

Self-Similarity beyond Gaussian processes: Hermite processes and more

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(Thanks to Vladas Pipiras at UNC,
to Mark Veillette and to Shuyang Bai
at Boston University.)

February 22, 2014

Outline

- Review: SSSI processes
- Review: Fractional Brownian motion (FBM)
- Review: Hermite processes
- Evaluating the Rosenblatt distribution
- Generalized Hermite processes
- Multivariate limit theorems

Definition of self-similarity

Definition. A stochastic process $\{X(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is called *self-similar* (SS) or *H-self-similar* (H-SS) if there is $H > 0$ such that, for all $c > 0$,

$$\{X(ct)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \stackrel{d}{=} \{c^H X(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}},$$

where $\stackrel{d}{=}$ denotes equality of the finite-dimensional distributions. Thus, for any $c > 0$ and times t_1, \dots, t_m in \mathbb{R} and integer $m \geq 1$,

$$(X(ct_1), \dots, X(ct_m))$$

has the same finite-dimensional distributions as the vector

$$(c^H X(t_1), \dots, c^H X(t_m)).$$

The parameter H is called the self-similarity parameter.

- Example: Brownian motion $B(t)$ is H-SS with $H = 1/2$.

Why self-similarity?

- Random fractals
- Appears naturally in limit theorems (Lamperti)
- Modelling

BUT: There are too many self-similar processes.

Theorem (Lamperti)

(i) If $\{X(t)\}_{t \geq 0}$ is H -SS, then $Y(t) = e^{-tH} X(e^t)$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, is stationary.

(ii) Conversely, if $\{Y(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is stationary, then $X(t) = t^H Y(\log t)$, $t > 0$, is H -SS.

- Example: $X(t)$ BM $\iff Y(t)$ Ornstein-Uhlenbeck
- Hence there are as many SS processes as stationary processes.
- And this connection to stationary processes has not proved useful.

Let's focus on a convenient subclass

Which one? Stationary SS processes is natural but will not do.
Focus then on processes with *stationary increments (SI)*:

Definition. A process $\{X(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ has *stationary increments* if, for any $s \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\{X(t) - X(s)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \stackrel{d}{=} \{X(t - s) - X(0)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}.$$

- Convenient, because if $X(n)$ is a stationary sequence, then the limit of

$$\frac{1}{N^H} \sum_{n=1}^{[Nt]} X(n),$$

if it exists, will be an $H - SSSI$ process.

- Historically, this is how many $H - SSSI$ processes were obtained.
- The increments of a $SSSI$ process are useful in modelling.

Simplest case: Gaussian $H - SSSI$ processes

Theorem

Suppose that $\{X(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) it is a Gaussian process with mean 0, $X(0) = 0$,
- (ii) it has stationary increments
- (iii) $\mathbb{E}|X(t)|^2 = \sigma^2|t|^{2H}$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and some $\sigma > 0$ and $0 < H \leq 1$,

Then the covariance is determined:

$$\text{Cov}(Z(s), Z(t)) = \Gamma_H(s, t) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} (|t|^{2H} + |s|^{2H} - |t - s|^{2H}),$$

- The process $\{X(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ is called **fractional Brownian motion** or **FBM**
- FBM is denoted $B_H(t)$.

Perspectives

Two perspectives on characterizing processes:

- through their distribution;
- through their representation: an expression involving simpler processes.

Integral representation

$$\underbrace{X(t)}_{\text{stoch. process}} = (\text{or } \stackrel{d}{=}) \int_{\underbrace{E}_{\text{some space}}} \underbrace{h_t(u)}_{\text{deterministic}} \underbrace{M(du)}_{\text{random measure}}.$$

We will consider first a simple integral with respect to the Wiener measure (or Brownian motion):

$$X(t) = (\text{or } \stackrel{d}{=}) \int_{\mathbb{R}} h_t(u) W(du).$$

where $W(du)$ is a Gaussian measure with Lebesgue control measure du , that is, heuristically, $\mathbb{E}((W(du))^2) = du$.

