Lecture 1 – Some Time-Frequency Transformations

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- What is a Time-Frequency distribution/representation?
- The Wigner Distribution
- The Short-Time Fourier Transform
- The Ambiguity Function
- Uncertainty Principles

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Frequency representation

- Suppose we are given some function $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$.
- The Fourier transform allows us to realize *f* as a superposition of pure frequencies, viz.

$$\widehat{f}(\gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) \, e^{-2\pi i \langle x, \gamma \rangle} \, dx, \ f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \widehat{f}(\gamma) \, e^{2\pi i \langle x, \gamma \rangle} \, d\gamma.$$

- Parseval's formula says this realization preserves energy. $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |f(x)|^2 \, dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2 \, d\gamma.$
- The Fourier transform of *f* gives a frequency *distribution* of *f* as well as a *frequency representation* of *f*.

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It is a distribution in the sense that on any set S ⊆ ℝ^d, the quantity

$$\int_{\mathcal{S}} |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2 \, d\gamma$$

represents the proportion of the function's energy in that frequency band.

- Also the Fourier Inversion gives a representation of *f* in terms of its frequency content.
- A mathematically analogous interpretation takes x as the position variable and γ as the momentum variable.

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- In the context of acoustic signals f(t), it has long been recognized that we do not experience the frequency content of a signal through the usual Fourier paradigm.
- Rather than experiencing a signal as either its *time* representation, f(t), or its *frequency representation*, f(γ), a signal consists of different frequencies at different times.
- A simple metaphor for the representation of an acoustic signal jointly in terms of time and frequency is in a musical score (D. Gabor, 1949; de Bruijn, 1965).
- The notion of time-frequency distributions have arisen in the signal processing and quantum physics communities.

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 When a particular frequency (note) is to be played at a particular time, the composer puts a dot at that place on the time (horizontal) and frequency (vertical) axis.

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- The musical score can be thought of as
 - the *energy distribution* of the signal *f* in time and frequency, and
 - as a *representation* of *f* in time and frequency variables.
- Adding the square of the intensities of each note in a certain time and frequency range gives the energy in the signal in that region of time-frequency space.
- At the same time, the signal can be reproduced from the musical score.

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- We seek to generalize the idea of the musical score (L. Cohen, 1966, 1989).
- For a given *f*(*x*), we seek *P*(*x*, *γ*), a joint distribution giving the intensity of *f* at time *x* and frequency *γ*.
- What properties do we require that P satisfy?

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• We require that *P* satisfy the *marginals*:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x,\gamma) \, d\gamma = |f(x)|^2 \text{ and } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x,\gamma) \, dx = |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2.$$

• The energy of *f* in a given time range $[t_0 - \epsilon, t_0 + \epsilon]$ is

$$\int_{t_0-\epsilon}^{t_0+\epsilon}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x,\gamma)\,d\gamma\,dx = \int_{t_0-\epsilon}^{t_0+\epsilon} |f(x)|^2\,dx.$$

• The energy of *f* in a given frequency range $[\gamma_0 - \delta, \gamma_0 + \delta]$ is

$$\int_{\gamma_0-\delta}^{\gamma_0+\delta}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}P(x,\gamma)\,dx\,d\gamma=\int_{\gamma_0-\delta}^{\gamma_0+\delta}|\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2\,d\gamma.$$

And obviously,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}P(x,\gamma)\,d\gamma\,dx=\|f\|_2^2.$$

• We would further like to say that the energy of *f* in the time-frequency region

$$[t_0 - \epsilon, t_0 + \epsilon] \times [\gamma_0 - \delta, \gamma_0 + \delta]$$

is

$$\int_{t_0-\epsilon}^{t_0+\epsilon}\int_{\gamma_0-\delta}^{\gamma_0+\delta} P(x,\gamma)\,d\gamma\,dx.$$

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- From a quantum physics perspective, we would like $P(x, \gamma)$ to behave as a true probability distribution.
- The expected value of an observable G is given by

$$\langle Gf, f \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x, \gamma) P(x, \gamma) \, d\gamma \, dx$$

where the operator *G* is given as the function *g* of the position and momentum operators, i.e., $G = g(Y_{i}(x_{i})) \frac{1}{2\pi i} \frac{1}{2\pi i}$

$$G = g(X, (-1/2\pi i)d/dx), Xf(x) = xf(x).$$

 These considerations led to the invention of the Wigner distribution.

Definition (Wigner Distribution)

Given $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, the *Wigner distribution* of *f*, denoted $Wf(x, \gamma)$ is defined by

$$Wf(x,\gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x+\frac{t}{2}) \overline{f(x-\frac{t}{2})} e^{-2\pi i(\gamma \cdot t)} dt$$

Given $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, the *cross-Wigner distribution* is given by

$$W(f,g)(x,\gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x+\frac{t}{2}) \overline{g(x-\frac{t}{2})} e^{-2\pi i (\gamma \cdot t)} dt.$$

- Introduced by E. Wigner in 1932 in the context of quantum mechanical measurements.
- Starting with J. Ville in 1948 it has become popular and useful in signal analysis.

