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Appendix A

The Aryabhatta/Bezout Identity

A fundamental result in the theory of integer matrices is the Aryabhatta/Bezout identity that arises from the Smith form of integer matrices. First consider the scalar case. For $m, n \in \mathbf{Z}$ let $r = \gcd(m, n)$ and $l = \operatorname{lcm}(m, n)$. Gcds and lcms are are unique modulo multiplication by ± 1 , the integers with integer inverse. Now there exist integers $c, d \in \mathbf{Z}$, such that

$$cm = dn = l$$
 and $gcd(c, d) = 1.$ (A.1)

As a consequence of Euclid's algorithm the gcd is also a linear combination of m and n [6]: there exists $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$, such that

$$r = am + bn$$
 and $gcd(a, b) = 1.$ (A.2)

Unlike c and d (which are unique modulo ± 1) a and b are non-unique. For instance a could be replaced by a-kn and b by b+kn where $k \in \mathbf{Z}$. Also

$$l = \pm mn/r,\tag{A.3}$$

or equivalently $ad + bc = \mp 1$. Eqns. A.1-A.3 summarizes all basic facts about gcds and lcms and can be written in the compact form

$$\begin{bmatrix} a - kn & b + km \\ c & -d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} U \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \tag{A.4}$$

with det $U = \pm 1$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Notice that det $U = \pm 1$ is a strong condition and forces $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(c,d) = 1$. For example when m = 6 and n = 10, l = 30, g = 2, a = 2 - 10k, b = 1 + 6k, d = 5, c = 3 and det U = -1.

In the matrix case the invertible integer matrices are precisely the unimodular ones. A fundamental fact about integer matrices is the following [49]:

- **Fact 10** Every integer matrix M can be written in the form
- Left Hermite Form M = UR, where U is unimodular, lower-triangular, and R is an integer upper triangular matrix
- **Right Hermite Form** M = LV, where, V is unimodular, upper-triangular, and L is an integer lower triangular matrix
- Smith Normal Form $M = U\Sigma V$, where U unimodular, lower-triangular, V is unimodular upper-triangular and Σ is diagonal. Moreover, the The diagonal elements of Σ , say λ_i , can be arranged such that $\lambda_{i+1}|\lambda_i$

Divisors and Multiples of Integer Matrices

Let M, L and R be integer matrices such that M = LR. R is a right divisor of M and L is a left divisor of M. Moreover, M is a left multiple of R and a right multiple of L. R is said to be a common right divisor of M and N if it is a right divisor of both M and N. In this case, M and N must have the same number of columns and there exist integer matrices, \hat{M} and \hat{N} such that $M = \hat{M}R$ and $N = \hat{N}R$.

M is said to be a left common multiple of matrices R_1 and R_2 if $M = L_1R_1$ and $M = L_2R_2$ for some L_1 and L_2 . M is also a right common multiple of L_1 and L_2 . Notice that R_1 and R_2 must have the same number of columns while L_1 and L_2 must have the same number of rows.

R is a right divisor of M iff R^T is a left divisor of M^T . M is a left multiple of R iff M^T is a right multiple of R^T . Hence it suffices to talk about right divisors and left multiples only.

GCRDs/GCLDs and LCLMs/LCRMs

Definition 16 R is a greatest common right divisor (gcrd) of M and N if for every right divisor, \hat{R} , of M and N there exists an integer matrix W such that $R = W\hat{R}$.

Definition 17 M is a least common left multiple (lclm) of R_1 and R_2 if every other left multiple is of the form $\hat{M} = WM$ for some W.

Definition 18 If a gcrd of M and N is unimodular then the matrices are said to be *right coprime*.

Remark: If one gcrd is unimodular, all gcrds are unimodular as can be seen (from Definition 16) by comparing determinants.

Construction of a GCRD and an LCLM

Given M and N, the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} M^T & N^T \end{bmatrix}$ can be reduced to its left Hermite form $\begin{bmatrix} R^T & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ (from Fact 10) by a unimodular matrix U. R in this construction is a gcrd of M and N.

$$U\begin{bmatrix} M \\ N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_{11} & U_{12} \\ U_{21} & U_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} M \\ N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$V\begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} V_{11} & V_{12} \\ V_{21} & V_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} R \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} M \\ N \end{bmatrix}.$$

 $M = V_{11}R$ and $N = V_{21}R$ and so R is a right divisor. Also $R = U_{11}M + U_{12}N$. For any other right divisor R_1 , with $M = M_1R_1$ and $N = N_1R_1$,

$$R = [U_{11}M_1 + U_{12}N_1]R_1 \tag{A.5}$$

and therefore R is a gcrd. Also $L = U_{21}N = -U_{22}M$ is an lclm of M and N since U_{21} and U_{22} are left coprime (as we shall shortly see).

