A test for the absence of aliasing or local white noise in locally stationary wavelet time series

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SUMMARY
Aliasing is often overlooked in time series analysis but can seriously distort the spectrum, autocovariance and their estimates. We show that dyadic subsampling of a locally stationary wavelet process, which can cause aliasing, results in a process that is the sum of asymptotic white noise and another locally stationary wavelet process with a modified spectrum. We develop a test for the absence of aliasing in a locally stationary wavelet series at a fixed location, and illustrate it on simulated data and a wind energy time series. A useful by-product is a new test for local white noise. The tests are robust to model misspecification in that it is unnecessary for the analysis and synthesis wavelets to be identical. Hence, in principle, the tests work irrespective of which wavelet is used to analyze the time series, though in practice there is a tradeoff between increasing statistical power and time localization of the test.

Some key words: Aliasing; Local spectrum; Sample rate; Subsampling; White noise; Wind energy.

1. INTRODUCTION
Typically, a data analyst is presented with a time series sampled at a fixed rate. However, the series might have been sampled at a higher rate or the analyst could request future samples at a higher rate. In practice, it is important to question whether time series are sampled often enough to successfully capture their second-order structure. Improper sampling can lead to aliasing, which this article proposes to detect and locate via a new test.

For a time series sampled at intervals of length $\Delta$ the range of angular frequencies in the spectrum that can be observed undistorted is $[0, \pi/\Delta)$, where $\pi/\Delta$ is the Nyquist frequency Chatfield (2003, page 109). If the highest frequencies in a series exceed the Nyquist frequency, then aliasing occurs and distorts the spectrum estimable by any method. As the spectrum and autocovariance are Fourier duals, distortion of the spectrum implies distortion of the autocovariance, and techniques that rely on either can be affected. Consequently, aliasing can have critical impact.

Without knowledge of the data generation process, the analyst will, a priori, be unaware whether aliasing has occurred, and could misguidedly analyze the series assuming it is free from distortion. For example, if $\{X_t\}$ is a real-valued stationary process with spectrum $f_X(\omega)$ for $\omega \in [0, \pi)$, and $Y_t = X_{2t}$ is observed, then the spectrum of $Y_t$ is $f_Y(\omega) = f_X(\omega) + f_X(\pi - \omega)$
for $\omega \in [0, \pi/2)$. Generally, $f_X$ cannot be identified from $f_Y$, so estimation of $f_X$ is impossible from an estimate of $f_Y$. Thus there is a need for principled approaches to test for the presence of aliasing.

Hannan (1960), Priestley (1983), Hamilton (1994), Bloomfield (2000), Brillinger (2001) and Chatfield (2003) all describe aliasing, but provide no advice about detecting or locating it. Instead, they suggest steps that can be taken to guard against it. One possibility is to apply a low-pass anti-aliasing filter prior to sampling, to ensure that the highest frequency in the filtered series is below the Nyquist rate. Although anti-alias filtering can be useful for analogue or very high sample-rate signal acquisitions, it is not useful when data are acquired at slow rates, such as in economics. Moreover, even if anti-alias filtering is used, valuable high-frequency information might be lost. Another possibility is that one might know, a priori, the highest frequency contained within a time series, and can choose the sample rate high enough to prevent aliasing.

Hinich & Wolinsky (1988) and Hinich & Messer (1995) introduced a hypothesis test for aliasing in stationary time series based upon the bispectrum, a third-order quantity. Our wavelet test is based on simpler second-order quantities, and is designed for nonstationary time series. Computing the bispectrum typically takes $O(T^2)$ operations. Our test is faster, only requiring $O(T \log T)$ operations, which can be important for long time series.

Previous work has considered alias detection at a fixed location for a nonstationary time series, where the true signal or spectrum is known beforehand. Wunsch & Gunn (2003) use ice core time series and induce aliasing to demonstrate how it can lead to misleading scientific conclusions. Our test does not require knowledge of the underlying true spectrum, or the higher-rate time series.

In a single realization, a nonstationary series can sometimes be aliased and sometimes not, depending on its spectral content relative to the Nyquist frequency at a given point. Hence, with a nonstationary series one can ask not only whether the series is aliased, but also where. Our test is designed to help answer both questions for locally stationary wavelet time series. That wavelets bring something genuinely new to the aliasing problem can be seen by replicating our method using Fourier-based quantities. Unlike the wavelet equations, which have a solution below, the equivalent Fourier-based equations are underdetermined, which is precisely the usual aliasing problem.

If one has prior knowledge that the time series has been properly sampled, and there is no possibility of aliasing, then our test becomes a test for local white noise. Although global white noise tests are popular and useful, we are unaware of any local method tailored for locally stationary series. Local tests can be used for similar purposes to global ones, such as assisting with model selection, understanding time-varying forecasting performance or, as suggested by a referee, for detecting measurement error in some circumstances.

2. Review of Locally Stationary Wavelet Processes

Locally stationary wavelet processes are time series models, constructed from wavelets, that change their statistical properties slowly over time. They are particularly useful for their ability to model time series operating at dominant scales in areas including finance (Fryzlewicz, 2005), economics (Winkelmann, 2016), ocean engineering (Killick et al., 2013), structural engineering (Spanos & Kougioumtzoglou, 2012), energy (Nowotarski et al., 2013; de Menezes et al., 2016) and business (Michis, 2009). Dahlhaus (2012) provides a comprehensive review of locally stationary time series. We now briefly review essential definitions from Nason et al. (2000).
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**Definition 1 (Discrete Wavelets).** Let \( \{ h_k \} \) and \( \{ g_k \} \) be the low and high pass quadrature mirror filters underlying the Daubechies (1992) compactly-supported orthogonal continuous time wavelets. The discrete wavelets \( \psi_j = (\psi_{j,0}, \psi_{j,1}, \ldots, \psi_{j,N_j-1}) \) are vectors of length \( N_j \) for scales \( j \in \mathbb{N} \) obtained using the formulae

\[
\psi_{1,n} = \sum_k g_{n-2k} \delta_{0,k} = g_n \quad (n = 0, \ldots, N_1 - 1),
\]

(1)

\[
\psi_{j+1,n} = \sum_k h_{n-2k} \psi_{j,k} \quad (n = 0, \ldots, N_{j+1} - 1),
\]

(2)

where \( N_j = (2^j - 1)(N_h - 1) + 1, N_h \) is the number of non-zero elements of \( \{ h_k \} \) and \( \delta_{0,k} \) is the Kronecker delta. The number of vanishing moments of the associated continuous time Daubechies compactly supported wavelet is \( N = N_h/2 \) where \( \int x^m \psi(x) \, dx = 0 \) for \( m \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( 0 \leq m < N \). Such wavelets are commonly referred to as Daubechies DN wavelets.

