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Wavelet thresholding via a Bayesian approach

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Summary. We discuss a Bayesian formalism which gives rise to a type of wavelet threshold estimation in nonparametric regression. A prior distribution is imposed on the wavelet coefficients of the unknown response function, designed to capture the sparseness of wavelet expansion that is common to most applications. For the prior specified, the posterior median yields a thresholding procedure. Our prior model for the underlying function can be adjusted to give functions falling in any specific Besov space. We establish a relationship between the hyperparameters of the prior model and the parameters of those Besov spaces within which realizations from the prior will fall. Such a relationship gives insight into the meaning of the Besov space parameters. Moreover, the relationship established makes it possible in principle to incorporate prior knowledge about the function's regularity properties into the prior model for its wavelet coefficients. However, prior knowledge about a function's regularity properties might be difficult to elicit; with this in mind, we propose a standard choice of prior hyperparameters that works well in our examples. Several simulated examples are used to illustrate our method, and comparisons are made with other thresholding methods. We also present an application to a data set that was collected in an anaesthesiological study.

Keywords: Adaptive estimation; Anaesthetics; Bayes model; Besov spaces; Nonparametric regression; Thresholding; Wavelet transform

1. Introduction

Consider the standard nonparametric regression problem

$$y_i = g(t_i) + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad (1)$$

where $t_i = i/n$ and ϵ_i are independent identically distributed normal variables with zero mean and variance σ^2 , and we wish to recover the unknown function g from the noisy data without assuming any particular parametric form.

There are several approaches to the nonparametric estimation of the unknown function g such as spline smoothing, kernel estimation and generalized Fourier series expansion. In this paper we consider wavelet-based estimators of g . The function g is expanded in wavelet series in a way that is similar to the generalized Fourier series approach. The advantage of the

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wavelet basis is its ‘universality’ — functions from a wide set of function spaces, such as Besov or Triebel spaces, have a parsimonious representation in wavelet series. The usual approach is to expand the noisy data in wavelet series, to extract the ‘significant’ wavelet coefficients by thresholding and then to invert the wavelet transform of the denoised coefficients. Donoho and Johnstone (1994, 1995) and Donoho *et al.* (1995) showed that such wavelet estimators with a properly chosen threshold rule have various important optimality properties. The choice of thresholding rule, therefore, becomes a crucial step in the estimation procedure. Several approaches to thresholding have been introduced: a minimax approach (Donoho and Johnstone, 1994, 1995); multiple-hypothesis testing (Abramovich and Benjamini, 1995, 1996; Ogden and Parzen, 1996a, b); cross-validation (Nason, 1995, 1996; Weyrich and Warhola, 1995). The idea of thresholding has also been studied in the context of correlated errors ϵ_i ; see, for example, Wang (1996) and Johnstone and Silverman (1997).

In this paper we consider thresholding within a Bayesian framework. In the Bayesian approach a prior distribution is imposed on the wavelet coefficients of the unknown response function. The prior model is designed to capture the sparseness of wavelet expansion that is common to most applications. Then, the function is estimated by applying some Bayes rule on the resulting posterior distribution of the wavelet coefficients. The traditional Bayes rule (Chipman *et al.*, 1997; Clyde *et al.*, 1998; Vidakovic, 1998) corresponds to an L^2 -loss (the posterior mean) based on the wavelet coefficients. However, such a rule is not a thresholding rule but a shrinkage. To fix our terminology, we say that a *shrinkage rule* is a function that decreases (not necessarily strictly) the absolute values of the wavelet coefficients, without changing their sign. For a rule to be a *thresholding rule*, it must not only shrink the coefficients towards 0 but must also map actually to 0 all coefficients falling in some non-empty interval around 0.

In this paper, instead of the L^2 -loss, we suggest the use of a weighted combination of L^1 -losses based on the wavelet coefficients. These losses correspond to L^1 -losses based on the function and on its derivatives; such losses are natural measures for spatially inhomogeneous functions. The corresponding Bayes rule will be the posterior median and, for a certain prior, yields a thresholding procedure.

The paper is organized as follows: in Section 2 we briefly review the discrete wavelet transform and the relevant aspects of Donoho and Johnstone’s work on the nonparametric regression problem. A review of relevant aspects of Besov spaces is also given. In Section 3, we study the problem of wavelet thresholding within a Bayesian approach. In Section 4, we discuss the form for the hyperparameters of the prior model, and we demonstrate a relationship between Besov space parameters and hyperparameters of the prior model. The implications of this relationship for the choice of prior hyperparameters are discussed. In addition, since it may be difficult in practice to elicit prior knowledge of the regularity properties of the function, we also propose a ‘standard’ choice of hyperparameters, which in our experience works well on a range of examples. In Section 5, we provide several simulated examples to illustrate our method, and we give comparisons with other thresholding methods. We also present an application to a data set that was collected in an anaesthesiological study. Some concluding remarks are made in Section 6, and the more technical details and proofs are given in Appendix A.

2. Wavelet estimators

2.1. Overview of wavelets

Wavelet series are generated by dilations and translations of a function ψ , called the *mother wavelet*:

$$\psi_{jk}(t) = 2^{j/2} \psi(2^j t - k), \quad j, k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

For suitable choices of ψ , the corresponding set of ψ_{jk} forms an orthonormal basis in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Examples of mother wavelets with different regularity properties, number of vanishing moments and compact support can be found in Daubechies (1992). The wavelet series representation of a function $g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ is then

$$g(t) = \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{jk} \psi_{jk}(t),$$

where the wavelet coefficients w_{jk} are given by

$$w_{jk} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(t) \psi_{jk}(t) dt.$$

Intuitively, the ψ_{jk} represent ‘smooth wiggly functions’ localized to spatial positions near $2^{-j}k$ and frequencies near 2^j . In contrast with standard Fourier sine and cosine series, wavelets are local in both frequency or scale (via dilations) and time (via translations). This localization allows parsimonious representations for a wide set of different functions in wavelet series.

In technical terms this corresponds to the property that, by choosing the mother wavelet with corresponding regularity properties, we can generate an unconditional wavelet basis in a wide set of function spaces, such as Besov (see Section 2.2) or Triebel spaces. For a clear and accessible introduction to wavelets see Strang (1993). Jawerth and Sweldens (1994) provide an excellent overview of wavelet-based multiresolution analyses. Meyer (1992) and Daubechies (1992) give detailed expositions of the mathematical aspects of wavelets.

In many practical situations, the functions involved are only defined on a compact set, such as the interval $[0, 1]$, and to apply wavelets then requires some modifications. Cohen *et al.* (1993) have obtained the necessary boundary corrections to retain orthonormality. Their wavelets also constitute unconditional bases for the Besov and Triebel spaces on the interval. In later sections, however, we confine attention to periodic functions on \mathbb{R} with unit period and work in effect with periodic wavelets. In this case, the wavelet coefficients w_{jk} of the function are restricted to the resolution and spatial indices $j \geq 0$ and $k = 0, \dots, 2^j - 1$ respectively; there is also the coarsest scaling coefficient, which is labelled as u_{00} (see, for example, Daubechies (1992), section 9.3). As Johnstone (1994) has pointed out, this computational simplification affects only a fixed number of wavelet coefficients at each resolution level and does not alter the qualitative phenomena that we wish to present.

2.2. Besov spaces on the interval

In this section, we briefly introduce some relevant aspects of the (inhomogeneous) Besov spaces on the interval that we need further. For a more detailed study we refer to DeVore and Popov (1988), Triebel (1990), DeVore *et al.* (1992) and Meyer (1992).

Let the r th difference of a function g be

$$\Delta_h^{(r)} g(t) = \sum_{k=0}^r \binom{r}{k} (-1)^k g(t + kh),$$

and let the r th modulus of smoothness of g in $L^p[0, 1]$ be

$$\nu_{r,p}(g; t) = \sup_{h \leq t} (\|\Delta_h^{(r)} g\|_{L^p[0,1-rt]}).$$

Then the Besov seminorm of index (s, p, q) is defined for $r > s$, where $1 \leq p, q \leq \infty$, by

$$|g|_{B_{p,q}^s} = \left[\int_0^1 \left\{ \frac{\nu_{r,p}(g; h)}{h^s} \right\}^q \frac{dh}{h} \right]^{1/q}, \quad \text{if } 1 \leq q < \infty,$$

and by

$$|g|_{B_{p,\infty}^s} = \sup_{0 < h < 1} \{ \nu_{r,p}(g; h) / h^s \}.$$

Define the Besov norm as $\|g\|_{B_{p,q}^s} = \|g\|_{L^p[0,1]} + |g|_{B_{p,q}^s}$. The Besov space $B_{p,q}^s$ is then the class of functions $g: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $g \in L^p[0, 1]$ and $|g|_{B_{p,q}^s} < \infty$. The parameter s measures the number of derivatives, where the existence of derivatives is required in an L^p -sense, whereas the parameter q provides a further finer gradation.

The Besov spaces include, in particular, the well-known Sobolev and Hölder spaces of smooth functions H^m and C^s ($B_{2,2}^m$ and $B_{\infty,\infty}^s$ respectively), but in addition less traditional spaces, like the space of functions of bounded variation, sandwiched between $B_{1,1}^1$ and $B_{1,\infty}^1$. The latter functions are of statistical interest because they allow for better models of spatial inhomogeneity (e.g. Meyer (1992) and Donoho and Johnstone (1995)).

The Besov norm for the function g is related to a sequence space norm on the wavelet coefficients of the function. As noted in Section 2.1, confining attention to the resolution and spatial indices $j \geq 0$ and $k = 0, \dots, 2^j - 1$ respectively, the sequence space norm is given by

$$\|w\|_{b_{p,q}^s} = |u_{00}| + \left\{ \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{js'q} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{2^j-1} |w_{jk}|^p \right)^{q/p} \right\}^{1/q}, \quad \text{if } 1 \leq q < \infty, \tag{2}$$

$$\|w\|_{b_{p,\infty}^s} = |u_{00}| + \sup_{j \geq 0} \left\{ 2^{js'} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{2^j-1} |w_{jk}|^p \right)^{1/p} \right\}, \tag{3}$$

where $s' = s + \frac{1}{2} - 1/p$ (see, for example, Donoho *et al.* (1995)).

If the mother wavelet ψ is of regularity r , where $\max(0, 1/p - \frac{1}{2}) < s < r$, then we have

$$K_1 \|g\|_{B_{p,q}^s} \leq \|w\|_{b_{p,q}^s} \leq K_2 \|g\|_{B_{p,q}^s},$$

where K_1 and K_2 are constants, not depending on g (e.g. Meyer (1992) and Donoho and Johnstone (1995)). Therefore the Besov norm of g is equivalent to the corresponding sequence space norm (2) or (3). In Section 4.3, we exploit the equivalence of the norms for relating prior information about the function’s regularity to hyperparameters of our prior model for the wavelet coefficients w_{jk} .

In the particular case $p = q = 1$ the sequence space norm in equation (2) becomes a weighted sum of the $|w_{jk}|$ and the corresponding Besov space norm is essentially an L^1 -norm on the derivatives of g up to order s . This will provide motivation for the loss function that we use in Section 3.

