

# Dimension Reduction: Analysis and Algorithms

Raz Kupferman

*Institute of Mathematics  
The Hebrew University*

*(based on a review with A. Stuart)*

# Instructions for Audience

I've nagged speakers for 2.5 days.

Now you have the opportunity to take revenge.

Please do!

# Modeling

Confining complex real-world situations into succinct systems of equations (e.g., Newton's laws of mechanics).  
The central theme of the exact sciences.

# Modeling

Confining complex real-world situations into succinct systems of equations (e.g., Newton's laws of mechanics).  
The central theme of the exact sciences.

In many cases, even though we believe to have reliable models, they are useless because we can not solve them, even not numerically. They are too **complex** (e.g., weather prediction, cell biology).

# Modeling

Confining complex real-world situations into succinct systems of equations (e.g., Newton's laws of mechanics). The central theme of the exact sciences.

In many cases, even though we believe to have reliable models, they are useless because we can not solve them, even not numerically. They are too **complex** (e.g., weather prediction, cell biology).

A “second level” of modeling is required to obtain useful models. This second step is often called **dimension reduction, coarse-graining, homogenization**, or simply, **modeling**.

# Mathematical Setting

Full (“**microscopic**”) dynamics:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = h(z) + \gamma(z) \frac{dW}{dt}$$

# Mathematical Setting

Full (“**microscopic**”) dynamics:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = h(z) + \gamma(z) \frac{dW}{dt}$$

- Dynamics  $z(t)$  take place in a **high-dimensional** (possibly infinite-dimensional) space  $Z$ .

# Mathematical Setting

Full (“**microscopic**”) dynamics:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = h(z) + \gamma(z) \frac{dW}{dt}$$

- Dynamics  $z(t)$  take place in a **high-dimensional** (possibly infinite-dimensional) space  $Z$ .
- May be **deterministic** or **stochastic**.



# Mathematical Setting

Full (“**microscopic**”) dynamics:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = h(z) + \gamma(z) \frac{dW}{dt}$$

- Dynamics  $z(t)$  take place in a **high-dimensional** (possibly infinite-dimensional) space  $Z$ .
- May be **deterministic** or **stochastic**.
- Too **complex** to be solved.

# Mathematical Setting

Full (“**microscopic**”) dynamics:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = h(z) + \gamma(z) \frac{dW}{dt}$$

- Dynamics  $z(t)$  take place in a **high-dimensional** (possibly infinite-dimensional) space  $Z$ .
- May be **deterministic** or **stochastic**.
- Too **complex** to be solved.
- Dynamics of interest take place in a (low-dimensional) **subspace**  $X$  of  $Z$ .

# Mathematical Setting

Full (“**microscopic**”) dynamics:

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = h(z) + \gamma(z) \frac{dW}{dt}$$

- Dynamics  $z(t)$  take place in a **high-dimensional** (possibly infinite-dimensional) space  $Z$ .
- May be **deterministic** or **stochastic**.
- Too **complex** to be solved.
- Dynamics of interest take place in a (low-dimensional) **subspace**  $\mathcal{X}$  of  $Z$ .
- Objective: find a self-contained description of the dynamics in  $\mathcal{X}$  without resolving the dynamics in  $\mathcal{Y} = Z / \mathcal{X}$ .

Using coordinates  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ :

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) + \alpha(x, y) \frac{dU}{dt}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y) + \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**microscopic**

Using coordinates  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ :

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) + \alpha(x, y) \frac{dU}{dt}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y) + \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**microscopic**

The goal is to obtain a **reduced, macroscopic, closure** equation in  $\mathcal{X}$ :

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = F(X) + A(X) \frac{dU}{dt}$$

**macroscopic**

such that  $X(t)$  approximates well the component  $x(t)$  of the full dynamics.

# Running Themes

# Running Themes

- **Controlled versus uncontrolled approximation**  
Dimension reduction is sometimes backed by analysis, along with error estimates (e.g., systems with **scale separation**). In other cases, it is based on heuristic reasoning, and scope of validity is unknown (e.g., K- $\epsilon$  models of turbulence).

# Running Themes

- **Controlled versus uncontrolled approximation**

Dimension reduction is sometimes backed by analysis, along with error estimates (e.g., systems with **scale separation**). In other cases, it is based on heuristic reasoning, and scope of validity is unknown (e.g., K- $\epsilon$  models of turbulence).

- **Deterministic versus stochastic**

Dynamics in  $Z$  and  $X$  may be either deterministic or stochastic. We classify systems accordingly as **DD**, **DS**, **SD**, and **SS**.



# Running Themes (cont.)

# Running Themes (cont.)

- **Reduction principle**

Two steps: identification of the subspace  $\mathcal{X}$  (often not known) and derivation of dynamics in  $\mathcal{X}$ .

# Running Themes (cont.)

- **Reduction principle**

Two steps: identification of the subspace  $\mathcal{X}$  (often not known) and derivation of dynamics in  $\mathcal{X}$ .

- **Memory**

Generally, variable elimination introduces memory (non-Markovian dynamics; e.g., HMM). Need to choose  $\mathcal{X}$  such that memory is negligible.

# Running Themes (cont.)

- **Reduction principle**

Two steps: identification of the subspace  $\mathcal{X}$  (often not known) and derivation of dynamics in  $\mathcal{X}$ .

- **Memory**

Generally, variable elimination introduces memory (non-Markovian dynamics; e.g., HMM). Need to choose  $\mathcal{X}$  such that memory is negligible.

- **Path-wise versus distributions**

Often the dynamical system is “lifted” to an evolution of probability distribution. Higher dimensional but linear (hence, functional analytical techniques).

# Mori-Zwanzig Formalism

A general technique to (formally) reduce the dimensionality of systems of **ODEs**. Developed in the context of irreversible stat. mech. In essence, a rewriting of the equations in a suggestive form.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y)$$

# Mori-Zwanzig Formalism

A general technique to (formally) reduce the dimensionality of systems of **ODEs**. Developed in the context of irreversible stat. mech. In essence, a rewriting of the equations in a suggestive form.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y)$$

The basic idea: (1) treat  $x(t)$  as a given function and integrate (formally) the  $y$ -equation. The solution  $y(t)$  depends on the entire history of  $x(t)$  (“**variation of constants**”). (2) Substitute  $y(t)$  in the  $x$ -equation, resulting in a closed reduced system.

# Mori-Zwanzig Formalism

A general technique to (formally) reduce the dimensionality of systems of **ODEs**. Developed in the context of irreversible stat. mech. In essence, a rewriting of the equations in a suggestive form.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = g(x, y)$$

The basic idea: (1) treat  $x(t)$  as a given function and integrate (formally) the  $y$ -equation. The solution  $y(t)$  depends on the entire history of  $x(t)$  (“**variation of constants**”). (2) Substitute  $y(t)$  in the  $x$ -equation, resulting in a closed reduced system.

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \tilde{f}(x(t)) + \int_0^t K(x(t-s), s) ds + \mathcal{N}(x(0), y(0), t)$$

“Markovian”      “memory”      “noise”

**Generalized Langevin Equation**

# Scale Separation



# Scale Separation

# Scale Separation

An important class of systems in which complexity can often be reduced in a controlled way is systems in which there exists a **disparity of scales** (spatial or temporal).

# Scale Separation

An important class of systems in which complexity can often be reduced in a controlled way is systems in which there exists a **disparity of scales** (spatial or temporal).

(Spatial) **Homogenization**: dynamics depend on small scale features, but phenomena of interest are on large scales (e.g., porous media, climate prediction).

# Scale Separation

An important class of systems in which complexity can often be reduced in a controlled way is systems in which there exists a **disparity of scales** (spatial or temporal).

(Spatial) **Homogenization**: dynamics depend on small scale features, but phenomena of interest are on large scales (e.g., porous media, climate prediction).

(Temporal) **Averaging**: dynamics include short timescale features, but phenomena of interest over long time scales (e.g., molecular conformations, climate prediction).

# Scale Separation (cont.)

In our context,  $x(t)$  are the “**slow**” variables, whereas  $y(t)$  are the “**fast**” variables:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) + \alpha(x, y) \frac{dU}{dt}$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}$$

Fast to slow timescale ratio



# Scale Separation (cont.)

In our context,  $x(t)$  are the “**slow**” variables, whereas  $y(t)$  are the “**fast**” variables:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) + \alpha(x, y) \frac{dU}{dt}$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}$$

Fast to slow timescale ratio



**Goal:** “integrate” over the fast dynamics to obtain a reduced equation for  $x(t)$ , and prove that it is exact in the limit  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

# Scale Separation (cont.)

In our context,  $x(t)$  are the “**slow**” variables, whereas  $y(t)$  are the “**fast**” variables:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) + \alpha(x, y) \frac{dU}{dt}$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}$$

Fast to slow timescale ratio

**Goal:** “integrate” over the fast dynamics to obtain a reduced equation for  $x(t)$ , and prove that it is exact in the limit  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

Several scenarios, depending on the functions  $f, g, \alpha, \beta$ .

# Attracting Manifolds

Goes back to Tikhonov (East) and Levinson (West).

Starting point: ODEs with scale separations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)$$



# Attracting Manifolds

Goes back to Tikhonov (East) and Levinson (West).

Starting point: ODEs with scale separations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)$$

Assumption: for every fixed  $x$ , the  $y$ -dynamics has a unique **attracting fixed point**,  $y = \eta(x)$ .

# Attracting Manifolds

Goes back to Tikhonov (East) and Levinson (West).

Starting point: ODEs with scale separations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)$$

Assumption: for every fixed  $x$ , the  $y$ -dynamics has a unique **attracting fixed point**,  $y = \eta(x)$ .

Up to mild regularity assumptions on  $f, g$ , it can be shown that  $y(t) = \eta(x(t)) + O(\epsilon)$ . To  $O(\epsilon)$  corrections,  $x(t)$  is approximated by the solution  $X(t)$  of the reduced equation:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f(X, \eta(X))$$

# Attracting Manifolds

Goes back to Tikhonov (East) and Levinson (West).

Starting point: ODEs with scale separations:

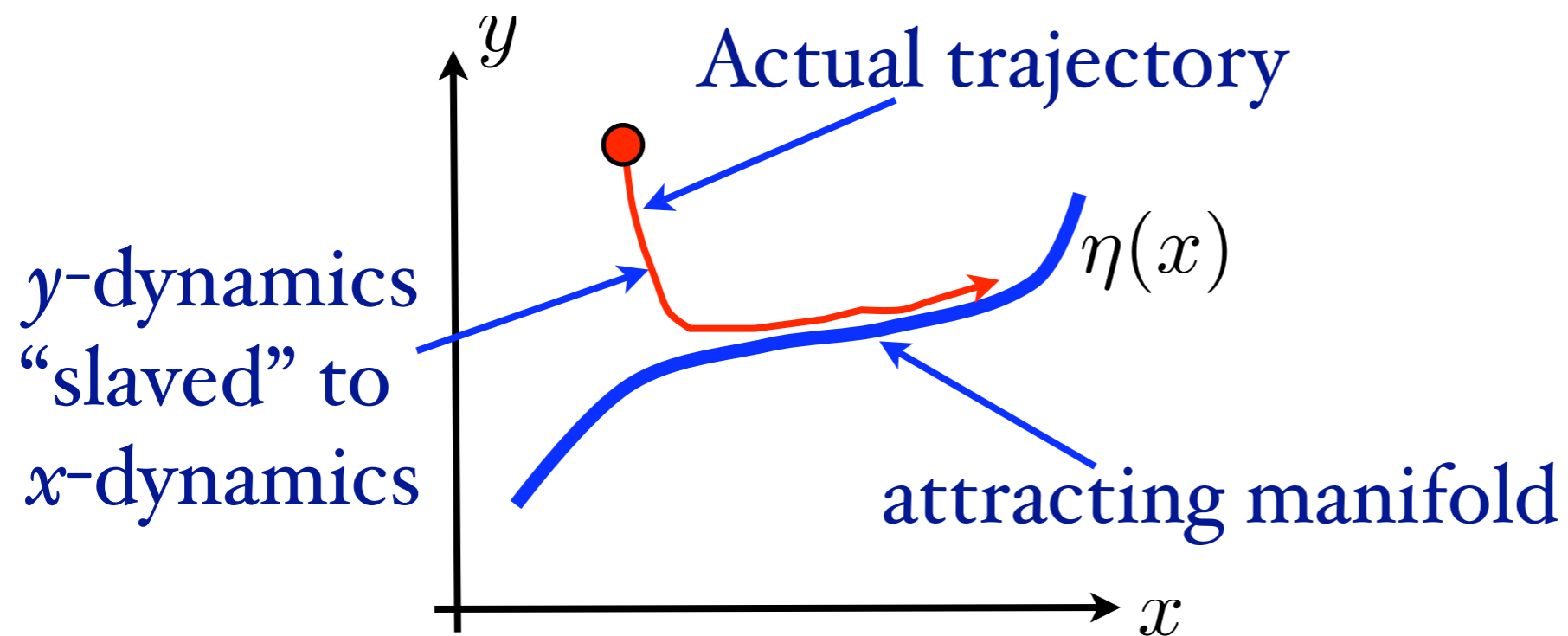
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)$$

Assumption: for every fixed  $x$ , the  $y$ -dynamics has a unique **attracting fixed point**,  $y = \eta(x)$ .

