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Stochastic Modeling and Simulation

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Abstract

As a student of Scientific and Data Intensive Computing, I've created these notes while attending the **Stochastic Modeling and Simulation** course.

The course covers a wide range of topics, including Stochastic Nonlinear Models in different application fields (as physics, biomedicine, mathematics, ...), Stochastic Differential Equations, and Stochastic Simulation.

The topics covered in these notes include:

- Recap of Deterministic Models
- Stochastic Differential Equations and White Noise
- Fokker Planck Equation
- Noise-induced Transitions
- Colored noises
- Bounded Stochastic Processes
- Spatio-temporal Stochastic Processes
- Parameter Estimation from Data
- Stochasticity ...
- ...
- Continuous state space-discrete time Stochastic Processes
- Discrete Time Markov Chains
- Continuous Time Markov Chains
- Mean Field Approximation

While these notes were primarily created for my personal study, they may serve as a valuable resource for fellow students and professionals interested in Stochastic Modeling and Simulation.

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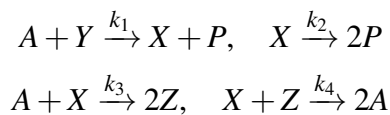
Introduction

Different fields as Epidemics spreading, Cancer growth, and many others, can be modeled using Stochastic Differential Equations (SDEs).

An example is SIR model for epidemics spreading, formulized during a huge cholera infection in early 19th century. The model is based on three compartments: Susceptible, Infected, and Recovered individuals. This is modeled using a system of SDEs.

Often stochastic models represents well the problem, but real data are noisy and chaotic. For instance often we have to deal with data varying spatially and temporally, and we have to deal with the problem of parameter estimation.

Example: Oscillating chemical system



Other examples are preys and predators models,

...

Renewable energies introduces a high volatility and unpredictability in energy production

If the demand of energy exceeds the production, we need to activate standard plans, to reduce consumption by switching off devices (e.g. water boilers remotely controlled), or to activate additional production plants. All these scenarios are complex systems.

Definition: *Complex System*

A **complex system** is a system composed of interconnected parts that as a whole exhibit one or more properties (behavior among the possible properties) not obvious from the properties of the individual parts.

Emergent behavior is a property of complex systems, and it is not predictable from the behavior of the individual parts.

Definition: *Adaptivity and self-organization*

- **Adaption** meand achieving a fit between the system and its environment.
- **Self-organization** is the process where a system changes its structure spontaneously, in order to adapt to the environment.

An instance of self-organization is the formation of a flock of birds, where each bird follows simple rules, but the flock as a whole exhibits a complex behavior.

Observation: *Noise and Nonlinearities*

Noise and nonlinearities can (sometimes) favor the emergence of "order".

1.1 Modelling complex systems

Math for quantitative models

We will be interested in the temporal behavior of the system, and we will use some key ingredients for the maths:

- **Entities** can be modelled as *discrete* objects or *continuous* quantities.
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- **Time** can be *discrete* or *continuous*.

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Data-Based vs Model-Based Approaches

Will data approaches make the kind of modelling obsolete?

Hybrid approaches are possible:

1. Math models can be joined/hybridized with machine learning models.
2. Deep Network to learn modules or whole math models
An example is *Physics-informed neural networks*: A deep learning framework for solving forward and inverse problems involving nonlinear partial differential equations
3. ...

Definition: *Dynamical System*

A **dynamical system** is a system whose state evolves over time according to a rule that depends on the current state.

[definition of differential equations]

Definition: *Differential Equation*

A **differential equation** is an equation that relates one or more unknown functions and their derivatives.

In practice, differential equations are mathematical instruments that describe the world around us. A notable differential equation (maybe the first ever invented) is the Newton law:

$$F = ma \quad \Rightarrow \quad m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = F(x(t))$$

1.2 Tumor Size over Time

Let's consider an example case of a tumor growth. Let's assume that $X(t)$ is the size of a tumor at time t .

The differential equation that describes the growth of the tumor is:

$$X(t + dt) = X(t) + \Phi X(t) - MX(t)$$

where Φ is the growth rate and M is the decay rate.