2.3. Discrete wavelet transform and thresholding

In practice, given observed discrete data $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^T$ from model (1), we may find the vector $\hat{\mathbf{d}}$ of its sample discrete wavelet coefficients by performing the *discrete wavelet transform* (DWT) of \mathbf{y} :

$$\hat{\mathbf{d}} = \mathcal{W}\mathbf{y},$$

where \mathcal{W} is the DWT matrix with (jk, i) entry given by $W_{jk,i}\sqrt{n} \approx \psi_{jk}(i/n) = 2^{j/2} \psi(2^j i/n - k)$.

The population discrete wavelet coefficients d_{jk} are defined as the DWT of the vector of function values $g(t_i)$, $i = 1, \dots, n$. These are related to the wavelet coefficients

$$w_{jk} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(t) \psi_{jk}(t) dt$$

by $d_{jk} \approx w_{jk}\sqrt{n}$. The factor \sqrt{n} essentially arises from the difference between continuous and discrete orthogonality conditions. Since the definitions of the DWT and of the coefficients w_{jk} are by now standard, this factor cannot be avoided and therefore we use different letters d_{jk} and w_{jk} to clarify the distinction.

If $n = 2^J$ (for some positive integer J) then both the DWT and the inverse DWT are performed by Mallat’s (1989) fast algorithm that requires only $O(n)$ operations and is available in several standard implementations, e.g. in the S-PLUS package `WaveThresh` (Nason, 1993; Nason and Silverman, 1994). The `WaveThresh` package implements a periodized form of the DWT that produces $n - 1$ sample discrete wavelet coefficients \hat{d}_{jk} , $j = 0, \dots, J - 1$, $k = 0, \dots, 2^j - 1$, and one sample scaling coefficient, which is labelled \hat{c}_{00} . Each \hat{d}_{jk} describes the contribution around spatial location $2^{-j}k$ and near frequency 2^j , whereas \hat{c}_{00} is the sample mean multiplied by \sqrt{n} . Because of the orthogonality of \mathcal{W} , the DWT of a white noise process is also an array ϵ_{jk} of independent $N(0, \sigma^2)$ random variables and, hence, equally contaminates the population discrete wavelet coefficients d_{jk} :

$$\hat{d}_{jk} = d_{jk} + \epsilon_{jk}, \quad j = 0, \dots, J - 1, \quad k = 0, \dots, 2^j - 1.$$

The next step is to extract those coefficients that really contain information about the unknown function g and to discard the others. This can be done by thresholding the sample discrete wavelet coefficients \hat{d}_{jk} . The intuitive idea is that the true function g has a parsimonious wavelet expansion, i.e. only a few ‘large’ \hat{d}_{jk} essentially contain real information about g . If we can decide which these are, we can estimate them and set all the others equal to 0.

Donoho and Johnstone (1994, 1995) proposed the *hard* and *soft* thresholding rules

$$T_{\text{hard}}(\hat{d}_{jk}, \lambda) = \hat{d}_{jk} I(|\hat{d}_{jk}| > \lambda), \tag{4}$$

$$T_{\text{soft}}(\hat{d}_{jk}, \lambda) = \text{sgn}(\hat{d}_{jk}) \max(0, |\hat{d}_{jk}| - \lambda), \tag{5}$$

where $\lambda \geq 0$ is a threshold parameter and I is the usual indicator function. The hard thresholding method keeps some coefficients fixed and sets others to 0; in contrast the soft thresholding method either ‘shrinks’ coefficients or sets them to 0. In applications, hard thresholding generally reproduces peak heights and discontinuities better, but at some cost in visual smoothness (Donoho and Johnstone, 1994, 1995). By defining $d_{jk}^{\text{new}} = T_{\text{hard}}(\hat{d}_{jk}, \lambda)$ or $d_{jk}^{\text{new}} = T_{\text{soft}}(\hat{d}_{jk}, \lambda)$, we can then reconstruct \hat{g} by the inverse DWT:

$$\hat{g} = \mathcal{W}^T \mathbf{d}^{\text{new}}.$$

The choice of λ is therefore crucial: if the threshold is too small or too large then the wavelet shrinkage estimator will tend to overfit or underfit the data. Donoho and Johnstone (1994) proposed the *universal* threshold $\lambda_{\text{DJ}} = \sigma\sqrt{\{2 \log(n)\}}$ called *VisuShrink* by them. Despite the simplicity of such a threshold, they showed that the resulting non-linear wavelet estimator is spatially adaptive and is asymptotically near minimax within the whole range of Besov spaces. Moreover, Donoho and Johnstone (1998) proved that it asymptotically outperforms any linear estimator (i.e. splines, kernel estimators, truncated Fourier series, etc.)

within Besov spaces $B_{p,q}^s$ with $p < 2$ that contain spatially inhomogeneous functions. However, the universal threshold depends on the data only through the estimated σ and is otherwise the same for all kinds of functions. It tends to oversmooth in practice, since it does not compromise between signal and noise. In practice, for finite samples, Donoho and Johnstone (1994, 1995) suggested keeping coefficients on the lower ‘coarse’ levels, even if these coefficients do not pass the threshold level.

Several *data-driven* thresholding rules have been developed recently. Donoho and Johnstone (1995) proposed the *SureShrink* thresholding which is based on minimizing Stein’s unbiased risk estimate (Stein, 1981) and will usually yield smaller thresholds than the Visu-Shrink method. They have shown that *SureShrink* is also asymptotically near minimax and the computational effort of the overall procedure is $O\{n \log(n)\}$. For a practical demonstration of the advantages of this approach see Johnstone and Silverman (1997). In another development, Nason (1995, 1996) adjusted the well-known cross-validation approach for choosing the threshold level. Some possible extensions to Nason’s method are described in Weyrich and Warhola (1995) and Wang (1996). Abramovich and Benjamini (1995, 1996) and Ogden and Parzen (1996a, b) considered thresholding as a multiple-hypothesis testing procedure: for every wavelet coefficient test simultaneously whether it is 0 or not. Johnstone and Silverman (1997) have developed a *level-dependent* threshold approach for data with correlated noise, and some of the above approaches can be extended to this case. A Bayesian viewpoint to thresholding was introduced by Chipman *et al.* (1997), Clyde *et al.* (1998) and Vidakovic (1998) and will be discussed in detail later in this paper.

3. Thresholding within a Bayesian framework

Most of the existing thresholding procedures are essentially minimax and, therefore, they may be ‘too universal’; they do not take into account some specific properties of a concrete g that we are interested in. A natural way of using the prior belief (knowledge or information) about the unknown g (say, its regularity properties) is via a Bayesian approach. Within a Bayesian framework we specify a prior distribution on the population wavelet coefficients. In this section we show that a certain choice of prior model for the population wavelet coefficients implies a Bayesian estimate that produces a thresholding rule, with some features in common with T_{hard} and T_{soft} given in equations (4) and (5) respectively.

In this section we work with the sampled white noise model (1) and apply the DWT of Section 2.3. As we have already mentioned, a large variety of functions allow parsimonious representation in wavelet series where there are only a few non-negligible coefficients in the expansion. We incorporate this characteristic feature of wavelet bases by placing the following prior on the population discrete wavelet coefficients d_{jk} :

$$d_{jk} \sim \pi_j N(0, \tau_j^2) + (1 - \pi_j) \delta(0), \quad j = 0, \dots, J - 1, \quad k = 0, \dots, 2^j - 1, \quad (6)$$

where $0 \leq \pi_j \leq 1$, $\delta(0)$ is a point mass at 0 and the d_{jk} are independent. The hyperparameters π_j and τ_j^2 must be specified appropriately (see Section 4). Note that we are using the same prior parameters π_j and τ_j^2 for all coefficients at a given resolution level j .

According to the prior model (6), each d_{jk} is either 0 with probability $1 - \pi_j$ or with probability π_j is normally distributed with zero mean and variance τ_j^2 . The probability π_j gives the proportion of non-zero wavelet coefficients at resolution level j whereas the variance τ_j^2 is a measure of their magnitudes. Clyde *et al.* (1998) used a formulation similar to expression (6) but with different forms for the hyperparameters π_j and τ_j^2 . The prior model (6)

is an extreme case of a model considered by Chipman *et al.* (1997). Their prior for each d_{jk} is the mixture of two normal distributions with zero means but different variances for ‘negligible’ and ‘non-negligible’ wavelet coefficients.

Subject to the prior (6), the posterior distribution $d_{jk}|\hat{d}_{jk}$ is also a mixture of a corresponding posterior normal distribution and $\delta(0)$. Hence, the posterior cumulative distribution function $F(d_{jk}|\hat{d}_{jk})$, letting Φ be the standard normal cumulative distribution function, is

$$F(d_{jk}|\hat{d}_{jk}) = \frac{1}{1 + \omega_{jk}} \Phi \left\{ \frac{d_{jk} - \hat{d}_{jk}\tau_j^2/(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)}{\sigma\tau_j/\sqrt{(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)}} \right\} + \frac{\omega_{jk}}{1 + \omega_{jk}} I(d_{jk} \geq 0), \tag{7}$$

where the posterior odds ratio for the component at 0 is

$$\omega_{jk} = \frac{1 - \pi_j}{\pi_j} \frac{\sqrt{(\tau_j^2 + \sigma^2)}}{\sigma} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\tau_j^2 \hat{d}_{jk}^2}{2\sigma^2(\tau_j^2 + \sigma^2)} \right\}.$$

The traditional Bayes rule corresponding to the L^2 -loss (the posterior mean) considered in the literature (Chipman *et al.*, 1997; Clyde *et al.*, 1998; Vidakovic, 1998) is not a thresholding rule but a shrinkage. Instead, we suggest the use of any weighted combination of L^1 -losses on the individual wavelet coefficients. Whichever weighted combination is used, the corresponding Bayes rule will be obtained by taking the posterior median of each coefficient. As explained in Section 2.2, L^1 -losses on the estimated function and its derivatives, corresponding to $B_{1,1}^s$ -norms for the function space loss, will be, for all applicable values of s , equivalent to suitable weighted combinations of L^1 -losses on the wavelet coefficients w_{jk} . As we shall show below, such L^1 -rules (posterior medians) are of the thresholding type. Another possible way to obtain a thresholding rule within a Bayesian framework is via hypothesis testing ideas (Vidakovic, 1998).