- It is well-defined if

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} h_t(u)^2 du < \infty, \quad \text{and then} \quad \mathbb{E}((X(t))^2) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} h_t(u)^2 du.$$

Representation of FBM

Theorem

For $H \in (0, 1)$, standard FBM admits the following time-domain integral representation:

$$\{B_H(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \stackrel{d}{=} \left\{ c \int_{\mathbb{R}} ((t-u)_+^{H-1/2} - (-u)_+^{H-1/2}) W(du) \right\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}},$$

where $x_+ = \max\{x, 0\}$, c is a normalizing constant and $W(du)$ is a Gaussian measure with Lebesgue control measure du .

- "Time domain" because u is interpreted as time.
- We get back Brownian motion if $H = 1/2$.

Many representations are possible

The time domain representation is not unique. For example, one can have for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(a((t-u)_+^{H-1/2} - (-u)_+^{H-1/2}) + b((t-u)_-^{H-1/2} - (-u)_-^{H-1/2}) \right) W(du),$$

where $x_- = \max\{0, -x\}$.

- If $a \neq 0, b = 0$ as before, the representation is called *causal* (non-anticipative) because integration over $u \leq t$ is used for $t > 0$.
- If $a = b$, then it is called *well-balanced*. In this case, $x_+ + x_- = |x|$, and thus

$$\{B_H(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \stackrel{d}{=} \left\{ a \int_{\mathbb{R}} (|t-u|^{H-1/2} - |u|^{H-1/2}) W(du) \right\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}.$$

Multiple integrals with respect to Gaussian measures

If W is a *real-valued* Gaussian measure on \mathbb{R}^k with Lebesgue control measure, these integrals are written as

$$\int'_{\mathbb{R}^k} h_t(u_1, \dots, u_k) W(du_1) \dots W(du_k) =: I_k(h_t),$$

where for each $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $h_t : \mathbb{R}^k \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is a deterministic.

- The prime in $\int'_{\mathbb{R}^k}$ refers to the fact that integration excludes diagonals.
- It is well-defined if $h_t \in \mathfrak{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^k)$.
- One has $\mathbb{E}I_k(h_t) = 0$ and

$$\mathbb{E}I_k(h_t)^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} (h_t(u_1, \dots, u_k))^2 du_1, \dots, du_k < \infty.$$

Definition of the Hermite processes

Definition. Let $k \geq 1$ be an integer and

$$H \in \left(\frac{1}{2}, 1\right) \quad \text{and} \quad H_0 = 1 - \frac{1-H}{k} \in \left(1 - \frac{1}{2k}, 1\right),$$

so that $H = 1 - k(1 - H_0)$. The *Hermite process* $\{Z_H^{(k)}(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$ of order k is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} Z_H^{(k)}(t) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^k}' \left\{ \int_0^t \prod_{j=1}^k (s - u_j)_+^{-\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1-H}{k}\right)} ds \right\} W(du_1) \dots W(du_k) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^k}' \left\{ \int_0^t \prod_{j=1}^k (s - u_j)_+^{H_0 - \frac{3}{2}} ds \right\} W(du_1) \dots W(du_k), \end{aligned}$$

where $W(du)$ is a Gaussian measure with Lebesgue control measure du .

Remarks

- The Hermite process of order k is defined through the kernel function

$$h_t(u_1, \dots, u_k) = \int_0^t \prod_{j=1}^k (s - u_j)_+^{H_0 - 3/2} ds.$$

- The parameter H_0 is the one used in the fractional Brownian motion kernel.
- The parameter H is the self-similarity parameter of the Hermite process.
- The Hermite process of order $k = 1$ is fractional Brownian motion and in this case $H = H_0$.
- The Hermite process of order $k = 2$ is called the Rosenblatt process.

Heuristic structure of FBM and the Hermite processes

FBM:

$$\begin{aligned}
 B_H(t) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^1} \left(\int_0^t (s-u)_+^{H_0 - \frac{3}{2}} ds \right) W(du) \\
 &= \int_0^t \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^1} (s-u)_+^{H_0 - \frac{3}{2}} W(du) \right) ds \\
 &= \int_0^t \dot{B}_{H_0}(s) ds.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hermite process of order k :

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z_H^{(k)}(t) &= \int_0^t H_k \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^1} (s-u)_+^{H_0 - \frac{3}{2}} W(du) \right) ds \\
 &= \int_0^t H_k(\dot{B}_{H_0}(s)) ds.
 \end{aligned}$$

