

Part 2: Introduction to SPDE

Yier Lin, Shalin Parekh, Kevin Yang

September 2021, UIRM @ MSRI

- 1 What are SPDE and why are they useful/important/interesting?
- 2 What is space-time white noise? Construction and calculus.
- 3 Basic linear SPDE and Duhamel's principle
- 4 Chaos expansion and multiplicative SPDE.
- 5 Martingale methods to identify the law of an SPDE
- 6 Singular SPDE: regularity computations and local subcriticality assumptions, pathwise solution theories
- 7 Markov property and invariant measures for SPDEs; rate of convergence.

What are SPDEs

SPDEs are to PDEs what SDEs are to ODEs. We are going to focus mainly on evolution SPDEs of the form

$$\partial_t f = L(f) + \sigma(f)\zeta.$$

where L is some operator (possibly nonlinear) and σ is a linear operator. Here ζ is Gaussian space-time white noise, to be explained shortly.

Note the analogy with SDE's of the form

$$dX_t = L(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t)dB_t.$$

Examples of L we will consider:

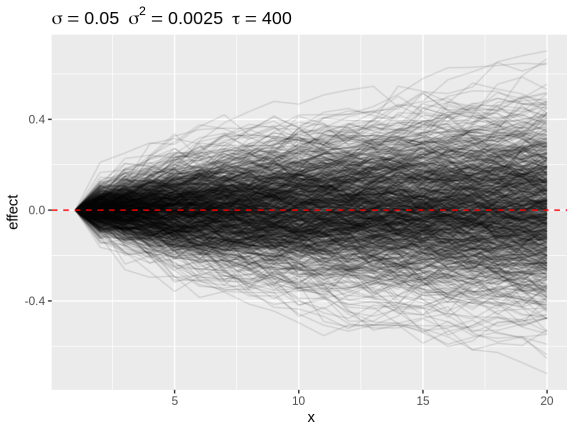
- 1 (SHE / Edwards-Wilkinson) $L(f) = \partial_x^2 f$ or more generally $L(f) = -(-\partial_x^2)^\alpha f$. And $\sigma(f) = I$.
- 2 (mSHE) $L(f) = \partial_x^2 f$ and $\sigma(f)g = fg$.
- 3 (KPZ) $L(f) = \partial_x^2 f + (\partial_x f)^2$ and $\sigma(f) = I$.

- ① (SHE / Edwards-Wilkinson) $\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + \zeta$, or more generally $\partial_t f = -(-\partial_x^2)^\alpha f + \zeta$
- ② (mSHE) $\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + f \zeta$.
- ③ (KPZ) $\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + (\partial_x f)^2 + \zeta$

Why study these?

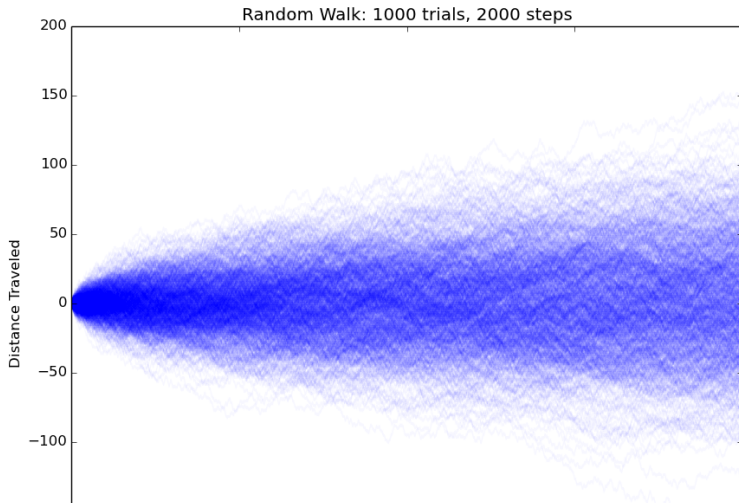
They describe the fluctuations of various systems coming from probability, statistical mechanics.

Simple example: iid random walks or brownian motions.



