

SHORT TIME FOURIER TRANSFORM

A drawback of both Fourier series and Fourier transform is that they destroy local information. Both allow reconstruction of L^2 -functions, but the whole transform is needed to recover the function. For example - a small shift in a windowed Fourier transform at each s .

$$\hat{\chi}_{[0,a)}(s) = \frac{1-e^{-2\pi i s}}{2\pi i s}$$

The short time Fourier intends to avoid this inconvenience by dividing a long time signal into shorter segments (of equal length) and then compute the Fourier transform separately on each shorter segment.

Definition: Let $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$. The short time Fourier transform (STFT) of f with window g is

$$V_g f(t, s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(s) \overline{g(s-t)} e^{-2\pi i s} ds.$$

Usually g is concentrated around 0, so that $g(s-t)$ gives a "window" to measure f around t . This is why the STFT is sometimes called "windowed Fourier transform".

Quite often it is convenient (and helpful) to think in terms of time-frequency shifts as complex shifts. Let $z = t + i\omega \in \mathbb{C}$ and define

$$\pi(z)g(s) = g(s-t)e^{2\pi i \omega s} = M_z \mathcal{I}_t g(s).$$

In this language:

$$V_g f(z) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(s) \overline{\pi(z)g(s)} ds = \langle f, \pi(z)g \rangle_{L^2(\mathbb{R})}.$$

Example: Let $g(s) = \frac{1}{2a} \chi_{[a, a]}(s)$ (the normalisation $\frac{1}{2a}$ is just so that $\int_{\mathbb{R}} g = 1$). Then

$$V_g f(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(s) \frac{1}{2a} \chi_{[a, a]}(s-t) e^{-2\pi i \omega s} ds = \frac{1}{2a} \int_{t-a}^{t+a} f(s) e^{-2\pi i \omega s} ds.$$

This is the Fourier content of f in the frequency ω for time $s \in [t-a, t+a]$.

Note: The abrupt edges of $\chi_{[a, a]}$ cause problems. Common windows are the Gaussian $g(s) = e^{-\pi s^2}$, or the Fourier transform of the previous one, that is $g(s) = \text{sinc}(2\pi a s)$.

Exercises: ① Let $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Prove the "Fundamental identity of time-frequency analysis"

$$V_g f(x, s) = e^{-2\pi i x s} V_{\bar{g}} \hat{f}(s, -x)$$

② Covariance property: for $x, u, s, w \in \mathbb{R}$

$$V_g (\mathcal{C}_u M_w f)(x, s) = e^{-2\pi i u s} V_g f(x-u, s-w).$$

A fundamental result in this theory is the following.

Theorem (orthogonality)

Let $f_1, f_2, g_1, g_2 \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Then $V_g f_j \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and

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

In particular, for $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ we have $\|V_g f\|_2 = \|f\|_2 \cdot \|g\|_2$, and when the window g is ∞ that $\|g\|_2 = 1$ then

$V_g : L^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$ is an isometry.

Proof: Assume that $g_1, g_2 \in (L^1 \cap L^\infty)(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

Then $\mathcal{C}_x \bar{g}_j \in L^2(\mathbb{R}) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}; j=1,2$.

Notice that, in general,

$$V_g f(x, \omega) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) \bar{g(t-x)} e^{-2\pi i t \omega} dt = (\mathcal{F} \cdot \mathcal{C}_x \bar{g})^\wedge(\omega)$$

Then, by Plancherel on the w -integral

$$\langle V_{g_1} f_1, V_{g_2} f_2 \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} (f_1 \cdot \zeta_x \bar{g}_1)^{\hat{w}}(\omega) \overline{(f_2 \cdot \zeta_x \bar{g}_2)^{\hat{w}}(\omega)} d\omega dx$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_1(t) \overline{g_1(t-x)} \overline{f_2(t)} g_2(t-x) dt dx =$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f_1(t) \overline{f_2(t)} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} \overline{g_1(t-x)} g_2(t-x) dx \right) dt = \langle f_1, f_2 \rangle \cdot \langle \overline{g_1}, g_2 \rangle.$$

