

Lecture 2

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Part I

Wavelet frames (for deep neural networks)

A brief history of wavelet analysis

- Wavelets have their origins in [signal analysis and engineering](#).
- The term "wavelet" was coined in the 1980s in geophysics by [Jean Morlet](#), [Alex Grossman](#) for functions that generalize the [short-term Fourier transform](#).
- In the 1990s, a veritable wavelet boom arose, triggered by
 - ▶ the discovery of [compact, continuous \(to any order of differentiability\) and orthogonal wavelets](#) by [Ingrid Daubechies \(1988\)](#) and
 - ▶ the development of the algorithm of [fast wavelet transformation \(FWT\) using multi-scale analysis \(MRA\)](#) by [Stéphane Mallat and Yves Meyer \(1989\)](#).

The what, the why and the how of wavelets?

The following introduction to wavelets is based on [Ingrid Daubechies' "Ten lectures on wavelets"](#), Chapter 1:

- Wavelets provide a tool for **time-frequency localization**.
- Given a signal $f(t)$ (we here assume for simplicity that t is a continuous variable and f a function in one variable), one is interested in its frequency content locally in time.
- The **wavelet transform** of a signal evolving in time depends therefore on two variables: **frequency and time**.

Time frequency localization

- The standard Fourier transform,

$$\mathcal{F}f(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int e^{-i\omega t} f(t) dt$$

gives a representation of the frequency content of f , but information concerning time-localization cannot be read off easily from $\mathcal{F}f$.

- Time-localization can be achieved by a **windowed Fourier transform**, i.e.

$$\mathcal{F}^{\text{win}}f(\omega, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int e^{-i\omega s} f(s) g(s - t) ds.$$

- In its discrete version t and ω are assigned regularly spaced values: $t = nt_0, \omega = m\omega_0$, for $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\omega_0, t_0 > 0$ fixed:

$$\mathcal{F}_{m,n}^{\text{win}}f = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int e^{-im\omega_0 s} f(s) g(s - nt_0) ds.$$

The windowed Fourier transform

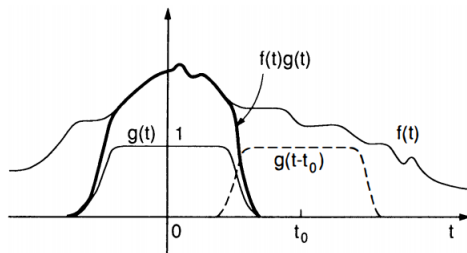


FIG. 1.1. *The windowed Fourier transform: the function $f(t)$ is multiplied with the window function $g(t)$, and the Fourier coefficients of the product $f(t)g(t)$ are computed; the procedure is then repeated for translated versions of the window, $g(t - t_0)$, $g(t - 2t_0)$, \dots .*

The wavelet transform

- The **continuous and discrete wavelet transform formulas** are analogous to the continuous and discrete windowed Fourier, i.e.

$$T^{\text{wav}} f(a, b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|a|}} \int f(t) \psi\left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right) dt$$

and

$$T_{m,n}^{\text{wav}} f = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|a_0|^m}} \int f(t) \psi(a_0^{-m} t - nb_0) dt$$

- The **function ψ** is sometimes called **mother wavelet** and satisfies $\int \psi(t) dt = 0$.
- $T_{m,n}^{\text{wav}} f$ is again obtained from $T^{\text{wav}} f(a, b)$ by restricting a, b to only discrete values: $a = a_0^m$, $b = nb_0 a_0^m$ in this case, with m, n ranging over \mathbb{Z} , and $a_0 > 1, b_0 > 0$ fixed.

Analogies/differences to the windowed Fourier transform

- **Similarity:** both transforms take the inner products of f with a family of functions indexed by two labels: $g^{\omega,t}(s) = e^{i\omega s}g(s-t)$ in the Fourier case and

$$\psi^{a,b}(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|a|}}\psi\left(\frac{s-b}{a}\right).$$

in the wavelet case. The functions $\psi^{a,b}$ are called wavelets

- **Difference:** shapes of $g^{\omega,t}$ and $\psi^{a,b}$.
 - ▶ The functions $g^{\omega,t}$ all consist of the same g , translated to the proper time location, and "filled in" with higher frequency oscillations. All the $g^{\omega,t}$ have the same width.
 - ▶ In contrast, the $\psi^{a,b}$ have time-widths adapted to their frequency: high frequency $\psi^{a,b}$ are very narrow, while low frequency $\psi^{a,b}$ are much broader. As a result, the wavelet transform is better able than the windowed Fourier transform to "zoom in" on very short lived high frequency phenomena.

Comparison between windowed Fourier transform

- A typical choice for ψ is $\psi(t) = (1 - t^2) \exp(-t^2/2)$, sometimes called the **mexican hat function**, illustrated below.