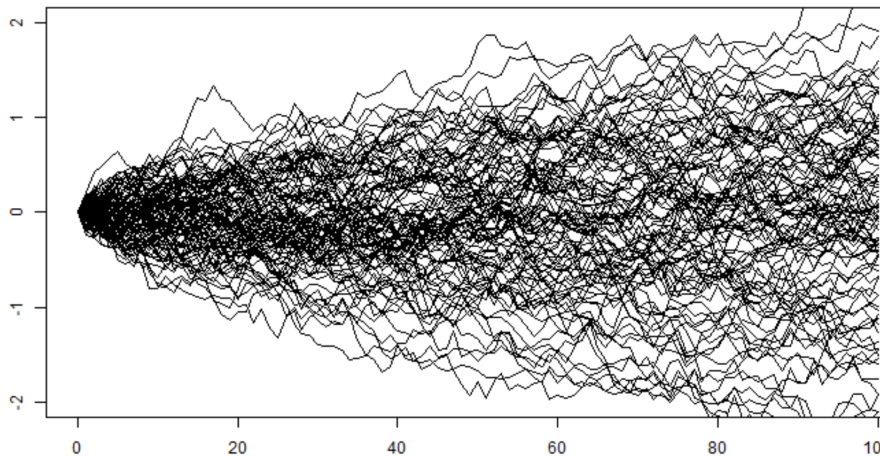
Why study these?

Simple example: iid random walks or brownian motions.



Why study these?

Simple example: iid random walks or brownian motions.



What exactly is space-time white noise?

Often space-time white noise is described as a continuum iid Gaussian field, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}[\tilde{\zeta}(t, x)\tilde{\zeta}(s, y)] = \delta(t - s)\delta(x - y).$$

That's not rigorous and it needs to be interpreted in an integrated sense: $\tilde{\zeta}$ is a random variable taking values in Schwarz distributions such that $(\tilde{\zeta}, f)$ is always a Gaussian and

$$\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{\zeta}, f)_{L^2}(\tilde{\zeta}, g)_{L^2}] = (f, g)_{L^2},$$

where $L^2 = L^2(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R})$.

Construction of STWN

How to prove existence of such a random variable ζ taking values in $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^2)$? Similar to construction of Brownian motion. Several options:

1. Use Kolmogorov's extension theorem to construct a projective family of r.v. $\{(\zeta, f)\}$ indexed by $f \in \mathcal{S}$ such that the covariance structure of any finite subfamily is as specified.
2. Choose an orthonormal basis $\{e_j\}$ for $L^2(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R})$ and let ζ_j be iid $N(0,1)$. Then define

$$(\zeta, f) := \sum_j (e_j, f) \zeta_j,$$

which always converges by L^2 martingale convergence theorem.

Construction of STWN

So far this defines a family (ζ, f) indexed by $f \in \mathcal{S}$ (in fact by $f \in L^2$) such that $(\zeta, f + \alpha g) = (\zeta, f) + \alpha(\zeta, g)$ and such that

$$\mathbb{E}[(\zeta, f)^2] = \|f\|_{L^2}^2.$$

After this, one still needs to “glue together” or “modify” this family of variables so that it can actually be realized as a random element of $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^2)$. This is possible thanks to a Kolmogorov continuity criterion together with Gaussian tail bounds:

$$\mathbb{E}[|(\zeta, f)|^p] \lesssim_p \|f\|_{L^2}^p.$$

Integration against $\tilde{\zeta}$

Note that $(\tilde{\zeta}, f)_{L^2(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R})}$ is well-defined for all $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R})$.
It's usually denoted suggestively as

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} f(t, x) \tilde{\zeta}(t, x) dt dx$$

or as

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} f(t, x) \tilde{\zeta}(dt dx),$$

though it should be remarked that $\tilde{\zeta}$ is a.s. neither a function nor a measure.