The general case is obtained by a standard density argument: fixed $g_1 \in L^1 \cap L^\infty$, the map $g_2 \mapsto \langle V_{g_1} f_1, V_{g_2} f_2 \rangle$ is a linear functional coinciding with $\langle f_1, f_2 \rangle \langle \overline{g_1}, g_2 \rangle$ on the dense subspace $L^1 \cap L^\infty$, so it extends to all $L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Same thing with $g_1 \mapsto \langle V_{g_1} f_1, V_{g_2} f_2 \rangle$ \square

This result shows that f is completely determined by its STFT $V_g f$, but it doesn't give a way to recover f from $V_g f$. We need an "inversion formula" for the STFT.

Inversion formula Let $g, \gamma \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ with $\langle g, \gamma \rangle \neq 0$. Then, for all $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\langle \gamma, g \rangle} \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} V_g f(x, \omega) M_\omega \tau_x \gamma(t) d\omega dx.$$

In particular, if $\gamma = g$ and we normalize $\|g\|_2 = 1$, then

$$f(t) = \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} V_g f(x, \omega) M_\omega \tau_x g(t) d\omega dx.$$

Remarks: ① This is, in a way, similar to the Fourier inversion formula: f is expressed a superposition of time-frequency shifts, with $V_g f(x, \omega)$ as a weight. However, in the Fourier case the elementary functions $e_\omega(x) = e^{2\pi i x \omega}$ are not in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, whereas $M_\omega \tau_x$ are particularly nice functions in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

② Assume that γ is (essentially) supported on $T \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and that $\hat{\gamma}$ is (essentially) supported on $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then $M_\omega \tau_x \gamma$ is (essentially) supported in $x+T$, and its (essential) spectrum is $\omega+\Omega$. Thus $M_\omega \tau_x \gamma$ occupies a cell

$$(x+T) \times (\omega+\Omega)$$

in the time-frequency plane, and the size of

$V_g f(x, \omega)$ measures the contribution of this time-frequency atoms in the decomposition of f .

The uncertainty principle limits this concentration to sets T, S_2 with $|T| |S_2| \geq 1 - \delta$, $\delta > 0$.

Good time resolution requires a window with small support; this comes at the price of poor frequency resolution. Similarly, good frequency resolution, by means of a band-limited window implies poor resolution in time. In practice we choose g such that both g and \hat{g} decay rapidly. The choice of g Gaussian is canonical.

Proof: Since $V_g f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\tilde{f} := \frac{1}{\langle \gamma, g \rangle} \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} V_g f(x, \omega) M_\omega \gamma_x \gamma \, d\omega dx$$

is well defined in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, in the following sense:
For all $h \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ the product:

$$\langle \tilde{f}, h \rangle := \frac{1}{\langle \gamma, g \rangle} \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} V_g f(x, \omega) \langle M_\omega \gamma_x \gamma, h \rangle \, d\omega dx \quad (\text{A})$$

is well defined, since by Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$\begin{aligned} |\langle \tilde{f}, h \rangle| &= \left| \frac{1}{\langle \gamma, g \rangle} \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} V_g f(x, \omega) \overline{\sqrt{\gamma} h(x, \omega)} \, d\omega dx \right| \leq \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|\langle \gamma, g \rangle|} \|V_g f\|_2^2 \|V_\gamma h\|^2 = \frac{1}{|\langle \gamma, g \rangle|} \|f\|_2^2 \|g\|_2^2 \|h\|_2^2 \|\gamma\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by Riesz representation theorem, \tilde{f} is given by a function in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

Let us see finally that this function is f , that is, let us see that

$$\langle \tilde{f}, h \rangle = \langle f, h \rangle \quad \forall h \in L^2(\mathbb{R}).$$

