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# Numerical Computation of the Large Deviation Multifractal Spectrum

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## Abstract

We propose a kernel method for the estimation of the large deviation multifractal spectrum, and report on some preliminary

#### 1 Introduction

Since its introduction ([14, 15, 7]), multifractal analysis (MA) has proved a valuable tool in many area of physics ([16, 17, 5, 8, 3]), signal processing ([12, 10]) and other fields. A considerable amount of mathematical work has been devoted to it ([6, 2, 9, 1, 18, 19, 13]). MA has been applied to turbulence analysis, DLA patterns investigation, random electrical networks analysis, image processing, road traffic modelling and many other topics.

The main feature of MA is the multifractal spectrum, a function which quantifies the "number" of points having the same "singularity". Thus, for instance, in a turbulent fluid flow, the multifractal spectrum describes the range of exponents characterizing energy

dissipation.

One of the major drawback of MA is that the multifractal spectrum is extremely difficult to estimate on real, discrete data. For this reason, several other definitions of multifractal spectra have been proposed in the litterature for which it is easier to design estimation procedures. It should be noted however that all these

estimation procedures. It should be noted however that all these definitions are not equivalent. After some recalls, we focus in this paper on the so-called "large deviation spectrum", denoted  $f_g$ , which offers a good compromise between accuracy and difficulty of computation. We give new results that allow useful insights on the structure of  $f_g$ , and propose a kernel method for its estimation. Preliminary results where such an approach can be fully justified are given. Experimental results are presented in the last section.

## 2 Multifractal spectra

For simplicity, we restrict ourselves here to the one dimensional case. Let  $\mu$  be a measure defined on [0,1[, and  $\mathcal P$  be a sequence of partitions  $\mathcal{P}_n$  of [0,1[, each  $\mathcal{P}_n$  being made of dyadic intervals, i.e.:

$$\mathcal{P}_n = \left\{ I_n^k \right\}_{0 \le k \le 2^n}, I_n^k = [k2^{-n}, (k+1)2^{-n}]$$

(The general case of non uniform partitions will not be considered here, see for instance [13].)

For  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , let:  $f_h(\alpha) \stackrel{!}{=} \dim_H \{x \in [0, 1]/\alpha(x) = \alpha\}$  where  $\dim_H$  denotes the Hausdorff dimension, and:

$$\alpha(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{-\log \mu(I_n(x))}{n}$$

provided that the limit exists  $(I_n(x))$  denotes the interval  $I_n^k$  containing x). Let:

$$\alpha_n^k = \frac{-\log \mu(I_n^k)}{n}$$
  $f_g(\alpha) = \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \overline{\lim_{n \to \infty}} \frac{\log N_n^{\varepsilon}(\alpha)}{n}$  (1)

where  $N_n^{\varepsilon}(\alpha) = \#\{\alpha_n^k/\alpha_n^k - \varepsilon \le \alpha < \alpha_n^k + \varepsilon\}$ . Finally, let:

$$\tau(q) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{-\log \sum_{k} \mu(I_n^k)^q}{n}$$

when the limit exists, and  $f_l(\alpha) = \inf_q(q\alpha - \tau(q))$   $f_h$  is called the Hausdorff multifractal spectrum of  $\mu$ , and is usually the quantity of interest. It gives a "geometrical" description of the singularity structure.  $f_g$  is called the large deviation spectrum, it quantifies the "probabilistic" repartition of the singularities. Finally,  $f_l$  is called the Legendre spectrum. It was essentially introduced because it is much easier to compute than  $f_g$  and  $f_h$ . Indeed, it involves only averaged quantities, and only one limit is Indeed, it involves only averaged quantities, and only one limit is

needed for its computation. However, its use implies a severe loss needed for its computation. However, its use implies a severe loss of informations since  $f_l$  is always a concave function. Although in some cases it can be proved that  $f_h = f_g = f_l$ , in general we only have  $f_h \leq f_g \leq f_l$  and  $f_g^{**} = f_l$ , where  $f_g^{**}$  is the concave hull of  $f_g$  ([2, 1, 13]). Since  $f_g$  is in general "closer" to  $f_h$  than is  $f_l$ , it seems worth to try to find reliable estimation procedures for it. Let us take two simple examples to show why  $f_g$  is a "better" spectrum than  $f_l$ 

- Assume that we are observing a multiplicative process whose parameters may assume a finite number of distinct values in time. For instance, it could be a binomial measure 1 with weights (m, 1-m) for  $x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}[$ , and another binomial measure with weights (p, 1-p) on  $[\frac{1}{2}, 1[$  In this case, the theoretical  $f_h$  and  $f_g$  spectra coincide and are not concave (see figure 2). However,  $f_l$ , which is the concave hull of  $f_g$ , will overestimate the true dimensions. In addition,  $f_l$  will not allow to detect the non stationnarity of the process.
- Assume now that the observed process is the sum of a finite number of multiplicative process, say two binomial measures. Here again,  $f_h = f_g$  will not be concave (see figure 1). Computing  $f_l$  will result in an overestimation of some singularities dimensions and will not allow to detect the compound nature

These considerations motivate the search for reliable  $f_q$  spectra estimation procedures.

