

# APPROXIMATING SIGNALS SUPPORTED ON GRAPHS

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## ABSTRACT

In this paper, we investigate the notion of smoothness for signals supported on the vertices of a graph. We provide theoretical explanations when and why the Laplacian eigenbasis can be regarded as a meaningful “Fourier” transform of such signals. Moreover, we analyze the desired properties of the underlying graphs for better compressibility of the signals. We verify our theoretical work by experiments on real world data.

**Index Terms**— Graph Laplacian, Fourier transform, smoothness, compressibility

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Signals on graphs are now common in various applications ranging from biological signal processing to network monitoring and the smart grid. For example, in field estimation [1, 2], a large number of wireless sensors are distributed randomly in a field to collect measurements, such as temperature or solar radiation, where the whole sensor network can be modeled as a random geometric graph. In computer graphics, the shape of a 3D object can be approximated by a regular graph, with its nodes containing the coordinate information [3, 4]. In the traditional realm of signal processing, we are interested in approximating a certain function by a simpler one and approximation theory has been well developed. So far approximation theory has focused on 1D signals and 2D images, while less work has considered signals on graphs. Thus, a general question one might ask is: how can we approximate signals supported on graphs?

To address this problem, first let us delve into traditional approximation theory. It is well known that the Fourier transform plays a core role in this area. Moreover, the idea that any arbitrary periodic function can be represented as a series of harmonically related sinusoids has a profound impact in mathematical analysis, physics, and engineering. In signal processing, it has been shown that a smooth signal can be well approximated by a small portion of its Fourier coefficients because of compressibility. Thus our question becomes more specific: can we find a “Fourier transform” for signals on graphs? In the research community, it has been believed for quite a while that the eigenbases of a Laplacian matrix can be deemed as the Fourier basis for its corresponding graph. In this paper, we refer to it as the *Graph Fourier Transform* (GFT). Furthermore, the GFT has appeared in data compression [3, 5], signal denoising [6] and compressed sensing [7, 8]. However, none of them provides a detailed theoretical analysis for when and why the graph Laplacian eigenbases can be regarded as the Fourier transform of graphs; they do not discuss whether the Laplacian eigenvectors are meaningful basis vectors on all graphs.

In this paper, we address these issues. We first generalize the concept of smooth signals and define a metric to measure the smoothness of a graph signal. Later, we derive certain properties of

the GFT. Those properties imply that if the eigenvalues of a graph’s Laplacian matrix roughly maintain an increasing trend, then smooth signals on that graph are likely to be compressible.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: In Section 2, the notion of smoothness for signals supported on graphs is defined and we derive certain properties of the GFT. Based on these properties, we give rules of thumb for generating graphs where the signal is compressible. In Section 3, we conduct experiments on real world data to verify our GFT theory, and we conclude in Section 4.

## 2. THE GRAPH FOURIER TRANSFORM

### 2.1. Properties of the Fourier Transform

The Fourier transform is a mathematical operation that decomposes a signal into its constituent frequencies. It plays an important role in the area of signal processing. In this subsection, we will review some of the important properties of the Fourier transform.

**Definition 1.** For a continuous differentiable function  $f$ , the total variation is defined as  $\|f\|_V = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f'(t)| dt$ , where  $f'(t)$  is the derivative, and  $\|f\|_V = \sum_n |f(n) - f(n-1)|$  for discrete signals. We say that  $f$  has a bounded variation if  $\|f\|_V < +\infty$ .

Total variation measures the total amplitude of signal oscillations. It plays an important role in signal processing since it impacts the decaying behavior of its Fourier coefficients. If a signal  $f$  is square integrable over  $[0, 1]$ , we can decompose a signal  $f(t) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{+\infty} |\langle f(u), e^{i2\pi mu} \rangle| e^{i2\pi mt}$  with  $\langle f(u), e^{i2\pi mu} \rangle = \int_0^1 f(u) e^{-i2\pi mu} du$ . Then the  $M$ -term Fourier approximation is  $f_M = \sum_{|m| < M/2} |\langle f(u), e^{i2\pi mu} \rangle| e^{i2\pi mt}$ .

