# Long-Lasting Effects of Random Perturbations on Dynamical Systems

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Frontier Probability Days Salt Lake City, 2016

Joint work with T. Grafke and T. Schaefer

# Freidlin-Wentzell approach to LDT

Consider the SDE

$$dX = b(X)dt + \sqrt{\varepsilon}\sigma(X)dW(t)$$

where W(t) is a Wiener process and  $\varepsilon$  measures the noise amplitude.

The forward Kolmogorov equation associated with this SDE is

$$\partial_t \rho = \nabla \cdot \left( -b\rho + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \nabla(a\rho) \right), \qquad a(x) = (\sigma \sigma^T)(x)$$

Using a WKB-type ansatz  $\rho(x,t) = \exp(-\varepsilon^{-1}\Phi(x,t))$ , to leading order in  $\varepsilon$ ,  $\Phi(x,t)$  satisfies the Hamilton-Jacobi equation

$$\partial_t \Phi + H(x, \nabla \Phi) = 0, \qquad H(x, \theta) = b(x) \cdot \theta + \frac{1}{2}\theta \cdot a(x)\theta$$

Variational representation formula for the solution

$$\Phi(x,t) = \inf_{\substack{\{\varphi(s), s \in [0,t] : \\ \varphi(0) = x_0, \varphi(t) = x\}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t |\dot{\varphi} - b(\varphi)|_a^2 ds, \qquad |u|_a^2 = u \cdot a^{-1}(\varphi)u$$



#### The role of the Quasi-Potential (QP)

LDP also important for long time behavior via the solution of  $H(x, \nabla \Phi) = 0$ , which defines the *quasipotential* 

$$\Phi(x,y) = \inf_{T>0} \inf_{\substack{\{\varphi(t),t\in[0,T]:\\\varphi(0)=x,\varphi(T)=y\}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T |\dot{\varphi} - b(\varphi)|_a^2 dt$$

Quasipotential plays roughly the same role as the standard potential, and is important on long time-scales,  $T \simeq \exp(\varepsilon^{-1}C)$  for some C > 0.

For example, around stable fixed point  $x_a$  of  $\dot{x} = b(x)$ , the nonequilibrium stationary density is

$$\rho(x) \asymp \exp\left(-\varepsilon^{-1}\Phi(x_a, x)\right)$$

and if  $x_a$ ,  $x_b$  are two adjacent stable fixed points of  $\dot{x} = b(x)$ , the mean first passage time from  $x_a$  to  $x_b$  is

$$\tau(x_a, x_b) \asymp \exp\left(\varepsilon^{-1}\Phi(x_a, x_b)\right)$$

## NB: the case of Systems in Detailed-Balance

For systems of the type

$$dX = -\nabla U(X)dt + \sqrt{\varepsilon} \, dW(t)$$

• Quasipotential reduces to potential U(x).

• Mimimizer of action (aka maximum likelihood path, MLP) reduces to mimimum energy path (MEP), that is, geometric location of heteroclinic orbits joining two minima via a saddle point.

A MEP can be characterized geometrically as a curve  $\Gamma^\ast$  satisfying

$$\mathbf{0} = [\nabla U]^{\perp}$$

where  $[\cdot]^{\perp}$  denotes the perpendicular projection to the curve.







## Illustration: Allen-Cahn equation in 2D

Allen-Cahn energy for  $u : [0, 1]^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ :

$$E(u) = \int_{[0,1]^2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\delta|\nabla u|^2 + \frac{1}{4}\delta^{-1}(1-u^2)^2\right) dx$$

with Dirichlet boundary condition: u = +1 on the right and left edges of  $[0, 1]^2$ , u = -1 on top and bottom ones.



Simulations by W. Ren

# What if the dynamics is not in detailedbalance?



Detailed-balance holds only for  $\beta = 1$ 

For other values, the MLP is no longer the reversed of the deterministic path

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# Geometric interpretation and Numerical counterpart



$$\Phi(x,y) = \inf_{T>0} \inf_{\substack{\{\varphi(t),t\in[0,T]:\\\varphi(0)=x,\varphi(T)=y\}}} \frac{\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T |\dot{\varphi} - b(\varphi)|_a^2 dt$$
$$= \inf_{\substack{\{\varphi(t),t\in[0,T]:\\\varphi(0)=x,\varphi(T)=y\}}} \int_0^T (|\dot{\varphi}|_a |b(\varphi)|_a - \langle \dot{\varphi}, b(\varphi) \rangle_a) dt$$

Reduce calculation of the quasipotential to that of a geodesic in a (degenerate) Finsler metric.