Lemma 35 (Characterization of Right Coprimeness) M and N are right coprime iff one of the following is true:

- 1. XM + YN = I for some integer matrices X and Y.
- 2. The matrix $\begin{bmatrix} M \\ N \end{bmatrix}$ has an integer left inverse.

Proof: By coprimeness the gcrd is unimodular and hence from Eqn. A.5 $I=R^{-1}U_{11}M+R^{-1}U_{12}N$. Take $X=R^{-1}U_{11}$ and $Y=R^{-1}U_{12}$.

The first result is known as called the Bezout identity [49]. The second result says that coprimeness is an invertibility property. For any left invertible (over the integers) integer matrix, any partition of the rows of the matrix gives two right coprime matrices. Coprimeness is a collective property of the rows of M and N (taken together). It also follows (by transposition) that X^T and Y^T are right coprime. Hence X and Y are left coprime. From the unimodularity of U and V, $U_{21}V_{12} + U_{22}V_{22} = I$. Hence (from Lemma 35) U_{21} and U_{22} are left coprime that L is an lclm of M and N.

All the above results about coprimeness can be summarized results in the following Aryabhatta/Bezout identity over integer matrices. Right coprimeness of M and N is equivalent to the existence of matrices \tilde{M} , \tilde{N} , X, Y, \tilde{X} and \tilde{Y} such that

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \tilde{Y} & \tilde{X} \\ \tilde{N} & -\tilde{M} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{cc} M & X \\ N & -Y \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} I & 0 \\ 0 & I \end{array} \right].$$

GCRD/LCLM of sets of matrices

The concepts of gcrds and lclms can be directly generalized to the case of many matrices (provided all of them have the same number of columns). From Lemma 35 computing the gcrd of a set of matrices is the same a computing for just two of them. As for the lclm of a set of say n integer matrices, $M_0, M_1, \ldots, M_{n-1}$, an lclm is obtained recursively. Let $P_i = \text{lclm}(P_{i-1}, M_i)$ with $P_0 = M_0$. Then P_n is an lclm.

Appendix B

Form of Modulation in Modulated Filter Banks

Assume that ϵ_i and γ_i (in Eqn. 3.25 and Eqn. 3.26) are linear functions of i of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_i \\ \gamma_i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\pi}{4M} (2i+1)\alpha_2 + \frac{\pi}{2}\beta_2 \\ \frac{\pi}{4M} (2i+1)\alpha_1 + \frac{\pi}{2}\beta_1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

For an MFB to satisfy the PR property we will show that it is necessary that the pairs (α_1, α_2) and (β_1, β_2) have the same parity. We have PR iff

$$f(n_1, n_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n} h_i (Mn + n_1) g_i (-Mn - n_2) = \delta(n_1 - n_2)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} a_1(n_1, n_2) b_1(n_1, n_2) + a_2(n_1, n_2) b_2(n_1, n_2)$$

where

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1(n_1, n_2) \\ a_2(n_1, n_2) \\ b_1(n_1, n_2) \\ b_2(n_1, n_2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \sum_n h(Mn + n_1)g(-Mn - n_2) \\ \frac{1}{2} \sum_n (-1)^n h(Mn + n_1)g(-Mn - n_2) \\ \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2M}(2i+1)(n_1 - n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2}) + \frac{\pi(\beta_1 + \beta_2)}{2}\right) \\ \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2M}(2i+1)(n_1 + n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2}) + \frac{\pi(\beta_1 - \beta_2)}{2}\right) \end{bmatrix}.$$

Notice that $a_1(n_1 + M, n_2 + M) = a_1(n_1, n_2)$ and $a_2(n_1 + M, n_2 + M) = a_2(n_1, n_2)$. One can compute the sums $b_1(n_1, n_2)$ and $b_2(n_1, n_2)$ using the fact that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \cos((2i+1)u + v) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\sin(2Mu+v) - \sin(v)}{\sin(u)} \right] & \text{if } u \neq \pi k \\ M(-1)^k \cos(v) & \text{if } u = \pi k. \end{cases}$$