Let's return to the additive-noise stochastic heat equation:

$$\partial_t h(t, x) = \Delta_x h(t, x) + \zeta(t, x),$$

with $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $t \geq 0$, and $h(0, x)$ some given function.
Rearrange terms and formally apply the operator $e^{-t\Delta}$ to both sides to obtain

$$\partial_t(e^{-t\Delta} h) = e^{-t\Delta} \partial_t h - e^{-t\Delta} \Delta h = e^{-t\Delta} \zeta.$$

Integrate both sides from 0 to t , then apply $e^{t\Delta}$:

$$e^{-t\Delta} h(t, \cdot) - h(0, \cdot) = \int_0^t e^{-s\Delta} \zeta(ds, \cdot).$$

$$h(t, \cdot) = e^{t\Delta} h(0, \cdot) + \int_0^t e^{(t-s)\Delta} \zeta(ds, \cdot).$$

What exactly is $e^{t\Delta}$? It's an operator that denotes the solution at time t to the solution of the equation

$$\partial_t h = \Delta h.$$

In other words $e^{t\Delta}$ is just convolution with the heat kernel:

$$e^{t\Delta} f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t, x - y) f(y) dy,$$

where

$$p(t, x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi t)^{d/2}} e^{-|x|^2/2t}.$$

Summarizing, we have shown formally that the “solution” of

$$\partial_t h = \Delta h + \zeta$$

is given by

$$h(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t, x - y) h(0, y) dy + \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}^d} p(t - s, x - y) \zeta(ds dy).$$

The integral in the second term on the RHS is deterministic and in $L^2(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ when $d = 1$.

One can retroactively check that this is indeed the solution in the sense of Schwarz distributions, i.e.,

$$-(h, \partial_t \phi) = (h, \Delta \phi) + (\xi, \phi)$$

a.s. for all smooth space-time Schwarz functions ϕ .

It turns out that (the derivative of) h describes the fluctuations in the Brownian Motion picture from earlier. We will prove this later.

What about $d > 1$?

The kernel fails to be in $L^2(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}^d)$ for $d > 1$.

But intuitively one expects there to be a well-defined fluctuation field for 2d noninteracting Brownian motions.

It turns out that the only issue is the singularity of the kernel at the origin.

What about $d > 1$?

In particular if $\phi \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^{d+1})$ then one can make sense of the smoothed out field

$$h(\phi) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} p^\phi(t, x - y) h(0, y) dy + \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}^2} p^\phi(t - s, x - y) \xi(ds dy),$$

where

$$p^\phi(t, x) = (p * \phi)(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} p(t - s, x - y) \phi(s, y) ds dy.$$

These random variables $h(\phi)$ as ϕ ranges through all Schwarz functions, can then be lifted to a random Schwarz distribution on $\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}^d$ which will solve the SHE in weak form.

The linear theory for the SHE

Summarizing, the equation

$$\partial_t h = \Delta h + \zeta$$

is solved by the Duhamel formula

$$h(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t, x - y) h(0, y) dy + \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t - s, x - y) \zeta(ds dy).$$

One can show that for all d , $h(t, \cdot)$ can actually be evaluated as an element of $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^d)$ for fixed times t and any initial data in $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

For fixed $t > 0$ the field $h(t, \cdot)$ is locally absolutely continuous w.r.t Brownian motion when $d = 1$ and w.r.t the Gaussian free field when $d = 2$.

Remark: What about $\sigma \neq I$?

Nothing special about space-time white noise so far. We could replace it by any (possibly correlated) noise η and the solution is still given by the Duhamel formula:

$$h(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t, x - y) h(0, y) dy + \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t - s, x - y) \eta(s, y) ds dy,$$

provided that the integral on the right hand side makes sense (possibly in a distributional sense). This will not be the case for all Gaussian noises η but it will be true for example when $\eta = \partial_x \xi$ or $\eta = (-\Delta_x)^\alpha \xi$.

Moving onto nonlinear SPDE...

So we can integrate deterministic integrands against ζ . What about random integrands? E.g. can we make sense of iterated integrals such as ...

$$\int \left[\int f(t, x, s, y) \zeta(ds dy) \right] \zeta(dt dx)$$

even with deterministic f ? How about k -fold integrals such as

$$\int \cdots \int f(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x}) \zeta^{\otimes k}(d\mathbf{t}, d\mathbf{x})?$$

And what about things like

$$\int \sigma \left(\int f(t, x, s, y) \zeta(ds dy) \right) \zeta(dt dx)?$$

Motivation: why should we care about these objects?

Consider SPDE's such as the multiplicative SHE or its generalizations:

$$\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + f \zeta.$$

$$\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + \sigma(f) \zeta,$$

in spatial dimension $d = 1$.