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Basic properties of W(f,g)

Theorem

The following hold.

- If f, g ∈ L²(ℝ^d), then W(f,g) ∈ L[∞] ∩ L²(ℝ^d) is uniformly continuous on ℝ^{2d}, and Wf is real-valued.
- If f_1 , f_2 , g_1 , $g_2 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, Moyal's formula holds, i.e.

$$\langle W(f_1,g_1), W(f_2,g_2) \rangle_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^{2d})} = \langle f_1, f_2 \rangle_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)} \overline{\langle g_1,g_2 \rangle}_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)}.$$

• If $f, \hat{f} \in L^1 \cap L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ then $Wf(x, \omega)$ satisfies the marginals, i.e.

•
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Wf(x,\gamma) d\omega = |f(x)|^2$$
,
• $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Wf(x,\gamma) dt = |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2$,

• If $f(0) \neq 0$ then

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\overline{f(0)}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Wf(\frac{x}{2}, t) e^{2\pi i \langle t, x \rangle} dt.$$

This follows from the fact that the coordinate change

$$(x,y)\mapsto\left(x+rac{y}{2},x-rac{y}{2}
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is inverted by

$$(x,y)\mapsto\left(rac{x+y}{2},x-y
ight)$$

and then applying Fourier inversion.

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- In order to be a true energy density function, we would like to say that Wf(x, γ) ≥ 0 for all f ∈ L² and (x, γ) ∈ ℝ^{2d}. This only holds for functions of a special form, the *generalized gaussians*.
- However, positivity for *Wf* can be achieved by taking averages, i.e., *Wf* * σ. This fact can be interpreted as a form of the uncertainty principle.

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Theorem

For a, b > 0 let

$$\sigma_{a,b}(x,\gamma) = e^{-2\pi \left(\frac{x^2}{a} + \frac{\gamma^2}{b}\right)}$$

Then

- Wf $* \sigma_{a,b} > 0$ for all $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if and only if ab > 1.
- Wf $* \sigma_{a,b} \ge 0$ for all $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if and only if $ab \ge 1$.
- This can be interpreted as saying that the values of Wf(x, γ) at a particular point (x, γ) or even in a set U ⊆ ℝ^{2d} of small area do not have a clear physical meaning.

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The Short-Time Fourier Transform

 From the late 1940s, communication engineers took a different (but related) approach to understanding the joint time-frequency content of a signal, the *spectrogram*.

Definition

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we define for $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ the

- translation operator, or time shift operator, $T_a f(x) = f(x - a)$, and the
- modulation operator, or frequency shift operator, $M_b f(x) = e^{2\pi i (b \cdot x)} f(x).$

Given $g \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, we define the *short-time Fourier transform* (*STFT*) on $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ by

$$V_g f(x,\gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(t) \,\overline{g(t-x)} \, e^{-2\pi i (t\cdot\gamma)} \, dt = \langle f, M_\gamma T_x g \rangle.$$

• *V_g* is also referred to as the *voice transform* or the *windowed Fourier transform* with *g* being the *window function*.

•
$$V_g f(x, \gamma) = (\widehat{f})(T_x \overline{g})(\gamma)$$
.

For fixed window g, the function |V_gf(x, γ)|² is called the spectrogram of f.

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Properties of the STFT

 For f, g ∈ L², V_gf(x, γ) is uniformly continuous on ℝ^{2d} and bounded with

$$\|V_g f\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_2 \|g\|_2.$$

• For fixed $g \in L^2, \ V_g \colon L^2(\mathbb{R}^d) o L^2(\mathbb{R}^{2d})$ and moreover

$$\|V_{g}f\|_{L^{2}(\mathbb{R}^{2d})} = \|f\|_{L^{2}(\mathbb{R}^{d})}\|g\|_{L^{2}(\mathbb{R}^{d})}$$

so that if $\|g\| = 1$, V_g is an isometry.

• Moyal's formula is satisfied, i.e., if f_1 , f_2 , g_1 , $g_2 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ then

$$\langle V_{g_1}(f_1), V_{g_2}(f_2) \rangle_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^{2d})} = \langle f_1, f_2 \rangle_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)} \overline{\langle g_1, g_2 \rangle}_{L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)}.$$

• V_g is invertible with

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\|g\|_2} \iint_{\mathbb{R}^{2d}} V_g f(x,\gamma) M_\gamma T_x g(t) \, d\gamma \, dt.$$

 Many of the fundamental properties of the Wigner distribution follow from those of the STFT by observing that

$$W(f,g^-)(x,\gamma) = 2^d e^{4\pi i (x\cdot\gamma)} V_g f(2x,2\gamma)$$

where $g^{-}(x) = g(-x)$.

Note that although

$$Wf(x,\gamma) = 2^{d} e^{4\pi i(x\cdot\gamma)} V_{f^{-}} f(2x,2\gamma),$$

the time-frequency distribution $V_f f(x, \gamma)$ does not satisfy the marginals.

