

1 Lyapunov Function

Notation 1. Overall notations in this section are:

- \mathcal{M} a manifold, and μ its measure, e.g. $\mu(x) = \sqrt{g(x)}$ if \mathcal{M} is Riemannian with metric g_{ab} ;
- if $p(x)$ the distribution of random variable X , then

$$\langle f \rangle_p = \langle f \rangle_X := \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x) f(x);$$

- if D is a set of samples, then

$$\langle f \rangle_D := \frac{1}{|D|} \sum_{x \in D} f(x);$$

- let $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ denotes normal distribution with mean μ and covariance Σ ;
- given function g , let $f\{g\}$, or $f_{\{g\}}$, denote a function constructed out of g , that is,

$$f\{\cdot\}: (\mathcal{M} \rightarrow A) \rightarrow (\mathcal{M} \rightarrow B);$$

- for conditional maps f , let $f(x|y)$ denotes the map of x with y given and fixed, and $f(x; y)$ denotes the map of x with y given but mutable;
- r.v. is short for random variable, i.i.d. for independent identically distributed, s.t. for such that, and a.e. for almost every.

1 Relaxation

Next, we illustrate how, during a non-equilibrium process, a distribution p relaxes to its stationary distribution q , and how this process relates to the variational inference. Further, we try to find the most generic dynamics that underlies the non-equilibrium to equilibrium process, on both macroscopic (distribution) and microscopic (“particle”) viewpoints.

First, we shall define what relaxation is, via free energy.

Definition 2. [Free Energy]

Let $E(x): \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Define stationary distribution

$$q_E(x) := \frac{\exp(-E(x)/T)}{Z},$$

where $T > 0$ and $Z_E := \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) \exp(-E(x)/T)$. Given E , for any time-dependent distribution $p(x, t)$, define free energy as

$$F_E[p(\cdot, t)] := T D_{\text{KL}}(p \| q_E) - T \ln Z_E = T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) \ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q_E(x)} - T \ln Z_E.$$

Or, equivalently,

$$F_E[p(\cdot, t)] := \langle E \rangle_{p(\cdot, t)} - TH[p(\cdot, t)],$$

where entropy functional $H[p(\cdot, t)] := \langle -\ln p(\cdot, t) \rangle_p$.

Definition 3. [Relaxation]

For a time-dependent distribution $p(x, t)$ on \mathcal{M} , we say p relaxes to q_E if and only if the free energy $F_E[p(\cdot, t)]$ monotonically decreases to its minimum, where $p(\cdot, t) = q_E$.

We can visualize this relaxation process by an imaginary ensemble of juggling “particles” (or “bees”). Initially, they are arbitrarily positioned. This forms a distribution of “particles” p . With some underlying dynamics, these “particles” moves and finally the distribution relaxes, if it can, to a stationary distribution q_E . Apparently, the underlying dynamics and the E are correlated. We first provide a way of peeping the underlying dynamics, that is, the “flux”.

Lemma 4. [Conservation of “Mass”]

For any time-dependent distribution $p(x, t)$, there exists a “flux” $f^a\{p\}(x, t)$ s.t.

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, t) + \nabla_a(f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)) = 0.$$

What is the dynamics of p by which any initial p will finally relax to q_E ? That is, what is the sufficient (and essential) condition of relaxing to q_E for any p ? Because of the conservation of “mass”, the dynamics of p , i.e. $\partial p / \partial t$, is determined by a “flux”, f^a . Thus, this sufficient (and essential) condition must be about the f^a .

Lemma 5. *Given p and (x, t) , for any $f^a\{p\}(x, t)$, we can always construct a $K^{ab}\{p\}(x, t)$ s.t.*

$$f^a\{p\}(x, t) = -K^{ab}\{p\}(x, t) \nabla_b\{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\}.$$

Proof. For any vector f^a and v_a , we can always construct a tensor K^{ab} s.t. $f^a = K^{ab} v_b$. Indeed, we can rotate v_a to the direction of f^a and then dimension-wise rescale to f^a . This rotation and dimension-wise rescaling compose the linear transform K^{ab} . Now, letting

$$v_a = -\nabla_a\{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\},$$

we arrive at the conclusion. \square

Now, we claim a sufficient condition of relaxing to q_E for any p .