**Definition 2.**  $M$ -term Linear Fourier Approximation Error:  $\epsilon_l(M, f) = \sum_{|m| > M/2} |\langle f(u), e^{i2\pi mu} \rangle|^2$ .

The linear approximation keeps the  $M$  lowest frequency components while discarding the rest. It has a number of important properties with implications for signal acquisition and compression.

**Proposition 2.1** ([9]). *If  $f(t)$  is differentiable and  $\widehat{f(\omega)} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt$  denotes its Fourier transform, then  $|\widehat{f(\omega)}| \leq \frac{\|f\|_V}{|\omega|}$ .*

**Theorem 2.2** ([9]). *If  $\|f\|_V < +\infty$ , then  $\epsilon_l(M, f) = O(\|f\|_V M^{-1})$ .*

**Theorem 2.3** ([9]). *For any  $s > 1/2$ , if  $\sum_{m=0}^{+\infty} |m|^{2s} |\langle f, g_m \rangle|^2 < +\infty$  where  $g_m$  is the  $m$ th vector of an orthogonal basis, then  $\epsilon_l(M, f) \sim o(M^{-2s})$ .*

The theorems above describe the decay rate of Fourier coefficients and the behavior of linear approximation error. It is worth

noting that Theorem 2.1 is consistent with the fact that a smooth signal is likely to be compressible in the Fourier domain. Theorem 2.2 shows that the linear approximation error is upper bounded by total variation and thus signals with small total variation will result in less linear approximation error. Theorem 2.3 states that the behavior of the linear approximation error depends on the decay rate of  $|\langle f, g_m \rangle|$ . In the next several subsections, we show that similar statements of all the three theorems above apply to the GFT.

## 2.2. Towards Properties of the Graph Fourier Transform

Signals supported on graphs are fairly common in real applications. For a given graph  $G = (V, E)$  and we write  $f \in \mathbb{R}^V$  to mean that  $f$  is supported on the vertices of  $G$ .

Since the topology of an underlying graph is crucial to the signals supported on it, we need some tools to analyze the graph topology. For an undirected, unweighted graph  $G = (V, E)$ , which consists of a set of edges  $E$  and a set of vertices  $V$ , the adjacency matrix  $A$  of  $G$  is the  $N \times N$  matrix with entries

$$A_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & : \text{if there is an edge between vertex } i, j \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and  $N = |V|$  is the number of nodes. The degree of vertex  $i$ , denoted by  $d_i$ , is the number of all the edges incident to  $i$ . The degree matrix  $D$  is a diagonal matrix with entries  $D_{i,i} = d_i$  and off-diagonals equal to zero. The graph Laplacian is defined as:  $L = D - A$ .

An interesting fact which has been noted many times is that the 1-D ring and the 2-D grid are examples of circulant graphs, and it is well known that the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) is an eigenbasis for all circulant matrices[10]; i.e., the Laplacian matrix of any circulant graph is diagonalized by the DFT basis. This has been a starting point for some researchers to adopt the Laplacian eigenbasis (i.e., the GFT) as a ‘‘Fourier’’ transform of graphs. Naturally, one might ask: Is it possible for graphs with more general structures to have similar properties of the Fourier transform? The following subsection considers this issue.

## 2.3. Properties of the Graph Fourier Transform

One vital concept closely related to the Fourier transform is the smoothness of signals, since smooth signals have compressible Fourier coefficients; i.e., the sorted magnitudes of their Fourier coefficients exhibit a power law decay. Hence, we can keep a small portion of the large ones to approximate the signal while discarding all the others. Similarly, in the graph setting we need a notion of the smoothness of signals on graphs. Karni and Gotsman [3] argue the smoothness for spectral compression is when ‘‘the coordinates of a vertex are very close to the average coordinates of its neighbors.’’ Their work is limited to meshes, while we care about more general graphs and signals. Accordingly, we extend this notion to ‘‘the value associated with a vertex is very close to that of its neighbors’’. More concretely, the following definition of 2-norm graph total variation describes the overall smoothness of a signal.