**Definition 2.** A locally stationary wavelet process is a sequence of doubly-indexed stochastic processes \( \{ X_{t,T} \}_{t=0,\ldots,T-1} \) \( (T = 2^j, J \in \mathbb{N}) \) having the following representation in the mean-square sense,

\[
X_{t,T} = \sum_{j=1}^\infty \sum_{k=-\infty}^\infty w_{j,k,T} \psi_{j,k} - t \xi_{j,k},
\]

(3)

where \( \{ \xi_{j,k} \}_{j \in \mathbb{N}, k \in \mathbb{Z}} \) is a collection of uncorrelated random variables with mean zero and unit variance, \( \{ \psi_{j,k} \}_{j \in \mathbb{N}, k \in \mathbb{Z}} \) is a set of discrete wavelets and \( \{ w_{j,k,T} \}_{j \in \mathbb{N}, k \in \mathbb{Z}} \) is a set of amplitudes satisfying the following conditions. For each \( j \in \mathbb{N} \), there exists a Lipschitz continuous function \( W_j : (0,1) \to \mathbb{R} \), such that: (i) \( \sum_j |W_j(z)|^2 < \infty \), uniformly in \( z \in (0,1) \); (ii) the Lipschitz constants, \( L_j \), are uniformly bounded in \( j \) and \( \sum_j 2^j L_j < \infty \); (iii) there exists \( \{ C_j \}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \), such that for each \( k \), \( \sup_k |W_{j,k,T} - W_j(k/T)| \leq C_j/T \), where for each \( j \) the supremum is over \( k = 0, \ldots, T-1 \) and where \( \{ C_j \} \) is such that \( \sum_j C_j < \infty \).

Spectral power for a locally stationary wavelet time series is quantified by the evolutionary wavelet spectrum, the time-scale analogue of the usual stationary spectrum, \( \hat{f}(\omega) \).

**Definition 3.** The locally stationary wavelet process \( \{ X_{t,T} \}_{t=0,\ldots,T-1} \) for \( T \geq 1 \) has evolutionary wavelet spectrum defined by \( S_j(z) = |W_j(z)|^2 \) for \( j \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( z \in (0,1) \) with respect to \( \{ \psi_{j,k} \} \).

Hence, the \( \{ w_{j,k} \} \) are a collection of amplitudes such that \( w_{j,k}^2 \approx S_j(k/T) \). Evolution of the second-order properties of \( X_{t,T} \) is controlled by smoothness constraints on \( S_j(z) \) as a function of \( z \) via those imposed on \( W_j(z) \) in Definition 2 (i)–(iii). For brevity, we henceforth drop the second \( T \) subscript in \( X_{t,T} \).

The spectrum, \( S_j(z) \), governs the contribution to variance in \( X_t \) at different scales at time \( z \). Informally, \( S_j(z) \) corresponds to the process variance integrated over the approximate frequency band \( [2^{-j} \pi, 2^{1-j} \pi] \). For example, the approximate band for \( S_1(z) \) is \([\pi/2, \pi]\), that for \( S_2(z) \) is \([\pi/4, \pi/2]\) and so on. The precise frequency bands and their degree of overlap depends on the particular wavelet \( \psi_{j,k}(t) \) in use in (3). We next recall several key quantities associated with locally stationary wavelet theory.

**Definition 4.** The raw wavelet periodogram of \( Y_t \) is defined to be \( I_{\ell,m} = d_{\ell,m}^2 \) for \( \ell \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( m \in \mathbb{Z} \), where \( \{ d_{\ell,m} \} \) are the nondecimated wavelet coefficients of \( Y_t \) given by \( d_{\ell,m} = \int \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} |\tilde{Y}_{\ell,m-2i}| \).

3. **Locally Stationary Wavelet Models Under Dyadic Sampling**

3.1. **Dyadic subsampling of locally stationary wavelet processes**

Aliasing is induced in this article by starting with a locally stationary wavelet process, \( X_t \), and then forming \( Y_t = X_{2^r t} \) (\( t \in \mathbb{Z}, r = 1, \ldots, J - 1 \)) by dyadic subsampling of \( X_t \). Since \( Y_t \) is sampled at a slower rate than \( X_t \), high-frequency power in \( X_t \) could reappear as aliased power in \( Y_t \). Our first result shows that \( Y_t \) can be represented by the sum of a locally stationary wavelet process, built using the same wavelets as the original, and another process, which is asymptotically white noise.

**Theorem 1.** Let \( \{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \) be a locally stationary wavelet process with evolutionary wavelet spectrum \( \{S_j(z)\}_{j=1}^\infty \). If \( Y_t = X_{2^r t} \), then \( \{Y_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \) admits the decomposition \( Y_t = L_t + F_t \), where \( L_t \) is a locally stationary wavelet process, with the same underlying wavelets as \( X_t \), possessing raw wavelet periodogram expectation given by the right-hand side of (4), and \( F_t \) is a process with zero mean and autocovariance \( \text{cov}(F_t, F_{t+\tau}) = S_1(2^r t/T)\delta_{0,\tau} + O(T^{-1}) \). Hence, \( F_t \) is asymptotically white noise with variance \( S_1(z) \). Further, if \( S_1(z) \) is constant for \( z \in (0, 1) \), then \( F_t \) is stationary white noise with variance \( S_1(z) \).