Theorem 6. *[Fokker-Planck Equation]*

If, for any p and t , the symmetric part of $K^{ab}\{p\}(x, t)$ is a.e. positive definite on \mathcal{M} , then any p evolves by this “flux” will relax to q_E .

Proof. Directly

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF_E}{dt}[p(\cdot, t)] &= T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, t) \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \\ \{\text{Conservation of mass}\} &= -T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) \nabla_a[f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)] \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right]. \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\nabla_a[f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)] \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] = \nabla_a \left\{ [f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)] \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \right\} - [f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)] \nabla_a \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right],$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF_E}{dt}[p(\cdot, t)] &= -T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) \nabla_a[f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)] \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \\ &= -T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) \nabla_a \left\{ [f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)] \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \right\} \\ &\quad + T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) [f^a\{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)] \nabla_a \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \\ [\text{Divergence theorem}] &= -T \int_{\partial\mathcal{M}} dS_a p(x, t) f^a\{p\}(x, t) \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \\ &\quad + T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) f^a\{p\}(x, t) \nabla_a \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \end{aligned}$$

The first term vanishes.¹ Then, direct calculus shows

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF_E}{dt}[p(\cdot, t)] &= T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) f^a\{p\}(x, t) \nabla_a \left[\ln \frac{p(x, t)}{q(x)} + 1 \right] \\ &= T \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) f^a\{p\}(x, t) [\nabla_a \ln p(x, t) - \nabla_a \ln q(x)] \\ \{q(x) := \dots\} &= \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) f^a\{p\}(x, t) [T \nabla_a \ln p(x, t) + \nabla_a E(x)] \\ &= \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) f^a\{p\}(x, t) \nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\}. \end{aligned}$$

By the previous lemma, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF_E}{dt}[p(\cdot, t)] &= \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) f^a\{p\}(x, t) \nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} \\ \{f^a = \dots\} &= - \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) K^{ab}\{p\}(x, t) \nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} \nabla_b \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\}. \end{aligned}$$

¹. To-do: Explain the reason explicitly.

Letting $S^{ab} := (K^{ab} + K^{ba})/2$ and $A^{ab} := (K^{ab} - K^{ba})/2$, we have $K^{ab} = S^{ab} + A^{ab}$, where S^{ab} is symmetric and A^{ab} anti-symmetric. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dF_E}{dt}[p(\cdot, t)] &= - \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) [S^{ab}\{p\}(x, t) + A^{ab}\{p\}(x, t)] \nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} \nabla_b \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} \\ \{A^{ab} = A^{ba}\} &= - \int_{\mathcal{M}} d\mu(x) p(x, t) S^{ab}\{p\}(x, t) \nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} \nabla_b \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\}. \end{aligned}$$

The condition claims that $S^{ab}\{p\}(x, t)$ is positive definite for any p and (x, t) . Then, the integrand is a positive definite quadratic form, being positive if and only if $\nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} \neq 0$. Then, we find $(dF_E/dt)[p(\cdot, t)] < 0$ as long as $\nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} \neq 0$ at some x , i.e. $p \neq q$, and $(dF_E/dt)[p(\cdot, t)] = 0$ if and only if $\nabla_a \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} = 0$ for $\forall x$, i.e. $p = q$. Thus proof ends. \square

Remark 7. [Sufficient but Not Essential]

However, this is not an essential condition of relaxing to q_E for any p . Indeed, we proved the integrand of $(dF_E/dt)[p(\cdot, t)]$ is negative everywhere, which implies the integral, i.e. $(dF_E/dt)[p(\cdot, t)]$, is negative. But, we cannot exclude the case where the integrand is not negative everywhere, whereas the integral is still negative. During the proof, this is the only place that leads to the non-essential-ness, which is hard to overcome.

