

From stationarity to self-similarity, and back

(Variations on the Lamperti transformation)

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A brief historical sketch

Lamperti, 1962: seminal result on self-similar processes, often quoted (e.g., in Vervaat, 1987 or Samorodnitsky & Taqqu, 1994), but rarely discussed *per se* (until Burnecki *et al.*, 1997).

Gray & Zhang, 1988; Yazici & Kashyap, 1995–1997; Vidács & Virtamo, 1999: independent re-introductions of Lamperti's warping idea.

Nuzman & Poor, 1999–2000: systematic use of the Lamperti transform for processing self-similar processes.

Borgnat *et al.*, 2001: extension and application to stochastic discrete scale invariance.

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Outline of the talk

1. Stationarity and self-similarity
2. **The Lamperti transformation:** Definition, consequences, examples and applications
3. A variation related to *stochastic discrete scale invariance*
4. Concluding remarks

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Shifts and dilations

Definition 1 Given $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$, the shift operator S_τ operates on processes $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ according to:

$$(S_\tau Y)(t) := Y(t + \tau).$$

Definition 2 Given $H > 0$ and $\lambda > 0$, the renormalized dilation operator $\mathcal{D}_{H,\lambda}$ operates on processes $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ according to:

$$(\mathcal{D}_{H,\lambda} X)(t) := \lambda^{-H} X(\lambda t).$$

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Stationarity and self-similarity

Definition 3 A process $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is said to be stationary if

$$\{(\mathcal{S}_\tau Y)(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\} \stackrel{d}{=} \{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

for any $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$.

Definition 4 A process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ is said to be self-similar of index H (or “ H -ss”) if

$$\{(\mathcal{D}_{H,\lambda} X)(t), t > 0\} \stackrel{d}{=} \{X(t), t > 0\}$$

for any $\lambda > 0$.

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The Lamperti transformation

Definition 5 Given some number $H > 0$, the Lamperti transform \mathcal{L}_H operates on processes $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ according to:

$$(\mathcal{L}_H Y)(t) := t^H Y(\log t), t > 0,$$

whereas the corresponding inverse Lamperti transform \mathcal{L}_H^{-1} operates on processes $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ according to:

$$(\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} X)(t) := e^{-Ht} X(e^t), t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

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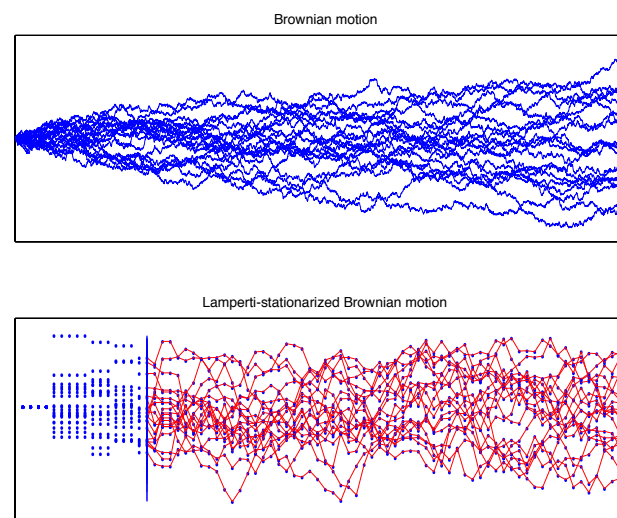
Lamperti's theorem

Lemma 1 The Lamperti transform guarantees an equivalence between shifts and renormalized dilations in the sense that, for any $\lambda > 0$:

$$\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} \mathcal{D}_{H,\lambda} \mathcal{L}_H = \mathcal{S}_{\log \lambda}.$$

Theorem 1 If $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is stationary, its Lamperti transform $\{(\mathcal{L}_H Y)(t), t > 0\}$ is H -ss. Conversely, if $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ is H -ss, its inverse Lamperti transform $\{(\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} X)(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is stationary.

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Consequences — 1.

