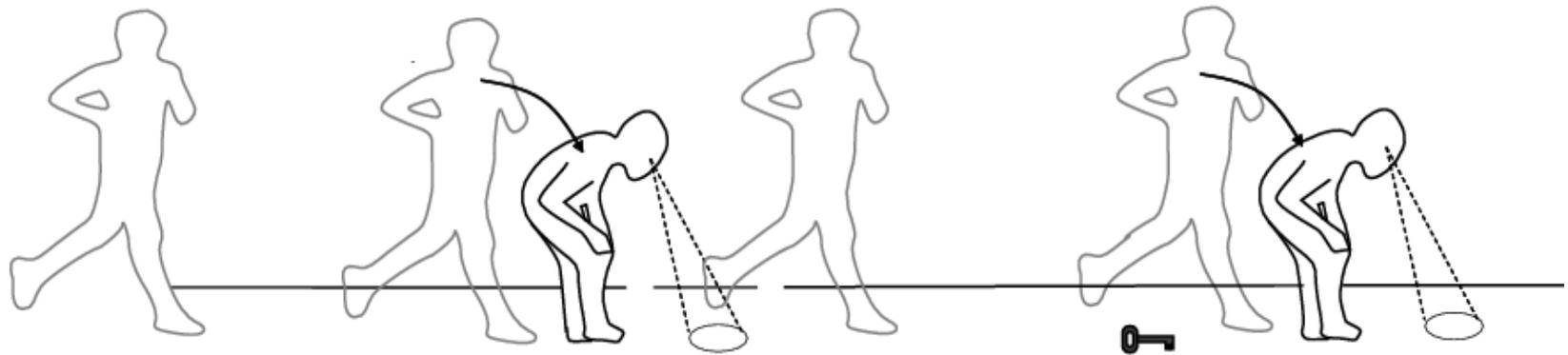


THE OPTIMAL WALK



TO THE RANDOM WALK

Daniel Campos
(Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona)

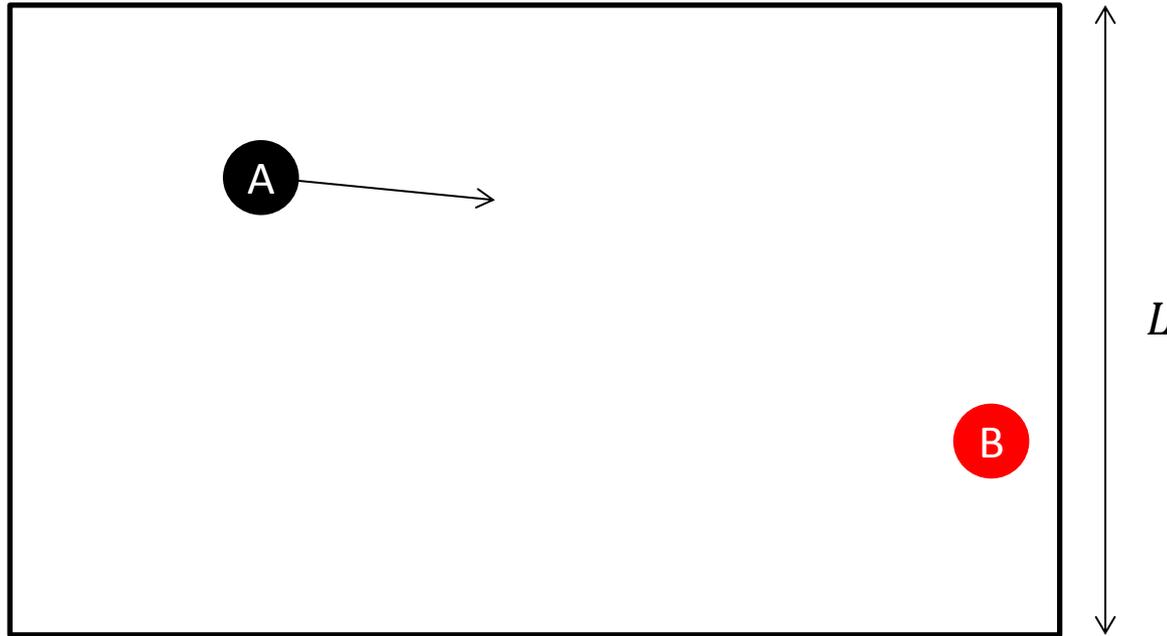
1. *Introduction* (Random search theory: applications and tools)
2. *The optimal walk to the (Lévy) walk*
3. *The optimal walk to the (intermittent) walk*
4. *The optimal walk to the (myopic) walk*
5. *The optimal walk to the (mortal) walk*
6. *The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk*

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)



1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

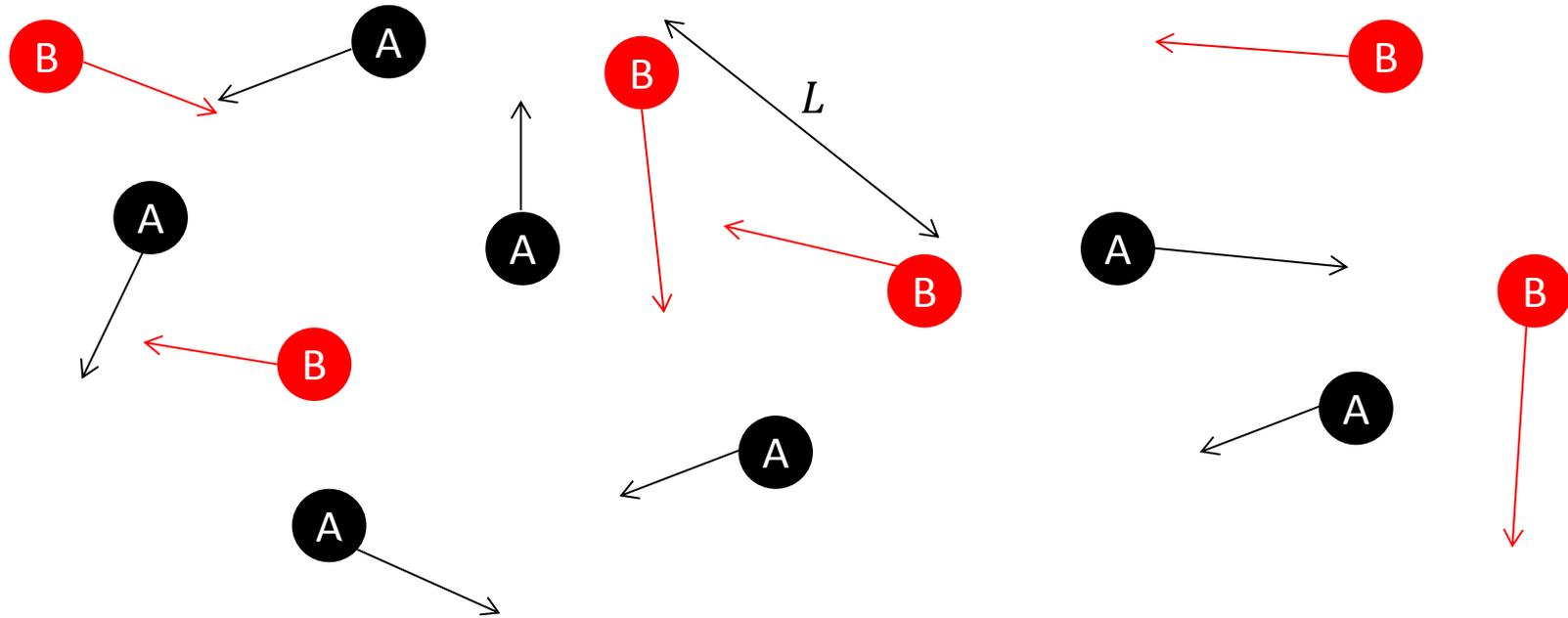
The first-passage problem:



How do we measure search efficiency?

- i) Time distribution to the first passage: $f(t; x_0)$
- ii) Mean time to the first passage: $\langle T \rangle = \int_0^{\infty} t f(t; x_0) dt$
- iii) First-passage probability up to time t_m : $S(t_m) = \int_0^{t_m} f(t; x_0) dt$

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)



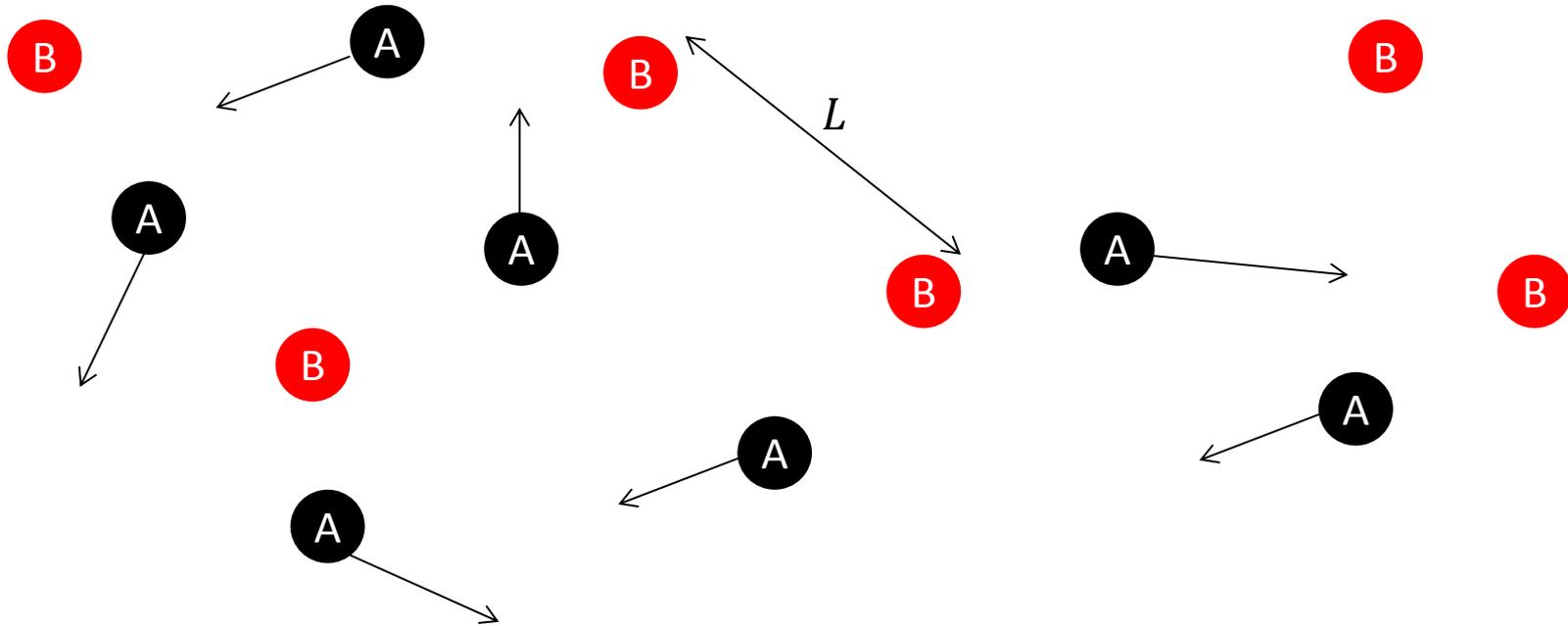
Random search theory:



We will describe the position of the i -th particle through a stochastic process $X_i(t)$.

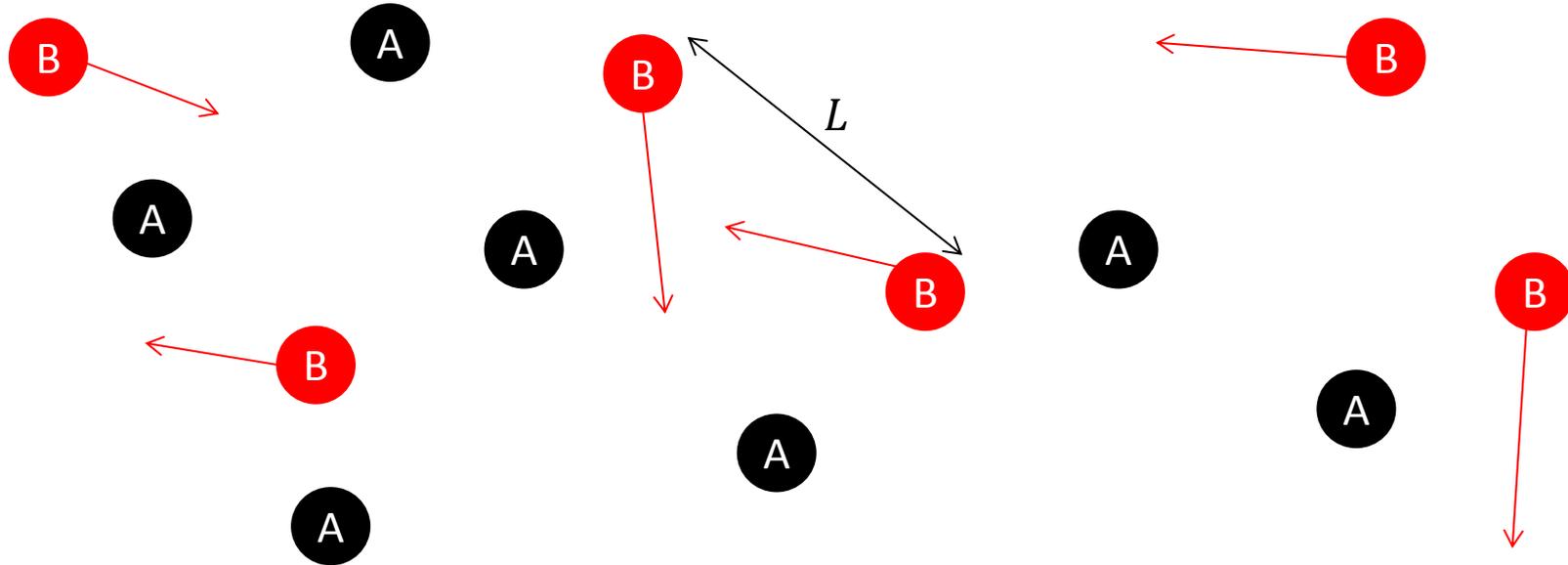
1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