As the dynamics of distribution is a macroscopic viewpoint, the microscopic viewpoint, i.e. the stochastic dynamics of single “particle”², is as follow.

Theorem 8. [Stochastic Dynamics]

If K^{ab} is symmetric, independent of p and almost everywhere smooth on \mathcal{M}^3 , then Fokker-Planck equation is equivalent to the stochastic dynamics

$$dx^a = [T \nabla_b K^{ab}(x, t) - K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b E(x)] dt + \sqrt{2T} dW^a(x, t),$$

where

$$dW \sim \mathcal{N}(0, K(x, t) dt).$$

Proof. By the lemma 20, we find

$$\mu^a(x, t) = T \nabla_b K^{ab}(x, t) - K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b E(x)$$

and

$$\Sigma^{ab}(x, t) = 2TK^{ab}(x, t).$$

Then, directly,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, t) &= -\nabla_a \{p(x, t) \mu^a(x, t)\} + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_a \nabla_b (p(x, t) \Sigma^{ab}(x, t)) \\ &= \nabla_a \{p(x, t) [K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b E(x) - T \nabla_b K^{ab}(x, t)]\} + \nabla_a \nabla_b \{Tp(x, t) K^{ab}(x, t)\} \\ \{\text{Expand}\} &= \nabla_a \{K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b E(x) p(x, t)\} - \nabla_a \{T \nabla_b K^{ab}(x, t) p(x, t)\} \\ &\quad + \nabla_a \{TK^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b p(x, t)\} + \nabla_a \{T \nabla_b K^{ab}(x, t) p(x, t)\} \\ &= \nabla_a \{K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b E(x) p(x, t)\} + \nabla_a \{TK^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b p(x, t)\}, \end{aligned}$$

which is just the Fokker-Planck equation. Indeed, the Fokker-Planck equation 6 is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, t) &= -\nabla_a (f^a \{p\}(x, t) p(x, t)) \\ \{f^a = \dots\} &= \nabla_a (K^{ab} \{p\}(x, t) \nabla_b \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} p(x, t)) \\ \{K^{ab} \text{ independent of } p\} &= \nabla_a (K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b \{T \ln p(x, t) + E(x)\} p(x, t)) \\ \{\text{Expand}\} &= \nabla_a \{K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b E(x) p(x, t)\} + \nabla_a \{TK^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b p(x, t)\}, \end{aligned}$$

exactly the same. Thus proof ends. \square

Question 1. Given a stochastic dynamics, how can we determine if there exists the E , or the stationary distribution q_E ?

Question 2. Further, if it exists, then how can we reveal it? Precisely, in the case $T \rightarrow 0$, given $(dx^a/dt) = h^a(x, t)$, how can we reconstruct the E and find a positive definite K^{ab} , s.t. $h^a(x) = K^{ab}(x, t) \nabla_b E(x)$?

2. For the conception of stochastic dynamics, c.f. B.2.

3. **TODO: Check this.**

2 Ambient & Latent Variables

In the real world, there can be two types of variables: ambient and latent. The ambient variables are those observed directly, like sensory inputs or experimental observations. While the latent are usually more simple and basic aspects, like wave-function in QM.

We formulate the E as a function of $(v, h) \in \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{H}$, where v , for visible, represents the ambient and h , for hidden, represents the latent. Then, we extend the free energy to

Definition 9. [Conditional Free Energy]

Given v , if define

$$Z_E(v) := \int_{\mathcal{H}} d\mu(h) \exp(-E(v, h)/T),$$

then we have a conditional free energy of distribution $p(h)$ defined as

$$F_E[p|v] := TD_{KL}(p \| q_E(\cdot|v)) - T \ln Z_E(v).$$

Directly, we have

Lemma 10.

$$q_E(h|v) = \frac{\exp(-E(v, h)/T)}{\int_{\mathcal{H}} d\mu(h) \exp(-E(v, h)/T)},$$

which is simply the q_E with the v in the $E(v, h)$ fixed.

