

## **Foundations of Wavelets and Multi-rate Digital Signal Processing.**

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**Lecture -5.**

**Module-1.**


**Equivalence of Functions and Sequences.**

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**Foundations of Wavelets & Multirate Digital Signal Processing**

In previous lectures we were trying to generalize the idea of 'vectors' to function, so we introduced the representation of functions as generalized sequences, so moving on with this objective in mind following topics are covered in this module:

- Representing functions in terms of basis functions at a particular level of resolution.
- Equivalent discrete time representation of a function in terms of Various approximation subspaces.
- Problem of finding projection of a function on to a particular subspace is illustrated with the help of inner product operation.



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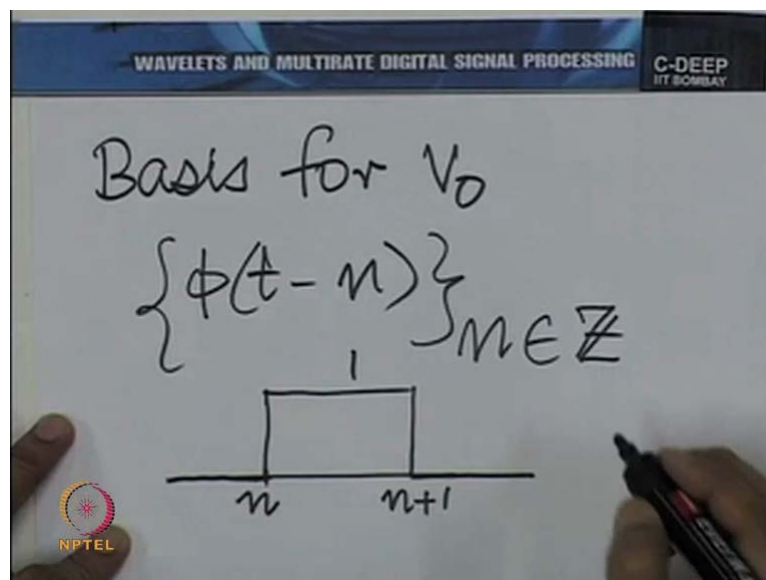
A warm welcome to the 5<sup>th</sup> lecture on the subject of wavelets and multi-wave digital signal processing. To put the discussion of the current lecture in perspective, let us recapitulate what we did in the previous lecture. In the previous lecture, we had looked at the equivalence between functions and vectors in depths. In fact, in that equivalence we saw that by bringing in the notions of the inner product between functions and of course the inner product between sequences and then noticing that Parseval's theorem is a version of a similar statement on the inner product. We understood that this analogy between functions and vectors leaves us much to gain because it helps us picturize very well, it helps us visualize very well what we were talking about when we talked about ladder of subspaces.

In general, in function analysis this is a very serious analogy. So, it is not just a simile so to speak, it is a metaphor. We can actually think of functions as generalised vectors and gain a lot from that kind of analogy rather than kind of an equivalence or generalisation. And now we need to bring in another dimension to this discussion which we had briefly begun in the previous lecture. The dimension of replacing work with functions with work with sequences.

Sequences are easier for us to deal with. In fact sequences can be dealt with using a computer. You could store the samples of a sequence in memory point after point. You could process them in discrete time step-by-step and produce an output which is again a sequence and lo and behold, is whatever you are doing with sequence maps exactly with what you wish to do with the original continuous time functions, then this is an added advantage. In fact this is true for the spaces  $V_0$  containing  $V_1$  containing  $V_2$  and  $V_{-1}$  containing  $V_0$  and so on.

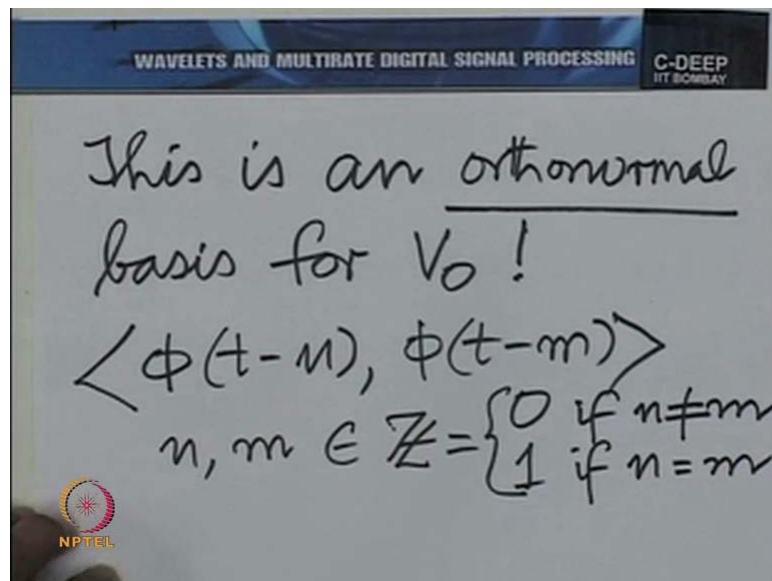
As we saw briefly in the previous lecture but which we shall now go into greater depths today. So, let us come back to the discussion. How could we think of a function in  $V_0$  has a sequence, has an equivalence sequence? Well, very simple, essentially what we are seeing is look at the coefficients in the expansion of that function with respect to the basis the space  $V_0$ . So, there you are.

