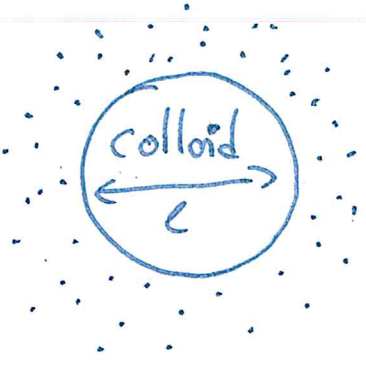


These three chapters correspond to a set of lectures I give in Master Course on Physics of complex systems in Paris.

Chapter 2 shows why the motion of a micrometric particle in an equilibrated solvent can be modelled by a Langevin equation.

Since this equation contains a random force, an initial condition x_0 generates an ensemble of different trajectories $\{x(t)\}$. The position at time t is thus also a random variable $x(t)$ whose statistics is described by a probability distribution $P(x(t)=x; t)$ whose time-evolution is given by a Fokker-Planck equation which is constructed and discussed in chapter 4. To do so, I use Ito Formula whose derivation will be sketched in my second lecture and is detailed in Chapter 3.

Idea: show that a single, mesoscopic particle inserted in an equilibrated fluid relaxes to equilibrium, i.e. $P(q) \propto e^{-\beta E(q)}$ and characterize its dynamics.



liquid molecules $\sim 10^{-10} \text{ m}$ (3.4 Å for water)
colloid $r \sim 10^{-6}$, area $\sim 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2$
area of water molecules $\sim 10^{-20} \text{ m}^2$ } 10^8 water molecules in contact with colloid
 \Rightarrow lots of random collisions

I/ Introduction

Colloid: M, x, p ; Fluid particles $m_i = 1, q_i, p_i$

Hamiltonian $H = \frac{p^2}{2M} + V(x) + \underbrace{\sum_i V_{FC}(x - q_i)}_{\equiv H_{FC}; \text{ interactions between fluid and colloid}} + \underbrace{\sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2} + \sum_{i,j} V_{FF}(q_i - q_j)}_{H_{FF} \text{ interactions between fluid particles}}$

Equations of motions: $\dot{x} = \frac{p}{M}; \dot{p} = -V'(x) - \sum_i V'_{FC}(x - q_i)$ (*)

fluid particles $\dot{q}_i = \frac{p_i}{m_i}; \dot{p}_i = V'_{FC}(x - q_i) - \sum_{j \neq i} V'_{FF}(q_i - q_j)$

Problem: ① impossible to solve, ② too much information

Idea: eliminate q_i, p_i to get a self consistent equation for x & p .

Intuitively: Imagine that the colloid is at rest at $t=0$, i.e. $p=0$.

Then, by symmetry there is no net force on average. | repeated samples

$\Rightarrow \langle \sum_i V'_{FC}(x - q_i) \rangle = 0$ when $\langle \dots \rangle$ is an average over realisations.

2017] I imagine that, suddenly, there is some motion $x(t+dt) \neq x(t)$ [2.2]
 i.e. $x(t+dt) = x(t) + \Delta$; $\Delta \approx \frac{p(t)dt}{M} \neq 0$ then

$$\sum_i V_{FC}'(x(t+dt) - q_i) \approx \sum_i V_{FC}'(x(t) - q_i) + \Delta V_{FC}''(x(t) - q_i)$$

$$\langle \text{force} \rangle \approx \underbrace{\langle \text{force} \rangle}_{\approx 0} + \Delta \langle V_{FC}''(x(t) - q_i) \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \text{force felt by colloid} \rangle \propto \Delta = \frac{p(t)dt}{M} \propto p(t) \Rightarrow \text{friction!}$$

The motion of the colloid breaks the isotropy of space and generates a non-zero net force from the fluid.

Idea $\dot{p} = -V'(x) - \gamma p + \text{fluctuations}$; let's derive it!

Problem: this is far too difficult \Rightarrow make two approximations

- ① V_{FC} generic \Rightarrow too complicated \Rightarrow use harmonic oscillators
- ② $M \gg 1$; motion of colloid is slow and we assume that the fluid dynamics makes it equilibrate so that, at $t=0$,

$$P(q_1, \dots, q_n; p_1, \dots, p_n) \propto e^{-\beta [H_{FP}(x, \{q_i, p_i\}) + H_{FF}(\{q_i, p_i\})]}$$

II An exactly solvable case: the Ford, Kac and Mazur model

(Also known as Caldeina-Leggett for its quantum version)

Ref: J. Math. Phys. 6, 504 (1965)

$$H = \sum_j \left(\frac{p_j^2}{2} + \frac{\omega_j^2}{2} (q_j - x)^2 \right) + \frac{p^2}{2M} + V(x)$$

A) A self-consistent dynamics for X & P

Equations of motion: $\dot{q}_i = p_i$ ① ; $\dot{p}_i = -\omega_i^2 (q_i - x)$ ②

$$M \dot{x} = p$$
 ③ ; $\dot{p} = -V'(x) - \sum_j \omega_j^2 (x - q_j)$ ④

Note $A_j \equiv x - q_j$

Todo: assume $x(t)$ given; solve formally ①+② as functions of $x(t)$; inject back in ③+④ to get self-consistent equations.