Numerical counterpart: geodesic can be identified in practice by moving a parametrized curve in configuration space

 $\Rightarrow String method (gradient systems) and Minimum action method (non-gradient systems). (E, Ren & V.-E.; Heymann & V.-E.)$ 

#### Allen-Cahn/Cahn-Hilliard System

Consider the SDE system

$$d\phi = (\frac{1}{\alpha}Q(\phi - \phi^3) - \phi)dt + \sqrt{\varepsilon}dW$$

with  $\phi = (\phi_1, \phi_2)$  and the matrix Q = ((1, -1), (-1, 1)).

This system does not satisfy detailed balance, as its drift is made of two gradient terms with incompatible mobility operators (namely Q and Id).

Fig. 2 Allen-Cahn/Cahn-Hilliard toy ODE model,  $\alpha = 0.01$ . The arrows denote the direction of the deterministic flow, the color its magnitude. The white dashed line corresponds to the slow manifold. The solid line depicts the minimizer, the dashed line the heteroclinic orbit. Markers are located at the fixed points (circle: stable; square: saddle).



#### Allen-Cahn/Cahn-Hilliard System

Consider next the SPDE

$$\phi_t = \frac{1}{\alpha} P(\kappa \phi_{xx} + \phi - \phi^3) - \phi + \sqrt{\epsilon} \eta(x, t)$$

where P is an operator with zero spatial mean and  $\eta(x,t)$  a spatiotemporal white-noise.





**Fig. 5** Transition pathways between two stable fixed points of equation (56) in the limit  $\varepsilon \to 0$ . Left: heteroclinic orbit, defining the deterministic relaxation dynamics from the unstable point *S* down to either *A* or *B*. Right: Minimizer of the geometric action, defining the most probable transition pathway from *A* to *B*, following the slow manifold up to *X*, where it starts to nearly deterministically travel close to the separatrix into *S*.

**Fig. 4** The configurations A, B, S, X in space:  $\phi_A$  and  $\phi_B$  are the two stable fixed points,  $\phi_S$  is the unstable fixed point on the separatrix in between. At point  $\phi_X$ , the slow manifold intersects the separatrix.



where P is an operator with zero spatial mean and  $\eta(x,t)$  a spatiotemporal white-noise.



Consider the bi-stable chemical reaction network

$$A \stackrel{k_0}{\underset{k_1}{\Longrightarrow}} X, \qquad 2X + B \stackrel{k_2}{\underset{k_3}{\Longrightarrow}} 3X$$

with rates  $k_i > 0$ , and where the concentrations of A and B are held constant.

Its dynamics can be modeled as a Markov jump process (MJP) with generator

$$(L^R f)(n) = A_+(n) \left( f(n-1) - f(n) \right) + A_-(n) \left( f(n+1) - f(n) \right)$$

with the propensity functions

$$\begin{cases} A_{+}(n) &= k_{0}V + (k_{2}/V)n(n-1) \\ A_{-}(n) &= k_{1}n + (k_{3}/V^{2})n(n-1)(n-2) . \end{cases}$$

Denote by c = n/V the concentration of X, and normalize it by a typical concentration,  $\rho = c/c_0$ . Set  $\varepsilon = 1/(c_0V)$  and rescale time by  $\varepsilon$ :

$$(L_{\epsilon}^{R}f)(\rho) = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left( a_{+}(\rho) \left( f(\rho - \epsilon) - f(\rho) \right) + a_{-}(\rho) \left( f(\rho + \epsilon) - f(\rho) \right) \right),$$

where

$$\begin{cases} a_{+}(\rho) &= \lambda_{0} + \lambda_{2}\rho^{2} \\ a_{-}(\rho) &= \lambda_{1}\rho + \lambda_{3}\rho^{3}. \end{cases}$$

Large deviation principle can be formally obtained via WKB analysis, that is, by setting  $f(\rho) = e^{\epsilon^{-1}G(\rho)}$  and expanding in  $\epsilon$ . To leading order in  $\epsilon$ , this gives an Hamilton-Jacobi operator associated with an Hamiltonian that is also the one rigorously derived in LDT:

$$H(\rho,\vartheta) = a_+(\rho)(e^\vartheta - 1) + a_-(\rho)(e^{-\vartheta} - 1).$$

Consider N neighboring reaction compartments, each well-stirred, but with random jumps possible between neighboring compartments.