From the identity (A) above we have

$$\langle \tilde{f}, h \rangle = \frac{1}{\langle g, g \rangle} \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} V_g f(x, \omega) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} M_{\omega} \mathcal{C}_x \gamma(t) \overline{h(t)} dt \right) d\omega dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\langle g, g \rangle} \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} V_g f(x, \omega) \overline{\langle h, M_{\omega} \mathcal{C}_x \gamma \rangle} d\omega dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\langle g, g \rangle} \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} V_g f(x, \omega) \overline{V_x h(x, \omega)} d\omega dx =$$

$$= \frac{1}{\langle g, g \rangle} \langle V_g f, V_x h \rangle = \frac{1}{\langle g, g \rangle} \langle f, h \rangle \overline{\langle g, g \rangle} = \langle f, h \rangle.$$

By duality $\tilde{f} = f$. \blacksquare

Note: In practise, given a signal f , the process is :

1. Analysis : $f \rightarrow V_g f$

2. Processing: This may involve truncation, separation of signal components, compression, etc...

It results in a function $F(x, \omega) \sim V_g f(x, \omega)$.

3. Synthesis : $\tilde{f}(t) = \iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} F(x, \omega) M_{\omega} \mathcal{C}_x \gamma(t) dx d\omega$.

Discrete time-frequency representations. Gabor frames

Instead of the continuous expansion given by the inversion formula we would like to have a series expansion with respect to a countable subset of the time-frequency shifts.

Example: Let $g(t) = \chi_{[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]}(t)$. Then the system

$$\{M_k T_n g\}_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}} = \{e^{2\pi i k t} g(t-n)\}_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

is an orthonormal basis of $L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Therefore, for any $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ we have the decomposition

$$(D) \quad f(t) = \sum_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}} V_g f(n,k) M_k T_n g(t),$$

where $V_g f(n,k) = \langle f, M_k T_n g \rangle = \int_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} f(t) e^{-2\pi i k t} dt$

Also

$$\|f\|_{L^2(\mathbb{R})}^2 = \sum_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}} |V_g f(n,k)|^2.$$

Formula (D) tells us that in order to determine (and reconstruct) f it is enough to sample $V_g f(x, \omega)$ on the lattice $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$.

Let us prove this. By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} V_g f(x, \zeta) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) \chi_{[n-\frac{1}{2}, n+\frac{1}{2}]}(t-x) e^{-2\pi i t \zeta} dt \\ &= \int_{x-\frac{1}{2}}^{x+\frac{1}{2}} f(t) e^{-2\pi i t \zeta} dt \end{aligned}$$

In particular $V_g f(n, \kappa) = \int_{n-\frac{1}{2}}^{n+\frac{1}{2}} f(t) e^{-2\pi i t \kappa} dt,$

which can be viewed as the κ -th coefficient of the 1-periodic function in \mathbb{R} coinciding with f in $[n-\frac{1}{2}, n+\frac{1}{2}]$.

Recall that, in general, given a T -periodic function h we have

$$h(t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{h}(n) e^{i \frac{2\pi}{T} n t}, \quad \hat{h}(n) = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} h(t) e^{-i \frac{2\pi}{T} n t} dt$$

For $T=1$ this gives

$$h(t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{h}(n) e^{i 2\pi n t}; \quad \hat{h}(n) = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} h(t) e^{-2\pi i n t} dt.$$

Thus, for $t \in [n-\frac{1}{2}, n+\frac{1}{2}]$

$$f(t) = \sum_{\kappa \in \mathbb{Z}} V_g f(n, \kappa) e^{2\pi i n t},$$

and combining the different unit interval

$$f(t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} f(n) \chi_{[n-\frac{1}{2}, n+\frac{1}{2}]}(t) = \sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} V_g f(n, k) e^{2\pi i k t} \chi_{[n-\frac{1}{2}, n+\frac{1}{2}]}(t)$$

$$= \sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} V_g f(n, k) (M_k T_n g)(t).$$

That $\{e^{2\pi i k t} \chi_{[n-\frac{1}{2}, n+\frac{1}{2}]}(t)\}_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is orthogonal is immediate: for different n the supports are disjoint, and fixed n the different k give a Fourier basis. On the other hand, trivially $\|M_k T_n g\|_2 = 1$.