Homogeneous solution:

$$\textcircled{1} + \textcircled{2}: \ddot{q}_j = -\omega_j^2 q_j + \omega_j^2 x$$

Homogeneous solution: $q_j^h = A \cos \omega_j t + B \sin \omega_j t$

General solution: $q_j(t) = q_j^h(t) + q_j^p(t)$ with $q_j^p(t)$ a particular solution of ①+②

\Rightarrow look for $Y(t)$ s.t. $\mathcal{L} Y(t) = \omega_j^2 x(t)$ with $\mathcal{L} = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} + \omega_j^2$

let f be such that $\mathcal{L} f(t) = 0$ and look for $Y(t) = \int_0^t dt' f(t-t') x(t')$

$$\text{then } Y'(t) = f(0)x(t) + \int_0^t dt' f'(t-t') x(t') dt'$$

$$Y''(t) = f'(0)x'(t) + f''(0)x(t) + \int_0^t dt' f''(t-t') x(t') dt'$$

$$\mathcal{L} Y = f(0)x'(t) + f'(0)x(t) + \int_0^t dt' \underbrace{[f''(t-t') + \omega_j^2 f(t-t')]}_{= \mathcal{L} f = 0} x(t') dt'$$

Need $f(0) = 0$ and $f'(0) = \omega_j^2 \Rightarrow f(t) = \omega_j \sin \omega_j t$

$$Y(t) = \int_0^t \omega_j \sin \omega_j (t-t') x(t') dt'$$

Initial conditions: $q_j(t=0) \equiv q_j(0)$; $p_j(t=0) \equiv p_j(0)$ ok because $m_j = 1$ so that $p_j(0) = \dot{q}_j(0)$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{q_j(t) = q_j(0) \cos \omega_j t + \frac{p_j(0)}{\omega_j} \sin \omega_j t + \omega_j \int_0^t \sin \omega_j (t-t') x(t') dt'}$$

Solely depends on the constants $q_j(0), p_j(0), \omega_j$; the variable t and the trajectory $x(t)$.

Going back to ③+④ \rightarrow simplify $A_j = x - q_j$

$$A_j = \underbrace{x(t) - \int_0^t x(t') \omega_j \sin \omega_j (t-t') dt'}_{= x(t) - [x(t') \cos \omega_j (t-t')]_0^t} - q_j(0) \cos \omega_j t - \frac{p_j(0)}{\omega_j} \sin \omega_j t$$

$$= x(t) - [x(t') \cos \omega_j (t-t')]_0^t + \int_0^t \frac{p(t')}{M} \cos \omega_j (t-t') dt' - [\dots]$$

$$A_j = x(0) \cos \omega_j t + \int_0^t \frac{p(t')}{M} \cos \omega_j (t-t') dt' - q_j(0) \cos \omega_j t - \frac{p_j(0)}{\omega_j} \sin \omega_j t$$

All in all:

$$\dot{p} = -V'(x) - \int_0^t \frac{p(t')}{M} \sum_j \omega_j^2 \cos \omega_j(t-t') dt' + \sum_j \left\{ \omega_j p_j(0) \sin \omega_j t + \omega_j^2 (q_j(0) - x(0)) \cos \omega_j t \right\}$$

$$\text{or } \dot{p} = -V'(x) - \int_0^t \frac{p(t')}{M} K(t-t') dt' + \xi(t) \quad (**)$$

where $K(u) = \sum_j \omega_j^2 \cos(\omega_j u)$

$$\xi(u) = \sum_j \left\{ \omega_j p_j(0) \sin(\omega_j u) + \omega_j^2 (q_j(0) - x_j) \cos \omega_j u \right\}$$

B) Fluctuations ξ and dissipation K

In principle, (**) is a deterministic equation. In practice, $q_j(0)$ and $p_j(0)$ are impossible to know precisely and they fluctuate widely \Rightarrow use their statistics.

Fluid equilibrated at $t=0 \rightarrow P(q(0), \dots, q(N), p(0), \dots, p(N)) \propto e^{-\beta \left[\sum_j \frac{p_j(0)^2}{2} + \frac{\omega_j^2}{2} (q_j(0) - x_j)^2 \right]}$

i.e. $P(\{q_i(0), p_i(0)\}) = \prod_i e^{-\beta \frac{p_i(0)^2}{2} - \beta (q_i(0) - x_i)^2} \equiv \prod_i P_i(q_i(0), p_i(0))$

ok because $m_j = 1$.

\Rightarrow independent Gaussian variables.

⊗ The fluctuations ξ

$\xi(t)$ is a linear combination of the Gaussian variables $q_i(0), p_i(0)$; it is thus a Gaussian variable.

Proof: let us show that if $\xi = \mu a + \nu b$ with $p(a) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_a^2}} e^{-\frac{a^2}{2\sigma_a^2}}$ and $p(b) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_b^2}} e^{-\frac{b^2}{2\sigma_b^2}}$ then ξ is Gaussianly distributed.

① $P(\xi_0) = \int P(\xi) \delta(\xi - \xi_0) d\xi$ (definition of Dirac function)
 $= \langle \delta(\xi - \xi_0) \rangle_\xi$ (definition of average)

② $\delta(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ixh} \delta(h) dh$ (Fourier transform)

$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(h) e^{-ixh} dh = 1 \Rightarrow \delta(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ixh} dh$

2017

[2.5

$$\textcircled{1} + \textcircled{2} \Rightarrow P(\xi) = \langle \delta(\xi - \xi_0) \rangle = \left\langle \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\lambda e^{i\lambda(\xi - \xi_0)} \right\rangle$$

$$P(\xi_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} da \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} db \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\lambda e^{-i\lambda \xi_0} e^{i\lambda(\mu a + b)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_a}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{a^2}{\sigma_a}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{b^2}{\sigma_b}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_b}} \quad (***)$$

$$\textcircled{3} \text{ Gaussian integral: } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-\frac{1}{2} ax^2 + bx} = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{a}} e^{\frac{b^2}{2a}}$$

$$(***) + \textcircled{3} \Rightarrow P(\xi_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\lambda}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_a}} e^{-i\lambda \xi_0} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{a}} e^{-\frac{\lambda^2 \mu^2 \sigma_a}{2}} \frac{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_b}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_b}} e^{-\frac{\lambda^2 \sigma_b}{2}}$$

$$P(\xi_0) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\lambda e^{-i\lambda \xi_0} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \lambda^2 (\mu^2 \sigma_a + \sigma_b)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(\mu^2 \sigma_a + \sigma_b)}} e^{-\frac{\xi_0^2}{2(\mu^2 \sigma_a + \sigma_b)}}$$

$\Rightarrow \xi$ is a random variable distributed following a Gaussian law of zero mean and variance $\mu^2 \sigma_a + \sigma_b$.

exercise: redo with non-zero mean random variables.

Comment: if y is a Gaussian random variable of law $p(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_y}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(y-y_0)^2}{\sigma_y}}$

then $p(y)$ is entirely characterized by $\langle y \rangle = y_0$ and $\langle y^2 \rangle = \sigma_y$.