Covariances — Statistical properties of self-similar processes can be inferred from those of their Lamperti counterparts, and vice-versa. Introducing the notation $\mathbf{R}_X(t, s) := \mathbb{E}X(t)X(s)$, we have

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathcal{L}_H^{-1}X}(t, s) = e^{-H(t+s)} \mathbf{R}_X(e^t, e^s)$$

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathcal{L}_HY}(t, s) = (ts)^H \mathbf{R}_Y(\log t, \log s)$$

Stationarity — In the case where $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is stationary, $\mathbf{R}_Y(t, s) = \gamma_Y(t - s)$ and

$$\mathbf{R}_{\mathcal{L}_HY}(t, s) = (ts)^H \gamma_Y(\log(t/s)).$$

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Consequences — 2.

Corollary 1 Any second-order H -ss process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ has necessarily a covariance function of the form

$$\mathbf{R}_X(t, s) = (ts)^H c_H(t/s)$$

for any $t, s > 0$, with $c_H(\exp(\cdot))$ a non-negative definite function.

Corollary 2 Given a second-order H -ss process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$, the spectrum of its stationary counterpart $\{(\mathcal{L}_H^{-1}X)(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is the Mellin transform of the scale-covariant function $c_H(\cdot)$:

$$\Gamma_{\mathcal{L}_H^{-1}X}(f) = (\mathcal{M}c_H)(i2\pi f),$$

with

$$(\mathcal{M}X)(s) := \int_0^{+\infty} X(t) t^{-s-1} dt.$$

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Scale-covariant systems — 1.

Definition 6 A linear operator \mathcal{G} is said to be scale-covariant if it commutes with any renormalized dilation, i.e., if

$$\mathcal{G}\mathcal{D}_{H,\lambda} = \mathcal{D}_{H,\lambda}\mathcal{G}$$

for any $H > 0$ and any $\lambda > 0$.

Proposition 1 If an operator \mathcal{G} is scale-covariant, it necessarily acts on processes $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ as a multiplicative convolution:

$$(\mathcal{G}X)(t) = \int_0^{+\infty} g(t/s) X(s) ds/s.$$

Corollary 3 Scale-covariant operators preserve self-similarity.

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Scale-covariant systems — 2.

Corollary 4 The Lamperti transform maps linear filters onto scale-covariant systems.

Proposition 2 Any H -ss process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ can be represented as the output of a linear scale-covariant system of impulse response $g(\cdot)$:

$$X(t) = \int_0^{+\infty} g(t/s) dV(s)/s,$$

with $\mathbb{E}dV(t)dV(s) = \sigma^2 t^{2H+1} \delta(t - s) dt ds$.

Corollary 5 The spectrum of $\{(\mathcal{L}_H^{-1}X)(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$, stationary counterpart of the H -ss process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$, is given by

$$\Gamma_{\mathcal{L}_H^{-1}X}(f) = \sigma^2 |(\mathcal{M}g)(H + i2\pi f)|^2.$$

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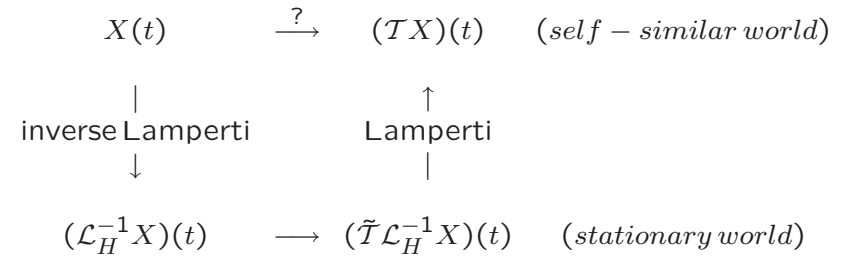
Applications

From stationarity to self-similarity — Classes and models of self-similar processes can be obtained by “lampertizing” corresponding classes and models of stationary processes.

From self-similarity to stationarity — Conversely, “delampertizing” self-similar processes can render their processing easier, by making them amenable to classical tools aimed at stationary processes.