At this point one may wonder whether a similar basis exists with translations and modulations of the Gaussian (instead of the characteristic function). The answer is no...

Let $g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ be a general window, and discretize $M_w T_x g$ on a lattice $a\mathbb{Z} \times b\mathbb{Z}$, $ab > 0$, $ab = 1$ (the case $a = b = 1$ is the canonical one). Let thus

$$g_{n, k} = M_{bk} T_{an} g \quad n, k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Balian-Low theorem Let $g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$, $a, b > 0$ with $ab = 1$, and let $\{g_{n,k}\}_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ as above.

If $\{\widehat{g}_{n,k}\}_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is an orthonormal basis of $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} t^2 |g(t)|^2 dt \right) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} s^2 |\widehat{g}(s)|^2 ds \right) = \infty.$$

Note: This is a particular manifestation of the uncertainty principle: if $\{g_{n,k}\}_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a basis, the window g cannot be concentrated both in time and frequency.

Corollary. Let $g(t) = 2^{1/4} e^{-\pi t^2}$ be the Gaussian (with $\|g\|_2 = 1$). The family $g_{n,k}(t) = M_k T_n g(t)$, $n, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ is not an orthonormal basis.

Proof: $\int_{\mathbb{R}} t^2 |g(t)|^2 dt = \sqrt{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} t^2 e^{-2\pi t^2} dt < +\infty$ \square

Notice that in the previous case $g(t) = \chi_{[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]}(t)$ we have $\widehat{g}(s) = \frac{\sin(\pi s)}{\pi s}$ and

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} s^2 |\widehat{g}(s)|^2 = \frac{1}{\pi^2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} |\sin(\pi s)|^2 ds = +\infty.$$

Proof: This is a sort of physics proof. We do it only for $a=b=1$ (canonical case). We have thus the system

$$g_{n,k}(t) = M_k \mathcal{C}_n g(t) = e^{2\pi i k t} g(t-n).$$

Consider the following two operators:

$$Xf(x) = xf(x) \text{ Position; } Pf(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} f'(x) \text{ Momentum}$$

These operators are self-adjoint, in the sense that

$$\cdot \langle Xf, g \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) g(x) dx = \langle f, Xg \rangle \quad f \in L^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot \langle Pf, g \rangle &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f'(x) g(x) dx = \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) g'(x) dx = \langle f, Pg \rangle \end{aligned} \quad f \in L^2$$

Assume that $Xg(x) = xg(x) \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ and that $Pg \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$, which, by the Fourier identity

$$\widehat{f}(s) = 2\pi i s \widehat{f}(s), \text{ is equivalent to } s \widehat{g}(s) \in L^2(\mathbb{R}).$$

Since we are assuming that $\{M_k \mathcal{C}_n g\}_{n,k}$ is a basis we have

$$Xg = \sum_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle Xg, M_k \mathcal{C}_n g \rangle M_k \mathcal{C}_n g$$

$$Pg = \sum_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle Pg, M_k \mathcal{C}_n g \rangle M_k \mathcal{C}_n g,$$

and therefore, by the orthonormality :

$$\langle Xg, Pg \rangle = \sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle Xg, M_k \mathcal{E}_n g \rangle \langle M_k \mathcal{E}_n g, Pg \rangle.$$

Claim: $\langle Xg, M_k \mathcal{E}_n g \rangle = \langle M_{-k} \mathcal{E}_{-n} g, Xg \rangle$

$$\langle M_k \mathcal{E}_n g, Pg \rangle = \langle Pg, M_{-k} \mathcal{E}_{-n} g \rangle$$

Assuming this, since $\{M_{-k} \mathcal{E}_{-n} g\}_{k, n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is the same basis

