Introduction to Heavy-Tailed Distributions, Self-Similar Processes, and Long-Range Dependence

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These slides are available on-line at:

http://www.cse.wustl.edu/~jain/cse567-17/

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1. Heavy-Tailed Distributions (HTDs) 2. How to Check for Heavy Tail? Self-Similar Processes

4. Long Range Dependence (LRD)

5. Generating LRD Sequences

Self-Similarity vs. LRD

7. Hurst Exponent Estimation

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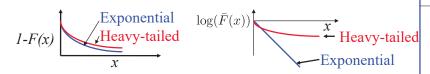
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Systems Performance Analysis," 2nd Edition (in preparation).

□ Note: These slides are based on R. Jain, "The Art of Computer

Overview

Heavy-Tailed Distributions (HTDs)



□ CCDF decays slower than the exponential distribution

$$P(X > x) = 1 - F(x) = \bar{F}(x) = e^{-\lambda x}$$

□ CCDF = Complementary cumulative distribution function

$$\bar{F}(x) = 1 - F(x)$$

- \square As x tends to infinity, $e^{-\lambda x}$ goes to zero, the CCDF of a heavytailed distribution also goes to zero but very slowly and the ratio of the two is very large:

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Examples of HTD Variables

- Many real-world phenomenon have been found to follow heavy tailed distributions.
 - > Distribution of wealth. One percent of the population owns 40% of wealth.
 - > File sizes in computer systems
 - > Connection durations
 - > CPU times of jobs
 - > Web pages sizes
- □ Significant impact on buffer sizing in switches and routers.

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Example 38.1

Weibull distribution

$$F(x) = 1 - e^{-(x/a)^b}$$
 $a > 0, b > 0$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1 - F(X)}{e^{-\lambda x}} = \frac{e^{-(x/a)^b}}{e^{-\lambda x}} = e^{(-(x/a)^b + \lambda x)} = \infty \text{ for a>0, } 0 < b < 1$$

- \Box Therefore, for 0 < b < 1, Weibull distribution has a heavy tail.
- □ Other examples of heavy tailed distributions are Cauchy, lognormal, and t-distributions.

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Example 38.2

■ Pareto distribution:

$$F(x) = 1 - x^{-\alpha} \qquad 1 \le x \le \infty, \alpha > 0$$

$$\bar{F}(x) = 1 - F(X) = \frac{1}{x^{\alpha}} \qquad \operatorname{ccopr}_{F(x)} \qquad 0.8$$

 $pdf: f(x) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x) = \alpha x^{-\alpha - 1}$

□ It's *l*th moment is:

For $l \neq \alpha$: $E[x^l] = \int_1^\infty x^l f(x) dx = \int_1^\infty \alpha x^{l-\alpha-1} dx = \frac{\alpha}{l-\alpha} x^{l-\alpha} \Big|_1^\infty = \begin{cases} \infty & l > \alpha \\ \frac{\alpha}{\alpha-l} & l < \alpha \end{cases}$ For $l = \alpha$: $E[x^l] = \int_1^\infty \alpha x^{-1} dx = \alpha \ln x \Big|_1^\infty = \infty$

- \square All moments for $l > \alpha$ are infinite.
- \square For $2 > \alpha > 1$ variance and higher moments are infinite. For $1>\alpha$ variance does not exist.
- \square For $1 \ge \alpha > 0$, even mean is infinite.

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Power Law Distributions

■ A subset of heavy tailed distributions

$$\bar{F}(x) \Rightarrow \frac{c}{x^{\alpha}}$$

- \Box CCDF approaches a power function for large x
 - > For such distributions: all moments $E[x^l]$ for all values of $l > \alpha$ are infinite.
 - > If α < 2, x has infinite variance
 - > If α < 1, the variable has infinite mean
 - $> \alpha$ is called the **tail index**.
- □ All power law distributions are heavy tailed but all heavy tailed distributions are not power law.

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Effect of Heavy Tail

- A random variable with HTD can have very large values with finite probabilities resulting in many outliers.
- Sampling from such distributions results in mostly small values with a few very large valued samples.
- Sample statistics (e.g., sample mean) may have a large variance ⇒ sample sizes required for a meaningful confidence are large.
- Sample mean generally under-estimates the population mean.
- Simulations with heavy-tailed input require very long time to reach steady state and even then the variance can be large.

$$|\bar{x}_n - \mu| \approx cn^{\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1}$$

c is some constant.