(Refer Slide Time: 3:52)



We have the following standard basis for  $V_0$  given by  $\phi(t - N)$ ,  $N$  over all the integers and let us sketch it typical  $\phi(t - N)$ , it is 1 between  $N$  and  $N + 1$  and 0 elsewhere, 0 everywhere else. This is how  $\phi(t - N)$  looks.

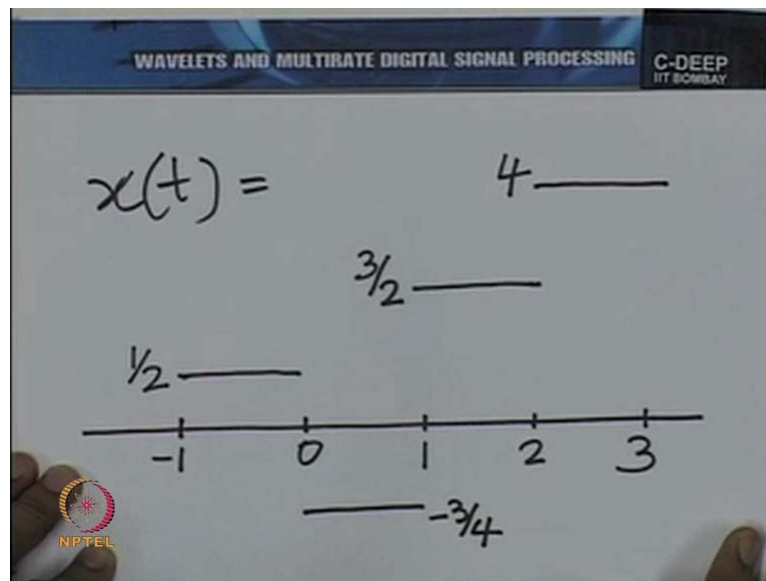
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Now in fact, this is also an orthonormal basis, I will introduce that word, orthonormal basis. What they mean by that? If I take the dot product of 2 of them,  $\phi(t-n)$  and  $\phi(t-m)$  for any 2 integers  $N$  and  $M$ ,  $N$  and  $M$  belong to the set of integers. Then this dot product is equal to 0 if  $N$  is not equal to  $M$  and 1 if  $N$  is equal to  $M$ . Very easy to check, it does not require too much of working to prove this and I leave it as an exercise for you to show.

All that you need to do is to calculate the integral in the product after all,  $\phi(t-n)$  and  $\phi(t-m)$  are in fact nonoverlapping when  $N$  is not equal to  $M$ . And if  $N$  is equal to  $M$ , the overlap completely and then of course the integral is just the integral of a rectangle of unit height over unit length, so it is one. Whatever it be, let us consider the function in  $V_0$  again to fix our ideas of the connection between functions and sequences. So let us take this example again little bit of a repetition from the previous lecture but let us fix our ideas with it. So, we have this function say  $X(t)$  given by the following graphical representation.

(Refer Slide Time: 6:20)



So, if I take the value, let us say half or some variety between -1 and 0, -3 by 4 in the region from 0 to 1, 3 by 2 in the region 1 to 2 and let say 4 in the region 2 to 3.

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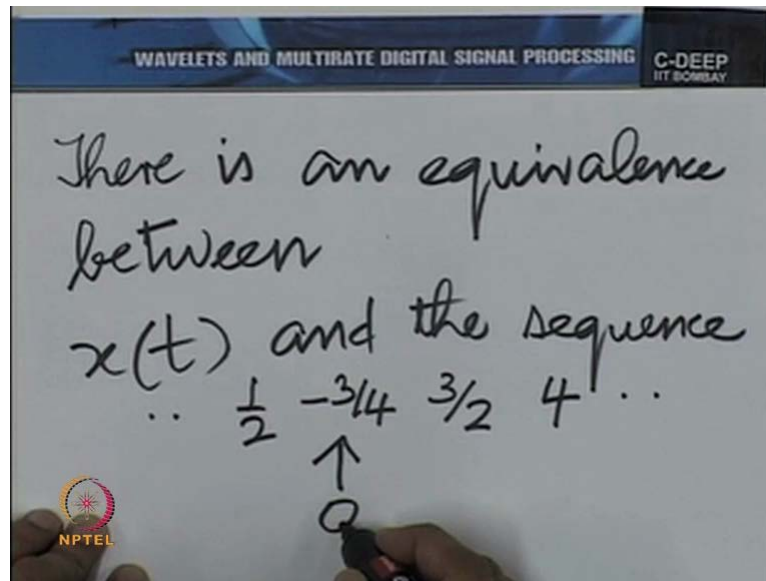
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$$x(t) = \dots + \frac{1}{2} \phi(t+1) + \left(-\frac{3}{4}\right) \phi(t) + \frac{3}{2} \phi(t-1) + 4 \phi(t-2) + \dots$$