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Xg, Pg \rangle &= \sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle Pg, M_{-k} \mathcal{E}_{-n} g \rangle \langle M_{-k} \mathcal{E}_{-n} g, Xg \rangle \\ &= \langle Pg, Xg \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Since both operators are self-adjoint, this gives a contradiction (provided $g \in \text{Dom}(P) \cap \text{Dom}(X)$); first

$$(PX - XP)g = P(xg(x)) - X\left(\frac{1}{2\pi i} g'(x)\right) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi i} (g(x) + xg'(x)) - \frac{x}{2\pi i} g'(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} g(x).$$

But the above identity gives

$$\langle PXg, g \rangle = \langle XPg, g \rangle; \langle (PX - XP)g, g \rangle = 0.$$

This is a contradiction:

$$0 = \langle (PX - XP)g, g \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \langle g, g \rangle.$$

It remains to prove the claim. Let us prove the

first identity, the other one is proved similarly.

By the self-adjointness

$$\langle Xg, M_k \mathcal{C}_n g \rangle = \langle g, X M_k \mathcal{C}_n g \rangle.$$

By definition

$$\begin{aligned} X M_k \mathcal{C}_n g(x) &= x e^{2\pi i k x} g(x-n) = n e^{2\pi i k x} g(x-n) + e^{2\pi i k x} (x-n) g(x-n) \\ &= n M_k \mathcal{C}_n g(x) + M_k \mathcal{C}_n X g(x). \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\langle Xg, M_k \mathcal{C}_n g \rangle = n \langle g, M_k \mathcal{C}_n g \rangle + \langle g, M_k \mathcal{C}_n X g \rangle.$$

Since $g = M_0 \mathcal{C}_0 g$, the orthogonality of the system $\{M_k \mathcal{C}_n g\}_{k,n}$ shows that the first term in this sum is zero. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle Xg, M_k \mathcal{C}_n g \rangle &= \langle g, M_k \mathcal{C}_n X g \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x) e^{-2\pi i k x} \overline{Xg(x-n)} dx \\ (x-n=t) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(t+n) e^{-2\pi i k(t+n)} \overline{Xg(t)} dt \\ &= \langle M_{-k} \mathcal{C}_{-n} g, Xg \rangle. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

So far we have seen that a Gabor system $\{M_b \tau_n g\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ cannot form an orthonormal basis unless either g or \hat{g} are badly localized. Take the Gaussian $g(t) = 2^{1/4} e^{-\pi t^2}$. There is really no way to recover an $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ from its action on a Gabor system

$$g_{n,k} = M_{b,n} \tau_k g, n, k \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ on a lattice } a\mathbb{Z} \times b\mathbb{Z}?$$

The answer is of course yes - but not in the same way as it is done with an orthonormal basis. Ultimately we would like to have an expression of the form

$$f = \sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} c_{n, k}(f) M_{b, n} \tau_k g = \sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} c_{n, k}(f) g_{n, k}$$

Recall that $V_g f(a_n, b_k) = \langle f, M_{b, n} \tau_k g \rangle = \langle f, g_{n, k} \rangle$.

If we want the system $\{g_{n, k}\}_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ to capture most of the energy of a $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ we need that

$$A \|f\|_2^2 \leq \sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} |V_g f(a_n, b_k)|^2$$

for some $A > 0$. If we want the system not to "oversample", in the sense that too much of $\|f\|_2^2$ is given by the samples, we ask

$$\sum_{n, k \in \mathbb{Z}} |V_g f(a_n, b_k)|^2 \leq B \|f\|_2^2$$

for some $B > 0$.

These two conditions give a notion that is more

relaxed than being a basis. For example, we could double the number of $\{g_{n,k}\}_{n,k}$ and we would still get such a family. Or we could delete one $g_{n,k}$ and maybe still preserve the inequalities. This robustness, which the orthonormal bases lack, is very helpfull in applications.