The Rosenblatt distribution

The Rosenblatt process ($k = 2$)

Three ways to view it:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z_H^{(2)}(t) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2}' \left\{ \int_0^t \prod_{j=1}^2 (s - u_j)_+^{-(1-H/2)} ds \right\} W(du_1)W(du_2) \\
 &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^2}' \left\{ \int_0^t \prod_{j=1}^2 (s - u_j)_+^{H_0 - \frac{3}{2}} ds \right\} W(du_1)W(du_2) \\
 &= \int_0^t H_2(\dot{B}_{H_0}(s)) ds.
 \end{aligned}$$

Focus on the first representation, where $H \in (1/2, 1)$ is the self-similarity parameter of the process.

Why focus on the Rosenblatt process?

Because it is the most common limit after Brownian motion and fractional Brownian motion.

- One has its representation.
- One would like to have at least its marginal distribution.

The Rosenblatt distribution

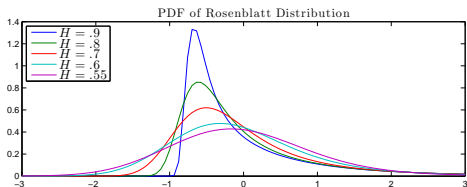
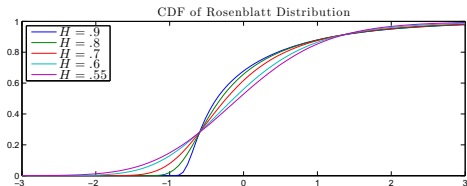
It is the marginal distribution of the Rosenblatt process $Z_H^{(2)}(t)$ at time $t = 1$, i.e. the distribution of the random variable

$$Z_H = Z_H^{(2)}(1),$$

standardized: $\mathbb{E}Z_H^{(2)}(1) = 0$, $\mathbb{E}(Z_H^{(2)}(1))^2 = 1$.

- Important because it appears often in limit theorems.
- Necessary for getting asymptotic confidence intervals.
- Unfortunately, the distribution is not known in closed form.
- In Veillette and Taqqu (2013), we developed a technique to evaluate it numerically.

Plots of the CDF and PDF of the Rosenblatt distribution



These are tabulated as well!

A mystery !!!

It seems that the CDFs of the Rosenblatt distributions intersect at the same point **for any** $H \in (1/2, 1)$. In fact, this is true even for extremes:

For $H = 1$: $Z_1 =$ standardized chi squared

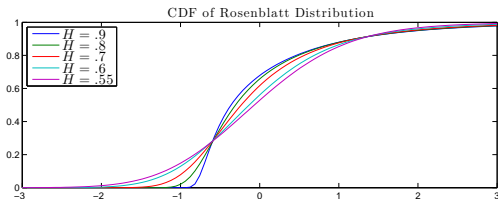
For $H = 1/2$: $Z_{1/2} = N(0, 1)$:

$$P(Z_1 \leq -0.6256) = P(Z_{1/2} \leq -0.6256) = 0.2658.$$

Conjecture:

$$\forall 1/2 < H < 1: P(Z_H \leq -0.6256) = 0.2658.$$

There seems to be a second common point: $P(Z_H \leq 1.3552) = 0.9123$.



$$P(Z_1 \leq x) = P(\chi^2 \leq \sqrt{2} x + 1)$$

$$P(Z_{1/2} \leq x) = P(N(0, 1) \leq x)$$

$$P(Z_1 \leq -0.625589380332768) = 0.265792153057490$$

$$P(Z_{1/2} \leq -0.625589380332768) = 0.265792153057490$$

$$P(Z_1 \leq 1.355216558592255) = 0.912325714726415$$

$$P(Z_{1/2} \leq 1.355216558592255) = 0.912325714726415$$

Conjecture: This holds also for $Z_H, \forall 1/2 < H < 1$.