Up to mild regularity assumptions on  $f, g$ , it can be shown that  $y(t) = \eta(x(t)) + O(\epsilon)$ . To  $O(\epsilon)$  corrections,  $x(t)$  is approximated by the solution  $X(t)$  of the reduced equation:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = f(X, \eta(X))$$

Systems of **class DD**



## Example:

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = -x_2 - x_3$$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = x_1 + \frac{1}{5}x_2$$

$$\frac{dx_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} + y - 5x_3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{y}{\epsilon} + \frac{x_1 x_3}{\epsilon}$$

## Example:

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = -x_2 - x_3$$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = x_1 + \frac{1}{5}x_2$$

$$\frac{dx_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} + y - 5x_3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{y}{\epsilon} + \frac{x_1 x_3}{\epsilon}$$

For fixed  $x$   $y \rightarrow x_1 x_3$

## Example:

$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = -x_2 - x_3$$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = x_1 + \frac{1}{5}x_2$$

$$\frac{dx_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} + y - 5x_3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{y}{\epsilon} + \frac{x_1 x_3}{\epsilon}$$

For fixed  $x$   $y \rightarrow x_1 x_3$

## Reduced dynamics:

$$\frac{dX_1}{dt} = -X_2 - X_3$$

$$\frac{dX_2}{dt} = X_1 + \frac{1}{5}X_2$$

$$\frac{dX_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} + (X_1 - 5)X_3$$

## Rössler system

## Example:

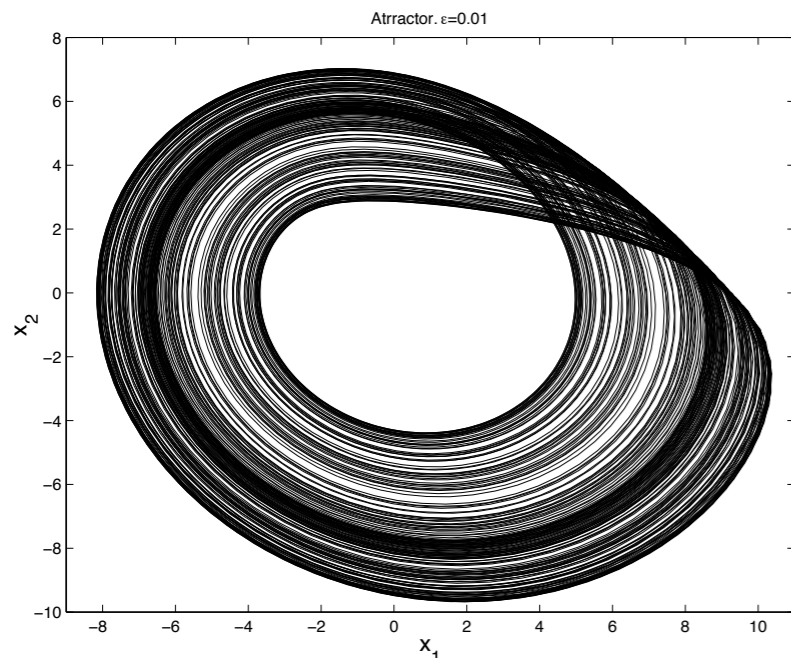
$$\frac{dx_1}{dt} = -x_2 - x_3$$

$$\frac{dx_2}{dt} = x_1 + \frac{1}{5}x_2$$

$$\frac{dx_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} + y - 5x_3$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{y}{\epsilon} + \frac{x_1 x_3}{\epsilon}$$

For fixed  $x$   $y \rightarrow x_1 x_3$



$$\epsilon = 0.01$$

## Reduced dynamics:

$$\frac{dX_1}{dt} = -X_2 - X_3$$

$$\frac{dX_2}{dt} = X_1 + \frac{1}{5}X_2$$

$$\frac{dX_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{5} + (X_1 - 5)X_3$$

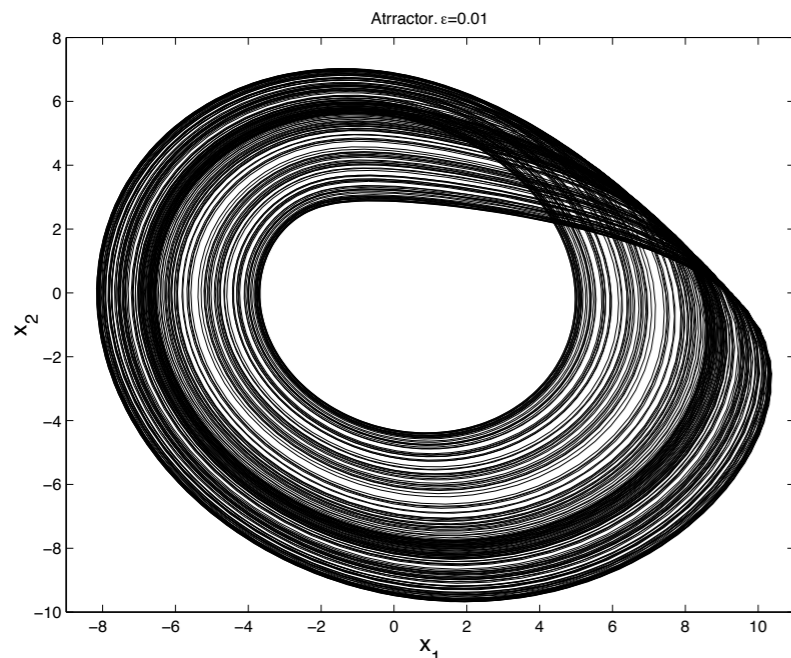
## Rössler system



## Example:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx_1}{dt} &= -x_2 - x_3 \\ \frac{dx_2}{dt} &= x_1 + \frac{1}{5}x_2 \\ \frac{dx_3}{dt} &= \frac{1}{5} + y - 5x_3 \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= -\frac{y}{\epsilon} + \frac{x_1x_3}{\epsilon}\end{aligned}$$

For fixed  $x$   $y \rightarrow x_1x_3$

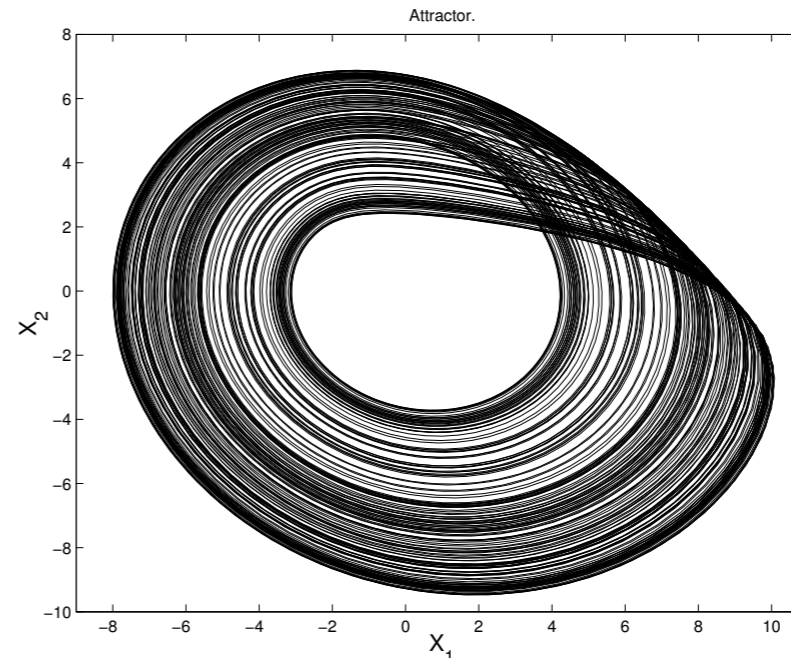


$\epsilon = 0.01$

## Reduced dynamics:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dX_1}{dt} &= -X_2 - X_3 \\ \frac{dX_2}{dt} &= X_1 + \frac{1}{5}X_2 \\ \frac{dX_3}{dt} &= \frac{1}{5} + (X_1 - 5)X_3\end{aligned}$$

## Rössler system



# Averaging

First used in 3-body celestial mechanics (Lagrange 1788).

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)$$

# Averaging

First used in 3-body celestial mechanics (Lagrange 1788).

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)$$

**Assumption:** for fixed  $x$ , the  $y$ -dynamics are **ergodic**.

Let  $\varphi_x^t(y)$  denote the solution operator of the  $y$ -dynamics:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \varphi_x^t(y) = g(x, \varphi_x^t(y)) \qquad \varphi_x^0(y) = y$$

# Averaging

First used in 3-body celestial mechanics (Lagrange 1788).

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y) \qquad \frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)$$

**Assumption:** for fixed  $x$ , the  $y$ -dynamics are **ergodic**.

Let  $\varphi_x^t(y)$  denote the solution operator of the  $y$ -dynamics:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \varphi_x^t(y) = g(x, \varphi_x^t(y)) \qquad \varphi_x^0(y) = y$$

Ergodic dynamics induce a **Young measure** on  $\mathcal{Y}$ :

$$\mu_x(A) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^T I_A(\varphi_x^t(y)) dt$$

**measure depends on  $x$**       **indicator function**      **independent of  $y$**

# Averaging (cont.)

**Anosov's theorem** states that  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on any bounded time interval to the solution  $X(t)$  of the **averaged equation**:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class DD**

# Averaging (cont.)

**Anosov's theorem** states that  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on any bounded time interval to the solution  $X(t)$  of the **averaged equation**:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class DD**

**Comments:**

# Averaging (cont.)

**Anosov's theorem** states that  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on any bounded time interval to the solution  $X(t)$  of the **averaged equation**:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class DD**

## **Comments:**

- Extensive literature (mostly Russian).

# Averaging (cont.)

**Anosov's theorem** states that  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on any bounded time interval to the solution  $X(t)$  of the **averaged equation**:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class DD**

## Comments:

- Extensive literature (mostly Russian).
- Extension to cases where ergodicity fails on sufficiently small sets (Arnold, Neistadt).



# Averaging (cont.)

**Anosov's theorem** states that  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on any bounded time interval to the solution  $X(t)$  of the **averaged equation**:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class DD**

## Comments:

- Extensive literature (mostly Russian).
- Extension to cases where ergodicity fails on sufficiently small sets (Arnold, Neistadt).
- Extension to non-autonomous systems (Artstein).

# Averaging (cont.)

**Anosov's theorem** states that  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on any bounded time interval to the solution  $X(t)$  of the **averaged equation**:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class DD**

## Comments:

- Extensive literature (mostly Russian).
- Extension to cases where ergodicity fails on sufficiently small sets (Arnold, Neistadt).
- Extension to non-autonomous systems (Artstein).
- Extension to non-unique invariant measure (differential inclusions, Artstein).

# Averaging (cont.)

**Anosov's theorem** states that  $x(t)$  converges uniformly on any bounded time interval to the solution  $X(t)$  of the **averaged equation**:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class DD**

## Comments:

- Extensive literature (mostly Russian).
- Extension to cases where ergodicity fails on sufficiently small sets (Arnold, Neistadt).
- Extension to non-autonomous systems (Artstein).
- Extension to non-unique invariant measure (differential inclusions, Artstein).
- Invariant measure may depend on  $y(o)$ .

# Application: Stiff Hamiltonian Systems

Ubiquitous in molecular systems: Hamiltonian systems with strong potential forces resulting in **fast oscillatory motion** around a sub-manifold, along with weaker forces responsible for **conformational changes** over longer timescales (Rubin and Ungar, 1957, Neistadt 1984, Bornemann and Schuette 1997).

$$H(z, p) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m_i} + V(z) + \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} U(z)$$

“soft” potential

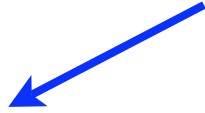
“stiff” potential

The stiff potential is minimal on a smooth submanifold  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Goal:** approximate solution by a flow on  $\mathcal{M}$ .

## Example: a two-particle system

constraining manifold  $y=0$

$$H(x, p, y, v) = \frac{1}{2}(p^2 + v^2) + V(x) + \frac{\omega^2(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$


## Example: a two-particle system

constraining manifold  $y=0$

$$H(x, p, y, v) = \frac{1}{2}(p^2 + v^2) + V(x) + \frac{\omega^2(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

Equations of motion:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) - \frac{\omega'(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = v$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{\omega(x)}{\epsilon^2}y$$

ratio of small  
parameters

## Example: a two-particle system

constraining manifold  $y=0$

$$H(x, p, y, v) = \frac{1}{2}(p^2 + v^2) + V(x) + \frac{\omega^2(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

Equations of motion:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) - \frac{\omega'(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = v$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{\omega(x)}{\epsilon^2}y$$

ratio of small  
parameters

**Assumption:** energy  $E$  does not depend on  $\epsilon$ , hence  $y \rightarrow 0$  as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

## Example: a two-particle system

constraining manifold  $y=0$

$$H(x, p, y, v) = \frac{1}{2}(p^2 + v^2) + V(x) + \frac{\omega^2(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

Equations of motion:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) - \frac{\omega'(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = v$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{\omega(x)}{\epsilon^2}y$$

ratio of small  
parameters

Naive solution: set  $y=0$ .  
Wrong!

**Assumption:** energy  $E$  does not depend on  $\epsilon$ , hence  $y \rightarrow 0$  as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ .



## Example: a two-particle system

$$H(x, p, y, v) = \frac{1}{2}(p^2 + v^2) + V(x) + \frac{\omega^2(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

constraining manifold  $y=0$

Equations of motion:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) - \frac{\omega'(x)}{2\epsilon^2}y^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = v$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{\omega(x)}{\epsilon^2}y$$

ratio of small  
parameters

**Assumption:** energy  $E$  does not depend on  $\epsilon$ , hence  $y \rightarrow 0$  as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

Naive solution: set  $y=0$ .  
Wrong!

This system is still not in the desired form of scale separation because the “slow”  $(x,p)$  equations depend on  $\epsilon$ .

Change variables:  
 $\eta = y/\epsilon$ .

# Transformed system of equations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) - \frac{\omega'(x)}{2}\eta^2 \quad \text{slow}$$

---

$$\frac{d\eta}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}v \quad \text{fast}$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{\omega(x)}{\epsilon}\eta$$

## Transformed system of equations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) - \frac{\omega'(x)}{2}\eta^2 \quad \text{slow}$$

---

$$\frac{d\eta}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}v \quad \text{fast}$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{\omega(x)}{\epsilon}\eta$$

The  $y$ -dynamics are **ergodic**:  
(harmonic oscillator with  
 $x$ -dependent frequency).

The **invariant measure**  
depends on the total energy (i.e.,  
on initial data of full system).

## Transformed system of equations:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) - \frac{\omega'(x)}{2}\eta^2 \quad \text{slow}$$

---


$$\frac{d\eta}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}v \quad \text{fast}$$

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -\frac{\omega(x)}{\epsilon}\eta$$

The  $y$ -dynamics are **ergodic**:  
(harmonic oscillator with  
 $x$ -dependent frequency).

The **invariant measure**  
depends on the total energy (i.e.,  
on initial data of full system).