### 3 Multifractal spectrum estimations

We restrict ourselves here to  $f_g$  spectrum estimation. For  $f_h$  spectrum estimation, see [11], and for  $f_l$  spectrum [5].  $f_g$  spectrum estimation has been considered by a number of authors ([5]). Roughly speaking, all methods involve the following steps:

- 1. for each n, compute all  $\alpha_n^k$ ;
- 2. compute  $\alpha_n^{\min} = \min_k \alpha_n^k, \alpha_n^{\max} = \max_k \alpha_n^k$ , and divide  $[\alpha_n^{\min}, \alpha_n^{\max}]$  into N boxes
- 3. compute the number  $N_n^i$  of intervals  $I_n^k$  whose  $\alpha_n^k$  falls in the i-th box,  $i=1,\dots N;$
- 4. find  $f(\alpha)$  by a linear regression on  $(\log n, \log N_n^i)$ .

Although, this "histogram method" may yield satisfactory results on strictly multiplicative cascades, it fails to estimate a good approximation in more complex situations, in particular when  $f_g$  is not a concave function. For instance, in the two situations presented above (non stationnary or compound process), the histogram method will tend to hide the non concavity of  $f_g$ . There are two types of problems with this method:

- The choice of the number of "boxes" on the  $\alpha$  axis: this choice is ad-hoc, although it influences a lot the result. In particular, it does not take into account the  $\varepsilon$  limit in (1).
- The choice of the averaging number: when dealing with, say, a triomial measure, averaging two adjacent boxes at each step produces strong oscillations with induce errors in the regression estimation step, and thus both in the exponent and dimension computations.

As said above, this method in fact introduces an implicit dependence between n and  $\varepsilon$  through step 2. Although it is desirable, in numerical methods, to pass from two limits on n and on  $\varepsilon$  to just one limit, it is clear that the dependency between n and  $\varepsilon$  should

be carefully designed.

We propose here to estimate  $f_g$  with a classical tool in density estimation: the kernel method, or more precisely the double kernel method ([4]). Such a method has been used extensively with good success in density estimations, and rather precise theorems are known that assess the quality of the results. The difficulty here is that  $f_g$  is not the density corresponding to the  $\alpha$ 's, but rather a double logarithmic normalization of this density.

Our estimation procedure has the following advantages:

The choice of the number of boxes is no longer ad-hoc but driven by the data. The dependence on  $\varepsilon$  is made explicit. One should realize that the limit on  $\varepsilon$  plays a crucial role: if  $\varepsilon$  is chosen equal to 0, we would for instance find  $f(\alpha) = 0$ almost everywhere for a binomial measure.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>A binomial measure (m, 1-m) puts mass  $m^{n\rho}(1-m)^{n(1-\rho)}$  on interval  $I_n^k$ , where  $\rho$  is the proportion of 0 in the first n digits of any x

- No averaging needs to be done, since the spectrum is evaluated at only one resolution. Of course, in the general case, one needs to verify that the spectra estimated at each resolution are consistent. Such a verification should be performed carefully. However, in the cases considered here, this problem does not arise. We note here that other authors have considered one resolution estimation methods ([8]).
- The use of smooth kernels allows to obtain more regular esti-

The starting point of the method is to realize that  $N_n^{\varepsilon}(\alpha)$  may be re-written as the following convolution:  $N_n^{\varepsilon}(\alpha) = 2^{n+1} \varepsilon K_{\varepsilon} * \rho_n(\alpha)$ where  $\rho_n$  is the density of the  $(\alpha_n^k)_k$ , and  $K_{\varepsilon}$  is the rectangular kernel: K(x) = 1 for  $x \in \left[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ , 0 outside, and  $K_{\varepsilon}(x) = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}K\left(f\frac{x}{\varepsilon}\right)$ .

It is easily shown that K may be in fact chosen to be any compactly supported kernel. A classical problem in density estimation is the choice of an  $\varepsilon$  such that  $K_{\varepsilon} * \rho_n$  is as close as possible to the limiting density  $\rho$ . In this setting,  $\varepsilon$  becomes a function of n. Adapting classical techniques allows us to reduce the two limits in  $f_g$  to one limit, with an optimal choice of  $\varepsilon$ . However, the first thing to check is under which conditions it is indeed possible to get rid of the limit on  $\varepsilon$ . We have the following results.