These proofs are in Appendix 1. Theorem 1 can be extended to repeated dyadic sampling:

**Corollary 1.** Let \( \{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \) be as in Theorem 1 and let \( Y_t = X_{2^r t} \) (\( r \in \mathbb{N} \)). Then, asymptotically, \( \{Y_t\} \) admits the decomposition \( Y_t = L_t + F_t \), where \( L_t \) is a locally stationary wavelet process, with the same underlying wavelets as \( X_t \), possessing raw wavelet periodogram expectation in the right-hand side of (4), and \( F_t \) is a process with zero mean and autocovariance \( \text{cov}(F_t, F_{t+\tau}) = \delta_{0,\tau} \sum_{j=1}^r S_j(2^r t/T) + O(T^{-1}) \). Further, if \( S_1(z), \ldots, S_r(z) \) are all constant functions of \( z \in (0, 1) \), then \( L_t \) is stationary white noise with variance \( \sum_{j=1}^r S_j(z) \).

Nason et al. (2000) developed an estimator for the wavelet spectrum by exploiting the raw wavelet periodogram \( d_{\ell,m}^2 \) of \( X_t \) using the result \( E(d_{\ell,m}^2) = \sum_j A_{\ell,j} S_j(m/T) + O(T^{-1}) \). The next result explains what happens to \( E(d_{\ell,m}^2) \) after dyadic subsampling.

**Theorem 2.** Suppose \( \{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} \) is a locally stationary wavelet process with evolutionary wavelet spectrum given by \( \{S_j(z)\}_{j=1}^\infty \) with Daubechies compactly-supported wavelets. The expectation of the raw wavelet periodogram, \( d_{\ell,m}^2 \), of \( Y_t = X_{2^r t} \) is

\[
E(d_{\ell,m}^2) = \sum_{j=1}^r S_j(2^r m/T) + \sum_{j=r+1}^\infty A_{j-r,j} S_j(2^r m/T) + O(T^{-1}) \quad (r = 1, \ldots, 2^J-1),
\]

where \( \ell \in \mathbb{N}, m \in \mathbb{Z} \) and \( A \) is the inner-product operator from Definition 4. The result also holds true for Shannon wavelets if the evolutionary wavelet spectrum, \( S_j(z) \), has continuous first derivative for each \( j > 0 \).

Theorem 2 generalizes Proposition 4 of Nason et al. (2000), in which \( r = 0 \), and additionally establishes the result for Shannon wavelets. The Shannon wavelet can be thought of as the limit-
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The case of Daubechies wavelets with an infinite number of vanishing moments. A consequence is that \( A_{j, \ell} = 2^j \delta_{j, \ell} \) for Shannon wavelets; see Nason et al. (2000) for further details.

Aliasing results in power redistribution across scales. For example with \( r = 1 \), subsampling dyadically once, formula (4) for \( Y_1 \) becomes

\[
E(d^2_{\ell, m}) = S_1(2m/T) + \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} A_{j-1, \ell} S_j(2m/T) + \mathcal{O}(T^{-1}).
\]

Compare (5) with the usual formula for the asymptotic expectation of the raw wavelet periodogram of \( X_t \) without subsampling, due to Nason et al. (2000):

\[
E(d^2_{\ell, m}) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} A_{j, \ell} S_j(m/T) + \mathcal{O}(T^{-1}).
\]

There are three key differences between (5) and (6). First, \( E(d^2_{\ell, m}) \) in (5) is contaminated by \( S_1(2m/T) \) at every analysis scale, i.e., for all \( \ell \geq 1 \). This contamination is the manifestation of aliasing in the locally stationary wavelet domain and might be used to detect aliasing, as described in §3.2. The second difference is that the mixing matrix on the right-hand side of (5) is \( A_{j-1, \ell} \), not \( A_{j, \ell} \). The remaining difference is that the dyadically subsampled periodogram exists on the grid \( 2m/T \) rather than on \( m/T \).

3.2. White noise confounding and hypothesis specification

If a locally stationary wavelet process, \( X_t \), is white noise with variance \( \sigma^2 \), then the unsampled process is such that \( E(d^2_{\ell, m}) = \sigma^2 \) for \( \ell \in \mathbb{N}, m \in \mathbb{Z} \); see proof of Lemma B.3 in Fryzlewicz et al. (2003). The same quantity appears at every scale as in the first term of (4) or (5) when subsampling. Hence, the effects of white noise and aliasing are confounded in our set-up.

Such confounding is not a surprise, as white noise can be seen as the ultimate aliased signal. For example, suppose that \( X_t \) is a stationary process with variance \( \sigma^2 < \infty \) and autocovariance \( \gamma_X(\tau) \to 0 \) as \( \tau \to \infty \). If \( Y_t = X_{2^t} \), then \( \gamma_Y(\tau) \to \sigma^2 \delta_{\tau, 0} \) as \( r \to \infty \). In other words, repeated subsampling of \( X_t \) leads to white noise. Taking a broader view, in a practical situation, what may appear to be white noise might be the result of repeatedly subsampling a time series. Similar confounding can be found in the test for aliasing for stationary series in Hinich & Messer (1995); rejection of the null hypothesis there can mean that the series is not random, not stationary, aliased, not mixing, or any combination of these.

However, even with confounding, we can still test the null hypothesis \( H_0 \) that there is no white noise component and no aliased component at \( z_0 \in (0, 1) \), against the hypothesis \( H_A \) that a white noise or aliased component exists at \( z_0 \). So although we cannot separate the two components, our hypothesis test can test locally whether they are both absent.