Applying the **averaging principle** (here, a variation of  
Anosov's theorem)

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = P$$

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = -V'(X) - J(\omega^{1/2}(X))' \quad \leftarrow \text{effective (Fixman) potential (non-trivial)}$$

constant depending on  
initial data

# Stochastic Averaging

A (relatively) straightforward generalization of the averaging method to stochastic systems:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon}g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}\beta(x, y)\frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

# Stochastic Averaging

A (relatively) straightforward generalization of the averaging method to stochastic systems:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon}g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}\beta(x, y)\frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

If for fixed  $x$  the  $y$ -dynamics is ergodic with invariant measure  $\mu_x(dy)$ , then as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ ,  $x(t)$  converges uniformly to  $X(t)$ :

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int_y f(X, y) \mu_X(dy)$$

**class SD**

**Sketch of proof** (asymptotic analysis can be backed up by a limit theorem):

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**Sketch of proof** (asymptotic analysis can be backed up by a limit theorem):

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

**Step 1:** write corresponding **Kolmogorov (Fokker-Planck)** equation for  $\phi(x, y, t)$ :

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \underbrace{-\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (f \phi)}_{\mathcal{L}_1 \phi} \underbrace{-\frac{1}{\epsilon} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (g \phi) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} (\beta^2 \phi)}_{\frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathcal{L}_0 \phi}$$



**Sketch of proof** (asymptotic analysis can be backed up by a limit theorem):

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(x, y) \frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

**Step 1:** write corresponding **Kolmogorov (Fokker-Planck)** equation for  $\phi(x, y, t)$ :

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \underbrace{-\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (f \phi)}_{\mathcal{L}_1 \phi} \underbrace{-\frac{1}{\epsilon} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (g \phi) + \frac{1}{\epsilon} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} (\beta^2 \phi)}_{\frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathcal{L}_0 \phi}$$

**Step 2:** power series expansion:

$$\phi(x, y, t) = \phi_0(x, y, t) + \epsilon \phi_1(x, y, t) + \dots$$

**Step 3:** equate terms of same order:

**$O(1/\varepsilon)$  terms:**

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi_0 = 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(g \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}(\beta^2 \phi) \quad \text{the generator of the } y\text{-dynamics}$$

**solution:**  $\phi_0(x, y, t) = \pi(x, t) \phi_{eq}^x(y)$  ← **invariant distribution of } y\text{-dynamics}**

**Step 3:** equate terms of same order:

**$O(1/\varepsilon)$  terms:**  $\mathcal{L}_0 \phi_0 = 0$

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(g \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}(\beta^2 \phi) \quad \text{the generator of the } y\text{-dynamics}$$

**solution:**  $\phi_0(x, y, t) = \pi(x, t) \phi_{eq}^x(y)$  ← **invariant distribution of } y\text{-dynamics}**

---

**$O(1)$  terms:**  $\mathcal{L}_0 \phi_1 = \frac{\partial \phi_0}{\partial t} - \mathcal{L}_1 \phi_0$

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f \phi) \quad \text{the generator of the } x\text{-dynamics}$$

**Step 3:** equate terms of same order:

**$O(1/\varepsilon)$  terms:**  $\mathcal{L}_0 \phi_0 = 0$

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(g \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}(\beta^2 \phi) \quad \text{the generator of the } y\text{-dynamics}$$

**solution:**  $\phi_0(x, y, t) = \pi(x, t) \phi_{eq}^x(y)$  ← **invariant distribution of  $y$ -dynamics**

---

**$O(1)$  terms:**  $\mathcal{L}_0 \phi_1 = \frac{\partial \phi_0}{\partial t} - \mathcal{L}_1 \phi_0$

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f \phi) \quad \text{the generator of the } x\text{-dynamics}$$

---

**Solvability condition:** right-hand side orthogonal to the kernel of  $\mathcal{L}_0^*$  (constant functions). Integrate over  $y$ :

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \pi(x, t) \left( \int f(x, y) \phi_{eq}^x(y) dy \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \pi(x, t) \left( \int f(x, y) \phi_{eq}^x(y) dy \right) \right]$$

**Step 4:** We identify this equation as the **Liouville equation** of the **deterministic** system

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int f(X, y) \phi_{eq}^X(y) dy \equiv F(X)$$

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \pi(x, t) \left( \int f(x, y) \phi_{eq}^x(y) dy \right) \right]$$

**Step 4:** We identify this equation as the **Liouville equation** of the **deterministic** system

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \int f(X, y) \phi_{eq}^X(y) dy \equiv F(X)$$

This asymptotic expansion can be made into a rigorous convergence proof (e.g., through limit theorem for semi-groups).

# Stochastic Limits

A more subtle case of scale-separated system occurs for the following scaling:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} f_0(x, y) + f_1(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(y) \frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

**x-equation contains a “fast” term**

**y-equation independent of x (skew-symmetric, not essential)**

# Stochastic Limits

A more subtle case of scale-separated system occurs for the following scaling:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} f_0(x, y) + f_1(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(y) \frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

**x-equation contains a “fast” term**

**y-equation independent of x (skew-symmetric, not essential)**

The setting is such that  $f_0(x, y)$  **averages to zero** under the invariant measure of the  $y$ -dynamics. A large term that averages to zero becomes, as  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , **white noise**.



# Asymptotic expansion

**Step 1:** Switch to the Kolmogorov equation:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathcal{L}_0 \phi + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \mathcal{L}_1 \phi + \mathcal{L}_2 \phi$$

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} (g \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} (\beta^2 \phi)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (f_0 \phi)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_2 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (f_1 \phi)$$

# Asymptotic expansion

**Step 1:** Switch to the Kolmogorov equation:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathcal{L}_0 \phi + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \mathcal{L}_1 \phi + \mathcal{L}_2 \phi$$

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(g \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}(\beta^2 \phi) \quad \mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f_0 \phi) \quad \mathcal{L}_2 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f_1 \phi)$$

---

**Step 2:** Asymptotic series expansion:

$$\phi(x, y, t) = \phi_0(x, y, t) + \sqrt{\epsilon} \phi_1(x, y, t) + \epsilon \phi_2(x, y, t) + \dots$$

# Asymptotic expansion

**Step 1:** Switch to the Kolmogorov equation:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \mathcal{L}_0 \phi + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \mathcal{L}_1 \phi + \mathcal{L}_2 \phi$$

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(g \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}(\beta^2 \phi) \quad \mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f_0 \phi) \quad \mathcal{L}_2 \phi = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(f_1 \phi)$$

---

**Step 2:** Asymptotic series expansion:

$$\phi(x, y, t) = \phi_0(x, y, t) + \sqrt{\epsilon} \phi_1(x, y, t) + \epsilon \phi_2(x, y, t) + \dots$$

---

**Step 3:** Equate terms of same order

**$O(1/\epsilon)$  terms:**  $\mathcal{L}_0 \phi_0 = 0$

**solution:**  $\phi_0(x, y, t) = \pi(x, t) \phi_{eq}(y)$

**$O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$  terms:**

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi_1 = -\mathcal{L}_1 \phi_0$$

Solvability condition requires that integral of RHS be zero.

$$\text{RHS} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [f_0(x, y) \phi_{eq}(y) \pi(x, t)]$$

This follows from the properties of  $f_0$ .

$$\text{Solution: } \phi_1 = -\mathcal{L}_0^{-1} \mathcal{L}_1 \phi_0$$

**$O(\mathbf{I}/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$  terms:**

$$\mathcal{L}_0\phi_1 = -\mathcal{L}_1\phi_0$$

Solvability condition requires that integral of RHS be zero.

$$\text{RHS} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [f_0(x, y)\phi_{eq}(y)\pi(x, t)]$$

This follows from the properties of  $f_0$ .

Solution: 
$$\phi_1 = -\mathcal{L}_0^{-1}\mathcal{L}_1\phi_0$$

**$O(\mathbf{I})$  terms:**

$$\mathcal{L}_0\phi_2 = \frac{\partial\phi_0}{\partial t} - \mathcal{L}_1\phi_1 - \mathcal{L}_2\phi_0$$

Again, apply same solvability condition, and obtain an equation for the (leading order) marginal  $\pi(x, t)$ :

$$\frac{\partial\pi}{\partial t} = - \int \mathcal{L}_1\mathcal{L}_0^{-1}\mathcal{L}_1\phi_{eq}(y)\pi(x, t) dy + \int \mathcal{L}_2\phi_{eq}(y)\pi(x, t) dy$$

## Step 4: identification of reduced problem:

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = - \int \mathcal{L}_1 \mathcal{L}_0^{-1} \mathcal{L}_1 \phi_{eq}(y) \pi(x, t) dy + \int \mathcal{L}_2 \phi_{eq}(y) \pi(x, t) dy$$

**diffusion**                      **drift**

**operator in  $y$**                       **first-order operator in  $x$**

## Step 4: identification of reduced problem:

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = - \int \mathcal{L}_1 \mathcal{L}_0^{-1} \mathcal{L}_1 \phi_{eq}(y) \pi(x, t) dy + \int \mathcal{L}_2 \phi_{eq}(y) \pi(x, t) dy$$

**diffusion**

**drift**

**operator in  $y$**

**first-order operator in  $x$**

We identify the equation for the marginal  $\pi(x, t)$  as a Kolmogorov equation of a **diffusion process**  $X(t)$ .

The drift and diffusion may be difficult to evaluate analytically due to the need to invert  $\mathcal{L}_0$ .

**Example:**

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} yx - \lambda x$$

*f<sub>0</sub>(x,y)* points to the  $yx$  term.  
*f<sub>I</sub>(x,y)* points to the  $-\lambda x$  term.

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process**



**Example:**

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} yx - \lambda x$$

*f<sub>0</sub>(x,y)* (pointing to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}yx$ ) and *f<sub>I</sub>(x,y)* (pointing to  $-\lambda x$ )

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process**

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \phi_{eq}(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-y^2}$$

**Example:**

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} yx - \lambda x$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process**

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \phi_{eq}(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-y^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x \phi)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_2 \phi = \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x \phi)$$

**Example:**

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} yx - \lambda x$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process**

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \phi_{eq}(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-y^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x \phi)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_2 \phi = \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x \phi)$$

Everything can be calculated analytically.

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{2} - \lambda \right) x \pi \right] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (x^2 \pi)$$

**Reduced Kolmogorov equation**

**Example:**

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} yx - \lambda x$$
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \frac{dV}{dt}$$

**Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process**

$$\mathcal{L}_0 \phi = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y \phi) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial y^2} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \phi_{eq}(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-y^2}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_1 \phi = -y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x \phi)$$

$$\mathcal{L}_2 \phi = \lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x \phi)$$

Everything can be calculated analytically.

$$\frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{2} - \lambda \right) x \pi \right] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (x^2 \pi)$$

**Reduced Kolmogorov equation**

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \left( \frac{1}{2} - \lambda \right) X + X \frac{dU}{dt}$$

**Reduced SDE**

Original system:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}yx - \lambda x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon}y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}\frac{dV}{dt}$$

Reduced system:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \left(\frac{1}{2} - \lambda\right)X + X\frac{dU}{dt}$$

**class SS**

## Original system:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} yx - \lambda x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \frac{dV}{dt}$$

## Reduced system:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \left( \frac{1}{2} - \lambda \right) X + X \frac{dU}{dt}$$

**class SS**

## Solution of reduced system:

$$X(t) = X(0) \exp[-\lambda t + U(t)]$$

## Properties (a.s.):

$$\lambda > 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} X(t) = 0$$

$$\lambda = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} X(t) = \infty$$

$$\lambda < 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} X(t) = \infty$$

## Original system:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} yx - \lambda x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\epsilon} y + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \frac{dV}{dt}$$

## Reduced system:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = \left( \frac{1}{2} - \lambda \right) X + X \frac{dU}{dt}$$

**class SS**

## Solution of reduced system:

$$X(t) = X(0) \exp [-\lambda t + U(t)]$$

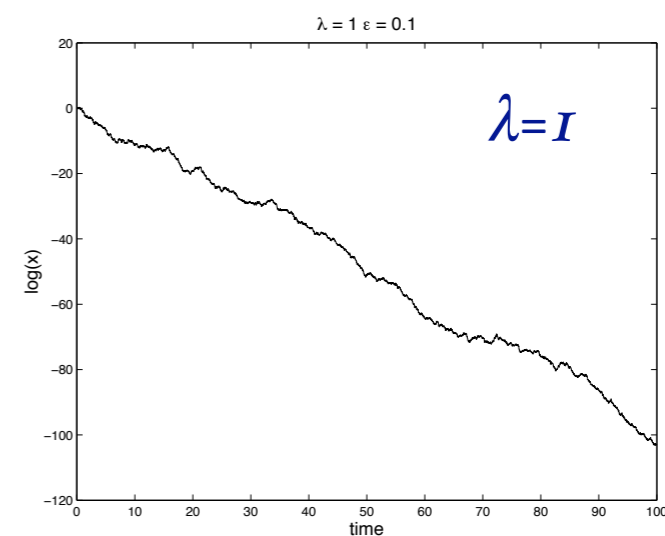
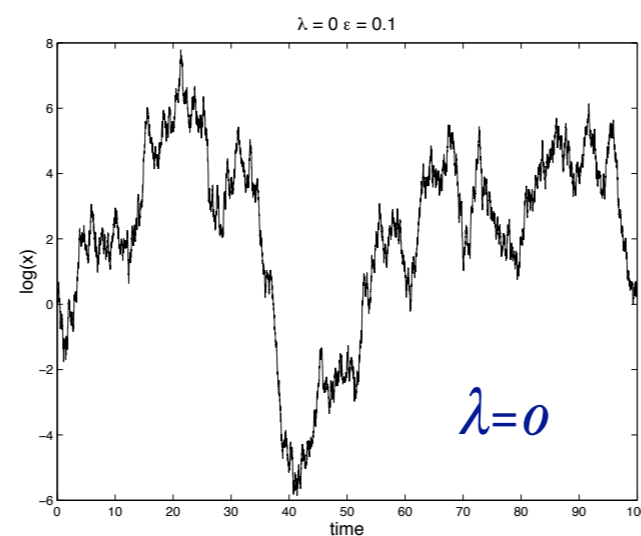
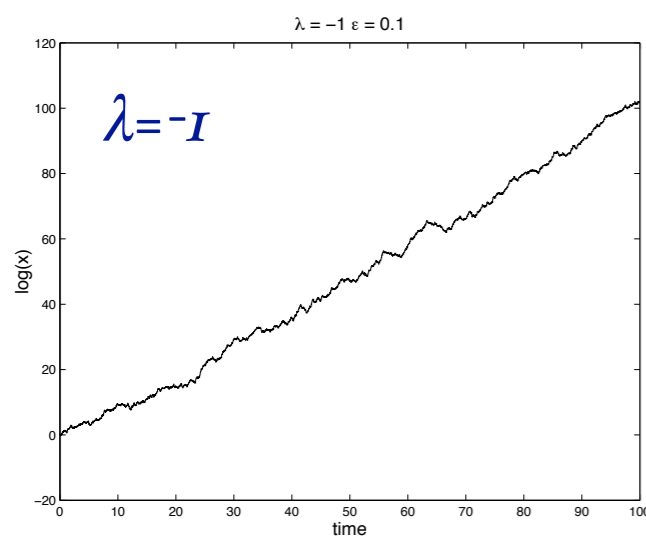
## Properties (a.s.):

$$\lambda > 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} X(t) = 0$$

$$\lambda = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} X(t) = \infty$$

$$\lambda < 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} X(t) = \infty$$

## Numerical solution of $\log x(t)$ for $\epsilon=0.1$ .



# Example of Class DS

We dealt with systems of the following form that yields dimension reduction of **class SS**.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} f_0(x, y) + f_1(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(y) \frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

**x-equation contains a "fast" term**

**y-equation independent of x (skew-symmetric, not essential)**



# Example of Class DS

We dealt with systems of the following form that yields dimension reduction of **class SS**.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} f_0(x, y) + f_1(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(y) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \beta(y) \frac{dV}{dt}\end{aligned}$$

**x-equation contains a "fast" term**

**y-equation independent of x (skew-symmetric, not essential)**

The same type of arguments remain valid if the  $y$ -dynamics are deterministic, but sufficiently-well **mixing**.