Thus,

Theorem 11.

$$F_E[p|v] = \langle E(v, \cdot) \rangle_p - TH[p].$$

3 Minimize Free Energy Principle

If E is in a function family parameterized by $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^N$, denoted as $E(x; \theta)$, then we want to find the most generic distribution q_E in the function family of E s.t. the expectation $\langle E(\cdot; \theta) \rangle_{q_E(\cdot; \theta)}$ is minimized. For instance, given ambient v , we want to locate v on the minimum of E , that is $\langle E(v, \cdot; \theta) \rangle_{q_E(\cdot|v; \theta)}$ (c.f. lemma 10).

On one hand, we want to minimize $\langle E(\cdot; \theta) \rangle_{q_E(\cdot; \theta)}$; on the other hand, we shall keep the minimal prior knowledge on $q_E(\cdot; \theta)$, that is, maximize $H[q_E(\cdot; \theta)]$. So, we find the θ that minimizes $\langle E(\cdot; \theta) \rangle_{q_E(\cdot; \theta)} - TH[q_E(\cdot; \theta)]$, where the positive constant T balances the two aspects. This happens to be the free energy.

Next, we propose an algorithm that establishes the free energy minimization. First, notice the relation

Lemma 12.
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta^\alpha} \{-T \ln Z_E(\cdot; \theta)\} = \left\langle \frac{\partial E}{\partial \theta^\alpha}(\cdot; \theta) \right\rangle_{q_E(\cdot; \theta)}.$$

So, we have an EM-like algorithm, as

Algorithm 13. [Recall and Learn (RL)]

To minimize free energy $F_E[p|v]$, we have two steps:

1. minimize $\langle E(\cdot; \theta) \rangle_p - TH[p]$ by the stochastic dynamics until relaxation, where $p = q_E(\cdot; \theta)$; then
2. minimize $-T \ln Z_E(\cdot; \theta)$ by gradient descent and replacing $\left\langle \frac{\partial E}{\partial \theta^\alpha}(\cdot; \theta) \right\rangle_{q_E(\cdot; \theta)} \rightarrow \left\langle \frac{\partial E}{\partial \theta^\alpha}(\cdot; \theta) \right\rangle_p$.

By repeating these two steps, we get smaller and smaller free energy.

For instance, in a brain, the first step can be illustrated as recalling, and the second as learning (searching for a more proper memory, or code of information). So we call this algorithm *recall and learn*.

4 Example: Continuous Hopfield Network

Here, we provide a biological inspired example, for illustrating both the stochastic dynamics 8 and the RL algorithm 13.

Definition 14. *[Continuous Hopfield Network]⁴*

Let $U^{\alpha\beta}$ and I^α constants, and $L_v(v)$ and $L_h(h)$ scalar functions. Define $f_\alpha := \partial_\alpha L_h$, $g_\alpha := \partial_\alpha L_v$. Then the dynamics of continuous Hopfield network is defined as

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dv^\alpha}{dt} &= U^{\alpha\beta} f_\beta(h) - v^\alpha + I^\alpha; \\ \frac{dh^\alpha}{dt} &= U^{\beta\alpha} g_\beta(v) - h^\alpha,\end{aligned}$$

where U describes the strength of connection between neurons, and f, g the activation functions of latent and ambient, respectively. Further, we have the E constructed as

$$E(v, h) = [(v^\alpha - I^\alpha) g_\alpha(v) - L_v(v)] + [h^\alpha f_\alpha(h) - L_h(h)] - U_{\alpha\beta} g^\alpha(v) f^\beta(h).$$

Next, we convert this deterministic dynamics to its stochastic version.

