

Lecture Notes on Stochastic Processes

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1 Diffusion & Random Walk

1.1 Random Walker

The random walk can be used to model a variety of different phenomena just like

- the motion of a particle during diffusion
- the spread of mosquito infestation in a forest
- propagation of sound waves in a heterogeneous material
- money flow

Model: Random Walker

A random walker can be considered as particle moving in steps of length l , while choosing each time a random, uncorrelated direction. Uncorrelated means that

$$\langle \vec{x}_n \cdot \vec{x}_m \rangle = l^2 \delta_{nm} \quad (1.1)$$

for averaging over a certain probability distribution.

Thus, the displacement of a random walker after n steps is given by

$$\vec{x} = \sum_{n=1}^N \vec{x}_n \quad \text{with} \quad \langle \vec{x} \rangle = \vec{0} \quad (1.2)$$

The mean square displacement $(\Delta \vec{x})^2$ equals the variance σ^2

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= \langle \vec{x}^2 \rangle - \langle \vec{x} \rangle^2 = \langle \vec{x}^2 \rangle = (\Delta \vec{x})^2 \\ &= \left\langle \left(\sum_{n=1}^N \vec{x}_n \right)^2 \right\rangle = \sum_{n,m=1}^N \langle \vec{x}_n \cdot \vec{x}_m \rangle = N l^2 \end{aligned}$$

As we have $(\Delta \vec{x})^2 \sim N$ and $\Delta t \sim N$, the relation $\frac{(\Delta \vec{x})^2}{\Delta t}$ is a constant in the continuum limit, which is quite unusual that a square term in the numerator appears.

1.2 Continuum Limit: Diffusion Equation

We now consider the step sizes $\Delta \vec{y}$ of a random walker becoming infinitesimally small, with $p(\Delta \vec{y})$ being the probability for step $\Delta \vec{y}$:

$$\langle \Delta \vec{y}_i \rangle = \int d^d \Delta y [\Delta y_i p(\Delta \vec{y})] = 0 \quad (1.3)$$

$$\langle \Delta \vec{y}_i \Delta \vec{y}_j \rangle = \int d^d \Delta y [\Delta y_i \Delta y_j p(\Delta \vec{y})] = \langle (\Delta \vec{y})^2 \rangle \frac{\delta_{ij}}{d} \quad (1.4)$$

for $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, d$ vector components.

We can express the probability for a displacement of \vec{x} after N steps $p_N(\vec{x})$ through the elementary relation

$$P_N(\vec{x}) = \int d^d \Delta y P_{N-1}(\vec{x} - \Delta \vec{y}) P(\Delta \vec{y}) \quad (1.5)$$

Now we do a Taylor expansion of $P_N(\vec{x})$

$$\begin{aligned} P_N(\vec{x}) &\approx \int d^d \Delta y P(\Delta \vec{y}) \left[P_{N-1}(\vec{x}) - \Delta y_i \partial_i P_{N-1}(\vec{x}) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta y_i \Delta y_j \partial_i \partial_j P_{N-1}(\vec{x}) \right] \\ &= P_{N-1}(\vec{x}) + \frac{\langle (\Delta \vec{y})^2 \rangle}{2d} \vec{\nabla}^2 P_{N-1}(\vec{x}) \end{aligned}$$

We can define a continuum probability density $p(\vec{x}, t)$ after the time $t = N\Delta t$

$$p(\vec{x}, t) = p(\vec{x}, N\Delta t) := P_N(\vec{x}) \quad (1.6)$$

and now we can take the limit

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{P_N(\vec{x}) - P_{N-1}(\vec{x})}{\Delta t} = D \vec{\nabla}^2 p \quad \text{with} \quad D = \frac{\langle (\Delta \vec{y})^2 \rangle}{2d\Delta t} \quad (1.7)$$

This continuum limit exists, if D can be treated as a constant, i.e. if $\frac{\langle (\Delta \vec{y})^2 \rangle}{\Delta t}$ is finite for $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$. The resulting equation is known as the diffusion equation.

Diffusion Equation

The diffusion equation for a probability density $p(\vec{x}, t)$ reads

$$\frac{\partial p(\vec{x}, t)}{\partial t} = D \vec{\nabla}^2 p(\vec{x}, t) \quad (1.8)$$

which we can also rewrite with the the definition of a current $\vec{J} = -D \vec{\nabla} p$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} \quad (1.9)$$

Solving the diffusion equation

The diffusion equation can be solved e.g. by doing a Fourier transformation of both sides

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = D \vec{k}^2 p \quad (1.10)$$

leading to the k-space solution

$$p(\vec{k}, t) = \mathcal{F}(p(\vec{x}, t)) = \exp(-Dk^2 t) \quad (1.11)$$

A Fourier transform backwards gives the fundamental solution (Green's function)

$$p(\vec{x}, t) = \frac{1}{(4\pi kt)^{d/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{4kt}\right) \quad (1.12)$$

with the mean square spread $\sigma^2 \sim kt$

1.3 Random Force Model

Another way to approach diffusion is by considering a colloidal particle suspended in a fluid experiencing random forces $f(t)$ due to the interaction with the fluid molecules.

Model: Random Forces

The motion of a particle under random forces $f(t)$ in one dimension can be described by Newton's law

$$m\ddot{x} + \gamma\dot{x} = f(t) \quad (1.13)$$

For long time scales $\tau_m \gg \frac{m}{\gamma}$, inertia is negligible and we just have $\gamma\dot{x} = f(t)$. The random force is characterized through

- $\langle f(t) \rangle = 0$ (by symmetry)
- a vanishing correlation $\langle f(t)f(t+\tau) \rangle \rightarrow 0$ for $\tau \rightarrow \tau_m$

for averaging over a certain probability distribution.

An important property of the random force is stationarity

$$\frac{1}{\gamma^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \langle f(t)f(t+\tau) \rangle = 2D \quad (1.14)$$

with $[D] = \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$

Concept: Diffusion

Diffusion is a net movement of particles from a region of high to a region of low concentration due to random motion of the single particles.

Formal Solution

A formal solution to the equation of motion without taking inertia into account reads

$$x(t) = x(0) + \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_0^t dt_1 f(t_1) \quad (1.15)$$

For $\Delta x = x(t) - x(0)$ we get for the mean deviation

$$\langle \Delta x(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_0^t dt_1 \langle f(t_1) \rangle = 0 \quad (1.16)$$

by symmetry and for the mean square deviation

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \Delta x^2 \rangle &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \left\langle \left(\int_0^t dt_1 f(t_1) \right) \left(\int_0^t dt_2 f(t_2) \right) \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \int_0^t dt_1 \int_0^t dt_2 \langle f(t_1) f(t_2) \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \int_0^t dt_1 \int_{-t_1}^{t+t_1} d\tau \langle f(t_1) f(t_1 + \tau) \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \int_0^t dt_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \langle f(t_1) f(t_1 + \tau) \rangle + \mathcal{O}(D\tau_m) \\ &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \int_0^t dt_1 \gamma^2 2D = 2Dt \end{aligned}$$

Calculating $D = D(T)$

In order to calculate $D(T)$ we do a trick and add an elastic spring to the model

$$kx + \gamma \dot{x} = f(t) \quad (1.17)$$

So at first we might ask what happens in reaction to a pulse response?

$$kx + \gamma \dot{x} = \rho_0 \delta(t) \quad \text{with} \quad x(t) = 0 \mid t < 0 \quad (1.18)$$

The solution to this scenario is given by

$$x(t) = \rho_0 \chi(t), \quad \chi(t) = \frac{1}{\gamma} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\sigma}\right) \Theta(t), \quad \sigma = \frac{\gamma}{k} \quad (1.19)$$

We get back to the full problem, where the formal solutions reads

$$x(t) = \int_0^\infty d\tau f(t - \tau) \chi(\tau) \quad (1.20)$$

with $\langle x(t) \rangle = 0$ by symmetry and

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \Delta x^2 \rangle &= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \left\langle \left(\int_0^\infty d\tau_1 f(t - \tau_1) \chi(\tau_1) \right) \left(\int_0^\infty d\tau_2 f(t - \tau_2) \chi(\tau_2) \right) \right\rangle \\
&= \int_0^\infty d\tau_1 \int_0^\infty d\tau_2 \langle f(t - \tau_1) f(t - \tau_2) \rangle \underbrace{\chi(\tau_1) \chi(\tau_2)}_{= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{\tau_1 + \tau_2}{\sigma}\right)} \\
&= \int_0^\infty d\tau_1 \int_{-\tau_1}^\infty d\tau \langle f(t - \tau_1) f(t - \tau_1 - \tau) \rangle \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{2\tau_1 + \tau}{\sigma}\right) \\
&= \int_0^\infty d\tau_1 \int_{-\infty}^\infty d\tau \langle f(t - \tau_1) f(t - \tau_1 - \tau) \rangle \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{2\tau_1 + \tau}{\sigma}\right) + \mathcal{O}(D\tau_m) \\
&= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \int_0^\infty d\tau_1 \exp\left(-\frac{2\tau_1}{\sigma}\right) \int_{-\infty}^\infty d\tau \langle f(t - \tau_1) f(t - \tau_1 - \tau) \rangle \underbrace{\exp\left(-\frac{\tau}{\sigma}\right)}_{\approx 1, \tau_m \ll \sigma} \\
&= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \frac{\sigma}{2} 2D\gamma^2 = \frac{\gamma}{k} D
\end{aligned}$$

At this point we would like to make use of the equipartition theorem

$$\left\langle \frac{k}{2} x^2 \right\rangle = \frac{k_B T}{2} \tag{1.21}$$

As we have

$$\left\langle \frac{k}{2} x^2 \right\rangle = \frac{k}{2} \frac{\gamma}{k} D = \frac{k_B T}{2} \tag{1.22}$$

we obtain the Stokes-Einstein-relation

$$D = \frac{k_B T}{\gamma} \tag{1.23}$$

Repetition: Equipartition Theorem

In thermal equilibrium, the systems energy, given by a Hamiltonian H , is distributed

on its degrees of freedom x_n via

$$\left\langle x_m \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_n} \right\rangle = \delta_{mn} k_B T \quad (1.24)$$

This holds for a microcanonical and canonical ensemble and relates temperature to the systems average energies.