4. Aliasing/White Noise Test

4.1. The test procedure

Let \( t_0 \in \{1, \ldots, T\} \) and let \( z_0 = t_0/T \) be the rescaled time equivalent of \( t_0 \). If we could observe the evolutionary wavelet spectrum \( \{S_j^{(Y)}(z_0)\}_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \) directly, then it would be possible to test the ideal null hypothesis \( H_0^{(I)} \) that there exists \( j^* \in \mathbb{N} \) such that \( S_j^{(Y)}(z_0) = 0 \), versus the alternative \( H_A^{(I)} \): \( S_j(z_0) > 0 \) for all \( j \in \mathbb{N} \). In view of §3.2, the null hypothesis means that \( \{Y_t\} \) cannot possess any additive white noise component and, in view of Theorem 2, it would also mean that no aliasing has occurred from any underlying subsampled \( \{X_t\} \) process.
However, the spectrum \( \{ S^j(z) \}_j \) cannot be observed directly, but can only be estimated from a realization \( \{ Y_n \}_n \) on a finite set of scales \( j \leq J^\uparrow < J \), where \( J^\uparrow \) is chosen to avoid boundary effects. Hence, we can only gain information on \( S_j(z_0) \) for \( j \in \{ 1, \ldots, J^\uparrow \} \) and, therefore, only test the null hypothesis \( H_0 \) that there exists \( j^* \in \{ 1, \ldots, J^\uparrow \} \) such that \( S_j(z_0) = 0 \) versus \( H_A : S_j(z_0) > 0 \) for \( j \in \{ 1, \ldots, J^\uparrow \} \). Clearly, if \( H_0 \) is true, then \( H_0^{(j)} \) is true. However, if \( H_A \) is true then either \( H_0^{(j)} \) or \( H_A^{(j)} \) might be true, as \( S_j(z_0) \) might be zero for scales \( j > J^\uparrow \) that cannot be discerned from a finite length series.

We proceed by testing whether \( S_j(z_0) = 0 \) for each scale \( j \in \{ 1, \ldots, J^\uparrow \} \) separately. Let \( b \in \mathbb{N}, b > 0 \) be a window width and define \( R_b = \{-b, \ldots, b\} \). Define the sample \( \{ \hat{S}_{j,t_0+r} \}_{j=1, \ldots, J^\uparrow, r \in R_b} \), where \( \hat{S}_{j,t} \) is the estimator given by \( \sum_{t=1}^{J^\uparrow} I_{t,j} \), and \( I_{t,j} \) and \( A \) are from Definition 4. Proposition 4 of Nason et al. (2000) and the Lipschitz continuity of \( S_j \) imply that \( E(\hat{S}_{j,t_0+r}) = S_j(z_0) + O(r/T) \). Hence, under \( H_0 \), there exists \( j^* \in \{ 1, \ldots, J^\uparrow \} \) such that \( E(\hat{S}_{j^*,t_0+r}) = O(r/T) \). For small \( r \) and large \( T \) we have \( E(\hat{S}_{j^*,t_0+r}) \approx 0 \) with the \( \hat{S}_{j^*,t_0+r} \) possessing the same distribution on \( r \in R_b \) asymptotically This approximation improves with increasing \( T \) and for smoother \( S \) around \( z_0 \). Hence, we employ standard tests of zero location on the set \( \{ \hat{S}_{j,t_0+r} \}_{r \in R_b} \), one for each scale \( j = 1, \ldots, J^\uparrow \). For example, we could use Student’s \( t \)-test on the sample \( \{ \hat{S}_{j,t_0+r} \}_{j=1, \ldots, J^\uparrow, r \in R_b} \). Let \( \hat{S}_{j,t_0} \) and \( \hat{\sigma}_{j,t_0} \) be the sample mean and variance of \( \{ \hat{S}_{j,t_0+r} \}_{r=1, \ldots, J^\uparrow, r \in R_b} \). The next result establishes the asymptotic distribution of the usual \( t \)-statistic operating on the sample \( \{ \hat{S}_{j,t_0+r} \}_{j=1, \ldots, J^\uparrow, r \in R_b} \).

**Theorem 3.** Let \( j \in \{ 1, \ldots, J^\uparrow \} \) be fixed, \( b \in \mathbb{N}, b > 0 \). Suppose that \( \{ Y_i \} \) is a stationary Shannon wavelet process with innovations that satisfy \( E(|\xi_{j,k}|^6) < \infty \). Let \( t = (2b)^{1/2} \hat{S}_{j,t_0} \hat{\sigma}_{j,t_0}^{-1} \) be Student’s \( t \)-statistic defined on the sample \( \{ \hat{S}_{j,t_0+r} \}_{j=1, \ldots, J^\uparrow, r \in R_b} \). Then \( t \) converges in distribution to a normal variable with mean \( 2^{J^\uparrow} \hat{S}_{j,t_0} \) and variance one, as \( b \to \infty \).

We use Student’s \( t \)-test or, in the case of significant violations of normality, a nonparametric test such as the Wilcoxon signed rank or the signmedian test. Student’s \( t \)-test does not work well in the presence of autocorrelation, which is known to exist in the \( \hat{S}_{j,t_0+r} \) sequence as a function of \( r \); see Jones (1975), for example. To improve the performance of the \( t \)-test we use the equivalent sample size method from Zwiers & von Storch (1995), which uses estimated autocorrelation to alter the effective sample size. The \( t \)-test is robust to violations of the normality assumption; see the Supplementary Material.

We use Holm’s method (Holm, 1979) to control the overall size of our test over the multiple \( J^\uparrow \) hypotheses. This is a reasonable choice, as no assumption is made about correlations between the \( \hat{S}_j(z_0) \) at different scales, but as a result our test is somewhat conservative.

### 4.2. Practical considerations

Our test is robust to the mismatch of the synthesis wavelet in (3) and analysis wavelet given in Definition 4, because a white noise component or aliasing caused by subsampling both cause a constant to be added to each level of the wavelet periodogram, irrespective of the type of wavelet used to synthesize the process. Our test uses a wavelet method to detect whether a constant has been added to each level, and works irrespective of the analysis wavelet.