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So, it is very easy to see that  $X$  of  $T$  can be written as half  $\Phi$  of  $T+1$  + -3 by 4 times  $\Phi$  of  $T$  + 3 by 2 times  $\Phi$  of  $T-1$  + 4  $\Phi$  of  $T-2$  and so on. So, you could continue this beyond 3 and you can continue it before -1. And what we said in the previous lecture was that equivalent to this continuous function is a sequence constructed by dot dot dot and then 1 by 2 at -1, -3 by 4 at 0, 3 by 2 at 1, 4 at 2 and so on.

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So, in other words, there is an equivalence between  $XT$  and the sequence. Now again, just to recapitulate the notation for a sequence, we write the 0 point and Mark the RO 0 here to show that this is the sample at  $N$  equal to 0. And then of course you have 3 by 2 at 1, letter 4 at 2 and 1 by 2 at -1 and so on. So, when we write the sequence in this notation, what we mean is that this is a sample at 0,  $N$  equal to 0. And then the other samples are arranged in the right order. So, for example, this is a sample at  $N$  equal to 1, the sample at  $N$  equal to 2, sample at  $N$  equal to -1 and so on in the correct order around the samples that we have marked.

Now as an alternative, we could have as well written the same sequence in the following way. This is just to introduce the notation properly. So, we could also have written...

(Refer Slide Time: 9:21)

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We could also write  
the same sequence  
as

$\dots \frac{1}{2} \quad -\frac{3}{4} \quad \frac{3}{2} \quad 4 \dots$   
 $\quad \quad \quad \uparrow$   
 $\quad \quad \quad 1$  Call it  $x[n]$

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So, you could mark 1 for example, the sample at point number 1. And then the sample at point number 2 is 4, the sample at 0 is -3, the sample at -1 is 1 and so on. So, it is the same sequence written differently, just for some variety notations. Sometimes we might prefer to do something like this. Anyway coming to the point and stressing it once again, there is an equivalence, there is an equivalence between functions and the sequence. This function belongs to  $V_0$  and the sequence belongs to what is called the set of square integrable sequences.

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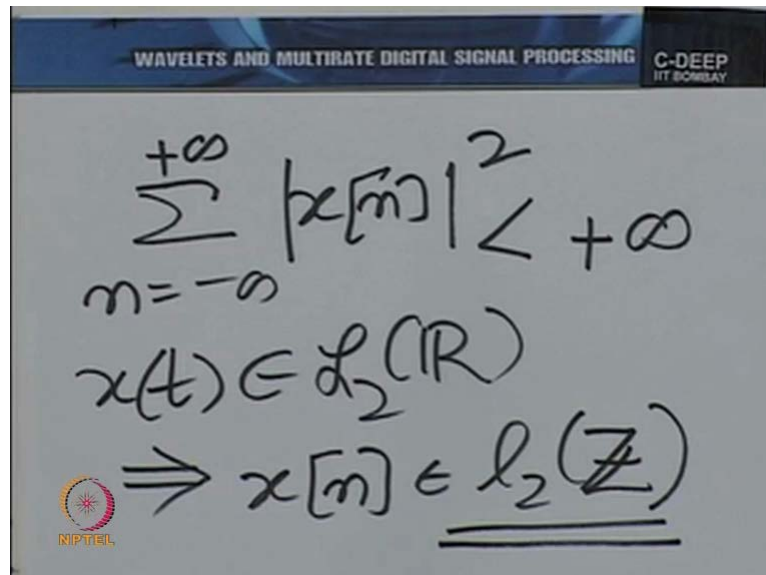
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The square integrability  
of  $x(t)$ , i.e.  
$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt < +\infty$$
  
means:

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So, let us call this sequence  $X$  of  $N$ , in that case, the square integrability of  $XT$ , in other words,

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$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} |x[n]|^2 < +\infty$$