**Definition 3.** 2-norm Graph Total Variation: Given a signal  $f \in \mathbb{R}^V$ ,  $\|f\|_G = (f^T L f)^{1/2} = (\sum_{i \sim j} (f(i) - f(j))^2)^{1/2}$ , where  $i \sim j$  means there exists an edge between node  $i$  and node  $j$ .

The 2-norm graph total variation describes the smoothness of a signal defined on graph vertices. The smaller graph total variation a signal has, the smoother the signal is on the graph. Zhu et al. [11] also mention that  $f^T L f$  measures the smoothness of  $f$  on the graph.

**Definition 4.** We say that  $f \in \mathbb{R}^V$  has a bounded variation if we can find a positive  $C \ll \lambda_{N-1}$  such that  $\|f\|_G^2 \leq C \|f\|_2^2$ , where  $\lambda_{N-1}$  is the largest Laplacian eigenvalue of the underlying graph. Bounded variation can also be defined for graphs with an infinite number of nodes: if  $\|f\|_G < +\infty$ , then  $f$  has a bounded variation.

Although there exists no infinitely large graphs in real applications, discussing the properties of such graphs can provide certain implications about the behavior of large graphs. Actually, the bounded variation for infinitely large graphs implies  $\sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 < +\infty$ , which gives  $\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 = 0$ . Hence, the notion of bounded graph variation is closely tied to the Laplacian eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ , and thus the graph structure. For example, if we consider a complete graph<sup>1</sup>,  $|\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)| \rightarrow 0$  since  $\lambda_i \rightarrow +\infty$ , where  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , i.e., only signals containing a DC component can be considered smooth for complete graphs.

Next let’s define the linear and non-linear approximation error for the GFT. They are similar to those of the Fourier transform.

**Definition 5.** The  $M$ -term linear approximation error is  $\epsilon_l(M, f) = \sum_{i=M}^{N-1} |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2$ , where  $\widehat{f}(\lambda_i) = \langle f, u_i \rangle$  denotes the  $i$ th GFT coefficient of signal  $f$ , and where  $u_i$  is the  $i$ th eigenvector of the Laplacian matrix of graph  $G$ .

**Definition 6.** The  $M$ -term non-linear approximation error is  $\epsilon_n(M, f) = \sum_{i \notin \Omega} |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2$ , where  $\Omega$  is the set of indices of the  $M$  largest graph Fourier coefficients in magnitude.

The following theorems describe the properties of the GFT.

**Theorem 2.4.** Given a signal  $f \in \mathbb{R}^V$  on vertices of a graph  $G = (V, E)$ , let  $\lambda_i$  denote the  $i$ th eigenvalue of the Laplacian matrix  $L$  and  $\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)$  denotes the  $i$ th GFT coefficient of the signal  $f$ . Then,

$$|\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)| \leq \frac{\|f\|_G}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}}$$

*Proof Sketch:* It is straightforward to see that  $\lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 \leq \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 = f^T (\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \lambda_i u_i u_i^T) f = f^T L f = \|f\|_G^2$ , where  $u_i$  is the  $i$ th eigenvector of the Laplacian matrix  $L$ .  $\square$

Compared with Proposition 2.1, Theorem 2.4 implies that eigenvalues of the graph Laplacian play the same role as ‘‘frequencies’’ in traditional signal processing; i.e.,  $\lambda_0, \dots, \lambda_{N-1}$  index the GFT coefficients from low to high ‘‘frequencies’’. Accordingly, the eigenvectors of the Laplacian are actually the ‘‘frequency’’ components of a graph. The next theorem discusses the bound for linear approximation error.