The target problem:

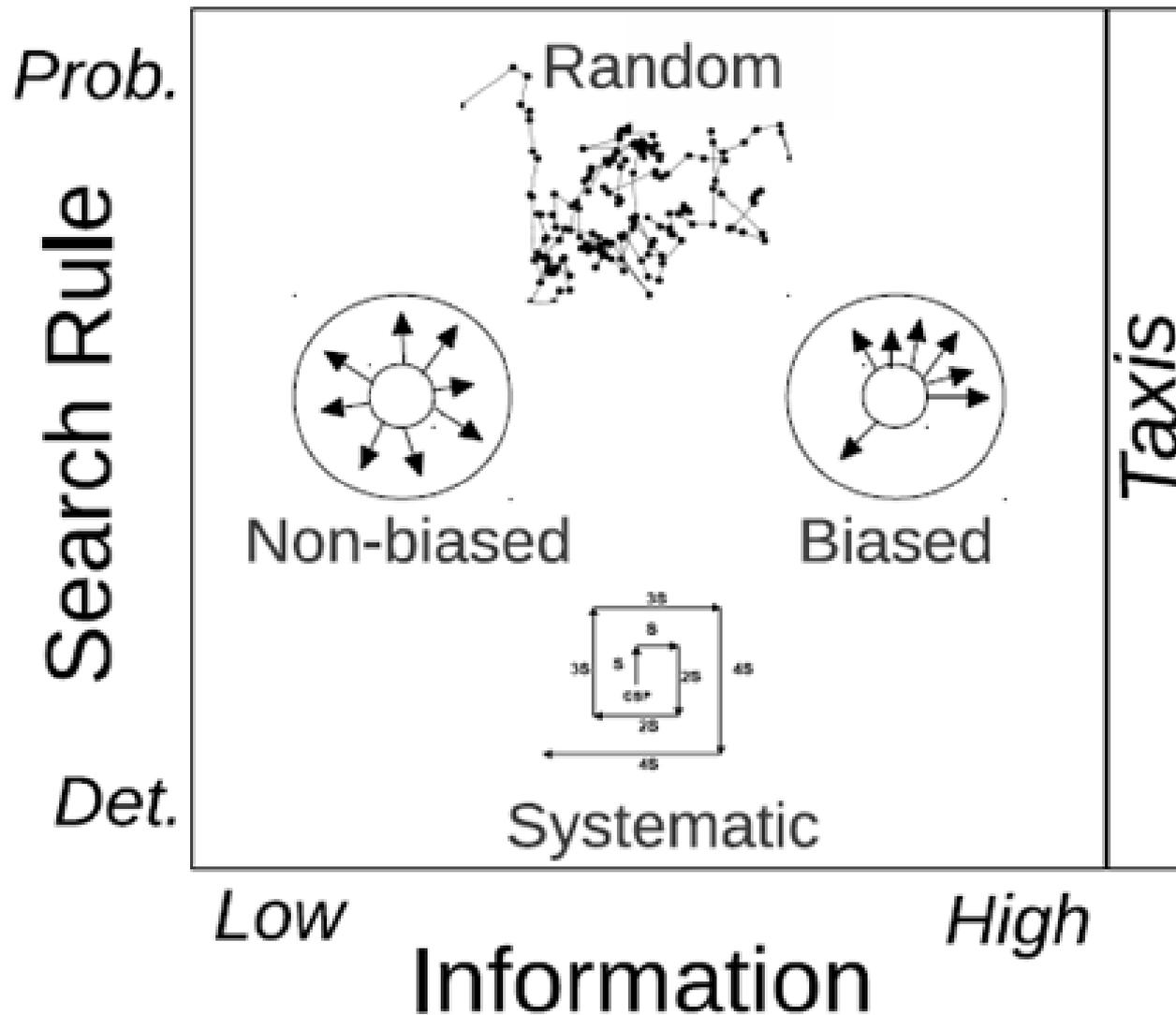


1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

The trapping problem:

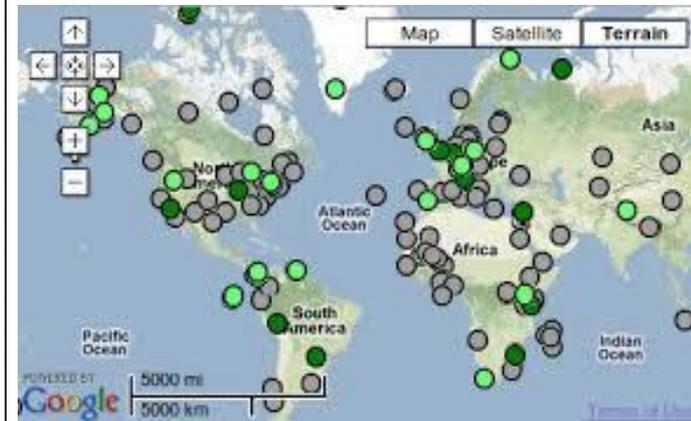
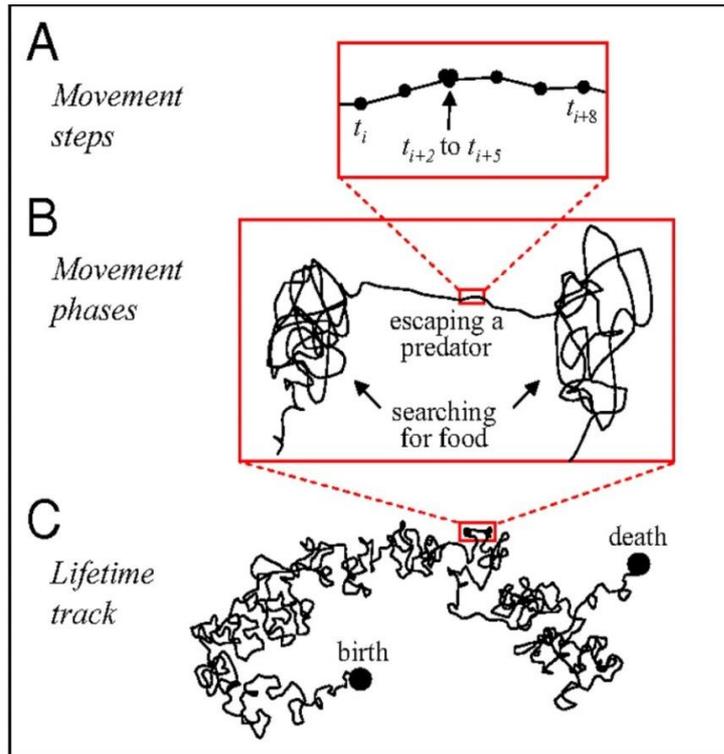
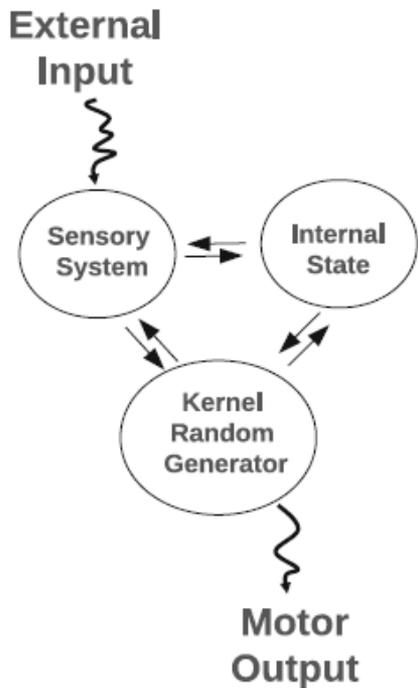


1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)



1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

Movement ecology represents a new area of ecology which requires a detailed data processing of individual animal trajectories (obtained through telemetry, GPS,...).



1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

Search at the microscopic level

transcription factors of eukaryotic cells

1 Activator proteins bind to pieces of DNA called enhancers. Their binding causes the DNA to bend, bringing them near a gene promoter, even though they may be thousands of base pairs away.

Enhancers

Activator proteins

Other transcription factor proteins

2 Other transcription factor proteins join the activator proteins, forming a protein complex which binds to the gene promoter.

Gene

Promoter

3 This protein complex makes it easier for RNA polymerase to attach to the promoter and start transcribing a gene.

RNA polymerase

note

This diagram simplifies the DNA greatly—promoters, enhancers, and insulators can be dozens or even hundreds of base pairs long.

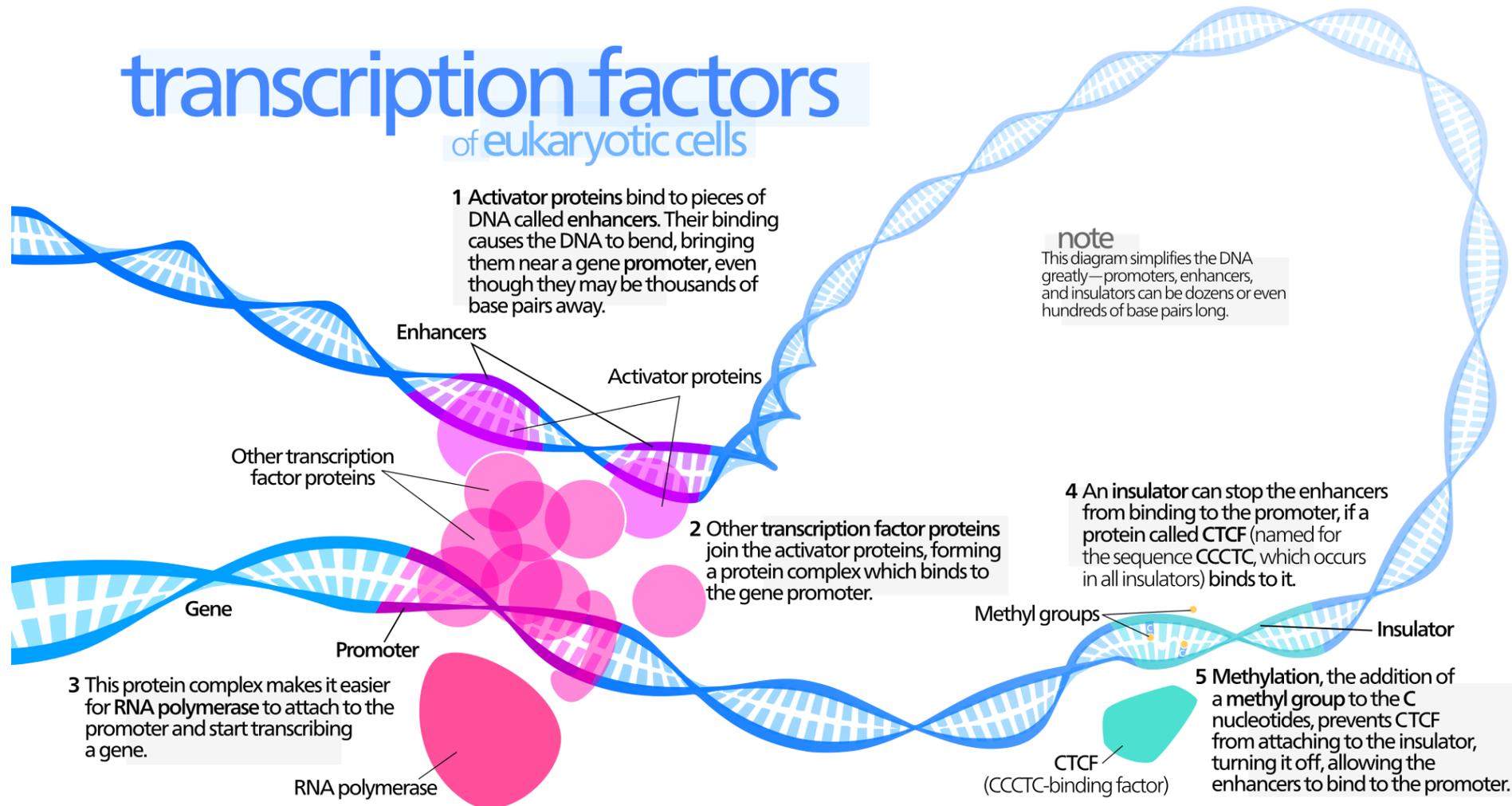
4 An insulator can stop the enhancers from binding to the promoter, if a protein called CTCF (named for the sequence CCCTC, which occurs in all insulators) binds to it.

Methyl groups

Insulator

5 Methylation, the addition of a methyl group to the C nucleotides, prevents CTCF from attaching to the insulator, turning it off, allowing the enhancers to bind to the promoter.

CTCF
(CCCTC-binding factor)

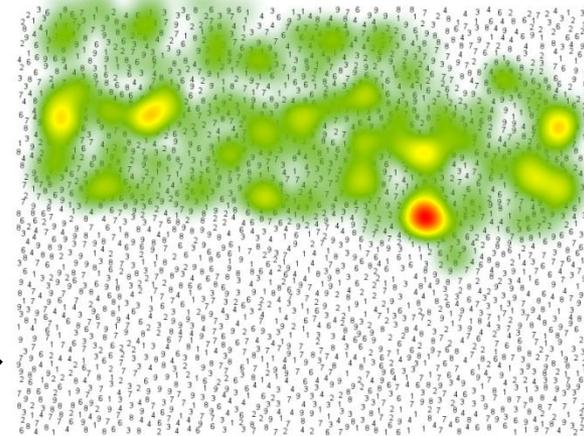
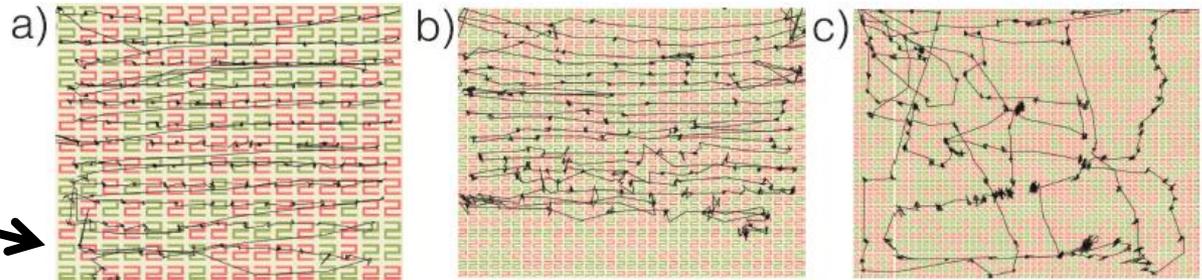


1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

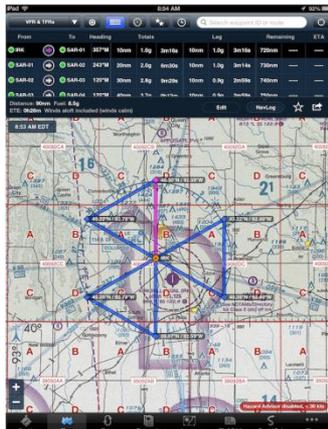
Human searches:



Everyday experiences



Experiments

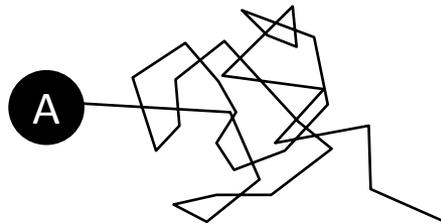


SAR applications

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

Types of motion (I): 'Pure' diffusion model

A **Wiener process** $W(t)$ is defined as a stationary process whose increments $W(t_2) - W(t_1)$ follow a Gaussian distribution with zero mean and variance $|t_2 - t_1|$.