A general framework

A transformation \mathcal{T} on an H -ss process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ can be equivalently achieved as $\mathcal{T} = \mathcal{L}_H \tilde{\mathcal{T}} \mathcal{L}_H^{-1}$, according to the commutative diagram:



Example 1. — Tones and chirps

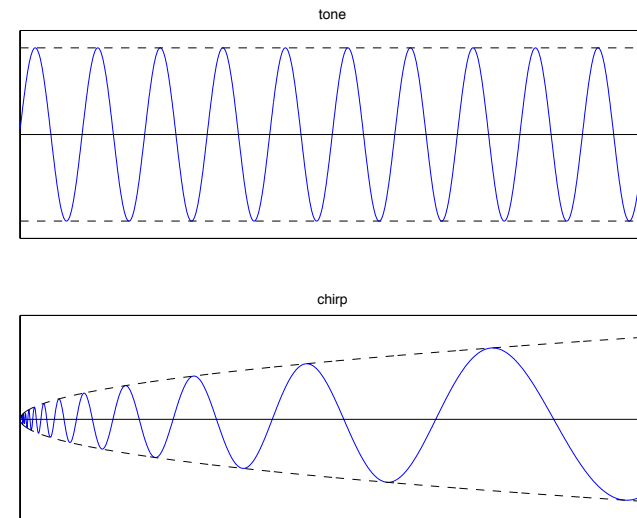
The (stationary) random phase “tone”

$$Y_0(t) := a \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \varphi), t \in \mathbb{R},$$

with $a, f_0 > 0$ and $\varphi \in \mathcal{U}(0, 2\pi)$, is “lampertized” into the (self-similar) random phase “chirp”

$$X_0(t) := (\mathcal{L}_H Y_0)(t) = a t^H \cos(2\pi f_0 \log t + \varphi), t > 0.$$

Remark — $X_0(t) = \text{Re}\{a e^{i\varphi} m_s(t)\}$, with $s = H + i2\pi f_0$ and $m_s(t) := t^s$ the basic building block of the Mellin transform.



Example 2. — From fBm to gOU

H -ss processes $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ with stationary increments (or, “ H -sssi” processes) have a covariance function of the form

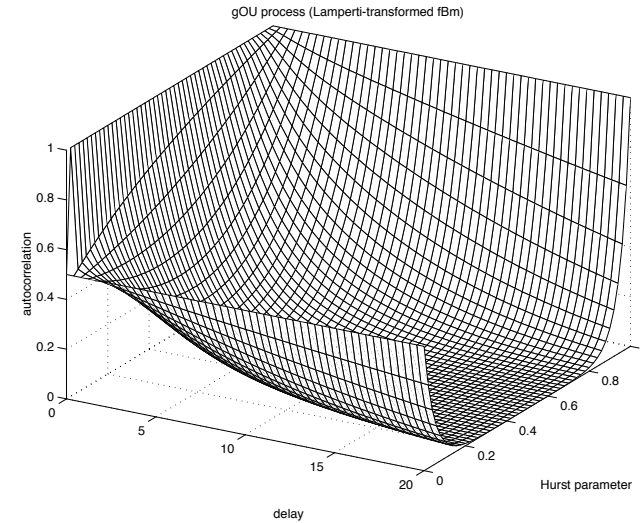
$$\mathbf{R}_X(t, s) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} (t^{2H} + s^{2H} - |t - s|^{2H}).$$

H -sssi + Gaussian \Rightarrow fractional Brownian motion (fBm) $B_H(t)$.