2 Probability Theory

2.1 Mathematical Foundations

Concept: Probability

Let X be a set of states, then we have the following axioms of probability:

- is a function $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$ for some $A \subseteq X$
- $P(A) + P(B) = P(A \cup B) - P(A \cap B)$

The probability density is analogously a function $p(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ and it relates to the probability itself by

$$P(A) = \int_A dx p(x) \quad (2.1)$$

for $A \subseteq X$. If $[x] = m$, then $[p] = m^{-1}$. Note that it is also called probability density function $\text{PDF}(x) = p(x)$ and the cumulative density function is given by

$$\text{CDF}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x dx' p(x') \quad (2.2)$$

Important properties of probability distributions are its moments and its cumulants.

Moments

The moments of a probability distributions $p(x)$ are given by

$$\mu_n = \langle x^n \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n p(x) \quad (2.3)$$

with the characteristic function

$$\langle \exp(tx) \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mu_n \frac{t^n}{n!} \quad (2.4)$$

Cumulants

The cumulants are given by the mean value $k_1 = \mu_1$, the variance $k_2 = \mu_2 - \mu_1^2$ and higher order cumulants such as $k_3 = \mu_3 - 3\mu_2\mu_1 + 2\mu_1^3$. More generally we have

$$\ln \langle \exp(tx) \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} k_n \frac{t^n}{n!} \quad (2.5)$$

2.2 Probability in Physics

Usually, probability is regarded as relative frequency of an event A occurring N_A times for the total number of measurements being N

$$P(A) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_A}{N} \quad (2.6)$$

Practically, a probability is determined by

- the experiment being repeated very often with the same initial macrostate
- replacing the physical system by an idealized model for stochastic simulations

(Talk by Jan Nagel: Gott würfelt nicht. Oder doch? -> Uncertainty in initial conditions leads to a dice producing a stochastic behavior.)

Example Weather Forecast

For an event $R = \text{"rain tomorrow"}$ we know that it is raining 116 out of 365 days in Dresden: $P(R|\text{Dresden}) = \frac{116}{365} = 18\%$. Our forecast is getting more accurate if we consider also seasonal changes and thus specific the month being October with 8 days of rain out of 31 in total: $P(R|\text{Dresden, October}) = \frac{8}{31} = 25.8\%$

Another approach is based on persistence of conditions, i.e. to make a rain prediction for tomorrow based on the weather today. E.g. according to Caskey 1963 we have $P(R|\text{current local weather}) = x$ and $P(R|\text{rain today}) = 44\%$, $P(R|\text{dry today}) = 17\%$

Last but not least we can sample macrostate that is consistent with measurement data and calculate the probabilities for rain from deterministic models (Navier-Stokes-equations / mathematical forecasting) $P(R|\text{current global weather})$.

2.3 Important Probability Distributions

Normal Distribution

The normal distribution is given by

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] = N(\mu, \sigma^2) \quad (2.7)$$

with the moments and cumulants being

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_1 &= \mu, \mu_2 = \mu^2 + \sigma^2, \mu_3 = \mu^3 + 3\mu\sigma^2 \\ k_1 &= \mu, k_2 = \sigma^2, k_j = 0 \quad \text{for } j \geq 3 \end{aligned}$$

Bernoulli Distribution

For a Bernoulli trial you have two outcomes with probabilities p and $1 - p$. If you now perform n independent trials you will get k times the first outcome with probability

$$P(k, n) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad (2.8)$$

with $\langle k \rangle = np$ and $\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle^2 = np(1-p)$. In many practical cases one can do a normal approximation by $p(k, n) = N(np, np(1-p))$.

Poisson Distribution

We consider the continuous time limit of the Binomial distribution. Therefore we introduce a time $t_j = \frac{j}{n}T = j \, dt$ with $dt = \frac{T}{n}$ and $\lambda = np$ being the total number of expected events. The event rate is given by $r = \frac{\lambda}{T} = \frac{p}{dt}$ with $[r] = \text{s}^{-1}$.

Now take the limit $n \rightarrow \infty$ with $\lambda = \text{const}$ and $p = \frac{\lambda}{n}$, so we get the Poisson distribution

$$p(k, \lambda) = \exp(-\lambda) \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \quad (2.9)$$

with $\mu = \langle k \rangle = \lambda$, $\sigma^2 = \langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle^2 = \lambda$. An approximation is $p(k, \lambda) = N(\lambda, \lambda)$ for very large λ .

Remark: Why is the concept of time being used here?

The poisson distribution is an example of a stochastic Poisson process

$$f(t) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - t_j) \quad (2.10)$$

and so $k = \int_0^T f(t)$.

Power-law distribution

E.g. the jump distribution of animals pursuing food foraging (Levy walk) or to describe the distribution of Facebook contacts ($\alpha = 2.2$) are described by a power-law distribution of the form

$$p(x) \sim x^{-\alpha} \quad \text{for } x \gg 1 \quad (2.11)$$

It has some unpleasant properties such as $\sigma = \infty$ for $\alpha < 3$.

2.4 Normal Approximation

Proof I Using Stirling's Approximation

We would like to approximate the Bernoulli distribution

$$p(k, n) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \quad (2.12)$$

by means of a normal distribution. Therefore we introduce a small deviation ε such that $q = 1 - p$, $k = np + n\varepsilon$ and $p(k, n) \approx 0$ for $\varepsilon \gg \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$.

Trick number one in order to continue is to use Stirling's approximation

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \quad (2.13)$$

which leads us to

$$\begin{aligned} p(k, n) &= \frac{\sqrt{2\pi n}}{\sqrt{2\pi k} \sqrt{2\pi(n-k)}} \frac{n^n}{k^k (n-k)^{n-k}} p^k q^{n-k} \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi p q n}} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon) \right] \left(\frac{np}{k}\right)^k \left(\frac{nq}{n-k}\right)^{(n-k)} \end{aligned}$$

To do the second trick and apply $x^k = \exp(k \ln(x))$ we need to evaluate the following two expressions

$$\ln\left(\frac{np}{k}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{p}{p-\varepsilon}\right) = -\ln\left(1 + \frac{\varepsilon}{p}\right) \approx -\frac{\varepsilon}{p} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{p}\right)^2$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{nq}{n-k}\right) = \dots \approx \frac{\varepsilon}{p} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{p}\right)^2$$

which means

$$\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{np}{k}\right)^k \left(\frac{nq}{n-k}\right)^{n-k} &\approx \exp\left(k \left[-\frac{\varepsilon}{p} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{q}\right)^2\right] + (n-k) \left[\frac{\varepsilon}{p} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{q}\right)^2\right]\right) \\
&= 0 \cdot \varepsilon - \frac{1}{2} n \frac{\varepsilon^2}{p} - \frac{1}{2} n \frac{\varepsilon^2}{q} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^3) \\
&= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\varepsilon^2(p+q)}{pq} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(k-np)^2}{npq}
\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$p(k, n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(k-np)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \quad (2.14)$$

with $\sigma^2 = npq$

Proof II Using the Central-Limit-Theorem

Central-Limit-Theorem

Consider sequence of x_1, \dots, x_n independent, identically distributed, random variables with mean μ and variance σ^2 . We define the empirical mean by

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n}(x_1 + \dots + x_n) = \text{empirical mean} \quad (2.15)$$

We normalize it to a random variable with expectation value zero

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \quad (2.16)$$

Then the probability distribution $p(z) \rightarrow N(0, 1)$ for large n ("convergence in distribution") or equivalently $CDF(z) \rightarrow Erf(z)$ for almost all $z \in \mathbb{R}$

As a second, more elegant proof we consider n independent random variables x_j with $j = 1, \dots, n$ and

$$x_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } p \\ 0 & \text{with probability } q = 1 - p \end{cases} \quad (2.17)$$

As we define the empirical mean via

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{n}(x_1 + \dots + x_n) = \text{empirical mean} \quad (2.18)$$

with $k = n\bar{x}$ we get $p(k, n) = p(\bar{x}) \sim N(np, npq)$ by the Central-Limit-Theorem. The idea of the proof is to compute the cumulants of x_j

$$k_1 = \mu, k_2 = \sigma^2 \dots \quad (2.19)$$

and then to show that the cumulants of z_j are given by

$$k_1 = 0, k_2 = 1, k_3 \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}, k_4 \sim \frac{1}{n} \dots \quad (2.20)$$

and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln \langle zt \rangle = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} k_l t^l = 1 - \frac{1}{2}t^2 \quad (2.21)$$

then we have $z \rightarrow N(0, 1)$. To show this behavior of the cumulants we take a look at the functions

$$C_x(t) = \langle xt \rangle \quad \text{with} \quad C_{\alpha x}(t) = C_x(\alpha t), \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \quad (2.22)$$

with $\langle (\alpha x)^j \rangle = \alpha^j \langle x^j \rangle$ and $k_{\alpha x, j} = \alpha^j k_{x, j}$ for all cumulants, i.e. $\forall j \in \mathbb{N}$. Use this for \bar{x}, z :

$$C_{\bar{x}}(t) = C_{x_1} \left(\frac{t}{n} \right) C_{x_2} \left(\frac{t}{n} \right) \dots C_{x_n} \left(\frac{t}{n} \right) = C \left(\left(\frac{t}{n} \right)^n \right)$$

$$C_z(t) = C_{\bar{x}} \left(\frac{t}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right) \exp \left(-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right) = C_x \left(\left(\frac{t}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right)^n \right) \exp \left(-\frac{\mu t}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

giving us

$$\ln(C_z(t)) = n \ln \left(C_x \left(\frac{t}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right) \right) - \frac{\mu t}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \quad (2.23)$$

and so we get

$$k_{z,j} = n \left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \right)^j k_{x,j} \tag{2.24}$$

2.5 Stochastic Processes

Stochastic Process

A stochastic process is a random function $f(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, i.e. a family of random variables parameterized by t .

Terminology

- conditional probability density: $p(f(t_2) = f_2 | f(t_1) = f_1)$
- Markov property: For $t_3 > t_2 > t_1$ it holds that $p(f(t_3) = f_3 | f(t_2) = f_2, f(t_1) = f_1) = p(f(t_3) = f_3 | f(t_2) = f_2) \forall t_j, f_j$, example: diffusion, counter-example: random draw from an urn without replacements
- Martingales: Markov processes with the property $\langle f(t_2) | f(t_1) = t_1 \rangle = f_1$, example: diffusion, counter-example: diffusion with drift

Example: Poisson Process

Poisson Process

For a Poisson process events occur independently with rate r at random times t_j

$$f(t) = \sum_{j=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - t_j) \quad (2.25)$$

The property $x = \int_0^T f(t) dt$ counts events and yields a Poisson distribution for $\lambda = rt$. The waiting times $t = t_{j+1} - t_j$ are exponentially distributed, i.e. $p(t) = r \exp(-rt)$.