**Theorem 1** Let  $f_g^{\epsilon}(\alpha) = \overline{\lim}_{n \to \infty} \frac{\log N_n^{\epsilon}(\alpha)}{n}$ . The following statements are equivalent:

- $f_g^{\epsilon}(\alpha) = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{B}(\alpha, \epsilon)} f_g(x)$ .
- $f_q^{\epsilon}$  is a left continuous function of  $\epsilon$  for positive  $\epsilon$ .

**Proposition 1** Let  $\mu$  be a binomial measure with weights  $(m_0, m_1)$ , and  $a = \lfloor \log_2 \frac{m_1}{m_0} \rfloor$ . Then,  $\forall \alpha$ , there exists a subsequence s(n) such that  $\lim_n f_{s(n)}^{\varepsilon_{s(n)}}(\alpha) = f(\alpha)$  as soon as  $\varepsilon_n \ge \frac{a}{n^2}, \varepsilon_n \to 0$ . Moreover,  $\lim_n \sup_{\alpha} |f_n^{\varepsilon_n} - f(\alpha)| = 0$  as soon as  $\varepsilon_n \ge \frac{a}{2n}, \varepsilon_n \to 0$ .

If we replace the rectangular kernel by a Gaussian kernel, we obtain

**Proposition 2** For a binomial measure, the optimal  $\varepsilon_n$  (in the sense of uniform convergence) for a Gaussian kernel is such that there exists c > 0 with  $\lim_{n} (\varepsilon_n / c \sqrt{n}) = 1$ .

The double kernel method consists in choosing  $\varepsilon_n$  such that the estimates  $f_n^{\varepsilon_n}$  and  $g_n^{\varepsilon_n}$  with two different kernels are as close as possible. Let  $f_n^{\varepsilon_n}$  correspond to the rectangular kernel and  $g_n^{\varepsilon_n}$  correspond to the triangular kernel  $(T(x) = 1 - x \text{ for } x \in [0, 1], T(x) = 0$ for x > 1, T(-x) = T(x)). The following propositions are valid for finite sums or lumpings of multinomial measures:

**Proposition 3** Let  $\varepsilon_n$  be a sequence that  $\sup_{\alpha}(f_n^{\varepsilon_n}(\alpha) - g_n^{\varepsilon_n}(\alpha))$ . Then  $f_n^{\varepsilon_n} \to f(\alpha)$  for all  $\alpha$ . minimizes

**Proposition 4** Let  $\varepsilon_n$  be such that there exists c>0 with  $\lim_n \frac{\varepsilon_n}{cn} = 1$ . Then  $\lim_n \sup_{\alpha} (f_n^{\varepsilon_n}(\alpha) - f(\alpha)) = 0$ .

It should be noted that the double kernel method does not in general give the optimal sequence  $\varepsilon_n$ .

#### Results 4

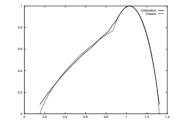
The theoretical  $f_g$  along with its kernel estimate for a sum (resp. a lumping) of two binomial measures is shown in figure 1 (resp. figure 2). A slightly more complex example is shown on figure 3: it is the estimated  $f_g$  spectrum of a trinomial measure T with overlapping: the first map sends [0,1] to  $\left[0,\frac{1}{2}\right]$  and has weight  $m,0 < m < \frac{1}{2}$ , the second map sends [0,1] to  $\left[\frac{1}{4},\frac{3}{4}\right]$  and has weight  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and the third map sends [0,1] to  $\left[\frac{1}{2},1\right]$  and has weight  $\frac{1}{2}-m$ . The theoretical  $f_g$  spectrum is not known in this case. However, it is readily proven, using for instance Fourier transformation, that T is the convolution of the Lebesgue measure with a binomial measure with weights (m, 1-m). In particular, all points have Hölder exponent greater than one, a fact that can be verified on figure 3. The last example deals with real data from a turbulent flow provided by G. Antar for École Polytechnique in France. The fact that the estimated  $f_g$  is concave is consistent with the hypothesis that turbulence may, in this case, be modeled as *one* multiplicative process.

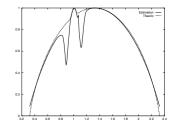
### Conclusion 5

This work has shown that it is possible to obtain reliable estimation procedures for the  $f_g$  spectrum in the case of non pure multiplicative processes. A lot remains to be done in order to fully justify the method in more general situations.

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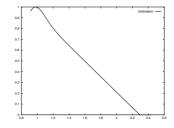
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Theoretical (dashed) and estimated (solid)  $f_g$  spectrum for the sum of two binomial measures.

Theoretical (dashed) and estimated (solid)  $f_g$  spectrum for the lumping of two binomial measures.



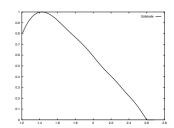


Figure 3: Estimated  $f_g$  spectrum for a trinomial measure with overlapping.

Figure 4: Estimated  $f_g$  spectrum for turbulence fluid

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