of regularized reconstruction. Overall, the work integrates spectral theory, regularization design, parameter choice, and asymptotic convergence into a single Hilbert-space framework for inverse problems, while also indicating future scope for nonlinear inverse problems, adaptive multi-parameter regularization, and data-based spectral filtering in infinite-dimensional settings.

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