The last property can be proven by taking a look at the CDF for which we have

$$P(t \geq \theta + dt) = P(t \geq \theta) - r dt P(t \geq \theta)$$

so that

$$\frac{d}{dt} P(t \geq \theta) = -r P(t \geq \theta) \Rightarrow P(t \geq \theta) \sim \exp(-rt)$$

Example: Gaussian White Noise

Poisson Process

Gaussian White Noise is described by a function $\xi(t) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with the following properties

- i) $\langle \xi(t) \rangle = 0$
- ii) $\langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle = 2D\delta(t - t')$
- iii) $\int_{t_1}^{t_2} dt \xi(t) \sim N(0, 2D[t_2 - t_1])$

Gaussian white noise can be considered as the idealization of thermal random forces, corresponding to $\tau_c \rightarrow 0$

Remark: Gaussian White Noise and Mathematics

Strictly speaking, ξ itself cannot be defined mathematically. Instead mathematicians define a so-called Wiener process

$$W(t) = \int_0^t dt' \xi(t') \quad (2.26)$$

so that $W(t)$ exists and is continuous with probability 1.

3 Langevin Equation and Fokker-Planck Equation

3.1 Langevin equation

Langevin theory describes non-equilibrium systems by postulating a stochastic process, thus adding a noise term to fundamental equations. In its original form, Langevin theory was used to describe Brownian motion, e.g. of a particle suspended in a fluid.

Definition of the Langevin equation

The Langevin equation is a stochastic differential equation for the particle velocity

$$\dot{x} = \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{drift}} + \underbrace{\sqrt{2D}\xi(t)}_{\text{random noise}} \quad (3.1)$$

- $\xi(t)$ represents Gaussian white noise
- it describes diffusion in an effective potential $U(x) = -\int_0^x dx' f(x')$

Generalization

$$\dot{x}_i = f_i(\vec{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^m g_{ij}(\vec{x})\xi_j(t) \quad (3.2)$$

with $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $\xi_j(t)$ being independent Gaussian white noise functions $\langle \xi_j(t)\xi_l(t') \rangle = \delta_{jl}\delta(t-t')$

Example 1: Double-well Potential

Example 2: Escape over a Barrier

Numerics for the Langevin Equation

Euler Scheme

The Langevin equation $\dot{x} = f(x) + \sqrt{2D}\xi(t)$ leads, using the Euler scheme, to the following update-rule

$$\hat{x}_{n+1} = \hat{x}_n + f(\hat{x}_n) dt + \sqrt{2D} dt N_n \quad (3.3)$$

with $D = D_0$, $t_i = i dt$, $x_i = x(t_i)$, $N_n \sim N(0, 1)$ and $|\hat{x}_n - x_n| \sim \mathcal{O}(dt^{3/2})$

3.2 Fokker-Planck-Equation

Derivation of Fokker-Planck-Equation

Repetition: Ordinary Diffusion

For the example of ordinary diffusion

$$\dot{x} = \xi(t), x(0) = 0 \quad \text{with} \quad \langle x(t) \rangle = 0 \quad \langle x^2(t) \rangle = 2Dt \quad (3.4)$$

the probability density is given by

$$p(x, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2Dt}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{4Dt}\right) \quad (3.5)$$

fullfilling the Diffusion equation

$$\frac{\partial p(x, t)}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 p(x, t)}{\partial x^2} \quad (3.6)$$

Considering the general case $\dot{x} = f(x) + \sqrt{2D}\xi(t)$ we would like to find an operator \hat{L} such that

$$\frac{\partial p(x, t)}{\partial t} = \hat{L}p(x, t) \quad (3.7)$$

Therefore we discretize time and take a look how a sub-ensemble of $p(x, t)$ at x_n will evolve

during a time step from $p(x, t_n)$ to $p(x, t_{n+1})$. For this we are using the Markov-Property:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x, t_{n+1}|x_0, t_0) &= \int dx_n p(x, t_{n+1}, x_n, t_n|x_0, t_0) \\ &= \int dx_n p(x, t_{n+1}|x_n, t_n) p(x_n, t_n|x_0, t_0) \\ &= \int dx_n N(x_n + f(x_n), 2D dt) p(x_n, t_n|x_0, t_0) \end{aligned}$$

This is already an implicit solution in terms of a convolution of the probability density with a family of normal distributions, but it is of few practical use.

A Remark about Units

Unlike probabilities, probability densities for positions have units of inverse length! Therefore we are integrating over a two-point probability density have units of inverse length squared

$$\begin{aligned} [p(x, t_{n+1}|x_0, t_0)] &= \text{m}^{-1} \\ [p(x, t_{n+1}, x_n, t_n|x_0, t_0)] &= \text{m}^{-2} \end{aligned}$$

So let us define the following abbreviations in order to evaluate this convolution further

$$\begin{aligned} p(x, t_n) &= \int dx_n I(x_n, y)|_{y=x-x_n} \quad \text{with} \quad I(x_n, y) = p(x_n)n(x_n, y), \\ &\quad \text{and} \quad n(x_n, y) = N(f(x_n)dt, 2Ddt) \end{aligned}$$

The integrand $I(x, y)$ will contribute only for small $y = \mathcal{O}(dt)$, which means $x_n \approx x$, so we can Taylor expand $I(x_n, y)$ in x_n around x :

$$I(x_n, y) = I(x, y) + \frac{\partial I(x_n, y)}{\partial x_n} \Big|_{x_n=x} (x_n - x) + \frac{\partial^2 I(x_n, y)}{\partial x_n^2} \Big|_{x_n=x} \frac{(x_n - x)^2}{2} \quad (3.8)$$

Inserting this into the convolution integral leads to

$$\begin{aligned} p(x, t_{n+1}) &= \int dy I(x, y)|_{x_n=x-y} \\ &= \int dy \left(p(x)n(x, y) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(p(x)n(x, y)y) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}(p(x)n(x, y)\frac{y^2}{2}) \right) \\ &= p(x) \int dy n(x, y) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(p(x) \int dy n(x, y)y \right) + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \left(p(x) \int dy n(x, y)\frac{y^2}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

The integrals that are occurring in this step are known as Kramers-Moyal coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} \int dy n(x, y) &= 1 \\ \int dy n(x, y)y &= f(x) \\ \int dy n(x, y)\frac{y^2}{2} &= D + \frac{1}{2}[f(x)]^2 = D + \mathcal{O}(\text{dt}^2) \end{aligned}$$

which give us

$$p(x, t_{n+1}) = p(x, t_n) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x}[p(x, t_n)f(x) \text{dt}] + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[p(x, t_n)D] \text{dt} \quad (3.9)$$

and thus

$$\frac{p(x, t_{n+1}) - p(x, t_n)}{\text{dt}} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}[p(x, t_n)f(x)] + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[p(x, t_n)D] \quad (3.10)$$

Taking the time step to zero, we have finally derived the Fokker-Planck equation.

Fokker-Planck equation

The Fokker-Planck equation is a partial differential equation, which reads

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}p(x, t) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}[p(x, t)f] + D\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}p(x, t) \quad (3.11)$$

The structure of the Fokker-Planck equation is similar to the Schrödinger equation, i.e. solution methods from QM can be borrowed (take a look at the Risken book!).

Application to the Diffusion Potential

We consider the diffusion potential $U(x)$ (now we care about physical units!)

$$\dot{x} = -\frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + \xi \quad (3.12)$$

and look for the steady state $\frac{\partial U}{\partial t} = 0$. Hence, the Fokker-Planck equation reads

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \vec{\nabla} \left[\left(\frac{1}{\gamma} \vec{\nabla} U \right) p \right] + D \vec{\nabla}^2 p = \vec{\nabla} \left[\frac{1}{\gamma} \vec{\nabla} U p + D \vec{\nabla} p \right] \\ \Rightarrow c &= \frac{1}{\gamma} \vec{\nabla} U p + D \vec{\nabla} p \end{aligned}$$

thus, if $c = 0$, we get

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \ln p = \frac{\vec{\nabla} p}{p} = -\frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\vec{\nabla} U}{p} \quad (3.13)$$

and

$$p \sim \exp\left(-\frac{U}{\gamma D}\right) = \exp\left(-\frac{U}{k_B T}\right) \quad (3.14)$$

with $D = \frac{k_B T}{\gamma}$, i.e. we recover the Boltzmann distribution. If c would not be zero, the solution could not be normalized. Another explanation, why $c = 0$, is based on the Fokker-Planck-equation being interpreted as conservation equation

$$\dot{p} = -\vec{\nabla} J \quad \text{with} \quad J = \frac{1}{\gamma} \vec{\nabla} U p + D \vec{\nabla} p \quad (3.15)$$

of the current J . At equilibrium, the current must vanish and thus we have

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} J = c = 0 \quad (3.16)$$

Eigenvalue Spectrum of \hat{L}

The probability density can be expressed in terms of eigenfunctions of the operator \hat{L}

$$\hat{L}\phi_n(x) = \lambda_n\phi_n(x) \quad (3.17)$$

through

$$p(x, t) = \sum a_n \phi_n(x) \exp(\lambda_n t) \quad (3.18)$$

If $\lambda_0 = 0$, then this corresponds to a steady state ϕ_0 and the slowest decaying mode determines hopping rates.

But why are the λ_n real? We have $\hat{L} \neq \hat{L}^*$, which means \hat{L} is not Hermitian.

$$\langle \hat{L}g, h \rangle = \int dx (\hat{L}g)h = \int dx g\hat{L}^*h = \langle g, \hat{L}^*h \rangle \quad \forall g(x), h(x) \quad (3.19)$$

so by partial integration we see that

$$\hat{L}^*h = f \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} + D \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x^2} \quad (3.20)$$

If $f(x) = -\frac{\partial U(x)}{\partial x}$ we can define a Hermitian operator via

$$A = T^{-1}LT \quad \text{with} \quad T = \exp\left(+\frac{\beta U}{2}\right), \quad \beta = \frac{1}{D} \quad (3.21)$$

The newly constructed operator is self-adjoint $\hat{A} = \hat{A}^*$ and thus all eigenvalues are real. \hat{A} and \hat{L} do have the same eigenvalues.