The posterior cumulative distribution function of $d_{jk}|\hat{d}_{jk}$ corresponding to equation (7) has a jump at 0. This fact becomes crucial since by solving the equation $F(d_{jk}|\hat{d}_{jk}) = 0.5$ we find that the posterior median is 0 if $\omega_{jk} \geq 1$, and also if

$$\omega_{jk} < 1$$

and

$$0.5(1 - \omega_{jk}) \leq \Phi \left\{ -\frac{\hat{d}_{jk}\tau_j}{\sigma\sqrt{(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)}} \right\} \leq 0.5(1 + \omega_{jk});$$

it is non-zero otherwise. After straightforward calculus we then have the following closed form:

$$\text{Med}(d_{jk}|\hat{d}_{jk}) = \text{sgn}(\hat{d}_{jk}) \max(0, \zeta_{jk}),$$

where

$$\zeta_{jk} = \frac{\tau_j^2}{\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2} |\hat{d}_{jk}| - \frac{\tau_j\sigma}{\sqrt{(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)}} \Phi^{-1} \left\{ \frac{1 + \min(\omega_{jk}, 1)}{2} \right\}. \tag{8}$$

The quantity ζ_{jk} is negative for all \hat{d}_{jk} in some implicitly defined interval $[-\lambda_j, \lambda_j]$, and hence d_{jk} is 0 whenever $|\hat{d}_{jk}|$ falls below the threshold λ_j . The posterior median is therefore a level-dependent thresholding rule with thresholds λ_j . For large \hat{d}_{jk} the thresholding rule is asymptotic to linear shrinkage by a factor of $\tau_j^2/(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)$, since the second term in equation

(8) becomes negligible as $|\hat{d}_{jk}| \rightarrow \infty$. For a plot of the thresholding function for a particular case, see Fig. 1.

To complete the prior specification of g , we place a vague prior on the population scaling coefficient, which is therefore estimated by the sample scaling coefficient \hat{c}_{00} obtained from the DWT of the data.

4. A particular form for the hyperparameters

The hyperparameters π_j and τ_j^2 of the prior model (6) must be defined. Different values of hyperparameters will lead to different wavelet estimators, so their proper choice is important. Assume the hyperparameters of the prior model (6) to be of the form

$$\tau_j^2 = 2^{-\alpha j} C_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_j = \min(1, 2^{-\beta j} C_2), \quad j = 0, \dots, J - 1, \quad (9)$$

where C_1, C_2, α and β are non-negative constants.

We remark that the universal threshold $\lambda_{DJ} = \sigma\sqrt{\{2 \log(n)\}}$ of Donoho and Johnstone (1994) can be obtained as a particular limiting case of our Bayes rule setting $\alpha = \beta = 0$ and letting $C_1 \rightarrow \infty$ and $C_2 \rightarrow 0$ as n increases in such a way that $\sqrt{C_1/C_2 \sigma n} \rightarrow 1$.

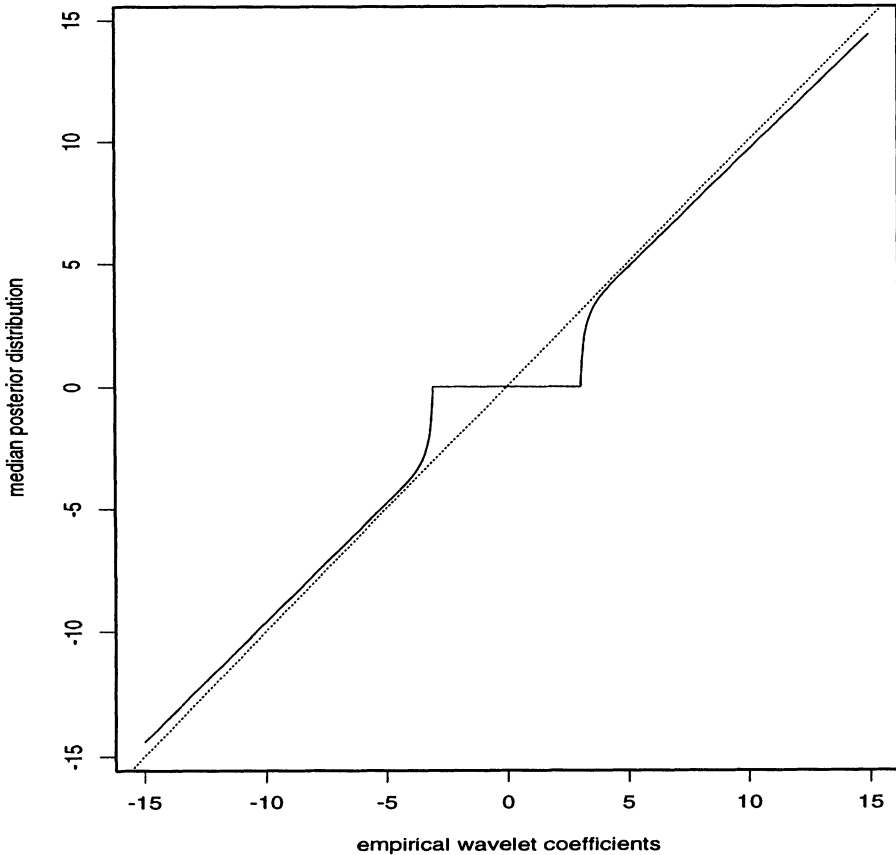


Fig. 1. Median of the posterior distribution (—) as a function of the empirical wavelet coefficients and the diagonal (.....): the hyperparameters were chosen as $\tau^2 = 25$ and $\pi = 0.05$, while σ was fixed at 1

In what follows we discuss the choice of form (9) and demonstrate a relationship between Besov space parameters and hyperparameters of the prior model.

4.1. A prior model

Corresponding to the prior model (6) with hyperparameters specified by expression (9), we consider the following distribution on the infinite sequence of wavelet coefficients w_{jk} , as defined in Section 2.1:

$$w_{jk} \sim \pi_j N(0, \tau_j^2) + (1 - \pi_j) \delta(0), \quad j \geq 0, \quad k = 0, \dots, 2^j - 1, \quad (10)$$

where $0 \leq \pi_j \leq 1$, $\delta(0)$ is a point mass at 0 and w_{jk} are independent. To complete the model we place a vague prior on the scaling coefficient u_{00} .

The hyperparameters of the prior model (10) are assumed to be of the form

$$\tau_j^2 = 2^{-\alpha j} C_1^* \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_j = \min(1, 2^{-\beta j} C_2), \quad j \geq 0, \quad (11)$$

where $C_1^* = n^{-1} C_1$.

It follows from expression (11) that the prior expected number of non-zero wavelet coefficients on the j th level is $2^{j(1-\beta)} C_2$. Appealing to the first Borel–Cantelli lemma, in the case $\beta > 1$, the number of non-zero coefficients in the wavelet expansion is finite. In this case the prior model implies that the function is exactly expressed as a finite wavelet expansion. More fruitful and interesting, however, is the case $0 \leq \beta \leq 1$. The case $\beta = 0$ corresponds to the prior belief that all coefficients on all levels have the same probability of being non-zero. This characterizes self-similar processes such as white noise or Brownian motion, the overall regularity depending on the value of α . The case $\beta = 1$ assumes that the expected number of non-zero wavelet coefficients is the same on each level, which is typical, for example, for piecewise polynomial functions, as we shall discuss below. In Section 4.3, we derive an explicit connection between the regularity properties of the response function and the hyperparameters (11) in a very general case.

Bayesian simulation has become very popular in recent years. See for example section 7 of Silverman (1985) for an application of this idea in the curve fitting literature and many recent papers on Markov chain Monte Carlo methods. In an earlier paper, Stewart (1979) suggested simulating from *prior* distributions as an aid to the elicitation of prior parameters in the Bayesian paradigm for curve fitting, and our approach is a natural context for the application of this idea. Some realizations from priors for particular values of the hyperparameters α and β will be given in Fig. 2 later.

4.2. Some connections with a piecewise polynomial model

To give further intuitive understanding of the model implied by expression (11) consider a piecewise polynomial function g (not generated by a wavelet prior). Suppose that there are N jumps in the m th derivative of g , uniformly located with independent and identically distributed sizes h , where N is a random variable with finite mean.

Let the mother wavelet ψ with a compact support $[a, b]$ be of regularity $r > m$ and derive wavelet coefficients of such a piecewise polynomial. Consider a wavelet coefficient w_{jk} . Then $w_{jk} = 0$ if there is no jump within $\text{supp}(\psi_{jk}) = [2^{-j}(k+a), 2^{-j}(k+b)]$. For sufficiently large j , the probability that more than one jump occurs within $\text{supp}(\psi_{jk})$ is negligible, so, after simple calculus, the variance of w_{jk} conditional on a jump within $\text{supp}(\psi_{jk})$ is given by

$$\text{var}(w_{jk} | w_{jk} \neq 0) = 2^{-(2m+1)j} \frac{E(h^2)}{b-a} \int_a^b \Psi^{[m+1]}(u)^2 du,$$

where $\Psi^{[m+1]}$ is the $(m + 1)$ -fold integral of the mother wavelet ψ . The probability of a jump within $\text{supp}(\psi_{jk})$ is

$$P(w_{jk} \neq 0) = 2^{-j}(b - a) E(N).$$

These conditions correspond to the properties of model (10) with

$$\alpha = 2m + 1, \quad C_1^* = \frac{E(h^2)}{b-a} \int_a^b \Psi^{[m+1]}(u)^2 du, \quad \beta = 1, \quad C_2 = (b - a) E(N),$$

though in the piecewise polynomial case the coefficients are not independent and the distribution of w_{jk} conditioned on $w_{jk} \neq 0$ is no longer normal. Nevertheless, the connection between piecewise polynomial functions and prior (10) helps to clarify the intuitive meaning of the constants in expression (11) in the general case.

4.3. A relationship between Besov space parameters and hyperparameters of the prior model

In this section, we show that, specifying the hyperparameters of the proposed prior model (10), we obtain functions from various Besov spaces. Because of the improper nature of the prior distribution of u_{00} , we consider the prior distribution of g conditioned on any given value for u_{00} . We explore the connections between the parameters α and β of the prior model (10) with parameters specified by expression (11) and the Besov space parameters s and p . In Appendix A, we study a three-parameter prior family that includes expression (11) as a special case to take into account the Besov space parameter q as well.

Suppose that g is generated from the prior model (10) with hyperparameters specified by expression (11). The following theorem establishes necessary and sufficient conditions for g to fall (with probability 1) in any particular Besov space.

Theorem 1. Let ψ be a mother wavelet of regularity r , where $\max(0, 1/p - \frac{1}{2}) < s < r$, $1 \leq p, q \leq \infty$, and let the wavelet coefficients w_{jk} of a function g obey the prior model (10) with $\tau_j^2 = 2^{-\alpha j} C_1^*$ and $\pi_j = \min(1, 2^{-\beta j} C_2)$, where $C_1^*, C_2, \alpha \geq 0$ and $0 \leq \beta \leq 1$. Then, for any fixed value of u_{00} , $g \in B_{p,q}^s$ almost surely if and only if either

$$s + \frac{1}{2} - \beta/p - \alpha/2 < 0 \tag{12}$$

or

$$s + \frac{1}{2} - \beta/p - \alpha/2 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq \beta < 1, \quad 1 \leq p < \infty, \quad q = \infty. \tag{13}$$

Remark 1. As we mentioned in Section 4.1, in the case $\beta > 1$, the number of non-zero coefficients in the wavelet expansion is finite almost surely. Therefore, with probability 1, g will belong to the same Besov spaces as the mother wavelet ψ , i.e. those for which $\max(0, 1/p - \frac{1}{2}) < s < r$, $1 \leq p, q \leq \infty$.