**Theorem 2.5.** Consider a signal  $f \in \mathbb{R}^V$  on the graph  $G = (V, E)$ . If  $f$  has a bounded variation, then for adequately large  $M$ :

$$\epsilon_l(M, f) \leq \|f\|_G^2 \lambda_M^{-1}$$

*Proof Sketch:* Notice that  $\sum_{i=M}^{N-1} \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 \leq \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 = \|f\|_G^2$  and  $\epsilon_l(M, f) = \sum_{i=M}^{N-1} |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2$ . We can relax the above conditions and consider the optimization problem:

$$\text{maximize } \sum_{i=M}^{N-1} x_i^2 \text{ subject to } \sum_{i=M}^{N-1} \lambda_i x_i^2 \leq \|f\|_G^2. \quad (1)$$

<sup>1</sup>Where every node is neighbors with all other nodes

By solving this problem, we obtain its solution  $x_M^* = \|f\|_G^2 \lambda_M^{-1}$  and  $x_i^* = 0$  for all  $i = M + 1, \dots, N - 1$ . Thus,  $\sum_{i=M}^{N-1} (x_i^*)^2$  is clearly an upper bound for  $\epsilon_l(M, f)$ . Since  $\|f\|^2$  also upper bounds  $\epsilon_l(M, f)$ ,  $\epsilon_l(M, f) \leq \min\{\|f\|^2, \|f\|_G^2 \lambda_M^{-1}\}$ . Due to the bounded variation condition, we have  $\|f\|_G^2 \lambda_M^{-1} \leq \frac{C}{\lambda_M} \|f\|^2$ . Since  $C \ll \lambda_N$ , we can always find  $\lambda_M > C$  for adequately large  $M$  such that  $\|f\|_G^2 \lambda_M^{-1} < \|f\|^2$ .  $\square$

This statement is analogous to Theorem 2.2 for the classical Fourier transform. From Theorem 2.5, the upper bound of the linear approximation error is related to both the Laplacian eigenvalues and the graph total variation. It implies that if the eigenvalues keep strictly increasing, the linear approximation error will have the decaying property. Moreover, the linear approximation error is also affected by the graph total variation  $\|f\|_G$ , i.e., bounded  $\|f\|_G$  results in smaller linear approximation error. This is consistent with our intuition that a smoother signal tends to be better linear-approximated.

**Lemma 2.6.** Consider a signal  $f \in \mathbb{R}^V$  on a connected graph:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 \leq \sum_{M=0}^{N-1} \lambda_M \epsilon_l(M, f) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} i \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2$$

If we consider a graph  $G$  with infinite number of nodes, then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 \leq \sum_{M=0}^{+\infty} \lambda_M \epsilon_l(M, f) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} i \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2$$

*Proof.* Notice the fact that  $\sum_{M=0}^{N-1} \lambda_M \sum_{i=M}^{N-1} |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 (\sum_{M=0}^i \lambda_M)$ , which immediately gives the left-hand inequality. Moreover, since  $\lambda_n \leq \lambda_m$  for all  $n \leq m$ , we obtain the upper bound.  $\square$

**Theorem 2.7.** Given a graph  $G$  with infinite nodes, if  $\sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} i \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 < +\infty$ , then the  $M$  term linear approximation error obeys

$$\epsilon_l(M, f) = o\left(\frac{1}{M \lambda_{M/2}}\right).$$

*Proof.* From the second statement of Lemma 2.6, we notice that

$$\epsilon_l(M, f) \sum_{m=M/2}^{M-1} \lambda_m \leq \sum_{m=M/2}^{M-1} \lambda_m \epsilon_l(m, f) \quad (2)$$

$$\leq \sum_{m=M/2}^{+\infty} \lambda_m \epsilon_l(m, f) \quad (3)$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} i \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2. \quad (4)$$