The inverse Lamperti transform $\{Y_H(t) := (\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} B_H)(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is a *generalized Ornstein-Uhlenbeck* (gOU) process of (stationary) covariance function

$$\gamma_{Y_H}(\tau) = \sigma^2 (\cosh(H|\tau|) - 2^{2H-1} \sinh^{2H}(|\tau|/2)).$$

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Example 2. — From fBm to gOU (cont'd)

Bm & OU — If $H = 1/2$, $\{B_{1/2}(t), t > 0\}$ is the ordinary Brownian motion of covariance function $\mathbf{R}_{B_{1/2}}(t, s) = \sigma^2 \min(t, s)$, and its Lamperti image $\{Y_{1/2}(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is the ordinary OU process of (stationary) covariance function:

$$\gamma_{Y_{1/2}}(\tau) = \sigma^2 e^{-|\tau|/2}.$$

Long-range vs. short-range dependence — The (stationary) increment process of fBm (or fractional Gaussian noise, fGn) is long-range dependent if $1/2 < H < 1$, whereas the gOU process $Y_H(t)$ is short-range dependent for any $H \in (0, 1)$, since

$$\gamma_{Y_H}(\tau) \propto \sigma^2 e^{-\min(H, 1-H)\tau}$$

when $\tau \rightarrow \infty$.

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Example 2. — From fBm to gOU, and back

The spectrum density of gOU processes reads

$$\Gamma_{Y_H}(f) = \frac{\sigma^2}{H^2 + 4\pi^2 f^2} \left| \frac{\Gamma((1/2) + i2\pi f)}{\Gamma(H + i2\pi f)} \right|^2,$$

and it can be factorized so that $\Gamma_{Y_H}(f) = |\Phi_+(f)|^2$, with $\Phi_+(f)$ the transfer function of a causal filter.

Whitening — Whitening gOU is equivalent to transforming fBm into Bm \Rightarrow innovations representations for fBm.

Prediction — Observing a self-similar process on some finite interval $[0, T]$ is equivalent to observing its (stationary) Lamperti counterpart on the real half-line $[0, \infty) \Rightarrow$ linear prediction of fBm from Wiener-type prediction of gOU (Nuzman & Poor, 2000).

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Example 3. — From OU to ssOU

The OU process $\{Y_{1/2}(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is solution of the Langevin equation

$$dY(t) + \alpha Y(t) dt = dB(t),$$

with $\alpha = 1/2$. Given $\alpha > 0$, the general solution is

$$Y_\alpha(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t e^{-\alpha(t-s)} dB(s),$$

whose Lamperti transform (or, ssOU process)

$$X_{\alpha,H}(t) := (\mathcal{L}_H Y_\alpha)(t) = t^{H-\alpha} \int_0^t s^\alpha dB(\log s), t > 0,$$

is solution of

$$t dX(t) + (\alpha - H) X(t) dt = dV(t),$$

with $\mathbb{E}dV(t)dV(s) = \sigma^2 t^{2H+1} \delta(t-s) dt ds$.

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Example 3. — From OU to ssOU (cont'd)

Scale-covariant representation — Noting that $dB(\log t)$ is covariance-equivalent to $t^{-1/2}dB(t)$, we have

$$X_{\alpha,H}(t) = \int_0^{+\infty} \underbrace{[(t/s)^{H-\alpha} u(t/s-1)]}_{g(t/s)} \underbrace{[s^{H+1/2} dB(s)]}_{dV(s)} / s,$$

with $u(\cdot)$ the unit-step function.

ssOU covariance function — The (nonstationary and H -ss) ssOU process generalizes Bm according to

$$\mathbf{R}_{X_{\alpha,H}}(t, s) = \sigma^2 (\min(t, s))^{H+\alpha} (\max(t, s))^{H-\alpha},$$

leading to $\mathbf{R}_{X_{H,H}}(t, s) = (\min(t, s))^{2H}$, and $X_{1/2,H}(t) = t^{H-1/2} B(t)$.

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Example 4. — From ARMA to EC

Stochastic differential equation — Ignoring non-differentiability issues, the Langevin equation of OU processes can be written as

$$\frac{dY}{dt}(t) + \alpha Y(t) = W(t),$$

with $W(t)$ “white noise” such that $\mathbb{E}W(t)W(s) = \sigma^2 \delta(t-s) dt ds$.

