# Documentation on 1/f Noise

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## 1 Overview of Machlup's derivation of 1/f

Machlup's paper on 1/f noise shows that a convolution of purely random processes, i.e., those with autocorrelations of the form  $e^{-t/\tau}$ , with scale-invariant correlation time  $\tau$ , will produce a 1/f power spectrum over a large frequency range. We explain this statement below.

It can be shown mathematically that random datasets have exponentially decaying autocorrelation,  $R(t) = Ae^{-t/\tau}$ , where A is the data variance and  $\tau$  is the correlation time of the data. Its power spectrum is thus proportional to the Fourier transform of  $e^{-t/\tau}$ :

$$S(\tau, \omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega t} R(t) dt$$
 (1)

$$\propto \int_{-\infty}^{0} e^{-i\omega t} e^{t/\tau} dt + \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega t} e^{-t/\tau} dt$$
 (2)

$$=\frac{i\tau}{i+\tau\omega} + \frac{i\tau}{i-\tau\omega} \tag{3}$$

$$\propto \frac{\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}.\tag{4}$$

Here,  $\omega = 2\pi f$ , and we reflect R(t) about the origin to extend it to the negative time domain.

Suppose we have a large assemble of random data with the same data variance, and their correlation times are scale-invariant. That is, the probability density distribution of  $\tau$  behaves like

$$\rho(\tau) \,\mathrm{d}\tau \propto \frac{\mathrm{d}\tau}{\tau} \tag{5}$$

within some domain  $[\tau_1, \tau_2]$ . Then the power spectrum of the assemble of random data is

$$\overline{S}(\omega) = \int_{\tau_1}^{\tau_2} S(\tau, \omega) \rho(\tau) \, d\tau \tag{6}$$

$$\propto \int_{\tau_1}^{\tau_2} \frac{\mathrm{d}\tau}{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2} \tag{7}$$

$$=\frac{\tan^{-1}(\tau_2\omega)-\tan^{-1}(\tau_1\omega)}{\omega}.$$
 (8)

If we assume  $\tau_1 \ll \tau_2$ , then within the frequency range of  $\tau_1 \ll 1/\omega \ll \tau_2$ ,  $\overline{S}(\omega)$  approaches

$$\overline{S}(\omega) \propto \frac{\frac{\pi}{2} + \mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\tau_2 \omega}) - \mathcal{O}(\tau_1 \omega)}{\omega}$$
(9)

$$=\frac{\pi}{2\omega}\tag{10}$$

to zeroth-order. Thus  $\overline{S}(\omega) \propto 1/\omega$  within the region where  $\tau_1 \ll 1/\omega \ll \tau_2$ .

### 2 1/f from arbitrary index $\alpha$ , the simple form

Equation 4 is called the Lorenzian function. In log-log scale, it is flat when  $\tau\omega \ll 1$  and has a slope of -2 when  $\tau\omega \gg 1$ , as shown in Figure 1.

Most spectra we observe in the solar wind behave similarly, except that the slopes at high frequencies can take a range of different values. We want to show in this section that a convolution of spectra with an arbitrary slope  $-\alpha$  will also produce a 1/f overall spectrum.

We assume, for mathematical simplicity, that each spectrum behaves like

$$S(\tau,\omega) \propto \frac{\tau}{(1+\omega\tau)^{\alpha}},$$
 (11)

where  $\tau$  is the correlation time. The data assemble is assumed to have the same data variance, and a scale-invariant distribution of correlation time as in equation 5, which ranges from  $\tau_1$  to  $\tau_2$ . Then the overall spectrum is

$$\overline{S}(\omega) \propto \int_{\tau_1}^{\tau_2} \frac{\mathrm{d}\tau}{(1+\omega\tau)^{\alpha}}$$
 (12)

$$= \frac{(1+\tau_2\omega)^{1-\alpha} - (1+\tau_1\omega)^{1-\alpha}}{\omega(1-\alpha)}.$$
 (13)