All Daubechies compactly-supported wavelet spectral estimates suffer from spectral leakage, where power from one scale can leak to adjacent scales. Such leakage makes it harder to determine whether power in a given scale is zero, which influences the statistical size and power of our test. In practice, there is a tradeoff between mitigating spectral leakage by using longer smoother
wavelets (Nason et al., 2000, Section 4.1) and achieving good time localization by using shorter rougher wavelets, such as Haar wavelets. Hence, we recommend using Daubechies’ D5, D6 or D7 mid-range wavelets, which achieve a good compromise. Similarly, the size and power of our test will depend on the window width, \( b \), which should be large enough to enable detection of modest departures from \( H_0 \), but small enough to ensure that the estimates \( S_{j,t_0+r} \) are representative of the behaviour of the spectrum at \( z_0 \). An appropriate upper bound for \( b \) could be obtained by computing an estimator of the spectrum (Fryzlewicz & Nason, 2006; Nason et al., 2000), and then choosing \( b \) such that the window of spectral estimates on \( R_b \) is approximately constant for each scale. For fixed \( T \), our test operates over a small interval \((z_0 - b/T, z_0 + b/T)\) although, conceptually, as \( T \) increases, this interval shrinks to \( z_0 \).

Torrence & Compo (1998) introduced the wavelet cone of influence as the region of the wavelet spectrum degraded by edge effects. The extent of the cone depends on the length of the time series, \( T \), and the length, \( N_h \), of the wavelet filter used to compute the wavelet spectrum from Definition 1. The coarsest non-cone scale is the largest \( J_{NC} \in \mathbb{N} \) such that

\[
J_{NC} \leq \log_2\left\{ \frac{(T/2 + N_h - 2)/(N_h - 1)}{J_{NC}} \right\}.
\]

Our test uses scales \( 1, \ldots, J^\dagger \) and to avoid edge effects, we choose \( J^\dagger \leq J_{NC} \). For a functioning practical test, with reasonable power, we recommend \( T \geq 512 \) and, for the range of sample sizes we consider, choose \( J^\dagger = 4 \). This provides us with enough scales to furnish a non-trivial test, but not too many scales, which would reduce power and expose the test to large autocorrelations at the coarser scales, as mentioned above. For practical use, we recommend that \( J^\dagger \) should grow linearly with \( \log T \).

We already employ multiple hypothesis testing methods to control the overall size of our test by combining the results over \( J^\dagger \) scales using Holm’s method. Similar methods could be used if we repeated our test at multiple time locations, and not just at a single time point \( z_0 \).

### 4.3. Post hoc investigation that can be undertaken if the test is rejected

If the null hypothesis is rejected, then evidence exists that aliasing or a white noise component are present, and we describe three post hoc strategies to distinguish them.

One strategy might be to perform stationarity tests on a range of times around \( z_0 \) and, if stationary, use the Hinich & Wolinsky (1988) or Hinich & Messer (1995) aliasing tests. Another strategy could be to reanalyze the series at a faster rate, if possible. If significant power exists at finer scales, then aliasing probably has occurred, and the new rate should be considered in future.

A third approach, illustrated in §5-2, investigates the local spectral properties of the series in clear patches, where there is no aliasing or white noise, to discover whether power moves from low to higher frequencies just before an aliasing/white noise event, or vice versa. This exploratory approach has the advantage of not requiring faster-sampled data required by the second approach, or the stationarity tests of the first approach, which might possess poor power for moderate sample sizes.

For the specific case of Shannon locally stationary wavelet processes, Eckley & Nason (2014) show that aliased power can be detected and the aliasing effects removed.

### 5. Simulations and a Wind Energy Example

#### 5.1. Simulation study

Our simulation study uses the test-bed evolutionary wavelet spectrum, \( \{S_{j}^{TB1}(z)\} \) shown in Fig. 1 to produce realizations without subsampling, \( r = 0 \). The test-bed spectrum satisfies the null hypothesis, for \( J^\dagger = 4 \), at \( z_0 = 1/2 \) and the alternative at \( z_0 = 1/4 \), respectively. We drew 1000 realizations of length \( T = 4096 \) from the locally stationary process model of (3) using the test-bed spectrum and Daubechies D5 wavelets with normally-distributed innovations. Tables 1–
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4 show the empirical rejection rates. Using the method described in §4.1, we test $H_0: S_j(z_0) = 0$ versus $H_A: S_j(z_0) > 0$, for each scale $j = 1, \ldots, J^\dagger$ separately, at a nominal size of 5%, using the equivalent sample size version of Student’s $t$-test.

Table 1 illustrates our test working as a local white noise test, with no subsampling. Under the null hypothesis, at $z_0 = 1/2$, it shows increasing empirical power at scales $j = 2, 3, 4$ as the window width, $b$, increases and empirical size ranging from 1.8% to 3.2% for scale $j = 1$. These empirical sizes are somewhat conservative and we attribute this to negative correlations present in the $\{\hat{S}_{j,t_0+r}\}_{r \in \mathbb{R}}$ sample. The equivalent sample size method mentioned in §4.1 attempts to improve the size calibration, but the outcome is not perfect.

The overall empirical size of our test is 1–2%, lower than the nominal rate. Under the alternative hypothesis, at $z_0 = 1/4$, Table 2 shows increasing empirical power for all scales.

The next simulation set illustrates our absence of aliasing test using a second test-bed spectrum, $S_j^{TB2}(z)$, which is identical to $S_j^{TB1}(z)$ except that scale $j = 3$ has zero power. This set subsamples using $r = 1$, which reduces the realization length from 4096 to 2048 according to §3.1, and induces aliasing where power existed at scale $j = 1$. The subsampling causes scale $j = 1$ to disappear, and so we test the individual scale hypotheses at $j = 2, 3, 4$.

Table 3 shows the results for $z_0 = 1/2$, where there was previously no power at the finest scale and so no aliasing will occur. The empirical power for the $j = 2, 4$ columns is high, due to the spectral power present at those scales. However, for scale $j = 3$, for reasonable sample sizes, the rejection rate becomes consistent with the nominal size. The overall rejection rate at $z_0 = 1/2$ is well-controlled, but conservative, with respect to the nominal rate. Table 4 shows the results for

Fig. 1. The test-bed spectrum, $\{S_j^{TB1}(z)\}_{j=1}^{J^\dagger}$. 