ARMA — This can be generalized to ARMA(p, q) processes of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^p \alpha_n Y^{(n)}(t) = \sum_{n=0}^q \beta_n W^{(n)}(t),$$

with the notation $Y^{(n)}(t) := (d^n Y / dt^n)(t)$.

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Example 4. — From ARMA to EC (cont'd)

Proposition 3 Stationary ARMA processes have an H -ss Lamperti counterpart, referred to as Euler-Cauchy processes, which is solution of an equation of the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^p \alpha'_n t^n X^{(n)}(t) = \sum_{n=0}^q \beta'_n t^n \tilde{W}^{(n)}(t), t > 0,$$

with $\tilde{W}(t) = t^{H+1/2} W(t)$.

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Variations on Lamperti's theorem

Applying the Lamperti transformation to weakened forms of stationarity leads to weakened forms of self-similarity.

Multiplicative harmonizability — Harmonizable nonstationary processes $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ have a Lamperti counterpart which admits the Mellin representation

$$(\mathcal{L}_H Y)(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} t^{H+i2\pi f} d\xi(f), t > 0,$$

with $\mathbb{E}d\xi(f)\overline{d\xi(\nu)} \neq 0$ for $f \neq \nu$.

Example — Spectral increments may be periodically correlated, i.e., $\mathbb{E}d\xi(f)\overline{d\xi(\nu)} \neq 0$ for $f = \nu + k/T, k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

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Cyclostationarity and DSI

Definition 7 A process $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is said to be periodically correlated (PC) of period T_0 (or " T_0 -cyclostationary") if

$$\{(S_{T_0} Y)(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\} \stackrel{d}{=} \{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Definition 8 A process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ is said to possess a discrete scale invariance of index H and of scaling factor $\lambda_0 > 0$ (or to be " (H, λ_0) -DSI") if

$$\{(\mathcal{D}_{H, \lambda_0} X)(t), t > 0\} \stackrel{d}{=} \{X(t), t > 0\}.$$

It follows from these definitions that T_0 -cyclostationary processes are also T -cyclostationary for any $T = kT_0, k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and that (H, λ_0) -DSI processes are also (H, λ) -DSI for any $\lambda = \lambda_0^k, k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

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Discrete scale invariance

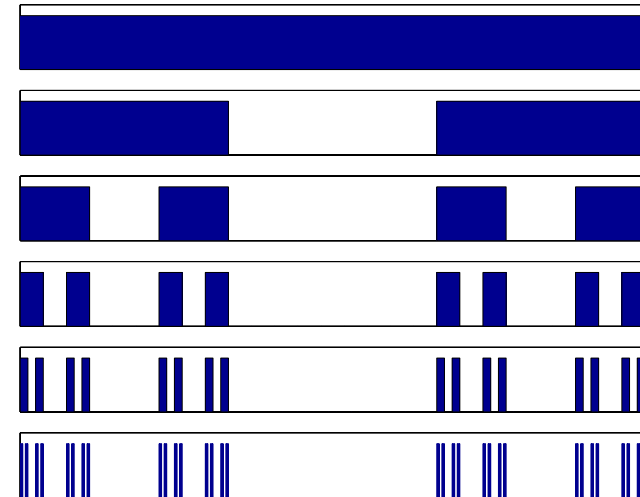
Deterministic DSI — The concept of DSI has been introduced in a *deterministic* sense in Saleur & Sornette, 1996.

Ubiquity — DSI has been *theoretically* shown to naturally occur in many critical systems, and it has been *experimentally* evidenced in a number of situations: earthquakes, financial crashes, etc.

Evidence — Power laws attached to usual scale invariance are decorated with *log-periodic oscillations*.

Example — The simplest example is given by the *middle-third Cantor set*, which is *deterministically* $(0, 1/3)$ -DSI.

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Cyclostationarity, DSI and Lamperti

Theorem 2 If $\{Y(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is T_0 -cyclostationary, then its Lamperti transform $\{(\mathcal{L}_H Y)(t), t > 0\}$ is (H, e^{T_0}) -DSI. Conversely, if $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ is (H, e^{T_0}) -DSI, its inverse Lamperti transform $\{(\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} X)(t), t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is T_0 -cyclostationary.