Theorem 15. *If $f = \partial L_h$ and $g = \partial L_v$ are piecewise linear functions⁵, and the Hessian matrix of L_v and L_h are positive definite, then the stochastic dynamics of the continuous Hopfield network is*

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dv^\alpha}{dt} &= K_v^{\alpha\beta}(v) [U_{\beta\gamma} f^\gamma(h) - v_\beta + I_\beta] + \sqrt{2T} dW_v^\alpha; \\ \frac{dh^\alpha}{dt} &= K_h^{\alpha\beta}(h) [U_{\gamma\beta} g^\gamma(v) - h_\beta] + \sqrt{2T} dW_h^\alpha,\end{aligned}$$

where $K_v(v) := [\partial^2 L_v(v)]^{-1}$ and $K_h(h) := [\partial^2 L_h(h)]^{-1}$ are piecewise constant matrices.⁶

Proof. Directly, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial E}{\partial v^\alpha}(v, h) &= g_\alpha(v) + (v^\beta - I^\beta) \frac{\partial g_\beta(v)}{\partial v^\alpha} - \frac{\partial L_v(v)}{\partial v^\alpha} - U^{\beta\gamma} f_\gamma(h) \frac{\partial g_\beta(v)}{\partial v^\alpha} \\ \left\{ g_\alpha = \frac{\partial L_v}{\partial v^\alpha} \right\} &= -[U^{\beta\gamma} f_\gamma(h) + v^\beta - I^\beta] \frac{\partial g_\beta(v)}{\partial v^\alpha};\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial E}{\partial h^\alpha}(v, h) &= f_\alpha(h) + h^\beta \frac{\partial f_\beta(h)}{\partial h^\alpha} - \frac{\partial L_h(h)}{\partial h^\alpha} - U^{\gamma\beta} g_\beta(v) \frac{\partial f_\beta(h)}{\partial h^\alpha} \\ \left\{ f_\alpha = \frac{\partial L_h}{\partial h^\alpha} \right\} &= -[U^{\gamma\beta} g_\beta(v) + h^\beta] \frac{\partial f_\beta(h)}{\partial h^\alpha}.\end{aligned}$$

If f and g are piecewise linear functions, then $\partial^2 f$ and $\partial^2 g$ vanish almost everywhere⁷. Thus, comparing with 8, we find $K_v = \partial^2 L_v(v)^{-1}$, $K_h = \partial^2 L_h(h)^{-1}$, and $\nabla K = 0$. That is,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dv^\alpha}{dt} &= K_v^{\alpha\beta}(v) [U_{\beta\gamma} f^\gamma(h) - v_\beta + I_\beta] + \sqrt{2T} dW_v^\alpha; \\ \frac{dh^\alpha}{dt} &= K_h^{\alpha\beta}(h) [U_{\gamma\beta} g^\gamma(v) - h_\beta] + \sqrt{2T} dW_h^\alpha,\end{aligned}$$

Thus proof ends. \square

Remark 16. [Hebbian Rule]

In addition, we find, along the gradient descent trajectory of U , the difference is

$$\Delta U^{\alpha\beta} \propto \left\langle -\frac{\partial E}{\partial U^{\alpha\beta}}(v, h) \right\rangle_{q_E(\cdot|v)} = \langle g^\alpha(v) f^\alpha(h) \rangle_{q_E(\cdot|v)}.$$

Since f and g are activation functions, we recover the Hebbian rule, that is, neurons that fire together wire together.

Remark 17. [Simplified Brain]

4. Originally illustrated in [Large Associative Memory Problem in Neurobiology and Machine Learning](#), Dmitry Krotov and John Hopfield, 2020.

5. E.g. LeakyReLU.

6. Here the $\partial^2 L$ is the Hessian matrix, and $[\partial^2 L]^{-1}$ the inverse matrix.

7. **TODO: Check this.**

This model can be viewed as a simplified brain when f and g are linear. Indeed, in the equation (1) of Dehaene et al. (2003)⁸, when the V are limited to a small region, and the τ s are large, then the coefficients, i.e. the m s and h s, can be regarded as constants. The equation (1), thus, reduces to the continuous Hopfield network (without latent variables).