Backward Fokker-Planck Equation

$p = p(x_1, t|x_0, 0) = p(x_1, 0|x_0, -t)$, which gives the backward Fokker-Planck equation

$$\dot{p} = \hat{L}_{x_1}p = \hat{L}_{x_0}^*p = \left[+f(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_0} + D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_0^2} \right] p(x_1, 0|x_0, -t) \quad (3.22)$$

Boundary Conditions Matter

1) Reflecting Boundary Conditions (No-Flux / Robin B.C.)

The probability current $\dot{p} = -J$ vanishes

$$J(x_1) = J(x_2) = 0 \quad (3.23)$$

and

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx p(x, t) = 1 \quad (3.24)$$

so the steady-state distribution $p^*(x) = \phi_0(x)$ exists. This is similar for a confinement potential $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_1, x_2} U(x) \rightarrow \infty$

2) Absorbing Boundary Conditions

We have $p(x_2, t) = 0$ (Dirichlet Boundary Conditions) and therefore

$$0 > \frac{d}{dt} \int dx p(x, t) = \int dx \frac{dp(x, t)}{dt} = \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} -\frac{\partial J}{\partial x} = -J(x_2) \quad (3.25)$$

So no steady-state solution exists (non-trivial / normalizable to one) and all eigenvalues are strictly negative.

Boundary Conditions and Functional Analysis

Changing the boundary conditions changes also the eigenvalues and the adjoint operator (boundary terms might pop up) and thus you will get each time a different operator in terms of functional analysis.

4 Dynkin Equation

4.1 Mean First Passage Times and Dynkin Equation

We consider diffusion in some potential landscape $\gamma\dot{x} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + \xi(t)$ with initial conditions $p(x, 0) = \delta(x - x_1)$ and boundary conditions $p(x_2, t) = 0$.

Mean First Passage Time (MFPT)

$$\tau(x_2|x_1) = \int_0^\infty dt t J(x_2, t|x_1, 0) \quad (4.1)$$

Our aim is to derive an equation for τ . If Δt is small and fix (and we ask which positions can we reach within Δt) we have

$$\tau(x_2|x_1) = \Delta t + \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} dx' \tau(x_2|x') p(x', \Delta t|x_1, 0)$$

and we take the derivative with respect to Δt

$$0 = 1 + \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} dx' \tau(x_2|x') \hat{L}_{x'} p = 1 + \int_{-\infty}^{x_2} dx' \hat{L}_{x'}^* \tau(x_2|x') p$$

so if $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ then $p(x', \Delta t|x_1, 0) \rightarrow \delta(x - x_1)$ and we get the Dynkin equation

$$-1 = \hat{L}_{x_1}^* \tau(x_2|x_1) \quad (4.2)$$

Application to Diffusion

Let consider once again the example of diffusion

$$\gamma\dot{x} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} + \xi(t) \quad \langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle = 2D\delta(t - t') \quad (4.3)$$

with the initial condition $p(x, 0) = \delta(x - x_1)$ and boundary conditions $p(x_2, t) = 0$. Let $v = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \tau(x_2, x_1)$ so the Dynkin equation reads

$$-1 = Dv' - \frac{U'}{\gamma}v \quad (4.4)$$

which we multiply with $\frac{1}{D} \exp(-\beta U)$

$$-\frac{1}{D} \exp(-\beta U) = v' \exp(-\beta U) - \beta v \exp(-\beta U) = \frac{d}{dx_1} [v \exp(-\beta U)] \quad (4.5)$$

to get

$$v = -\frac{1}{D} \exp(-\beta U) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{x_1} dx' \exp(-\beta U) + c \right] \quad (4.6)$$

If we assume $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} U(x) = +\infty$ then $|v| < \infty$, $c = 0$ and with one more integration we get

$$\tau(x_2, x_1) = \frac{1}{D} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \exp(\beta U(x')) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{x'} dx'' \exp(-\beta U(x'')) \right] \quad (4.7)$$

the second integration constant must be zero due to $\tau(x_2, x_2) = 0$

4.2 Kramers Escape Rate Theory

We assume $\beta \Delta E \gg 1$ and calculate $\tau(x_2|x_1)$. $\int dx''$ is sizeable only nearby x_a , $\int dx'$ is sizeable only nearby x_b . We do a standard trick: quadratic expansion around x_a and x_b

$$U(x'') = U(x_a) + \frac{1}{2} U''(x_a) (x'' - x_a)^2 + \dots \quad (4.8)$$

with $U''(x_a) = k_a = \gamma/\tau_a$, which introduces a time-scale and

$$U(x') = U(x_b) + \frac{1}{2} U''(x_b) (x' - x_b)^2 + \dots \quad (4.9)$$

with $U''(x_b) = -k_b = -\gamma/\tau_b$. So lets evaluate our integrals

$$\int_{-\infty}^{x'} dx'' \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\beta U''(x_a)(x'' - x_a)^2\right) \approx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx'' \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\beta U''(x_a)(x' - x_a)^2\right) = \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}$$

with $\sigma^2 = \frac{\tau_a}{\beta\gamma}$ and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{x'} dx'' \exp\left(+\frac{1}{2}\beta U''(x_b)(x' - x_b)^2\right) \approx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx'' \exp\left(+\frac{1}{2}\beta U''(x_b)(x' - x_b)^2\right) = \sqrt{2\pi \frac{\tau_b}{\beta\gamma}}$$

so

$$\tau(x_2, x_1) = \frac{1}{D} \frac{2\pi\sqrt{\tau_a\tau_b}}{\beta\gamma} \exp(\beta\Delta E) = 2\pi\sqrt{\tau_a\tau_b} \exp(\beta\Delta E) \quad (4.10)$$

Kramers escape

$$r = \frac{1}{\tau(x_2, x_1)} \sim \underbrace{\exp(-\beta\Delta E)}_{\text{Arrheniusfactor}} \quad (4.11)$$

4.3 Diffusion to Capture

As an example we consider a diffusing particle released between two absorbing plates. The question is: What is the probability of getting absorbed at either of the two plates?

$$\begin{aligned} P(x, t=0) &= \delta(x - x_0) \\ P(x_1, t) &= P(x_2, t) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The probability of becoming absorbed at $x = x_1$ when starting at x_0 reads $\pi_1(x_0)$. We have $\pi_1(x_1) = 1$ and $\pi_1(x_2) = 0$.

We will now consider a time step Δt as we did for the derivation of the Dynkin equation

in order to find an explicit expression for $\pi_1(x_0)$:

$$\pi_1(x_0) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx \pi_1(x) P(x, \Delta t | x_0, 0)$$

Now we take the partial derivative with respect to Δt

$$0 = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx \pi_1(x) \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial \Delta t} P(x, \Delta t | x_0, 0)}_{\hat{L}P}$$

and perform partial integration

$$0 = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx \hat{L}^* \pi_1(x) \underbrace{P(x, \Delta t | x_0, 0)}_{\rightarrow \delta(x-x_0) \text{ for } \Delta t \rightarrow 0}$$

so we obtain

$$0 = \hat{L}^* \pi_1(x)$$

Thus, $\pi_1(x_0)$ must be a linear function and taking the boundary conditions into account we have $\pi_1(x_0) = \frac{x_2 - x_0}{x_2 - x_1}$.

Another way to solve this is the method of images. So

$$P(x, t) = N(x_0, 2Dt) - N(2x_1 - x_0, 2Dt) - N(2x_2 - x_0, 2Dt) \quad (4.12)$$

and π_1 could be calculated directly. (Stream of anti-particles is released and cancels at the boundary).

4.4 Polya's theorem

Diffusion in \mathbb{R}^d to a d-dimensional absorbing ball and we ask for $p(R_0)$. For $d = 1$ and $d = 2$ we have $p(R_0) = 1$, but for the critical dimension $p(R_0) = \frac{R_1}{R_0}$

Characteristic arrival time must scale with $\sqrt{R_0^2/D}$ with a power-law tail $\sim t^{-3/2} \exp(-(R_0 - R_1)^2/4Dt)$ and the mean first passage time diverges.

5 Synchronization

5.1 Active Oscillators

An example of an active oscillator is the

Van-der-Pol oscillator

$$m\ddot{x} - \gamma\left(\frac{1}{4}\Lambda - x^2\right)\dot{x} + kx = 0 \quad (5.1)$$

It is a special form of a

Hopf oscillator

$$\dot{z} = i\omega_0 z + \mu(\Lambda - |z|^2)z \quad \text{with} \quad z \in \mathbb{C} \quad (5.2)$$

and a phase oscillator with $\dot{\varphi} = \omega_0$.

Hopf normal form of Van-der-Pol oscillator

We set $y = \dot{x}$, $\omega = \sqrt{k/m}$. The idea is to introduce $z \approx x - \frac{i}{\omega}y$, so we do the ansatz (in order to avoid quartic terms / the method is called Center Manifold technique)

$$\begin{aligned} z &= \sum_k \sum_l d_{k,l} x^l y^{k-l} \\ &= x - \frac{i}{\omega}y + d_{10}y + d_{33}x^3 + d_3 2x^2y + d_{31}xy^2 + d_{30}y^3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

The back transformation is given by

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2} + e_1 z^3 + e_2 z^2 \bar{z} + e_3 z \bar{z}^2 + e_4 \bar{z}^3 \dots \\ y &= i\omega \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2} + f_1 z^3 + f_2 z^2 \bar{z} \dots \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\dot{z} = h(z, \bar{z}) = Fz + Gz^2\bar{z} + \text{h.o.t.} \quad (5.3)$$

and for appropriate $d_{k,l}$ we have i) no quadratic terms, ii) no term in \bar{z} and iii) no terms proportional to $z^3, z\bar{z}^2, \bar{z}^3$. We find that

$$\begin{aligned} F &= i\omega_0 + \frac{\gamma}{8m}\Lambda + \mathcal{O}(\Lambda^2) \\ G &= \frac{\gamma}{8m} + \mathcal{O}(\Lambda) \end{aligned}$$

and we get

$$\dot{z} = i(\omega_c - \omega_1|z|^2)z + \mu(\Lambda - |z|^2) \quad (5.4)$$

with $\omega_c = \omega_0$, $\omega_1 = \mathcal{O}(\Lambda)$ and $\mu = \frac{\gamma}{8m}$

