Numerical simulation of complex SDEs driven by real Brownian motion

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First, the connection with the Fokker-Planck equation: for

$$
dX = b(X)dt + \sigma(X)d\omega(t),
$$

where $X(0) = x$, the distribution function $p(x, 0; X, t)$ for X satisfies the forward Fokker-Planck equation:

$$
\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial X} \{b(X)\rho\} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial X^2} \{a(X)\rho\},\,
$$

where $\mathit{a}(X) = \sigma(X) \sigma(X)^{\mathcal{T}}$. This can be easily generalized to include a potential $V(X)$, indeed even quasi-linear potentials, via the Feyman-Kac formula. All of this follows from Itô's formula because $d\omega(t)d\omega(t) = dt$.

Example numerical methods: Euler-Maruyama

$$
z_{k+1} = z_k + b(z_k)h + \sigma(z_k)\Delta\omega
$$

is strong order $1/2$, weak order 1. Milstein's method

$$
z_{k+1} = z_k + b(z_k)h + \sigma(z_k)\Delta\omega
$$

+
$$
\frac{1}{2}\sigma(z_k)\sigma'(z_k)((\Delta\omega)^2 - h)
$$

is strong order $\beta = 1$, and weak order 1. Higher order weak methods require modeling

$$
I_{ij} = \int_0^h \omega_i d\omega_j, \qquad I_{i0} = \int_0^h \omega_i(s) ds,
$$

$$
I_{ijk} = \int_0^h \omega_i \omega_j d\omega_k, \qquad I_{ii0} = \int_0^h \omega_i^2 ds.
$$

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A very simple $O(\mathit{h}^{2})$ accurate model for $\Delta \omega$ is

$$
\xi = \sqrt{3h} \quad \text{with probability } 1/6, \\
= -\sqrt{3h} \quad \text{with probability } 1/6, \\
= 0 \quad \text{with probability } 2/3.
$$

Important facts about these bounded increments:

- In they introduce Fourier spectra with wave vectors $=$ k √ 3h, where $\textbf{k} \in \mathbb{Z}^{d}$.
- \triangleright in $d > 1$ dimensions, Δw is not isotropic.

Figure: 3-D distribution of bounded increments

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We can make these isotropic using Pete Stewart's random rotations: $S = diag(sign(u_1))$ (for each u below)

$$
U = SU_0U_1\ldots U_{N-2}
$$

where

$$
U_k = \left(\begin{array}{cc} I_k & \\ & H_{N-k} \end{array}\right)
$$

 H_i = Householder transforms,

$$
H_j = I_j - 2 \frac{\mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^T}{||\mathbf{u}||^2}
$$

with *j*−length vectors **u**

$$
\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{x} - ||\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{e}_1,
$$

each $x_i \in \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, $i = 1, \ldots, j$.

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A quasi-symplectic method in three stages beginning at x_0 .

$$
x_{1/2} = x_0 + \frac{h}{4}(b(x_{1/2}) + b(x_0)), \text{ solve for } x_{1/2},
$$
 (1a)

$$
x_1 = x_{1/2} + \int_0^h \sigma(x(s))d\omega(s), \text{ starting at } x_{1/2}, \qquad \text{(1b)}
$$

$$
x_h = x_1 + \frac{h}{4}(b(x_h) + b(x_1)),
$$
 solve for x_h . (1c)

Two simple complex scalar cases where the martingale stage $x_{1/2}+\int_0^h\sigma\bigl(x(s)\bigr)d\omega(s)$ is easy to compute:

 $\triangleright \sigma = \text{constant}$, then

$$
x_1 = x_{1/2} + \sigma \Delta \omega,
$$

when $\sigma = 1$, we'll call this **N1**.

 $\bullet \ \sigma(x) = \gamma x$, then

$$
x_1 = x_{1/2} e^{\gamma \Delta \omega - \gamma^2 h/2},
$$

when $\gamma = 1$, call this N2.