Denote by  $\rho_i$  the concentration in the *i*-th compartment and refer to the vector  $\rho$  as the complete state,  $\rho = \sum_{i=0}^{N} \rho_i \hat{e}_i$ . In this case, we obtain a diffusive part of the generator,  $L^D$ , coupling neighboring compartments. For a diffusivity D, it is

$$(L^{D}f)(\boldsymbol{\rho}) = \frac{D}{\epsilon} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho_{i} \left( f(\boldsymbol{\rho} - \epsilon \hat{e}_{i} + \epsilon \hat{e}_{i-1}) + f(\boldsymbol{\rho} - \epsilon \hat{e}_{i} + \epsilon \hat{e}_{i+1}) - 2f(\boldsymbol{\rho}) \right) \,.$$

The process associated with this generator also admits a large deviation principle with Hamiltonian

$$H^{D}(\boldsymbol{\rho},\boldsymbol{\vartheta}) = D \sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho_{i} \left( e^{\vartheta_{i-1}-\vartheta_{i}} + e^{\vartheta_{i+1}-\vartheta_{i}} - 2 \right) ,$$

Full Hamiltonian becomes

$$H(\boldsymbol{\rho}, \boldsymbol{\vartheta}) = H^{D}(\boldsymbol{\rho}, \boldsymbol{\vartheta}) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} H^{R}(\rho_{i}, \vartheta_{i})$$



Fig. 15 Bi-Stable reaction-diffusion model with N = 2 reaction cells. Show are the forward (red) and backward (green) transitions between the two stable fixed points, in comparison to the heteroclinic orbit (dashed). The flow-lines depict the deterministic dynamics, their magnitude is indicated by the background shading.







#### **Fast-Slow Systems**

Systems with a slow variable X evolving on a timescale O(1) and a fast variable Y on a time scale  $O(\alpha)$ :

$$\dot{X} = f(X, Y)$$
$$dY = \frac{1}{\alpha}b(X, Y)dt + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}}\sigma(X, Y)dW.$$

Limit behavior captured by Law of large numbers (LLN):

$$\dot{X} = F(\bar{X})$$
 where  $F(x) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(x, Y_x(\tau)) d\tau$ 

Small deviations captured by Central Limit Theorem (CLT); large deviation captured by LDP with the Hamiltonian

$$H(x,\vartheta) = \lim_{T\to\infty} \frac{1}{T} \log \mathbb{E} \exp\left(\vartheta \int_0^T f(x, Y_x(t)) dt\right),$$

#### Fast-Slow Systems - Example

$$\begin{cases} \dot{X}_1 = Y_1^2 - \beta_1 X_1 - D(X_1 - X_2) \\ \dot{X}_2 = Y_2^2 - \beta_2 X_2 - D(X_2 - X_1) \\ dY_1 = -\frac{1}{\alpha} \gamma(X_1) Y_1 dt + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\alpha}} dW_1 \\ dY_2 = -\frac{1}{\alpha} \gamma(X_2) Y_2 dt + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\alpha}} dW_2 . \end{cases}$$

$$H(x_1, x_2, \vartheta_1, \vartheta_2) = h(x_1, \vartheta_1) + h(x_2, \vartheta_2) + \langle -\nabla U(x_1, x_2), \vartheta \rangle,$$
$$U(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} D(x - y)^2$$
$$h(x, \vartheta) = -\beta x \vartheta + \frac{1}{2} \left( \gamma(x) - \sqrt{\gamma^2(x) - 2\sigma^2 \vartheta} \right).$$
$$\gamma(X) = (X - 5)^2 + 1$$







### Conclusions

• LDT can guide the development of numerical tools that bypass the brute-force integration of SPDE.

• Gives rough estimate of probability, along with the path of maximum likelihood by which the event occurs.

Applicable to systems in detailed-balance or not, on finite or unbounded time intervals.

• Can be integrated in importance sampling procedures and data assimilation techniques.

• Can also be used in other context, e.g. to understand stochastic resonance effects in excitable media, phase transition in unbounded domains, etc.

 More challenging are situations where LDT does not apply directly because entropic effects are non-negligible.

# Some other applications

#### > Thermally induced magnetization reversal in submicron ferromagnetic elements



Practical side of LDT - Dynamics can be reduced to a Markov jump process on energy map, whose nodes are the energy minima and whose edges are the minimum energy paths.



#### with Weinan E and Weiqing Ren



Hydrophobic collapse of a polymeric chain by dewetting transition

with Tommy Miller and David Chandler

Rate limiting step is entropic - creation of a water bubble





# Beyond LDT - when entropy matters

- LDT can fail if entropic effects matter
  - many alternative paths for the event, with lower probability individually, but large one globally.
- These situations require a more general approach to rare event analysis.









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