Synthesis and analysis of DSI processes can therefore be achieved:

- either by “lampertizing” cyclostationary tools (PC world \rightarrow DSI world),
- or by “delampertizing” self-similar tools (DSI world \rightarrow PC world).

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DSI and multiplicative harmonizability

Covariance — If a process $\{X(t), t > 0\}$ is (H, λ) -DSI, its covariance function $\mathbf{R}_X(t, s)$ can be expanded on a Mellin basis:

$$\mathbf{R}_X(t, kt) = k^H \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n(k) t^{2H+i2\pi n/\log \lambda}$$

Spectral distribution function — Spectral increments of (H, λ) -DSI processes are such that $\mathbb{E}d\xi(f)d\bar{\xi}(\nu) = \Phi_X(f, \nu) df d\nu$, with

$$\Phi_X(f, \nu) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (\mathcal{M}C_n)(f) \delta(f - \nu - n/\log \lambda).$$

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Example 1. Weierstrass

Given i.i.d. phases $\varphi_n \in \mathcal{U}(0, 2\pi)$, the Weierstrass-like functions

$$W_{H,\lambda}(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda^{-Hn} g(\lambda^n t) e^{i\varphi_n},$$

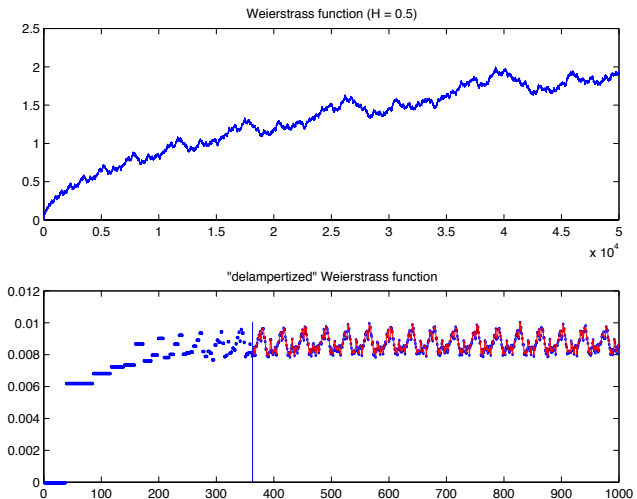
define (H, λ) -DSI processes whose (inverse) Lamperti image is log λ -cyclostationary, according to:

$$(\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} W_{H,\lambda})(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} g)(t + n \log \lambda) e^{i\varphi_n}.$$

Weierstrass-Mandelbrot — In the specific case $g(t) = 1 - \exp it$, the process $W_{H,\lambda}(t)$ has furthermore stationary increments, and

$$(\mathcal{L}_H^{-1} g)(t) = e^{-Ht} (1 - \exp ie^t).$$

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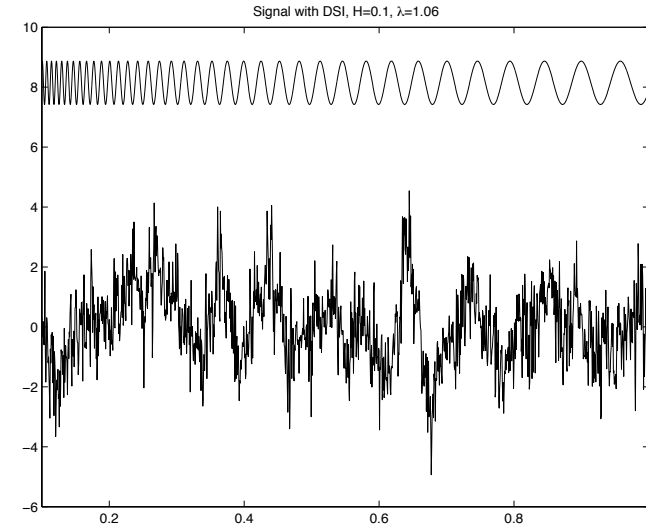
Example 2. DSI sequences

From EC to DSI — Continuous-time: DSI can be obtained by introducing log-periodic time-varying coefficients in an EC model.