We can rewrite the equation as:

$$\frac{X(t + dt) - X(t)}{dt} = X(t) \frac{(\Phi - M)}{dt}$$

Let's rewrite Φ and M as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi &= bdt + O(dt^2) \\ M &= mdt + O(dt^2) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{We neglect the higher order terms})$$

We obtain the following differential equation:

$$\frac{X(t + dt) - X(t)}{dt} = X(t)(b - m) \Rightarrow \frac{dX}{dt} = X(b - m)$$

Often we have a starting condition $X(0) = X_0$. Defining $a = b - m$, the system becomes:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dX}{dt} = aX \\ X(0) = X_0 \end{cases}$$

Since makes no sense to have a negative time or tumor size, we have the constraints:

$$\begin{cases} t \in \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\} \\ X \in \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{0\} \end{cases}$$

The solution is given by:

$$X(t) = X_0 e^{at}$$

$$X(t + dt) = X(t) + bdtX - mdtX - \theta dtX$$

$$\dot{X} = (a - \theta)X \quad X(0) = X_0$$

dunque la soluzione è:

$$X(t) = X_0 e^{(a-\theta)t}$$

In questo caso, per $a > \theta$, il tumore cresce esponenzialmente, mentre per $a < \theta$, il tumore decresce esponenzialmente.

Nella realtà però il valore θ non è costante nel tempo, ma varia nel tempo. In tal caso il sistema diventa:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{X} = (a - \theta(t))X \\ X(0) = X_0 \end{cases}$$

e la soluzione è:

$$X(t) = X_0 e^{\int_0^t (a - \theta(s)) ds}$$

Più in generale, un sistema del tipo:

$$z(y) = e^{G(y)} b$$

si ha

$$\frac{dz}{dy} = \frac{d}{dy} e^{G(y)} b = e^{G(y)} b \frac{dG}{dy} = G'(y) z(y)$$

Esempio:

$$\begin{cases} Z'(t) = \sin(t) Z(t) \\ Z(0) = Z_0 \end{cases}$$

Si ha:

$$\begin{cases} Z(t) = e^{-\cos(t)} B \\ Z_0 = e^{-1} B \end{cases} \Rightarrow Z(t) = e^{1-\cos(t)} z_0$$

1.3 Stably and Eq. Points

1.3.1 Equilibrium Points

Given the system:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = f(x) \\ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases}$$

An equilibrium point is a point x^* such that $f(x^*) = 0$.

💡 **Tip: Eq. points**

A system can have multiple equilibrium points.

We have three kinds of equilibrium:

- **Stable equilibrium:** if the system is in the neighborhood of the equilibrium point, it will remain there.
- **Neutral equilibrium:** if the system is in the neighborhood of the equilibrium point, it will remain there, but it will not return to it.
- **Unstable equilibrium:** if the system is in the neighborhood of the equilibrium point, it will move away from it.

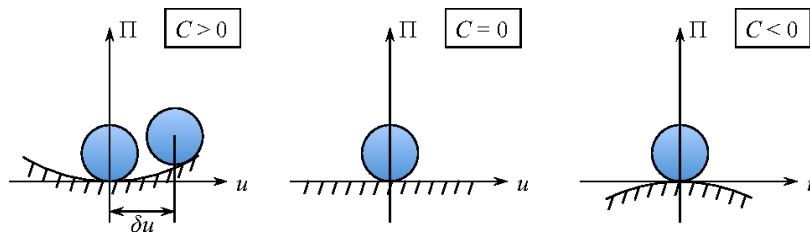


Figure 1.1: Stable, Natural and Unstable Equilibrium Points [1]

1.3.2 Stability

We say that a system is **Globally Asymptotically Stable** (or *Globally Attractive*) if it is stable and if it converges to the equilibrium point from any initial condition.

