

The Maximum of a Fractional Brownian Motion: Analytic Results from Perturbation Theory

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Fractional Brownian motion is a non-Markovian Gaussian process X_t , indexed by the Hurst exponent H . It generalises standard Brownian motion (corresponding to $H = 1/2$). We study the probability distribution of the maximum m of the process and the time t_{\max} at which the maximum is reached. They are encoded in a path integral, which we evaluate perturbatively around a Brownian, setting $H = 1/2 + \varepsilon$. This allows us to derive analytic results beyond the scaling exponents. Extensive numerical simulations for different values of H test these analytical predictions and show excellent agreement, even for large ε .

Random processes are ubiquitous in nature. While averaged quantities have been studied extensively and are well characterized, it is often more important to understand the extremal behavior of these processes [1], associated with failure in fracture or earthquakes, a crash in the stock market, the breakage of dams, etc.

Though many processes can successfully be modeled by Markov chains and are well analyzed by tools of statistical mechanics, there are also interesting and realistic systems which do not evolve with independent increments, and thus are non-Markovian, *i.e.* history dependent. Dropping the Markov property, but demanding that a continuous process be scale-invariant and Gaussian with stationary increments defines an enlarged class of random processes, known as fractional Brownian motion (fBm). Such processes appear in a broad range of contexts: Anomalous diffusion [2], polymer translocation through a pore [3–5], the dynamics of a tagged monomer [6, 7], finance (fractional Black-Scholes and fractional stochastic volatility models [8]), hydrology [9], and many more.

fBm is a generalization of standard Brownian motion to other fractal dimensions, introduced in its final form by Mandelbrot and Van Ness [11]. It is a Gaussian process $(X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$, starting at zero, $X_0 = 0$, with mean $\langle X_t \rangle = 0$ and covariance function (variance)

$$\langle X_t X_s \rangle = s^{2H} + t^{2H} - |t - s|^{2H} . \quad (1)$$

The parameter $H \in (0, 1)$ is the Hurst exponent; the process typically grows with time as t^H . Standard Brownian motion corresponds to $H = 1/2$; there the covariance function reduces to $\langle X_t X_s \rangle = 2 \min(s, t)$. Unless $H = 1/2$, the process is non-Markovian, *i.e.* its increments are not independent: For $H > 1/2$ they are correlated, whereas for $H < 1/2$ they are anti-correlated,

$$\langle \partial_t X_t \partial_s X_s \rangle = 2H(2H - 1) |s - t|^{2(H-1)} . \quad (2)$$

In this letter we study the *maximum* of a fractional Brownian motion $m = \max_{t \in [0, T]} X_t$ and the time t_{\max} when this maximum is reached [24] with the initial condition

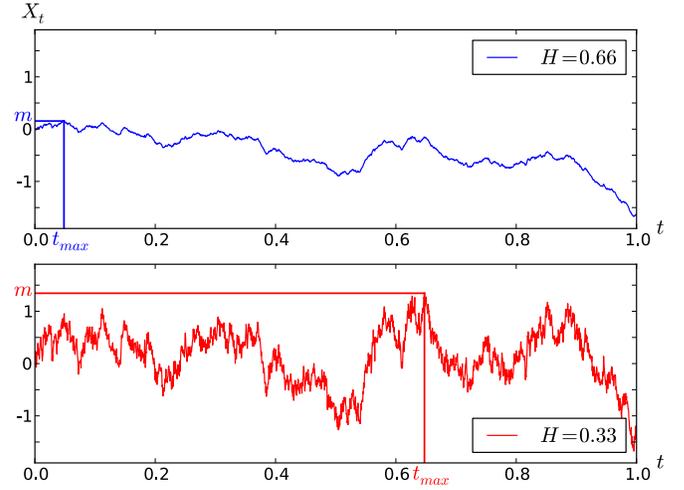


FIG. 1: Two realisations of fBm paths for different values of H , generated using the same random numbers for the Fourier modes in the Davis and Harte procedure [10]. The observables m and t_{\max} are given.

