

# Least-Squares

Ashek Ahmmed  
University of New South Wales

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Let's consider  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  where  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ . Previously I learnt about a type of problem: *find a  $\mathbf{x}$  that gives  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_{des}$  in the output but if it is not possible to achieve then find a  $\mathbf{x}$  for which I can get as close as possible to  $\mathbf{y}_{des}$  in the output*. The question that arises is **why it is not possible to have  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}_{des}$  at the first place?** The answer is  $\mathbf{y}_{des} \notin C(A)$ . Therefore no matter how hard I try, I won't be able to hit  $\mathbf{y}_{des}$  by using the linear combinations of the columns of  $A$ .

## 0.1 Overdetermined Linear Equations

If  $m > n$  then  $A$  is a *skinny* matrix. [If  $m \gg n$  then  $A$  is called *strictly skinny*].

- this type of system is called **overdetermined** i.e. more equations than unknowns.

The image shows a handwritten mathematical note. It starts with five equations in two variables  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 &= a_3 \\ b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 &= b_3 \\ c_1x_1 + c_2x_2 &= c_3 \\ d_1x_1 + d_2x_2 &= d_3 \\ e_1x_1 + e_2x_2 &= e_3 \end{aligned}$$

These are followed by a matrix equation:

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & a_2 \\ b_1 & b_2 \\ c_1 & c_2 \\ d_1 & d_2 \\ e_1 & e_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_3 \\ b_3 \\ c_3 \\ d_3 \\ e_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Below this, a handwritten note states: "2 unknowns  $x_1$  &  $x_2$  but 5 equations (2 equations are enough)".

Figure 1: 2 equations would have been sufficient but 5 equations are given.

From Figure 1 it can be stated that to measure/estimate  $n$  things I am using  $m$  sensors. I have too many sensors in the output i.e. I am producing more than enough output readings.

- for most  $\mathbf{y}$ , I can not hit/achieve them by using the linear combinations of the columns of  $A$  i.e. for most  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{R}^m$  I am unable to find a  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$  such that  $\mathbf{y} = A\mathbf{x}$ . This is because the output space  $\mathbf{R}^m$  and the column space  $C(A)$  are not the same thing here rather  $C(A)$  is a tiny subspace of the output space. Recall that it is possible to hit/achieve only those vectors which are in  $C(A)$ .

## 0.2 (Approximate) Solution for Overdetermined Systems

Notice that it is not possible to solve an overdetermined system. So whenever I use the term "solution" in this case it means I am talking about an approximate solution. Two things to consider here:

- it is not possible to achieve  $\mathbf{y}_{des}$  so I want to get as close as possible to it.
- it is not possible to achieve any  $\mathbf{y} \notin C(A)$ .

Combining these two facts I have no other choice other than to set my objective as: *I want such a  $\mathbf{y}$  that is close to  $\mathbf{y}_{des}$  and at the same time this  $\mathbf{y} \in C(A)$* . That means give me the closest point (recall that every vector is a point in the vector space) on  $C(A)$  from  $\mathbf{y}_{des}$ . To formulate things, I can state that I have to solve the following optimization problem:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min_{\mathbf{y}} & \|\mathbf{y}_{des} - \mathbf{y}\|_2 \\ \text{s.t.} & \mathbf{y} \in C(A) \end{array}$$

or equivalently,

$$\begin{aligned}
& \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} - A\mathbf{x}\|_2 \\
\Rightarrow & \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} - A\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 \\
\Rightarrow & \min_{\mathbf{x}} \sum_{i=1}^m ((\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}})_i - \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x})^2 \\
\Rightarrow & \min_{\mathbf{x}} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{r}_i^2 \\
\Rightarrow & \min_{\mathbf{x}} \|\mathbf{r}\|^2
\end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The optimization problem (1) is called the *least-squares* problem and note that it is an unconstrained problem. The solution to this optimization problem  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}}$  is called the *least-squares* (approximate) solution which suggests that among all  $\mathbf{y} \in C(A)$ ,  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{ls}} = A\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}}$  is the closest from  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$  i.e.  $\|\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} - \mathbf{y}_{\text{ls}}\|$  is minimum and  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{ls}} \in C(A)$  as well :)