If we assume that $X(t) = x_0 + \sqrt{2D}W(t)$ then:

- i) The probability density $p(x, t)$ follows a Gaussian distribution with $\langle X \rangle = x_0$ and $\langle X^2 \rangle = 2Dt + x_0^2$
- ii) It becomes impossible to define a characteristic speed for A
- iii) The problem of infinite propagation signals emerge

...but the advantage is that we can describe $X(t)$ as a Gaussian (stable) process.

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

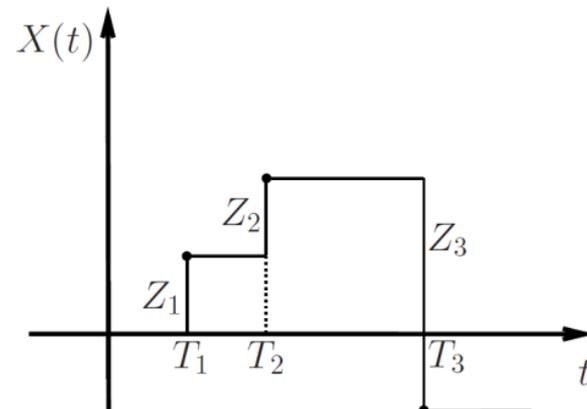
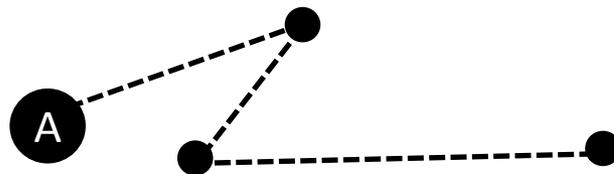
Types of motion (II): 'Jump' model

We define the position of the particle after n jumps as:

$$X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$$

...and the time it takes to perform these n jumps as:

$$T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \Theta_i$$



...where Z_i and Θ_i each are i.i.d. random variables distributed, respectively, according to

$\phi(x)$: Jump-length probability distribution function (*dispersal kernel*)

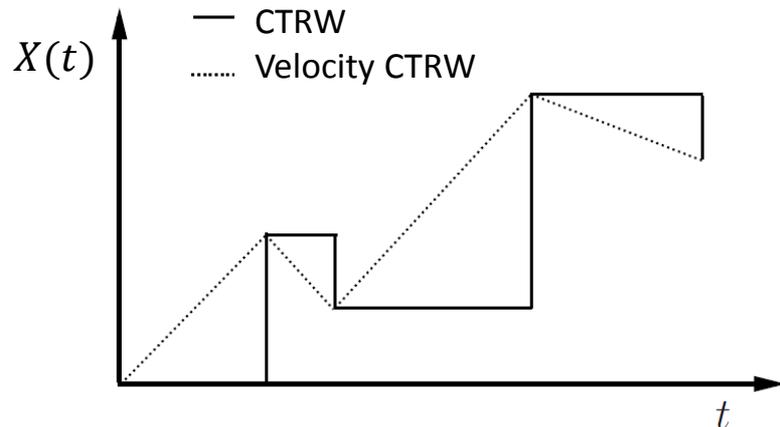
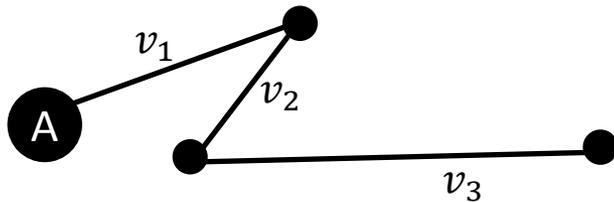
$\varphi(t)$: Waiting-time probability distribution function

(This is typically known as a Continuous-Time Random Walk –CTRW– and includes the **Lévy Flight** case as a particular case)

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

Types of motion (III): 'Velocity' model

We use the same definition as before $X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$ $T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \Theta_i$



...where now $\varphi(t)$ and $\phi(x)$ are not independent, but coupled through a velocity distribution $h(v)$ in the form

$$\phi(x) = \int_0^{\infty} dt \varphi(t) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt \delta(x - vt) h(v)$$

(This is typically known as the “velocity version” of the CTRW, and includes the **Lévy** walk case, together with some other that ‘mimic’ the **Ornstein-Uhlenbeck** process in v)

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

Methods for finding $f(t)$ and/or $\langle T \rangle$

Direct resolution:

We formally define the problem as $L_{FP}[p(x, t)] = 0$ with boundary condition $p(\Omega, t) = 0$, being Ω the surface of the target, and computing the flux at Ω . For the Wiener process, for example, $L_{FP} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} - D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$.

Master equation approach:

For the Bernoulli random walk (with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ to each side, jump size a and waiting time τ) we have

$$\langle T \rangle(x_0) = \frac{1}{2} [\langle T \rangle(x_0 + a) + \tau] + \frac{1}{2} [\langle T \rangle(x_0 - a) + \tau]$$

$$\frac{a^2}{2\tau} \frac{\partial^2 \langle T \rangle(x_0)}{\partial x_0^2} = -1$$

$$\langle T \rangle(x_0) = \frac{x_0(L - x_0)\tau}{a^2}$$

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

Methods for finding $f(t)$ and/or $\langle T \rangle$

The renewal approach

We assume one target located at $x = x_t$ and introduce $k_n(t; x_0)$ as the rate at which the n -th passage occurs. Using a renewal assumption we have

$$\begin{aligned} k(t; x_0)dt &= k_1(t; x_0)dt + k_2(t; x_0)dt + k_3(t; x_0)dt + \dots = \\ &= [f(t; x_0) + f(t; x_0) * f(t; x_t) + f(t; x_0) * f(t; x_t) * f(t; x_t) + \dots]dt \end{aligned}$$

$$k(s; x_0) = f(s; x_0) \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} [f(s; x_t)]^i = \frac{f(s; x_0)}{1 - f(s; x_t)}$$

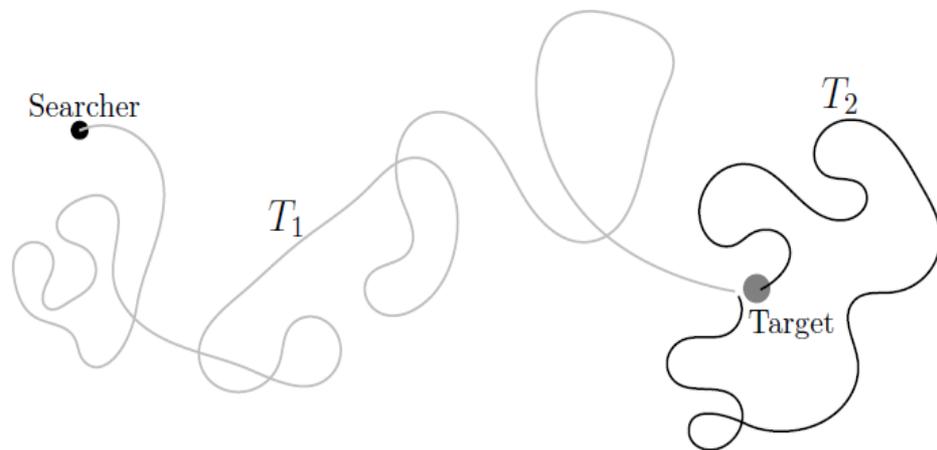
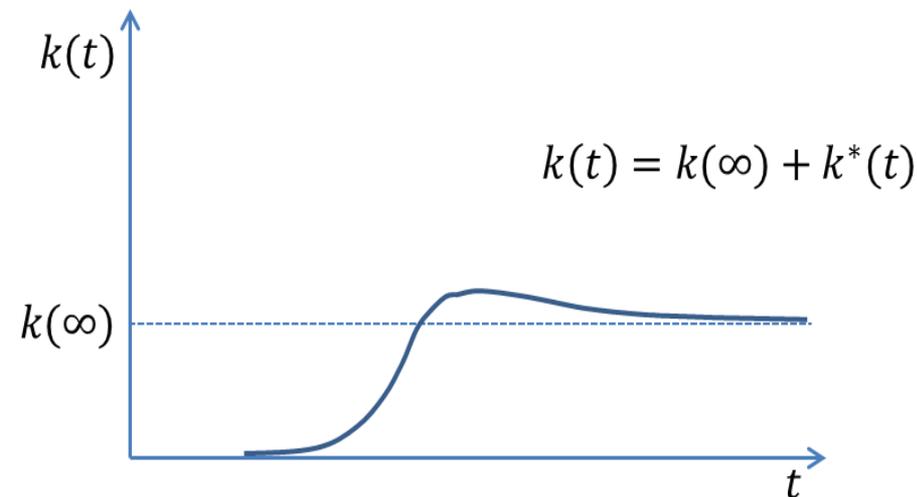
$$f(s; x_0) = \frac{k(s; x_0)}{1 + k(s; x_t)}$$

1. Introduction (Random search theory: applications and tools)

An essential advantage of this framework is that it allows a very general and intuitive understanding of the Mean First Passage Time (MFPT):

$$\langle T \rangle = \int_0^\infty dt t f(t; x_0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{df(s; x_0)}{ds} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{k^*(s; x_t)}{k(\infty)} - \frac{k^*(s; x_0)}{k(\infty)} \right) + \frac{1}{k(\infty)}$$

$\langle T_1 \rangle$ $\langle T_2 \rangle$



2. The optimal walk to the (Lévy) walk



2. The optimal walk to the (Lévy) walk

WHAT ARE LEVY FLIGHTS AND LEVY WALKS?

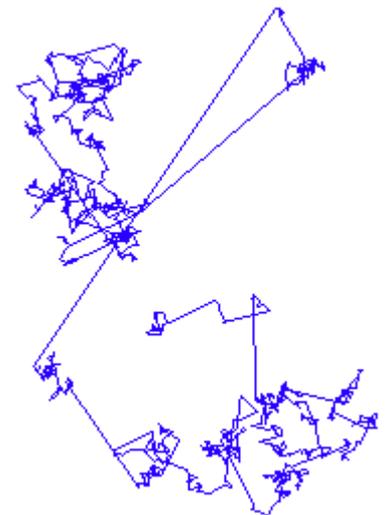
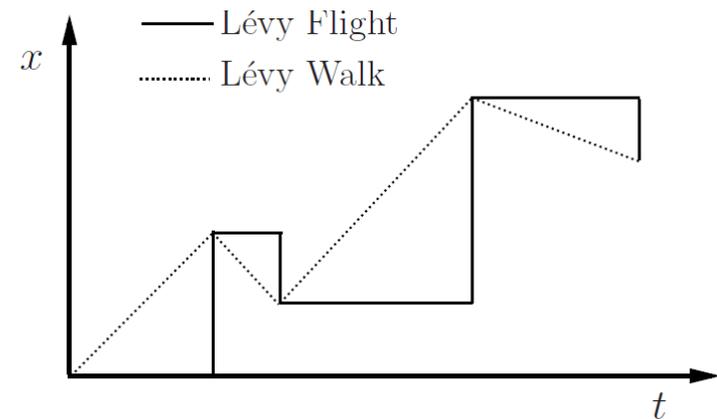
The Lévy Flight fits our 'jump' model scheme with $\phi(x)$ a jump length distribution which decays according to $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \phi(x) \sim x^{-\mu}$, with $1 < \mu < 3$

The Lévy Walk fits our 'velocity' model scheme, with v fixed and $\varphi(t)$ a flight time distribution which decays according to $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \varphi(t) \sim t^{-\mu}$, with $1 < \mu < 3$.

Note that this implies that $\langle x^q \rangle \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \phi(x) x^q$ and $\langle t^q \rangle \equiv \int_0^{\infty} dt \varphi(t) t^q$, respectively, diverge for $q - \mu \geq -1$

In the Lévy Flight case these divergences extend to the overall behavior of the particle, so $\langle X^2 \rangle$ also diverges. In contrast, for the Lévy Walk case, thanks to the coupling between flight durations and lengths through v :

$$\langle X^2 \rangle \sim \begin{cases} t^2 & , 1 < \mu < 2 \\ t^{4-\mu} & , 2 < \mu < 3 \end{cases}$$



2. The optimal walk to the (Lévy) walk

(Viswanathan et. al. Nature 401, 911 (1999))

THE LÉVY FLIGHT OPTIMAL SOLUTION

Define the search efficiency $\frac{1}{\langle l \rangle N}$, where $\langle l \rangle$ is the mean flight distance between targets and N the mean number of flights to cover the distance between targets

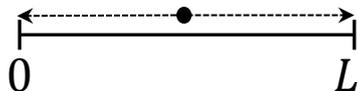
Given $\phi(x) \sim x^{-\mu}$ and a mean path between targets of β ,

$$\langle l \rangle \approx \frac{\int_0^\beta dx x^{1-\mu} + \beta \int_\beta^\infty dx x^{-\mu}}{\int_0^\infty dx x^{-\mu}}$$

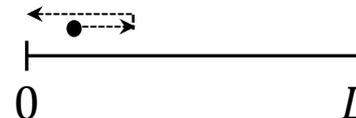
and the mean number of flights satisfies $N \sim \beta^{(\mu-1)/2}$ if the target is close enough. All this leads to a search efficiency optimization for $\mu = 2$.