Going back to $\xi(t) \Rightarrow$ sum of Gaussian variables and hence Gaussian

\Rightarrow entirely characterized by two first cumulants. True for all t

\Rightarrow need to compute $\langle \xi(t) \rangle$ and $\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle$

$$* \langle \xi(t) \rangle = \sum_j \omega_j \sin(\omega_j t) \langle p_j(0) \rangle + \omega_j^2 \cos \omega_j t \langle q_j(0) - x_j(0) \rangle = 0$$

2017

[2.6

$$\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle = \left\langle \left[\sum_j \omega_j p_j(t) \sin(\omega_j t) + \omega_j^2 (q_j(t) - x_j) \cos(\omega_j t) \right] \left[\sum_{j'} \omega_{j'} p_{j'}(t') \sin(\omega_{j'} t') + \omega_{j'}^2 (q_{j'}(t') - x_{j'}) \cos(\omega_{j'} t') \right] \right\rangle$$

→ terms involving $\langle p_i(t)^2 \rangle$; $\langle (q_j - x)^2 \rangle$ and cross terms $\langle p_i p_{j \neq i} \rangle$ or $\langle (q_i - x)(q_{j \neq i} - x) \rangle$

Since $p_i, (q_j - x)$ are independent variables of zero mean, the cross term vanish.

Using the distributions of p_i and q_i , one gets

$$\langle p_i p_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \frac{\hbar T}{\omega_j} \text{ and } \langle (q_i - x)(q_j - x) \rangle = \delta_{ij} \frac{\hbar T}{\omega_j^2} \text{ and } \langle p_i (q_j - x) \rangle = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle &= \sum_j \omega_j^2 \frac{\hbar T}{\omega_j} \sin(\omega_j t) \sin(\omega_j t') + \omega_j^4 \frac{\hbar T}{\omega_j^2} \cos(\omega_j t) \cos(\omega_j t') \\ &= \sum_j \omega_j^2 \hbar T \cos[\omega_j (t - t')] = \hbar T k(t - t') \end{aligned}$$

Comment: $k(t - t')$ characterizes the friction from the medium, i.e.

the mean force stemming from a speed $p(t')$ at a later time t .

$\xi(t)$ characterizes the fluctuations around this mean behaviour.

$\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle = \hbar T k(t - t')$ is a fluctuation-dissipation relation

typical of equilibrium dynamics (cf. D. Mauchamma's lectures)

Comment: $\dot{p}(t)$ depends on $p(t')$ for $t' < t$. The system has a memory, stored in the surrounding fluid. Its dynamics at time t does not solely depends on its position in phase space $(x(t), p(t))$.

This is the definition of a non-Markovian dynamics. Here, this results from projecting away some degrees of freedom since the initial dynamics for $x, p, q_1, \dots, q_n, p_1, \dots, p_n$ was Markovian.

ⓑ The damping term $k(t-t')$

All the oscillators may have different frequencies $\Rightarrow g(\omega)$ the density of operators having a frequency ω (a rather in $[\omega, \omega+d\omega]$)

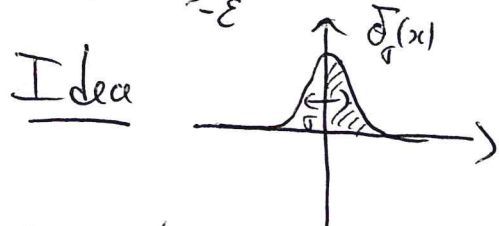
$$k(t-t') = \sum_j \omega_j^2 \cos[\omega_j(t-t')] \approx \int_0^\infty d\omega g(\omega) \cos[\omega(t-t')]$$

$g(\omega)$ determines $k(t)$.

Let us choose $g(\omega) = \frac{2\gamma}{\pi\omega^2}$; then $k(t) = \frac{2\gamma}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \cos\omega t d\omega = \frac{2\gamma}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{i\omega t}}{2} d\omega = \gamma \delta(t)$

The damping term then reads $\int_0^t \frac{p(t')}{m} 2\gamma \delta(t-t')$

Comment: $\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} f(t) \delta(t) dt = f(0)$ but $\int_0^{\epsilon} f(t) \delta(t) dt = ?$



$$\delta(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \delta_\epsilon(x)$$

use only one side $\int_0^{\epsilon} f(t) \delta(t) dt = \frac{f(0)}{2}$

Thus $\int_0^t \frac{p(t')}{m} 2\gamma \delta(t-t') dt' = \frac{\gamma}{m} p(t)$ and the dynamics reduces to

$$\begin{cases} \dot{q} = p \\ \dot{p} = -V'(q) - \frac{\gamma}{m} p + \zeta(t) \end{cases} \text{ with } \zeta(t) \text{ a Gaussian white noise such that}$$

$$\langle \zeta(t) \rangle = 0 \quad \langle \zeta(t) \zeta(t') \rangle = 2\gamma k_B T \delta(t-t')$$

This is the celebrated Langevin equation. (1908)

Comment: $k(t)$ is a property of the fluid. Some have memory (visco-elastic media); others don't (Newtonian fluids).

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2.8

III The large damping limit (a.k.a. the over-damped limit)

Naively, large damping means large dissipation \Rightarrow loss of energy \Rightarrow no motion

The life of a Brownian particle is very different.

$$\ddot{x} = v; m\dot{v} = -\gamma v - V'(x) + S(t) \text{ with } \langle S(t) S(t') \rangle = 2\gamma k_B T \delta(t-t')$$

or equivalently $m\dot{v} = -\gamma v - V'(x) + \sqrt{2\gamma k_B T} \eta(t)$ with $\langle \eta(t) \eta(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t')$

! Normalisation with sloppily appear in α in front of the noise in the following.