Theorem 1 is a particular case of the more general theorem 2 formulated and proved in Appendix A. However, theorem 1 shows how prior knowledge about a specific Besov space can be incorporated into the prior model (10) for the wavelet coefficients by choosing the

corresponding hyperparameters of their prior distribution and gives insight into the meaning of the Besov space parameters.

Certain priors are important in the derivation of minimax properties of wavelet threshold estimators (see, for example, Donoho and Johnstone (1994) and Johnstone and Silverman (1997)). These priors place a symmetric three-point distribution independently on each wavelet coefficient and give realizations that can be considered as being 'least favourable' within particular smoothness classes. Johnstone (1994) investigated various properties of these priors. He presented realizations from these and used them to illustrate the variety of forms of prior information captured by a family of Besov spaces. For this purpose, the priors that we construct may be preferable in producing functions that are typical of particular Besov spaces rather than least favourable with respect to some criterion.

Fig. 2 shows realizations with various values of the hyperparameters. It can be seen that, for $\beta = 1$, the functions show irregularities in some places with relatively smooth behaviour in between. The same is true to a much lesser extent for $\beta = 0.5$. For $\alpha = 1$ there are gross irregularities in the value of the function itself, and for $\alpha = 2$ these are less marked. The irregularities for $\alpha = 4$ are not easily visible in Fig. 2, but the first derivative of the realization is similar in character to the corresponding figures for $\alpha = 2$. The model $\alpha = 4$, $\beta = 0$, is equivalent to an integrated Wiener process which is the prior used to motivate spline smoothing by Kimeldorf and Wahba (1970).

The priors that we construct can be used to aid our understanding of Besov spaces and norms (Fig. 3). Consider, for example, the case $s = 1$, $p = 1$. Fig. 3 demonstrates that realizations (f), (g), (h) and (i) in Fig. 2 lie in Besov space $B_{1,q}^1$, whereas realizations (a), (b) and (d) lie outside. Realizations (c) and (e) are on the boundaries of just in or out; (e) is out for $1 \leq q < \infty$ but is in for $q = \infty$. Therefore, from the point of view of Besov norms with $p = 1$, realizations (e) and (c) are, roughly speaking, equally irregular. Realization (c) has occasional gross irregularities and so is more inhomogeneous, whereas in (e) the irregularity is more evenly spread. A more detailed consideration of $B_{1,q}^1$ -norms in Fig. 3 shows that the ranking of the realizations in terms of their critical value s is, from roughest to smoothest, (a), (b) and (d) jointly, (c) and (e) jointly, (f) and (g) jointly, (h) and (i).

Now consider the other extreme, $p = \infty$. In this case, the realizations within each row of Fig. 2 have the same critical value of s , 0 for the top row, 0.5 for the middle row and 1.5 for the bottom row. Fig. 2 gives a clear demonstration of the way that the $B_{\infty,q}^s$ -norms stress the maximum irregularity. They give quite a different ordering from the case $p = 1$. Yet other rankings are yielded by intermediate values of p .

It can be seen from Fig. 3 that for $\alpha = 0.5$ there is some restriction on the range of β that will give lines that intersect the unshaded part of the figure. However, the case $\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 1$, will give a line with slope -1 and will intersect the horizontal axis at $p = 4$. In our subsequent investigation, we shall find that this is a good model in practice and a realization from this model is given in Fig. 4. It can be seen that the function is mostly regular but allows for occasional gross irregularities.

In general, the priors discussed in this section can be used to generate a range of functions just on the boundary of membership of any particular Besov space.

4.4. Estimation of the hyperparameters

To apply the proposed Bayesian thresholding procedure in practice, it is necessary first to specify the hyperparameters α , β , C_1 and C_2 in expression (9). Our approach is as follows. The choice of α and β could be made from prior knowledge about regularity properties of the

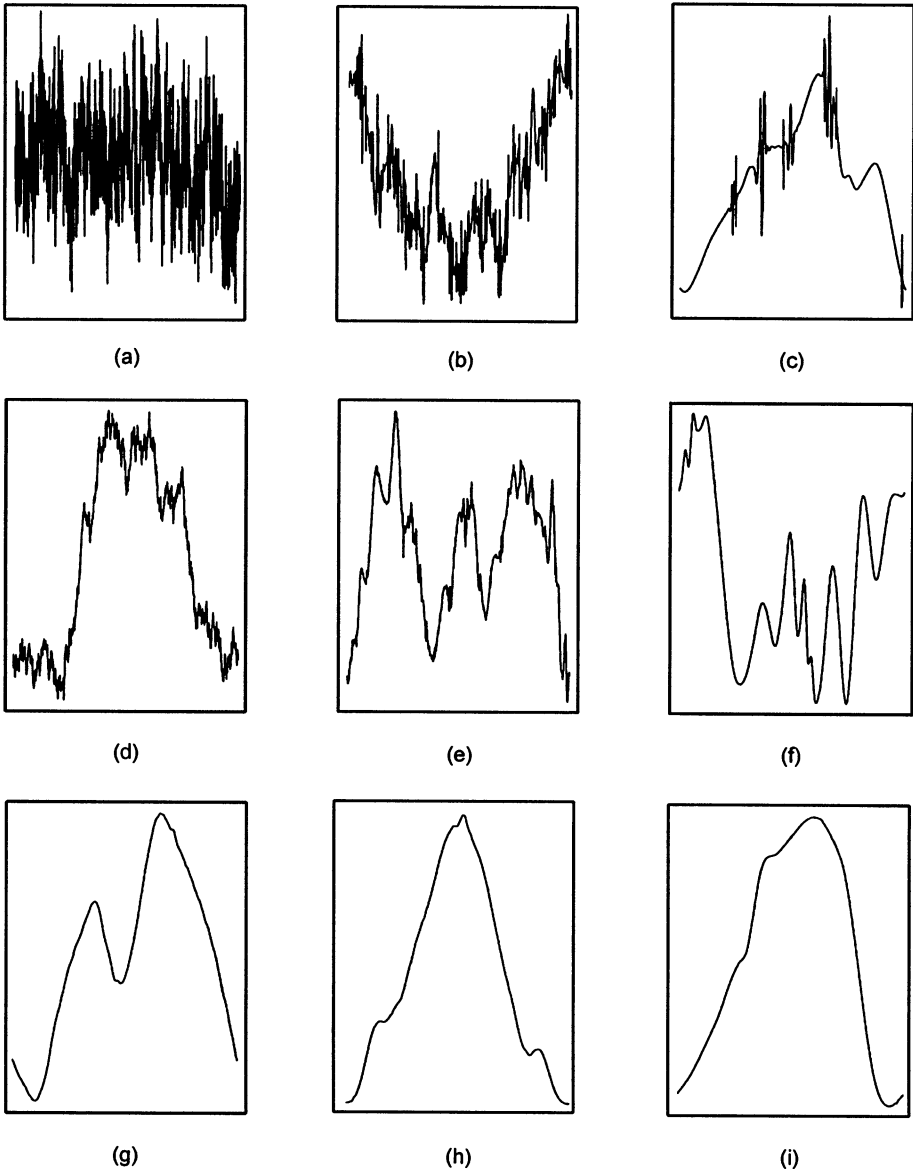


Fig. 2. Realizations with various values of the hyperparameters α and β , with $n = 2048$, $C_1 = 1$ and $C_2 = 2$: (a) $\alpha = 1, \beta = 0$; (b) $\alpha = 1, \beta = 0.5$; (c) $\alpha = 1, \beta = 1$; (d) $\alpha = 2, \beta = 0$; (e) $\alpha = 2, \beta = 0.5$; (f) $\alpha = 2, \beta = 1$; (g) $\alpha = 4, \beta = 0$; (h) $\alpha = 4, \beta = 0.5$; (i) $\alpha = 4, \beta = 1$

unknown function making use of the results of theorem 1. However, all except the most fundamentalist Bayesians may find this a daunting prospect, and we investigate the choice further in Section 5.1. To estimate C_1 and C_2 we suggest the following procedure.

As we have already mentioned, the set of sample wavelet coefficients \hat{d}_{jk} contains both ‘non-negligible’ coefficients of the unknown function g and ‘negligible’ coefficients representing random noise. Apply the VisuShrink threshold $\lambda_{DJ} = \sigma\sqrt{2 \log(n)}$. When the noise

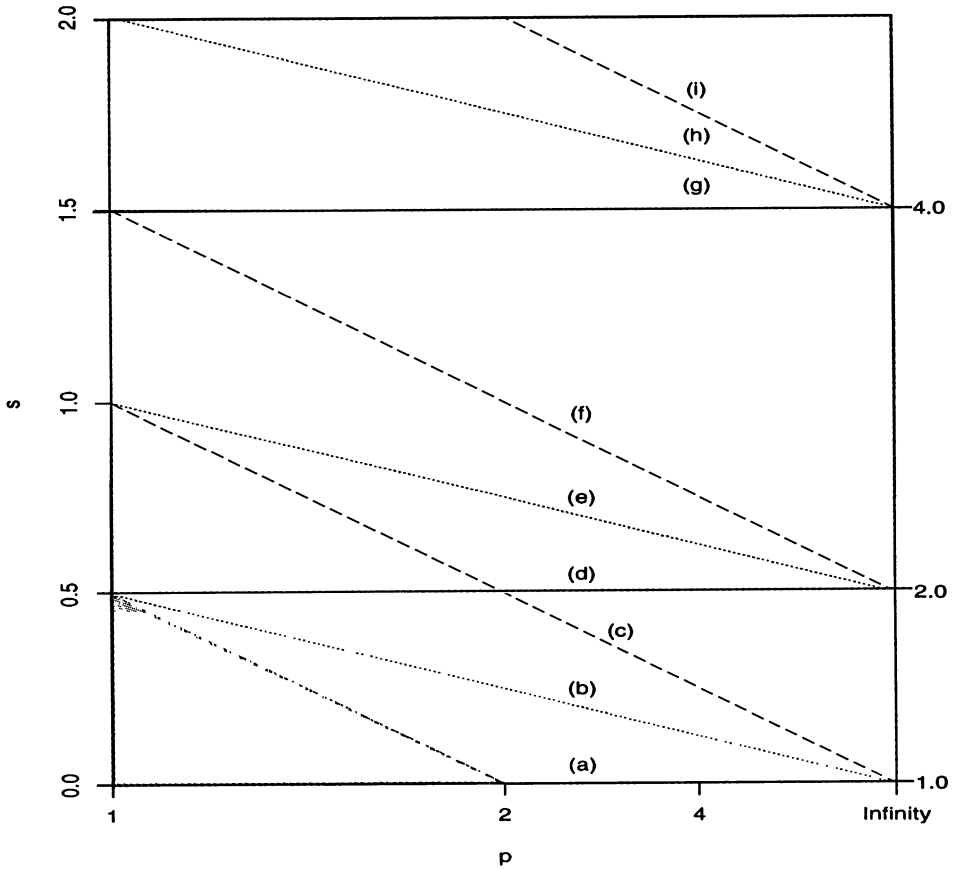


Fig. 3. Critical values of the Besov space parameters s and p for certain values of α and β for any values of $1 \leq q \leq \infty$: the values of α are indicated on the right-hand axis; the values of β are indicated by the style of line (—, $\beta = 0$; , $\beta = 0.5$; - - -, $\beta = 1$); for each value (α, β) , realizations lie in all Besov spaces with parameter values below the line plotted; they also lie in spaces on the critical line if $0 \leq \beta < 1$, $1 \leq p < \infty$ and $q = \infty$; the shaded region represents the range of (p, s) that is excluded by the conditions of theorem 1; the p -axis is transformed to be linear in $1 - 1/p$; (a)–(i) correspond to the realizations given in Fig. 2