Beyond the Hermite processes:



Generalized Hermite processes

Generalized Hermite kernel

In the definition of the Hermite process

$$Z_H^{(k)}(t) = a_{k,H_0} \int_{\mathbb{R}^k}' \left\{ \int_0^t \prod_{j=1}^k (s - u_j)_+^{H_0 - \frac{3}{2}} ds \right\} W(du_1) \dots W(du_k),$$

replace the product of functions in the bracket, by

$$g(s - u_1, \dots, s - u_k) 1\{\mathbf{s} \mathbf{1} > \mathbf{u}\}$$

where g is a multivariate homogeneous function.

- This idea goes back to Mori and Oodaira (1986) who use it to study the law of iterated logarithm.

Generalized Hermite kernels and processes

Definition. We say that a nonzero measurable function $g(\mathbf{x})$ defined on \mathbb{R}_+^k is a *generalized Hermite kernel*, if it satisfies

A. $g(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda^\alpha g(\mathbf{x})$, $\forall \lambda > 0$, where $\alpha \in (-\frac{k+1}{2}, -\frac{k}{2})$;

B. $\int_{\mathbb{R}_+^k} |g(\mathbf{x})g(\mathbf{1} + \mathbf{x})| d\mathbf{x} < \infty$.

Definition. The process

$$Z(t) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \int_0^t g(s-x_1, \dots, s-x_k) \mathbf{1}_{\{s > x_1, \dots, s > x_k\}} ds W(dx_1) \dots W(dx_k)$$

where g is a generalized Hermite kernel, is called a *generalized Hermite process*.

- Shorthand: $Z(t) = I_k(h_t)$ with $h_t(\mathbf{x}) = \int_0^t g(s\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{1}_{\{s\mathbf{1} > \mathbf{x}\}} ds$.

The generalized Hermite process is well defined

Let $g(\mathbf{x})$ be a generalized Hermite kernel. Then

$$h_t(\mathbf{x}) = \int_0^t g(s - x_1, \dots, s - x_k) 1_{\{s > x_1, \dots, s > x_k\}} ds$$

is well-defined in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^k)$, $\forall t > 0$, and the process

$$Z_t := I_k(h_t)$$

is an H -sssi process with

$$H = \alpha + k/2 + 1 \in (1/2, 1).$$

Example

Let

$$g(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \max \left(\frac{x_1 \dots x_k}{x_1^{k-\alpha} + \dots + x_k^{k-\alpha}}, x_1^{\alpha/k} \dots x_k^{\alpha/k} \right)$$

where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}_+^k$ and $\alpha \in (-k/2 - 1/2, -k/2)$.

- Note that g is homogeneous of degree α .
- The corresponding $H - SSSI$ generalized Hermite process with $H = \alpha + k/2 + 1$ is

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \int_0^t \left(\frac{\prod_{j=1}^k (s - x_j)_+}{\sum_{j=1}^k (s - x_j)_+^{k-\alpha}} \right) \vee \left(\prod_{j=1}^k (s - x_j)_+^{\alpha/k} \right) ds \prod_{j=1}^k W(dx_j).$$

How to obtain an H -sssi process with $0 < H < 1/2$?

Theorem

The process $Z^\beta(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k}' \int_{\mathbb{R}}$

$$\frac{1}{\beta} \left[(t-s)_+^\beta - (-s)_+^\beta \right] g(s-x_1, \dots, s-x_k) 1_{\{s > x_1, \dots, s > x_k\}} ds \prod_{j=1}^k W(dx_j),$$

is an H -sssi process with $H = \alpha + \beta + k/2 + 1 \in (0, 1)$.

- g is homogeneous with exponent $\alpha \in (-k/2 - 1/2, -k/2)$ and

$$-1 < -\alpha - \frac{k}{2} - 1 < \beta < -\alpha - \frac{k}{2} < \frac{1}{2}.$$

These condition ensure that the integrand is in $L^2(\mathbb{R}^k)$.

- The case $\beta = 0$ leads back to the generalized Hermite process case.

Limit Theorems

Polynomial forms

Consider the polynomial form of order k :

$$X(n) = \sum_{0 < i_1, \dots, i_k < \infty}^{\prime} a(i_1, \dots, i_k) \epsilon_{n-i_1} \dots \epsilon_{n-i_k},$$

where the prime $'$ indicates that one doesn't sum on the diagonals $i_p = i_q$ $p \neq q$ and where the $\sum_{\mathbf{i} > \mathbf{0}}^{\prime} a(\mathbf{i})^2 < \infty$, so that $X(n)$ is well-defined in the $L^2(\Omega)$ -sense. For simplicity, take

$$a(i_1, \dots, i_k) = g(i_1, \dots, i_k),$$

where g is a generalized Hermite kernel with some regularity conditions.