INTUITIVE MEANING

Optimal ballistic approach



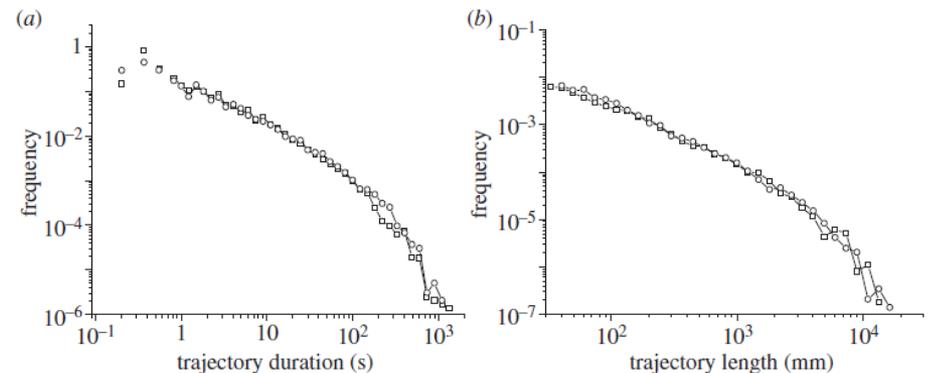
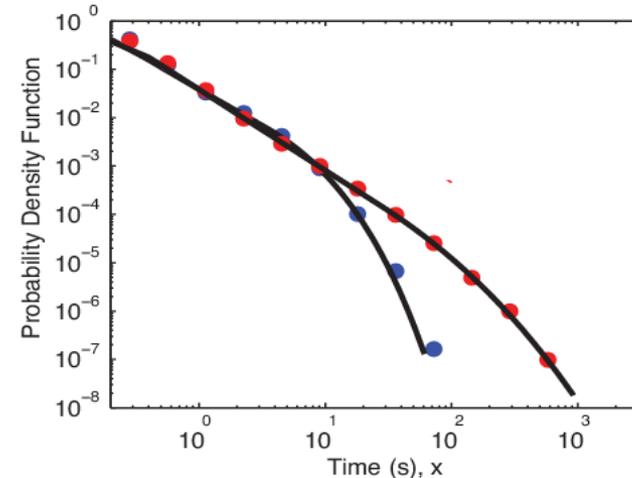
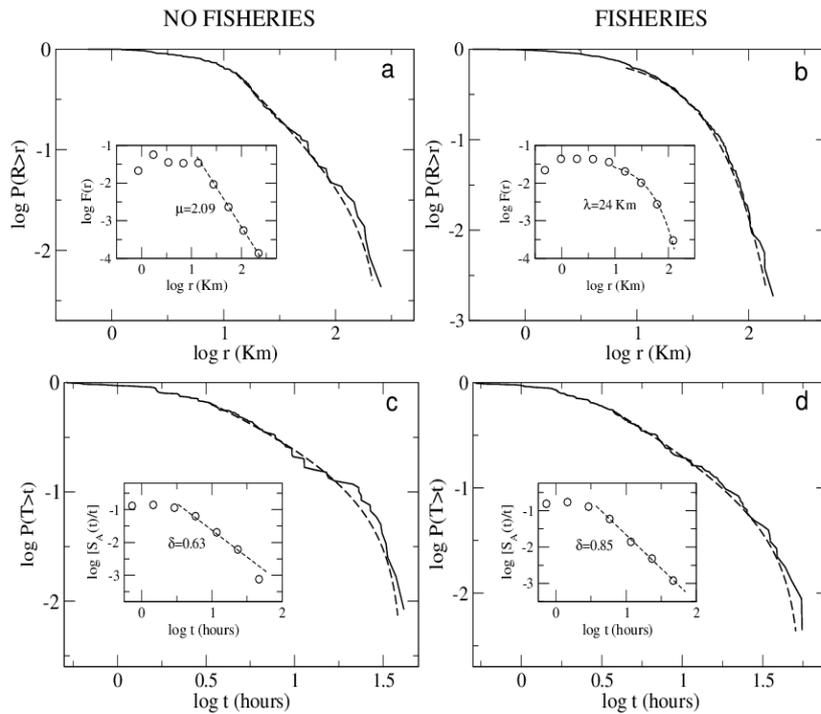
Optimal reorientation ('correction')



2. The optimal walk to the (Lévy) walk

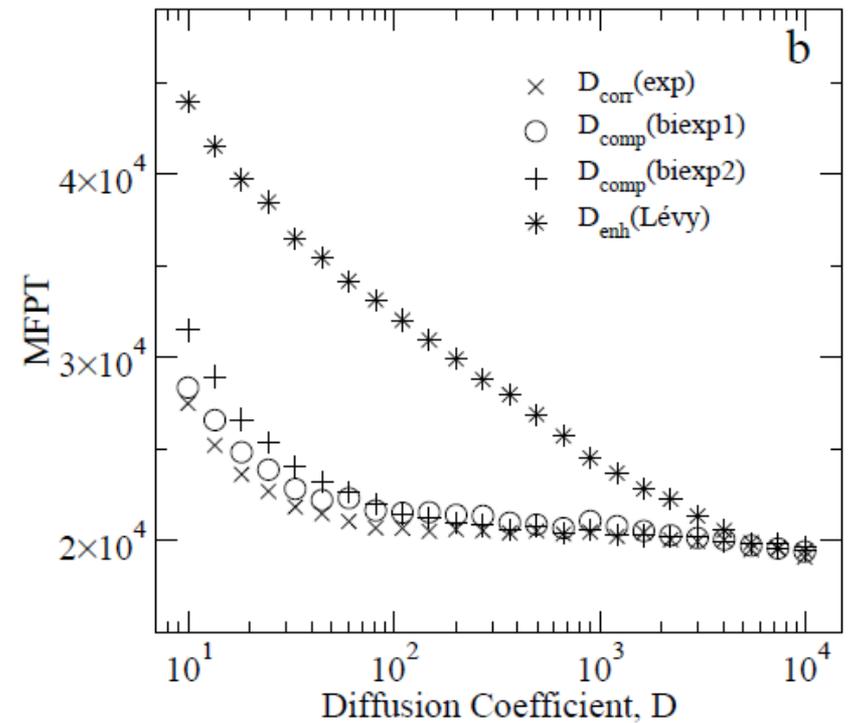
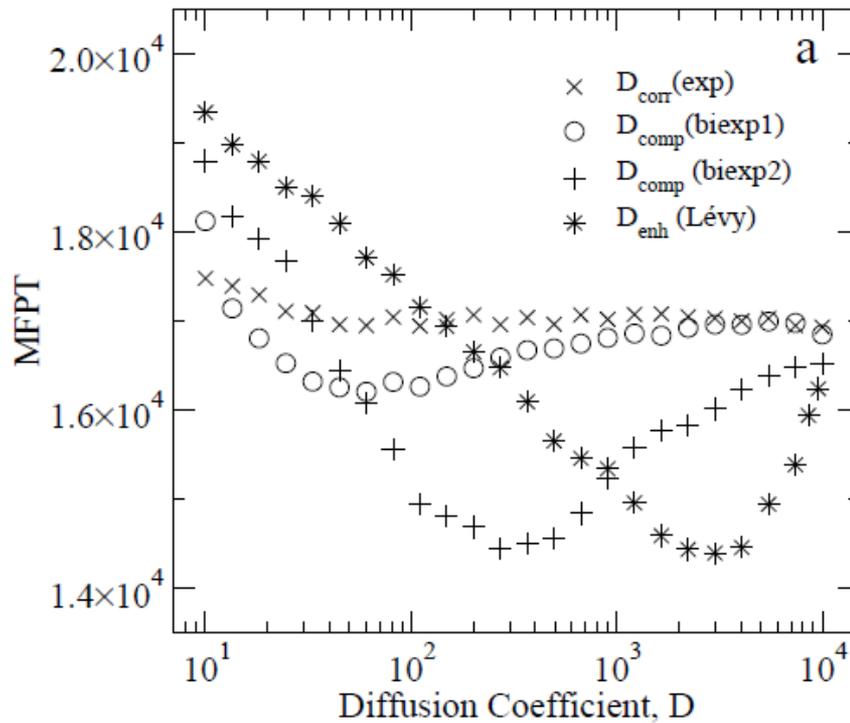
THE LEVY FLIGHT FORAGING HYPOTHESIS

“Given Lévy Flight optimality, evolution should have favoured sensorymotor mechanisms that facilitate the emergence of motion patterns similar to the Lévy case in search situations of poor information.”

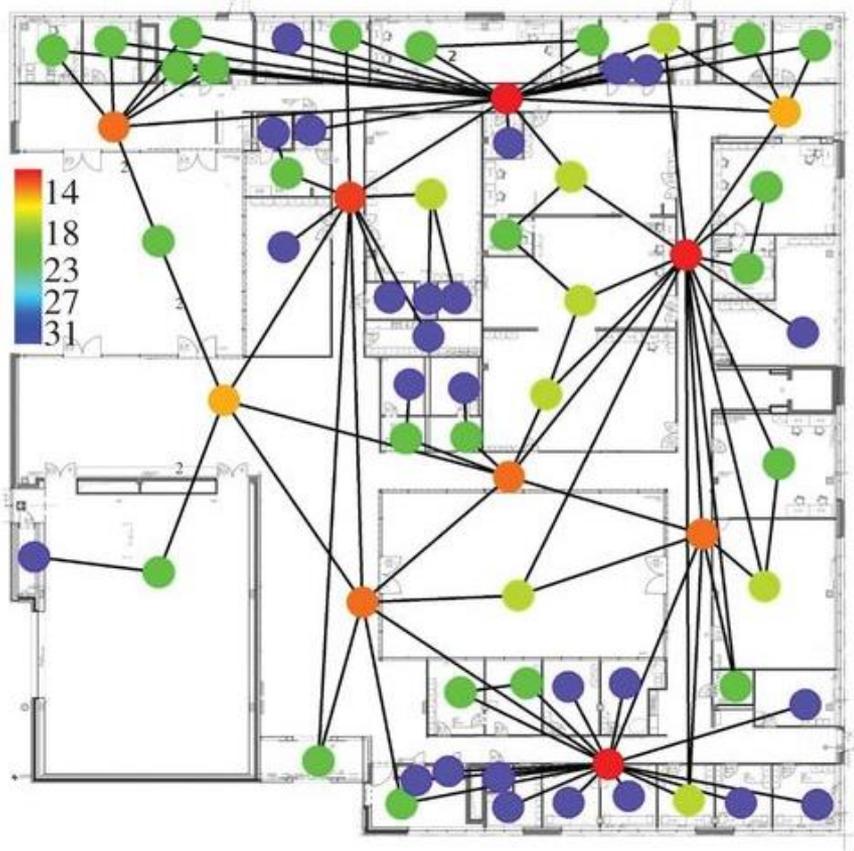


2. The optimal walk to the (Lévy) walk

ARE LÉVY FLIGHTS SO SPECIAL?

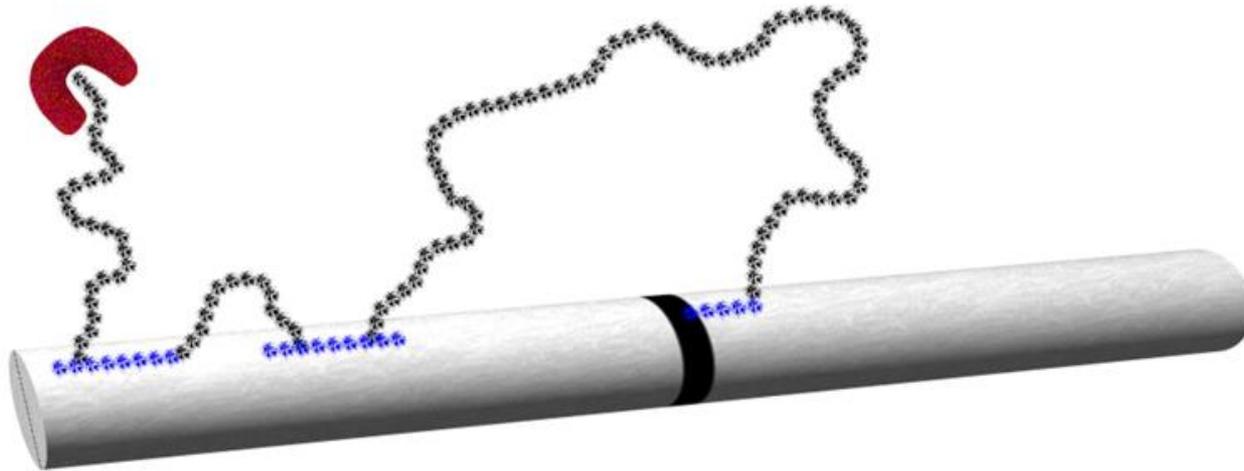


3. The optimal walk to the (intermittent) walk

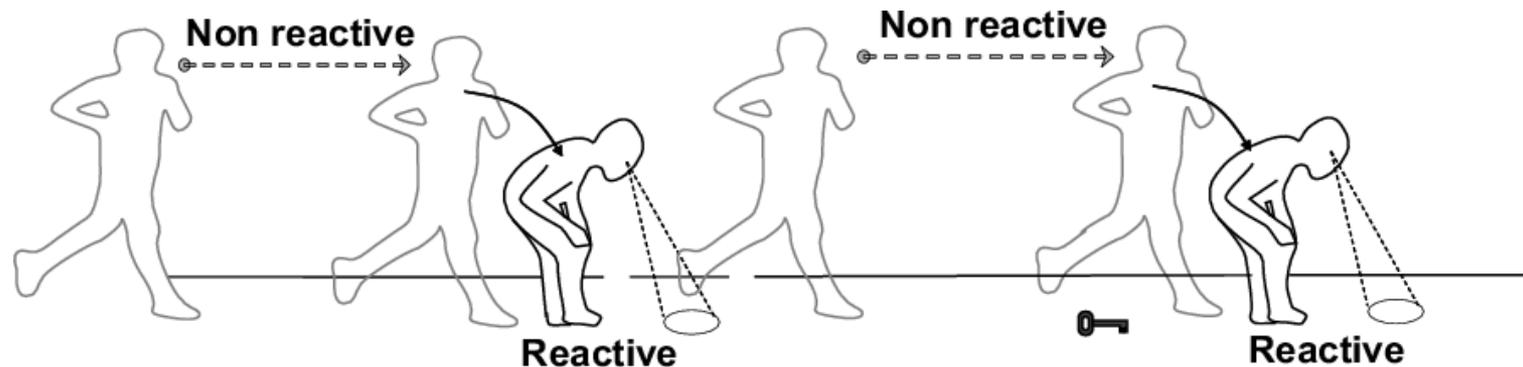


3. The optimal walk to the (intermittent) walk

Practical example 1: DNA facilitated target location (1D sliding + jumping)