The first inequality holds due to the fact  $\epsilon_l(M, f) \leq \epsilon_l(m, f)$  for all  $m \leq M$ . Since  $\sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} i \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 < +\infty$ , we have  $\sum_{m=M/2}^{+\infty} \lambda_m \epsilon_l(m, f) < +\infty$ . Thus,

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=M/2}^{+\infty} \lambda_m \epsilon_l(m, f) = 0. \quad (5)$$

Moreover, it is clear that  $\frac{M}{2} \lambda_{M/2} \leq \sum_{m=M/2}^{M-1} \lambda_m$ . Accordingly, Eq.2, Eq.3, along with Eq.5 implies that

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} M \lambda_{M/2} \epsilon_l(f, M) = 0. \quad \square$$

Theorem 2.7 along with Lemma 2.6 describe the behavior of the linear approximation error of graphs with an infinite number of nodes when its eigenvalues are strictly increasing. The condition  $\sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} i \lambda_i |\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 < +\infty$  implies  $|\widehat{f}(\lambda_i)|^2 = o(\frac{1}{i \lambda_i})$ , which is stronger than the bounded variation condition. Then, a similar decay rate of  $o(\frac{1}{M \lambda_{M/2}})$  is guaranteed for the linear approximation error.

The above theorems provide us with some implications about which signals on which graphs are likely to be compressible in the corresponding graph Fourier domain. To summarize, there are two main principles: First, from the perspective of signals, we need a smooth signal on the underlying graph, i.e.,  $\|f\|_G$  is small, since it controls the upper bound of linear approximation error. Second, from the perspective of the underlying graphs, the Laplacian eigenvalue of the graph must have an increasing trend, roughly, in order to ensure the graph Fourier coefficients decay.

## 2.4. Constructing Graphs for Signal Compression

Given a signal  $f \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , what graph leads to a GFT basis of best compression for  $f$ ? The properties of the GFT provide us with certain implications of this question. First, each entry in  $f$  can be regarded as a node allocated one value. From Theorem 2.4 and its corollary, we want  $f$  to be smooth on the graph, i.e.,  $\|f\|_G$  should be kept small enough. One possible solution to this problem is to use  $\epsilon$ -graphs or K-nearest-neighbor(KNN) graphs. An  $\epsilon$ -graph is obtained by connecting pairs of nodes whose distance is smaller than  $\epsilon$ , and a KNN graph is constructed by connecting each node to its  $K$  nearest neighbors. More concretely, we construct the graph by putting an edge between the nodes which are likely to share similar values so that  $(\sum_{i \sim j} (f(i) - f(j))^2)^{1/2}$  is kept small. The next question is: how do we choose  $K$  or  $\epsilon$ ? From the perspective of bounding  $\|f\|_G$ , we prefer the parameters to be small since fewer edges will result in smaller  $\|f\|_G$ . Moreover, we should avoid constructing a complete graph. Hence, the parameters shouldn't be too large. On the other hand, if the value of  $K$  or  $\epsilon$  is too small, the connectivity of the graph will be weak and the eigenvalues corresponding to low frequencies might be equal to or close to 0. Such behavior contradicts the increasing trend of eigenvalues that we desire. Thus, the graph we construct should at least be a connected one.

In typical applications, we may not have prior information about the exact distribution of the signal  $f$ , but we can construct the graph based on other information. For example, for field estimation in a wireless sensor network, it is fairly reasonable to assume the values measured at each node is highly correlated to its location, and thus nodes that are geographically close to each other are likely to have similar readings. Hence, we can build the graph based on the location information.