5.2 Hopf-oscillator with noise

We now add a noise term to the Hopf-oscillator

$$\dot{z} = i\omega_0 z + \mu(\Lambda - |z|^2)z + (i\xi_\varphi + \xi_A)z \quad (5.5)$$

with

$$\langle \xi_\varphi(t)\xi_\varphi(t') \rangle = 2D_\varphi\delta(t-t') \quad \langle \xi_A(t)\xi_A(t') \rangle = 2D_A\delta(t-t') \quad \langle \xi_\varphi(t)\xi_A(t') \rangle = 0$$

and map z on a phase φ and amplitude A via $z = Ae^{i\varphi}$ so that

$$\left(\frac{\dot{A}}{A} + i\dot{\varphi} \right) z = \dot{z} = \dots \quad (5.6)$$

and

$$\frac{\dot{A}}{A} + i\dot{\varphi} = i\omega_0 + \mu(A_0^2 - A^2) + i\xi_\varphi + \xi_A \quad (5.7)$$

Assuming $\Lambda > 0$ and $\Lambda = A_0^2$, we get a noisy phase oscillator

$$\dot{\varphi} = \omega_0 + \xi_\varphi \quad (5.8)$$

and an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process

$$\begin{aligned} A &= A_0 + a \\ \dot{a} &= \mu(A_0 + a)(-2aA_0 + a^2) + \xi_A = -2\mu A_0 a + \xi_A + \mathcal{O}(a^2) \end{aligned} \quad (5.9)$$

with the properties

$$\langle a(t) \rangle = 0 \quad \langle a(t)a(t') \rangle = D_A \tau \exp\left\{-\frac{|t-t'|}{\tau}\right\} \quad \tau = \frac{1}{2\mu A_0}$$

Remark

If we consider an ensemble average, the amplitude fluctuations will decay with τ :

$$\bar{a}(t) = \langle a(t) \rangle \quad \text{with} \quad \frac{d}{dt} \bar{a} = -\frac{\bar{a}}{\tau}$$

Manifestation of Phase Noise

We define a phase correlation function

$$C(t) = \langle \exp(i\varphi(t_0)) \exp(-i\varphi(t_0 + t)) \rangle \quad (5.10)$$

with $|C(t)| = \exp(-D_\varphi t)$, so

$$\frac{z(t_0)}{A_0} \frac{\bar{z}}{A_0} \approx \exp(\varphi(t_0) - \varphi(t_0 + t)) \rightarrow \exp(i\omega_0 t) \quad \text{if} \quad D_\varphi = 0$$

And we can have a look at the power spectral density

$$S_y(\omega) = |\tilde{y}(\omega)|^2 \quad (5.11)$$

with $y = \exp(i\varphi)$ and its Fourier transform $\tilde{y}(\omega)$.

Two coupled oscillators

Two oscillators are coupled by the coupling c leading to the ODE system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\varphi}_L &= \omega_L + c(\varphi_L - \varphi_R) \\ \dot{\varphi}_R &= \omega_R + c(\varphi_R - \varphi_L)\end{aligned}\tag{5.12}$$

with a phase difference of $\delta = \varphi_L - \varphi_R$

$$\dot{\delta} = \Delta\omega + c(\delta) - c(-\delta)\tag{5.13}$$

and $\Delta\omega = \omega_L - \omega_R$ and

$$c(\delta) = c(\delta + 2\pi) = \sum_n C'_n \cos(n\delta) + C''_n \sin(n\delta)\tag{5.14}$$

Only the odd coupling terms contribute to synchronization, often $c(\delta)$ is dominated by the first Fourier mode and we end up at the Adler equation ($\lambda = -2c'_1$)

$$\dot{\delta} = \Delta\omega - \lambda \sin(\delta)\tag{5.15}$$

If $|\Delta\omega| < |\lambda|$, we have $\delta^* = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\Delta\omega}{\lambda}\right)$. The stability of the fixpoints is determined by $\gamma\dot{\delta} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial \delta}$ and the effective potential $U = -\gamma\Delta\omega\delta - \gamma\lambda \cos(\delta)$.

Images missing!

Synchronization in the Presence of Noise

If we consider two coupled oscillators

$$\dot{\varphi}_1 = \omega_1 - \frac{\lambda}{2} \sin(\varphi_1 - \varphi_2) + \xi_1(t)\tag{5.16}$$

$$\dot{\varphi}_2 = \omega_2 - \frac{\lambda}{2} \sin(\varphi_2 - \varphi_1) + \xi_2(t)\tag{5.17}$$

we get the Adler equation with $\delta = \varphi_1 - \varphi_2$ and Gaussian white noise ξ

$$\dot{\delta} = \Delta\omega - \lambda \sin(\delta) + \xi\tag{5.18}$$

Remark: How to add two noise terms

$$\xi(t) = \xi_L(t) - \xi_R(t)$$

with $\langle \xi(t) \rangle = 0$ and

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle &= \langle \xi_L(t)\xi_L(t') \rangle + \langle \xi_R(t)\xi_R(t') \rangle + \langle \xi_L(t)\xi_R(t') \rangle \\ &= 2D_L\delta(t-t') + 2D_R\delta(t-t') + 0 \\ &= 2(D_L + D_R)\delta(t-t') \end{aligned}$$

It is

$$\gamma\dot{\delta} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial \delta} + \xi \quad (5.19)$$

and $U = -\Delta\omega\delta - \lambda\cos(\delta)$. So what is the effect of noise? The steady state probability density reads

$$p^*(\delta) \sim \exp\left(-\frac{U(\delta)}{k_B T_{\text{eff}}}\right) = \frac{1}{2\pi I_0(ND)} \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{D}\cos(\delta)\right) \quad (5.20)$$

with $D = k_B T_{\text{eff}}\gamma$ and $\Delta\omega = 0$. So the first effect of noise is, that steady states are smeared out. The second effect are phase slips that occur

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \approx 0 &\longrightarrow \delta \approx 2\pi && \text{with rate } G_+ \\ \delta \approx 0 &\longrightarrow \delta \approx -2\pi && \text{with rate } G_- \end{aligned}$$

We can compute G_{\pm} using Kramers escape rate theory

$$\frac{\gamma}{\tau_a} = U''|_{\delta=\delta_a} \Rightarrow \tau_a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - \Delta\omega^2}}$$

$$\frac{\gamma}{\tau_b} = U''|_{\delta=\delta_b} \Rightarrow \tau_b = \tau_a$$

and so

$$G_+ = 2\pi\tau_a \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta E}{D/\gamma}\right) \quad (5.21)$$

The calculation for G_- goes analogously and we have

$$\frac{G_+}{G_-} = \exp(+2\pi\Delta\omega/D) \quad (5.22)$$

and for $\Delta\omega = 0$ it is

$$G_+ = G_- = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi} \exp\left(-\frac{2\lambda}{D}\right) \quad (5.23)$$

The theory can be also extended to many oscillators.

6 Itô versus Stratonovich Calculus

If we are given an ODE, e.g. $\dot{x} = f(x)$, what does this mean? To answer this question, we are going to take a constructive approach and interpret the ODE as a rule to construct the solution. So we estimate the values $x_i = x(i \, dt)$ and then take the limit $dt \rightarrow 0$.

6.1 Numerical Motivation

Deterministic ODE

For a deterministic ODE we have various options to choose scheme in order to solve them numerically. One could use either an explicit scheme like the Euler scheme

$$x_i = x_{i-1} + f(x_{i-1}) \, dt \quad (6.1)$$

and implicit scheme

$$x_i = x_{i-1} + f(x_i) \, dt \quad (6.2)$$

or a mixed scheme

$$x_i = x_{i-1} + \frac{1}{2}[f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)] \, dt \quad (6.3)$$

and all schemes will converge to the same limit.

Stochastic Differential Equations

Also for stochastic differential equations such as $\dot{x} = f(x) + \sqrt{2D(x)}\xi$ we may choose either an explicit scheme (Itô)

$$x_i = x_{i-1} + f(x_{i-1}) \, dt + \sqrt{2D(x_{i-1})}N_i\sqrt{dt} \quad (6.4)$$

with $N_i \in N(0, 1)$ or a mixed scheme (Stratonovich)

$$x_i = x_{i-1} + \frac{1}{2}[f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)] dt + \frac{1}{2}[\sqrt{2D(x_{i-1})} + \sqrt{2D(x_i)}]N_i\sqrt{dt} \quad (6.5)$$

It is important to note, that this time both schemes are different. (A purely implicit scheme for SDE is not discussed, because such schemes are rarely used in practice.) We can see this by doing the expansion

$$x_i = x_{i-1} + f(x_{i-1}) dt + \mathcal{O}(dt^{3/2}) + g(x_{i-1})N_i\sqrt{dt} + g'(x_{i-1})g(x_{i-1})N_i^2 dt \quad (6.6)$$

with $\langle N_i^2 \rangle = 1$, so that the last term can not be neglected!

6.2 Different Interpretations

Having a look at the chain rule, one can see that the Itô and Stratonovich interpretation are indeed two different sorts of calculus. In Stratonovich interpretation we get the ordinary chain rule

$$(S) \quad y = y(x), \quad \dot{y} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \dot{x} \quad (6.7)$$

By contrast, in Itô interpretation we have $\dot{x}_k = f_k + g_{kl}\xi_l$ with $\langle \xi_k(t)\xi_l(t') \rangle = \delta_{kl}\delta(t - t')$ and the Itô chain rule applies

$$(I) \quad y = y(x), \quad \dot{y} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_j} \dot{x}_j + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x_k \partial x_l} g_{km} g_{ml} \quad (6.8)$$

Switching between Itô and Stratonovich

In Itô and Stratonovich calculus, respectively, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (S) \quad \dot{x}_k &= h_k^S + g_{kl}\xi_l \\ (I) \quad \dot{x}_k &= h_k^I + g_{kl}\xi_l \end{aligned}$$

with $h_k^I = h_k^S + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial g_{kl}}{\partial x_m} g_{ml}$. The Fokker Planck Equation reads for these cases

$$\dot{P} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left[- \left(h_k^{I/S} + \alpha \frac{\partial g_{kl}}{\partial x_m} g_{ml} \right) P + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_m} (g_{kl} g_{ml} P) \right] \quad (6.9)$$

with $\alpha = 0$ for Itô and $\alpha = 1/2$ for Stratonovich calculus.

Wong-Zakai Theorem

If $\dot{x} = f(x) + g(x)\xi$ is a SDE with coloured noise of finite correlation τ , then taking $\tau \rightarrow 0$ yields a Stratonovich SDE with Gaussian white noise.