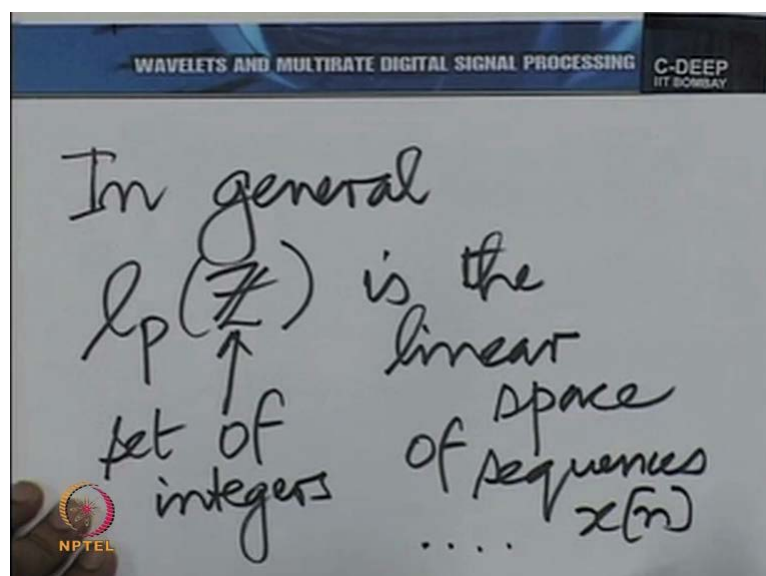
$$x(t) \in L_2(\mathbb{R})$$

$$\Rightarrow x[n] \in \underline{\underline{L_2(\mathbb{Z})}}$$

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the fact that integral from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$  mod  $XT$  square  $dt$  is finite means summation from  $N$  going  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$  is also finite with the arguments as model  $XN$  square, this is also finite. And therefore, we use a term for this, we say that the  $XT$  belong to  $L_2\mathbb{R}$  implies  $X$  of  $N$  belongs to small  $L_2\mathbb{Z}$ , so introduce this notation. This is a new term we went to do, small  $L_2\mathbb{Z}$ . Just like we have  $L$  to denote spaces with continuous arguments, you have small  $L$  to denote spaces with discrete arguments. And again, we would like to define  $L^p\mathbb{Z}$  in general.

(Refer Slide Time: 11:56)



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In general

$L^p(\mathbb{Z})$  is the linear space of sequences  $x[n]$

↑

set of integers

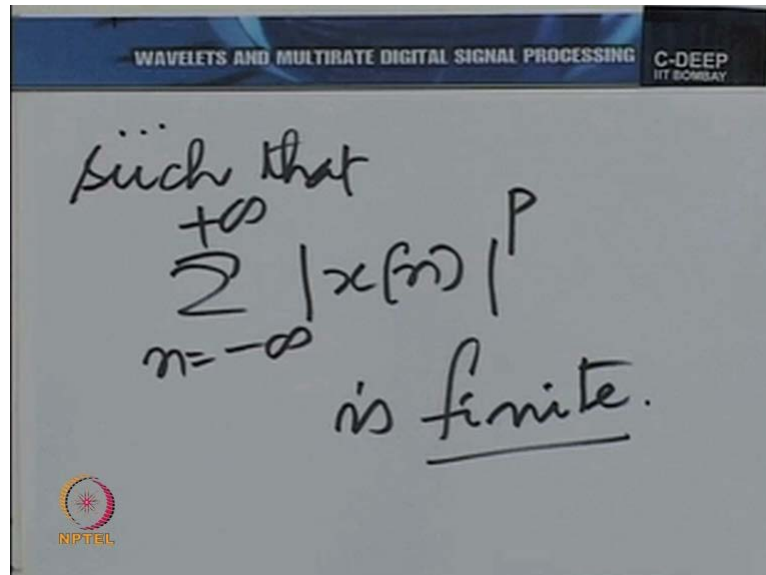
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So, in general,  $L^p \mathbb{Z}$ , this  $\mathbb{Z}$  of course refers to set of integers. So,  $L^p \mathbb{Z}$  is a set of sequences, in fact it is the linear space of sequences. Let the sequences be written as  $x[n]$ , such that,

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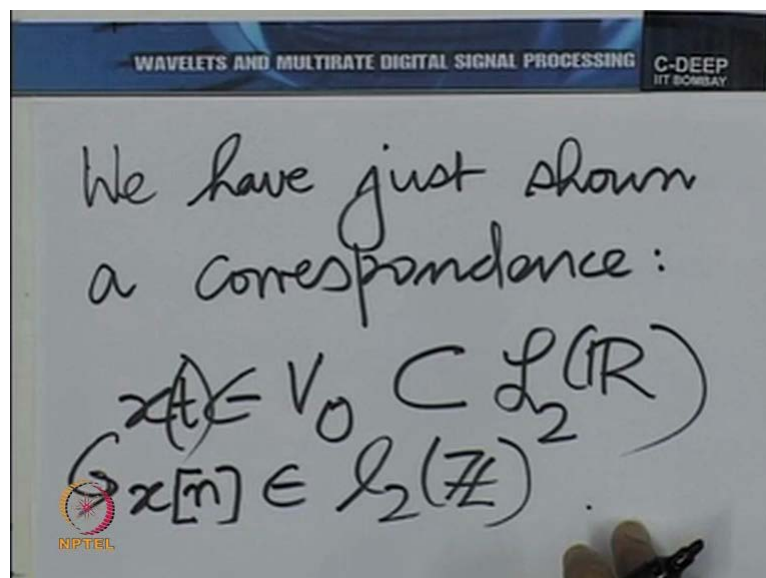


such that

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} |x[n]|^p \text{ is finite.}$$

such that this is continued, such as that summation  $M$  going from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ , mod  $x[n]$  to the power  $p$  is finite. So, in particular, if you could  $p$  equal to 2, you get small  $L^2 \mathbb{Z}$ .