Large friction: slow system \Rightarrow evolution over a very long time-scale

tentative scaling $\tau = \gamma^{-1} \tau \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(1)?$

\uparrow large \uparrow large \rightarrow $\mathcal{O}(1)?$

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = \frac{m}{\gamma^2} \frac{d^2 x}{d\tau^2} = -\frac{\gamma}{\gamma^2} \frac{dx}{d\tau} - V'(x) + \underbrace{\sqrt{2\gamma k_B T}}_{= \gamma} \eta(\gamma \tau) \quad (*)$$

Notice that $\langle \eta(t) \eta(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t') = \delta(\gamma \tau - \gamma \tau') = \frac{1}{\gamma} \delta(\tau - \tau')$

Introduce GRW $\tilde{\eta}(\tau)$ such that $\langle \tilde{\eta} \rangle = 0$ $\langle \tilde{\eta}(\tau) \tilde{\eta}(\tau') \rangle = \delta(\tau - \tau')$
 then $\eta(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma}} \tilde{\eta}(\tau)$

$$(*) \Rightarrow \underbrace{\frac{m}{\gamma^2}}_{\rightarrow 0} \frac{d^2 x}{d\tau^2} = -\frac{dx}{d\tau} - V'(x) + \sqrt{2k_B T} \tilde{\eta} \quad (**)$$

Thanks to fluctuation-dissipation theorem, $-\gamma v$ and $\sqrt{2\gamma k_B T} \eta$ follow the same scaling as $\gamma \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$ motion survives

2017/

2.9

Comment: (***) is nice and simple but $[\gamma] = \frac{M}{T}$

$\tau = \frac{\epsilon}{\delta}$ is a time constant in $s^2 \text{kg}^{-1}$:-)

Real physicists (i.e. experimentalists) often use proper units $\dot{x} = -\frac{1}{\delta} V'(x) + \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{\delta}} \gamma(t)$

Mobility: If one applies a constant force F to the colloid

$$\dot{x} = v = \frac{F}{\delta} + \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{\delta}} \gamma \Rightarrow \langle v \rangle = \frac{F}{\delta} \equiv \mu F$$

$\mu = \frac{1}{\delta}$ is called the mobility of the particle; it measures the response of the colloid to an external force.

Comment $\mu = \frac{d\langle v \rangle}{dF}$ looks like a non-equilibrium property (constant drive, no steady-state, etc.) but it is related to $\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle$ which can be measured in the absence of F \Rightarrow equilibrium property.

Comment: μ can be computed using hydrodynamics (Stokes equation)

Sphere $\delta = 6\pi\eta R$ where η is the dynamic viscosity of the solvent.

Rotational diffusion $\delta_R = 8\pi\eta R^3$; $\dot{\theta} = \sqrt{\frac{2kT}{\delta_R}} \xi$

Summary: Large object connected to many equilibrated ones
| statistical treatment

Dynamical equation which is stochastic
| depends on a small number of parameters (kT, δ, \dots)

The Langevin equation is the PV=NRT of non-equilibrium stat Mech

2017

Chapter 3: Itô calculus

3.1

In the absence of external potential, the dynamics of our colloid in the overdamped limit is described by

$$\ddot{x}(t) = \sqrt{2D} \eta(t) \quad (1) \quad \text{with } \eta(t) \text{ a Gaussian white noise}$$

$$\langle \eta(t) \rangle = 0 \quad \langle \eta(t) \eta(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t')$$

I/Is this really serious?

$\eta(t)$ is a random variable \rightarrow new value at every time, uncorrelated with previous values \Rightarrow quite far from continuous, differentiable functions usually used in ordinary differential equations in physics.

History: \rightarrow R. Brown, 1827, observation of the motion of pollen grains suspended in water. (Actually Jan Ingenhousz did the same with coal particle on the surface of alcohol in 1785)

\rightarrow Einstein, 1905, connection with atomistic theory

\rightarrow Smoluchowsky, 1906, Langevin, 1908 \Rightarrow birth of stochastic equations

Mathematical basis are hard to build: Wiener (1918), Itô (1944)

Why? Two important problems

① Formal solution of (1) $x(t) = \int_0^t \eta(t') dt' + x(0)$

$$\rightarrow \frac{x(t+\tau) - x(t)}{\tau} = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_t^{t+\tau} \eta(t') dt'$$

$$\left\langle \frac{x(t+\tau) - x(t)}{\tau} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\tau} \int_t^{t+\tau} \langle \eta(t') \rangle dt' = 0 \quad \text{OK } \checkmark$$

$$\langle \left(\frac{x(t+\tau) - x(t)}{\tau} \right)^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{\tau^2} \left\langle \int_t^{t+\tau} \eta(s) ds \int_t^{t+\tau} \eta(u) du \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\tau^2} \int_t^{t+\tau} ds \int_t^{t+\tau} du \langle \eta(s) \eta(u) \rangle \quad \delta(s-u) \quad (3.2)$$

$$\forall s \in [t, t+\tau] \quad \int_t^{t+\tau} \delta(s-u) du = 1$$

$$\left\langle \left(\frac{x(t+\tau) - x(t)}{\tau} \right)^2 \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\tau^2} \int_t^{t+\tau} ds = \frac{1}{\tau} \xrightarrow{\tau \rightarrow 0} \infty$$

$x(t)$ is not differentiable \Rightarrow what does $\dot{x}(t)$ mean?

Mathematicians: nothing, only $x(t) = \int_0^t \eta(s) ds$ means something \rightarrow Wiener process

Physicists: Yeah, right, but let's still use it, because (1) is a useful notation!

② Diffusion $x^2(t) = \int_0^t ds \int_0^t du \eta(s) \eta(u) \Rightarrow \langle x^2(t) \rangle = t$
 \rightarrow correct diffusive scaling

$$\dot{x}(t) = \eta(t) ; \quad \frac{d}{dt} x^2(t) = 2x \dot{x} = 2x \eta \quad (\text{standard chain rule})$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \langle x^2(t) \rangle = \langle 2x \eta \rangle = 0 \quad \text{since } \langle \eta \rangle = 0 \text{ and } x(t) \text{ is expected}$$

to be correlated only with $\eta(t' < t)$ (causality)

so that we expect $\langle x(t) \eta(t) \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle \langle \eta(t) \rangle$

But $\frac{d}{dt} \langle x^2(t) \rangle = 0$ incompatible with $\langle x^2(t) \rangle = t \Rightarrow$ paradox!