Example of Colored Noise (Ornstein-Uhlenberg process)

$$\tau \dot{\xi} = -\xi + \eta \text{ and } \langle \eta(t)\eta(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t') \Rightarrow \langle \eta(t)\eta(t') \rangle \sim \exp\left(-\frac{|t-t'|}{\tau}\right)$$

Toy example I: Geometric Brownian Motion

We consider the example of (I) $\dot{x} = x\xi$, which corresponds to (S) $\dot{x} = x\xi - Dx$. Now we ask about the time evolution of the first moment $m(t) = \langle x(t) \rangle$? In Itô calculus we have

$$\frac{d}{dt} m(t) = \langle \dot{x} \rangle \stackrel{(I)}{=} \langle x\xi \rangle = \langle x \rangle \underbrace{\langle \xi \rangle}_{=0} = 0 \quad (6.10)$$

so $m(t) = m_0$. Note that $y = \ln(x) \Rightarrow \dot{y} = \xi - D \Rightarrow y(t) \sim N(-Dt, Dt)$

Toy example II

Next, let's do something forbidden and take (S) $\dot{x} = x\xi$, which correspond to (I) $\dot{x} = x\xi + Dx$. It is

$$\frac{d}{dt} m(t) = \langle \dot{x} \rangle \stackrel{(I)}{=} \langle x\xi + Dx \rangle = 0 + Dm \quad (6.11)$$

in Itô calculus this time we get $m = m_0 \exp(Dt)$.

Example: Rotational diffusion in 2D

We have $\dot{\varphi} = \xi$ and the unit vectors

$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\varphi) \\ \sin(\varphi) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -\sin(\varphi) \\ \cos(\varphi) \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$(S) \quad \dot{e}_1 = \xi \vec{e}_2, \quad \dot{e}_2 = \xi \vec{e}_1 \quad (6.12)$$

In Itô calculus we have

$$\vec{e}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{e}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} x_3 \\ x_4 \end{pmatrix}$$

with

$$\dot{\vec{x}} = \vec{g}\xi, \quad \vec{g} = \begin{pmatrix} x_3 \\ x_4 \\ -x_1 \\ -x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

and with $\sum_m \frac{\partial g_k}{\partial x_m} g_m = 2D(-\vec{x})$ it is

$$(I) \quad \dot{e}_1 = \xi \vec{e}_2 - D\vec{e}_1, \quad \dot{e}_2 = \xi \vec{e}_1 - D\vec{e}_2 \quad (6.13)$$

Extended Example: persistent random walk (2D)

Consider $\vec{r} = v_0 \vec{e}_1$ where (\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2) is subject to rotational diffusion. Our proposition is that

$$C(t) = \langle \vec{e}_1(t) \cdot \vec{e}_1(t) \rangle = \exp(-Dt) \quad (6.14)$$

with persistence time $t_p = \frac{1}{D}$ and persistence length $l_p = v_0 t_p$.

Proof:

$$\frac{d}{dt}C(t) = \left\langle \vec{e}_1(t) \cdot \dot{\vec{e}}_1(t) \right\rangle = \dots$$

6.3 Rotational Diffusion in 3D

As another example we consider rotational diffusion in 3D with the rotational diffusion coefficient (instance of the Fluctuation-Dissipation-Theorem!)

$$D_{\text{rot}} = \frac{k_B T}{8\pi\eta r^3} \quad (6.15)$$

and the parameterization

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{h}_3 &= (\cos(\psi), \sin(\psi) \cos(\vartheta), \sin(\psi) \sin(\vartheta))^T \\ \vec{g}_1 &= -\frac{\partial \vec{h}_3}{\partial \psi} \quad \vec{g}_2 = -\vec{h}_3 \times \vec{g}_1 \\ \vec{h}_1 &= \cos(\varphi) \vec{g}_1 + \sin(\varphi) \vec{g}_2 \quad \vec{h}_2 = \vec{h}_3 \times \vec{h}_1 \end{aligned}$$

The equations of motion are given by the Frenet-Serret equations for Stratonovich calculus

$$(S) \quad \begin{aligned} \dot{\vec{h}}_3 &= \xi_2 \vec{h}_1 - \xi_1 \vec{h}_2 \\ \dot{\vec{h}}_1 &= \xi_3 \vec{h}_2 - \xi_2 \vec{h}_3 \\ \dot{\vec{h}}_2 &= \xi_1 \vec{h}_3 - \xi_3 \vec{h}_1 \end{aligned}$$

with $\langle \xi_i(t) \xi_j(t') \rangle = \delta_{i,j} \delta(t - t') 2D_{\text{rot}}$ and

$$(S) \quad \dot{\psi} = \sin(\varphi) \xi_1 + \cos(\varphi) \xi_2 \quad (6.16)$$

which is equivalent to

$$(I) \quad \dot{\psi} = \underbrace{\sin(\varphi)\xi_1 + \cos(\varphi)\xi_2}_{=\xi(t)} + D_{\text{rot}} \cot(\psi) \quad (6.17)$$

in Ito calculus and

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle &= \langle [\sin(\varphi(t))\xi_1 + \cos(\varphi(t))\xi_2][\sin(\varphi(t'))\xi_1 + \cos(\varphi(t'))\xi_2] \rangle \\ &= \sin(\varphi(t))\sin(\varphi(t')) \langle \xi_1(t)\xi_1(t') \rangle + \cos(\varphi(t))\cos(\varphi(t')) \langle \xi_2(t)\xi_2(t') \rangle \\ &= [\sin^2(\varphi) + \cos^2(\varphi)] 2D_{\text{rot}}\delta(t-t') = 2D_{\text{rot}}\delta(t-t') \end{aligned}$$

We know that the steady state distribution must be isotropic, so let's check this. The question is: What is $P^*(\psi)$ for isotropic distribution of \vec{h}_3 ? We have the height $h = 1 - \cos(\psi)$, so $A = 2\pi r h$, $dA = 2\pi dh$. Thus $P^*(h) = \frac{1}{2}$. Furthermore, it is $P^*(h)dh = P^*(\psi)d\psi$ with $dh = \sin(\psi)d\psi$ and so $P^*(h) = \frac{1}{2}\sin(\psi)$

The equation of motion can be also rewritten introducing a potential U

$$(I) \quad \dot{\psi} = D_{\text{rot}} \cot(\psi) + \xi = -\frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{\partial}{\partial \psi} U + \xi \quad (6.18)$$

with $U = -D_{\text{rot}}\gamma \ln(\sin(\psi)) = k_B T \ln(\sin(\psi))$ and $\gamma = 8\pi\eta r^3$. Thus

$$P^*(\psi) \sim \exp\left(-\frac{U}{k_B T}\right) \sim \exp(\ln(\sin(\psi))) \sim \sin(\psi) \quad (6.19)$$

An Interpretation of $U(\psi)$ is obtained by taking a look at the entropy $S = k_B \ln(\sin(\psi))$ and the free energy $F = -TS = -D_{\text{rot}}\gamma \ln(\sin(\psi)) = U$. Here, knowing \vec{h}_3 corresponds to the microstate and knowing h to the macro state.

6.4 How to derive a correct Langevin equation?

1) can be considered as a limit case of coloured noise $\tau_c \rightarrow 0$, then take Wong-Zakai-theorem

2) small number fluctuations (eg. for chemical reactions, so suppose you have N particles with sort 1 to 2 with rate r_2 and 2 to 1 with rate r_1 , so one can derive a continuum limit of a master equation)

3) only thermal fluctuations $T = \text{const}$ and then use $P^* \sim \exp(-\beta U)$

Master Equation for a Two-State System

Let $P(n)$ be the probability, that n entities are in state 2. Then, the Dynamic equation / Master equation for $P(n)$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{P}(n, t) &= r_1(n+1)P(n+1, t) - r_1nP(n, t) + r_2(N - (n-1))P(n-1, t) - r_2(N-n)P(n, t) \\ &= r_1(E^+ - 1)nP + r_2(E^- - 1)(N-n)P\end{aligned}$$

with the shift operators E^\pm

$$(E^+ f)(n) = f(n+1) \quad \text{and} \quad (E^- f)(n) = f(n-1)$$

In order to go to a continuum limit we let $x = \frac{n}{N}$ and treat x as a continuous variable. Then we do a Taylor expansion of our fancy step operators

$$(E^\pm f)(x) = f(x \pm \frac{1}{N}) = f(x) \pm f'(x)\frac{1}{N} + \frac{1}{2}f''(x)\frac{1}{N^2} + \dots$$

which we feed back so that we get

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{P}(x, t) &= r_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xP) + \frac{r_1}{2N} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}(xP) - r_2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x}[(1-x)P] + \frac{r_2}{2N} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[(1-x)P] \\ &= (r_1 + r_2) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}[(x - x^*)P] + \frac{1}{2N} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}[(r_1 + (r_1 - r_2)x)P]\end{aligned}$$

with $x^* = \frac{r_2}{r_1+r_2}$. In the steady state we have $r_0 = r_1 = r_2$ and the master equation $\dot{P} = -\vec{\nabla} J$ with $J = 0$ at equilibrium, thus $P^*(x) \sim \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\frac{1}{2})^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$ and $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{4N}$

Langevin equation

$$(I) \quad \dot{x} = (r_1 + r_2)(x^* - x) + \underbrace{\sqrt{\frac{r_1x + r_2(1-x)}{2N}}}_{=g(x)} \xi \quad (6.20)$$

$$(S) \quad \dot{x} = (r_1 + r_2)(x^* - x) + \underbrace{\sqrt{\frac{r_1 x + r_2(1-x)}{2N}}}_{=g(x)} \xi - \frac{1}{2} \frac{r_1 - r_2}{4N} \quad (6.21)$$

so at $N \gg 1$ we have $x \approx x^*$ thus $g(x) \approx g(x^*)$ and $P^*(x) = N(x^*, \sigma^2)$, $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N} \frac{r_1 r_2}{(r_1 + r_2)^2}$

6.5 Numerical integration of nonlinear SDE

For the Ito SDE (I) $\dot{x} = f(x) + g(x)\xi(t)$, $\langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t')$ we have the Euler-Maruyama scheme

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t+\Delta t} &= x_t + f(x_t)\Delta t + g(x_t)N_t, & N_t &\sim N(0, \Delta t) \\ x_{t+\Delta t} &= x_t + f(x_t)\Delta t + g(x_t)N'_t\sqrt{\Delta t}, & N'_t &\sim N(0, 1) \end{aligned}$$

For the Stratonovich SDE (S) $\dot{x} = f(x) + g(x)\xi(t)$ we have the Euler-Heun scheme

$$x_{t+\Delta t} = x_t + f(x_t)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}[g(x_t) + g(\bar{x}_t)]N_t, \quad N_t \sim N(0, 1)$$

with $\bar{x}_t = x_t + g(x_t)N_t$

7 Fluctuation-Dissipation-Theorem

7.1 Historical Examples

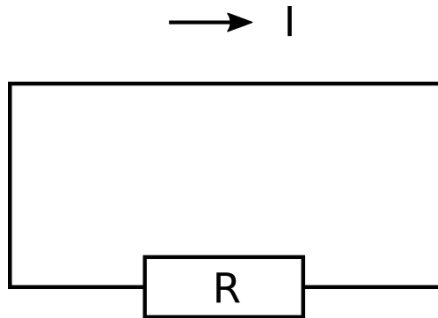
Example 1: Diffusion (Einstein 1905)

The relation found by Einstein for ordinary diffusion in 1905

$$D = \frac{k_B T}{\gamma} \quad (7.1)$$

is an instance of the fluctuation dissipation theorem. The diffusion coefficient D captures the mean square displacement $\langle x^2(t) \rangle = 2Dt$ (fluctuations) and the right part captures the dissipated energy via the hydrodynamic mobility $\frac{1}{\gamma} = \frac{1}{6\pi\eta a}$ so that the velocity is given by $v = \frac{1}{\gamma}F$.