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Effect of Heavy Tail (Cont)

☐ The number of observations required to reach k-digit accuracy:

$$\frac{|\bar{x}_n - \mu|}{\mu} \le 10^{-k} \qquad \frac{cn^{\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1}}{\mu} \le 10^{-k} \qquad n \ge 10^{\frac{\log(c/\mu) + k}{1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}}}$$

- □ Assuming c=1, μ =1, 10^{101} observations are required for a single decimal digit accuracy (k=I) if α =1.01.
- □ Central limit theorem applies <u>only</u> to observations from distributions with finite variances.
 - > For heavy-tailed distributions with infinite variance, the central limit theorem does <u>not</u> apply.
 - > The sample mean does not have a normal distribution even after a large number of samples.
 - > Confidence interval formulas mentioned earlier can not be used.

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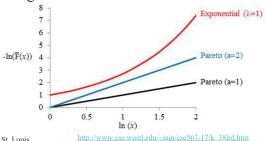
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How to Check for Heavy Tail?

- ☐ Make a Q-Q like plot on a log-log graph assuming a Pareto distribution
- $F(x) = 1-x^{-\alpha}$ $x=(1-F)^{-1/\alpha}$
- □ On a log-log graph: $ln(1-F) = \alpha ln x$
- □ Find α from the slope of the best-fit line. Good fit \Rightarrow High $R^2 \Rightarrow$ Power Law



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Effect of Heavy Tail (Cont)

□ M/PT/1 queue: Poisson arrivals and power-tailed service time > pdf of queue length $f(n) \to c(\rho)/n^{\alpha}$

where $c(\rho)$ is a function of the traffic intensity ρ .

- > If $\alpha \le 1$, the mean service time is infinite and so are the traffic intensity and the mean queue length.
- > If $\alpha \le 2$, the service time has infinite variance, and so does the queue length.

□ PT/M/1 queue:

- ▶ Tail index $\alpha \le 1$, the mean inter-arrival time is infinite.
- > For $1 < \alpha \le 2$, the variance of the inter-arrival time is infinite.
- ☐ Heavy tailedness also implies **predictability**:
 - > If a heavy tailed task has run a long time, it is expected to run for an additional long time.

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} E[X - x | X > x] = \infty$$

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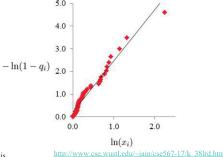
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Example 38.3

□ Check if this set of 50 observations has a heavy tail: 2.426, 1.953, 1.418, 1.080, 3.735, 2.307, 1.876, 1.110, 3.131, 1.134, 1.171, 1.141, 2.181, 1.007, 1.076, 1.131, 1.156, 2.264, 2.535, 1.001, 1.099, 1.149, 1.225, 1.099, 1.279, 1.052, 1.051, 9.421, 1.346, 1.532, 1.000, 1.106, 1.126, 1.293, 1.130, 1.043, 1.254, 1.118, 1.027, 1.383, 1.288, 1.988, 1.561, 1.106, 1.256, 1.187, 1.084, 1.968, 1.045, 1.155



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Example 38.3 (Cont)

X_i	Rank	Quantile	$ln(x_i)$	$-\ln(1-q_i)$	$-\ln(1-q_i)$	
	R_i	$q_i = \frac{R_i - 0.5}{n}$			$\times \ln(x_i)$	
2.426	46	0.910	0.886	2.408	2.134	
1.953	40	0.790	0.669	1.561	1.044	
1.418	36	0.710	0.349	1.238	0.432	
1.080	10	0.190	0.077	0.211	0.016	
3.735	49	0.970	1.318	3.507	4.620	
2.307	45	0.890	0.836	2.207	1.845	
1.876	39	0.770	0.629	1.470	0.925	
1.110	16	0.310	0.105	0.371	0.039	
1.084	11	0.210	0.081	0.236	0.019	
1.968	41	0.810	0.677	1.661	1.124	
1.045	6	0.110	0.044	0.117	0.005	
1.155	24	0.470	0.144	0.635	0.092	
		Sum	17.308	49.654	37.006	
	Sum of Squares			95.774	164.977	
		Average	0.346	0.993	0.740	
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Exercise 38.6