Absence of aliasing and local white noise test

Table 1. Empirical rejection rate (%), per scale and overall, at \( z_0 = 1/2 \), with no subsampling.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( b )</th>
<th>( j = 1 )</th>
<th>( j = 2 )</th>
<th>( j = 3 )</th>
<th>( j = 4 )</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>76.2</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>99.2</td>
<td>69.7</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Overall column in each table corresponds to the rejection rate obtained by combining the per scale \( p \)-values via Holm’s method, whereas the rates for individual scales \( j = 1, \ldots, 4 \) are shown in the other columns.

Table 2. Empirical power (%) of test per scale and overall power, at \( z_0 = 1/4 \), with no subsampling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( b )</th>
<th>( j = 1 )</th>
<th>( j = 2 )</th>
<th>( j = 3 )</th>
<th>( j = 4 )</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>98.4</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>94.6</td>
<td>77.6</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>54.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>83.0</td>
<td>70.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>98.4</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>92.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Empirical rejection rate (%), per scale and overall, at \( z_0 = 1/2 \), with dyadic subsampling \((r = 1)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( b )</th>
<th>( j = 1 )</th>
<th>( j = 2 )</th>
<th>( j = 3 )</th>
<th>( j = 4 )</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>87.7</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>88.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>99.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( z_0 = 1/4 \), where the power at the finest scale, \( j = 1 \), is redistributed into coarser scales according to Theorem 2. As before, the null hypothesis is routinely rejected at scales \( j = 2, 4 \). In contrast to Table 3, Table 4 shows increasing, and eventually high, power at scale \( j = 3 \). Hence, we would often reject our null hypothesis in favour of the alternative \( H_A : S_j(z_0) > 0 \) for all \( j = 1, \ldots, J \)
and, therefore, the overall empirical power of the test increases and reaches 65.8% for \( b = 128 \). In practice, we would, for the time being, accept \( H_0 \) at \( z_0 = 1/2 \), and conclude that no aliasing occurred nor white noise components were present. However, at \( z_0 = 1/4 \), although we can reject \( H_0 \), we cannot conclude that there was definitely aliasing or white noise components present, because we have no information on scales for \( j > 4 \).

5.2. A wind speed example

Wind power forecasting has received much attention in recent years, motivated by the need to develop reliable forecast tools to enable effective integration of wind farm output into power grids (Landberg et al., 2003; Genton & Hering, 2007). Several authors use autoregressive integrated moving average models that implicitly assume the absence of aliasing; see Huang & Chalabi (1995) or Sfetsos (2002), for example. We seek to identify whether any such corruption might
occur in data provided by an industrial collaborator. High-resolution wind speed data, sampled at 1Hz, were acquired from a proposed wind farm in the midwest U.S.A. during March 2011 and differenced to remove trend. Figure 2 displays the differenced series, which exhibits nonstationarity. For example, the sample variances of the first and last one hundred observations are 0.063 and 0.093, respectively, and statistically significant variance differences were confirmed using methods from Nason (2013). Q-Q plots and goodness of fit tests strongly suggest that the series’ marginal distribution has heavy tails.

We test $H_0$ at the two times, $t = 245, 330$, and the Holm-adjusted $p$-values are displayed in Table 5. Results are presented for the three wavelets recommended in §4.2 for the $J^\dagger = 4$ non-cone scales. At time $t = 330$, for each wavelet, $H_0$ is not rejected, so we have no evidence for a white noise component or aliasing at this location. At time $t = 245$, $H_0$ is rejected at the 5%
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Table 5. The $p$-values and $H_0$ rejection status for the wind series using our test at two reference times (using the signmedian test, three different Daubechies $D_v$ wavelets with $v$ vanishing moments and $b = 25$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Wavelet</th>
<th>$j = 1$</th>
<th>$j = 2$</th>
<th>$j = 3$</th>
<th>$j = 4$</th>
<th>Reject $H_0$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>245</td>
<td>D6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>245</td>
<td>D7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>245</td>
<td>D8</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>330</td>
<td>D6</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>330</td>
<td>D7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>330</td>
<td>D8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

level for wavelets D6 and D8, but not for D7. However, $H_0$ would have been rejected at the 6.5% level for the D7 wavelet. Hence, there is evidence to reject $H_0$ in favour of $H_A$.

We undertake a post hoc investigation as described in §4.3. We did not reject $H_0$ at $t = 330$, are suspicious that aliasing or white noise components might exist at $t = 245$ and suspect that there might be a transition between the two time points, possibly around $t = 290$. If, prior to $t = 290$, the series was truly subject to aliasing and after it was not, then power will have moved from higher to lower frequencies over time or, at the very least, disappeared from frequencies above the Nyquist frequency. Since we suspect aliasing prior to $t = 300$, we do not apply classical spectral analysis here.

However, as we have no evidence for aliasing after the suspected transition, we subject the series there to post hoc classical stationary periodogram analyses on three rolling windows, using methods described by Fryzlewicz et al. (2008) and displayed in Fig. 3. These indicate that the peak frequency associated with each window decreases.

Hence, there is supporting evidence that, after $t = 300$, the high frequency content in the series is reducing over time.

Using the centre time, $t$, for each rolling window and its associated peak frequency, $f$, we obtain $(t, f) \in \{(292, 0.438), (302, 0.406), (312, 0.395)\}$, which can be modelled approximately by the linear relationship $f = 1.06 - 0.0022t$. Assuming that the peak frequency reduces linearly according to this model, and extrapolating backwards, we hypothesize that the series was aliased before $t = 261$, when $f = 0.5$ in the model. This is merely a hypothesis, as the series might have been contaminated by white noise before the transition instead of aliased high frequency components. In addition, the transition time itself, and this analysis is subject to uncertainty.

Acknowledgements

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Supplementary material

Supplementary material available at Biometrika online includes proofs of Theorem 2 for Shannon locally stationary wavelet processes, of Theorem 3 and definition of the test-bed spectrum,
together with advice on the selection of a suitable hypothesis test of location, and theoretical justification of the asymptotic equivalence of the distribution of $d_{j,k}$ with $d_{j,k+r}$.