- Say that $X(n)$ is **short-range dependent (SRD)** if the sum of the covariances of $X(n)$ converges.
- Say that $X(n)$ is **long-range dependent (LRD)** if the sum of the covariances of $X(n)$ diverges.

Limit theorems

Consider then the polynomial form of order k :

$$X(n) = \sum_{0 < i_1, \dots, i_k < \infty} g(i_1, \dots, i_k) \epsilon_{n-i_1} \dots \epsilon_{n-i_k}.$$

We are interested in the limit of

$$\frac{1}{N^H} \sum_{n=1}^{\lfloor Nt \rfloor} X(n)$$

for special choices of the kernel $a(i_1, \dots, i_k)$. The limit can be:

- BM if $k = 1$ (linear process), SRD, $H = 1/2$
- BM if $k \geq 2$, (linear or non-linear process), SRD, $H = 1/2$
- $Z(t)$ if $k \geq 1$ (generalized Hermite), LRD, $H \in (1/2, 1)$
- $Z^\beta(t)$ if $k \geq 1$ (fractionally filtered generalized Hermite), SRD or LRD, $H \in (0, 1)$.

Consider a **vector** of such processes

The components are expressed as

$$\frac{1}{N^H} \sum_{n=1}^{[Nt]} X(n) = \frac{1}{N^H} \sum_{n=1}^{[Nt]} \sum_{0 < i_1, \dots, i_k < \infty} g(i_1, \dots, i_k) \epsilon_{n-i_1} \dots \epsilon_{n-i_k}.$$

The components have

- the same iid noise $\{\epsilon_k, k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- different kernels $g(i_1, \dots, i_k)$
- different order k
- different exponents H
- SRD, LRD, fLRD

Question: Is there joint convergence? **Answer:** Yes

Multivariate limit theorem

Theorem

The joint convergence holds with limit vector

$$\left(\mathbf{B}_1(t), \mathbf{B}_2(t), \mathbf{Z}(t), \mathbf{Z}^\beta(t) \right),$$

where

- (i) $\mathbf{B}_1(t) = \mathbf{W}(t) := (\sigma_1 W(t), \dots, \sigma_{J_{S_1}} W(t))$ defined by the same standard Brownian motion $W(t)$. [$k = 1$, SRD]
- (ii) $\mathbf{B}_2(t)$ is a multivariate Brownian motion with joint covariance 0 if the orders $k_p \neq k_q$. [$k \geq 2$, SRD]
- (iii) $\mathbf{Z}(t)$ is a multivariate generalized Hermite process and using the $W(t)$ in Point (i) as Brownian motion integrator. [$k \geq 1$, LRD]
- (iv) $\mathbf{Z}^\beta(t)$ is a multivariate fractionally-filtered generalized Hermite process and using the $W(t)$ in Point (i) as Brownian motion integrator. [$k \geq 1$, SRD or LRD depending on β]

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Thanks!

Idea of proof

For $\mathbf{B}_1(t), \mathbf{B}_2(t)$ use m-dependence and add

$$W_N(\Delta) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n/N \in \Delta} \epsilon_n$$

as one of the components in Cramer-Wold.

To include the LRD components, view them as functionals of W_N with kernels converging in \mathfrak{L}^2 (Ref: Bai and Taqqu (2013b)).

Independence / dependence between the components

The limit vector is:

$$\left(\mathbf{B}_1(t), \mathbf{B}_2(t), \mathbf{Z}(t), \mathbf{Z}^\beta(t) \right).$$

$\mathbf{B}_2(t)$ is always independent of $(\mathbf{B}_1(t), \mathbf{Z}(t), \mathbf{Z}^\beta(t))$. Indeed:

- $\mathbf{B}_2 \perp \mathbf{B}_1$ [$k \geq 2$ versus $k = 1$]
- The processes $\mathbf{B}_2(t)$, $\mathbf{Z}(t)$ and $\mathbf{Z}^\beta(t)$ involve the same integrator $W(\cdot)$ because they are defined in terms of the same ϵ_i 's.
- $\mathbf{B}_2 \perp W$ [$k \geq 2$ versus $k = 1$]
- $(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Z}^\beta)$ involve only $W \implies \mathbf{B}_2 \perp (\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Z}^\beta)$.