□ Check if the following set of 50 observations has a power tail: 2.24, 1.67, 1.86, 1.12, 1.31, 1.63, 1.83, 7.87, 34.75, 4.24, 1.60, 2.51, 1.67, 8.04, 1.81, 5.47, 2.85, 2.05, 4.51, 1.85, 6.15, 1.86, 3.47, 2.84, 11.71, 3.02, 12.88, 1.36, 2.10, 18.85, 1.17, 31.43, 5.70, 1.76, 1.04, 1.29, 1.24, 2.50, 1725.34, 28.14, 1.43, 4.06, 1.56, 3.77, 1.00, 3.03, 118.59, 5.40, 1.01, 1.38

Example 38.3 (Cont)

$$b_1 = \frac{\sum xy - n\overline{xy}}{\sum x^2 - n\overline{x}^2}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{37.006 - 50(0.346)(0.993)}{14.781 - 50(0.346)^2} = \frac{37.006 - 17.188}{14.781 - 5.991} = \frac{19.818}{8.790} = 2.255$$

 $\alpha = 1/2.255 = 0.44$

- □ SSY=95.774, SS0=49.311, SST=46.463, SSE=1.783, SSR=44.680, R^2 =0.962 \Rightarrow Good Fit \Rightarrow Power law
- □ The tail index α is low \Rightarrow Heavy tail

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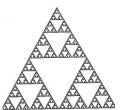
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Self-Similarity







- □ When zoomed, the sub objects have the same shape as the original object
- Also called Fractals
- □ Latin "fractus" = "fractional" or "broken" ⇒Traditional Euclidean geometry can not be used to analyze these objects because their perimeter is infinite.

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Self-Similar Processes

□ Scaling in time = scaling in magnitude

$$x_{at} \sim a^H x_t \qquad \forall a > 0$$

□ Statistical similarity ⇒ Similar distributions with similar mean and variance $E[x_{at}] = a^H E[x_t]$

$$Var[x_{at}] = a^{2H} Var[x_t]$$

- ➤ Similar variance ⇒ Self-similar in the second order
- ➤ Similar higher order moments ⇒ Self-similarity of higher orders
- ➤ All moments similar ⇒ strictly self-similar.

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Example 38.4

Here z is the unit normal variate.

- \Box Consider the process x_t : $x_t = t^H e_t = t^H z$
- For this process:

$$x_{at} = (at)^H z = a^H t^H z = a^H x_t$$

- \rightarrow Therefore, x_t is a self-similar process.
- > H = Hurst exponent
- ☐ Harold Edwin Hurst, a hydrologist, who was studying optimum dam sizing for reservoirs along Nile River in Egypt

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Short Range Dependence (SRD)



- Sum of Autocorrelation function is finite.
- Example 38.5: AR(1) with zero mean:

$$x_t = a_1 x_{t-1} + e_t$$

■ For this process, the autocorrelation function decreases exponentially:

$$Cor[x_t, x_{t-k}] = r_k = a_1^{|k|}$$

 $lue{}$ Sum of autocorrelations is finite (provided $|a_1| < 1$):

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r_k = \frac{1}{1 - a_1}$$

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Long Range Dependence (LRD)



- □ Sum of Autocorrelation function is infinite $\sum r_k = \infty$ Alternative Definition:
- □ Limiting tail behavior of the autocorrelation:

$$r(k) \to k^{2H-2}L(k)$$
 $k \to \infty$

Here, L(x) is a *slowly varying function* of x.

L(ax)/L(x) tends to 1 as x approaches infinity.

Constants and logarithms are examples of slowly varying functions.

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Examples of Processes with LRD

- Aggregation of a large number on-off processes with heavytailed on-times or heavy-tailed off times results in long-range dependence.
- ☐ File sizes have a long-tailed distribution ⇒ Internet traffic has a long range dependence.
- □ Connection durations have also been found to have a heavytailed distribution ⇒ traffic has a long range dependence
- UNIX processes have been found to have a heavy-tailed distribution ⇒ resource demands have LRD
- □ Congestion and feedback control mechanisms such as those used in Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) increase the range of dependence in the traffic.

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Self-Similarity vs. LRD

- \square Self-similarity \neq Long-range dependence
- □ Self-similar process can be short-range dependent or longrange dependent
- \square Self-similar processes with $\frac{1}{2} < H < 1$ have long range dependence.
- \square Self-similar processes with $0 < H < \frac{1}{2}$ have short range dependence.
- \square ARIMA(p, d, q) with integer valued d are SRD.
- □ FARIMA(p, d+ δ , q) with 0< δ <½ have long-range dependence.