### 0.3 Geometric Interpretation

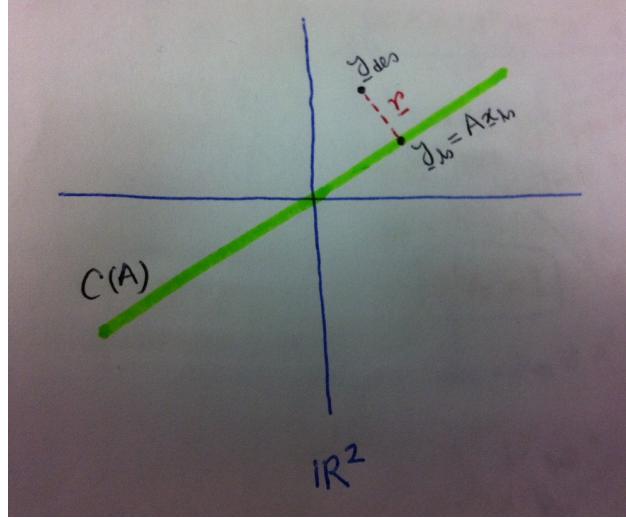


Figure 2:  $C(A)$  is a 1D subspace inside  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} \notin C(A)$ .

We have seen that  $A\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}}$  is the point in  $C(A)$  closest to  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$ . Geometrically,  $A\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}}$  is the projection of  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$  onto  $C(A)$  because the distance i.e. the norm of the residual  $\mathbf{r}$  is minimum when  $\mathbf{r} \perp C(A)$  and this happens only when  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{ls}}$  is the projection of  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$  onto  $C(A)$ .

$$\mathbf{y}_{\text{ls}} = P \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} \tag{2}$$

where  $P$  is the *projection matrix* which operates on a vector and returns that vector's projection as the output.

### 0.4 Least-squares(Accurate) Solution

Let's assume that  $A$  is skinny and full rank ( $= n$ ) i.e.  $A$  is *one-to-one* matrix. Later on we will realize the advantage of this assumption. To find  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}}$  we need to solve (1) i.e. find the point  $\mathbf{x}$  where the optimization

function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  of (1) attains its minimum value.

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(\mathbf{x}) &= \|\mathbf{r}\|^2 = \mathbf{r}^T \mathbf{r} = (\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} - A\mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} - A\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}^T - \mathbf{x}^T A^T)(\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} - A\mathbf{x}) \\
 &= \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}^T \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} - \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}^T A\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^T A^T \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} + \mathbf{x}^T A^T A\mathbf{x} \\
 &= \mathbf{x}^T A^T A\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}^T (A\mathbf{x}) + \|\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}\|^2
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