Discrete-time: discretize EC by integration of its evolution + log-periodic coefficients.

Another model — Fractional difference operator + AR with log-periodic time-varying coefficients.

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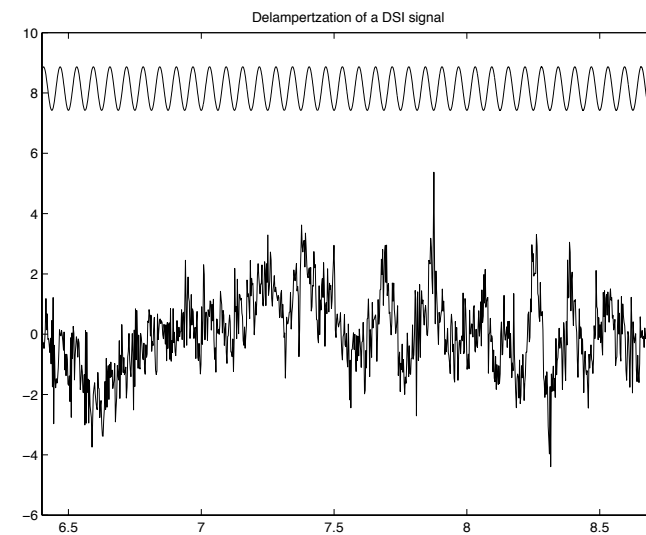
Analysis 1. From DSI to PC

Theory — “Delampertizing” a DSI process turns it into a PC process amenable to classical cyclostationary tools, such as *cyclic spectrum analysis*.

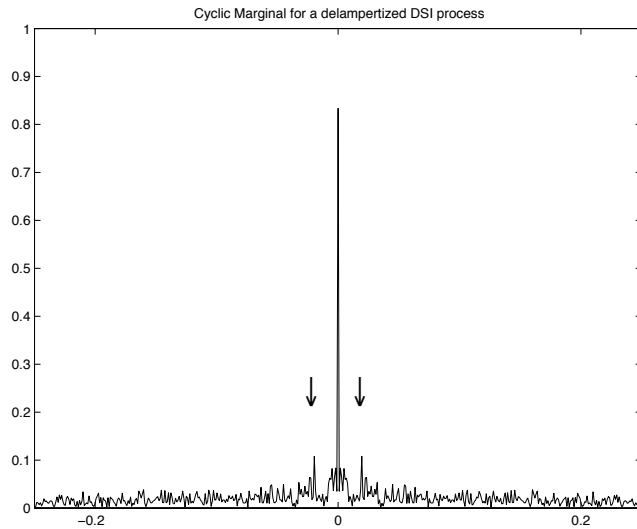
Practice — Effective analysis decomposes as:

1. *geometrical sampling* of the data (given or interpolated)
2. *inverse Lamperti transform* (with H guessed or estimated)
3. *cyclic periodogram* (function of f and cyclic frequency ν)
4. *marginalization* in cyclic frequency ν

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Analysis 2. From PC to DSI

A reversed perspective — Another way of analyzing DSI processes would be to operate *in the data space* directly, by using “lampertized” cyclostationary tools.

Mellin strikes back — In this respect, a central tool is the (Mellin-based) *scale-invariant Wigner spectrum* (F., 1990) :

$$\underline{\mathbf{W}}_X(t, \sigma) := \int_0^{+\infty} \mathbf{R}_X(t\tau^{+1/2}, t\tau^{-1/2}) \tau^{-i2\pi\sigma-1} d\tau,$$

from which $\Phi_X(f, \nu)$ can be recovered and marginalized.

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Conclusion

- **Lamperti**, from stationarity to self-similarity, and back
- A framework for stochastic DSI
- *Applications?* (DLA)

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