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We have just shown a correspondence:

$$x(t) \in V_0 \subset L_2(\mathbb{R})$$

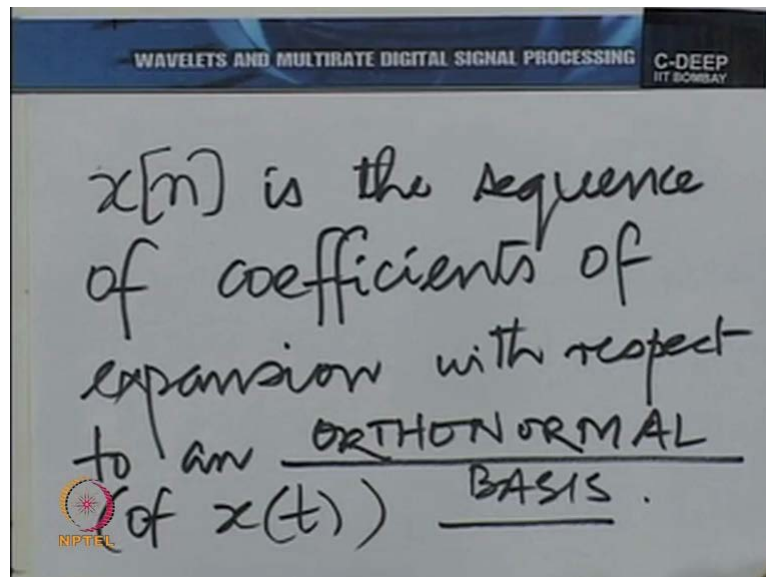
$$x[n] \in L_2(\mathbb{Z})$$

So, what we have just shown is that there is a correspondence. So, we have just shown a correspondence. If  $x$  belong to  $V_0$ , which in turn is a subspace of  $L^2 \mathbb{R}$ , of course here were talking about a continuous time function  $x$  of  $T$ , then we have the corresponding  $x$  of  $N$  belonging to small  $L^2 \mathbb{Z}$ .



Of course we can make a similar inference for other values of  $P$  but that is not of consequence at the moment, so we shall not go into it. What is important is when we talk about inner products, now if you have an orthonormal basis, so here for example we have an orthonormal basis.

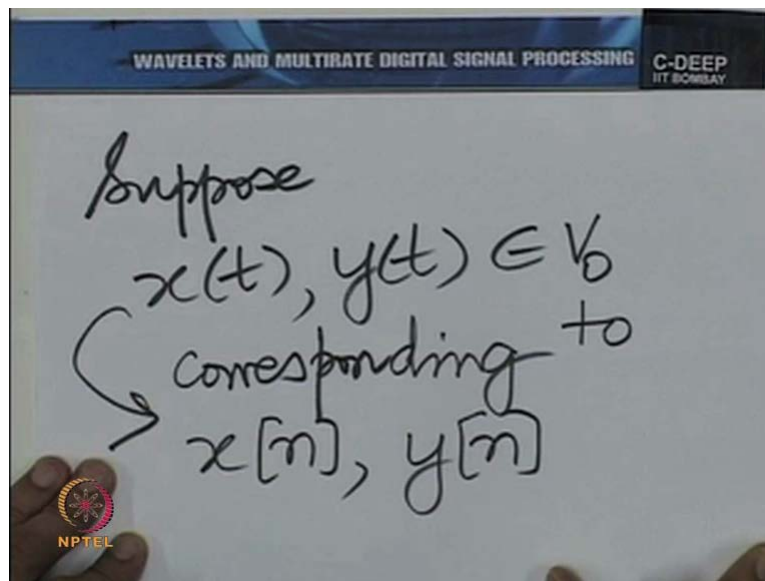
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You see, so  $X$  of, in fact here  $XN$  is the set of coefficients is a sequence of coefficients of expansion with respect to an orthonormal basis. So, you know that orthonormal is important here. If the basis is not orthonormal, what we are now going to say very soon is not going to be true. So, the orthonormal basis is important here.

If  $XN$  is a sequence of coefficients of expansion with respect to an orthonormal basis, of course of  $XT$  I mean, then there is also mapping between the inner products, that is what is interesting. So, not only is there just an equivalence, there is also a mapping of the other operations.

(Refer Slide Time: 15:16)



So if we have 2 such functions in  $V_0$ ..., So, suppose you have  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  belonging to  $V_0$ , both of them belong to  $V_0$ , which of course belong in turn to  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ . And that corresponds to the sequences  $x[n]$  and  $y[n]$ , square meaning square bracket.