Comment: Not so obvious that $\langle x(t) \eta(t) \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle \langle \eta(t) \rangle$

Indeed (1) $\Rightarrow x_1(t+dt) = x_1(t) + dt \eta(t)$ indeed means $\langle x_1(t+dt) \eta(t+dt) \rangle = \langle x_1(t) \eta(t) \rangle = 0$

But $x_2(t+dt) = x_2(t) + dt \frac{\eta(t) + \eta(t+dt)}{2}$ looks also ok at order dt (semi-implicit scheme). This time $x_2(t+dt)$ and $\eta(t+dt)$ are not independent.

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3.3

a) Choice of Itô $\langle x(t)y(t) \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle \langle y(t) \rangle$ simple but we need to learn how to do calculus again: $\frac{d}{dt} x^2 \neq 2x \dot{x}$

b) Choice of Stratonovich \Rightarrow standard calculus applies but computing $\langle x(t)y(t) \rangle$ is painful.

II Itô formula

How does $f(x(t))$ evolve when $x(t)$ is solution of $\dot{x} = F(x) + \eta$ (*) where $\eta(t)$ is a Gaussian white noise with $\langle \eta(t) \rangle = 0$; $\langle \eta(t) \eta(t') \rangle = \sigma \delta(t-t')$

(or equivalently $\dot{x} = F(x) + \sqrt{\sigma} \xi(t)$ with $\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t')$)

Comment: Naive solution of (*) $x(t+dt) = x(t) + \underbrace{\int_t^{t+dt} F(x(s)) ds}_{\approx dt F(x(t)) + O(dt^2)} + \underbrace{\int_t^{t+dt} \eta(s) ds}_{d\xi}$

$$\langle d\xi \rangle = 0 ; \quad \langle d\xi^2 \rangle = \int_t^{t+dt} ds \int_t^{t+dt} du \langle \eta(s) \eta(u) \rangle = \sigma dt$$

$d\xi \sim \sqrt{dt}$! unusual \rightarrow this will alter the chain rule.

Comment: To simulate (*), use $x(t+dt) = x(t) + dt F(x(t)) + \sqrt{2\sigma dt} u$ where u is chosen from a unit-variance, zero mean Gaussian distribution $P(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}}$

A) Evolution of $f(x(t))$

$$x(t+dt) = x(t) + F(x(t))dt + d\xi(t) + \mathcal{O}(dt^2) \quad ; \quad d\xi(t) = \int_t^{t+dt} \gamma(t')dt'$$

$$t_j = j dt \quad ; \quad t = N dt$$

$$f(x(t)) = f(x(0)) + \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f(x(t_{j+1})) - f(x(t_j))$$

Idea: N large, dt small \Rightarrow expand $f(x(t_{j+1})) - f(x(t_j)) \sim \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x(t_j)) dx_j + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) dx_j^2$

where $dx_j = x(t_{j+1}) - x(t_j) \approx F(x(t_j))dt + d\xi(t_j)$ and $d\xi(t_j) = \int_{t_j}^{t_{j+1}} \gamma(s) ds$

then identify $f(x(t)) - f(x(0)) = \int_0^t \frac{df}{dt}(x(s)) ds$

$$f(x(t)) - f(x(0)) = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx_j + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} [F^2 dt^2 + 2F dt d\xi + d\xi^2]$$

Analyse term by term

$$\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx_j = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{df}{dx} \frac{dx_j}{dt} dt \underset{dt \rightarrow 0}{\sim} \int_0^t ds \frac{\partial f(x(s))}{\partial x} \dot{x}(s) ds = \int_0^t ds \frac{\partial f(x(s))}{\partial x} [F(x(s)) + \gamma(s)]$$

$$\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} F^2 dt^2 = dt \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) F^2(x(t_j)) dt \underset{dt \rightarrow 0}{\sim} dt \int_0^t \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(s)) F^2(x(s)) ds \xrightarrow{dt \rightarrow 0} 0$$

~~$\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) F(x(t_j)) dt$~~

$$\sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) F(x(t_j)) d\xi(t_j) dt = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) F(x(t_j)) dt \int_{t_j}^{t_{j+1}} \gamma(s) ds \equiv A \text{ random variable}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A \rangle &= \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} dt \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) F(x(t_j)) \int_{t_j}^{t_{j+1}} \gamma(s) ds \right\rangle \\ &\underset{dt \rightarrow 0}{=} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} dt \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) F(x(t_j)) \right\rangle \underbrace{\left\langle \int_{t_j}^{t_{j+1}} \gamma(s) ds \right\rangle}_{=0} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

2017

3.5

$$\langle A^2 \rangle = \sum_{j,h=0}^{N-1} dt^2 \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_h)) F(x(t_j)) F(x(t_h)) d\xi(t_j) d\xi(t_h) \right\rangle$$

if $t_j < t_h$, $d\xi(t_h)$ is independent of the rest $\Rightarrow \langle \dots d\xi(t_h) \rangle = \langle \dots \rangle \langle d\xi(t_h) \rangle$

if $t_j = t_h$, $d\xi^2(t_h) = 0$

$$\langle A^2 \rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} dt^2 \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j))^2 F(x(t_j))^2 \right\rangle \underbrace{\langle d\xi(t_j)^2 \rangle}_{=\sigma dt}$$

$$\sim \sigma dt^2 \int_0^t \left\langle \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(u(s)) F(u(s)) \right)^2 \right\rangle ds \xrightarrow{dt \rightarrow 0} 0$$

same for all the higher moments.

One term left $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) d\xi^2(t_j)$

$d\xi^2(t_j)$ is a random variable such that $\langle d\xi^2 \rangle = \sigma dt$.

Its higher moments scale as dt^m , $m > 1$. let us show that to compute $f(x(t_1)) - f(x(t_0))$ we can simply replace $d\xi^2$ by σdt (Note the absence of $\langle \dots \rangle$).

$$\rightarrow B \equiv \sum_j \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} (d\xi^2 - \sigma dt)$$

$$\langle B \rangle = \sum_j \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) (d\xi^2(t_j) - \sigma dt) \right\rangle \stackrel{It\bar{o}}{=} \sum_j \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) \right\rangle \underbrace{\langle d\xi^2(t_j) - \sigma dt \rangle}_{=0} = 0$$

$$\langle B^2 \rangle = \sum_{j,h} \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j)) \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_h)) (d\xi^2(t_j) - \sigma dt) (d\xi^2(t_h) - \sigma dt) \right\rangle$$

if $t_j < t_h$, then $d\xi^2(t_h) - \sigma dt$ is independent from the rest and $\langle \dots \rangle = \langle \dots \rangle \cdot \langle d\xi^2(t_h) - \sigma dt \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow$ only $j=h$ matters.