# Example:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x - x^3 + \frac{4}{90\sqrt{\epsilon}}y_2$$

**fast term that averages to zero**

$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = \frac{10}{\epsilon}(y_2 - y_1)$$
$$\frac{dy_2}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}(28y_1 - y_2 - y_1y_3)$$
$$\frac{dy_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}(y_1y_2 - \frac{8}{3}y_3)$$

**y(t) satisfying the (accelerated) chaotic Lorenz equations**

## Example:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= x - x^3 + \frac{4}{90\sqrt{\epsilon}}y_2 \quad \leftarrow \text{fast term that averages to zero} \\ \frac{dy_1}{dt} &= \frac{10}{\epsilon}(y_2 - y_1) \quad \leftarrow \text{y(t) satisfying the (accelerated) chaotic Lorenz equations} \\ \frac{dy_2}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon}(28y_1 - y_2 - y_1y_3) \\ \frac{dy_3}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon}(y_1y_2 - \frac{8}{3}y_3)\end{aligned}$$

For  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , the slow component  $x(t)$  converges (in Law) to the solution  $X(t)$  of the SDE:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = X - X^3 + \sigma \frac{dU}{dt}$$

( $\sigma=0.126$ ) **class DS.**

# Example:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x - x^3 + \frac{4}{90\sqrt{\epsilon}}y_2$$

fast term that averages to zero

$$\frac{dy_1}{dt} = \frac{10}{\epsilon}(y_2 - y_1)$$
$$\frac{dy_2}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}(28y_1 - y_2 - y_1y_3)$$
$$\frac{dy_3}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon}(y_1y_2 - \frac{8}{3}y_3)$$

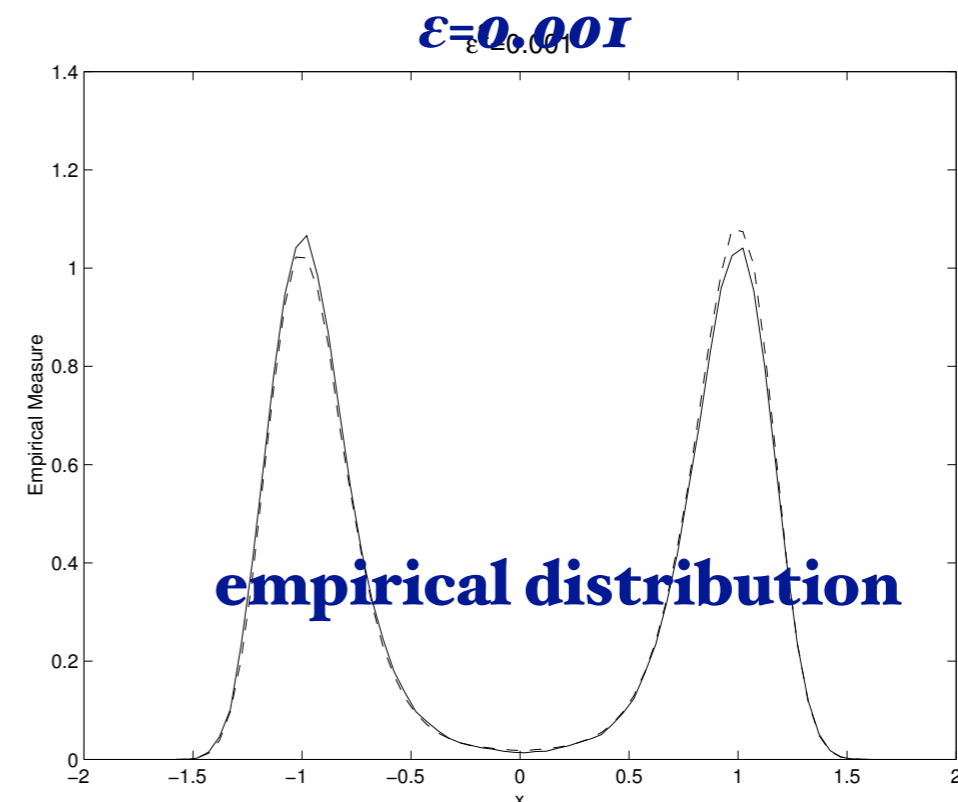
y(t) satisfying the (accelerated) chaotic Lorenz equations

For  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , the slow component  $x(t)$  converges (in Law) to the solution  $X(t)$  of the SDE:

$$\frac{dX}{dt} = X - X^3 + \sigma \frac{dU}{dt}$$

( $\sigma=0.126$ ) **class DS.**

Reduced equation describes noisy particle in quartic potential. Equilibrium distribution is **bi-modal**.



# Large Systems

# Large Systems

Another class of systems for which the reduced system can be derived rigorously as a limit of the full dynamics, is systems with many DOFs. The reduced system is obtained in the limit where the number of DOFs tends to infinity (the “**thermodynamics limit**”).

An instance of such systems are mechanical systems of **heat baths**. (Will be addressed in detail in tomorrow’s lecture).

Also systems of **class DS**.

# Birth-Death Systems

Chemical reactions are commonly modeled by stochastic birth-death systems.

## **The model:**

There are  $m$  **species** with populations  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$ .

There are  $n$  **reactions** with rates  $h_i(x)$  and stoichiometry numbers  $\nu_{ij}$ .

Can easily be simulated by the **Gillespie algorithm** (generative simulation of cont.-time Markov chains)





# The **Gillespie** algorithm:

## The Gillespie algorithm:

- **Initialize**  $x_i(0)$  for  $i=1, \dots, M$ .

## The Gillespie algorithm:

- **Initialize**  $x_i(0)$  for  $i=1, \dots, M$ .
- Compute the **reaction rates**  $r_j = h_j(x(0))$  for  $j=1, \dots, N$ .

## The Gillespie algorithm:

- **Initialize**  $x_i(0)$  for  $i=1, \dots, M$ .
- Compute the **reaction rates**  $r_j = h_j(x(0))$  for  $j=1, \dots, N$ .
- Set the total rate  $r = r_1 + \dots + r_N$ .

## The **Gillespie algorithm**:

- **Initialize**  $x_i(0)$  for  $i=1, \dots, M$ .
- Compute the **reaction rates**  $r_j = h_j(x(0))$  for  $j=1, \dots, N$ .
- Set the total rate  $r = r_1 + \dots + r_N$ .
- Select the (random) **transition time**  $t$  by picking a random variable  $p \sim U[0, 1]$  and setting  $t = -(\log p)/r$ .

## The **Gillespie algorithm**:

- **Initialize**  $x_i(0)$  for  $i=1, \dots, M$ .
- Compute the **reaction rates**  $r_j = h_j(x(0))$  for  $j=1, \dots, N$ .
- Set the total rate  $r = r_1 + \dots + r_N$ .
- Select the (random) **transition time**  $t$  by picking a random variable  $p \sim U[0, 1]$  and setting  $t = -(\log p)/r$ .
- Select the  $j$ -th **reaction** with probability  $r_j/r$ .

## The Gillespie algorithm:

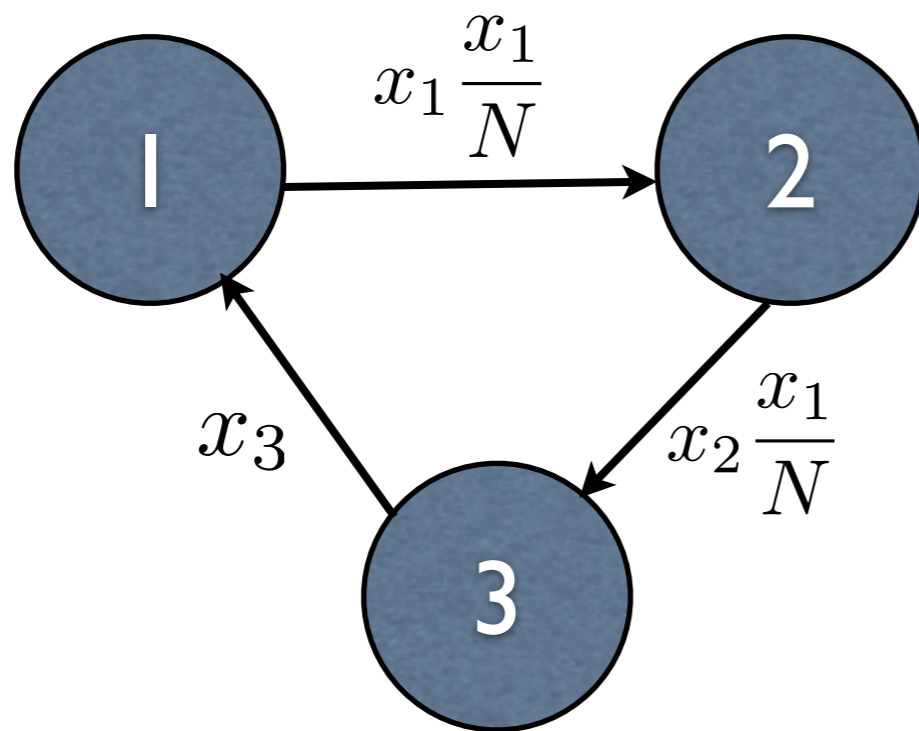
- **Initialize**  $x_i(0)$  for  $i=1, \dots, M$ .
- Compute the **reaction rates**  $r_j = h_j(x(0))$  for  $j=1, \dots, N$ .
- Set the total rate  $r = r_1 + \dots + r_N$ .
- Select the (random) **transition time**  $t$  by picking a random variable  $p \sim U[0, 1]$  and setting  $t = -(\log p)/r$ .
- Select the  $j$ -th **reaction** with probability  $r_j/r$ .
- **Update**  $x(t)$  accordingly and return to step 2.

The Gillespie algorithm provides a “pathwise” description. Alternatively, one can consider the **master equation** (the discrete analog of the Fokker-Planck equation).



The Gillespie algorithm provides a “pathwise” description. Alternatively, one can consider the **master equation** (the discrete analog of the Fokker-Planck equation).

### Example: a 3-species system

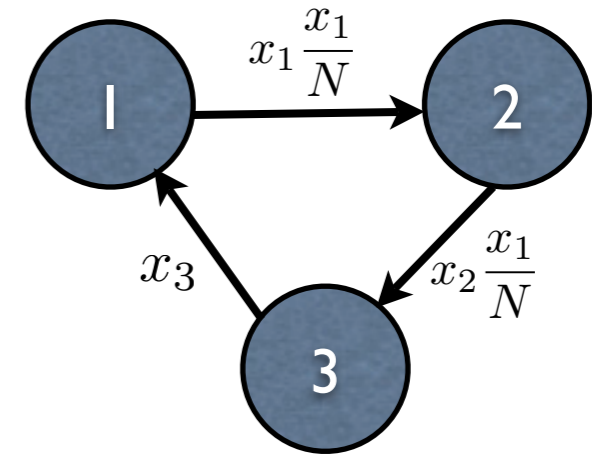


At time  $t=0$ :

$$x_1 = 0 \quad x_2 = 0 \quad x_3 = N$$

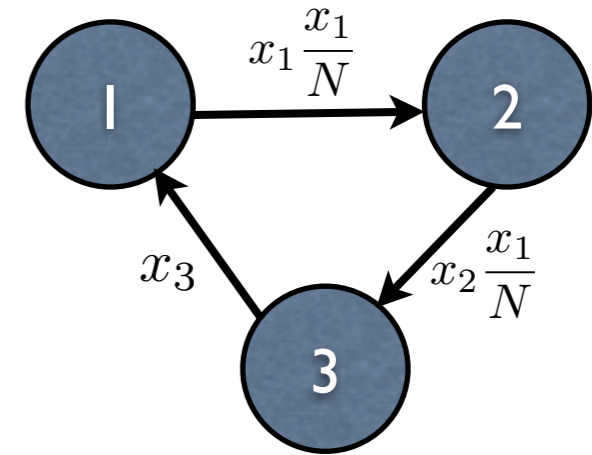
$N$  is the total number of particles

# The master equation: for $p(x_1, x_2, x_3, t)$



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dp}{dt} = & \frac{(x_1 + 1)^2}{N} p(x_1 + 1, x_2 - 1, x_3) - \frac{x_1^2}{N} p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ & + \frac{x_1(x_2 + 1)}{N} p(x_1, x_2 + 1, x_3 - 1) - \frac{x_1 x_2}{N} p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ & + (x_3 + 1) p(x_1 - 1, x_2, x_3 + 1) - x_3 p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \end{aligned}$$

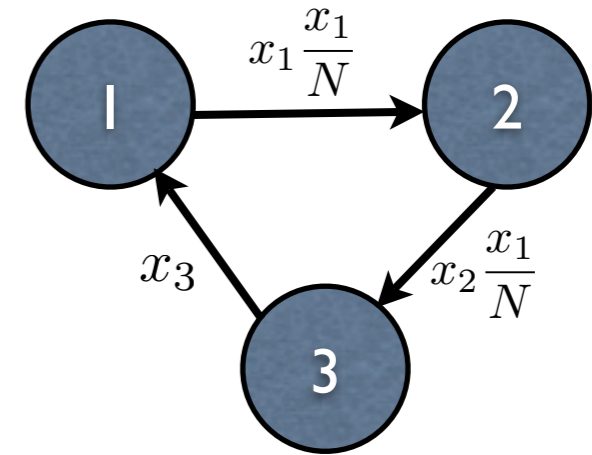
The **master equation**:  
for  $p(x_1, x_2, x_3, t)$



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dp}{dt} = & \frac{(x_1 + 1)^2}{N} p(x_1 + 1, x_2 - 1, x_3) - \frac{x_1^2}{N} p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ & + \frac{x_1(x_2 + 1)}{N} p(x_1, x_2 + 1, x_3 - 1) - \frac{x_1 x_2}{N} p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ & + (x_3 + 1) p(x_1 - 1, x_2, x_3 + 1) - x_3 p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \end{aligned}$$

Because occupancies are  $O(N)$ , each reaction changes by little the “**density**”  $X_i = x_i/N$ .