$X_0 = 0$ and total time $T > 0$. Figure 1 shows an illustration for different values of H , using the same random numbers for the Fourier modes. We will denote $P_H^T(m)$ and $P_H^T(t)$ their respective probability distributions. Previous studies can be found in [12, 13].

These observables are closely linked to other quantities of interest, such as the first-return time, the survival probability, the persistence exponent, and the statistics of records. Though studied since long time, most results for non-Markovian processes are quite recent [14–16].

Following the ideas of [17–19], we encode our observables $P_H^T(m)$ and $P_H^T(t)$ in a path-integral,

$$Z^+(m_1, t_1; x_0; m_2, t_2) = \int_{X_0=m_1}^{X_{t_1+t_2}=m_2} \mathcal{D}[X] \theta[X] \delta(X_{t_1} - x_0) e^{-S[X]} . \quad (3)$$

This sums over all paths X_t , weighted by their probability $e^{-S[X]}$, starting at $X_0 = m_1 > 0$ (shifted for convenience), passing through x_0 (close to 0) at time

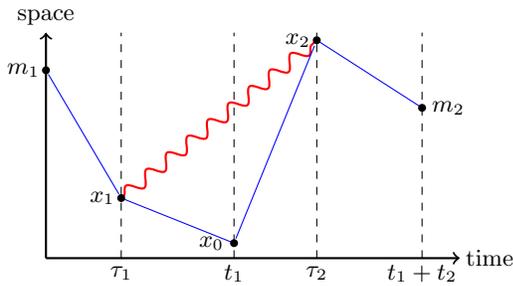


FIG. 2: Graphical representation of a contribution to the path-integral $Z^+(m_1, t_1; x_0; m_2, t_2)$ given in Eq. (3). The red curve represents the non-local interaction in the action (second line of Eq. (4)) while blue lines are bare propagators. There are two other contributions when the time ordering is $\tau_1 < \tau_2 < t_1$ or $t_1 < \tau_1 < \tau_2$, already computed in [19].

t_1 , and ending in $X_{t_1+t_2} = m_2 > 0$, while staying *positive* for all $t \in [0, t_1 + t_2]$. The latter is enforced by the product of Heaviside functions $\theta[X] := \prod_{s=0}^{t_1+t_2} \theta(X_s)$.

As X_t is a Gaussian process, the action S can (at least formally) be constructed from the covariance function of X_t . However this is not enough to evaluate the path integral (3) in all generality. Following the formalism of [19], we use standard Brownian motion as a starting point for a perturbative expansion, setting $H = \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$ with ε a small parameter; then the action at first order in ε is (we refer to the appendix of [19] for the derivation)

$$S[X] = \frac{1}{4D_{\varepsilon,\tau}} \int_0^t \dot{X}_{\tau_1}^2 d\tau_1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \int_0^{t-\tau} d\tau_1 \int_{\tau_1+\tau}^t d\tau_2 \frac{\dot{X}_{\tau_1} \dot{X}_{\tau_2}}{|\tau_2 - \tau_1|} + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (4)$$

The time τ is a regularization cutoff for coinciding times (one can also introduce discrete times spaced by τ [19]). The first line is the action for standard Brownian motion, with a rescaled diffusion constant [25] $D_{\varepsilon,\tau} = 1 + 2\varepsilon(1 + \ln(\tau)) + O(\varepsilon^2) \simeq (\varepsilon\tau)^{2\varepsilon}$. The second line is a correction, non-local in time since fBm is non-Markovian.