Effect of Long Range Dependence

□ Long-range dependence invalidates all results for queueing theory obtained using Poisson processes, e.g., Buffer sizes required to avoid overflow may be off by thousands times.

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FARIMA Models and LRD

- ☐ Fractional Auto-regressive Integrated Moving Average (FARIMA) processes exhibit LRD for certain values of d.
- Consider FARIMA(0, 0.25, 0): $(1 B)^{0.25}x_t = e_t$

$$\begin{array}{lll} x_t & = & (1-B)^{-0.25}e_t \\ & = & e_t - (-0.25)e_{t-1} + \frac{-0.25(-0.25-1)}{(1)(2)}e_{t-2} + \frac{-0.25(-0.25-1)(-0.25-2)}{(1)(2)(3)}e_{t-3} + \cdots \\ & = & e_t + 0.25e_{t-1} + \frac{0.25(0.25+1)}{(1)(2)}e_{t-2} + \frac{0.25(0.25+1)(0.25+2)}{(1)(2)(3)}e_{t-3} + \cdots \\ & = & e_t + 0.25e_{t-1} + 0.16e_{t-2} + 0.12e_{t-3} + 0.10e_{t-4} + \cdots + 0.04e_{t-10} \end{array}$$

The coefficient of e_{t-k} is $\frac{0.25(0.25+1)\cdots(0.25+k-1)}{(1)(2)\cdots(k)} = \frac{\Gamma(0.25+k)}{\Gamma(0.25)\Gamma(k+1)}$

Here, Γ () is the Gamma function: $\Gamma(p+1) = p\Gamma(p)$

It is a generalization of factorial. For integer p, $\Gamma(p+1) = p!$

For example, $\Gamma(3) = 2$, $\Gamma(2) = 1$, $\Gamma(1) = 1$, $\Gamma(0) = \infty$

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FARIMA Models and LRD

□ Consider FARIMA(0, δ , 0) with -1/2 < δ <1/2 and $\delta \neq 0$.

$$x_t = (1 - B)^{-\delta} e_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k e_{t-k}$$

Where:

$$b_k = \frac{\Gamma(k+\delta)}{\Gamma(\delta)\Gamma(k+1)}$$

Since e_t is Gaussian, x_t is also Gaussian.

 e_t is Gaussian Noise, x_t is fractional Gaussian Noise (fGn)

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Generating LRD Sequences

- Generate the FARIMA(p, d+ δ , q) LRD sequence
- FARIMA(p, d+ δ , q) = ARIMA(p, d, q) with e_t replaced by fractional Gaussian noise generated by FARIMA(0, δ , 0)
- \square ARIMA(p,d,q) is given by

$$\phi(B)(1-B)^d x_t = a_0 + \psi(B)e_t$$

- ☐ It can be generated by one of the following two methods:
- 1. Using previous values of x_t :

$$x_t = a_0 + (1 - \phi(B)(1 - B)^d)x_t + \psi(B)e_t$$

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FARIMA and LRD (Cont)

□ The autocovariance of the FARIMA($0,\delta,0$) sequence is:

$$E[x_t x_{t-k}] = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 \frac{\Gamma(1-2\delta)}{\Gamma^2(1-\delta)} & k = 0\\ \sigma^2 \frac{\Gamma(k+\delta)\Gamma(1-2\delta)}{\Gamma(k-\delta+1)\Gamma(\delta)\Gamma(1-\delta)} & k \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

- $\ \ \, \square \ \ \, \text{Autocorrelation at lag k:} \ \ \, r_k = \frac{\Gamma(k+\delta)\Gamma(1-\delta)}{\Gamma(k-\delta+1)\Gamma(\delta)}$
- $f \Box$ Stirling's approximation: $\Gamma(p+1) pprox \sqrt{2\pi p} \left(rac{p}{e}
 ight)^p$
- □ Recall that for LRD: $r(k) \to k^{2H-2}L(k)$ $k \to \infty$ ⇒ 2H-2=2 δ -1, that is, H= δ +1/2. ⇒ A FARIMA(0, δ ,0) sequence has LRD if 0< δ <1/2.

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Generating LRD Sequences (Cont)

2. Converting the model to a moving average model using a Taylor series expansion:

$$x_{t} = \frac{\psi(B)}{\phi(B)(1-B)^{d}}e_{t} = \left(\sum_{i=0}^{m} c_{i}B^{i}\right)e_{t} = \sum_{i=0}^{m} c_{i}e_{t-i}$$

Here c_i are coefficients of the Taylor series expansion and m is selected large enough so that c_i for i > m are negligible.