Example 2: Electrothermal noise (Johnson, Nyquist 1927)

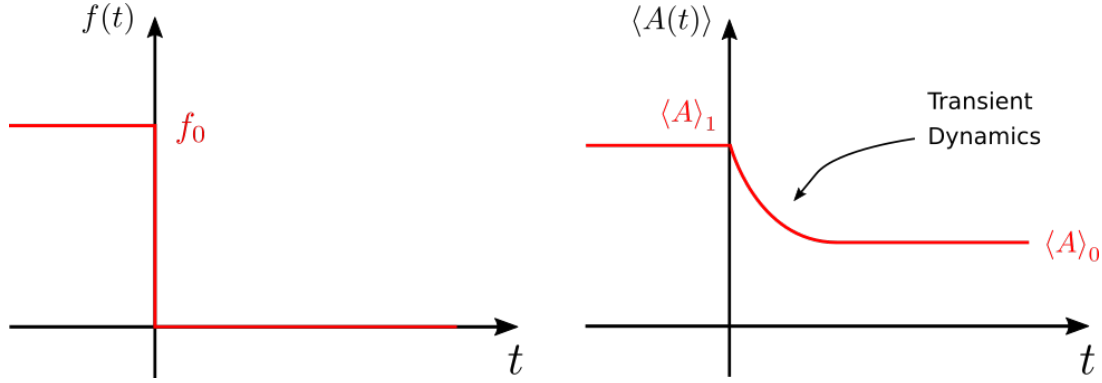


It was found that even a shorted circuit consisting of just one resistor does show a finite current, which is zero on average $\langle I \rangle = 0$, but has the fluctuation spectrum

$$S_I^{(\omega)} = 2 \frac{k_B T}{R\pi} \quad (7.2)$$

with $\hbar\omega \ll k_B T$. The inverse resistance plays the role of a linear response coefficient $I = \frac{1}{R}U$.

7.2 FDT for classical systems



Lets consider a system described by the Hamiltonian $H_1 = H_0 - fA$ for times $t < 0$, with the probability density $p_1(x) \sim \exp(-\beta H_1)$. At $t = 0$ we switch off the influence of the observable A , thus $p(x, t) \rightarrow \exp(-\beta H_0)$ for $t \rightarrow \infty$. The average of A is given by $\langle A \rangle = \int dx A(x)p(x, t)$ and we have the microstate $x = (p_1, \dots, p_N, q_1, \dots, q_N)$.

Fluctuation Dissipation Theorem

The FDT relates the fluctuation spectrum on the left side to the dissipative response to an external field on the right side of

$$S_A(\omega) = \frac{2k_B T}{\omega} \text{Im}(\tilde{\chi}_A(\omega)) \quad (7.3)$$

In order to show that the Fluctuation Dissipation Theorem holds we need to key concepts:

- Boltzman distribution $p_0 \sim \exp(-\beta H_0)$ with $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$
- time propagator $P(x_1, t_1 | x_0, t_0)$

Fluctuation Spectrum

The auto-correlation function is given by

$$C_A(\tau) = \langle A(t)A(t + \tau) \rangle - \langle A \rangle^2 \quad (7.4)$$

which is independent of t at thermal equilibrium and it is an even function $C_A(\tau) = C_A(-\tau)$. It is related to the time propagator by

$$C_A(\tau) = \int dx_0 dx_1 A(x_0)A(x_1)p_0(x_0)P(x_1, t + \tau|x_0, t) - \langle A \rangle^2 \quad (7.5)$$

The power spectral density is then the Fourier transform

$$S_A(\omega) = \tilde{C}_A(\omega) = \int d\tau C_A(\tau)e^{i\omega\tau} \quad (7.6)$$

in the non-unitary Fourier transform with angular frequency.

Wiener-Kinchin Theorem

The Fourier transform exists and has the usual properties.

Formally: $\langle \tilde{A}(\omega)\tilde{A}^*(\omega') \rangle = S_A(\omega)\delta(\omega - \omega')$, $\tilde{A}(\omega)$ is not mathematically strictly defined

Linear Response Function

Let a system possess the Hamiltonian $H(x, t) = H_0(x) - A(x)f(t)$. Then, the linear response is expressed by

$$\langle A(t) \rangle = \langle A \rangle_0 + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \chi_A(\tau)f(t - \tau) + \mathcal{O}(f^2) \quad (7.7)$$

which defines the linear response function $\chi_A(\tau)$. Causality implies that $\chi_A(\tau) = 0$ for all $\tau < 0$.

The Fourier transform reads

$$\tilde{\chi}_A(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \chi_A(\tau)e^{i\omega\tau} \quad (7.8)$$

Example: Oscillating Field

$$f(t) = f_0 \cos(\omega t) = \text{Re } f_0 e^{i\omega t} \quad (7.9)$$

then

$$\langle A(t) \rangle = \langle A \rangle_0 + [\text{Re } \chi_A(\omega)] f_0 \cos(\omega t) - [\text{Im } \chi_A(\omega)] f_0 \sin(\omega t) \quad (7.10)$$

so $f(t)$ oscillates with the frequency of driving with amplitude $f_0 |\chi_A(\omega)|$ and with phase lag $\arg(\chi_A(\omega))$. The power performed by the external field is given by $R = -f(t) \frac{d}{dt} A(x(t))$ with the time-average $\langle R \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \omega f_0^2 \text{Im } \chi_A(\omega)$. So the imaginary part $\text{Im } \chi_A(\omega)$ characterises the dissipative response of the system.

Derivation of the fluctuation-dissipation-theorem

Let $f(t) = f_0 \Theta(-t)$. We first compute the partition function $Z_1 = \int dx \exp\{-\beta H_1\}$ with

$$f_1(x) = \frac{1}{Z_1} \exp\{-\beta H_1\} \approx p_0(x) [1 + \beta f_0 (A(x) - \langle A \rangle_0)] \quad (7.11)$$

For $t \geq 0$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A(t) \rangle &= \int dx A(x) p(x, t) = \int dx A(x) \int dx_0 P(x, t | x_0, t_0) p_1(x_0) \\ &= \int dx A(x) \int dx_0 P(x, t | x_0, t_0) p_0(x_0) [1 + \beta f_0 A(x) - \beta f_0 \langle A \rangle_0] \\ &= \langle A \rangle_0 + \beta f_0 \langle A(t) A(0) \rangle - \beta f_0 \langle A \rangle_0^2 \\ &= \langle A \rangle_0 + \beta f_0 C_A(t) \end{aligned}$$

We also know that

$$\langle A(t) \rangle = \langle A \rangle_0 + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau \chi_A(\tau) f(t - \tau) \quad (7.12)$$

The derivative with respect to time reads

$$\chi_A(t) = \begin{cases} \beta \frac{d}{dt} C_A(t) & \text{for } t > 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } t < 0 \end{cases}$$

Remark: Even and Odd Functions

Every function $F(t)$ can be separated into an even and an odd part

$$F(t) = \begin{cases} F'(t) = \frac{1}{2}[F(t) + F(-t)] \text{ (even)} & \Rightarrow \tilde{F}'(\omega) = \text{Re } \tilde{F}(\omega) \\ F''(t) = \frac{1}{2}[F(t) - F(-t)] \text{ (odd)} & \Rightarrow \tilde{F}'(\omega) = i \text{Im } \tilde{F}(\omega) \end{cases}$$

Caution: The prime ' indicates the even part, not a derivative!

so $C_A(t)$ is even, thus $\frac{d}{dt}C_A(t)$ is odd and as we take only the odd parts $\chi_A''(t) = \frac{1}{2}\beta \frac{d}{dt}C_A(t)$ and so $i \text{Im } \tilde{\chi}_A(\omega) = \frac{1}{2}\beta(+i\omega)\delta_A(\omega)$

In classical mechanics we have $\frac{1}{\beta} = k_B T$, in quantum mechanics we have $\hbar\omega = \coth \frac{\beta\hbar\omega}{2}$

Example: Optical Trap

An optical trap can be described by

$$kx + \gamma\dot{x} = \gamma\xi(t) \quad \text{with} \quad \langle \xi(t) \rangle = 0 \quad (7.13)$$

The fluctuation dissipation theorem is telling us that

$$S_x(\omega) = \frac{2k_B T}{\omega} \text{Im } \tilde{\chi}_x(\omega) = \frac{2k_B T/\gamma}{(k/\gamma)^2 + \omega^2} \quad (7.14)$$

and one can measure $S_x(\omega)$ to estimate k . As a generalized example we consider

$$\sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^{(k)}(t) = \xi(t) \quad (7.15)$$

for which we do a Fourier transformation in order to get

$$\underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n a_k (i\omega)^k}_{=\tilde{\chi}_A^{-1}(\omega)} \tilde{\chi}(\omega) = \tilde{\xi}(\omega) \quad (7.16)$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\chi}(t) &= \tilde{\chi}_A(t) \tilde{\xi}(\omega) \\ \chi(t) &= \int_0^\infty d\tau \tilde{\chi}_A(\tau) \xi(t - \tau) \end{aligned}$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} S_x(\omega) \delta(\omega - \omega') &= \langle \tilde{\chi}(\omega) \tilde{\chi}^*(\omega') \rangle \\ &= \tilde{\chi}_A(\omega) \tilde{\chi}_A^*(\omega') \langle \tilde{\xi}(\omega) \tilde{\xi}(\omega') \rangle \\ &= |\tilde{\chi}_A(\omega)|^2 2D \delta(\omega - \omega') \end{aligned}$$

so

$$S_x(\omega) = |\tilde{\chi}_A(\omega)|^2 2D = \frac{2k_B T}{\omega} \text{Im} \tilde{\chi}_A(\omega) \quad (7.17)$$

$$2D = 2k_B T \frac{\frac{1}{\omega} \text{Im} \tilde{\chi}_A(\omega)}{|\tilde{\chi}_A(\omega)|^2} \quad (7.18)$$

For the special case ($a_{2k+1} = 0$) except $a_1 = \gamma$ it is

$$\tilde{\chi}_A = \frac{1}{R(\omega) - i\omega\gamma} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Im} \tilde{\chi}_A = \frac{\omega\gamma}{R^2(\omega) + \omega^2\gamma^2} \quad (7.19)$$

so $D = k_B T \gamma$

8 Equilibrium vs Non-Equilibrium

Living systems can violate the FDT, the FDT is a hallmark of equilibrium systems.