Definition: A sequence $\{e_j\}_{j \in J}$ in a separable Hilbert space H is called a frame if there exist $A, B > 0$ such that

$$(F) \quad A \|f\|^2 \leq \sum_{j \in J} |\langle f, e_j \rangle|^2 \leq B \|f\|^2 \quad \forall f \in H.$$

In this language, we are interested then in babor frames $\{g_{n,k}\}_{n,k}$ (as above) in $H = L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

Of course an orthonormal basis is a frame, with $A, B = 1$. Also, the union of two orthonormal bases is a frame, with $A = B = 2$.

Notice that, in general, the elements in a frame are neither orthogonal nor independent.

Let us see next how the "synthesis" can be done for frames, that is, let us see how we can express $f = \sum_{n,k} c_{n,k} g_{n,k}$ with a canonical

choice of coefficients c_{nk} .

Dual frame Representations.

In general, given a subset $\{e_n\}_n \subseteq H$, consider the operators: $c(f) = \{\langle f, e_n \rangle\}_n$ analysis $A(f)$

$$D(c) = \sum_k c_k e_k \text{ for } c = \{c_k\}_k \text{ synthesis } S(c)$$

$$S(f) = \sum_k \langle f, e_k \rangle e_k \text{ frame operator } T(f)$$

Proposition Suppose that $\{e_n\}_n$ is a frame for H . (with A, B as in inequality (F)).

- ① $C: H \rightarrow \ell^2$ and it has closed range
- ② $D = C^*$, and consequently D extends to a bounded operator from ℓ^2 into H and

$$\left\| \sum_k c_k e_k \right\| \leq \sqrt{B} \|c\|_2 \quad c \in \ell^2$$

- ③ $S = C^*C = DD^*$ maps H into H and is a positive invertible operator with $A \cdot I \leq S \leq B \cdot I$
 $B^{-1}I \leq S^{-1} \leq A^{-1}I$

Note: It can also be seen that the optimal frame bounds are $B = \|S\|$; $A = \|S^{-1}\|$.

Proof: @ Clearly $C(f) \in \ell^2$, since

$$\sum_n |\langle f, e_n \rangle|^2 \leq B \|f\|^2 < +\infty$$

That C has closed range is a consequence of the other inequality $\sqrt{A} \|f\| \leq \|C(f)\|$: if $\{C(f_n)\}_n \rightarrow \alpha$ then the sequence $\{f_n\}_n$ is a Cauchy sequence and there exists $f = \lim_n f_n$ (in H), which has necessarily $C(f) = \alpha$.

④ Let $c = \{c_n\}_n$ be finite. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle C^*(c), f \rangle &= \langle c, C(f) \rangle = \sum_n c_n \overline{\langle f, e_n \rangle} = \left\langle \sum_n c_n e_n, f \right\rangle \\ &= \langle D(c), f \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Since C is bounded and $\|C\| \leq \sqrt{B}$, it follows that $D = C^*: \ell^2 \rightarrow H$ is also bounded, with $\|D\| \leq \sqrt{B}$.

⑤ By definition $S = C^*C = DD^*$ and therefore S is self-adjoint and positive. Since $\langle Sf, f \rangle = \sum_n |\langle f, e_n \rangle|^2$, the frame inequality is precisely $A \cdot I \leq S \leq B \cdot I$. Also, S invertible because $A > 0$. Inequalities are preserved under multiplication by positive commuting operators; therefore $AS^{-1} \leq SS^{-1} \leq BS^{-1}$.

Note: Given a frame $\{e_k\}_k$ and $f = \sum_k c_k e_k$, with $c = \{c_k\}_k \in \ell^2$, then $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists F_0$ finite such that 7.10

$$\left\| f - \sum_{k \in F} c_k e_k \right\| < \epsilon \quad \forall F \supseteq F_0 \text{ finite}$$

It is said that $\sum_k c_k e_k$ converges unconditionally to f . This is seen just by taking F_0 so that for

$$F \supseteq F_0, \quad \sum_{k \notin F} |c_k|^2 < \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{B}}.$$