Appendix A Useful Lemmas

Lemma 18. *[Kramers–Moyal Expansion]*

Given random variable X and time parameter t , consider random variable ϵ whose distribution is (x, t) -dependent. After Δt , particles in position x jump to $x + \epsilon$. Then, we have

$$p(x, t + \Delta t) - p(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \nabla_{a_1} \cdots \nabla_{a_n} [p(x, t) M^{a_1 \cdots a_n}(x, t)],$$

where $M^{a_1 \cdots a_n}(x, t)$ represents the n -order moments of ϵ

$$M^{a_1 \cdots a_n}(x, t) := \langle \epsilon^{a_1} \cdots \epsilon^{a_n} \rangle_{\epsilon}.$$

Proof. The trick is introducing a smooth test function, $h(x)$. Denote

$$I_{\Delta t}[h] := \int d\mu(x) p(x, t + \Delta t) h(x). \quad \square$$

The transition probability from x at t to y at $t + \Delta t$ is $\int d\mu(\epsilon) p_{\epsilon}(\epsilon; x, t) \delta(x + \epsilon - y)$. This implies

$$p(y, t + \Delta t) = \int d\mu(x) p(x, t) \left[\int d\mu(\epsilon) p_{\epsilon}(\epsilon; x, t) \delta(x + \epsilon - y) \right].$$

With this,

$$\begin{aligned} I_{\Delta t}[h] &:= \int d\mu(x) p(x, t + \Delta t) h(x) \\ \{x \rightarrow y\} &= \int d\mu(y) p(y, t + \Delta t) h(y) \\ [p(y, t + \Delta t) = \cdots] &= \int d\mu(x) p(x, t) \int d\mu(y) \int d\mu(\epsilon) p_{\epsilon}(\epsilon; x, t) \delta(x + \epsilon - y) h(y) \\ \{\text{Integrate over } y\} &= \int d\mu(x) p(x, t) \int d\mu(\epsilon) p_{\epsilon}(\epsilon; x, t) h(x + \epsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Taylor expansion $h(x + \epsilon)$ on ϵ gives

$$I_{\Delta t}[h] = \int d\mu(x) p(x, t) h(x) + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \int d\mu(x) p(x, t) [\nabla_{a_1} \cdots \nabla_{a_n} h(x)] \int d\mu(\epsilon) p_{\epsilon}(\epsilon; x, t) \epsilon^{a_1} \cdots \epsilon^{a_n}.$$

Integrating by part on x for the second term, we find

$$I_{\Delta t}[h] = \int d\mu(x) p(x, t) h(x) + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \int d\mu(x) h(x) \nabla_{a_1} \cdots \nabla_{a_n} \left[p(x, t) \int d\mu(\epsilon) p_{\epsilon}(\epsilon; x, t) \epsilon^{a_1} \cdots \epsilon^{a_n} \right].$$

Denote n -order moments of ϵ as $M^{a_1 \cdots a_n}(x, t) := \langle \epsilon^{a_1} \cdots \epsilon^{a_n} \rangle_{\epsilon}$ and recall the definition of $I_{\Delta t}[h]$, then we arrive at

$$\int d\mu(x) [p(x, t + \Delta t) - p(x, t)] h(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \int d\mu(x) h(x) \nabla_{a_1} \cdots \nabla_{a_n} [p(x, t) M^{a_1 \cdots a_n}(x, t)].$$

Since $h(x)$ is arbitrary, we conclude that

$$p(x, t + \Delta t) - p(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \nabla_{a_1} \cdots \nabla_{a_n} [p(x, t) M^{a_1 \cdots a_n}(x, t)].$$

Appendix B Stochastic Dynamics

B.1 Random Walk

Given $\forall x \in \mathcal{M}$ and any time t , consider a series of i.i.d. random variables (random walks),

$$\{\epsilon_i^a : i = 1 \dots n(t)\},$$

⁸ A neuronal network model linking subjective reports and objective physiological data during conscious perception, Stanislas Dehaene, Claire Sergent, and Jean-Pierre Changeux, 2003.