- Generate a white noise sequence $e_i \sim N(0, 1)$
- Generate a FARIMA(0, δ , 0) sequence y_i using a moving average of a large number m of e_i :

$$y_i = \sum_{k=0}^{m} \frac{\Gamma(k+\delta)}{\Gamma(k+1)\Gamma(\delta)} e_{i-k}$$

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Generating LRD Sequences (Cont)

□ Generate a FARIMA(p, d+ δ , q) sequence x_i by generating a usual ARIMA(p, d, q) as in Step 1 above with the white noise e_i replaced by y_i

$$x_t = a_0 + \frac{\psi(B)}{\phi(B)(1-B)^d}y(i)$$

 \square m=100 or m=1000 has been found to provide good results.

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Example 38.6 (Cont)

- Use the above equation to get x_1 through x_{50}
- The numbers are: -0.71, -2.22, 0.58, -0.91, -1.88, -1.68, -1.11, -0.99, -0.41, 0.22, -0.28, 0.31, -0.20, -2.01, 0.42, 0.21, -0.05, 0.04, 1.63, 0.25, -0.41, -0.47, 0.08, 1.12, 0.66, 1.62, -0.23, 1.16, 0.29, 1.59, -0.54, 0.50, -0.44, 0.81, -1.44, -0.61, -0.08, 0.05, -0.13, -1.34, -1.23, -1.38, -0.28, 0.82, 1.60, 0.96, 1.72, 1.19, 0.14, -1.31
- □ Note:

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- 1. m = 10 is used for illustration only. Need to use m = 1000
- 2. A sample of 50 observations is too small to study long-range dependence.

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Example 38.6

☐ Generate a FARIMA(0,0.25,0) Sequence

$$x_{t} = (1-B)^{-0.25}e_{t}$$

$$= e_{t} + 0.25e_{t-1} + \frac{0.25(0.25+1)}{2}e_{t-2} + \frac{0.25(0.25+1)(0.25+2)}{6}e_{t-3} + \cdots$$

$$= e_{t} + 0.25e_{t-1} + 0.16e_{t-2} + 0.12e_{t-3} + 0.10e_{t-4} + \cdots + 0.05e_{t-10}$$

- □ Generate $\underline{60}$ N(0,1) random numbers for $e_{\underline{9}}$ thru $e_{\underline{50}}$
- □ The numbers are: 0.376, 0.789, -0.629, 0.102, 0.240, -0.909, 0.706, 0.019, -0.646, -2.030, -0.140, -1.816, 1.373, -0.723, -1.486, -0.984, -0.392, -0.323, 0.214, 0.652, -0.148, 0.499, -0.226, -1.878, 0.975, 0.273, -0.080, 0.040, 1.607, -0.154, -0.601, -0.468, 0.199, 1.129, 0.299, 1.332, -0.760, 0.980, -0.134, 1.378, -1.059, 0.364, -0.715, 0.769, -1.671, -0.346, 0.195, 0.157, -0.038, -1.253, -0.773, -0.910, 0.304, 1.146, 1.630, 0.578, 1.349, 0.615, -0.396, -1.599

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Exercise 38.9

□ Generate a sample of 50 observations for a long-range dependent process with a Hurst exponent of 0.65. Use the following sequence of unit normal variates: 0.24, -0.91, 0.71, 0.02, -0.65, -2.03, -0.14, -1.82, 1.37, -0.72, -1.49, -0.98, -0.39, -0.32, 0.21, 0.65, -0.15, 0.50, -0.23, -1.88, 0.98, 0.27, -0.08, 0.04, 1.61, -0.15, -0.60, -0.47, 0.20, 1.13, 0.30, 1.33, -0.76, 0.98, -0.13, 1.38, -1.06, 0.36, -0.71, 0.77, -1.67, -0.35, 0.20, 0.16, -0.04, -1.25, -0.77, -0.91, 0.30, 1.15, 1.63, 0.58, 1.35, 0.61, -0.40, -1.60, 0.02, 0.55, -1.45, -1.11

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Hurst Exponent Estimation

Variance-time plot (Similar to the method of batch means)

- 1. Start with m=1
- 2. Divide the sample of size n in to non-overlapping subsequences of length m. There will be $j = \lfloor n/m \rfloor$ such subsequences.
- 3. Take the sample mean of each subset

$$\bar{x}_{km} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=(k-1)m+1}^{i=km} x_i \qquad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, j$$