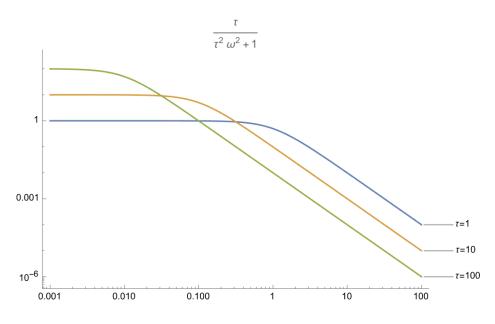


Figure 1:

In the frequency domain where  $\tau_1 \ll 1/\omega \ll \tau_2$ ,

$$\overline{S}(\omega) \propto \frac{\mathcal{O}\left[(\tau_2 \omega)^{1-\alpha}\right] - \left[1 + \mathcal{O}(\tau_1 \omega)\right]}{\omega(1-\alpha)}$$
(14)

$$=\frac{1}{\omega(\alpha-1)}\tag{15}$$

to zeroth order, given  $\alpha > 1$ . Thus an assemble of data of spectral index  $\alpha > 1$  may produce an overall spectrum that behaves like  $\overline{S}(\omega) \propto 1/\omega$  within the region  $\tau_1 \ll 1/\omega \ll \tau_2$ .

## 3 1/f from arbitrary index $\alpha$ , the more complicated form

Now, instead of equation 11, we consider individual spectrum of the following form:

$$S(\tau,\omega) \propto \frac{\tau}{(1+\omega^2\tau^2)^{\alpha/2}}.$$
 (16)

Equation 16 is plotted and compared with equation 11 in Figure 2. We see that it is more characteristic of being flat at small frequencies and having a slope of  $-\alpha$  at large frequencies. A convolution of these spectra also produces an overall  $1/\omega$  behavior, although showing this requires some mathematical complexity.

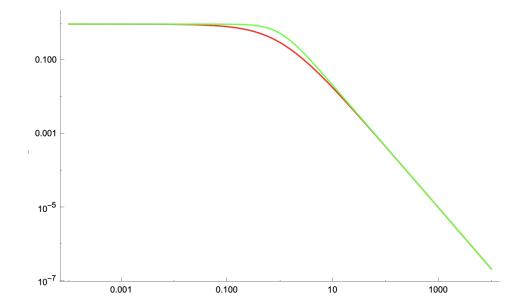


Figure 2: Red curve shows equation 11 and green curve shows equation 16. Here  $\alpha$  is assumed to be 5/3.

The overall spectrum, with the same correlation time distribution as in the sections above, is

$$\overline{S}(\omega) \propto \int_{\tau_1}^{\tau_2} \frac{\mathrm{d}\tau}{(1+\omega^2\tau^2)^{\alpha/2}} \tag{17}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\omega} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{(1+x^2)^{\alpha/2}} \tag{18}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\omega} \left[ \int_0^\infty \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{(1+x^2)^{\alpha/2}} - \int_0^{x_1} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{(1+x^2)^{\alpha/2}} - \int_{x_2}^\infty \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{(1+x^2)^{\alpha/2}} \right],\tag{19}$$

where we apply the substitution  $x \equiv \omega \tau$ , and by definition  $x_1 \ll 1$  and  $x_2 \gg 1$ . The first term in the bracket has a definite solution

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{(1+x^2)^{\alpha/2}} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma(\frac{\alpha-1}{2})}{2\Gamma(\frac{\alpha}{2})}.$$
 (20)

The third term can be approximated as

$$\int_{x_2}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{(1+x^2)^{\alpha/2}} \approx \int_{x_2}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{x^{\alpha}} = \frac{x_2^{1-\alpha}}{\alpha-1}.$$
 (21)

The solution to the second term is the hypergeometric function

$$\int_0^{x_1} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{(1+x^2)^{\alpha/2}} = x_1 \,_2F_1\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{\alpha}{2}; \frac{3}{2}; -x_1^2\right) = x_1 - \frac{\alpha x_1^3}{6} + \mathcal{O}(x_1)^5.$$
 (22)