where, for $\forall i$, $\varepsilon_i^a \sim P$ for some distribution P , with the mean 0 and covariance $\Sigma(x, t)$, and the walk steps

$$n(t) = \int_0^t d\tau \frac{dn}{d\tau}(x(\tau), \tau).$$

For any time interval Δt , this series of random walks leads to a difference

$$\Delta x^a := \sum_{i=n(t)}^{n(t+\Delta t)} \varepsilon_i^a.$$

Let

$$\tilde{W}^a(x, t) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{n(t+\Delta t) - n(t)}} \sum_{i=n(t)}^{n(t+\Delta t)} \varepsilon_i^a,$$

we have $\Delta x^a = \sqrt{n(t+\Delta t) - n(t)} \tilde{W}^a(x, t)$. Since $n(t+\Delta t) - n(t) = \frac{dn}{dt}(x, t) \Delta t + o(\Delta t)$, we have

$$\Delta x^a = \sqrt{n(t+\Delta t) - n(t)} \tilde{W}^a(x, t) = \sqrt{\frac{dn}{dt}(x, t) \Delta t} \tilde{W}^a(x, t) + o(\sqrt{\Delta t}).$$

If

$$\frac{dn}{dt}(x, t) \Sigma^{ab}(x, t) = \mathcal{O}(1)$$

as $dn/dt \rightarrow +\infty$, that is, more steps per unit time, then, by central limit theorem (for multi-dimension),

$$\Delta x^a = \Delta W^a + o\left(\frac{dn}{dt}(x, t)\right),$$

where

$$\Delta W^a \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Delta t \Sigma^{ab}(x, t)).$$

B.2 Stochastic Dynamics

A stochastic dynamics is defined by two parts. The first is deterministic, and the second is a random walk. Precisely,

Definition 19. [*Stochastic Dynamics*]

Given $\mu^a(x, t)$ and $\Sigma^{ab}(x, t)$ on $\mathcal{M} \times \mathbb{R}$,

$$dx^a = \mu^a(x, t) dt + dW^a(x, t),$$

where $dW^a(x, t)$ is a random walk with covariance $\Sigma^{ab}(x, t)$.

Consider an ensemble of particles, each obeys this stochastic dynamics. This ensemble will form a distribution, evolving with time t , say $p(t)$. The equation of this evolution is

Lemma 20. [*Macroscopic Landscape*]

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(t) = -\nabla_a \{p(x, t) \mu^a(x, t)\} + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_a \nabla_b \{p(x, t) \Sigma^{ab}(x, t)\}.$$

Proof. From the difference of the stochastic dynamics,

$$\Delta x^a = \mu^a(x, t) \Delta t + \Delta W^a(x, t),$$

by Kramers–Moyal expansion 18, we have

$$p(x, t + \Delta t) - p(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \nabla_{a_1} \cdots \nabla_{a_n} [p(x, t) \langle \Delta x^{a_1} \cdots \Delta x^{a_n} \rangle_{\Delta x}].$$

For $n=1$, since $dW^a(x, t)$ is a random walk, $\langle \Delta W^a(x, t) \rangle_{\Delta W(x, t)} = 0$. Then the term is $-\nabla_a [p(x, t) \langle \Delta x^a \rangle_{\Delta x}] = -\nabla_a \{p(x, t) \mu^a(x, t)\} \Delta t$. And for $n=2$, by noticing that, as a random walk, $\langle \Delta W^a(x, t) \Delta W^b(x, t) \rangle_{\Delta W(x, t)} = \mathcal{O}(\Delta t)$, we have, up to $o(\Delta t)$, only $(1/2) \nabla_a \nabla_b [p(x, t) \Sigma^{ab}(x, t)] \Delta t$ left. For $n \geq 3$, all are $o(\Delta t)$. So, we have

$$\frac{p(x, t + \Delta t) - p(x, t)}{\Delta t} = -\nabla_a \{p(x, t) \mu^a(x, t)\} + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_a \nabla_b \{p(x, t) \Sigma^{ab}(x, t)\} + o(1).$$

Letting $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, we find

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(x, t) = -\nabla_a \{p(x, t) \mu^a(x, t)\} + \frac{1}{2} \nabla_a \nabla_b \{p(x, t) \Sigma^{ab}(x, t)\}.$$

Thus proof ends. \square