1.4 Local Analysis Near the Equilibrium Point

In this section, we study the system in the neighborhood of the equilibrium point. Let the initial condition be a small perturbation around the equilibrium:

$$X(0) = X_e + \varepsilon.$$

We introduce a deviation function $U(t)$ defined by

$$X(t) = X_e + U(t),$$

with the initial condition

$$U(0) = \varepsilon.$$

Thus, the evolution of the perturbation is governed by

$$\begin{cases} \dot{U} = f(X_e + U), \\ U(0) = \varepsilon. \end{cases}$$

Assume that the dynamics of the system are given by

$$\dot{X} = X(b(X) - m(X)).$$

Then the perturbed system becomes

$$\dot{U} = (b(X_e + U) - m(X_e + U))(X_e + U).$$

Expanding $b(X_e + U)$ and $m(X_e + U)$ in a Taylor series around X_e , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} b(X_e + U) &\approx b(X_e) + b'(X_e)U, \\ m(X_e + U) &\approx m(X_e) + m'(X_e)U. \end{aligned}$$

Substituting these into the equation for \dot{U} , we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{U} &= [b(X_e) + b'(X_e)U] - [m(X_e) + m'(X_e)U] (X_e + U) \\ &= [b(X_e) + b'(X_e)U] - [m(X_e)X_e + m(X_e)U + m'(X_e)X_eU + m'(X_e)U^2]. \end{aligned}$$

Since the equilibrium condition implies that

$$(b(X_e) - m(X_e))X_e = 0,$$

the above expression simplifies (neglecting the higher-order term $m'(X_e)U^2$) to:

$$\dot{U} \approx [b'(X_e) - m(X_e) - m'(X_e)X_e] U.$$

Under the assumption that $b'(X_e)$ is negative, we can express this as

$$\dot{U} \approx -X_e (|b'(X_e)| + m'(X_e)) U.$$

The solution of this linearized differential equation is given by:

$$U(t) = U(0) e^{-X_e(|b'(X_e)| + m'(X_e))t}.$$

Hence, we identify the decay rate (or the inverse of the characteristic time constant) as

$$X_e \left(|b'(X_e)| + m'(X_e) \right),$$

and the characteristic time τ is:

$$\tau = \frac{1}{X_e (|b'(X_e)| + m'(X_e))}.$$

This time constant represents the rate at which perturbations decay in the vicinity of the equilibrium point.

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$$X(t) = X_e + U(t) \Rightarrow \dot{U} = f(X_e + U) = \underbrace{f(X_e)}_{=0} + f'(X_e)U + O(U^2)$$

$$\dot{U} = f'(X_e)U \Rightarrow U(t) = U(0)e^{f'(X_e)t}$$

So we have:

$$\begin{cases} f'(X_e) < 0 & \Rightarrow X_e \text{ is Locally Asintotically stable} \\ f'(X_e) > 0 & \Rightarrow X_e \text{ is Unstable} \end{cases}$$

1.5 Non-scalar Systems

Consider the system:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = f(x) \\ x \in \{ \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \end{cases}$$

As in the scalar case, we can linearize the system around the equilibrium point x_e :

$$f(X_e) = 0$$

$$X = X_e + U, \quad |U| \ll 1$$

We have to consider the Jacobian matrix of f :

...

1.6 Exponential of a Matrix

Let's consider a linear system of the form:

$$\dot{x} = Ax$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a matrix. The solution of this system is given by:

$$x(t) = e^{At}x(0)$$

where e^{At} is the exponential of the matrix A .

Definition: Exponential of a Matrix

Given a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the exponential of A is defined as:

$$e^A = I + A + \frac{A^2}{2!} + \frac{A^3}{3!} + \cdots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^k}{k!}$$

This comes from the Taylor series expansion of the exponential function.

$$\frac{d}{dt}e^{At} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} A^m m \frac{t^{m-1}}{m(m-1)!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A A^k \frac{t^k}{k!} = A e^{At}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= H \cdot \text{Diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n) \cdot H^{-1} \\ A^2 &= H \cdot \text{Diag}(\lambda_1^2, \lambda_2^2, \dots, \lambda_n^2) \cdot H^{-1} \\ A^m &= H \cdot \text{Diag}(\lambda_1^m, \lambda_2^m, \dots, \lambda_n^m) \cdot H^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

So we have:

$$e^{At} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{A^m t^m}{m!} =$$

An example of a matrix exponential is given by the Newton's law:

$$m\ddot{x} = F$$

Let's consider a more complex case with air resistance γ :

$$m\ddot{x} = -\gamma\dot{x} - F(x)$$

We can rewrite this system as:

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Lecture 10/03/2024

Last lecture we saw that we can approximate a non-linear system with a linear one, locally in an equilibrium point.