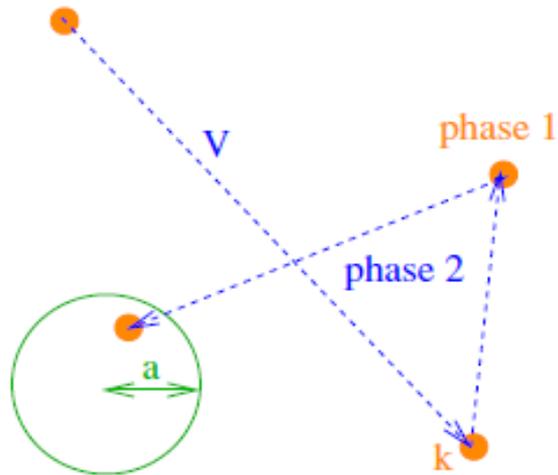


Practical example 2: Saltatory search strategies



3. The optimal walk to the (intermittent) walk

O. Bénichou et. al. Rev. Mod. Phys. 83, 81 (2011)



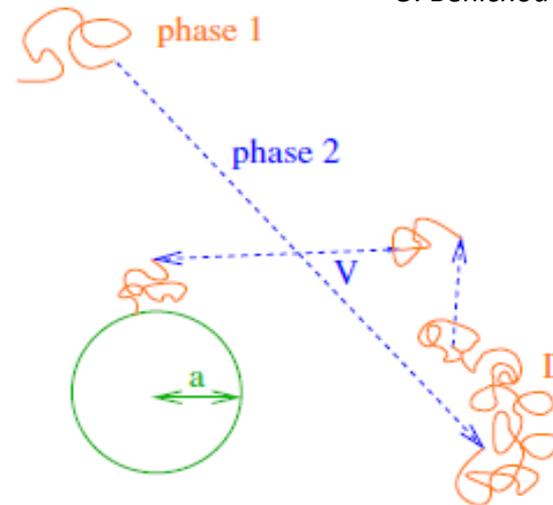
Static mode. The slow reactive phase is static and detection takes place with finite rate k .

$$V \frac{dt_2^+}{dx} + \frac{1}{\tau_2}(t_1 - t_2^+) = -1$$

$$-V \frac{dt_2^-}{dx} + \frac{1}{\tau_2}(t_1 - t_2^-) = -1$$

$$\frac{1}{\tau_1} \left(\frac{t_2^+ + t_2^-}{2} - t_1 \right) = -1$$

$$\left. \frac{1}{\tau_1} t_2 - \left(\frac{1}{\tau_1} + k \right) t_1 = -1 \right\}$$



Diffusive mode. The slow reactive phase is diffusive and detection is infinitely efficient.

$$V \frac{dt_2^+}{dx} + \frac{1}{\tau_2}(t_1 - t_2^+) = -1$$

$$-V \frac{dt_2^-}{dx} + \frac{1}{\tau_2}(t_1 - t_2^-) = -1$$

$$D \frac{d^2 t_1}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{\tau_1} \left(\frac{t_2^+}{2} + \frac{t_2^-}{2} - t_1 \right) = -1,$$

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} V \frac{dt_2^+}{dx} - \frac{1}{\tau_2} t_2^+ &= -1 & -V \frac{dt_2^-}{dx} - \frac{1}{\tau_2} t_2^- &= -1 \end{aligned} \right.$$

3. The optimal walk to the (intermittent) walk

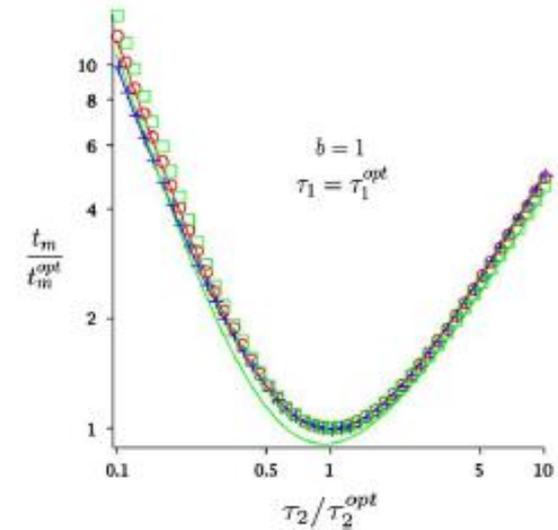
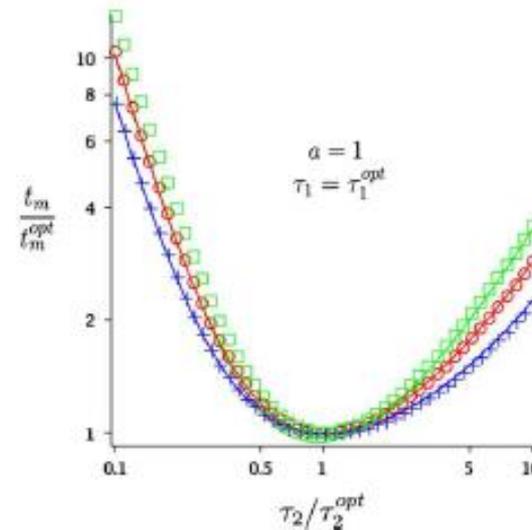
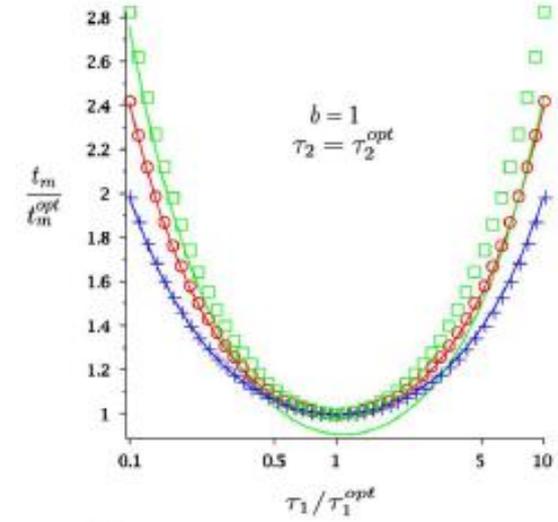
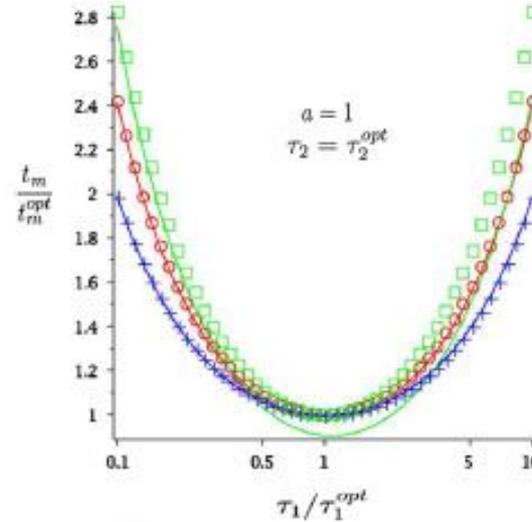
Static mode (1D)

For a domain of size b :

$$t_m = (\tau_1 + \tau_2) \left[\frac{b^2}{3V^2\tau_2^2} + \left(\frac{1}{k\tau_1} + 1 \right) \frac{b}{a} \right]$$

$$\tau_1^{\text{opt}} = \sqrt{\frac{a}{Vk}} \left(\frac{b}{12a} \right)^{1/4}$$

$$\tau_2^{\text{opt}} = \frac{a}{V} \sqrt{\frac{b}{3a}}$$



3. The optimal walk to the (intermittent) walk

Diffusive mode (1D)

$$\underline{bD^2 < a^3V^2}$$

$$t_m = (\tau_1 + \tau_2)b \left(\frac{b}{3V^2\tau_2^2} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{D\tau_1}} \right)$$

$$\tau_1^{\text{opt}} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt[3]{\frac{2b^2D}{9V^4}}$$

$$\tau_2^{\text{opt}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{2b^2D}{9V^4}}$$

$$t_m^{\text{opt}} \simeq \sqrt[3]{\frac{3^5}{2^4} \frac{b^4}{DV^2}}$$

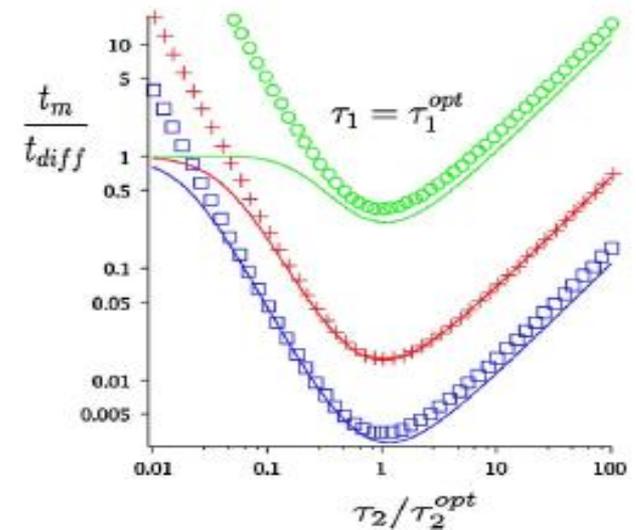
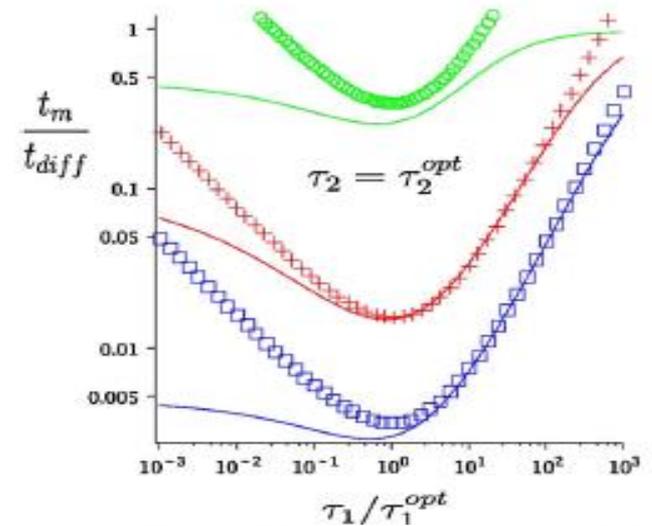
$$\underline{bD^2 > a^3V^2}$$

$$t_m \simeq \frac{b}{a}(\tau_1 + \tau_2) \left(\frac{a}{a + \sqrt{D\tau_1}} + \frac{ab}{3V^2\tau_2^2} \right)$$

$$\tau_1^{\text{opt}} = \frac{Db}{48V^2a}$$

$$\tau_2^{\text{opt}} = \frac{a}{V} \sqrt{\frac{b}{3a}}$$

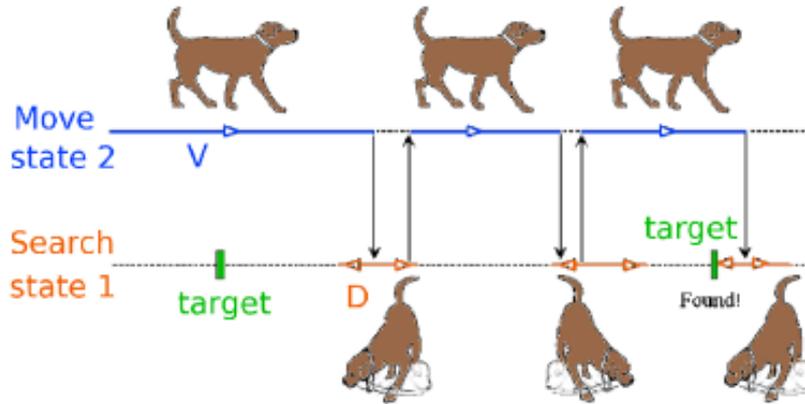
$$t_m^{\text{opt}} \simeq \frac{2a}{V\sqrt{3}} \left(\frac{b}{a} \right)^{3/2}$$



3. The optimal walk to the (intermittent) walk

O. Bénichou et. al. Phys. Rev. Lett. 94, 198101 (2005)

Diffusive mode (1D)



$$\langle t \rangle \simeq \frac{L(\tau_2 + \tau_1)(D\tau_1 + 2\tau_2^2V^2)}{2\tau_2V\sqrt{D\tau_1}\sqrt{D\tau_1 + 4\tau_2^2V^2}}$$