Here  ${}_{2}F_{1}$  is the hypergeometric function. The hypergeometric function is originally defined as

$$_{2}F_{1}(a,b;c;z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(a)_{n}(b)_{n}}{(c)_{n}n!} z^{n}, \quad |z| < 1,$$
 (23)

where  $(p)_n$  is the Pochhammer symbol of values

$$(p)_n = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0\\ \frac{\Gamma(p+n)}{\Gamma(p)} = p(p+1)\cdots(p+n-1) & n = 1, 2, \cdots \end{cases}$$
 (24)

Substituting equations 20 22, and 21 into equation 19 gives the overall scaling relationship

$$\overline{S}(\omega) \propto \frac{1}{\omega} \left[ \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(\frac{\alpha - 1}{2})}{2\Gamma(\frac{\alpha}{2})} - \mathcal{O}(x_2)^{1 - \alpha} - x_1 + \mathcal{O}(x_1)^3 \right]. \tag{25}$$

If we only care about the least order term, then  $\overline{S}(\omega) \propto 1/\omega$  only if  $\alpha > 1$ , that is, the order of the second term in the bracket is less than that of the first term. The constraint of  $\alpha > 1$  also makes sure that  $\Gamma[(\alpha - 1)/2]$  is positive. In conclusion, superposition of spectra of a fixed slope  $-\alpha$  with  $\alpha > 1$  will produce a  $1/\omega$  spectrum in the range  $\tau_1 \ll 1/\omega \ll \tau_2$ .

### 4 Alternative derivation of 1/f, the superposition of slopes

In this section, we present an alternative derivation based on mean slope evaluation, showing that the superposition of signals with power-law index  $-\alpha$  gives an overall  $1/\omega$  spectrum. The outline is as follows: (1) Given a distribution of  $\tau_c$ , we can determine the distribution of  $f_c = 1/2\pi\tau_c$ , (2) given equal total energy (variance) of individual dataset, we can determine the distribution of  $S_c$ , defined as the power at the flat part of the spectrum, (3) the distribution of  $S_c$  provides a weighting function for the ensemble of power-law indices at a given frequency f, which is either 0 if  $f_c \leq f$  or  $-\alpha$  if  $f_c > f$ , (4) we can then find the expected power-law index at any given f.

Note that we are switching notation for the correlation times from  $\tau$  to  $\tau_c$ , and we are working in frequency space instead of angular frequency space.

Given a correlation time  $\tau_c$  for a specific dataset, we define the break frequency  $f_c \equiv 1/2\pi\tau_c$ , representing the point before which the power spectrum is flat, and after which the power spectrum is a power-law of index  $-\alpha$ . The reciprocal of an inversely distributed random variable also follows an inverse distribution. From  $\rho(\tau_c) = 1/\ln(\tau_2/\tau_1)\tau_c$ , we get

$$\rho(f_c) df_c = \rho(\tau_c) \left| \frac{d\tau_c}{df_c} \right| df_c = \frac{1}{\ln(\frac{f_1}{f_2})} \frac{df_c}{f_c},$$
(26)

where  $f_1 = 1/2\pi\tau_1$ ,  $f_2 = 1/2\pi\tau_2$ , and  $f_c \in [f_2, f_1]$ .

Now, for each power spectrum normalized to a total variance of 1, the power density before the break frequency is  $S_c = (\alpha + 1)/2\alpha f_c$ . The derivation is in Section 3 of my notes *Documentation* on Random Time Series, Fast Fourier Transform, and Power Spectral Density. Thus  $S_c$  also follows the inverse distribution

$$\rho(S_c) dS_c = \frac{1}{\ln\left(\frac{f_1}{f_2}\right)} \frac{dS_c}{S_c}.$$
(27)