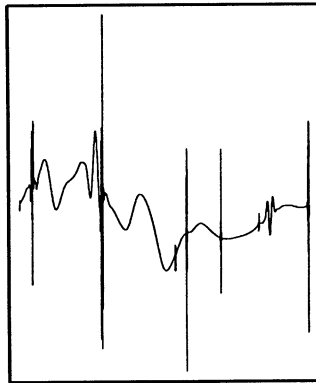


Fig. 4. Realization with hyperparameters $\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 1$ with $n = 2048$, $C_1 = 1$ and $C_2 = 2$

level σ is unknown, it is robustly estimated by the median absolute deviation of the wavelet coefficients at the finest level, divided by 0.6745 (Donoho and Johnstone, 1994). By the construction of this thresholding rule, the probability that even one negligible coefficient will pass the threshold tends to 0 (Donoho and Johnstone, 1994), so essentially only non-negligible \hat{d}_{jk} will survive after thresholding. Suppose that, on level j , the number of coefficients that pass λ_{DJ} is M_j , and that the values of these coefficients are x_{j1}, \dots, x_{jM_j} . Conditioning on the value M_j , the $x_{jm}, m = 1, \dots, M_j$, are independent realizations from the tails of the $N(0, \sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)$ distribution beyond the points $\pm\sigma\sqrt{2 \log(n)}$. The log-likelihood function is therefore, up to a constant,

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\tau_0^2, \dots, \tau_{J-1}^2) = & - \sum_{j=0}^{J-1} M_j \left(\frac{1}{2} \log(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2) - \log \left[\Phi \left\{ -\frac{\lambda_{DJ}}{\sqrt{(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)}} \right\} \right] \right) \\ & - \sum_{j=0}^{J-1} \left\{ \frac{1}{2(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)} \sum_{m=1}^{M_j} x_{jm}^2 \right\}. \end{aligned} \tag{14}$$

Substituting $\tau_j^2 = 2^{-\alpha j} C_1$ and $\lambda_{DJ} = \sigma\sqrt{2 \log(n)}$ we can obtain an estimate of C_1 by a numerical maximization of equation (14), carrying out a grid search on C_1 .

The parameter C_2 can be chosen by a cognate procedure. We use the numbers M_0, \dots, M_{J-1} of coefficients passing the threshold to estimate the π_j . Let $q_j = 2 \Phi\{-\lambda_{DJ}/\sqrt{(\sigma^2 + \tau_j^2)}\}$, the probability conditional on $d_{jk} \neq 0$ that d_{jk} passes the threshold λ_{DJ} . Neglecting the possibility that any \hat{d}_{jk} corresponding to a zero d_{jk} passes the threshold λ_{DJ} , the ‘imputed number’ of non-zero d_{jk} at level j is M_j/q_j , and the expected value of M_j/q_j is $2^{(1-\beta)j} C_2$. Given the value of β , a simple method-of-moments estimate of C_2 based on the total imputed number of non-zero d_{jk} is

$$\hat{C}_2 = \begin{cases} \frac{2^{1-\beta} - 1}{2^{(1-\beta)J} - 1} \sum_{j=0}^{J-1} \frac{M_j}{q_j}, & \text{if } 0 \leq \beta < 1, \\ \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=0}^{J-1} \frac{M_j}{q_j}, & \text{if } \beta = 1. \end{cases}$$

5. Applications and comparisons

In this section we first consider simulated examples to illustrate the proposed Bayesian thresholding procedure, which we refer to as *BayesThresh*, and make comparisons with other existing thresholding methods. An application to a data set collected in an anaesthesiological study is then presented.

5.1. Simulation study

We consider the four examples of Donoho and Johnstone (1994, 1995) that have become standard tests for wavelet estimators: ‘Blocks’, ‘Bumps’, ‘Heavisine’ and ‘Doppler’. These functions caricature spatially variable signals arising in imaging, spectroscopy, seismography and other scientific fields.

For each test function, noisy data were generated for 100 replications by corrupting a true function with independent random noise $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ at 1024 data points uniformly spaced on $[0, 1]$. The values of σ were taken to correspond to values 10, 7, 5 and 3 for the root signal-to-noise ratio (RSNR) $\{\int_0^1 (g - \bar{g})^2\}^{1/2} / \sigma$, where $\bar{g} = \int_0^1 g$.

We compare BayesThresh with several wavelet-based estimators for reconstructing the original functions: VisuShrink (Donoho and Johnstone, 1994), GlobalSure (a modified version of the SureShrink of Donoho and Johnstone (1995) considered in Nason (1996)), cross-validation (Nason, 1995, 1996) and the false discovery rate (Abramovich and Benjamini, 1995, 1996). Daubechies's least asymmetric wavelet of order 8 (defined through a set of 16 non-zero coefficients whose numerical values may be found in Daubechies (1992), Table 6.3, p. 198) was used for all the methods. In all the methods, except BayesThresh, the soft thresholding (5) was applied, and the wavelet coefficients on the five coarsest levels were not thresholded.

The goodness of fit of each estimator was measured by its average mean-square error (AMSE) defined as the average over simulated replications \hat{g} of

$$n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{g}_i - g_i)^2.$$

The AMSEs and standard errors over 100 simulations for the various methods appear in Table 1. The simulations show that, in almost all cases, BayesThresh ($\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 1$) has a smaller AMSE with cross-validation usually second, GlobalSure third, the false discovery rate fourth and VisuShrink fifth in the rankings. In fact, similar results held when we used the hard thresholding (4) instead of the soft, with the exception of the false discovery rate procedure whose performance is improved substantially, approximately to the level obtained by GlobalSure. This is, perhaps, not surprising, since the original idea of the false discovery rate has a natural interpretation as a hard thresholding procedure (see Abramovich and Benjamini (1995, 1996)).

Table 1. AMSEs for the BayesThresh, VisuShrink, GlobalSure, cross-validation and false discovery rate estimators, using various test functions, for various levels of the RSNR†

Method	RSNR	AMSEs for the following test functions:			
		Blocks	Bumps	Heavisine	Doppler
BayesThresh, $\alpha = 0.5, \beta = 1$	10	0.22 (0.002)	0.25 (0.002)	0.06 (0.001)	0.09 (0.001)
	7	0.38 (0.003)	0.45 (0.004)	0.10 (0.001)	0.16 (0.003)
	5	0.67 (0.008)	0.74 (0.006)	0.15 (0.002)	0.30 (0.004)
	3	1.60 (0.014)	1.73 (0.019)	0.30 (0.002)	0.69 (0.009)
Cross-validation	10	0.23 (0.002)	0.25 (0.002)	0.06 (0.001)	0.11 (0.001)
	7	0.41 (0.003)	0.46 (0.003)	0.10 (0.014)	0.21 (0.002)
	5	0.72 (0.006)	0.84 (0.005)	0.16 (0.003)	0.39 (0.004)
	3	1.68 (0.013)	2.08 (0.016)	0.32 (0.005)	0.91 (0.005)
GlobalSure	10	0.25 (0.002)	0.29 (0.003)	0.08 (0.007)	0.11 (0.001)
	7	0.42 (0.003)	0.48 (0.004)	0.12 (0.001)	0.21 (0.002)
	5	0.82 (0.009)	0.92 (0.008)	0.18 (0.002)	0.59 (0.009)
	3	3.32 (0.047)	3.31 (0.031)	0.32 (0.004)	1.73 (0.022)
False discovery rate	10	0.55 (0.005)	0.69 (0.006)	0.08 (0.008)	0.22 (0.003)
	7	0.96 (0.008)	1.23 (0.011)	0.12 (0.001)	0.39 (0.005)
	5	1.58 (0.015)	2.08 (0.022)	0.17 (0.003)	0.65 (0.006)
	3	3.15 (0.025)	4.68 (0.043)	0.31 (0.004)	1.35 (0.015)
VisuShrink	10	0.77 (0.006)	1.04 (0.009)	0.08 (0.007)	0.27 (0.002)
	7	1.29 (0.012)	1.77 (0.017)	0.12 (0.001)	0.47 (0.005)
	5	2.08 (0.016)	2.99 (0.028)	0.17 (0.002)	0.77 (0.009)
	3	3.69 (0.024)	6.21 (0.057)	0.32 (0.004)	1.55 (0.015)

†Standard errors are given in parentheses.

Within the BayesThresh approach, the effect of varying α and β was investigated. For all four functions, reducing β gave worse results, especially for the Blocks and Doppler functions. This is as might be expected given the irregularity of these functions. The value $\alpha = 1$ gave very slightly better results for large RSNR, but noticeably worse for smaller RSNR. Larger values of α gave poor results, except for the Heavisine example, which is somewhat more