## The **master equation**: for $p(x_1, x_2, x_3, t)$



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dp}{dt} = & \frac{(x_1 + 1)^2}{N} p(x_1 + 1, x_2 - 1, x_3) - \frac{x_1^2}{N} p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ & + \frac{x_1(x_2 + 1)}{N} p(x_1, x_2 + 1, x_3 - 1) - \frac{x_1 x_2}{N} p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \\ & + (x_3 + 1) p(x_1 - 1, x_2, x_3 + 1) - x_3 p(x_1, x_2, x_3) \end{aligned}$$

Because occupancies are  $O(N)$ , each reaction changes by little the “**density**”  $X_i = x_i/N$ .

## **Van-Kampen’s $\Omega$ -expansion**:

A change of variables. Treat the  $X_i$  as continuous variables.

$$\rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(NX_1, NX_2, NX_3)$$

The master equation in terms of  $\rho(X_1, X_2, X_3)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon \frac{d\rho}{dt} = & (X_1 + \epsilon)^2 \rho(X_1 + \epsilon, X_2 - \epsilon, X_3) - X_1^2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ & + X_1(X_2 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1, X_2 + \epsilon, X_3 - \epsilon) - X_1 X_2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ & + (X_3 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1 - \epsilon, X_2, X_3 + \epsilon) - X_3 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3)\end{aligned}$$

where  $\epsilon = I/N$ .

The master equation in terms of  $\rho(X_1, X_2, X_3)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon \frac{d\rho}{dt} &= (X_1 + \epsilon)^2 \rho(X_1 + \epsilon, X_2 - \epsilon, X_3) - X_1^2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ &+ X_1(X_2 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1, X_2 + \epsilon, X_3 - \epsilon) - X_1 X_2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ &+ (X_3 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1 - \epsilon, X_2, X_3 + \epsilon) - X_3 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3)\end{aligned}$$

where  $\epsilon = 1/N$ . Taylor expand and take  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ :

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial X_1} [(X_1^2 - X_3)\rho] + \frac{\partial}{\partial X_2} \{(X_1 X_2 - X_1^2)\rho\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial X_3} [(X_3 - X_1 X_2)\rho]$$

The master equation in terms of  $\rho(X_1, X_2, X_3)$ :

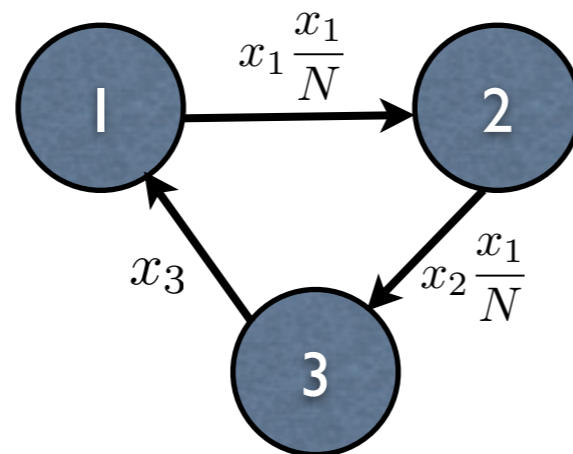
$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon \frac{d\rho}{dt} = & (X_1 + \epsilon)^2 \rho(X_1 + \epsilon, X_2 - \epsilon, X_3) - X_1^2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ & + X_1(X_2 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1, X_2 + \epsilon, X_3 - \epsilon) - X_1 X_2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ & + (X_3 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1 - \epsilon, X_2, X_3 + \epsilon) - X_3 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\epsilon = 1/N$ . Taylor expand and take  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ :

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial X_1} [(X_1^2 - X_3)\rho] + \frac{\partial}{\partial X_2} \{(X_1 X_2 - X_1^2)\rho\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial X_3} [(X_3 - X_1 X_2)\rho]$$

This is the **Liouville equation** of the (deterministic) system (the **rate equations**):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dX_1}{dt} &= -X_1^2 + X_3 \\ \frac{dX_2}{dt} &= -X_1 X_2 + X_1^2 \\ \frac{dX_3}{dt} &= -X_3 + X_1 X_2 \end{aligned}$$



**class SD**

The master equation in terms of  $\rho(X_1, X_2, X_3)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon \frac{d\rho}{dt} = & (X_1 + \epsilon)^2 \rho(X_1 + \epsilon, X_2 - \epsilon, X_3) - X_1^2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ & + X_1(X_2 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1, X_2 + \epsilon, X_3 - \epsilon) - X_1 X_2 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \\ & + (X_3 + \epsilon) \rho(X_1 - \epsilon, X_2, X_3 + \epsilon) - X_3 \rho(X_1, X_2, X_3) \end{aligned}$$

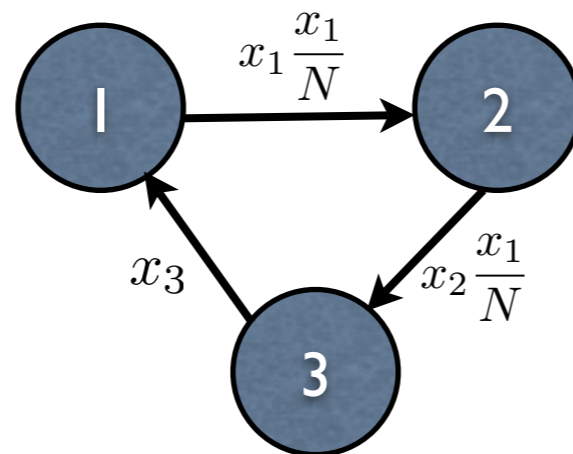
where  $\epsilon = 1/N$ . Taylor expand and take  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ :

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial X_1} [(X_1^2 - X_3)\rho] + \frac{\partial}{\partial X_2} \{(X_1 X_2 - X_1^2)\rho\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial X_3} [(X_3 - X_1 X_2)\rho]$$

This is the **Liouville equation** of the (deterministic) system (the **rate equations**):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dX_1}{dt} &= -X_1^2 + X_3 \\ \frac{dX_2}{dt} &= -X_1 X_2 + X_1^2 \\ \frac{dX_3}{dt} &= -X_3 + X_1 X_2 \end{aligned}$$

**class SD**



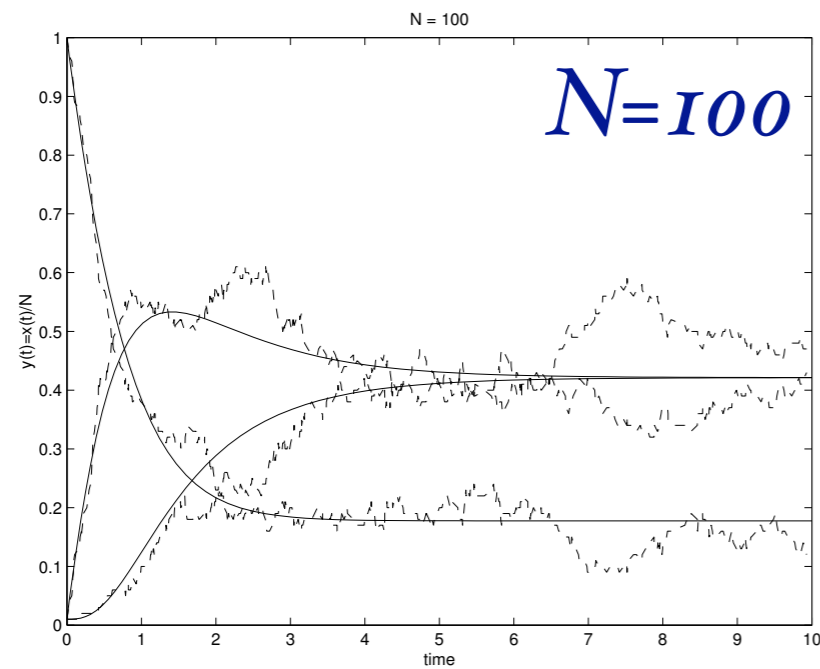
**if  $O(\epsilon)$  terms are retained one gets a second-order Fokker-Planck equation of a stochastic system.**

**class SS**



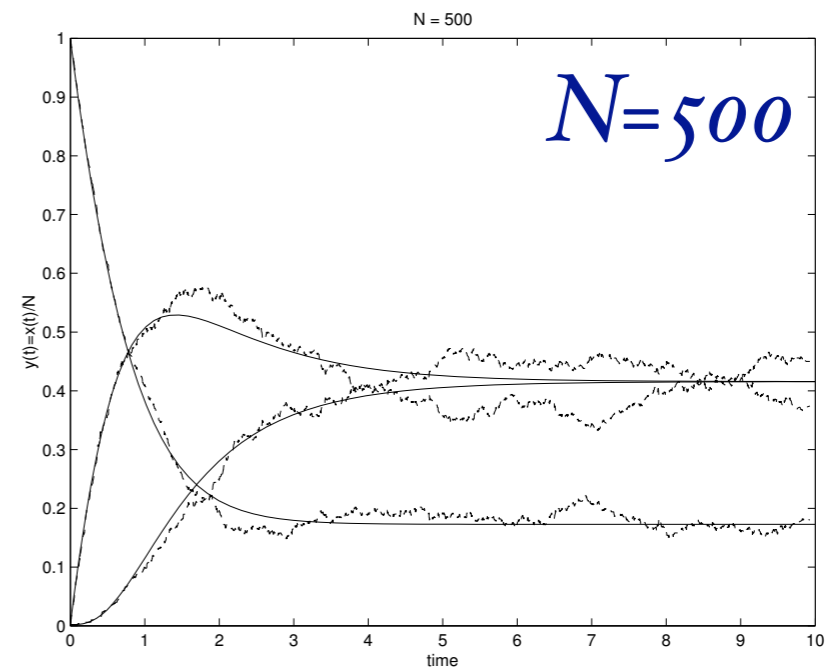
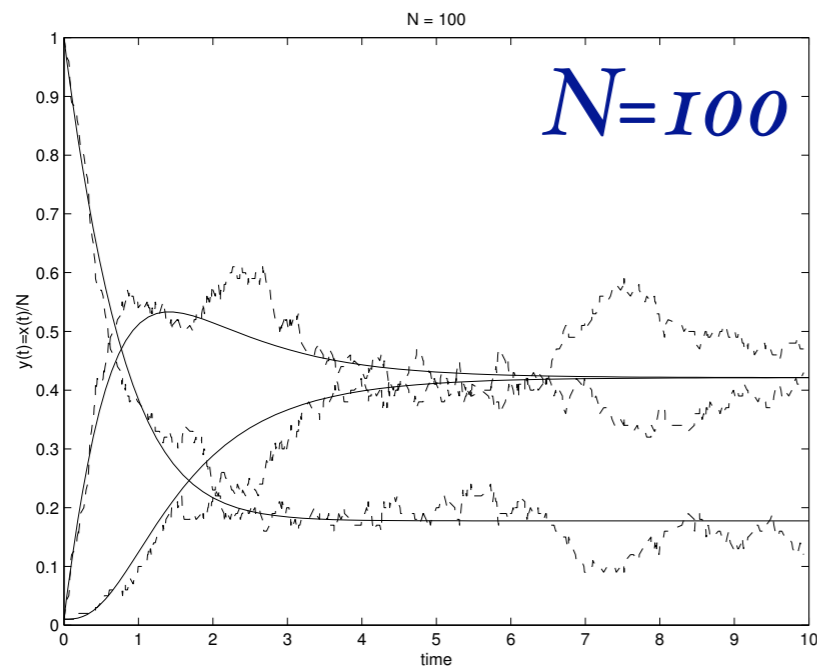
## Numerical simulation:

Comparison between a single realization of the Gillespie algorithm with the solution of the deterministic reduced system.