Computing the ε expansion of (3) using (4) is rather technical. A graphical representation of the key term is given in Fig. 2. The result for $Z^+(m_1, t_1; x_0; m_2, t_2)$ covers a page, presented in [20]. We use this result here to deduce its most interesting implications, starting with the probability distribution of $t = t_{\max}$. For Brownian motion ($H = 1/2$), this distribution is well known as the Arcsine law [26],

$$P_{\frac{1}{2}}^T(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi t(T-t)}}, \text{ for } t \in [0, T]. \quad (5)$$

Until now, only scaling properties were known for this distribution in the general case [21]. The path integral

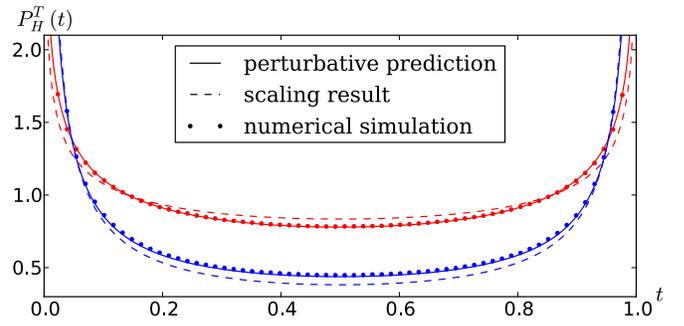


FIG. 3: Distribution of t_{\max} for $T = 1$ and $H = 0.25$ (red) or $H = 0.75$ (blue) given in Eq. (7) (plain lines) compared to the scaling ansatz, *i.e.* $\mathcal{F} = \text{cst}$ (dashed lines) and numerical simulations (dots). For $H < 0.5$ realisations with $t_{\max} \approx T/2$ are less probable (by about 10%) than expected from scaling. For $H > 0.5$ the correction has the opposite sign.

(3) is linked to this distribution via

$$P_H^T(t) = \lim_{x_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{Z} \int_{m_1, m_2 > 0} Z^+(m_1, t; x_0; m_2, T-t). \quad (6)$$

The normalization Z depends on x_0 and T . Our result for the distribution of t_{\max} takes a nice form if we exponentiate the order- ε correction obtained from Eq. (6),

$$P_H^T(t) = \frac{1}{[t(T-t)]^H} \exp\left(\varepsilon \mathcal{F}\left(\frac{t}{T-t}\right)\right) + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (7)$$

This is plotted on Fig. 3. We see the expected change in the scaling form of the Arcsine law, $\sqrt{t(T-t)} \rightarrow [t(T-t)]^H$ and a non-trivial change in the shape given by the function

$$\mathcal{F}(u) = \sqrt{u} [\pi - 2 \arctan(\sqrt{u})] + \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \left[\pi - 2 \arctan\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}\right) \right] + \text{cst}. \quad (8)$$

The time reversal symmetry $t \rightarrow T-t$ (corresponding to $u \rightarrow u^{-1}$) is explicit; the constant ensures normalization.

We tested the prediction (7)-(8) with numerical simulations of a discretized fractional Brownian motion for different values of H . To this aim, we used the Davis and Harte procedure as described in [10] (and references therein). To compare numerical results with the theory, we extract an estimation $\mathcal{F}_{\text{num}}^\varepsilon$ of the function \mathcal{F} as

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{num}}^\varepsilon\left(\frac{t}{T-t}\right) := \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \ln\left(P_{\text{num}}^{T,H}(t) \times [t(T-t)]^H\right). \quad (9)$$

Here $P_{\text{num}}^{T,H}(t)$ is the numerical estimation of the distribution of t_{\max} for the discretized fBm at given H (obtained with uniform binning). Apart from discretization effects, we should see significant statistical errors as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, and systematic order- ε^2 corrections for larger ε . As can be seen on Figs. 3 and 4, our numerical and analytical results are in *remarkable* agreement for all values of H studied, both for ε *positive* and *negative*. As an example, for