Corollary: Let $\{e_k\}_k$ be a frame. Then $\{S^{-1}e_k\}_k$ is also a frame (called the dual frame), with constants $B^{-1}, A^{-1} > 0$, and

$$f = \sum_k \langle f, S^{-1}e_k \rangle e_k \quad f = S(S^{-1}f) = \sum_m \langle S^{-1}f, e_m \rangle e_m$$

$$f = \sum_k \langle f, e_k \rangle S^{-1}e_k \quad f = S^{-1}(Sf) = \sum_m \langle Sf, S^{-1}e_m \rangle S^{-1}e_m$$

Thus, we can represent f through a frame $\{e_k\}_k$, but the coefficients are given by the dual frame (not the original frame). In case $\{e_k\}_k$ is an orthogonal basis, then $S = I$ and therefore the dual frame is just the original one.

- Now that we know that $\{M_k \mathbb{Z}_n g\}_{n,k}$, for g Gaussian, is not an orthonormal basis, a natural question is:

for what lattices $a\mathbb{Z} \times b\mathbb{Z}$ in the time-frequency plane the system $\{M_{b\mathbb{Z}} T_a g\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is a frame?

Theorem (Daubechies - Grossmann; Seip)

Let $g(t) = 2^{1/4} e^{-\pi t^2}$ be the (normalised) Gaussian.

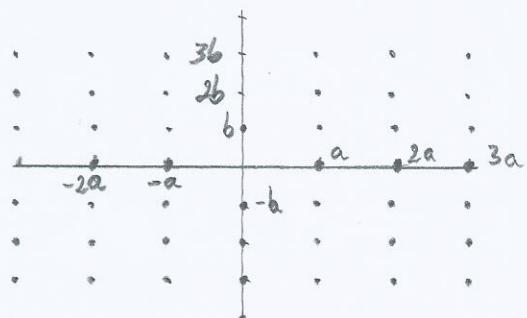
The system $\{g_{n,k}\}_{n,k \in \mathbb{Z}}$, with $g_{n,k}(t) = M_{b\mathbb{Z}} T_a g(t)$, $a, b > 0$ is a frame iff and only if $ab < 1$.

Note: The condition $ab < 1$ is a way to measure that there are enough samples of each $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ taken by the frame.

The product ab is the area of the lattice cell.

In a square $[0, N] \times [0, N]$

there are roughly $\frac{N}{a} \times \frac{N}{b}$



nodes of the lattice. In this sense, the "density" of the lattice (number of elements per area) is $\frac{1}{ab}$.

Actually more generally, a Gabor system $\{M_{y_k} T_{x_k} g\}_k$ is a frame if (letting $z_k = x_k + iy_k$ and $\Lambda = \{z_k\}_k$)

$$D(\Lambda) := \liminf_{r \rightarrow 0} \inf_{z \in \mathbb{C}} \frac{\#\Lambda \cap D(z, r)}{\pi r^2} > 1.$$

The quantity $D(\Lambda)$ is called the upper density of Λ .

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and it counts the infimum number of points of Λ per unit of area. In accordance with our intuition, a sequence Λ produces a frame if it is "dense enough".

A final remark: Frames are useful in many other situations. For example, Shannon's theorem for $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ functions with $\text{supp } \hat{f} \subseteq [-\pi, \pi]$ says that

$$f(t) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} f(k) \frac{\sin(\pi(t-k))}{\pi(t-k)} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |f(k)|^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |f(t)|^2 dt.$$

We might want to ask whether we can have similar representations for other $\{t_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, in such a way that there is some stability of the norms. This leads to inequalities of the form (for $A, B > 0$),

$$A \|f\|^2 \leq \sum_k |f(t_k)|^2 \leq B \|f\|^2 \quad f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$$

Looking at the Fourier side, and letting $g = \hat{f}$, this is

$$A \|g\|^2 \leq \sum_k |\langle g, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-it_k s} \rangle|^2 \leq B \|g\|^2 \quad g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$$

This is precisely saying that $\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-it_k s} \right\}_k$ is a frame for $L^2[-\pi, \pi]$. These are called Fourier frames.