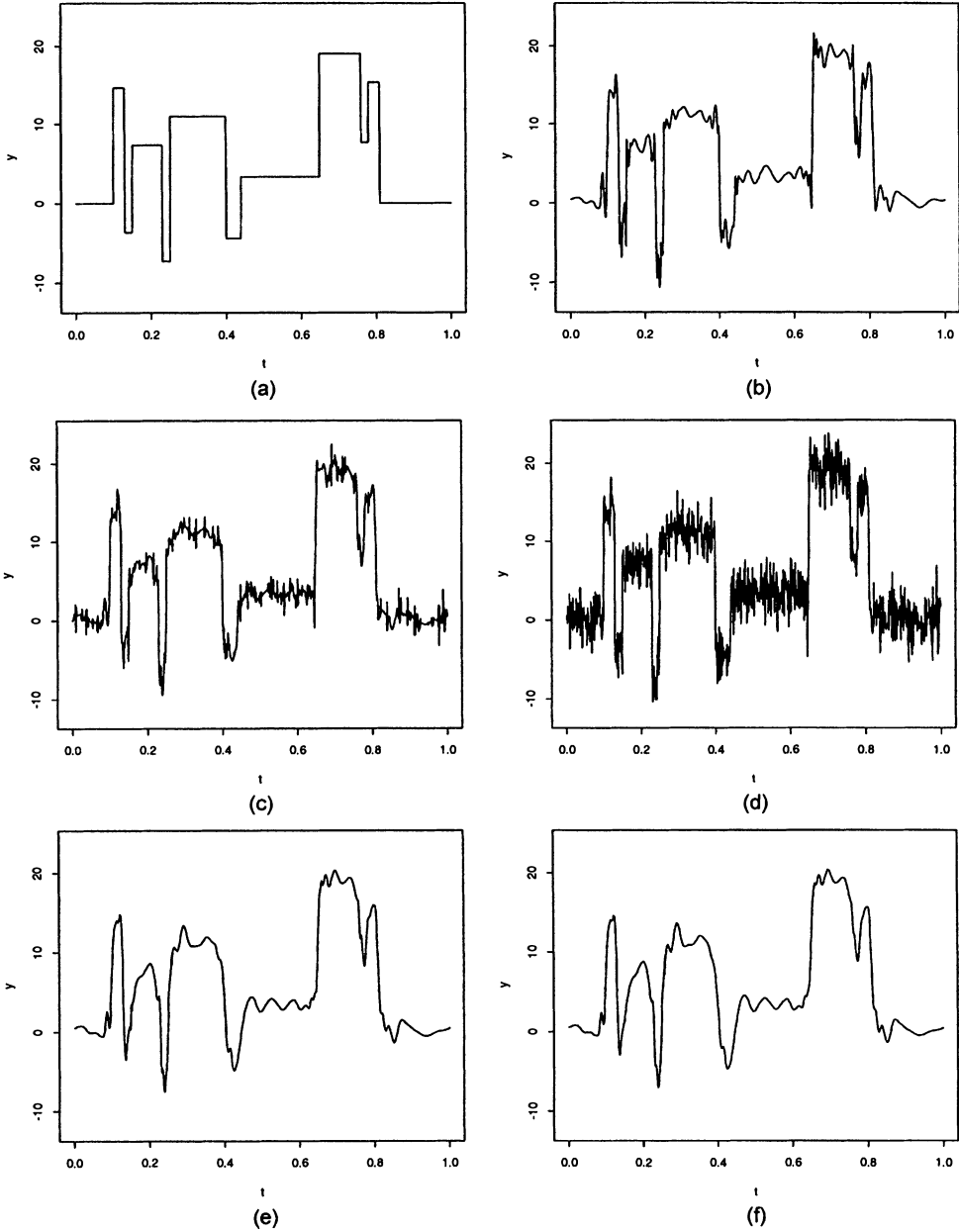


Fig. 5. Original test function and various reconstructions based on 1024 equally spaced values of the function with the addition of independent $N(0, \sigma^2)$ noise with $\sigma = 7/3$ (RSNR, 3): (a) original Blocks function; (b) BayesThresh ($\alpha = 0.5, \beta = 1$); (c) cross-validation; (d) GlobalSure; (e) false discovery rate; (f) VisuShrink

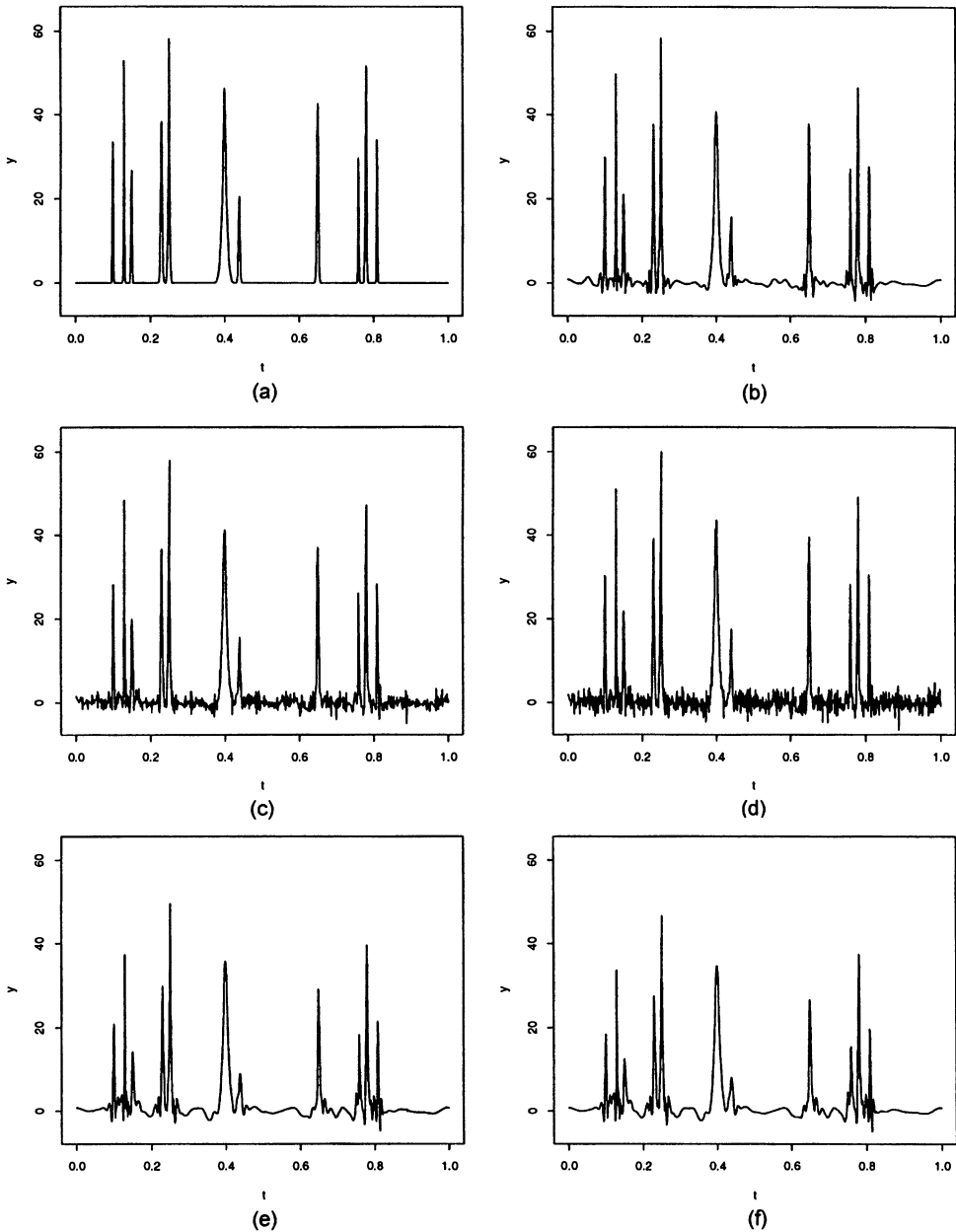


Fig. 6. Original test function and various reconstructions based on 1024 equally spaced values of the function with the addition of independent $N(0, \sigma^2)$ noise with $\sigma = 7/3$ (RSNR, 3): (a) original Bumps function; (b) BayesThresh ($\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 1$); (c) cross-validation; (d) GlobalSure; (e) false discovery rate; (f) VisuShrink

regular than the others; even in this case there was no improvement over the case $\alpha = 0.5$.

Figs 5–8 show the test functions and the reconstructions obtained, with all methods applied to noisy versions of the functions with an RSNR of 3. It can be seen from these plots that the BayesThresh ($\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 1$) method generally gives a better reconstruction of the fine scale structure, relative to the amount of noise in the smooth parts of the functions. In

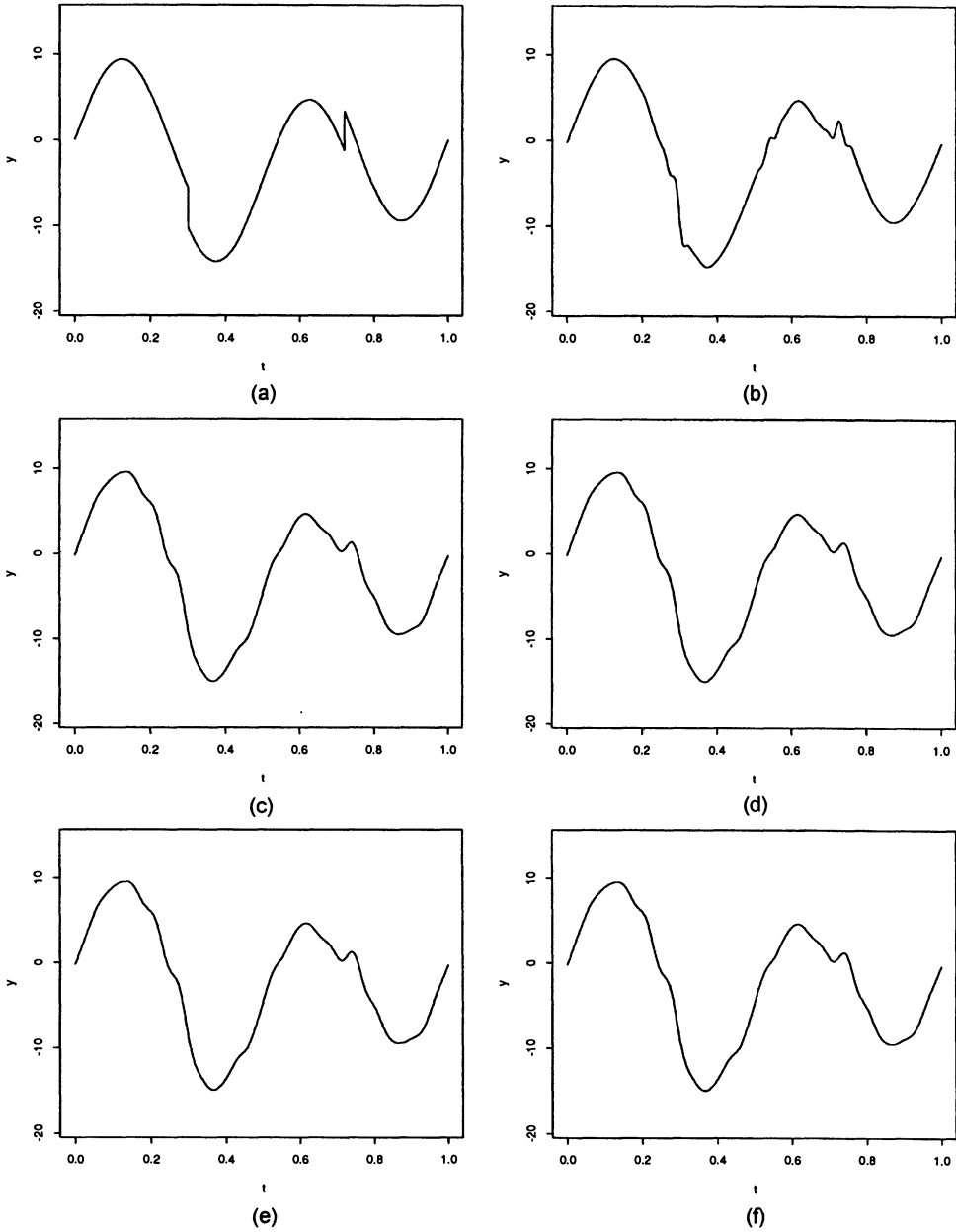


Fig. 7. Original test function and various reconstructions based on 1024 equally spaced values of the function with the addition of independent $N(0, \sigma^2)$ noise with $\sigma = 7/3$ (RSNR, 3): (a) original Heavisine function; (b) BayesThresh ($\alpha = 0.5, \beta = 1$); (c) cross-validation; (d) GlobalSure; (e) false discovery rate; (f) VisuShrink

particular, the BayesThresh method gives a better reconstruction of the corners in Blocks, the high peaks in Bumps, the jumps in Heavisine and the high frequency parts of Doppler.