APPENDIX

Proof of Theorem 1

First, we substitute $2t$ for $t$ in the main process definition formula (3) to obtain

$$Y_t = X_{2t} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{j,k} \psi_{j,k-2t} \xi_{j,k} = F_t + L_t,$$  \hspace{1cm} (A1)

where $F_t$ is the $j = 1$ term of (A1),

$$F_t = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{1,k} \psi_{1,k-2t} \xi_{1,k},$$ \hspace{1cm} (A2)

and $L_t = V_t + O_t$, where $V_t$ are the $j \geq 2$ terms of (A1), corresponding to even-indexed $k$, i.e.,

$$V_t = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2\ell} \psi_{j,2\ell-2t} \xi_{j,2\ell}$$

and $O_t$ the odd-indexed $k$, i.e.,

$$O_t = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2\ell+1} \psi_{j,2\ell+1-2t} \xi_{j,2\ell+1}.$$
Absence of aliasing and local white noise test

For the next part recall the discrete wavelet formulae in Definition 1. Focussing on the case where \( j \geq 2 \), we concentrate on \( V_t \) and \( O_t \). Substituting in (2) for \( \psi_{j,2^t-2t} \) into the expression for \( V_t \) gives

\[
V_t = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2^t} \xi_{j,2^t} \psi_{j,2^t-2t} = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2^t} \xi_{j,2^t} \sum_q h_{2^t-2(t+q)} \psi_{j-1,q}.
\]

Now sum over \( r = t + q \) instead of \( q \) to obtain

\[
V_t = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2^t} \xi_{j,2^t} \sum_r h_{2(t-r)} \psi_{j-1,r-t},
\]

sum over \( p = \ell - r \) instead of \( r \) to obtain

\[
V_t = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2^t} \xi_{j,2^t} \sum_p h_{2p} \psi_{j-1,\ell-p-t},
\]

and rearrange the terms to obtain

\[
V_t = \sum_{p} h_{2p} \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2^t} \xi_{j,2^t} \psi_{j-1,\ell-p-t} = \sum_{p} h_{2p} U_t^{(p)},
\]

assuming all sums converge absolutely, and where \( U_t^{(p)} = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2^t} \xi_{j,2^t} \psi_{j-1,\ell-p-t} \).

In the formula for \( U_t^{(p)} \), substitute \( q = \ell - p \), so

\[
U_t^{(p)} = \sum_{p} \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,2^t} \xi_{j,2^t} \psi_{j-1,\ell-p-t}.
\]

Now define \( \xi_{j-1,q}^* = \xi_{j,2(p+q)} \) for \( j = 2, 3, \ldots \) and \( q \in \mathbb{Z} \); both are sequences of uncorrelated random variables with zero mean and unit variance, and both depend on \( p \). Further, define \( W_j^{*\ell}(z) = W_j(z) \) for \( j = 2, 3, \ldots, z \in (0, 1) \) and let \( w_{j-1,q}^* = w_{j,2q} \). Then we can write

\[
U_t^{(p)} = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j-1,q}^* \psi_{j-1,q-\ell} \psi_{j-1,q} = \sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \sum_{t \in \mathbb{Z}} w_{j,q}^* \psi_{j,q-\ell} \psi_{j,q}.
\]

Recalling assumption (10) of Nason et al. (2000), we obtain

\[
\sup_q |w_{j,q+p}^* - W_j^*{(q+p)/T}| = \sup_q |w_{j,2(q+p)}^* - W_j^*{(2(q+p)/T)}| \leq C_j/T.
\]

The \( \{W_j^*{(z)}\} \) satisfy the same smoothness conditions as the \( \{W_j(z)\} \), Hence, \( U_t^{(p)} \) is a locally stationary wavelet process for all \( p \). Although the range of \( p \) values in (A3) seems to be infinite, only a finite, and typically small, number of \( h_{2p} \) are non-zero, so the sum over \( p \) and \( \ell \) in (A3) is never infinite.

Hence, \( V_t \) is a sum of a finite number of locally stationary wavelet processes with constant coefficients, not depending on \( t \), and hence is itself a locally stationary wavelet process (Cardinali & Nason, 2010). The same arguments can be applied to \( O_t \). Hence, \( V_t + O_t \) is also a locally stationary wavelet process.

Now consider the \( j = 1 \) term, \( F_t \) from (A2). Clearly, this term has mean zero, as the \( \xi_{1,k} \) all have zero mean. Recalling that \( \psi_{1,k} = g_k \) from (1) the autocovariance of \( F_t \) is

\[
\operatorname{cov}(F_t, F_{t+\tau}) = \operatorname{cov}
\left(
\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{1,k} g_{k-2t+\ell} \xi_{1,k}, \sum_{\ell=-\infty}^{\infty} w_{1,t} g_{\ell-2(t+\tau)} \xi_{1,\ell}\right)
\]

\[
= \sum_{k,\ell} w_{1,k} g_{k-2t} w_{1,t} g_{\ell-2(t+\tau)} \operatorname{cov}(\xi_{1,k}, \xi_{1,\ell})
\]

\[
= \sum_{k} w_{1,k}^2 g_{k-2t} g_{k-2(t+\tau)},
\]

(A4)
because \( \text{cov} (\xi_{1,k}, \xi_{1,\ell}) = \delta_{k,\ell} \) by assumption.

If \( w_{1,k}^2 \) is constant, then \( S_1(z) \) is constant for all \( z \in (0, 1) \) and hence

\[
\text{cov} (F_t, F_{t+\tau}) = w_1^2 \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} g_{k-2t} g_{k-2(t+\tau)} = S_1 \delta_{0,\tau}.
\]

The last equality holds because of the orthonormality relations possessed by the quadrature mirror filter coefficients associated with the underlying mother wavelet; see Burrus et al. (1997, formula (5.28)).