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Definition

The *(radar)* ambiguity function of $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ is given by

$$Af(x,\gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(t+\frac{x}{2}) \overline{f(t-\frac{x}{2})} e^{-2\pi i(\gamma \cdot t)} dt.$$

and given $g \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, the *cross-ambiguity function* by

$$A(f,g)(x,\gamma) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(t+\frac{x}{2}) \overline{g(t-\frac{x}{2})} e^{-2\pi i(\gamma \cdot t)} dt.$$

• The radar ambiguity function is due to Woodward, 1953.

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Why "radar"?

- Suppose that a test signal f(t) is sent from a radar apparatus a distance r from the source and moving at velocity v from the source.
- The echo of *f* is received with time-shift Δ*t* (proportional to the range) and Doppler shift Δγ (proportional to the velocity), i.e.

$$\boldsymbol{e}(t)=\boldsymbol{M}_{\Delta\gamma}\boldsymbol{T}_{\Delta t}\boldsymbol{f}.$$

• The echo is compared to arbitrary time-frequency shifts of *f*, and we compute

$$|\langle \boldsymbol{e}, \boldsymbol{M}_{\omega} \boldsymbol{T}_{\boldsymbol{X}} \boldsymbol{f} \rangle| = |\boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{f} (\boldsymbol{X} - \Delta \boldsymbol{t}, \omega - \Delta \gamma)|$$

• Maximizing this quantity over all (x, ω) gives estimates for $(\Delta t, \Delta \gamma)$.

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• The *uncertainty principle* can be loosely formulated as follows.

A function and its Fourier transform cannot simultaneously be concentrated on small sets.

• An alternate but related formulation says the following.

The time-frequency distribution of any function cannot be concentrated on a small set in the time-frequency plane. This is independent of which time-frequency distribution is used.

Classical Uncertainty Principle

Theorem

Let $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ and let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ be given. Then

$$\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} (x-a)^2 |f(x)|^2 dx\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} (\gamma-b)^2 |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2 d\gamma\right)^{1/2} \ge \frac{1}{4\pi} \|f\|_2^2.$$

Equality holds if and only if f(x) is a time-frequency shift of a gaussian $\varphi(x) = e^{-\pi x^2/c}$.

If ||f||₂ = 1 then |f(x)|² and |f(γ)|² can be thought of as probability distributions, and the quantities

$$\min_{a \in \mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} (x-a)^2 |f(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}, \ \min_{\gamma \in \mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} (\gamma-b)^2 |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2 d\gamma \right)^{1/2}$$

as their standard deviations and hence as a measure of concentration of $|f|^2$ and $|\hat{f}|^2$ about their means.

Lemma

Let A and B be self-adjoint operators on a Hilbert space. Then

$$||(A-a)f|||(B-b)f|| \geq \frac{1}{2}|\langle [A,B]f,f\rangle|$$

for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and f in the domain of AB and BA, where [A, B] = AB - BA is the commutator of A and B.

Proof:

$$\langle [A, B]f, f \rangle = \langle [(A - a), (B - b)]f, f \rangle = \langle (B - b)f, (A - a)f \rangle - \langle (A - a)f, (B - b)f \rangle = 2i Im \langle (B - b)f, (A - a)f \rangle.$$

Applying Cauchy-Schwarz yields the result.

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Apply the above Lemma to the position and momentum operators,

$$Xf(x) = x f(x)$$
, and $Pf(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} f'(x)$

which are self-adjoint and whose commutator is

$$[X, P]f = \frac{1}{2\pi i}(xf'(x) - (xf)'(x)) = -\frac{1}{2\pi i}f(x).$$

Finally observe that

$$\|(X-a)f\|_2 = \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (x-a)^2 |f(x)|^2 dx\right)^{1/2}$$

and

$$\|(P-b)f\|_2 = \|(\widehat{P-b})f\|_2 = \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (\gamma-b)^2 |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2 d\gamma\right)^{1/2}$$

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Theorem (D. Donoho-P. Stark, 1989)

Suppose that for some sets T, $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ satisfies

$$\left(\int_{T^c} |f(x)|^2 dx\right)^{1/2} < \epsilon_T ||f||_2, \text{ and } \left(\int_{\Omega^c} |\widehat{f}(\gamma)|^2 d\gamma\right)^{1/2} < \epsilon_\Omega ||\widehat{f}||_2.$$

Then

$$|T||\Omega| \geq (1 - \epsilon_T - \epsilon_\Omega)^2.$$

- We say that under the hypotheses of the theorem f and f
 are ε_T (resp. ε_Ω) concentrated on T (resp. Ω).
- The theorem can be interpreted as saying that any function must essentially occupy an area of at least one in time-frequency space.

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Theorem (Lieb 1990, Gröchenig 2001)

Let $||f||_2 = ||g||_2 = 1$ and suppose that for some $\epsilon > 0$ and $U \in \mathbb{R}^{2d}$, $\int \int_U |V_g f(x, \gamma)|^2 dx d\gamma \ge 1 - \epsilon.$ Then $|U| \ge 2^d (1 - \epsilon)^2$.

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