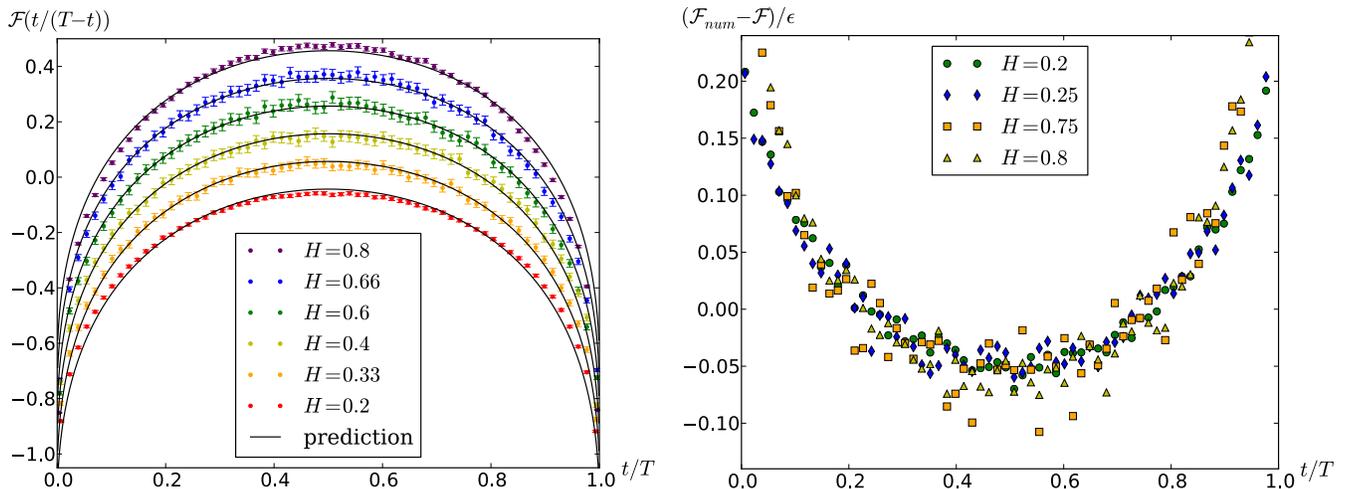


FIG. 4: Left: Numerical estimation of \mathcal{F} for different values of H on a discrete system of size $N = 2^{12}$, using 10^8 realizations. Plain curves represent the theoretical prediction (8), vertically translated for better visualization. Error bars are 2σ estimates. Note that for $H = 0.6$, $H = 0.66$ and $H = 0.8$ the expansion parameter ε is positive, while for $H = 0.4$, $H = 0.33$ and $H = 0.2$ it is negative. Right: Deviation for large $|\varepsilon|$ between the theoretical prediction (8) and the numerical estimations (9), rescaled by ε . These curves collapse for different values of H , allowing for an estimate of the $O(\varepsilon^2)$ correction to $P_H^T(t)$.

$H = 0.75$, the correction to the pure scaling distribution has a relative magnitude of 10% (see Fig. 3), which is measured in our simulation with a relative precision of 0.5%. This precision even allows to numerically extract the subleading $O(\varepsilon^2)$ correction, see Fig. 4 right.

We now present results for the distribution of the maximum $P_H^T(m)$. For Brownian motion

$$P_{\frac{1}{2}}^T(m) = \frac{e^{-\frac{m^2}{4T}}}{\sqrt{\pi T}}, \quad m > 0. \quad (10)$$

On the other hand, not much is known for generic values of H . This distribution is of interest, as it is linked to the survival probability $S(T, x)$, and the persistence exponent θ . The latter is defined for any random process X_t with $X_0 = x$ as

$$S(T, x) = \text{proba}(X_t \geq 0 \text{ for all } t \in [0, T]) \underset{T \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} T^{-\theta_x}. \quad (11)$$

For a large class of processes the exponent θ is independent of x . For fractional Brownian motion with Hurst exponent H it was shown that $\theta_x = \theta = 1 - H$ [13, 22]. To understand the link of $S(T, x)$ with the maximum distribution for fBm, we use self affinity of the process X_t to write $P_H^T(m)$ as

$$P_H^T(m) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}T^H} f_H\left(\frac{m}{\sqrt{2}T^H}\right). \quad (12)$$

Here f is a scaling function depending on H . Eq. (10) can be reformulated as $f_{\frac{1}{2}}(y) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} e^{-y^2/2}$. The survival probability is related to the maximum distribution by

$$S(T, x) = \int_0^x P^T(m) dm = \int_0^{\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}T^H}} f_H(u) du. \quad (13)$$

This states that a realisation of a fBm starting at x and remaining positive is the same as a realisation starting at 0 with a minimum larger than $-x$, due to translation invariance of the fBm. Finally, the symmetry $x \rightarrow -x$ gives the correspondence between minimum and maximum.