We'll focus on the first one. Duhamel's principle still applies here, but as opposed to the linear case it gives an iterative relation rather than a finished solution, e.g.

$$f(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t, x - y) f(0, y) dy + \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t - s, x - y) f(s, y) \zeta(ds, dy)$$

Motivation: why should we care about these objects?

Consider SPDE's such as the multiplicative SHE or its generalizations:

$$\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + f \zeta.$$

$$\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + \sigma(f) \zeta,$$

in spatial dimension $d = 1$.

We'll focus on the first one. Duhamel's principle still applies here, but as opposed to the linear case it gives an iterative relation rather than a finished solution, e.g.

$$f(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t, x - y) h(0, y) dy + \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t - s, x - y) f(t, x) \zeta(ds, dy)$$

We can (Picard) iterate the previous relation once to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} f(t, x) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t, x - y) f(0, y) dy \\ &+ \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} \left[\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(t - s, x - y) p(s, y - z) f(0, z) dz \right] \zeta(ds, dz) \\ &+ \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t - s, x - y) p(s - u, y - z) f(u, z) \zeta(du, dz) \zeta(ds, dy). \end{aligned}$$

Keep iterating to obtain:

$$f(t, x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} u_k(t, x)$$

where

$$u_{k+1}(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t-s, x-y) u_k(s, y) \tilde{\xi}(ds, dy)$$

and u_0 is just the heat flow started from $h(0, \cdot)$.

The explicit form of u_k :

Nonrecursively we have that $u_k(t, x)$ is given by

$$\int_{(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R})^{k+1}} \prod_{i=1}^{k+1} p(t_i - t_{i-1}, x_i - x_{i-1}) f(0, x_{k+1}) dx_{k+1} \zeta^{\otimes k}(d\mathbf{t}, d\mathbf{x}),$$

with $t_{k+1} = t$ and $x_0 = x$.

The filtration \mathcal{F}_t of ξ is defined to be the sigma algebras generated by (f, ξ) with f supported on $[0, t] \times \mathbb{R}$.

A random space time function $f(t, x)$ is called adapted to the filtration of ξ if $f(t, x)$ is \mathcal{F}_t measurable for all t, x .

A random space-time function is called predictable if it lies in the L^2 closure of the linear span of elementary functions: things of the form $f(x, t, \omega) = X(\omega)1_{(a,b]}(t)1_E(x)$ where $E \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ is Borel and X is \mathcal{F}_a measurable.

Theorem: any adapted continuous function is predictable.

Integration of adapted random processes

The integral of an elementary process $f(t, x) = X \cdot \mathbf{1}_{(a,b]}(t)\mathbf{1}_E(x)$ against the noise can be defined in the obvious manner:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} f(t, x) \zeta(dt dx) = X \cdot (\zeta, \mathbf{1}_{(a,b]} \times \mathbf{1}_E).$$

One has the Ito-Walsh isometry

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\left(\int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} f(t, x) \zeta(dt dx) \right)^2 \right] = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}[f(t, x)^2] dt dx,$$

which allows us to define integrals for any adapted continuous function, in particular iterated integrals as we wanted earlier.

Properties of stochastic integrals

Note that if $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R})$ then it is not true that

$$\int_{(\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R})^k} \prod_1^k f(t_i, x_i) \zeta^{\otimes k}(d\mathbf{t}, d\mathbf{x}) = (f, \zeta)^k.$$

Rather the right hand side equals $H_k((\zeta, f))$ when $\|f\|_{L^2} = 1$, where H_k is the k^{th} Hermite polynomial. Again, ζ is **not** a measure or a function.

In particular all k -fold iterated integrals are orthogonal to all n -fold iterated integrals for $k \neq n$. The set of all k -fold iterated integrals is called the k^{th} homogeneous chaos of ζ , denoted $\mathcal{H}^k(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

Theorem: $L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}) = \bigoplus_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \mathcal{H}^k(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

Why does this happen?

Think about the simple case $k = 2$ with just a Brownian motion instead of white noise. Recall the computation of how

$$\int_0^1 B_t dB_t = \frac{1}{2}(B_t^2 - t).$$

There's a law of large numbers averaging happening at the second order. This is referred to as renormalization and tends to become relevant in all SPDE's with a nonlinear term such as a product.