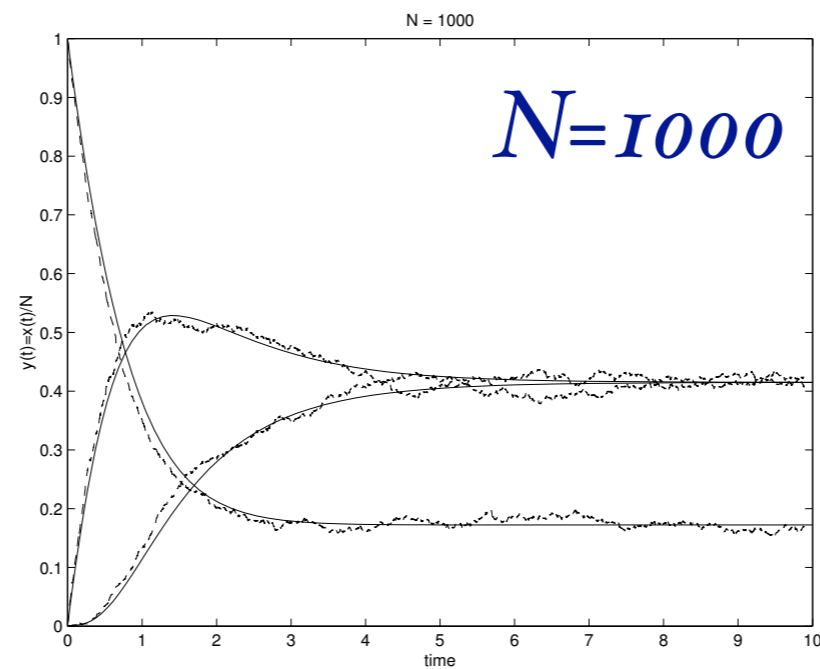
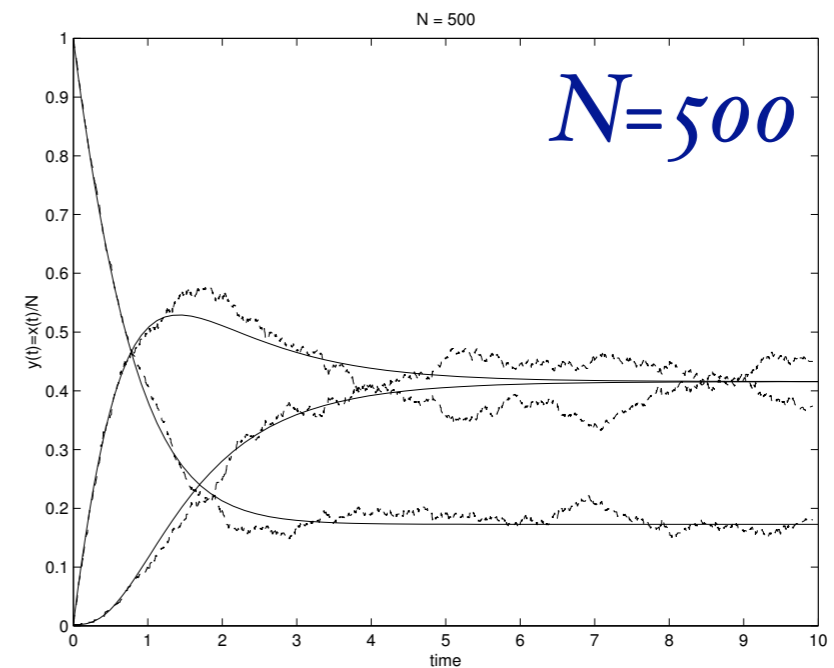
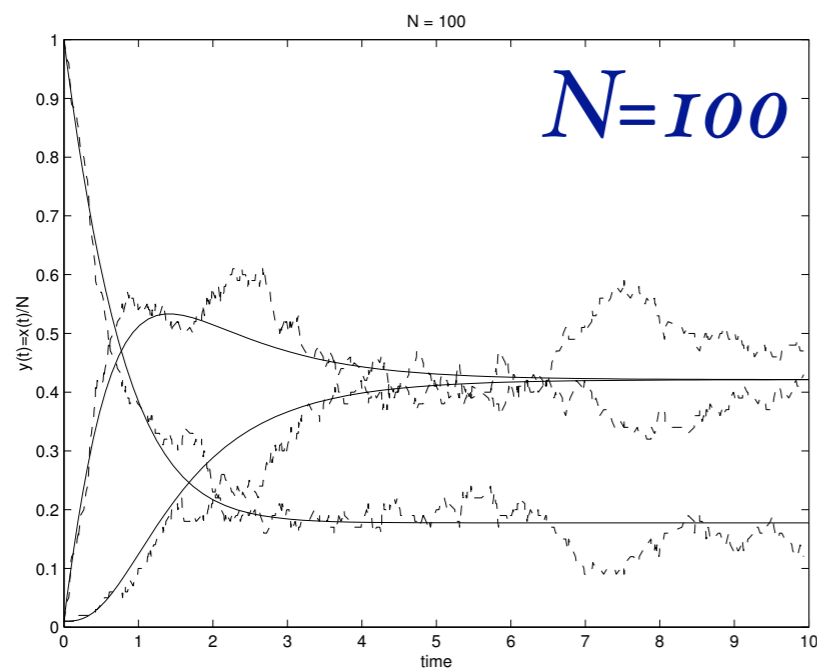
# Numerical simulation:

Comparison between a single realization of the Gillespie algorithm with the solution of the deterministic reduced system.



# Numerical simulation:

Comparison between a single realization of the Gillespie algorithm with the solution of the deterministic reduced system.



# Algorithms

We have seen two classes of systems in which dimension reduction can be **rigorously** obtained as a limit (scale separation and large systems).

Most case of (real) interest do not belong to any of these classes (at least not in a strict sense), yet, “something needs to be done”.

In the remaning of this lecture we will review **uncontrolled approximations**, as well as **computational algorithms** of dimension reduction.

[I apologize in advance: I will only refer to a small part of the recent developments.]

# Projective Integration

Kevrekidis and co-workers 2003 and later

Suppose we have a deterministic system with **scale separation**, but we are unable to derive the reduced model. **Goal:** approximate  $x(t)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

# Projective Integration

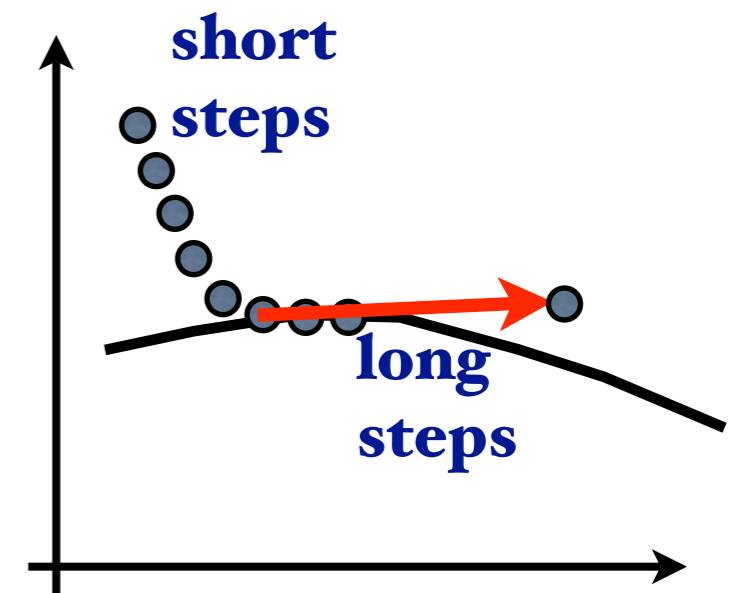
Kevrekidis and co-workers 2003 and later

Suppose we have a deterministic system with **scale separation**, but we are unable to derive the reduced model. **Goal:** approximate  $x(t)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= f(x, y) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{1}{\epsilon} g(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

**Case I:** for fixed  $x$  the  $y$ -dynamics are attracted to an invariant manifold.

**Algorithm:** perform a number of short time steps to let  $y$  reach the invariant manifold. Evaluate the time-derivative of  $x$ , and then advance  $x$  by a “large” step.



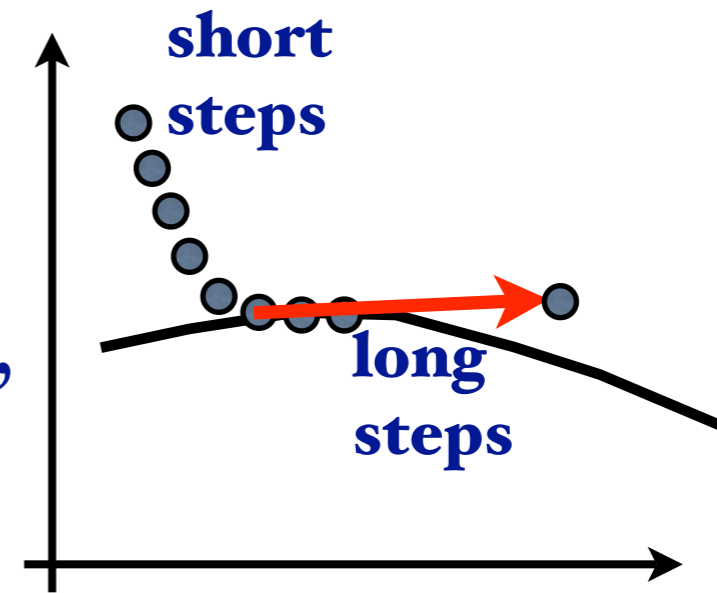
## Projective integration scheme:

given  $(x_n, y_n)$

Integrate the  $y$ -equation with “**small**” time steps  $\delta t < \epsilon$ , for a time long enough to reach the manifold:

$$y_{n,m+1} = y_{n,m} + \frac{\delta t}{\epsilon} g(x_n, y_{n,m})$$

$$i = 0, \dots, M - 1$$





## Projective integration scheme:

given  $(x_n, y_n)$

Integrate the  $y$ -equation with “**small**” time steps  $\delta t < \epsilon$ , for a time long enough to reach the manifold:

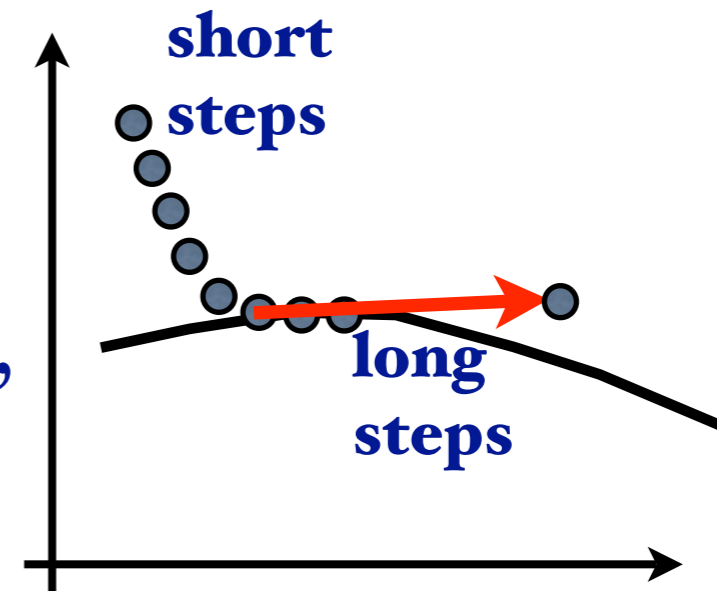
$$y_{n,m+1} = y_{n,m} + \frac{\delta t}{\epsilon} g(x_n, y_{n,m})$$

$$i = 0, \dots, M - 1$$

Evolve  $x$  in time “**macroscopically**”:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \Delta t f(x_n, y_{n,M})$$

Can be generalized to **higher-order schemes**.



**Example:**

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = y$$

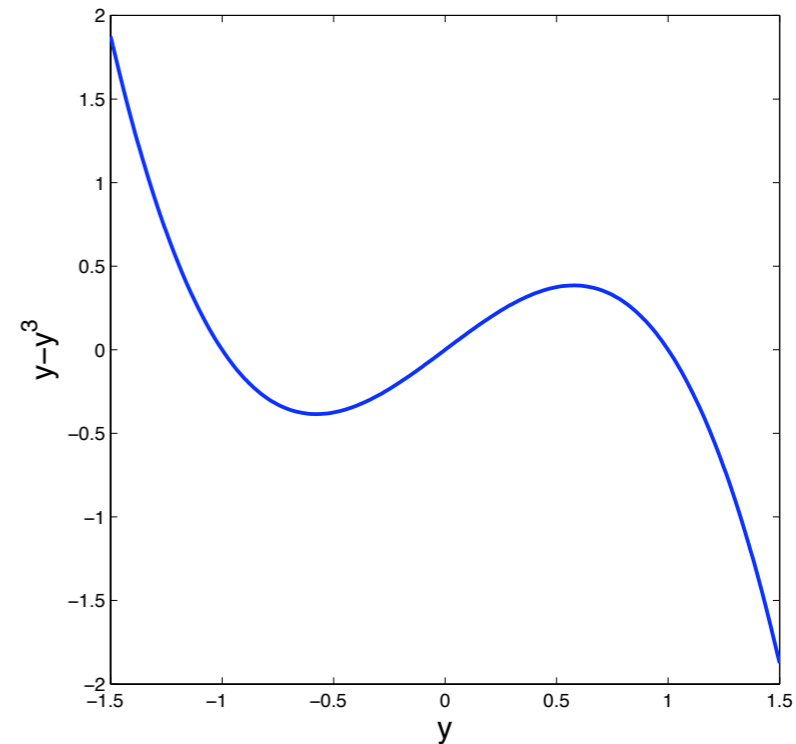
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} (-x + y - y^3)$$

## Example:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} (-x + y - y^3)$$

For  $|x| < 1/\sqrt{3}$  the  $y$ -equation is **bi-stable**. Suppose  $x(0) < 1/\sqrt{3}$  and  $y$  is near the positive fixed point.  $x$  grows until it exceeds  $1/\sqrt{3}$ , then  $y$  jumps to the negative branch and  $x$  decreased until it gets under  $-1/\sqrt{3}$  and so on.

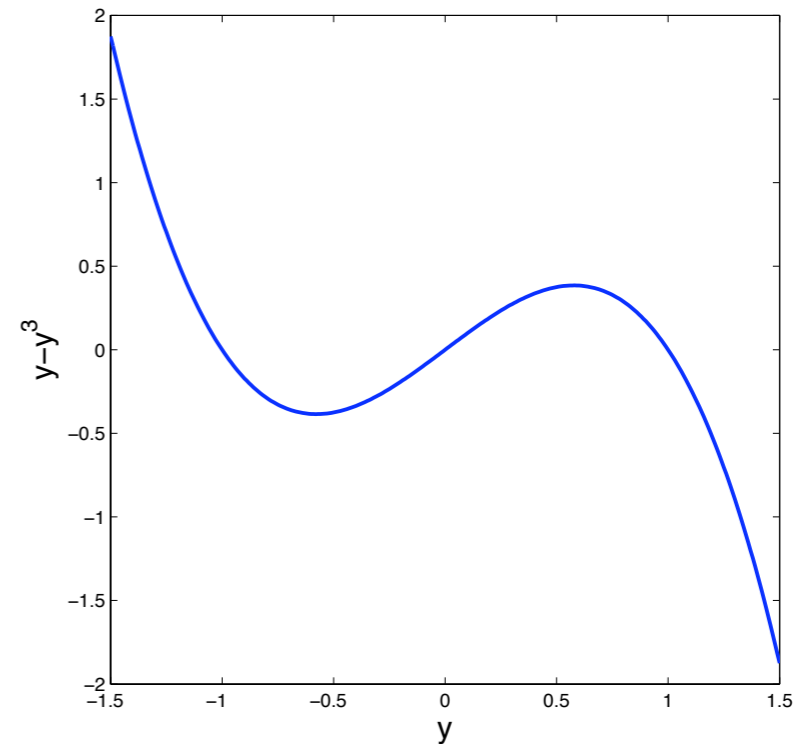


## Example:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} (-x + y - y^3)$$

For  $|x| < 1/\sqrt{3}$  the  $y$ -equation is **bi-stable**. Suppose  $x(0) < 1/\sqrt{3}$  and  $y$  is near the positive fixed point.  $x$  grows until it exceeds  $1/\sqrt{3}$ , then  $y$  jumps to the negative branch and  $x$  decreased until it gets under  $-1/\sqrt{3}$  and so on.