A complex example:

$$
dX = (a_0 + a_1 X)dt + (c_0 + c_1 X) d\omega(t), \text{ initially } X(0) = X_0. (2)
$$

A formal solution to this problem is

$$
X(t) = X_0 \Phi(t) + (a_0 - c_0 c_1) \Phi(t) \int_0^t \Phi^{-1}(s) ds
$$

$$
+ c_0 \Phi(t) \int_0^t \Phi^{-1}(s) d\omega(s),
$$

where

$$
\Phi(t) = e^{c_1 \omega(t) + (a_1 - c_1^2/2)t}.
$$

Its inverse is $\Phi^{-1}(t)=e^{-c_1\omega(t)- (a_1-c_1^2/2)t}$. To see how our method works, we need a test statistic

$$
\mathsf{E}[X(t)] = \left(X_0 + \frac{a_0}{a_1}\right) e^{a_1 t} - \frac{a_0}{a_1}.
$$

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Notice that $E[X(t)]$ is independent of coefficients c_0, c_1 , but the distributions for $X(t)$ are very different. For our examples, $a_1 = i$, so $E[X(t)]$ rotates.

Figure: Distribution for $X(t = 1)$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 1$ and $c_1 = 0$

For this additive noise case $(c_0 = 1, c_1 = 0)$, the variance grows linearly with t.

Figure: Distribution for $X(t = 2)$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 1$ and $c_1 = 0$

For a multiplicative noise case $(c_0 = 0, c_1 = 1)$, the variance grows exponentially in t .

Figure: Distribution for $X(t = 1)$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 0$ and $c_1 = 1$

Again, the *multiplicative noise* case $(c_0 = 0, c_1 = 1)$, at $t = 2$:

Figure: Distribution of $X(t = 2)$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 0$ and $c_1 = 1$

For the additive noise $c_1 = 0$ case, our test statistic $E[X(t)]$ for $0 < t < 6\pi$ is:

Figure: $E[X(t)]$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 1$ and $c_1 = 0$

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For the additive noise $c_1 = 0$ case, the test statistic $E[X(t)]$ for $0 \le t \le 6\pi$ using Higham, Mao, and Stuart's 2-stage split-step backward Euler method:

Figure: $E[X(t)]$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 1$ and $c_1 = 0$

For the additive noise $c_1 = 0$ case, the test statistic $E[X(t)]$ for $0 \le t \le 6\pi$ using the forward Euler method,

Figure: $E[X(t)]$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 1$ and $c_1 = 0$

Our test statistic $E[X(t)]$ for the multiplicative noise case and $0 < t < 2\pi$:

Figure: $E[X(t)]$ when $a_0 = 1, a_1 = i, c_0 = 0$ and $c_1 = 1$

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A simple example with drift:

$$
dX = -ib X dt + \sqrt{\mu i} X d\omega(t).
$$

The explicit (but formal) Itô solution is

$$
X(t) = X_0 e^{-i(b+\mu/2)t + \sqrt{\mu i}\omega(t)},
$$

with explicit mean

$$
\langle X(t)\rangle = \mathbf{E}[X(t)] = X_0 e^{-ibt}.
$$

The awkward part is the variance: using the modulus $|X(t)|=|X_0|\exp{(\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{2}}\omega(t))},$

$$
\mathbf{E}[|X(t) - \mathbf{E}[X(t)]|^2] = |X_0|^2(e^{\mu t} - 1),
$$

which grows exponentially.

The simplest example, with complex Brownian motion:

$$
dz=z\,d\omega
$$

where

$$
d\omega=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(d\omega_1+i d\omega_2).
$$

Here each ω_1 , ω_2 are real and uncorrelated. The formal solution is a conformal martingale,

$$
z(t) = z_0 e^{\omega(t)} = z_0 \exp\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\omega_1 + i\omega_2)\right).
$$

Compare this to the real case $dx = x d\omega_1(t)$, whose solution is x_0 exp ($\omega_1(t) - t/2$). Both have constant mean but growing variances:

$$
\mathsf{E}[x(t)] = x_0, \qquad \mathsf{E}[z(t)] = z_0, \quad \text{and,}
$$
\n
$$
\mathsf{E}[|x(t) - \mathsf{E}[x(t)]|^2] = |x_0|^2 (e^t - 1), \qquad \mathsf{E}|z(t) - \mathsf{E}[z(t)]|^2 = |z_0|^2 (e^t - 1).
$$
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