5.2. Inductance plethysmography data

Here, we apply the thresholding methods to a data set arising from anaesthesiology collect-

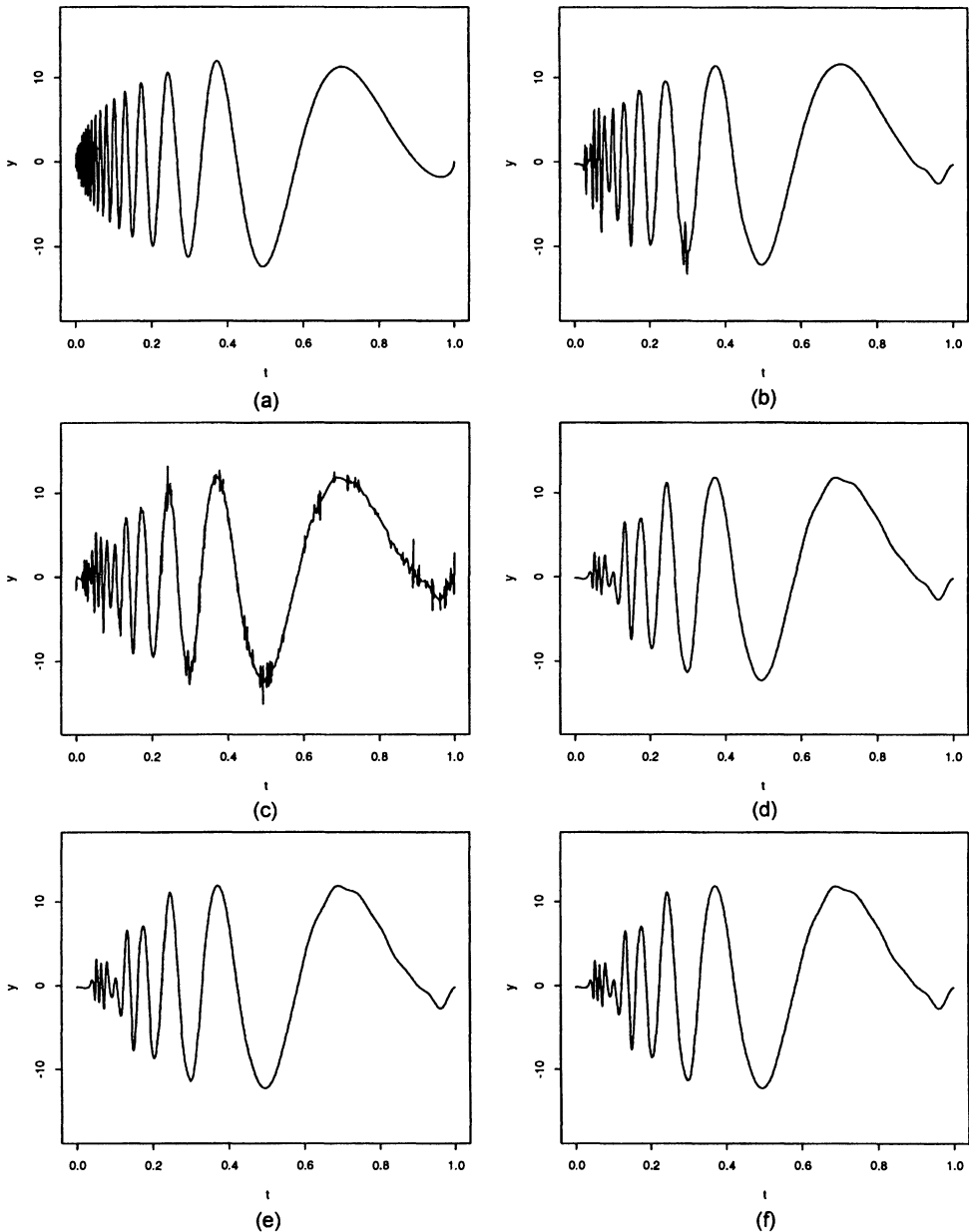


Fig. 8. Original test function and various reconstructions based on 1024 equally spaced values of the function with the addition of independent $N(0, \sigma^2)$ noise with $\sigma = 7/3$ (RSNR, 3): (a) original Doppler function; (b) BayesThresh ($\alpha = 0.5$, $\beta = 1$); (c) cross-validation; (d) GlobalSure; (e) false discovery rate; (f) VisuShrink

ed by inductance plethysmography. The recordings were made by the Department of Anaesthesia at the Bristol Royal Infirmary and measure the flow of air during breathing. The same data set has been analysed in Nason (1996), to which the reader is referred for more details. These signals are intrinsically continuous, and therefore large values of α in the BayesThresh method may be appropriate. Therefore, we consider $\alpha = 0.5, 1, 2$, and we

estimate C_1 and C_2 as suggested in Section 4.4. The noise level σ is robustly estimated by the median absolute deviation of the wavelet coefficients at the finest level, divided by 0.6745 (Donoho and Johnstone, 1994).

Figs 9 and 10 show a section of a plethysmograph recording lasting approximately 80 s (4096 data points) together with various reconstructions. The two main sets of regular oscillations correspond to normal breathing. The disturbed behaviour in the centre of the plot where the normal breathing pattern disappears corresponds to vomiting by the patient.

The VisuShrink and false discovery rate reconstructions remove the noise but tend to attenuate the peaks whereas the cross-validation and GlobalSure procedures retain the sharpness of peaks, but the smooth parts of the curves are still noisy. In contrast, the BayesThresh method has ‘noise-free’ quality without the attenuation. See, for example, the height of the first peak tabulated in Table 2.

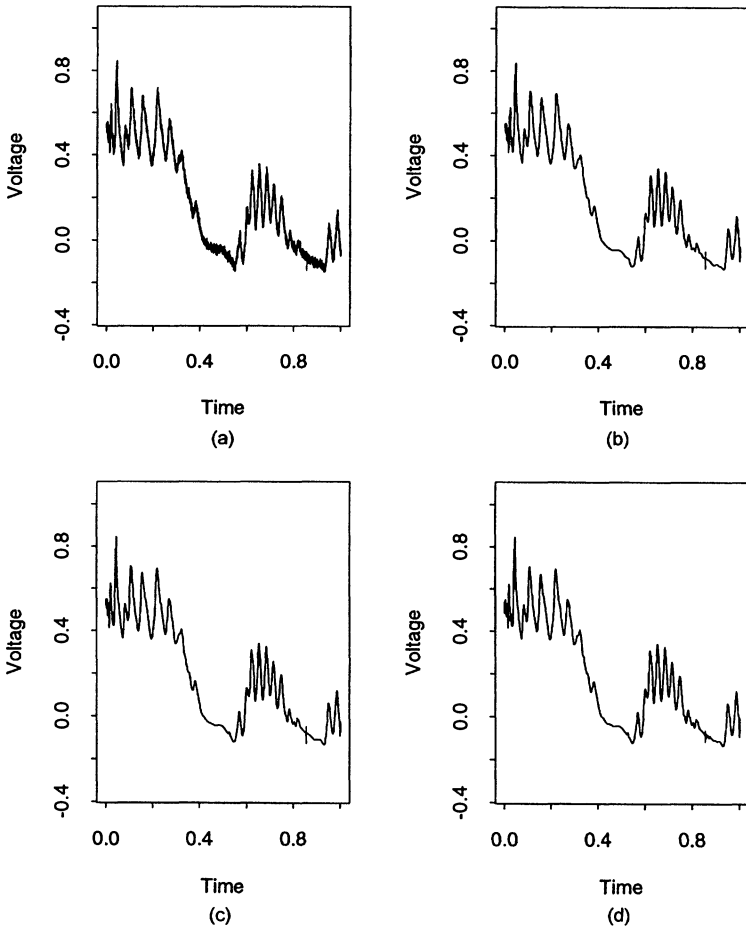


Fig. 9. (a) Section of an inductance plethysmograph recording and the curve estimates obtained by Bayes-Thresh: (b) $\alpha = 0.5, \beta = 1$; (c) $\alpha = 1, \beta = 1$; (d) $\alpha = 2, \beta = 1$ (it can be seen that the choice of α does not have an appreciable effect)

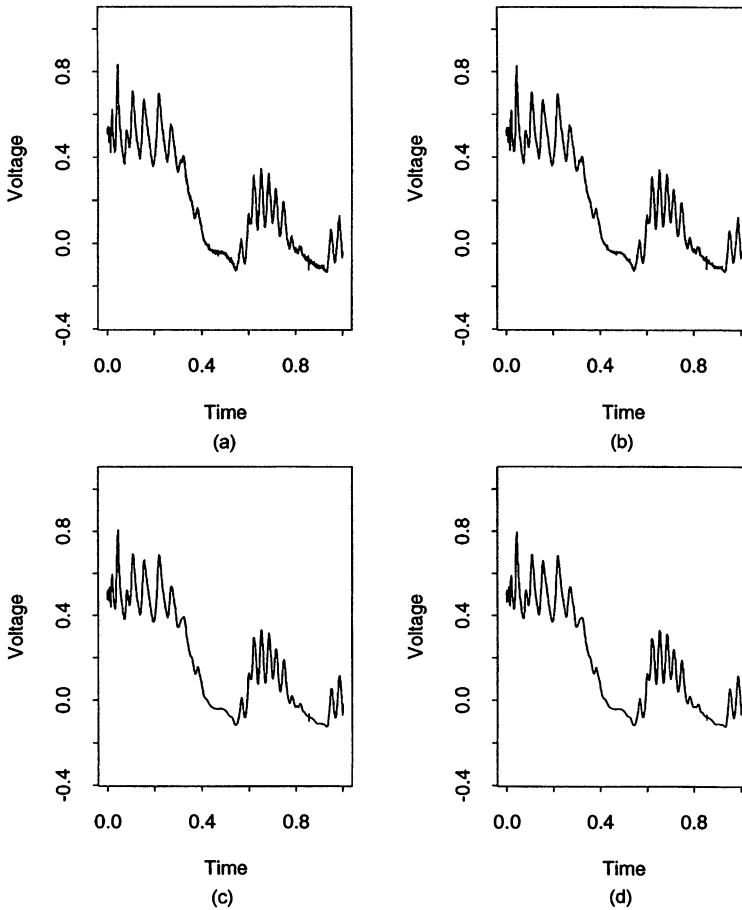


Fig. 10. (a) Curve estimates of the inductance plethysmograph recording given in Fig. 9(a), obtained by (a) cross-validation, (b) GlobalSure, (c) the false discovery rate and (d) VisuShrink (it can be seen that cross-validation and GlobalSure do not eliminate high frequency noise, whereas the false discovery rate and VisuShrink attenuate the peaks: see Table 2)

6. Concluding remarks

We have discussed a Bayesian formalism which has given rise to a type of wavelet threshold estimation in nonparametric regression. A prior distribution was imposed on the wavelet coefficients of the unknown response function, designed to capture the sparseness of wavelet expansion that is common to most applications. For the prior specified, the posterior median yielded a thresholding procedure. Several simulated examples were used to illustrate our method, and comparisons were made with other thresholding methods. We also presented an application to a data set that was collected in an anaesthesiological study.