2017

3.6

$$\langle B^2 \rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(t_j)^2 \right\rangle \cdot \langle d\xi(t_j)^4 - 2\sigma dt d\xi^2(t_j) + \sigma^2 dt^2 \rangle$$

$$\langle d\xi^4(t_j) \rangle = ? \Rightarrow d\xi \text{ is a Gaussian random variable} \Rightarrow \langle d\xi^4 \rangle = 3 \langle d\xi^2 \rangle^2$$

(fourth cumulant $C_4 = \langle x^4 \rangle - 3 \langle x^2 \rangle^2 = 0$)

Proof: $\langle x^4 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx x^4 e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\sigma}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx x^3 \frac{x}{\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\sigma}}$

$$= \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \left[-x^3 e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\sigma}} \right]_{-\infty}^{+\infty} + \sigma \cdot \frac{3}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx x^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{x^2}{\sigma}}$$

$$= 0 + 3\sigma^2 = 3 \langle x^2 \rangle^2$$

Thus: $\langle d\xi^4 \rangle = 3 \langle d\xi^2 \rangle^2 = 3\sigma^2 dt^2$

$$\langle B^2 \rangle = \sum_j \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(t_j))^2 \right\rangle 2\sigma^2 dt^2 \sim 2\sigma dt \int_0^t ds \left\langle \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(s) \right\rangle \xrightarrow{dt \rightarrow 0} 0$$

Higher moments also vanish and in practice we take $B=0$ in the limit $dt \rightarrow 0$

All in all

$$f(x(t)) - f(x_0) = \int_0^t ds \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x(s)) \dot{x}(s) + \frac{\sigma}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x(s)) \right]$$

Ito lemma: $\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \dot{x} + \frac{\sigma}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$

Ⓕ Generalisation to $f(x(t), t)$

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\sigma}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}$$

Ⓖ N-dimensional Ito formula

$$\dot{x}_i = F_i(x_1, \dots, x_N) + \eta_i; \quad \langle \eta_i \rangle = 0; \quad \langle \eta_i(t) \eta_j(t') \rangle = \sigma_{ij} \delta(t-t')$$

$$\frac{df(x_1(t), \dots, x_N(t))}{dt} = \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \dot{x}_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \sigma_{ij} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

Let us come back to $\langle x^2(t) \rangle$

$$f(x) = x^2; \quad f'(x) = 2x; \quad f''(x) = 2$$

$$\dot{x} = \sqrt{2D} \eta(t) \Leftrightarrow \dot{x} = \xi(t)$$

$$\langle \eta(t) \rangle = 0$$

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

$$\langle \eta(t) \eta(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t')$$

$$\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle = 2D \delta(t-t')$$

$$\text{Itô: } \frac{d f(x(t))}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \dot{x} + D \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 2x\xi + 2D \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \langle x^2(t) \rangle = 2 \langle x\xi \rangle + 2D$$

$$\text{Itô: } 2 \langle x \rangle \langle \xi \rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle x^2(t) \rangle = 2Dt$$

Comment: can now do better $\frac{d}{dt} \langle x^2(t) \rangle = 2D + 2 \underbrace{\langle x\xi(t) \rangle}_{\text{characterizes the fluctuations of } x^2}$

Also works for higher moments

$$\frac{d}{dt} \langle x^4 \rangle = 4 \langle x^3 \dot{x} \rangle + D 12 \langle x^2 \rangle = 4 \langle x^3 \rangle \underbrace{\langle \dot{x} \rangle}_{=0} + 24D^2 t$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle x^4 \rangle = 12D^2 t^2 = 3 \cdot (2Dt)^2 = 3 \langle x^2(t) \rangle^2$$

You can now compute moments of $x(t)$ without knowing $P(x, t)$

Comment: the $\xi(t)$ form a set of correlated Gaussian variables.

What is their joint probability distribution?

$$P[\xi(t)] = Z^{-1} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \int_0^t \xi^2(s) ds \right]$$

\Rightarrow weight in trajectory space; can be used to construct path-integral representation of a stochastic process.

Bibliography: Øksendal, "Stochastic differential equations", Springer

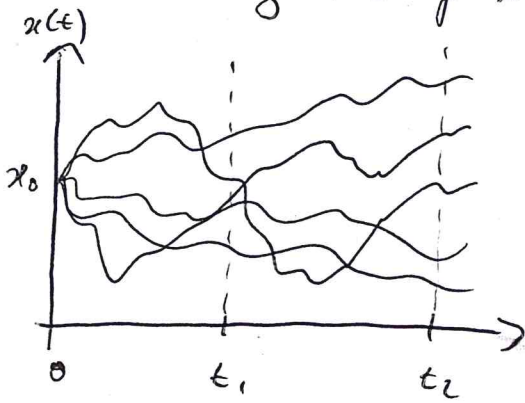
\triangle Remember that $\dot{x}(t) = \sqrt{2D} \eta(t)$ is not defined, only $x(t) - x(t') = \int$

$x(t) - x(0) = \int_0^t \eta(s) \sqrt{2D} ds$ is well defined. The same holds for Itô formula, only $f(t) - f(0) = \int_0^t ds \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \dot{x} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \frac{D}{2} \right]$ has been proven. Do not start to play with, say, $\exp[f(t)]$ and use Itô formulae.