These considerations allow us to predict the scaling behavior of $P_H^T(m)$ at small m from the large- T behaviour of $S(T, x)$ [13],

$$P_H^T(m) \underset{m \rightarrow 0}{\sim} m^{\frac{\theta}{H}-1} = m^{\frac{1}{H}-2}. \quad (14)$$

Using our path integral, we can go further. The maximum distribution can be extracted from Eq. (3),

$$P_H^T(m) = \lim_{x_0 \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{Z} \int_0^T dt \int_{m_2 > 0} Z^+(m, t; x_0; m_2, T-t). \quad (15)$$

Its ε -expansion leads to the scaling form of Eq. (12), with

$$f_H(y) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} e^{\varepsilon[\mathcal{G}(y)+\text{cst}]} + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (16)$$

The constant term ensures normalization. The function \mathcal{G} involves the hypergeometric function ${}_2F_2$:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G}(y) &= \frac{y^4}{6} {}_2F_2\left(1, 1; \frac{5}{2}, 3; \frac{y^2}{2}\right) - 3y^2 \\ &+ \pi(1-y^2) \operatorname{erfi}\left(\frac{y}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + \sqrt{2\pi} e^{\frac{y^2}{2}} y \\ &+ (y^2 - 2) [\gamma_E + \ln(2y^2)]. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