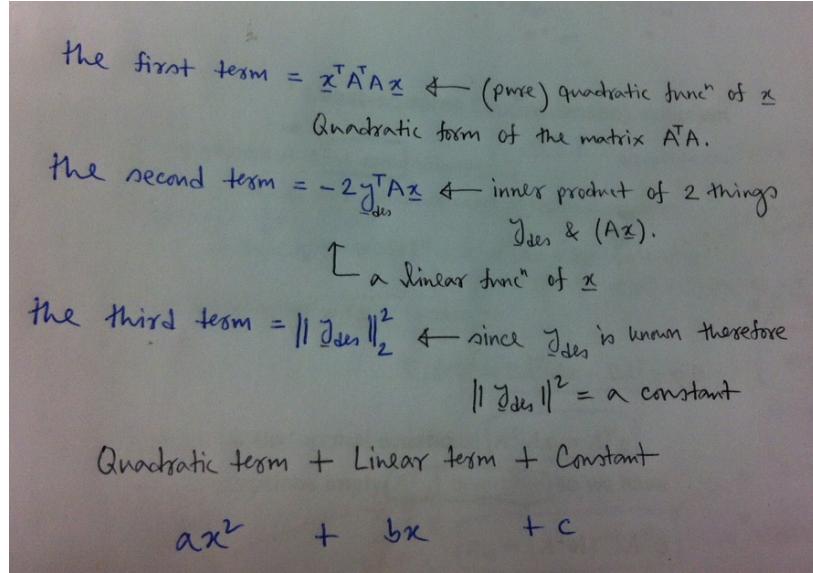


Figure 3: The objective function of (1) is a *quadratic function* in the optimization variable  $\mathbf{x}$ .

To find the minimum point of the objective function (3) let's take its gradient w.r.t.  $\mathbf{x}$  and set that to zero:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f &= 2A^T A \mathbf{x} - 2A^T \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} = \mathbf{0} \\
 \Rightarrow A^T A \mathbf{x} &= A^T \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}
 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

How we ended up at (4) has been shown in Figure 4.

We made the assumption that  $A$  is full rank i.e.  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ . As  $\text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(A) = \text{rank}(A^T)$  therefore  $A^T A$  is full rank and it is square as well. Hence  $A^T A$  is invertible i.e.  $(A^T A)^{-1}$  exists. Please note that being square is not enough to be invertible e.g.  $AA^T \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times m}$  is also square but it has rank  $n$  which is less than  $m$  hence  $AA^T$  is not full rank therefore not invertible. So it is the rank of a matrix that plays the most important role behind its singularity. From (4) we get our least-squares (approximate) solution  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}}$  as:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}} \tag{5}$$

which is a very famous formula. So famous that in MATLAB we have an (\) operator reserved for it:  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}} = A \backslash \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$ ... so simple! Finally we have found the  $\mathbf{x}$  which would take us as close as possible to  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$ . Let's now turn our attention to (5) and analyze it.

- $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}}$  is a linear function of  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$ .

this is because (5) can be re-written as:  $\mathbf{x}_{\text{ls}} = B_{\text{ls}} \mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$  which is a linear operation on  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{des}}$  where  $B_{\text{ls}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ .

$$f(\underline{x}) = \underline{x}^T A^T A \underline{x} - 2 \underline{y}^T A \underline{x} + c$$
 Let,  $\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\underline{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$ .  $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 + c^2 & ab + cd \\ ab + cd & b^2 + d^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\text{term}_1 = \underline{x}^T A^T A \underline{x}$$

$$= ex_1^2 + 2gx_1x_2 + hx_2^2$$

$$\text{term}_2 = -2 \underline{y}^T A \underline{x}$$

$$= -2(ax_1y_1 + bx_2y_1 + cx_1y_2 + dx_2y_2)$$

$$\frac{\delta (\text{term}_1)}{\delta x_1} = 2ex_1 + 2gy_2 \quad \frac{\delta (\text{term}_2)}{\delta x_1} = -2(ay_1 + cy_2)$$

$$\frac{\delta (\text{term}_1)}{\delta x_2} = 2gx_1 + 2hy_2 \quad \frac{\delta (\text{term}_2)}{\delta x_2} = -2(by_1 + dy_2)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\delta}{\delta x_1} (\text{term}_1) \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta x_2} (\text{term}_1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2e & 2g \\ 2g & 2h \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\delta}{\delta x_1} (\text{term}_2) \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta x_2} (\text{term}_2) \end{bmatrix} = -2 \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= 2A^T A \underline{x} \quad = -2A^T \underline{y}$$

Figure 4: An example showing how we ended up at (4).