Chapter IV: The Fokker-Planck Equation

Nisken: The Fokker-Planck equation, Springer

$x(t)$ stochastic process solution of $x(0) = x_0$ and $\dot{x}(t) = F(x) + \xi(t)$ (*)
 where $\xi(t)$ is a Gaussian white noise with zero mean $\langle \xi(t) \rangle = 0$
 and variance $\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle = 2D \delta(t-t')$. Let us consider
 several realizations of $x(t)$:



Let us call $P(x(t) = \bar{x}, t | x_0, 0)$ the
 probability density that the process $x(t)$
 is at \bar{x} at time t , given that it
 was at x_0 at time 0. We write
 more concisely $P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0)$. Note

that, here, \bar{x} and x_0 are simple real numbers and not stochastic
 processes.

Clearly, $P(x, t_1 | x_0, 0)$ and $P(x, t_2 | x_0, 0)$ are different

→ Q: what is the time evolution of $P(x, t | x_0, 0)$?

I / The Fokker-Planck equation

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a C^2 function. By definition ~~$\langle f(x(t)) \rangle$~~

$$\langle f(x(t)) \rangle = \int dx f(x) P(x, t | x_0, 0)$$

and thus

$$\left\langle \frac{df}{dt} \right\rangle = \int dx f(x) \frac{dP(x, t | x_0, 0)}{dt} \quad (1)$$

Ito formula: $\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \dot{x} + D \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \stackrel{Ito}{=} \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right\rangle \langle \dot{x} \rangle = 0$

$\Rightarrow \left\langle \frac{df}{dt} \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} F(x) \right\rangle + \left\langle D \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right\rangle + \left\langle \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \xi(t) \right\rangle$

$= \int dx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} F(x) P(x,t|x_0,0) + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} D P(x,t|x_0,0)$

$\stackrel{IBP}{=} \left[f(x) F(x) P(x,t|x_0,0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} D P(x,t|x_0,0) \right]_{\text{boundary 1}}^{\text{boundary 2}} - \int dx \left\{ f(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [F(x) \cdot P] + f'(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [D P] \right\}$

Case 1: periodic boundary conditions $\left[- \right]_{\text{boundary 1}}^{\text{boundary 2}} = 0$

Case 2: closed box $x \in [x_1, x_2]$ $P(x < x_1, t|x_0,0) = P(x > x_2, t|x_0,0) = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \left[- \right] = 0$

Case 3: infinite system, for finite time $P(x = \pm \infty, t|x_0,0) = 0$
 \Rightarrow in all cases, we can neglect the boundary terms.

$\left\langle \frac{df}{dt} \right\rangle \stackrel{IBP}{=} \int dx f(x) \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (D P(x,t|x_0,0)) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (F(x) P(x,t|x_0,0)) \right] \quad (2)$

(1) and (2) hold for any test function f so that

$\frac{\partial P(x,t|x_0,0)}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} D - F(x) \right] P(x,t|x_0,0)$

where $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ is an operator that acts on everything on its right

Comment: In (*), the statistics of $\xi(t)$ do not depend on the position of $x(t)$. This is called an additive noise.

On the contrary, in $\dot{x} = F(x) + \sqrt{2D(x)} \xi(t)$, with $\langle \xi \rangle = 0$ and $\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t')$ (**)

$\sqrt{2D(x)} \xi(t)$ is called a multiplicative noise.

Let us now construct the Fokker-Planck equation for (**), proceeding in a "dirty" physics way.

$$P(x, t | x_0, 0) = \int d\bar{x} P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0) \delta(x - \bar{x}) = \langle \delta(x - \bar{x}) \rangle_{\substack{\text{real number} \\ \bar{x}(t) \leftarrow \text{stochastic process}}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dP}{dt} &= \left\langle \frac{d}{dt} \delta(x - \bar{x}(t)) \right\rangle \stackrel{\text{Ito}}{=} \left\langle \frac{d\delta(x - \bar{x})}{d\bar{x}} \dot{\bar{x}} + D(\bar{x}) \frac{d^2}{d\bar{x}^2} \delta(x - \bar{x}) \right\rangle \\ &= \left\langle \frac{d\delta(x - \bar{x})}{d\bar{x}} F(\bar{x}) \right\rangle + \left\langle \frac{d\delta(x - \bar{x}(t))}{d\bar{x}} \sqrt{2D(\bar{x}(t))} \xi(t) \right\rangle + \left\langle D(\bar{x}) \frac{d^2}{d\bar{x}^2} \delta(x - \bar{x}) \right\rangle \\ &\stackrel{\text{Ito}}{=} \left\langle \frac{d\delta(x - \bar{x}(t))}{d\bar{x}} \sqrt{2D(\bar{x}(t))} \right\rangle \langle \xi(t) \rangle = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{dP}{dt} &= \int d\bar{x} \frac{d\delta(x - \bar{x})}{d\bar{x}} \cdot F(\bar{x}) P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0) + \frac{d^2 \delta(x - \bar{x})}{d\bar{x}^2} D(\bar{x}) P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0) \\ &\stackrel{\text{IBP}}{=} \int d\bar{x} \delta(x - \bar{x}) \left[-\frac{d}{d\bar{x}} \cdot F(\bar{x}) P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0) + \frac{d^2}{d\bar{x}^2} \cdot D(\bar{x}) P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0) \right] \end{aligned}$$

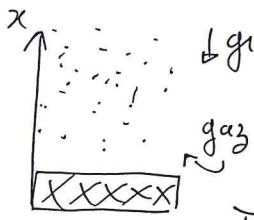
$$\frac{dP(x, t | x_0, 0)}{dt} = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} D(x) - F(x) \right] P(x, t | x_0, 0)$$

Intuition: ① $F=0$; $\dot{x} = \sqrt{2D} \gamma \rightarrow$ diffusion $\Rightarrow \frac{dP}{dt} = D \Delta P$ diffusion equation.

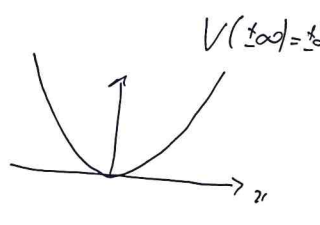
② $D=0$; $\dot{x} = F(x) \rightarrow$ advection $\frac{dP}{dt} = -\text{div}(FP) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}[FP]$

①+② \Rightarrow Fokker-Planck equation $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (DP) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (FP)$

Comment: FPE $\Leftrightarrow \frac{dP}{dt} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (J(x))$ which is a conservation equation for the probability; $J(x)$ is called a probability current.