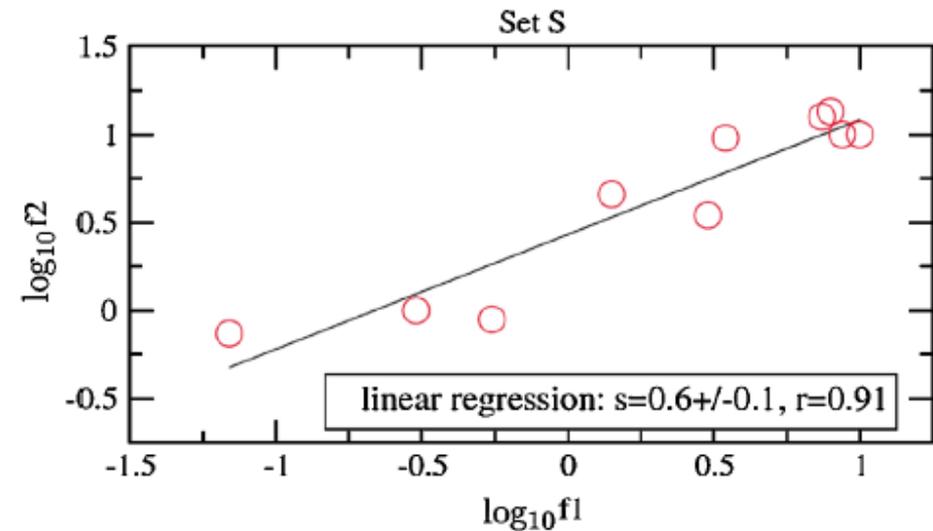
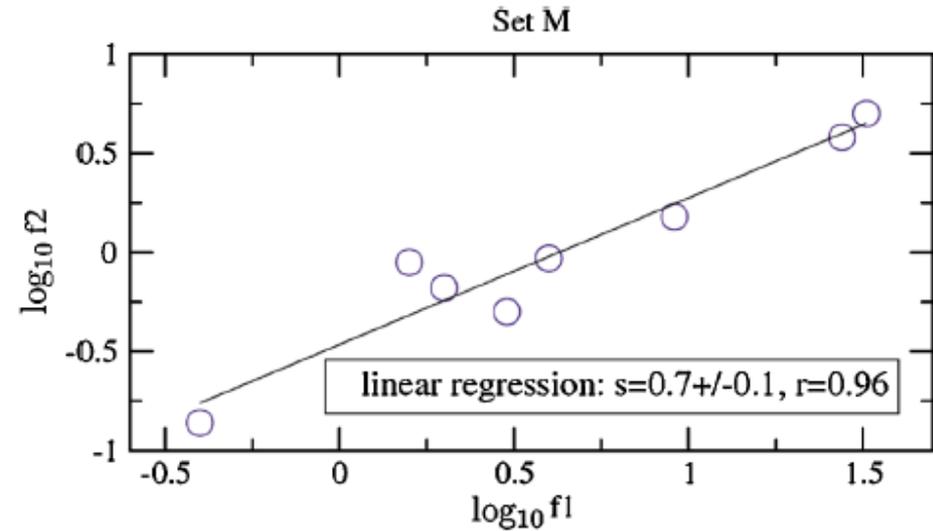
$$\tau_1^3 + 6\frac{\tau_1^2\tau_2^2}{\tau} - 8\frac{\tau_2^5}{\tau^2} = 0$$

$$\tau_1 \gg D/V^2$$

$$\tau_1 \ll D/V^2$$

$$\tau_2^{\text{opt}} = \left(\frac{3\tau\tau_1^2}{4}\right)^{1/3}$$

$$\tau_2^{\text{opt}} = \left(\frac{\tau^2\tau_1^3}{8}\right)^{1/5}$$



4. The optimal walk to the (myopic) walk



4. The optimal walk to the (myopic) walk

For a constant probability α of detection, $k(t; x_0) \rightarrow \alpha k(t; x_0)$

For a speed-dependent probability $\alpha = \alpha(v)$:

$$\begin{aligned} k(t; x_0)dt &= \int_0^\infty dv \int_{0-vdt}^0 dx \alpha(v)p(x, v, t; x_0) + \int_{-\infty}^0 dv \int_0^{vdt} dx \alpha(v)p(x, v, t; x_0) \approx \\ &\approx \int_0^\infty dv v\alpha(v)p(0, v, t; x_0)dt + \int_{-\infty}^0 dv v\alpha(v)p(0, v, t; x_0)dt \end{aligned}$$

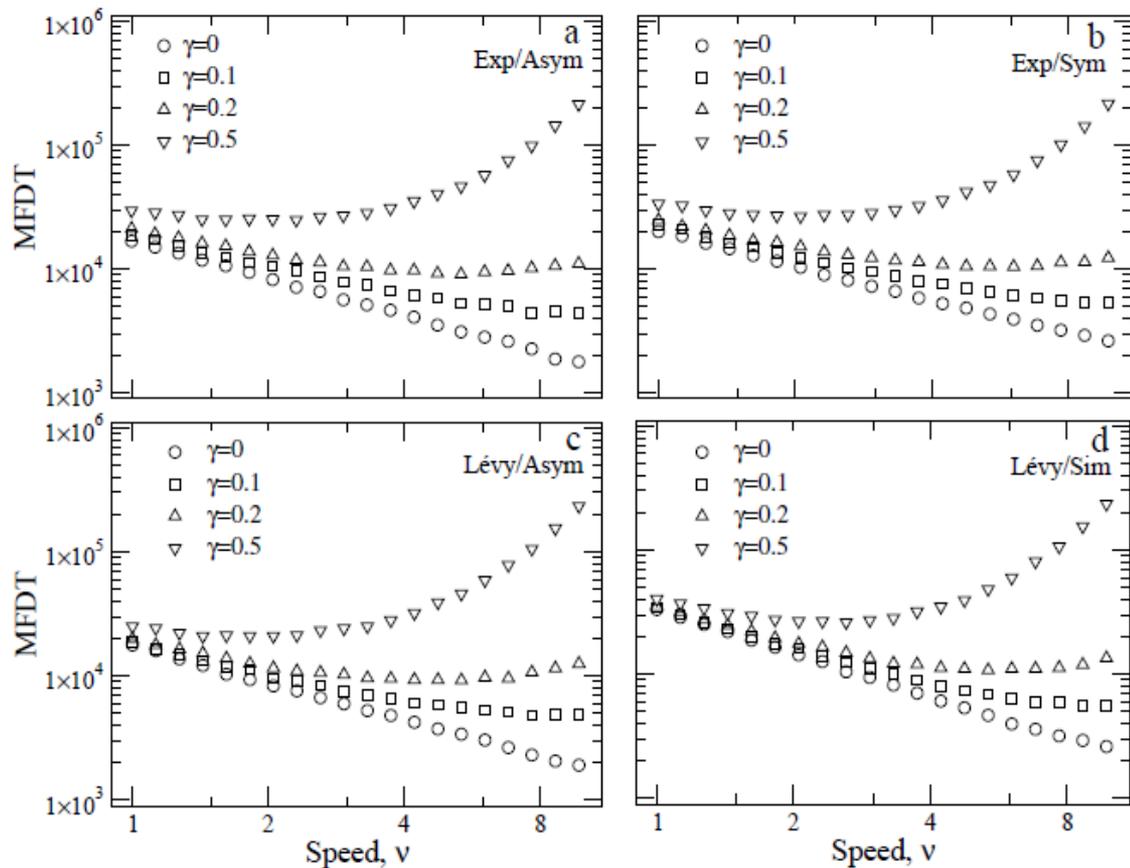
In general, $\alpha = \alpha(x, v, t)$:

$$k(t; x_0)dt \approx \int_0^\infty dv v\alpha(x, v, t)p(0, v, t; x_0)dt - \int_{-\infty}^0 dv v\alpha(x, v, t)p(0, v, t; x_0)dt$$

4. The optimal walk to the (myopic) walk

Case 1D 'velocity' model with v fixed and $\varphi(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$ or $\varphi(s) = e^{-a|k|^\mu}$, $\alpha = e^{-\gamma v}$

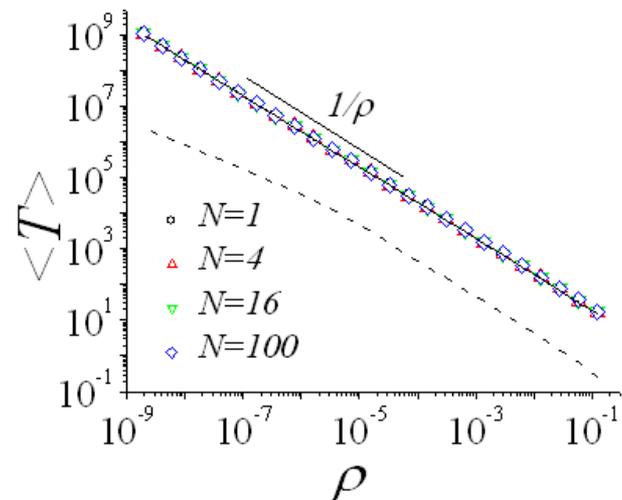
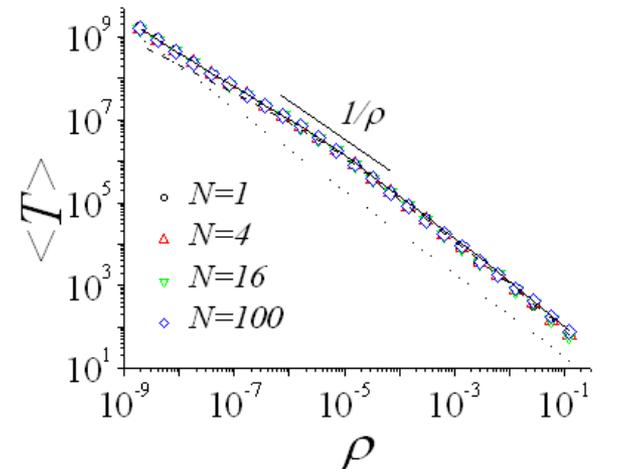
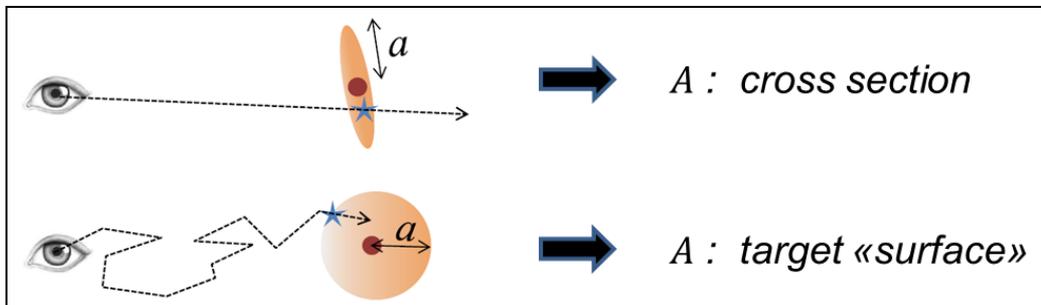
$$\langle T \rangle = \underbrace{\frac{2x_0(L-x_0)\lambda}{v^2}}_{\langle T_1 \rangle} + \underbrace{\frac{L}{v\alpha(v)}}_{\langle T_2 \rangle}$$



4. The optimal walk to the (myopic) walk

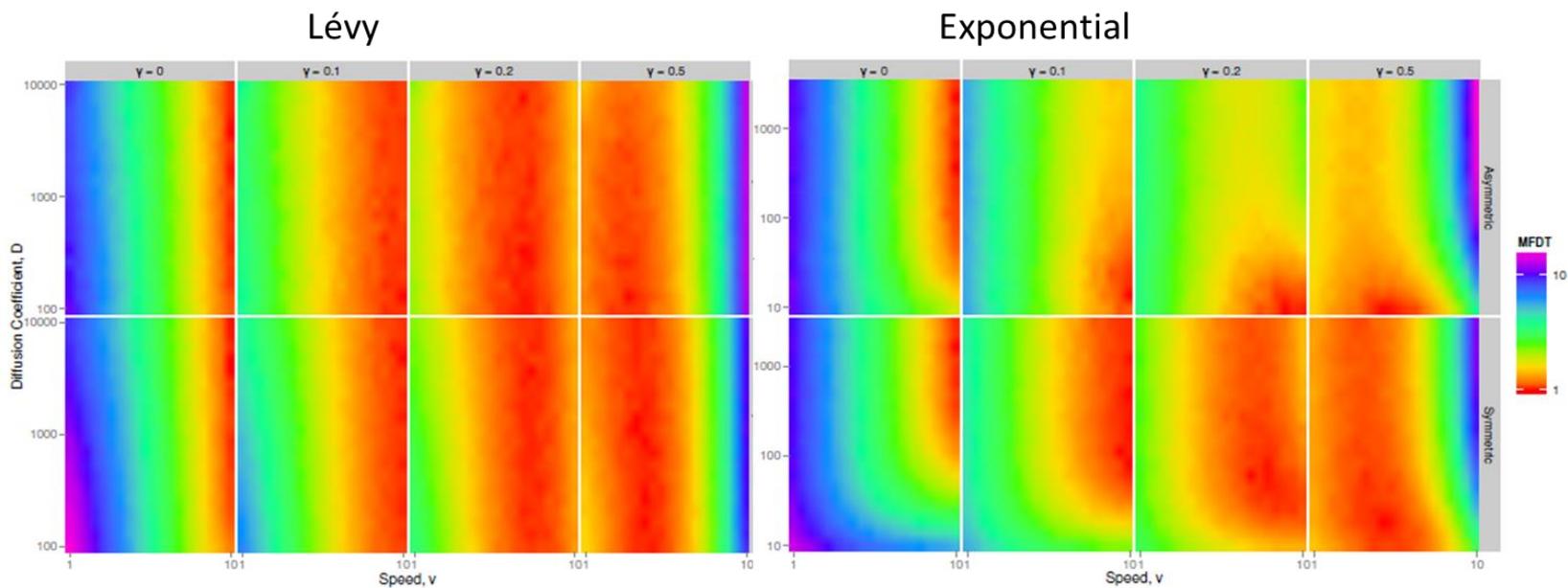
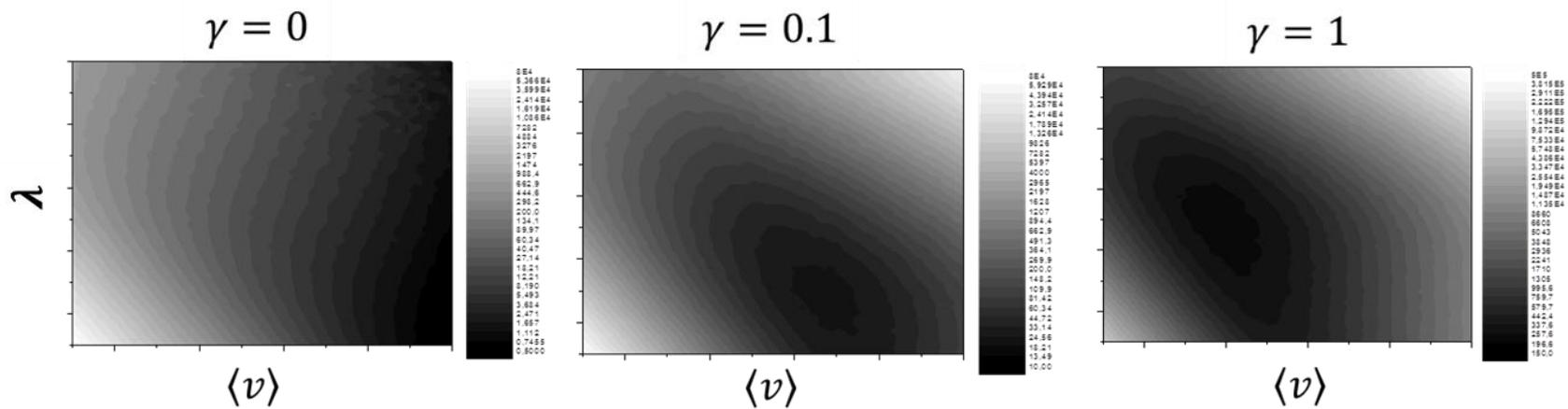
Case 2D or higher 'velocity' model with v fixed and $\varphi(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$, $\alpha = e^{-\gamma v}$

$$\langle T \rangle = \underbrace{\frac{L^2}{v^2} g_d(x_0)}_{\langle T_1 \rangle} + \underbrace{\frac{L^d}{Av\alpha(v)}}_{\langle T_2 \rangle} = \frac{L^2}{v^2} g_d(x_0) + \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{1}{Av\alpha(v)}$$