Indeed

$$b_1(n_1, n_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\sin(\pi(n_1 - n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2}) + \frac{\pi(\beta_1 + \beta_2)}{2}) - \sin(\frac{\pi(\beta_1 + \beta_2)}{2})}{\sin(\frac{\pi}{2M}(n_1 - n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2})} \right] & \text{if } n_1 - n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2} \neq 2Ml. \\ M(-1)^l \cos(\frac{\pi(\beta_1 + \beta_2)}{2}) & \text{if } n_1 - n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2} = 2Ml. \end{cases}$$

$$b_2(n_1, n_2) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\sin(\pi(n_1 + n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2}) + \frac{\pi(\beta_1 - \beta_2)}{2}) - \sin(\frac{\pi(\beta_1 - \beta_2)}{2})}{\sin(\frac{\pi}{2M}(n_1 + n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2})} \right] & \text{if } n_1 + n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2} \neq 2Mm \\ M(-1)^m \cos(\frac{\pi(\beta_1 - \beta_2)}{2}) & \text{if } n_1 + n_2 + \frac{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2} = 2Mm \end{cases}$$

Consider the FIR case and assume (for simplicity) that h(n) and g(n) are prototypes of length N=2Mk. Then, it is easy to see that $f(n_1,n_2)=\delta(n_1-n_2)$ implies, for fixed n_1 , a set of 4Mk-M constraints (since outside of a range of extent 4Mk-M, $h_i(Mn+n_1)$ and $g_i(-Mn-n_2)$ do not overlap) However, since $f(n_1+M,n_2+M)=f(n_1,n_2)$, it suffices to consider $n_1 \in \{0,1,\ldots,M-1\}$ only. Therefore $f(n_1,n_2)=\delta(n_1-n_2)$ implies a total of $4Mk\times M=2MN$ constraints. However, this is more than the number of free parameters, 2N, by a factor of M. Hence it is necessary for $b_1(n_1,n_2)$ and $b_2(n_2,n_2)$ to vanish appropriately in order to be able to satisfy the PR constraints. Now we can write $a_1(n_1,n_2)$ as $a_e(n_1,n_2)+a_o(n_1,n_2)$ and $a_2(n_1,n_2)$ as $a_e(n_1,n_2)-a_o(n_1,n_2)$. Then

$$f(n_1, n_2) = a_e(n_1, n_2)(b_1(n_1, n_2) + b_2(n_1, n_2)) + a_o(n_1, n_2)(b_1(n_1, n_2) - b_2(n_1, n_2)).$$

Therefore $b_1(n_1, n_2)$ and $b_2(n_1, n_2)$ have to vanish for all integers that are not a multiple of 2M. In that case there are 2k-1 constraints for fixed n_1 for a total of 2Mk-M=N-M equations. Clearly this is less than 2N, the number of free parameters and hence PR is possible. In this case $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \in 2\mathbb{Z}$, $\beta_1 + \beta_2 \in 2\mathbb{Z}$, $\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 \in 2\mathbb{Z}$, and $\beta_1 - \beta_2 \in 2\mathbb{Z}$. Therefore the pairs (α_1, α_2) and (β_1, β_2) must be integers of the same parity. Since we can assume $\frac{\pi}{2}\beta_1 \in [0, \pi)$, wlog $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$ or $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 1$. Choice of $\beta_1 = 1$ merely changes the modulation from cosine to sine (since it is a phase shift of $\frac{\pi}{2}$). Therefore we will assume that $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$. By letting N tend to infinity, one sees that, if $b_1(n_1, n_2)$ and $b_2(n_1, n_2)$ do not vanish as above,

then the density of PR constraints is more than the density of free parameters and hence PR is impossible.

With $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$, if we shift the analysis filters to the right by $\frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2}$ and the synthesis filters to the left by $\frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2}$ (from Lemma 8 it follows that the PR property is unaffected), and define $\alpha = -\frac{\alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2}$ (since α_1 and α_2 have the same parity, α is an integer), then for the new filter bank

$$\begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_i \\ \gamma_i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{\pi}{4M}(2i+1)\alpha \\ \frac{\pi}{4M}(2i+1)\alpha \end{bmatrix}.$$