Our prior model for the underlying function can be adjusted to give functions falling in any specific Besov space. We have established a relationship between the hyperparameters of the prior model and the parameters of those Besov spaces within which realizations from the prior will fall. This makes it possible in principle to incorporate prior knowledge about the function's regularity properties into the prior model for its wavelet coefficients, though in the

Table 2. Highest peak value (first peak) in the curves shown in Figs 9 and 10 for the inductance plethysmography data

	Highest peak value
Data	0.847
BayesThresh ($\alpha = 2, \beta = 1$)	0.845
BayesThresh ($\alpha = 1, \beta = 1$)	0.836
BayesThresh ($\alpha = 0.5, \beta = 1$)	0.835
Cross-validation	0.835
GlobalSure	0.828
False discovery rate	0.806
VisuShrink	0.796

present state of understanding of Bayesian smoothing methods the ‘standard’ choice $\alpha = 0.5$ and $\beta = 1$ seems to be the best practical approach.

As in any applications of Bayesian methods in curve and image processing, there are aspects of our ‘genuine’ prior knowledge that are not captured in the model. For example, an interesting avenue for future research would be the investigation of the effects of allowing a dependence between the wavelet coefficients of the true function. Although the wavelet transform can act as a ‘decorrelator’ that tends to make each wavelet coefficient statistically independent of all others, it will not completely decorrelate most signals. A recent contribution in this direction is by Crouse *et al.* (1998) who have developed a framework to capture statistical dependences between wavelet coefficients based on wavelet domain hidden Markov models.

Another interesting aspect is the estimation of the noise level σ . In our formulation, it is assumed that either σ is known or a reasonably good estimator is available. Where this is not the case, a prior may be put on σ . Clyde *et al.* (1998) dealt with this situation and used a Bayesian hierarchical model to define a multiple-shrinkage estimator for the wavelet coefficients. They also discussed fast computational implementations through importance sampling and Markov chain Monte Carlo methods. The combination of these ideas with our approaches is an interesting topic for further research.

Acknowledgements

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Appendix A: Theoretical details

Our study so far has concentrated on the Besov space parameters s and p . To take into account the Besov space parameter q as well, we now introduce a three-parameter prior family that includes

expression (11) as a special case. Specifically, we allow a more delicate dependence of the variance parameter τ_j^2 on the level j by introducing a third parameter γ , with $-\infty < \gamma < \infty$:

$$\tau_j^2 = 2^{-\alpha j} C_1^*.$$

The following theorem extends the results of theorem 1 to this prior and contains theorem 1 as the special case $\gamma = 0$.

Theorem 2. Let ψ be a mother wavelet of regularity r , where $\max(0, 1/p - \frac{1}{2}) < s < r$, $1 \leq p, q \leq \infty$, and let the wavelet coefficients w_{jk} of a function g obey the prior model (10) with $\tau_j^2 = 2^{-\alpha j} C_1^*$ and $\pi_j = \min(1, 2^{-\beta j} C_2)$, where $C_1^*, C_2, \alpha \geq 0, 0 \leq \beta \leq 1$ and $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, for any fixed value of $u_{00}, g \in B_{p,q}^s$ almost surely if and only if either

$$s + \frac{1}{2} - \beta/p - \alpha/2 < 0$$

or

$$s + \frac{1}{2} - \beta/p - \alpha/2 = 0$$

and γ satisfies the appropriate one of the following conditions:

- (a) $\gamma < -2/q$ for
 - (i) $p, q < \infty$ and $0 \leq \beta < 1$,
 - (ii) $p, q < \infty$ and $\beta = 1$,
 - (iii) $p = \infty, q < \infty$ and $\beta = 1$;
- (b) $\gamma < -1 - 2/q$ for $p = \infty, q < \infty$ and $0 \leq \beta < 1$;
- (c) $\gamma \leq 0$ for $p < \infty, q = \infty$ and $0 \leq \beta < 1$;
- (d) $\gamma \leq -1$ for $p, q = \infty$ and $0 \leq \beta < 1$;
- (e) $\gamma < 0$ for
 - (i) $p < \infty, q = \infty$ and $\beta = 1$,
 - (ii) $p, q = \infty$ and $\beta = 1$.

Proof. Define z_j to be the vector with elements z_{jk} , where $z_{jk} = \tau_j^{-1} w_{jk}$ for $k = 0, \dots, 2^j - 1$. We consider three cases.

In case I ($0 \leq \beta < 1; 1 \leq p \leq \infty; 1 \leq q \leq \infty$), for any $1 \leq p < \infty$, let ν_p be the p th absolute moment of the standard normal distribution. We then have $E\|z_j\|_p^p = 2^{(1-\beta)j} \nu_p C_2$ and $\text{var}(\|z_j\|_p^p) \leq 2^{(1-\beta)j} \nu_{2p} C_2$. We also define

$$\delta = \begin{cases} s + \frac{1}{2} - \beta/p - \alpha/2 & \text{if } 1 \leq p < \infty, \\ s + \frac{1}{2} - \alpha/2 & \text{if } p = \infty. \end{cases}$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, Chebyshev's inequality implies that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P\{|2^{-(1-\beta)j} \|\|z_j\|_p^p - C_2 \nu_p| > \epsilon\} \leq O(1) \epsilon^{-2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{-(1-\beta)j} < \infty.$$

Appealing to the first Borel-Cantelli lemma, it follows that

$$2^{-(1-\beta)j} \|\|z_j\|_p^p \rightarrow C_2 \nu_p \quad \text{almost surely as } j \rightarrow \infty. \tag{15}$$

By standard extreme value manipulations, using the fact that $P(|z_{jk}| > u) = 2\pi_j\{1 - \Phi(u)\}$, where Φ is the standard normal distribution function, we also have

$$j^{-1/2} \|z_j\|_{\infty} \rightarrow \sqrt{\{2(1 - \beta) \log(2)\}} \quad \text{almost surely as } j \rightarrow \infty. \tag{16}$$

Hence, in view of expressions (15) and (16) and the equivalence of the norms given by equations (2) and (3), the required conditions that $g \in B_{p,q}^s$ almost surely will be the finiteness of

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{js'q} \times 2^{(1-\beta)jq/p} \tau_j^q = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{j\delta q} j^{\gamma q/2}, \quad \text{if } 1 \leq p < \infty, \quad 1 \leq q < \infty, \quad (17)$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{js'q} j^{q/2} \tau_j^q = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{j\delta q} j^{(\gamma+1)q/2} \quad \text{if } p = \infty, \quad 1 \leq q < \infty, \quad (18)$$

$$\sup_{j \geq 0} (2^{js'} \times 2^{(1-\beta)j/p} \tau_j) = \sup_{j \geq 0} (2^{j\delta} j^{\gamma/2}), \quad \text{if } 1 \leq p < \infty, \quad q = \infty, \quad (19)$$

$$\sup_{j \geq 0} (2^{js'} j^{1/2} \tau_j) = \sup_{j \geq 0} (2^{j\delta} j^{(\gamma+1)/2}), \quad \text{if } p = \infty, \quad q = \infty. \quad (20)$$

In each case, the above expressions will be finite if $\delta < 0$ and infinite for $\delta > 0$. For $\delta = 0$, the expressions will be finite if and only if $\gamma < -2/q$ in case (17), $\gamma < -1 - 2/q$ in case (18), $\gamma \leq 0$ in case (19) or $\gamma \leq -1$ in case (20).

In case II ($\beta = 1; 1 \leq p \leq \infty; 1 \leq q < \infty$), the non-zero elements of z_j consist of M_j independent standard normal random variables, where $M_j \sim \text{binomial}(2^j, 2^{-j}C_2)$. By a standard coupling argument, there is a sequence N_j of Poisson(C_2) random variables such that $M_j = N_j$ almost surely for all sufficiently large j . Let ξ_j be a vector of N_j independent standard normal random variables, independently for each j . Then $\|\xi_j\|_1$ is a sum of a Poisson number of independent identical $|N(0, 1)|$ random variables; by standard probability arguments all the moments of $\|\xi_j\|_1$ are therefore finite since $E \exp(\|\xi_j\|_1) < \infty$. Furthermore, for any $1 \leq p \leq \infty$, $\|\xi_j\|_p \leq \|\xi_j\|_1$ (e.g. Beckenbach and Bellman (1961), p. 18) and hence $0 < E\|\xi_j\|_p^q \leq E\|\xi_j\|_1^q < \infty$.

By the equivalence of the norms given by equation (2), we now have the result that $g \in B_{p,q}^s$ almost surely if and only if

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{js'q} \tau_j^q \|\xi_j\|_p^q = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{j\delta q} j^{\gamma q/2} \|\xi_j\|_p^q < \infty \quad \text{almost surely.} \quad (21)$$

It can be shown from the monotone convergence theorem and the three-series theorem (see Karr (1993), theorems 4.10 and 7.5 respectively) that, if Z_n are independent and identically distributed non-negative random variables with strictly positive finite mean, and a_n are non-negative constants, then $\Sigma a_n Z_n$ is convergent almost surely if and only if Σa_n is convergent. It follows that expression (21) is equivalent to

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 2^{j\delta q} j^{\gamma q/2} < \infty, \quad (22)$$

since the ξ_j are independent and identically distributed and $E\|\xi_j\|_p^q$ is finite. Condition (22) is satisfied if and only if either $\delta < 0$, or $\delta = 0$ and $\gamma < -2/q$.

In case III ($\beta = 1; 1 \leq p \leq \infty; q = \infty$), by the equivalence of the norms given by equation (3) and the coupling argument presented previously, $g \in B_{p,q}^s$ almost surely if and only if

$$\sup_{j \geq 0} (2^{js'} \tau_j \|\xi_j\|_p) = \sup_{j \geq 0} (2^{j\delta} j^{\gamma/2} \|\xi_j\|_p) < \infty \quad \text{almost surely.} \quad (23)$$

Appealing to the Borel–Cantelli lemmas, it follows that condition (23) holds if and only if there is a constant c such that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P(2^{j\delta} j^{\gamma/2} \|\xi_j\|_p \geq c) < \infty. \quad (24)$$

After some simple arguments, using the facts that, for any $1 \leq p \leq \infty$,

$$\|\xi_j\|_p \leq \|\xi_j\|_1$$

and

$$E \exp(\|\xi_j\|_1) < \infty,$$

condition (24) is satisfied if and only if either $\delta < 0$, or $\delta = 0$ and $\gamma < 0$. This completes the proof for this case, and hence we have the theorem.

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