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$$\begin{aligned} \langle x(t), y(t) \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) \overline{y(t)} dt \\ &= K_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n] \overline{y[n]} \end{aligned}$$

Then the dot product of  $x(t)$  with  $y(t)$  in continuous time, so inner product of  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  is understood on the continuous time axis which is of course given by summation - to + infinity integral  $x(t) \overline{y(t)} dt$  is a multiple, is some constant times Summation  $n$  going from - to + infinity  $x[n] \overline{y[n]}$ . This is important. There is also a carry onward of the equivalence to the domain of inner products. So, whatever we are doing in the context of the continuous

functions can be done, can be equivalently done or can be equivalently derived or dropped forward to the context of the sequences which are associated.

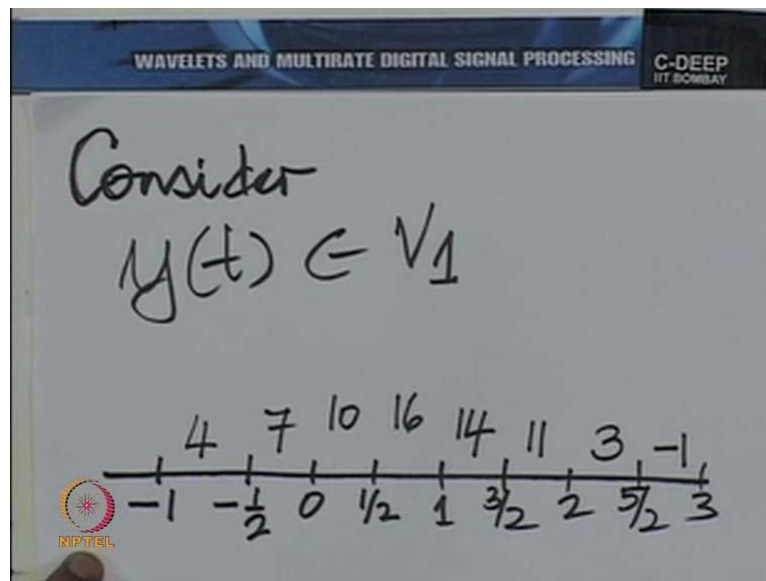
So, we can go to the extent of forgetting about underlying continuous functions and deal with the sequences directly. Now what is the physical or practical meaning of this? Well, let us go back to the 1<sup>st</sup> lecture where we motivated the very idea of piecewise constant representation. And we started with a two-dimensional situation. We said let us take images and we said let us divide those images into very small areas which we represent using picture elements or pixels. On each of the pixels, we put down one number corresponding to the average intensity of the picture in that pixel area.

And we said that is reasonably representative of the image or the picture if those areas are small. Now, of course we are representing the original image by piecewise constant function and equivalently we could now think of the image as being represented by a two-dimensional sequence. So, sequence index with 2 integer variables, let us say  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ .  $N_1$  going from 0 to 511 and  $N_2$  also going from 0 to 511, in case we have 512 ~~cos~~ 512 picture representation or resolution on the computer screen. Good.

So, what we are saying now is easy to understand. Whatever we wanted to do with the picture, we can equivalently do with the two-dimensional sequences. If you have 2 pictures and if you want to mix-and-match and do whatever you want to do, you could do it equivalent with this two-dimensional sequence. If you want to gain some inferences, you could gain the same inferences by looking at these sequences. Good. But where does this take us?

Now what is going to be useful to us is to see how we can move from one resolution to the next, that is what is of interest. You see, ultimately our movement in all this discussion is to extract incremental information and incremental information is extracted by going from one subspace of L2R to the next in the ladder.

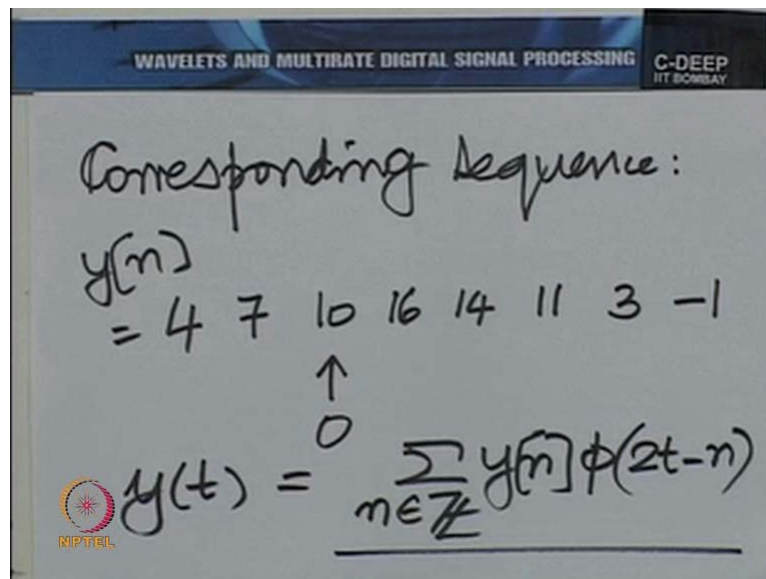
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So, let it  $T$  the function belong to  $V_1$ . Consider a function, let us say  $Y_T$  belonging to  $V_1$ . Now  $V_1$  you will recapitulate is the space of functions piecewise constant on intervals of linked half.