- if  $A$  is full rank and square:  $\mathbf{x}_{ls} = A^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{des}$ .

this is because now  $A$  is invertible while for  $A$  being full rank, skinny  $A$  was singular i.e. typing  $A^{-1}$  produced *Syntax Error*.

$$\mathbf{x}_{ls} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{y}_{des} = A^{-1} (A^T)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{y}_{des} = A^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{des}$$

all these tell me that the matrix  $(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  is related to the *inverse* of  $A$  and when  $A$  is square it is in fact  $A^{-1}$ . Therefore the matrix  $(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  stands for a more generalized inverse and is known as the *pseudo inverse* or *Moore-Penrose inverse*.

1. if  $A$  is **full rank, skinny** then its inverse is:  $A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ .
2. if  $A$  is **full rank, square** then its inverse is:  $A^{-1}$ .

**Rank interpretation:** since  $A$  is full rank and square therefore the column space is no longer a tiny subspace of the output space  $\mathbf{R}^m$  rather they are the same thing i.e.  $C(A) = \mathbf{R}^m$ . This tells me that any  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{R}^m$  is achievable by using the linear combination of the columns of  $A$ . And that linear combination  $\mathbf{x}$  is simply given by:  $B\mathbf{y}$  where  $B = A^{-1}$ .

- if I had  $\mathbf{y}_{des} \in C(A)$  then I would have had:  $A\mathbf{x}_{ls} = \mathbf{y}_{des}$ .

$\mathbf{x}_{ls}$  always tries to minimize  $\|\mathbf{y}_{des} - A\mathbf{x}\|$  and for  $\mathbf{y}_{des} \in C(A)$  this is 0.

- $A^\dagger$  is a *left inverse* of the full rank, skinny matrix  $A$ .

multiplying in the left of  $A$  by  $A^\dagger$  gives me the identity matrix.

$$A^\dagger A = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T A$$

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  full rank, skinny (rank =  $n$ )  
 $\text{so } A^T A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  square and full rank (rank =  $n$ )

therefore  $A^T A$  is invertible and  $(A^T A)^{-1}$  is that inverse.

Hence,  $A^\dagger A = I$

Figure 5:  $A^\dagger$  is a *left inverse* of (full rank, skinny)  $A$ .

1. if  $A$  is **full rank, skinny** then it only has *left inverse* and it is:  $A^\dagger = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ .
2. if  $A$  is **full rank, square** then it has both *left inverse* and *right inverse* and they are the same thing:  $A^{-1}$ .

## 0.5 Projection on $C(A)$

$Ax_{ls} = y_{ls}$  is the point in  $C(A)$  that is closest to  $y_{des}$  i.e.  $y_{ls}$  is the projection of  $y_{des}$  onto  $C(A)$ . So what is the projection matrix  $P$  in (2) that gives me this?

$$\begin{aligned} P y_{des} &= y_{ls} = Ax_{ls} = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T y_{des} \\ &\Rightarrow P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

$A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  is the projection matrix associated with the vector space  $C(A)$  where  $A$  is full rank, skinny.

On the other hand, for a full rank, square matrix the associated projection matrix is:  $P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T = A A^{-1} (A^T)^{-1} A^T = I \cdot I = I$ . This has the implication that  $Py = Iy = y$  which suggests that the projection of any vector  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$  onto  $C(A)$  is  $y$  itself. The reason behind this is since  $C(A)$  is the output space therefore  $y$  is already in  $C(A)$  :) Figure 6 points out similar pattern for the projection matrix of (6). This tells me that

$$\begin{aligned} P &= A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \\ \text{What is } P^2 &= P \cdot P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \\ &= A(A^T A)^{-1} (A^T A)(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \\ &= A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \quad (\text{since } A^T A \text{ is full rank, square}) \\ &= P \\ \text{What is } P^3 &= P^2 \cdot P = P \cdot P = P^2 = P \\ P^a &= P \quad \forall a = 2, 3, 4, \dots \end{aligned}$$

Figure 6:  $P^a = P$  where  $a = 2, 3, 4, \dots$

once I am in  $C(A)$  my projection onto  $C(A)$  would always be myself. Few more things about the projection matrix of (6).