4. The optimal walk to the (myopic) walk

Case 2D with v fixed and $\varphi(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$ or $\varphi(s) = e^{-a|k|^\mu}$, $\alpha = e^{-\gamma v}$



5. *The optimal walk to the (mortal) walk*



5. The optimal walk to the (mortal) walk

For a constant mortality rate ω :

$$k(t; x_0) \rightarrow e^{-\omega t} k(t; x_0) \quad \rightarrow \quad k(s; x_0) \rightarrow k(s + \omega; x_0) \quad \rightarrow \quad f(s; x_0) = \frac{k(s+\omega; x_0)}{1+k(s+\omega; x_t)}$$

Here $S(\infty)$ is the most relevant parameter:

$$S(\infty) = \int_0^{\infty} dt f(t; x_0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \int_0^{\infty} dt e^{-st} f(t; x_0) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} f(s; x_0)$$

For the 'pure' diffusion model:

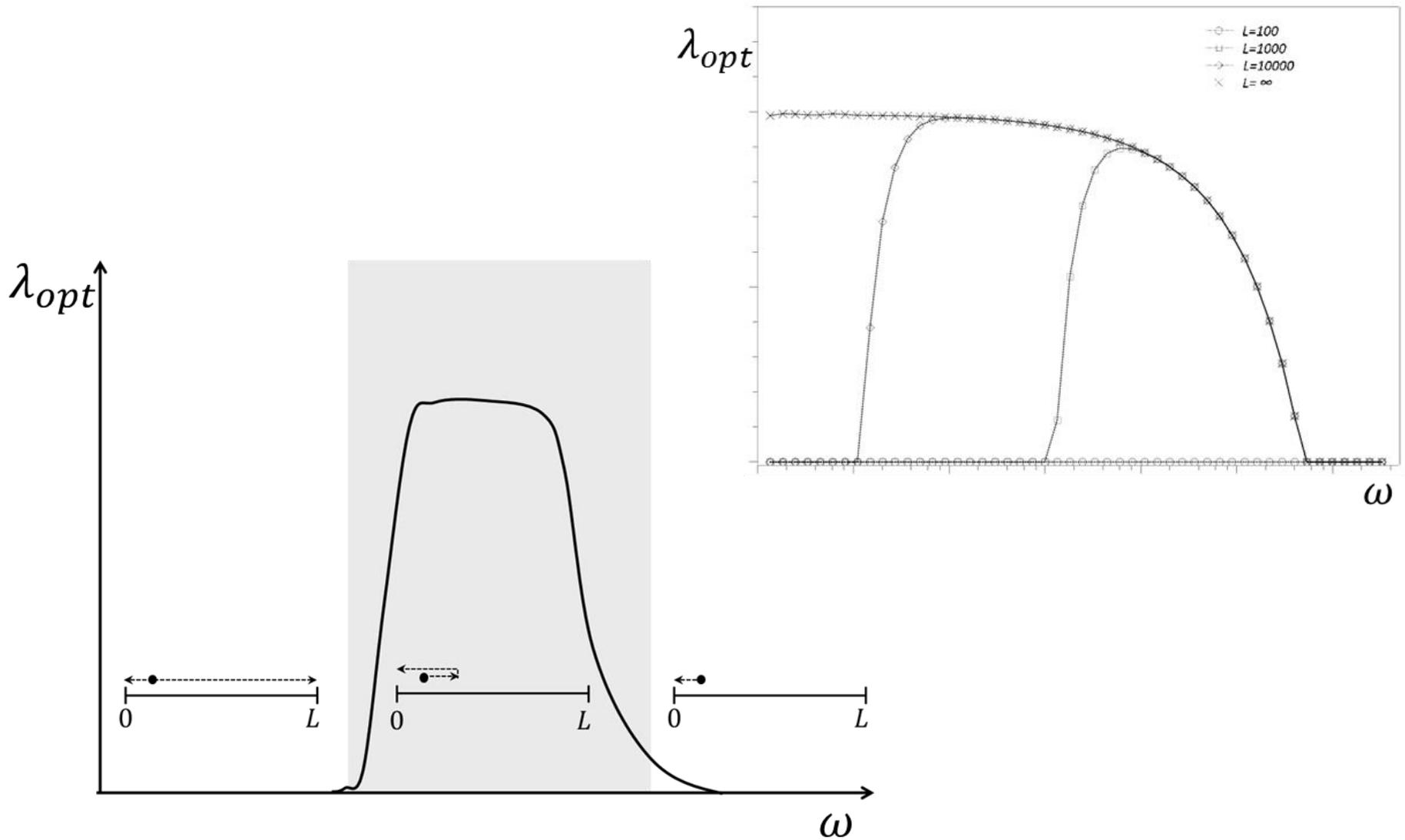
$$S(\infty) = 1 - \frac{\sqrt{\omega\lambda} \left(e^{-\sqrt{\omega\lambda} x_0/v} + e^{-\sqrt{\omega\lambda} (L-x_0)/v} \right)}{1 + e^{-\sqrt{\omega\lambda} L/v}}$$

For the 'velocity' model with v fixed and $\varphi(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$:

$$S(\infty) = 1 - \frac{\sqrt{\omega(\omega + \lambda)} \left(e^{-\sqrt{\omega(\omega + \lambda)} x_0/v} + e^{-\sqrt{\omega(\omega + \lambda)} (L-x_0)/v} \right)}{\omega \left(1 - e^{-\sqrt{\omega(\omega + \lambda)} L/v} \right) + \sqrt{\omega(\omega + \lambda)} \left(1 + e^{-\sqrt{\omega(\omega + \lambda)} L/v} \right)}$$

5. The optimal walk to the (mortal) walk

Implications for the Lévy flight paradigm:

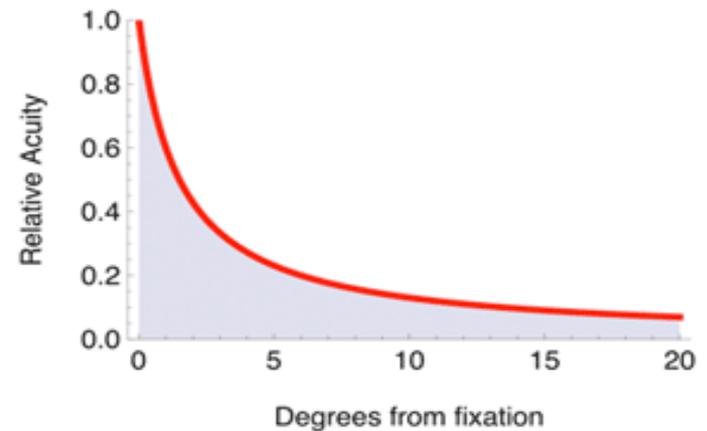
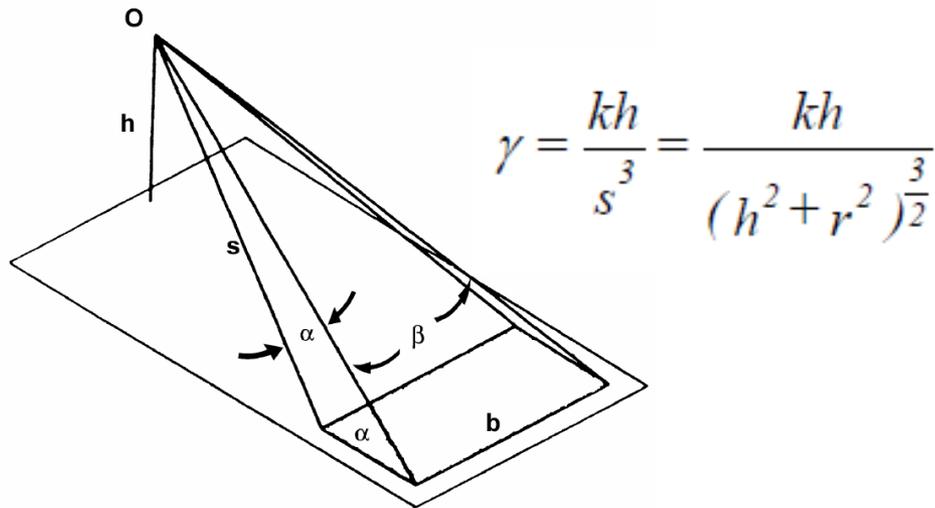