8.1 Detailed Balance

Detailed Balance

continuous state space (Fokker-Planck-Equation)

$$\frac{d}{dt}p(x, t) = \hat{L}p(x, t) \quad (8.1)$$

discrete state space (Master Equation)

$$\frac{d}{dt}P_j(t) = P_i(t)L_{ij} \quad (8.2)$$

We say the dynamics obeys the "detailed balance", if

- there exists an equilibrium distribution P^* and P_j^* , respectively
- the joint probability is symmetric $P^*(x', \tau|x, 0) = P^*(x, \tau|x', 0)$ and $P^*(i, \tau|j, 0) = P^*(j, \tau|i, 0) / L_{ji}P_j^* = L_{ij}P_i^*$, respectively

This means that there is zero net current at equilibrium $i \rightleftharpoons j$. A simple example is the Boltzmann distribution for a canonical ensemble, where you have states $0, 1, 2, \dots$ with energies E_0, E_1, E_2, \dots so

$$P_i^* = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-\beta E_i) \quad (8.3)$$

and

$$\frac{L_{ji}}{L_{ij}} = \exp(-\beta(E_i - E_j)) \quad (8.4)$$

A counter example would be a circular current $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1$ with rate r giving

$$\hat{L} = \begin{pmatrix} -r & r & 0 \\ 0 & -r & r \\ r & 0 & -r \end{pmatrix} \quad (8.5)$$

with eigenvalue $\lambda_1 = 0$ with corresponding eigenvector $\vec{e}_1 = (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3})^T$ and $\lambda_2 = \lambda_3^* = \left(-\frac{3}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)r$ resulting in a net current at equilibrium, thus breaking detailed balance.

Proof of Detailed Balance for Hamiltonian Systems

We consider a system characterised by some Hamiltonian H obeying the Hamilton equations

$$\dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \quad \dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \quad (8.6)$$

with the macroscopic observable $y = Y(q, p)$ and the detailed balance holds, if

- (i) H is even in p_i
- (ii) Y is even in p_i

Then the time propagator T fulfills the condition

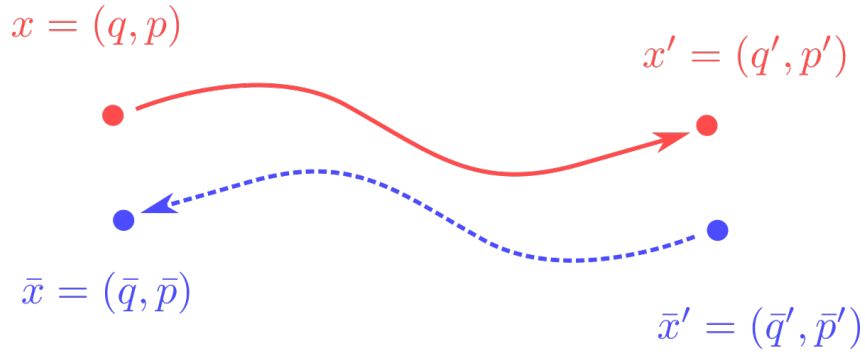
$$P(y', \tau | y, 0) = T_\tau(y' | y) P^*(y) = T_\tau(y | y') P^*(y') = P(y, \tau | y', 0) \quad (8.7)$$

Nota Bene

We always have

$$T_\tau(y' | y) P^*(y) = T_{-\tau}(y | y') P^*(y) \quad (8.8)$$

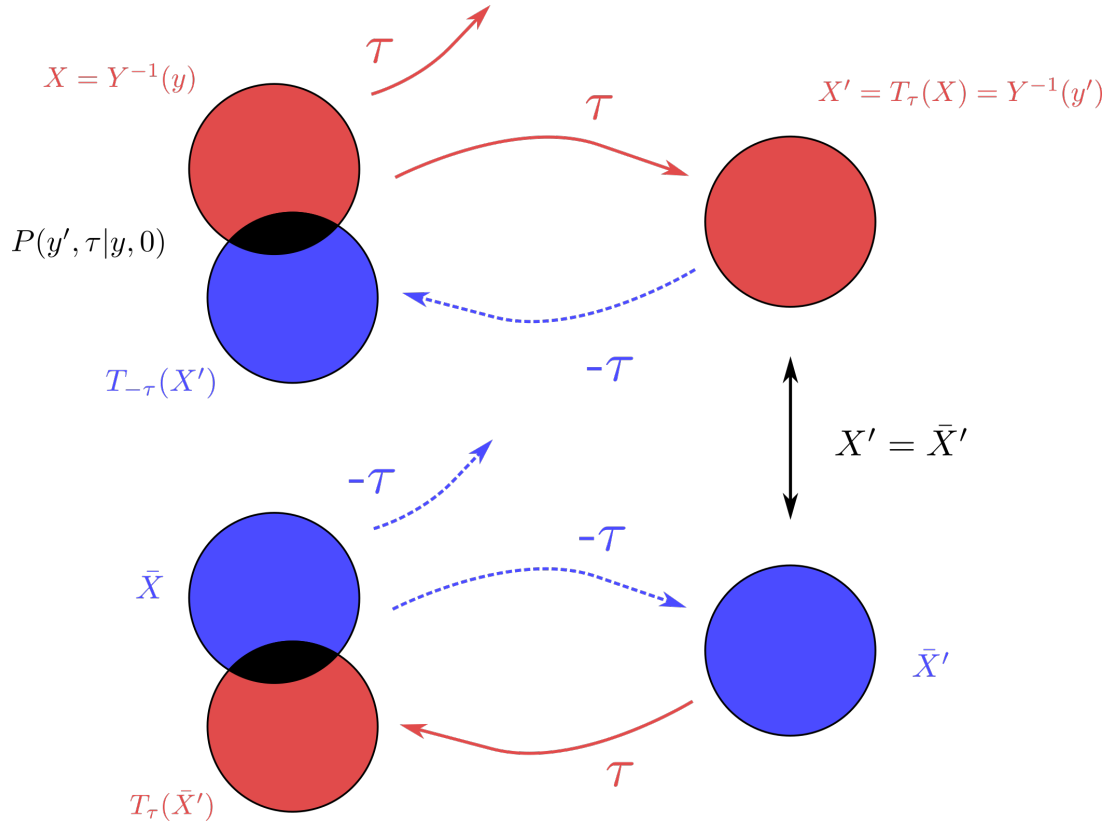
as we can play backwards the dynamics in time.



For the proof of this we make use of time reversal notation

$$\bar{t} = -t \quad \bar{q}_i = q_i \quad \bar{p}_i = -p_i \quad (8.9)$$

We start by looking at a trajectory in (q, p) -phase space and for every point $x' = (q', p')$ we apply time reversal $\bar{x}' = (\bar{q}', \bar{p}')$. By (i) we conclude that $H(x) = H(\bar{x})$ and thus $P^*(x) = P^*(\bar{x})$ (even in p_i means in our case symmetric in time!). Also we have $X = Y^{-1}(y)$ and by (ii) $X = \bar{X}$ as Y is even.



We can express the probability to observe y' at time τ after observing y at time 0 by the

integral over the phase space region $X \cap T_{-\tau}(X')$ of the equilibrium probabilities $P^*(x)$

$$T_\tau(y'|y)P^*(y) = P(y', \tau|y, 0) = \int_{X \cap T_{-\tau}(X')} dx P^*(x)$$

As we have $P^*(x) = P^*(\bar{x})$ we can also change area of integration within phase space to $\overline{X \cap T_{-\tau}(X')}$

$$\int_{X \cap T_{-\tau}(X')} dx P^*(x) = \int_{\overline{X \cap T_{-\tau}(X')}} dx P^*(x)$$

From the diagram above we see that the states in the lower red circle $T_\tau(\bar{X}')$ are corresponding to the states in the upper blue circle $T_{-\tau}(X')$ under time reversal

$$\overline{T_{-\tau}(X')} = T_\tau(\bar{X}') \quad (8.10)$$

and so we have

$$\overline{X \cap T_{-\tau}(X')} = \bar{X} \cap \overline{T_{-\tau}(X')} = \bar{X} \cap T_\tau(\bar{X}') = X \cap T_\tau(X') \quad (8.11)$$

in order to get

$$\int_{\overline{X \cap T_{-\tau}(X')}} dx P^*(x) = \int_{X \cap T_\tau(X')} dx P^*(x) = P(y, \tau|y', 0) = T_\tau(y|y')P^*(y') \quad (8.12)$$

So at equilibrium we cannot distinguish whether a dynamics is played forward or backward in time.

8.2 Increase of Relative Entropy

We consider a Master equation for a Markov chain

$$P_j^{(n+1)} = \sum_i P_i^n T_{ij} \quad (8.13)$$

with the probability P_i^n to be in state i at time $t = t_n$ and a matrix of transition probabilities (T_{ij}) fulfilling $\sum_j T_{ij} = 1$. For a stationary distribution with $P_j^* > 0$ so that

$P_j^* = \sum_i P_i^* T_{ij}$ for all j we define the relative entropy (Kullberg-Leibler Divergence) as

$$D_n = KL(P^n || P^*) = \sum_i P_i^n \ln \left(\frac{P_i^n}{P_i^*} \right) \quad (8.14)$$

Theorem

$$D_{n+1} \leq D_n$$

This theorem is a direct consequence of convexity of D_n . For $P_i^* = \frac{1}{N}$ one finds that $D_n = -\sum_i P_i \ln(P_i) - \ln(N)$, so the entropy increases with time.