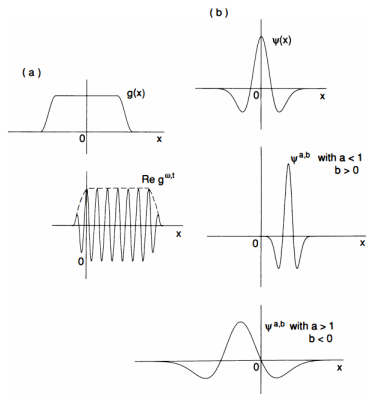


FIG. 1.2. Typical shapes of (a) windowed Fourier transform functions $g^{\omega,t}$, and (b) wavelets $\psi^{a,b}$. The $g^{\omega,t}(x) = e^{i\omega x}g(x-t)$ can be viewed as translated envelopes g , "filled in" with higher frequencies; the $\psi^{a,b}$ are all copies of the same functions, translated and compressed or stretched.

Different types of wavelet transforms

- A The continuous wavelet transform $T^{\text{wav}} f(a, b)$ and
- B The discrete wavelet transform $T_{m,n}^{\text{wav}} f$

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Within the discrete wavelet transform we distinguish further between

B1 Redundant discrete systems, so-called **wavelet frames** and

B2 Orthonormal (and other) bases of wavelets (in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$)

A: the continuous wavelet transform

- A function can be reconstructed from its wavelet transform by means of the “resolution of identity” formula,

$$f = C_\psi^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a^2} \langle \psi^{a,b}, f \rangle \psi^{a,b} da db$$

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the L^2 scalar product.

- The constant C_ψ , depends only on ψ and is given by

$$C_\psi = 2\pi \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \widehat{\psi}(\xi) \xi^{-1} d\xi$$

and we assume $C_\psi < \infty$. If ψ is in $L^1(\mathbb{R})$ (this is the case in all examples of practical interest), then $\widehat{\psi}$ is continuous, so that C_ψ , can be finite only if $\widehat{\psi}(0) = 0$, i.e. $\int \psi(t) dt = 0$.

- The above formula can be viewed as a way to write f as a superposition of wavelets where the coefficients in this superposition are given by the wavelet transform of f .

B1: the discrete but redundant wavelet transform-frames.

- The dilation parameter a and the translation parameter b both take only discrete values.
- For a we choose the integer (positive and negative) powers of one fixed dilation parameter $a_0 > 1$, i.e., $a = a_0^m$.
- Different values of m correspond to wavelets of different widths.
- The discretization of b should thus depend on m : narrow (high frequency) wavelets are translated by small steps, while wider (lower frequency) wavelets are translated by larger steps.
- Since the width of $\psi(a_0^{-m}x)$ is proportional to a_0^m , we choose therefore to discretize b by $b = nb_0a_0^m$
- The corresponding discretely labelled wavelets are therefore

$$\psi_{m,n} = a_0^{-m/2} \psi(a_0^{-m}(x - nb_0a_0^m)) = a_0^{-m/2} \psi(a_0^{-m}x - nb_0)$$

B1: Recovering f ?

- In the discrete case there does not exist a “resolution of the identity” formula as in the continuous case.
- Reconstruction of f from $(T_{m,n}^{\text{wav}}(f))_{m,n}$, if at all possible, must therefore be done by some other means.
- The following questions naturally arise:
 - ▶ Is it possible to characterize f completely by knowing $(T_{m,n}^{\text{wav}}(f))_{m,n}$, or in other words
 - ▶ Can any function be written as a superposition of $\psi_{m,n}$?
- As in the continuous case, these discrete wavelet transforms often provide a very redundant description of the original function.

B2: Orthonormal wavelet bases

- For some very special choices of ψ and a_0, b_0 , the $\psi_{m,n}$ constitute an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\mathbb{R})$.
- In particular, if we choose $a_0 = 2, b_0 = 1$, then there exist ψ with good time-frequency localization properties, such that the

$$\psi_{m,n}(x) = 2^{-m/2}\psi(2^{-m}x - n)$$

constitute an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

- The oldest example of a function ψ for which the $\psi_{m,n}$ as defined above constitute an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ is the **Haar function**.

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq x < \frac{1}{2}, \\ -1, & \frac{1}{2} \leq x < 1, \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Frames

We return to the setting of $B1$ where we do not necessarily have a basis but rather redundant wavelet frames.