- $\text{rank}(P) = \text{rank}(A)$ .

In  $P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ :  $\text{rank}(A) = n$ ,  $\text{rank}(A^T A)^{-1} = n$ ,  $\text{rank}(A^T) = n$ . Therefore  $\text{rank}(P) = n = \text{rank}(A)$ .

- $C(P) = C(A)$ .

With  $Ax = y$  I get  $y \in C(A)$  therefore  $Py_{\text{des}} = y$  should be in  $C(P)$  but I get  $y \in C(A)$ . That means  $C(P)$  and  $C(A)$  are the same thing. They stand for the same vector space but different bases :)

- $P^T = P$  i.e.  $P$  is symmetric.

$$P^T = (A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T)^T = (A^T)^T ((A^T A)^{-1})^T A^T = A((A^T)^{-1})^T (A^{-1})^T A^T = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T = P$$

$$\text{Let, } A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \quad \det(A^T) = \det(A)$$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (A^T)^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc} \begin{bmatrix} d & -c \\ -b & a \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{((A^T)^{-1})^T = A^{-1}} \xrightarrow{\text{T}} \boxed{(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T}$$

Figure 7: Supporting material for the proof of  $P^T = P$ .

## 0.6 Orthogonality Principle

The optimal residual  $\mathbf{r}_{ls}$  is given by:

$$\mathbf{r}_{ls} = \mathbf{y}_{des} - \mathbf{y}_{ls} = \mathbf{y}_{des} - P \mathbf{y}_{des}$$

$P$  projects a vector onto  $C(A)$ . So what is  $P \mathbf{r}_{ls}$  then?

$$P \mathbf{r}_{ls} = P(\mathbf{y}_{des} - P \mathbf{y}_{des}) = P \mathbf{y}_{des} - P^2 \mathbf{y}_{des} = P \mathbf{y}_{des} - P \mathbf{y}_{des} = \mathbf{0}$$

This tells me that the " $C(A)$  piece" inside the optimal residual is zero  $\Rightarrow$  they are uncorrelated. More on this later. Now since  $P \mathbf{r}_{ls} = \mathbf{0}$  therefore:

$$\mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(P)$$

Since  $P$  is symmetric therefore  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(P^T)$  as well. Then again  $N(P^T) \perp C(P)$  and  $C(P) = C(A)$  which tells me that the optimal residual  $\mathbf{r}_{ls}$  is *orthogonal* to  $C(A)$ . This has the following consequences:

- for any vector  $\mathbf{y} \in C(A)$ :  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \perp \mathbf{y} \Rightarrow \mathbf{r}_{ls}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$ .
- $N(A^T) \perp C(A)$  so does  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(A^T)$ ?  
well  $N(P^T) \perp C(P)$  and  $C(P) = C(A)$  so  $N(P^T) \perp C(A)$ . Hence  $N(A^T) = N(P^T)$ . Since  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(P^T)$  so we can conclude that:  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(A^T)$ . Figure 8 shows an alternative way of proving this fact.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{For } \mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(A^T) \text{ you must have: } A^T \mathbf{r}_{ls} = \mathbf{0} \\
 & \mathbf{r}_{ls} = \mathbf{y}_{des} - \mathbf{y}_{ls} = \mathbf{y}_{des} - A(A^TA)^{-1}A^T \mathbf{y}_{des} \\
 & \therefore A^T \mathbf{r}_{ls} = A^T \mathbf{y}_{des} - (A^TA)(A^TA)^{-1}A^T \mathbf{y}_{des} \\
 & = A^T \mathbf{y}_{des} - A^T \mathbf{y}_{des} \\
 & = \mathbf{0} \\
 & \therefore \mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(A^T)
 \end{aligned}$$

Figure 8: Another way to show that  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \in N(A^T)$ .