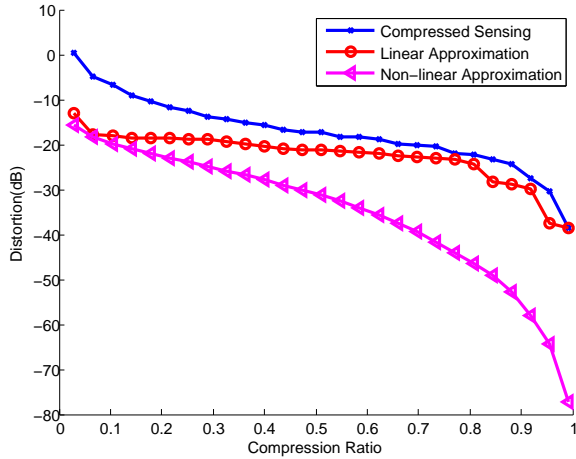
## 3. EXPERIMENT RESULTS

### 3.1. Experiment Setup

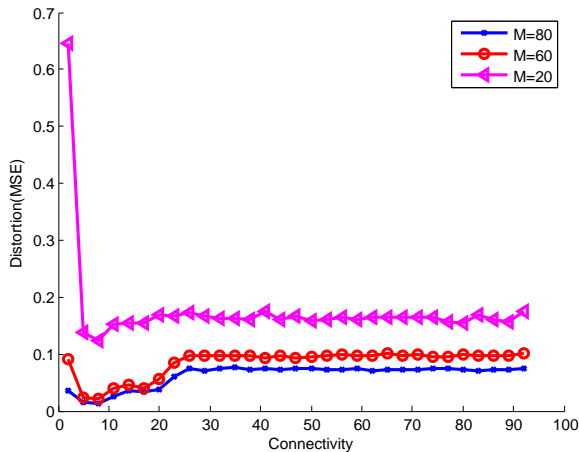
In this section, we investigate the performance of the graph Fourier on the data from California Irrigation Management Information System (CIMIS) [12]. This dataset is generated by weather stations around the state of California. We use the solar radiation data for one day which contains 135 readings from different weather stations. We utilize KNN graphs based on the geographical information of each weather station to build its GFT basis.

We will compare the performance of compressed sensing [13, 14], linear approximation and non-linear approximation on this dataset. For compressed sensing, we randomly select a number

of the readings from the sensor nodes as the measurement and use LASSO in graph Fourier basis as the signal recovery algorithm. All experiments repeat 50 times and the average values are reported.



**Fig. 1.** Performance comparison of Compressed Sensing, linear approximation and non-linear approximation on the CIMIS dataset.



**Fig. 2.** Performance of Compressed Sensing with different graph Fourier bases, for different numbers of measurements,  $M$ . The horizontal axis shows the number of neighbors used to formulate a symmetric KNN graph.

### 3.2. Results

Fig 1 illustrates the performance of CS, linear approximation and non-linear approximation with increasing compression rate. The compression ratio is defined as  $\frac{M}{N}$ , where  $M$  is the number of measurements and  $N$  is the dimension of signal. Distortion is calculated with Mean Square Error(MSE). It is well implicated that the non-linear approximation outperforms the other two methods, while linear approximation performs a little bit better than Compressed Sensing.

Fig 2 describes explicitly how the connectivity of a graph affects the performance of compressed sensing. The result agrees with our

earlier discussion about the choice of parameter  $K$ . Given a constant compression rate, the best performance of Compressed Sensing appears when  $K$  is in 5~10. When  $K$  is smaller than 5, the graph is unconnected with high probability. In this case, we have multiple zero eigenvalues. When  $K$  become larger than 30, the graph approximate the complete graph, which also gives a poor compressibility.

## 4. CONCLUSION

This paper analyzes a concept of the GFT. To the best of our knowledge, this is the very first work to address (i) when we can compress signals supported on graphs using the graph Laplacian eigenbasis, and (ii) what conditions the graph and signals should satisfy for approximation. We define the smoothness of signals supported on graphs and show its impact on the linear approximation error. The GFT extends the conventional approximation theory to signals on graphs. We believe it has a lot of potential applications including in the realms of sensor networks, computer graphics and compressed sensing.

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