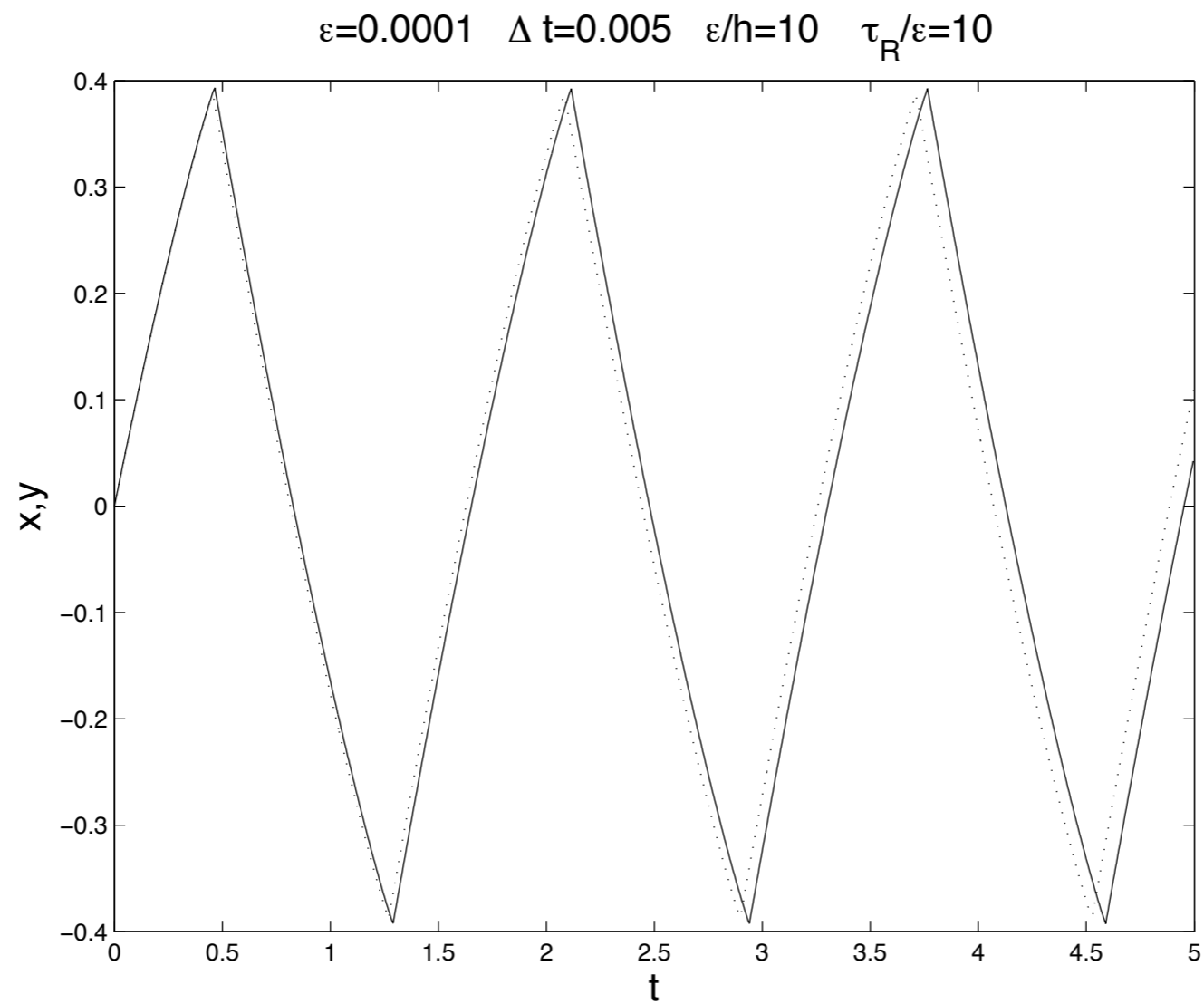


## Projective integration:

$$y_{n,m+1} = y_{n,m} + \frac{\delta t}{\epsilon} (-x_n + y_{n,m} - y_{n,m}^3)$$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + \Delta t y_{n,M}$$

# Numerical results:



$$\epsilon = 10^{-4}$$

$$\delta t = 0.1\epsilon$$

$$M \delta t = 10\epsilon$$

$$\Delta t = 0.005$$

This idea can even be used in cases where **we do not know the partition of slow and fast variables** (but we know that such a partition exists).

In many cases, no harm if we evolve  $x$  as well in the first (relaxation) phase, and then project forward both  $x$  and  $y$  ( $y$  will tend back to the invariant manifold in the following relaxation phase).

This idea was proposed by Gear and Kevrekidis as a mean to **accelerate** existing “**legacy codes**”, by wrapping them with a projective integrator.

# Equation-Free Closures

Kevrekidis and co-worker developed numerous algorithms on the premises that **one does not even have equations** (e.g., the legacy code), or, equivalently, that the equations are known but useless.

The assumption is that we have control of a numerical solver that we can use at will (e.g., initialize with various initial data), but only for **short time intervals** (“bursts”).

The idea is to make a clever use of these short calculations to predict “coarse” properties of the system.

**Example** [Siettos *et al.* 2003]:

Liquid crystalline polymers are characterized by an orientation unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . The distribution  $\psi(\mathbf{u}, t)$  satisfies the (nonlinear) **Smoluchowski equation**:

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \mathbf{u}} + \psi(\mathbf{u}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) \right]$$




**Example** [Siettos *et al.* 2003]:

Liquid crystalline polymers are characterized by an orientation unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . The distribution  $\psi(\mathbf{u}, t)$  satisfies the (nonlinear) **Smoluchowski equation**:

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \mathbf{u}} + \psi(\mathbf{u}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) \right]$$

$V(\psi, \mathbf{u})$  is the potential, given by the mean field expression:

$$V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) = -\alpha \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} : S \quad S = \langle \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} \rangle - \frac{I}{3}$$



**potential intensity**                      **averaging w.r.t  $\psi$**


**Example** [Siettos *et al.* 2003]:

Liquid crystalline polymers are characterized by an orientation unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . The distribution  $\psi(\mathbf{u}, t)$  satisfies the (nonlinear) **Smoluchowski equation**:

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \mathbf{u}} + \psi(\mathbf{u}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) \right]$$

$V(\psi, \mathbf{u})$  is the potential, given by the mean field expression:

$$V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) = -\alpha \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} : S \quad S = \langle \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} \rangle - \frac{I}{3}$$



**potential intensity**                      **averaging w.r.t  $\psi$**

**Goal:** find the equilibrium value of a “**coarse order-parameter**” as function of the potential intensity  $\alpha$ .  
(high dimensional problem)

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \mathbf{u}} + \psi(\mathbf{u}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) \right]$$

$$V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) = -\alpha \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} : S \quad S = \langle \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} \rangle - \frac{I}{3}$$

# Algorithm:

- Step 1: **select** the “coarse” variables:

$$X = \langle u_z u_z \rangle - \frac{1}{3}$$

- Step 2: given  $X$ , “**lift**” it to many “microscopic” states  $\mathbf{u}$  that are consistent with the value of  $X$ .
- Step 3: **evolve** each macroscopic state for a short duration  $T$  (here, evolve the corresponding SDE, and approximate ensemble averages by empirical averages).
- Step 4: **project** the ensemble  $\mathbf{u}(T)$  onto the coarse variables  $X$ .

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \mathbf{u}} + \psi(\mathbf{u}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) \right]$$

$$V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) = -\alpha \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} : S \quad S = \langle \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} \rangle - \frac{I}{3}$$

# Algorithm:

- Step 1: **select** the “coarse” variables:

$$X = \langle u_z u_z \rangle - \frac{1}{3}$$

- Step 2: given  $X$ , “**lift**” it to many “microscopic” states  $\mathbf{u}$  that are consistent with the value of  $X$ .
- Step 3: **evolve** each macroscopic state for a short duration  $T$  (here, evolve the corresponding SDE, and approximate ensemble averages by empirical averages).
- Step 4: **project** the ensemble  $\mathbf{u}(T)$  onto the coarse variables  $X$ .

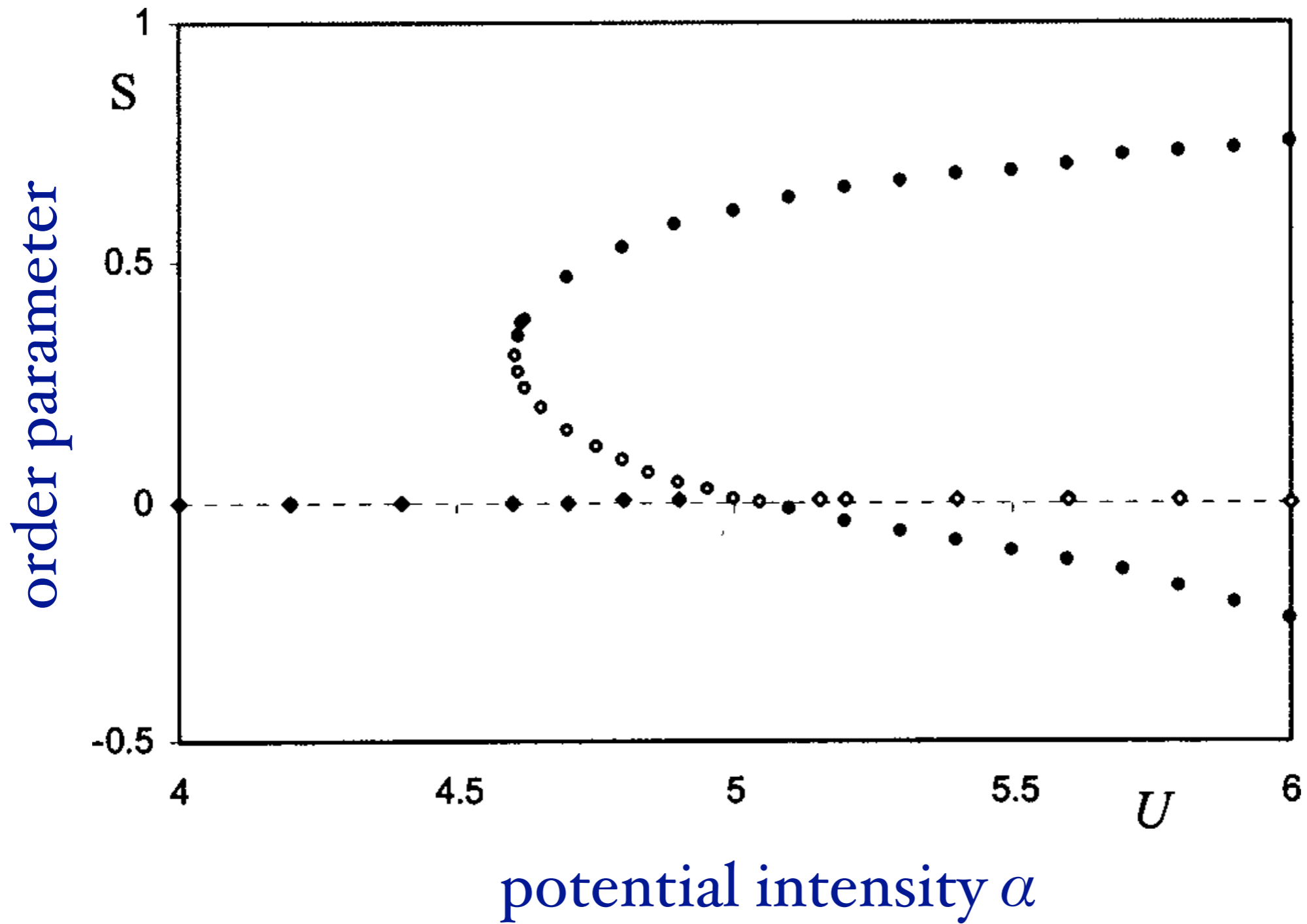
$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \mathbf{u}} + \psi(\mathbf{u}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{u}} V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) \right]$$

$$V(\psi, \mathbf{u}) = -\alpha \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} : S \quad S = \langle \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u} \rangle - \frac{I}{3}$$

The **lift-evolve-project** cycle provides a “projective integrator” for the coarse variables (separation of scales implicitity assumed).

Use it to do “**numerical analysis**” (e.g., find fixed points, bifurcation analysis, etc.)

# Results: bifurcation diagram



# System Identification

# System Identification

**Idea:** observe trajectories of the system of interest (experiments or simulations) and fit its behavior to an optimally selected low-dimensional model.



# System Identification

**Idea:** observe trajectories of the system of interest (experiments or simulations) and fit its behavior to an optimally selected low-dimensional model.

**Motivating example:**

# System Identification

**Idea:** observe trajectories of the system of interest (experiments or simulations) and fit its behavior to an optimally selected low-dimensional model.

**Motivating example:**

- we observe the time evolution of the conformation of a complex molecule.

# System Identification

**Idea:** observe trajectories of the system of interest (experiments or simulations) and fit its behavior to an optimally selected low-dimensional model.

## **Motivating example:**

- we observe the time evolution of the conformation of a complex molecule.
- We assume that the effective dynamics consist of rare transitions between **metastable states**.

# System Identification

**Idea:** observe trajectories of the system of interest (experiments or simulations) and fit its behavior to an optimally selected low-dimensional model.

## **Motivating example:**

- we observe the time evolution of the conformation of a complex molecule.
- We assume that the effective dynamics consist of rare transitions between **metastable states**.
- We model the transitions between essential conformations by a **continuous-time Markov process**.