If \( S_1(z) \) is not constant for all \( z \in (0, 1) \), then substitute \( k = \ell + 2t \) into (A4) to obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{cov} (F_t, F_{t+\tau}) &= \sum_{\ell} w_{\ell+2t}^2 g_t g_{t-2\tau} \\
&= \sum_{\ell} \left\{ W_1^2 \left( \frac{\ell + 2t}{T} \right) + O(T^{-1}) \right\} g_t g_{t-2\tau} \\
&= \sum_{\ell} \left\{ S_1(2t/T) + O(L_1|\ell|/T) \right\} g_t g_{t-2\tau} + O(T^{-1}) \\
&= S_1(2t/T) \delta_{0,\tau} + O(T^{-1}).
\end{align*}
\]

The transition from (A5) to (A6) is due to formula (10) from Nason et al. (2000), that from (A6) to (A7) due to the Lipschitz continuity of \( W_1(z) \), and \( L_1 \) is the associated Lipschitz constant, from Definition 1c in Nason et al. (2000). The remainder terms parallel those found in Nason et al. (2000, Proposition 1) and in the proof of Theorem 2.

**Proof of Corollary 1**

This follows by iteration of Theorem 1 and reference to Theorem 2.

**Proof of Theorem 2**

Proof. We proceed by substituting \( 2^r t \) for \( t \) in the formula for \( X_t \) in (3). We assume here that the same wavelet is used for analysis as the process construction. The periodogram expectation is

\[
E(d^2_{t,m}) = E \left( \left( \sum_1 t X_{2^r t} \psi_{t,m-t} \right)^2 \right) = E \left( \left( \sum_1 t \sum_j \sum_k w_{j,k} \psi_{j,k-2^r t} \xi_{j,k} \psi_{t,m-t} \right)^2 \right)
\]

\[
= \sum_{j,k,n,p} w_{j,k}^2 w_{n,p}^2 E(\xi_{j,k} \xi_{n,p}) \sum_1 t \psi_{j,k-2^r t} \psi_{t,m-t} \sum_1 s \psi_{n,p-2^r s} \psi_{t,m-s}
\]

\[
= \sum_{j,k} w_{j,k}^2 \left( \sum_1 t \psi_{j,k-2^r t} \psi_{t,m-t} \right)^2 \sum_{j,k} P(j,k,\ell,m,r), (\ell \in \mathbb{N}; m \in \mathbb{Z}),
\]

where \( P(j,k,\ell,m,r) = (\sum_1 t \psi_{j,k-2^r t} \psi_{t,m-t})^2 \).
To proceed we substitute \( k = n + 2^r m \) in (A8) to obtain
\[
E(d^2_{\ell,m}) = \sum_{j} \sum_{n} w_{j,n+2^r m}^2 P[j, n + 2^r m, \ell, m, r] \\
= \sum_{j,n} \left\{ S_j \left( \frac{n + 2^r m}{T} \right) + O(T^{-1}) \right\} P(j, n + 2^r m, \ell, m, r) \\
= \sum_{j,n} \left\{ S_j(2^r m/T) + O(T^{-1}) + O(nT^{-1}) \right\} P(j, n + 2^r m, \ell, m, r) \\
= \sum_{j,n} S_j(2^r m/T) P(j, n + 2^r m, \ell, m, r) + O(T^{-1}) \\
= \sum_{j} S_j(2^r m/T) \sum_{n} P(j, n + 2^r m, \ell, m, r) + O(T^{-1}). \tag{A10}
\]

The remainders in (A9) for Daubechies’ wavelets are derived using standard arguments (Nason et al., 2000, Proposition 4). The Supplementary Material gives details of the remainder for the Shannon case. Now
\[
\sum_{n} P(j, n + 2^r m, \ell, m, r) = \sum_{n,t,s} \psi_{j,n+2^r m-2^r t} \psi_{\ell,m-t} \psi_{j,n+2^r m-2^r s} \psi_{\ell,m-s} \\
= \sum_{n,t,s} \psi_{\ell,m-t} \sum_{n} \psi_{j,n+2^r (m-t)} \psi_{j,n+2^r (m-s)} \\
= \sum_{n,t,s} \psi_{\ell,m-t} \psi_{\ell,m-s} \Psi_j(2^r(s-t)),
\]
where \( \Psi_j(\tau) \) is the autocorrelation wavelet from Nason et al. (2000). With \( v = s - t \),
\[
\sum_{n} P(j, n + 2^r m, \ell, m, r) = \sum_{v} \Psi_j(2^r v) \sum_{\ell} \psi_{\ell,m-t} \psi_{\ell,m-v-t} = \sum_{v} \Psi_j(2^r v) \Psi_{\ell}(v).
\]
Lemma 1 of Eckley & Nason (2005) shows that when \( j > r \) we have \( \Psi_j(2^r v) = \Psi_{j-r}(v) \). Further, for \( j = r \) we have \( \Psi_j(2^r v) = \Psi_{j}(2v) = \delta_{v,0} \) and for \( j < r \) we have \( \Psi_j(2^r v) = \delta_{v,0} \).

Hence, omitting the remainder for the moment, splitting the sum in (A10) about \( r \) gives
\[
E(d^2_{\ell,m}) = \sum_{j=0}^{r} S_j(2^r m/T) \sum_{v} \Psi_j(2^r v) \Psi_{\ell}(v) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{\infty} S_j(2^r m/T) \sum_{v} \Psi_j(2^r v) \Psi_{\ell}(v) \\
= \sum_{j=0}^{r} S_j(2^r m/T) \sum_{v} \delta_{v,0} \Psi_{\ell}(v) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{\infty} S_j(2^r m/T) \sum_{v} \Psi_{j-r}(v) \Psi_{\ell}(v) \\
= \sum_{j=0}^{r} S_j(2^r m/T) \Psi_{\ell}(0) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{\infty} S_j(2^r m/T) A_{j-r,\ell} \\
= \sum_{j=0}^{r} S_j(2^r m/T) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{\infty} A_{j-r,\ell} S_j(2^r m/T), \quad (\ell \in \mathbb{N}; m \in \mathbb{Z}). \tag{A11}
\]

When not subsampling, \( r = 0 \), formula (A11) reduces to the formula for the expectation of the raw wavelet periodogram in Nason et al. (2000, Proposition 4). □

**REFERENCES**


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