Definition

A family of functions $(g_j)_{j \in J}$ in a Hilbert space H and J a countable index set is called a **frame** if there exist $A > 0, B < \infty$ so that, for all $f \in H$,

$$A\|f\|^2 \leq \sum_{j \in J} |\langle f, g_j \rangle|^2 \leq B\|f\|^2$$

We call A and B the frame bounds. If the two frame bounds are equal, $A = B$, then the frame is called a **tight frame**, i.e. we have

$$\sum_{j \in J} |\langle f, g_j \rangle|^2 = A\|f\|^2.$$

Frames versus (orthonormal) bases

Proposition

If $(g_j)_{j \in J}$ is a tight frame, with frame bound $A = 1$, and if $\|g_j\|^2 = 1$ for all $j \in J$, then the g_j constitute an orthonormal basis.

- In general, frames and even tight frames are however not orthonormal bases.
- Nevertheless at least for tight frames the function can be expressed similarly. Indeed, by the polarization identity we have

$$A\langle f, h \rangle = \sum_j \langle f, g_j \rangle \langle h, g_j \rangle$$

so that $f = A^{-1} \sum_j \langle f, g_j \rangle g_j$ at least weakly.

Frame operator

How does it work for general frames?

Definition

If $(g_j)_{j \in J}$ is a frame in H , then the **frame operator** F is the linear operator from H to $\ell^2(J) = \{(c_j)_{j \in J} \mid \sum |c_j|^2 < \infty\}$ defined by $(Ff)_j = \langle f, g_j \rangle$.

- It follows from the frame bounds that $\|Ff\|^2 \leq B\|f\|^2$. It is thus a bounded operator.
- The adjoint F^* of F is easy to compute:

$$\langle F^*c, f \rangle = \langle c, Ff \rangle = \sum_j c_j \langle g_j, f \rangle$$

Hence $F^*c = \sum_j c_j g_j$.

Frame operator

The definition of the frame operator implies further that

$$\sum_j |\langle f, g_j \rangle|^2 = \|Ff\|^2 = \langle F^*Ff, f \rangle.$$

Hence, by the frame bounds we have

$$A \text{Id} \leq F^*F \leq B \text{Id}$$

This implies, in particular, that F^*F is invertible, by the following lemma.

Lemma

If a nonnegative bounded linear operator S on H is bounded from below by a strictly positive constant α , then operator is invertible and its inverse S^{-1} is bounded from above by α^{-1} .

Towards dual frames

- From the above we have that $(F^*F)^{-1}$ is well defined and $\|(F^*F)^{-1}\| \leq A^{-1}$.
- Applying the operator $(F^*F)^{-1}$ to the vectors g_j leads to an interesting new family of vectors, which we denote by $\tilde{g}_j = (F^*F)^{-1}g_j$.

Proposition

The $(\tilde{g}_j)_{j \in J}$ constitute a frame with frame bounds B^{-1} and A^{-1} , i.e.,

$$B^{-1}\|f\|^2 \leq \sum_{j \in J} |\langle f, \tilde{g}_j \rangle|^2 \leq A^{-1}\|f\|^2$$

The associated frame operator $\tilde{F} : H \rightarrow \ell^2(J)$, $(\tilde{F}f)_j = \langle f, \tilde{g}_j \rangle$ satisfies $\tilde{F} = F(F^*F)^{-1}$, $\tilde{F}^*\tilde{F} = (F^*F)^{-1}$, $\tilde{F}^*F = Id = F^*\tilde{F}$ and $F\tilde{F}^* = \tilde{F}\tilde{F}^*$ is the orthogonal projection operator, in $\ell^2(J)$ onto $\text{Ran}(F) = \text{Ran}(\tilde{F})$.

Dual frames

We call $(\tilde{g}_j)_{j \in J}$ the dual frame of $(g_j)_{j \in J}$. The conclusions of the above Proposition namely $\tilde{F}^*F = \text{Id} = F^*\tilde{F}$ means

$$\tilde{F}^*Ff = \sum_j \langle f, g_j \rangle \tilde{g}_j = f = F^*\tilde{F}f = \sum_j \langle f, \tilde{g}_j \rangle g_j.$$

- This means that we have a reconstruction formula for f from the $\langle f, g_j \rangle$.
- At the same time we have also obtained a recipe for writing f as a superposition of g_j .

“Optimality” of Dual frames

Frames, even tight frames, are generally not (orthonormal) bases because the g_j are typically not linearly independent. This means that for a given f , there exist many different superpositions of the g_j which all add up to f . The above superposition is nevertheless special in the following sense.

Proposition

If $f = \sum_j c_j g_j$ for some $(c_j) \in \ell^2(J)$ and if not all $c_j = \langle f, \tilde{g}_j \rangle$, then $\sum_j |c_j|^2 > \sum_j |\langle f, \tilde{g}_j \rangle|^2$.

Wavelet frames

- Wavelet frames can be constructed from a family of averaging kernels (“father functions” or scaling functions) satisfying certain conditions.
- This is connected to so-called multiresolution analysis.
- The goal is here to represent wavelet frames via deep neural networks.