So, let us take one such, let us take a function from  $-1$  to say  $3$ . So,  $-1, -0.5, 0, 0.5, 1, 3$  by  $2, 2, 5$  by  $2$  and  $3$ . So, I will just write down, I will not sketch, I will just write down values, the piecewise constant values in each of these intervals. So, in this interval the value can be let us say  $4$ . In this interval, the value is  $7$ , in this interval, the value is  $10$ , in this interval, the value is  $16$ , let us say in this interval, the value is  $14$ ,  $11$ , let us say  $3$  and  $-1$  some variety. These are the piecewise constant values in these respective intervals.

(Refer Slide Time: 21:03)



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Corresponding Sequence:

$$y[n] = 4 \ 7 \ 10 \ 16 \ 14 \ 11 \ 3 \ -1$$

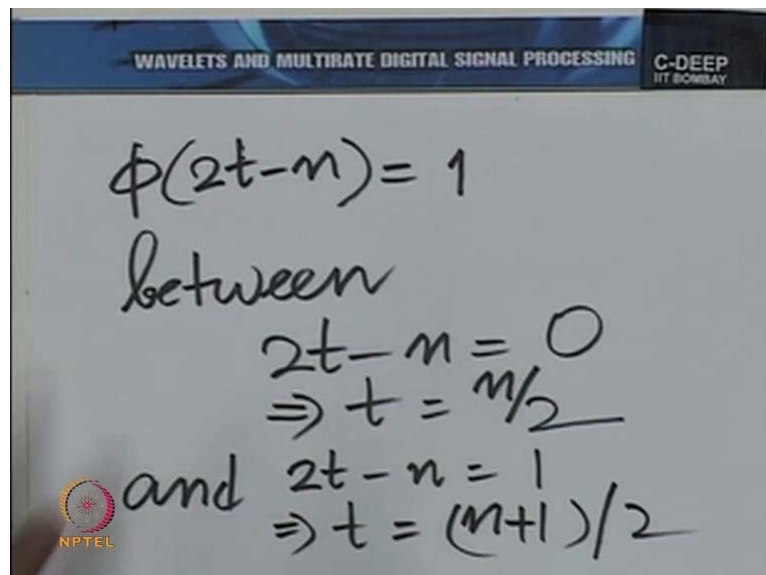
↑  
0

$$y(t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} y[n] \phi(2t - n)$$

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So, in fact we have the sequence here, the corresponding sequence, so I will use the notation with the standard marker of 0. So, at 0 I have 10, and then I have in order 16, 14, 11, 3, -1, 7 and 4, this is my corresponding sequence. So, in fact what we are saying in effect is  $Y_T$ , if I call this sequence  $Y$  of  $N$ , what we are saying in effect is  $Y_T$  is summation  $N$  over all the integers  $Y_N$ . Note,  $\Phi$  of  $2T - N$ , that is important.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:03)



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$$\phi(2t - n) = 1$$

between

$$2t - n = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow t = n/2$$

and

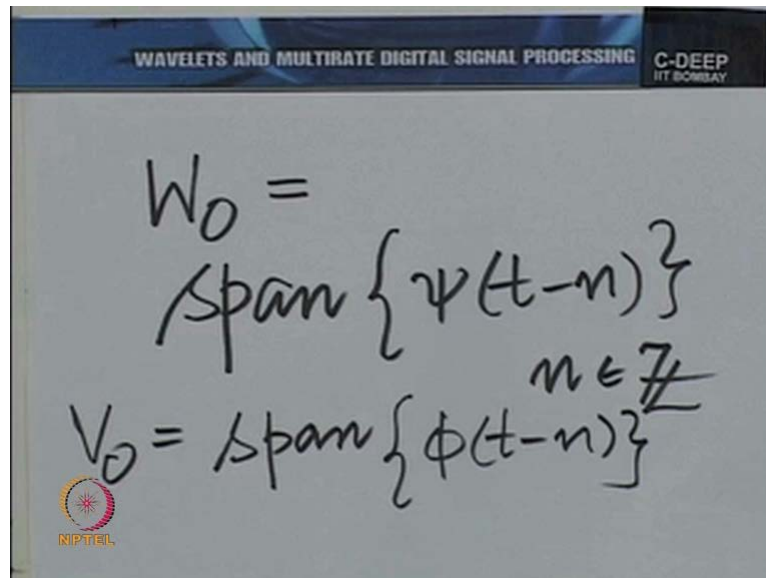
$$2t - n = 1$$
$$\Rightarrow t = (n+1)/2$$

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Notice that  $\Phi$  of  $2T - N$  is by definition going to be equal to 1 between  $2T - N$  equal to 0, that is the equal to  $N$  by 2 and  $2T - N$  is equal to 1.