Returning to the multiplicative SHE

Recall our formula for the solution of

$$\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + f \zeta$$

was given by

$$f(t, x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} u_k(t, x)$$

where

$$u_{k+1}(t, x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t-s, x-y) u_k(s, y) \zeta(ds, dy).$$

So by the Ito isometry we have

$$\mathbb{E}[u_{k+1}(t, x)^2] = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}} p(t-s, x-y)^2 \mathbb{E}[u_k(s, y)^2] ds dy.$$

One can thus obtain inductive bounds that will show that

$$\sum_k \mathbb{E}[u_k(s, y)^2] < \infty.$$

To show this, one however needs fairly stringent assumptions on initial conditions, e.g.

$$\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} e^{-a|x|} \mathbb{E}[f(0, x)^2] < \infty.$$

Also d cannot be larger than 1.

Given a space-time process defined on some probability space, how can one identify it as the solution of some SPDE?

First consider SDE. Suppose X_t is a continuous process defined on some space with the property that

$$M_t := X_t - \int_0^t b(X_s) ds$$

is a martingale such that

$$\langle M \rangle_t = \int_0^t \sigma(X_s)^2 ds,$$

where b, σ are smooth with $\sigma > 0$.

Then X_t must have the same law as the diffusion

$$dX = b(X)dt + \sigma(X)dB.$$

Proof: Let $B_t = \int_0^t \sigma(X_s)^{-1} dM_s$. Note that B is a martingale with quadratic variation t and therefore is a Brownian motion. Moreover by construction

$$X_t - \int_0^t b(X_s) ds = M_t = \int_0^t \sigma(X_s) dB_s.$$

Theorem [Konno-Shiga, '88]: suppose that $(f(t, x))_{t \geq 0, x \in \mathbb{R}}$ is a continuous process with the property that the processes

$$M_t(\phi) = (f(t, \cdot), \phi)_{L^2(\mathbb{R})} - \int_0^t (f(s, \cdot), \phi'')_{L^2(\mathbb{R})} ds$$

are martingales with respect to the filtration of f and that

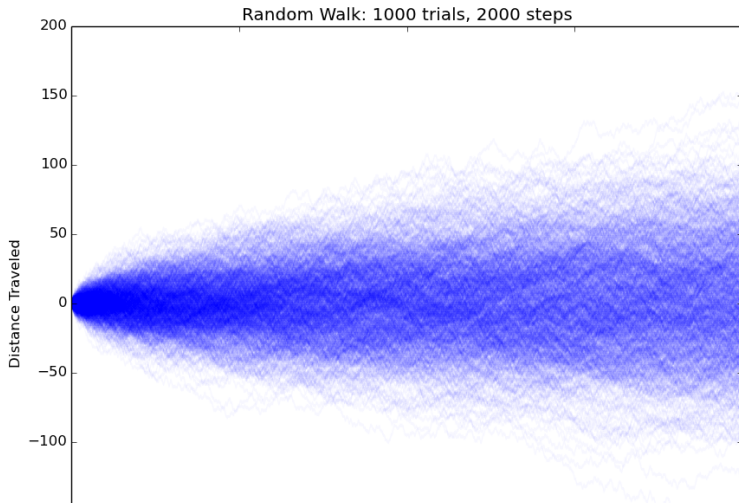
$$\langle M(\phi) \rangle_t = \int_0^t (\sigma(f(\cdot, t))^2 \phi, \phi)_{L^2(\mathbb{R})} ds,$$

for all Schwartz functions ϕ on \mathbb{R} . Then f is distributed as the solution of

$$\partial_t f = \partial_x^2 f + \sigma(f) \xi.$$

Returning to the Brownian motions picture

Let's do a computation with the empirical measures.



The global limit is the solution of the SPDE

$$\partial_t u = \partial_x^2 u + \partial_x (\sqrt{\rho(t, x)} \cdot \xi)$$

which happens to be the spatial derivative of

$$\partial_t h = \partial_x^2 h + \sqrt{\rho(t, x)} \cdot \xi,$$

which looks like SHE (Edwards-Wilkinson) if one zooms in locally around any deterministic space-time point.