Instead of equation 16, we use a more straightforward and general definition of each power spectrum, uniquely described by  $S_c$  or  $f_c$ , as

$$S(f) = S_c \begin{cases} 1 & f \le f_c \\ \left(\frac{f}{f_c}\right)^{-\alpha} & f > f_c. \end{cases}$$
 (28)

Equation 28 omits the negative frequency domain, with the assumption that S(f) is symmetric around the origin. With this definition of S(f), at any given frequency f, the power-law index, denoted as  $\beta$ , is either 0 if the chosen spectrum has  $f_c > f$ , or  $-\alpha$  if  $f_c < f$ . Now we have two relevant pieces of information to calculate the expected value of the slope of S(f) on a loglog plot: (1) the distribution of  $S_c$ , and (2) the magnitude of S at frequency f. Intuitively, these cover all information needed, where (1) is the probability density of S(f) and (2) is the weighting function of its slope at f such that the mean slope is

$$\overline{\beta}(f) = \frac{\int_{S_1}^{S_2} \beta(f) S(f) \rho(S_c) \, dS_c}{\int_{S_1}^{S_2} S(f) \rho(S_c) \, dS_c}$$
(29)

Why is S(f) considered the weighting function of  $\beta(f)$  under the context of spectrum superposition? To show this, we prove the following equivalent statement: Let  $S_1(f) = A(f/f_a)^{\mu}$  and  $S_2(f) = B(f/f_b)^{\nu}$ , where  $A, B, f_a, f_b$  are arbitrary positive constants, and  $\mu, \nu$  are the power-law indices of  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The slope of the spectrum  $S_1 + S_2$  on the loglog plot is  $(\mu S_1 + \nu S_2)/(S_1 + S_2)$ .

The slope on the loglog plot can be directly calculated as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \ln(f)} \ln(S_1 + S_2) = \frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}\ln(f)} \frac{\partial}{\partial f} \ln(S_1 + S_2) \tag{30}$$

$$= f\left(\frac{\partial_f S_1 + \partial_f S_2}{S_1 + S_2}\right) \tag{31}$$

$$=\frac{\mu S_1 + \nu S_2}{S_1 + S_2}. (32)$$

This means that although the power spectrum is not additive on a loglog plot (i.e.,  $\ln(S_1 + S_2) \neq \ln S_1 + \ln S_2$ ), their power indices are.

We now continue our calculation of  $\overline{\beta}(f)$  following equation 29, keeping in mind that  $\beta = -\alpha$  when  $S_c > S(f)$ , and  $\beta = 0$  otherwise:

$$\overline{\beta}(f) = \frac{-\alpha \int_{S}^{S_2} S_c(f/f_c)^{-\alpha} \rho(S_c) \, dS_c}{\int_{S_1}^{S} S_c \rho(S_c) \, dS_c + \int_{S}^{S_2} S_c(f/f_c)^{-\alpha} \rho(S_c) \, dS_c}$$
(33)

$$= -\alpha \left[ 1 + f^{\alpha} \frac{\int_{S_1}^{S} S_c \rho(S_c) \, dS_c}{\int_{S}^{S_2} S_c^{1-\alpha} \rho(S_c) \, dS_c} \right]^{-1}$$
 (34)

$$= -\alpha \left[ 1 + f^{\alpha} \frac{\int_{S_1}^{S} dS_c}{\int_{S}^{S_2} S_c^{-\alpha} dS_c} \right]^{-1}$$
 (35)

$$= -\alpha \left[ 1 + f^{\alpha} (1 - \alpha) \frac{(1/f - 1/f_1)}{(1/f_2^{1-\alpha} - 1/f^{1-\alpha})} \right]^{-1}$$
 (36)

$$= -\alpha \left[ 1 - (1 - \alpha) \frac{f/f_1 - 1}{(f_2/f)^{\alpha} - 1} \right]^{-1}.$$
 (37)

Within the frequency region of  $f_2 \ll f \ll f_1$  and with  $\alpha > 1$ , if we consider the least order term,

$$\overline{\beta}(f) = -1. \tag{38}$$