Which means  $T$  is  $N+1$  by 2. So, for example,  $\Phi(2T-1)$  is going to be 1 between 1 by 2 and 2 by 2. 0.5 and 1, and that agrees with what we have just wrote down. Good.

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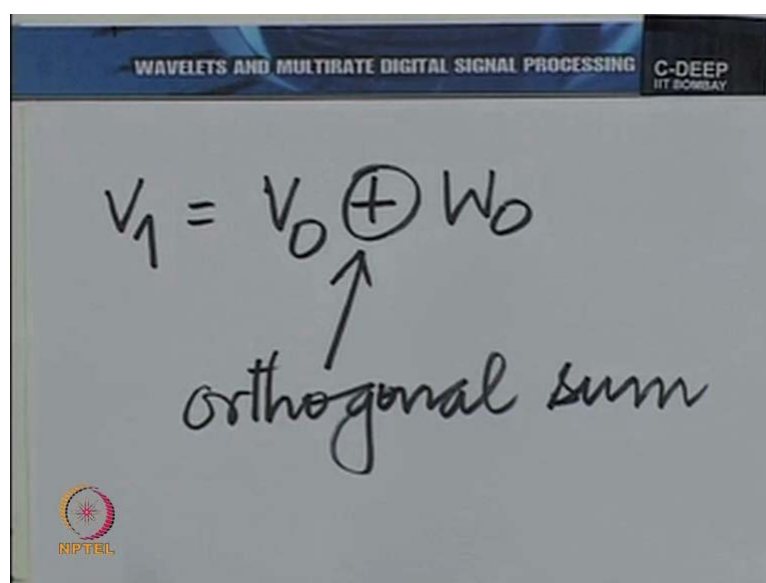
$$W_0 = \text{Span} \{ \psi(t-n) \}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

$$V_0 = \text{Span} \{ \phi(t-n) \}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

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Now suppose that we decompose, we know that we have this decomposition of  $V_1$  into  $W_1$  and  $V_0$  or rather  $W_0$  and  $V_0$ , I am sorry. So, we said that we have this space  $W_0$  given by the span of  $\Psi T - N$ .  $N$  over all the integers. And  $V_0$  of course is the span of  $\Phi T - N$  for all integers  $N$ . And now we are going to introduce the notion of what is called an orthogonal complement.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:49)



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$$V_1 = V_0 \oplus W_0$$

orthogonal sum

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So, we are going to say, well  $V_1$  is the orthogonal sum, this represents orthogonal sum and we are going to explain this in more detail. We say that the space  $V_1$  is the orthogonal sum of the spaces  $V_0$  and  $W_0$ , if there is a unique way to take a vector in  $V_1$  and decompose it as a sum of vector  $V_0$  and a vector in  $W_0$  with the vectors from the  $V_0$  and  $W_0$  in perpendicular, being orthogonal, in other words, inner product being 0.

So, what is this idea of an orthogonal sum, the idea of an orthogonal sum is to decompose a linear space into subspaces of course of smaller dimensions where we also have mutual perpendicularity or mutual orthogonality between the space, between the vectors in these 2 spaces of the composition. Now, I shall give you a simple example from a three-dimensional situation. Let us take that three-dimensional space of the room that we are in at the moment and let us take the two-dimensional space of the floor.

The three-dimensional space of the room is the orthogonal sum of the two-dimensional space of the floor and a one-dimensional space comprised of all multiples of a vector perpendicular to the floor. So, as expected, a three-dimensional space is an orthogonal sum of a two-dimensional space and a one-dimensional space. The one-dimensional space is formed by all multiples of a vector perpendicular to the floor. The two-dimensional space is formed by all vectors lying on the floor.

So if you take any vector lying on the floor and any vector in that one-dimensional space of multiples of a unit vector perpendicular to the floor, these 2 vectors are orthogonal, perpendicular. In 3 dimensions, it is very easy to visualize. Now you can always generalise to  $N$  dimensions, so for example, if you have a 10 dimensional space, it could be an orthogonal sum of 4 dimensional space and another 6 dimensional space where if you take a vector from that 4 dimensional space and a vector from the 6 dimensional space, they are perpendicular to one another.

Perpendicular as understood by taking the inner product between these 2 vectors in that 10 dimensional space. Now, I must at this point make a little remark, the inner product allows us to bring in the notion of an angle between functions. A more general version of orthogonality, so we say 2 vectors are perpendicular if their inner product is 0, in general we can also define the angle between 2 vectors using the inner products and we shall do exactly that in a minute.