# System Identification

**Idea:** observe trajectories of the system of interest (experiments or simulations) and fit its behavior to an optimally selected low-dimensional model.

## **Motivating example:**

- we observe the time evolution of the conformation of a complex molecule.
- We assume that the effective dynamics consist of rare transitions between **metastable states**.
- We model the transitions between essential conformations by a **continuous-time Markov process**.
- Unclear **what conformations are** (we observe points in a high-dimensional space) and how many.

**Example** [Huisinga et al. 2003]:

Assume skew symmetric dynamics:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(y)$$

**Example** [Huisinga et al. 2003]:

Assume skew symmetric dynamics:  $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y)$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(y)$$

A trajectory of the system is sampled at time intervals  $\tau$ . This induces a propagation operator (“embedded Markov chain”):

$$(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) = \Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

**Example** [Huisinga et al. 2003]:

Assume skew symmetric dynamics:  $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y)$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(y)$$

A trajectory of the system is sampled at time intervals  $\tau$ . This induces a propagation operator (“embedded Markov chain”):

$$(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) = \Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

Denoting by  $\Pi$  the projection  $(x, y) \rightarrow x$ , we are interested in the (**non-Markovian**) dynamics.

$$x_{n+1} = \Pi\Phi(x_n, y_n)$$



**Example** [Huisinga et al. 2003]:

Assume skew symmetric dynamics:  $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x, y)$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = g(y)$$

A trajectory of the system is sampled at time intervals  $\tau$ . This induces a propagation operator (“embedded Markov chain”):

$$(x_{n+1}, y_{n+1}) = \Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

Denoting by  $\Pi$  the projection  $(x, y) \rightarrow x$ , we are interested in the (**non-Markovian**) dynamics.

$$x_{n+1} = \Pi\Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

**Goal:** identify the meta-stable states in  $\mathcal{X}$  and the corresponding Markov transition matrix.

$$x_{n+1} = \Pi\Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

$$x_{n+1} = \Pi\Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

The underlying assumption is that some kind of scale separation exists, so that the process  $x_n$  can be approximated by a Markov chain on  $\mathcal{X}$ .

$$x_{n+1} = \Pi\Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

The underlying assumption is that some kind of scale separation exists, so that the process  $x_n$  can be approximated by a Markov chain on  $\mathcal{X}$ .

**Key idea:** metastability is associated with the eigenfunctions with eigenvalues close to 1. These eigenfunctions are approximately piece-wise constant. The meta-stable states are the piece-wise constant intervals.

$$x_{n+1} = \Pi\Phi(x_n, y_n)$$

The underlying assumption is that some kind of scale separation exists, so that the process  $x_n$  can be approximated by a Markov chain on  $\mathcal{X}$ .

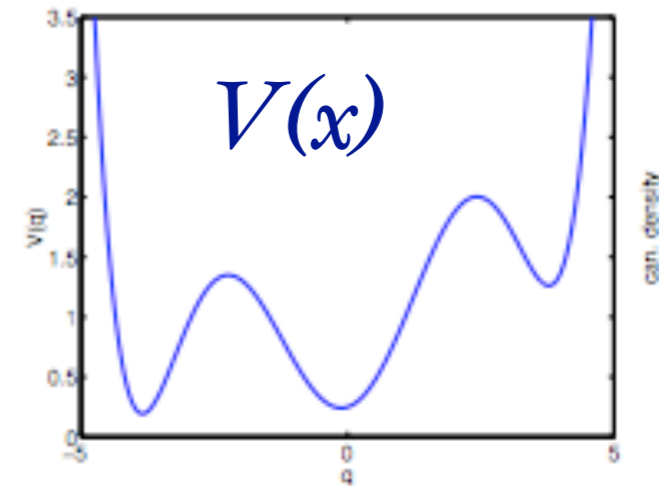
**Key idea:** metastability is associated with the eigenfunctions with eigenvalues close to 1. These eigenfunctions are approximately piece-wise constant. The meta-stable states are the piece-wise constant intervals.

**Algorithm:** (1) partition into a finite (large) number of intervals. (2) construct the Markov transition matrix  $P_{ij}$  by empirical counting. (3) identify the cluster of e.v. close to 1. (4) identify the meta-stable states. (5) project  $P_{ij}$  onto the coarser partition.

# Model example: a particle interacting with a “heat bath”

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -V'(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N u_j$$

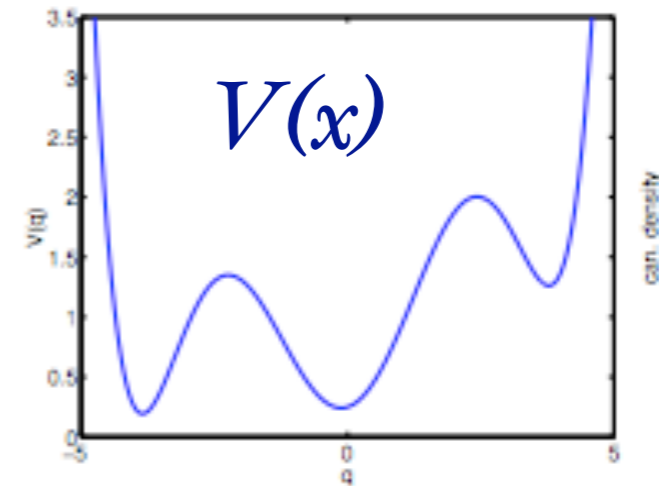
$$\frac{du_j}{dt} = -j u_j \quad j = 1, \dots, N$$



# Model example: a particle interacting with a “heat bath”

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -V'(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N u_j$$

$$\frac{du_j}{dt} = -j u_j \quad j = 1, \dots, N$$

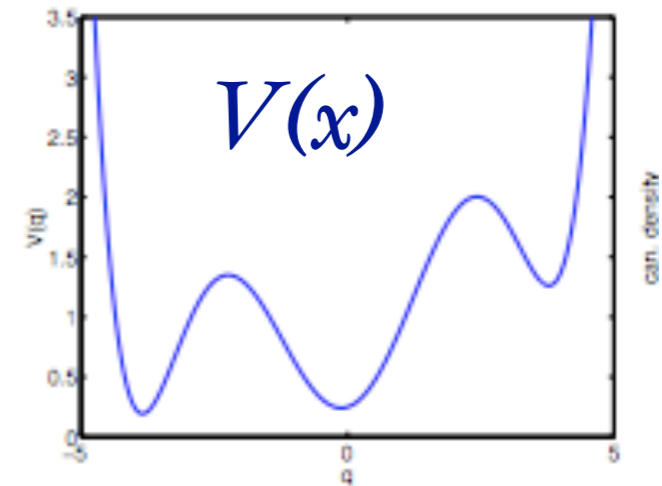


- Evolve the system and sample  $x(t)$  at time intervals  $\tau$ .

# Model example: a particle interacting with a “heat bath”

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -V'(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N u_j$$

$$\frac{du_j}{dt} = -j u_j \quad j = 1, \dots, N$$



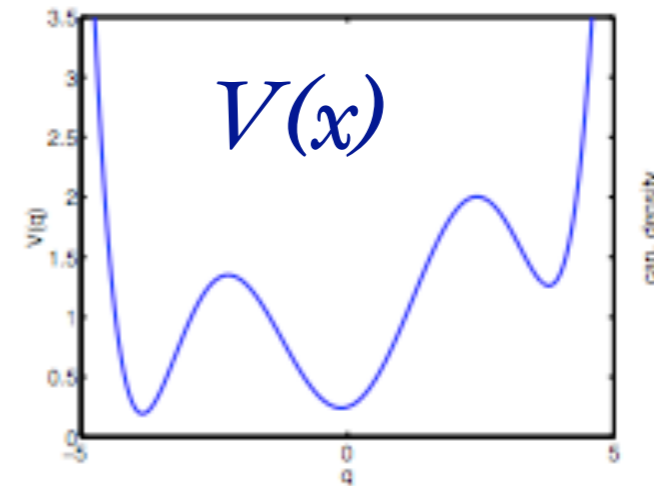
- Evolve the system and sample  $x(t)$  at time intervals  $\tau$ .
- Divide the axis into many small intervals.



# Model example: a particle interacting with a “heat bath”

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -V'(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N u_j$$

$$\frac{du_j}{dt} = -j u_j \quad j = 1, \dots, N$$

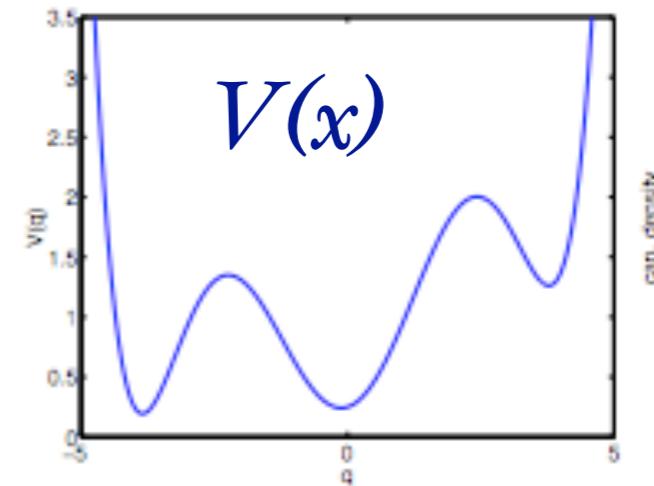


- Evolve the system and sample  $x(t)$  at time intervals  $\tau$ .
- Divide the axis into many small intervals.
- Construct a transition matrix  $P_{ij}$  by counting.

# Model example: a particle interacting with a “heat bath”

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -V'(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N u_j$$

$$\frac{du_j}{dt} = -j u_j \quad j = 1, \dots, N$$

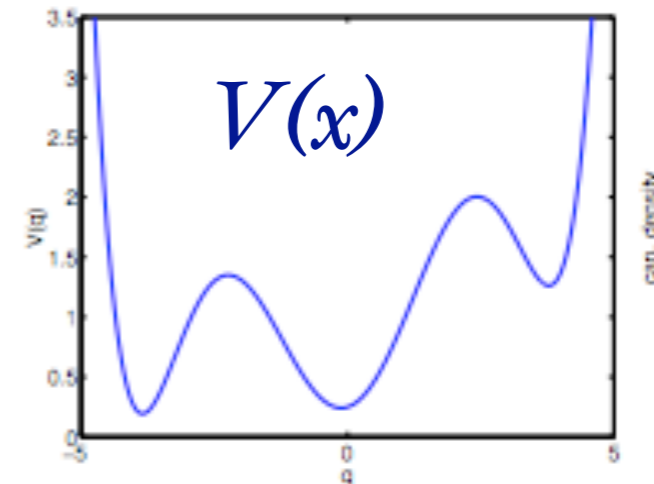


- Evolve the system and sample  $x(t)$  at time intervals  $\tau$ .
- Divide the axis into many small intervals.
- Construct a transition matrix  $P_{ij}$  by counting.
- Calculate the spectrum of this matrix.

# Model example: a particle interacting with a “heat bath”

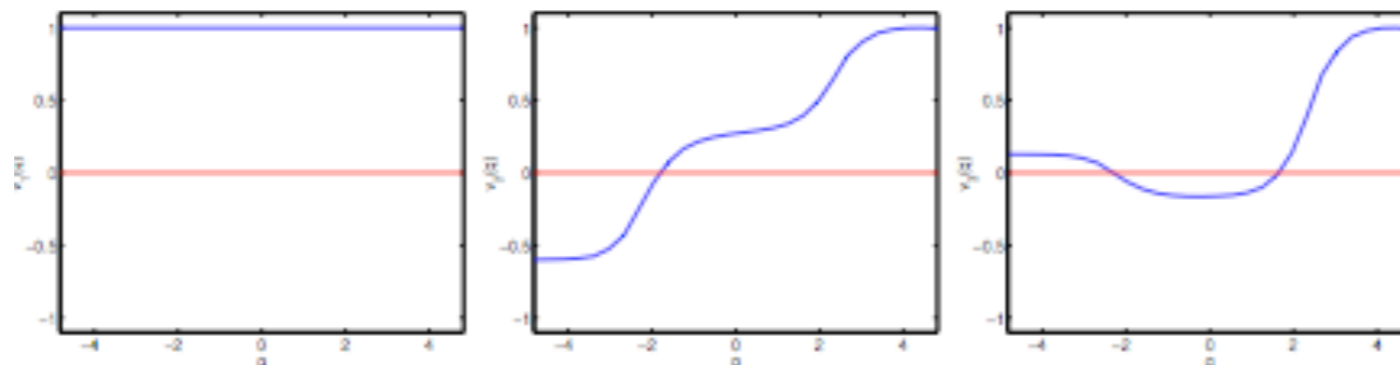
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -V'(x) + \sum_{j=1}^N u_j$$

$$\frac{du_j}{dt} = -j u_j \quad j = 1, \dots, N$$



- Evolve the system and sample  $x(t)$  at time intervals  $\tau$ .
- Divide the axis into many small intervals.
- Construct a transition matrix  $P_{ij}$  by counting.
- Calculate the spectrum of this matrix.

$\lambda_1$	$\lambda_2$	$\lambda_3$	$\lambda_4$	$\lambda_5$	$\lambda_6$	...
1.000	0.950	0.915	0.387	0.227	0.125	...



# Concluding Remarks

# Concluding Remarks

- Active field of research. Systems of increasing complexity are being studied, raising the demand for dimension-reduction techniques.

# Concluding Remarks

- Active field of research. Systems of increasing complexity are being studied, raising the demand for dimension-reduction techniques.
- Analyses are very instructive, but usually restricted to systems of “academic” interest.

# Concluding Remarks

- Active field of research. Systems of increasing complexity are being studied, raising the demand for dimension-reduction techniques.
- Analyses are very instructive, but usually restricted to systems of “academic” interest.
- In “real life” one has to be content with uncontrolled approximations. Has to be “tailored” to the problem at hand. No technique is able to solve all problems.

# Concluding Remarks

- Active field of research. Systems of increasing complexity are being studied, raising the demand for dimension-reduction techniques.
- Analyses are very instructive, but usually restricted to systems of “academic” interest.
- In “real life” one has to be content with uncontrolled approximations. Has to be “tailored” to the problem at hand. No technique is able to solve all problems.
- Many open ends (e.g., what is the mathematical framework for equationsless closures?)