This function has a different asymptotics for small and

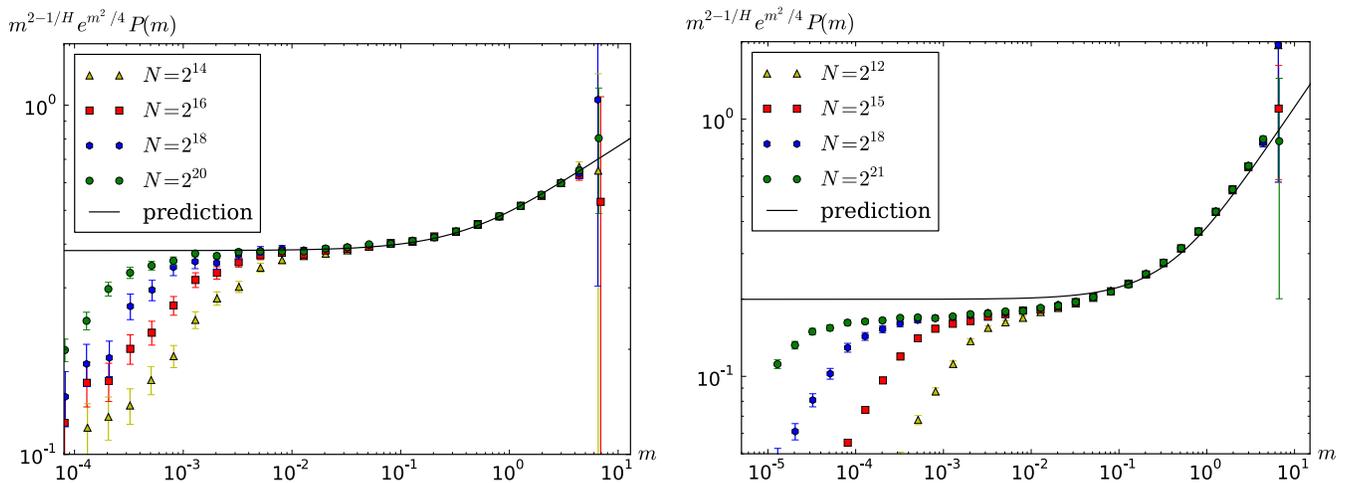


FIG. 5: Left: The combination (21) for $H = 0.6$. The plain line is the analytical prediction $\exp(\varepsilon[\mathcal{G}(m/\sqrt{2}) + 4 \ln m] + \text{cst})$ of the distribution of the maximum without its small-scale power law and large-scale Gaussian behavior. The symbols are numerical estimations for $T = 1$ of the same quantity $m^{2-1/H} \exp(m^2/4) P_{\text{num}}^{T=1, H}(m)$ for different sample sizes. At small scale discretization errors appear. At large scales the statistics is poor due to the Gaussian prefactor. For the four decades in between theory and numerics are in very good agreement. Right: *ibid* for $H = 0.75$. The large scale-behavior on both plots is consistent with $m^{2\varepsilon}$.

large y ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G}(y) &\underset{y \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} -2 \ln(y) \\ &\underset{y \rightarrow 0}{\sim} -4 \ln(y). \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

The second line implies that $P_H^T(m) \underset{m \rightarrow 0}{\sim} m^{-4\varepsilon}$ which is consistent (at order ε) with the scaling result (14), $\frac{1}{H} - 2 = -4\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)$. Formulas (16)-(17) also predict the distribution at large m . The leading behavior of $P_H^T(m)$ is Gaussian, which is well known, and can be derived from the *Borrel inequality* [23]. Our result for the subleading term can be written as

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln \left(f_H(y) \exp\left(\frac{y^2}{2}\right) \right)}{\ln(y)} = -2\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (19)$$

In order to test these predictions against numerical simulations, we can rewrite the form (16) s.t. the small- m behavior matches the exact scaling result (14)

$$f_H(y) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}} y^{\frac{1}{H}-2} e^{\varepsilon[\mathcal{G}(y)+4 \ln y + \text{cst}]} + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (20)$$

To extract the non-trivial contribution from numerical simulations, we study for $T = 1$ (see Fig. 5)

$$m^{2-\frac{1}{H}} e^{\frac{m^2}{4}} P_{\text{num}}^{1, H}(m) = e^{\varepsilon \left[\mathcal{G}\left(\frac{m}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + 4 \ln m + \text{cst} \right]} + O(\varepsilon^2). \quad (21)$$

The sample size N (*i.e.* lattice spacing $dt = N^{-1}$) of the discretized fBm used for this numerical test is important, as $P_{\text{num}}(m)$ recovers Brownian behavior for m smaller than a cutoff of order N^{-H} . For small H the necessary system size is very large, so we focus on $H > 0.5$.

Figure 5 presents results for $H = 0.6$ and $H = 0.75$, without any fitting parameter. The constant term in the scaling form, relevant for normalization, is evaluated numerically. As predicted, convergence to the small-scale behavior is quite slow. This would lead to a wrong numerical estimation of the persistence exponent or other related quantities if the crossover to the large-scale behavior is not properly taken into account. At large scales, the numerical data on Fig. 5 grow as $m^{2\varepsilon}$, consistent with the prediction (19).

To conclude, we have given analytical results for the maximum of a fractional Brownian motion, and the time when this maximum is reached. To our knowledge these are the first analytical results for generic values of H in the range $0 < H < 1$, beyond scaling relations. Comparison to numerical simulations shows excellent agreement, even far from the expansion point $H = \frac{1}{2}$.

Our calculations also gave the joint probability of the maximum, the time when the maximum is reached, and the final point [20]. This allows us to address other observables of interests, such as fractional Brownian bridges.

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- [24] These two random variables are almost surely well defined, as realisations of X_t are continuous and realizations where the maximum is degenerate are of measure zero.
- [25] It is a dimensionfull constant as fBm and standard Brownian motion do not have the same *time dimension*.
- [26] The cumulative distribution of t_{\max} involves the arcsin function.