Let's consider an electric circuit, if the electrical field is not static, it generates a variable magnetic field and viceversa.

$$\begin{cases} \Phi = Li \\ Ri = -\frac{d\Phi(\vec{B})}{dt} = -\frac{d(Li)}{dt} \end{cases}$$

We can write this system in the cauchy form:

$$\begin{cases} \frac{di}{dt} = -\frac{R}{L}i \\ i(0) = i_0 \end{cases}$$

The solution is:

$$i(t) = i_0 e^{-\frac{R}{L}t}$$

$$L \frac{di}{dt} + Ri + V_c = 0$$

$$VC = Q$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} i \\ q \end{bmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{R}{L} & -\frac{1}{LC} \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$m\ddot{x} = \gamma\dot{x} + kx$$

2.1 Dirak Delta

If you consider a football player that kicks a ball, the force is not constant, and it is not possible to model it with a constant force. We can model it with a Dirac Delta function.

$$\begin{cases} m\ddot{x} = m\dot{v} = F(t) \\ v(0) = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow mv_{after} = \int_0^a F(t)dt \Rightarrow v_{after} = \frac{1}{m} \int_0^a F(t)dt$$

So the Dirac Delta function is a function that is zero everywhere except in zero, where it is infinite. It is used to model impulses.

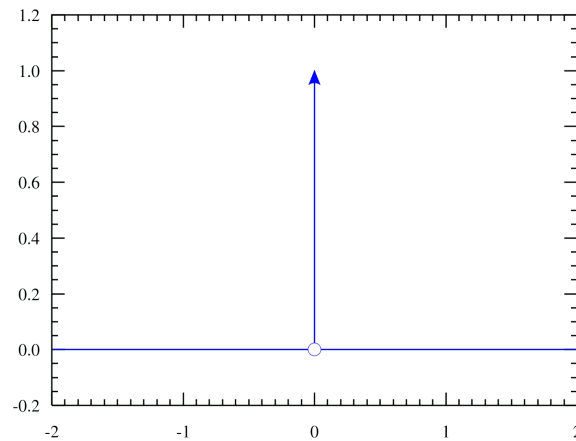


Figure 2.1: Dirac Delta Function

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Let's consider a function $f(t)$ such that $f(0) < \infty$ and $f'(0) < \infty$. We can calculate:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) f(t) dt = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) [f(0) + f'(0)t] dt = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) f(0) dt + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) f'(0)t dt$$

Now, we use two key properties of the Dirac delta function:

1. **Sifting Property:**

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) dt = 1.$$

2. **First Moment:**

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) t dt = 0,$$

which follows because $t\delta(t)$ is an odd function.

Substituting these results, we obtain:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta(t) f(t) dt = f(0) \cdot 1 + f'(0) \cdot 0 = f(0).$$

...

2.2 Random Processes

$$\langle x(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_{Ri}(t)$$

$$m_i \ddot{x}_i = -\gamma \dot{x}_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad m_i \dot{v}_i = -\gamma v_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{v}_i = -\frac{\gamma}{m_i} v_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \boxed{v_i(t) = v_i(0) e^{-(\gamma/m_i)t}}$$

$$\boxed{m\dot{v} = -\gamma v + \hat{F}_s(t)}$$

$$m\ddot{x} = -k\dot{x} + \hat{F}_p(x) + \hat{F}_s(t)$$

$$m\ddot{x} = -k\dot{x} + kf(x) + kf_s(t)$$

$$\frac{m}{k}\ddot{x} = -\dot{x} + f(x) + f_s(t)$$

$$\frac{m}{k}\ddot{x} \ll 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{m}{k}\ddot{x} \approx 0$$

$$\dot{x} \simeq f(x) + f_s(t) = f(x) + \omega \xi(t)$$

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Bibliography

- [1] “2.080 Structural Mechanics Stability of Elastic Structures”. In: 2014. URL: <https://api.semanticscholar.org/CorpusID:30595920>.

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