6. *The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk*

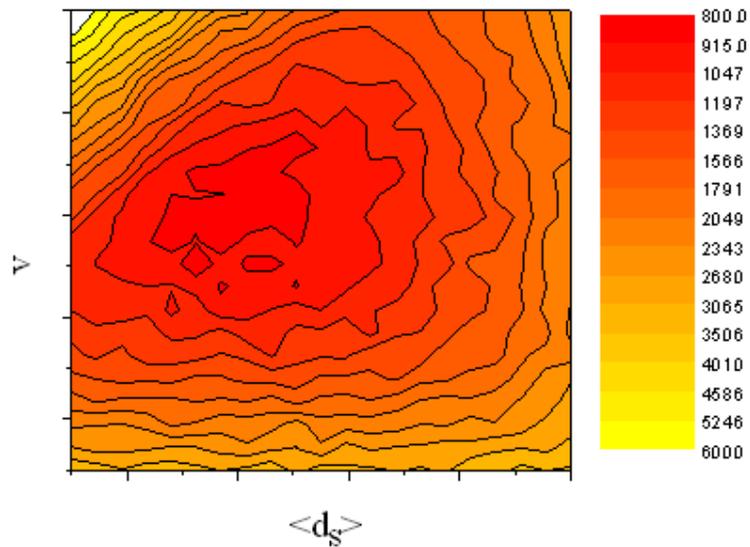


6. The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk

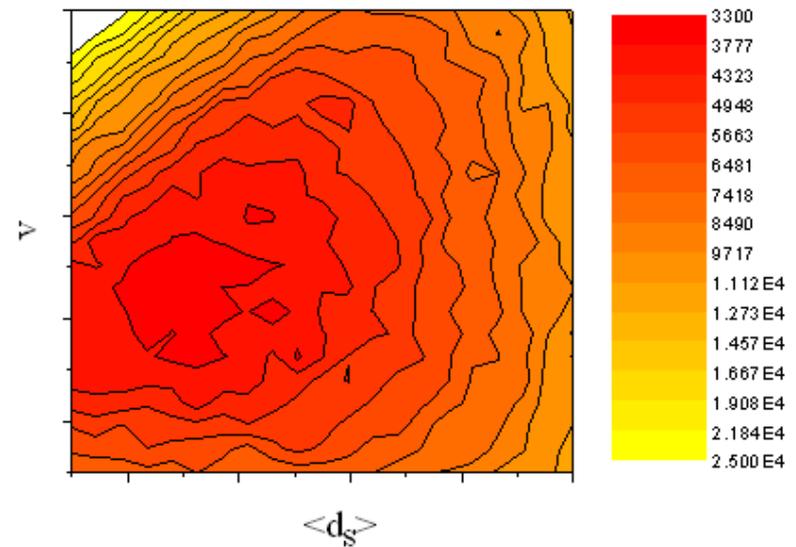
NON-PERFECT DETECTION: SACCADE-FIXATION MECHANISM



$c = 1$

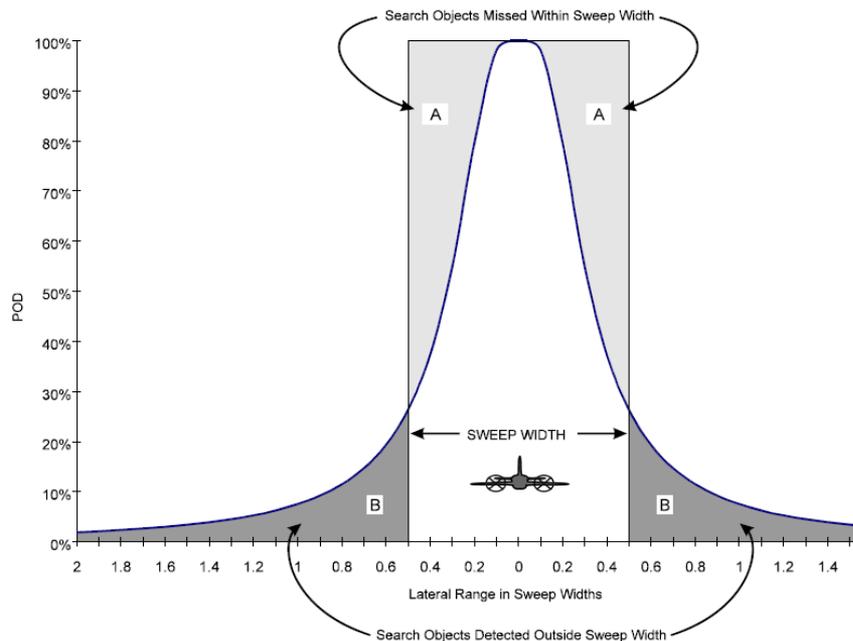


$c = 0.2$



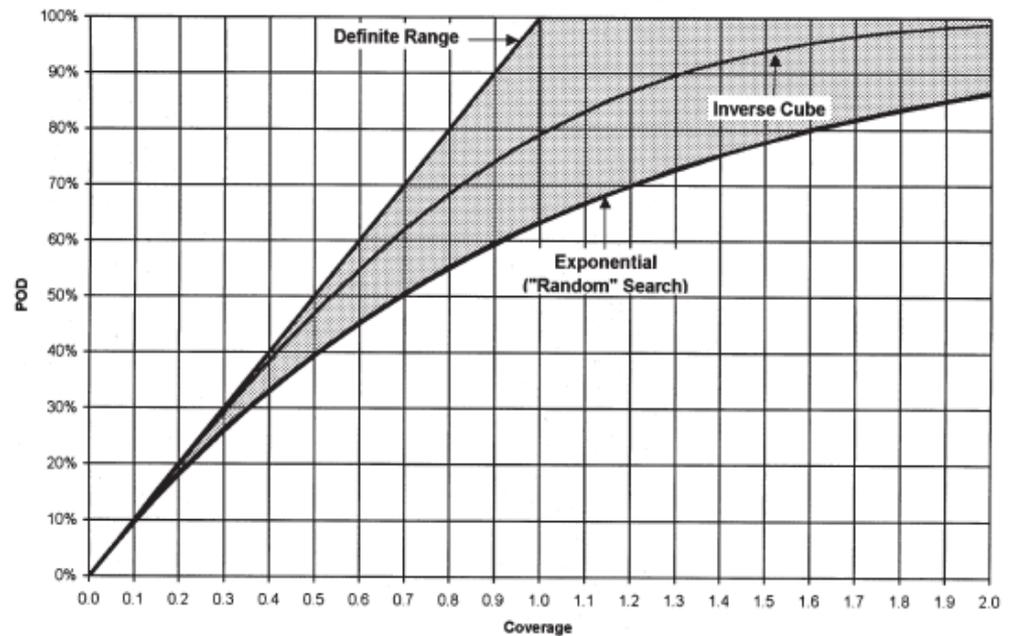
6. The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk

Optimal search theory:



$$Z = W \times V \times T \qquad C = \frac{Z}{A}$$

POD vs. Coverage



"Random" search

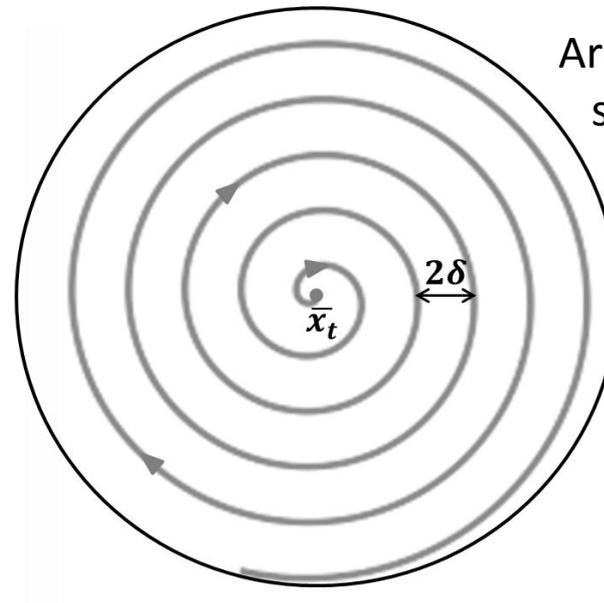
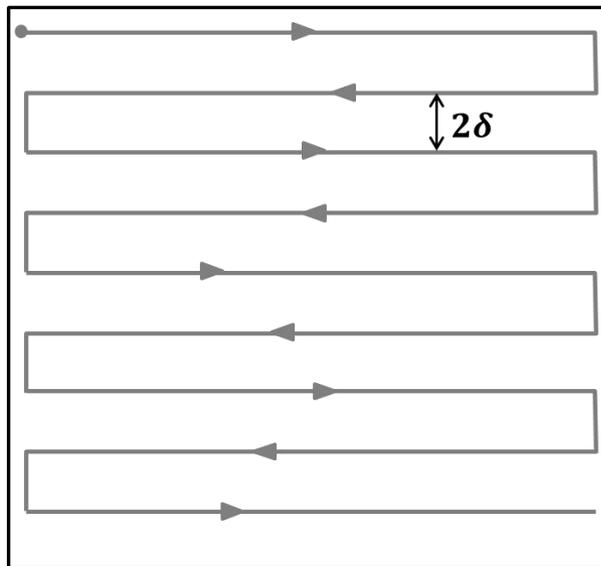
$$POD = 1 - e^{-C}$$

6. The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk

Optimal effort allocation vs optimal path planning

3.23%	3.23%	6.45%	6.45%	6.45%
3.23%	3.23%	6.45%	9.68%	12.90%
3.23%	3.23%	9.68%	9.68%	12.90%

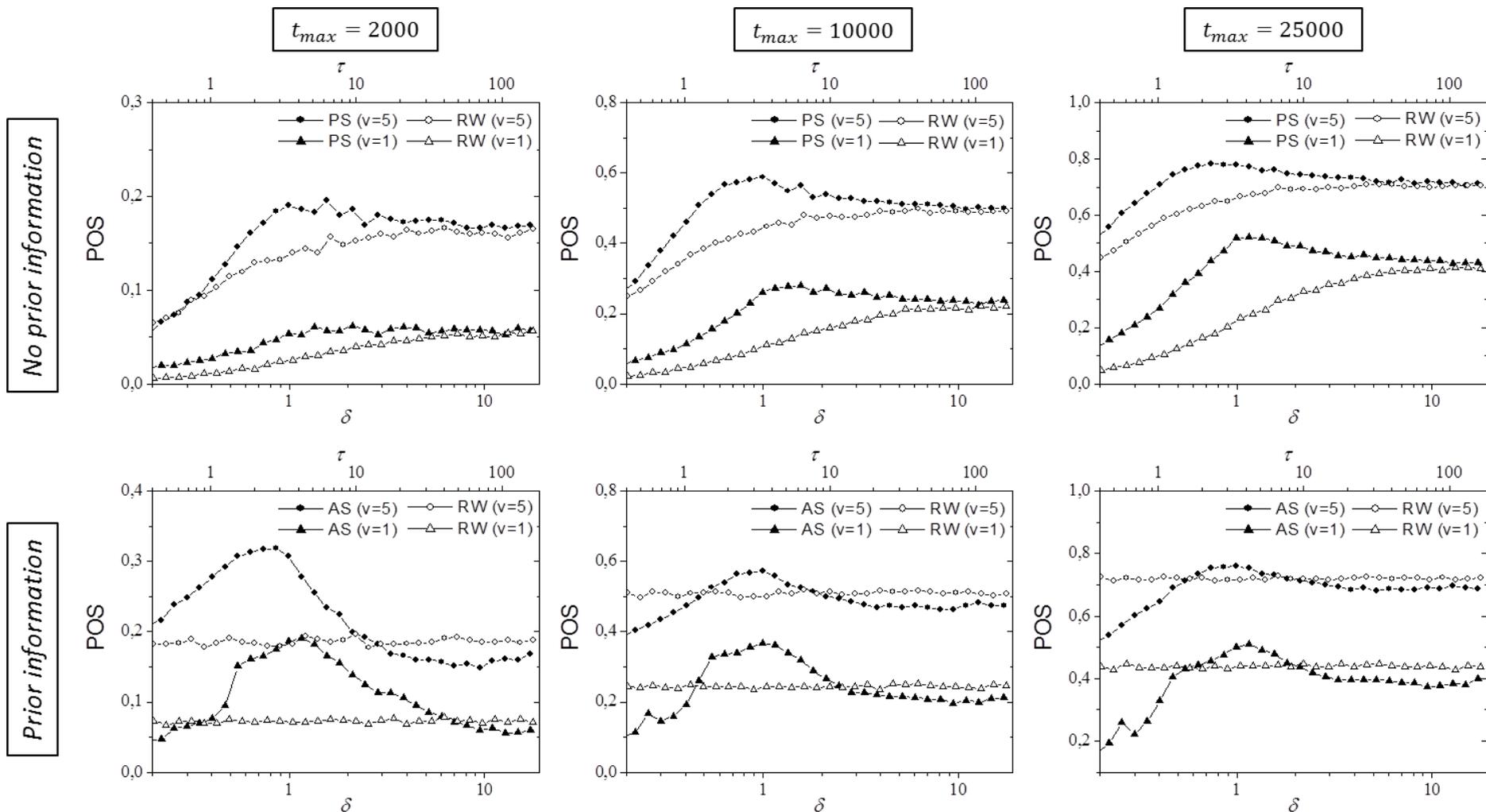
Parallel Sweep (PS)



Archimedean spiral (AS)

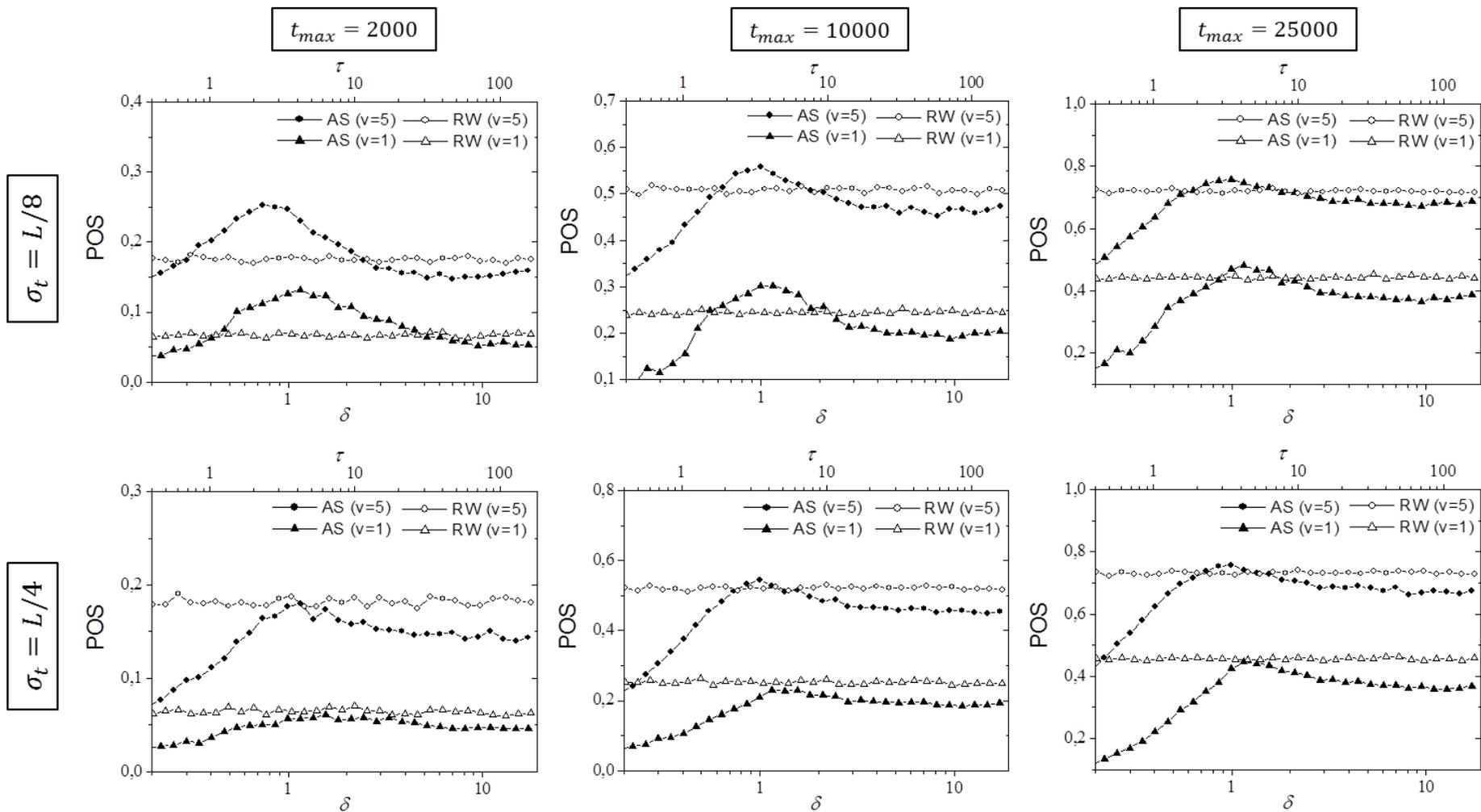
6. The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk

Errors in pattern sizing



6. The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk

Errors in prior information

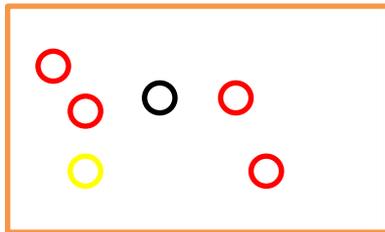


6. The optimal walk to the (systematic?) walk

Does it make any sense to foresee human errors?

According to psychological research during the last 50 years, yes

Example: Ellberg's paradox



30 balls

Red: 10

Yellow+Black: 20

gamble 1: receive \$100 if red is drawn

gamble 2: receive \$100 if black is drawn

gamble 3: receive \$100 if red or yellow is drawn

gamble 4: receive \$100 if black or yellow is drawn.

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