4. Compute the overall mean:

$$\bar{\bar{x}}_m = \frac{1}{j} \sum_{k=1}^{k=j} \bar{x}_{km}$$

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Example 38.7

- □ Determine the Hurst exponent for the data of Example 38.6
- □ Batch size m=1: 50 batches, batch mean $\bar{x}_i = x_i$ Overall mean $\bar{x}_i = \frac{1}{50} \sum_{i=1}^{50} x_i = -0.09$

Variance of batch means $Var[\overline{x}_1] = \frac{1}{49} \sum_{i=1}^{50} (x_i - \overline{\overline{x}}_1)^2 = 1.03$

□ Batch size m=2: 25 batches, batch mean $\bar{x}_{2i} = \frac{1}{2}(x_{2i-1} + x_{2i})$

Overall mean
$$\overline{\overline{x}}_2 = \frac{1}{25} \sum_{i=1}^{25} \overline{x}_{2i} = -0.09$$

Variance of batch means $var[\bar{x}_2] = \frac{1}{24} \sum_{i=1}^{25} (\bar{x}_{2i} - \bar{x}_2)^2 = 0.79$

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Hurst Parameter Estimation (Cont)

5. Compute the variance of the sample means

$$s_m^2 = \frac{1}{j-1} \sum_{k=1}^{k=j} (\bar{x}_{k,m} - \bar{\bar{x}}_m)^2$$

- 6. Repeat steps 2 through 5 for m=1, 2, 3, ...
- 7. Plot variance s_m^2 as a function of the subsequence size m on a log-log graph
- 8. Fit a simple linear regression to log(var) vs. log(m).
- 9. The slope of the regression line is 2H-2.
- 10. That is, the Hurst exponent is $1+a_1/2$, where a_1 is the slope of the regression line.

Note: 1. H estimate using this variance time plot method is biased

2. If a process is non-stationary, it may not be self-similar or have LRD, but may result in Hurst exponent between 0.5 and 1

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Example 38.7 (cont)

m	1.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	5.00	6.00	7.00	8.00	9.00	10.00
Mean	-0.09	-0.09	-0.07	-0.07	-0.09	-0.07	-0.06	-0.07	-0.16	-0.09
Var	1.03	0.79	0.65	0.57	0.36	0.55	0.52	0.42	0.32	0.31
log m	0.00	0.69	1.10	1.39	1.61	1.79	1.95	2.08	2.20	2.30
log										
var	0.03	-0.24	-0.43	-0.55	-1.02	-0.59	-0.65	-0.88	-1.15	-1.17

□ Last few observations are not used for some batch sizes For example, m=9, only first 45 observations are used The overall mean is therefore different

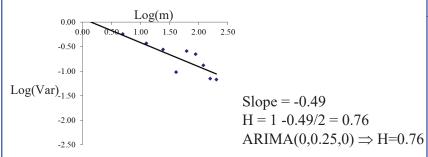
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Example 38.7 (cont)



- ☐ Hurst exponent using variance time plot is biased
- □ If x_t is non-stationary, it may not be self-similar or may not have LRD, but it may still result in 0.5<H<1

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Exercise 38.9

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Exercise 38.10

■ Estimate the Hurst exponent for the observations generated in

Summary



- 1. Heavy tailed distributions: CCDF tail higher than exponential distribution
- 2. Self-Similar Process: $x_{at} \sim a^H x_t$
- 3. Long Range Dependence: $\sum r_k = \infty$
- 4. ARIMA(p,d+ δ ,q) with 0< δ <0.5 can be used to generate LRD sequences
- 5. Hurst parameter can be estimated with variance-time plots. For LRD 0.5<H<1.

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https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLjGG94etKypJEKjNAa1n_1X0bWWNyZcof

CSE473S: Introduction to Computer Networks (Fall 2011)

 $\underline{https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLjGG94etKypJWOSPMh8Azcgy5e_10TiDw}$





Wireless and Mobile Networking (Spring 2016),

https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLjGG94etKypKeb0nzyN9tSs_HCd5c4wXF

CSE571S: Network Security (Fall 2011),

 $\underline{https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLjGG94etKypKvzfVtutHcPFJXumyyg93u}$





Video Podcasts of Prof. Raj Jain's Lectures,

https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCN4-5wzNP9-ruOzQMs-8NUw

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