**Geometric interpretation:** Let's assume the output space is  $\mathbf{R}^3$  and  $C(A)$  is a 2D subspace in this output space i.e. a plane in  $\mathbf{R}^3$ . Then geometrically  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \perp C(A)$  means that  $\mathbf{y}_{ls}$  is a point on this plane but  $\mathbf{y}_{des}$  is not. And the vector from  $\mathbf{y}_{ls}$  to  $\mathbf{y}_{des}$  i.e.  $\mathbf{y}_{des} - \mathbf{y}_{ls}$  is *normal* to this plane. This has been shown in Figure 9.

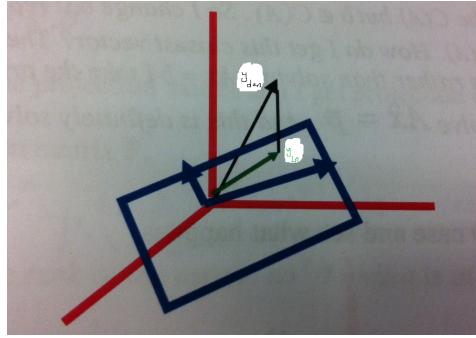


Figure 9: Geometric interpretation of  $\mathbf{r}_{ls} \perp C(A)$ .

Let's imagine a scenario where we received a (vector) signal with noise e.g. in a multiple antenna communication system. And somehow we know that the signal should lie in a certain subspace i.e.  $C(A)$ . But since the signal  $\notin C(A)$  due to the fact that it has been contaminated with noise so we project the noisy received signal onto  $C(A)$  i.e. in the known range. Let,

- received signal:  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{recv}} \in \mathbf{R}^{10}$
- the signal subspace  $C(A)$  is a 6D subspace inside  $\mathbf{R}^{10}$

So I project  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{recv}}$  onto this 6D subspace whose basis vectors I know i.e. the columns of the matrix  $A$  and I get  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{proj}}$  as:

$$\mathbf{y}_{\text{proj}} = P \cdot \mathbf{y}_{\text{recv}} = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{y}_{\text{recv}}$$

Recall that  $C(A)$  and  $C(P)$  represents the same vector space with different bases. And the columns of  $P$  are a "better" basis than the columns of  $A$ . Why? You will understand this momentarily. However if I know  $A$  then I can generate  $P$ .

What I am claiming that the residual vector  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{recv}} - \mathbf{y}_{\text{proj}}$  is optimal because it is in  $N(A^T)$  (the dimension that got crunched to zero) that means  $(\mathbf{y}_{\text{recv}} - \mathbf{y}_{\text{proj}}) \perp$  the signal subspace  $C(A)$  which stands for the fact that the de-noised signal  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{proj}}$  is "purely" signal and the optimal residual is "purely" noise i.e. they are uncorrelated (in terms of the known range  $C(A)$ ). This discussion provided me a good insight into how to

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{recv}} &= \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{proj}} + \underline{\mathbf{e}} \\
 \therefore P \cdot \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{recv}} &= P \cdot \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{proj}} + P \cdot \underline{\mathbf{e}} \\
 &= \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{proj}} + \emptyset \quad (\text{since } \underline{\mathbf{e}} \perp C(P)) \\
 &= \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{proj}}
 \end{aligned}$$
  

$$\text{Now, } A \cdot \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{recv}} = A \underline{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{proj}} + \underbrace{(A \underline{\mathbf{e}})}_{\neq \emptyset} \quad (A \underline{\mathbf{e}} \neq \emptyset)$$

Figure 10: Comparison between the basis  $\{P\}$  and the basis  $\{A\}$ .

design a de-noising transformation matrix.

# Bibliography

- [1] Introduction to Linear Algebra, Gilbert Strang.
- [2] Introduction to Linear Dynamical Systems, Stephen Boyd.