Spectral domain representation of the Hermite processes

$$Z_H^{(k)}(t) = b_{k,d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^k}'' \frac{e^{i(\nu_1 + \dots + \nu_k)t} - 1}{i(\nu_1 + \dots + \nu_k)} |\nu_1|^{-d} \dots |\nu_k|^{-d} \widehat{W}(d\nu_1) \dots \widehat{W}(d\nu_k),$$

where

$$d = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1-H}{k} \in \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right), \frac{1}{2} \right),$$

$\widehat{W}(\cdot)$ is a complex-valued Brownian motion (with real and imaginary parts being independent), and where the double prime on $\int_{\mathbb{R}^k}''$ indicates that the diagonals $\{x_i = \pm x_j, i \neq j\}$ are excluded in the integration.

- It is useful in Statistics
- It sheds light on the structure.

The spectral perspective

The L^2 Fourier transform of the integrand

$$h_t^\beta(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\beta} \left[(t-s)_+^\beta - (-s)_+^\beta \right] g(s-x_1, \dots, s-x_k) \mathbf{1}_{\{s > x_1, \dots, s > x_k\}} ds$$

is

$$\widehat{h}_t^\beta(\boldsymbol{\nu}) = \frac{(e^{it\langle \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{1} \rangle} - 1)}{i\langle \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{1} \rangle} (i\langle \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{1} \rangle)^{-\beta} \widehat{g}(-\boldsymbol{\nu}) \Gamma(\beta), \text{ a.e.},$$

where $\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\nu} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ and $\langle \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{1} \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^k \nu_j$. Thus,

$$Z_H^{(k)}(t) = c \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \frac{(e^{it\langle \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{1} \rangle} - 1)}{i\langle \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{1} \rangle} (i\langle \boldsymbol{\nu}, \mathbf{1} \rangle)^{-\beta} \widehat{g}(-\boldsymbol{\nu}) \widehat{W}(d\nu_1) \dots \widehat{W}(d\nu_k),$$

One obtains back the Hermite process by setting $\beta = 0$ and

$$\widehat{g}(-\boldsymbol{\nu}) = c \prod_{j=1}^k |\nu_j|^{-d}.$$

Regularity conditions: Class (L)

We say that a generalized Hermite kernel g on \mathbb{R}_+^k having homogeneity exponent α is of Class (L) (L stands for “limit” as in “limit theorems”), if

- 1 g is continuous a.e. on \mathbb{R}_+^k ;
 - 2 $|g(\mathbf{x})| \leq g^*(\mathbf{x})$ a.e. $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^k$, where g^* is a finite linear combination of non-symmetric Hermite kernels: $\prod_{j=1}^k x_j^{\gamma_j}$, where $\gamma_j \in (-1, -1/2)$, $j = 1, \dots, k$, and $\sum_{j=1}^k \gamma_j = \alpha \in (-k/2 - 1/2, -k/2)$.
- For example, $g^*(\mathbf{x})$ could be $x_1^{-3/4} x_2^{-5/8} + x_1^{-9/16} x_2^{-13/16}$ if $k = 2$. In this case, $\alpha = -11/8$.
 - The limit theorems suppose that g is of Class (L).

The earlier example belongs to Class (L)

The following kernel g belongs to Class (L):

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_1, \dots, x_k) &= \max \left(\frac{x_1 \dots x_k}{x_1^{k-\alpha} + \dots + x_k^{k-\alpha}}, x_1^{\alpha/k} \dots x_k^{\alpha/k} \right) \\ &= \max(g_1(\mathbf{x})/g_2(\mathbf{x}), g_3(\mathbf{x})). \end{aligned}$$

Max is continuous, g_1, g_3 are powers. For g_2 use the arithmetic-geometric mean inequality

$$k^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^k y_j \geq \left(\prod_{j=1}^k y_j \right)^{1/k} \text{ for } y_j > 0.$$