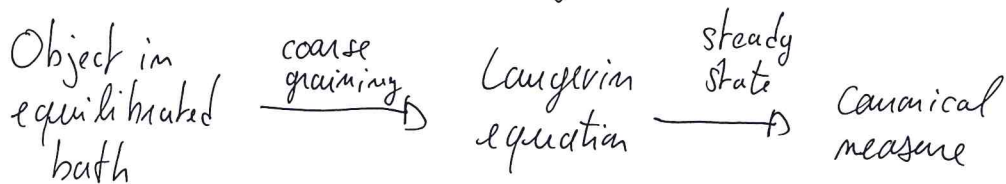
Example:  $\dot{x} = -\mu mg + \sqrt{2\mu kT} \gamma$; FPE: $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P = + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [\mu mg P + \mu kT \frac{\partial}{\partial x} P]$
 Steady-state $\Rightarrow P = z^{-1} \exp[-\frac{mgx}{kT}]$
 This exponential atmosphere is called a Boltzmann Profile.

Comment: Here the steady-state is given by $J = C^{st}$; the wall at $x=0$ imposes $J=0$, otherwise \rightarrow free fall & no steady-state. Boundary conditions are very important.

More general: $\dot{x} = -\mu V'(x) + \sqrt{2\mu kT} \gamma(t)$; $V(x)$ a/bounding potential  $V(x \rightarrow \infty) = \infty$
 (*) μ confining

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [\mu kT \frac{\partial}{\partial x} P + \mu V'(x) P] \Rightarrow P(x) = z^{-1} e^{-\beta V(x)} \Rightarrow \text{Boltzmann weight}$$

The steady-state solution of (1) is the canonical equilibrium. The solvent acts like a thermostat: an equilibrated fluid drives an inert particle into an equilibrated steady-state.



Comment: For P to be normalizable, we need $\int dx e^{-\beta V(x)}$ finite $\Rightarrow V(x)$ has to diverge fast enough. $V(x) \sim \log|x| \Rightarrow$ problem $e^{-\beta V(x)} \sim \frac{1}{|x|^\beta}$ not integrable in ∞ for $\beta \leq 1$.

II N-dimensional Fokker-Planck equation

$x_i = F_i(x_1, \dots, x_N) + \gamma_i$ where the γ_i 's are GWN s.t. $\langle \gamma_i \rangle = 0$ & $\langle \gamma_i(\epsilon) \gamma_j(\epsilon') \rangle = B_{ij} \delta(\epsilon - \epsilon')$

$$P(x_1, \dots, x_N, t) = \langle \bar{\mathcal{L}} \delta(x_i - x_i^0) \rangle_{\vec{x}^0}$$

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \sum_j \left\langle \bar{\mathcal{L}} \delta(x_i - x_i^0) \frac{\partial \delta(x_j - x_j^0)}{\partial x_j^0} \right\rangle + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \left\langle \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^0 \partial x_j^0} \left[\bar{\mathcal{L}} \delta(x_k - x_k^0) \right] \times B_{ij} \right\rangle$$

$$\stackrel{It\ddot{o}}{=} \left\langle \bar{\mathcal{L}} \delta(x_i - x_i^0) \frac{\partial \delta(x_j - x_j^0)}{\partial x_j^0} F_j \right\rangle$$

$$= \int (\bar{\mathcal{L}} dx_j^0) \left\{ \sum_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j^0} \left[\bar{\mathcal{L}} \delta(x_i - x_i^0) \right] F_j(x^0) P(x^0) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2 \bar{\mathcal{L}} \delta(x_k - x_k^0)}{\partial x_i^0 \partial x_j^0} \cdot B_{ij}(x^0) P(x^0) \right\}$$

$$\stackrel{IBP}{=} \int (\bar{\mathcal{L}} dx_j^0) \bar{\mathcal{L}} \delta(x_i - x_i^0) \left\{ - \sum_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j^0} \left[F_j(x^0) P(x^0) \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^0 \partial x_j^0} B_{ij}(x^0) P(x^0) \right\}$$

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} (B_{ij} P) - \sum_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} (F_j P) = - \sum_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \cdot \mathcal{J}_j(P)$$

$$\mathcal{J}_j(P) = - \frac{1}{2} \sum_k \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} (B_{jk} P) + F_j P$$

↑
diffusive current
↑
drift term

Application: The Kramer's equation

$\dot{q} = p$; $\dot{p} = -\gamma p - V'(q) + \sqrt{2\gamma kT} \gamma$; $\langle \gamma \rangle = 0$; $\langle \gamma(\epsilon) \gamma(\epsilon') \rangle = \delta(\epsilon - \epsilon')$
 ($\sigma_{qq} = 0$, $\sigma_{qp} = 0$, $\sigma_{pp} = 1$)

Ito formula $\frac{d}{dt} [f(q(\epsilon), p(\epsilon))] = \frac{\partial f}{\partial q} \dot{q} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} \dot{p} + \gamma kT \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial p^2} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial p \partial q} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 0 \cdot \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial q \partial q}$

Fokker-Planck equation: $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P(q, p; t) = - \frac{\partial}{\partial q} (p P) + \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left([-\gamma p + V'(q)] P \right) + \gamma kT \frac{\partial^2 P}{\partial p^2}$

Steady-state under confining potential $H = \frac{p^2}{2} + V(q)$

Show that in steady-state $P_s(q, p) = Z^{-1} e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}(q, p)}$

$$\begin{aligned} Z \frac{\partial}{\partial t} P_s &= -\partial_q (p e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}}) + \partial_p ([\partial_p + V'(q)] e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}}) + \gamma \hbar \tau \partial_{pp} e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}} \\ &= \beta p V'(q) e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}} + \partial_p (\gamma p e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}}) - \beta p V'(q) e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}} + \gamma \hbar \tau (-\beta \partial_p p e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}}) \\ &= \gamma \partial_p (p e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}}) - \gamma \partial_p (p e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}}) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The steady-state is the same with inertia. Great because γ is a kinetic parameter which does not impact the steady-state. The computation also holds for $\delta(x)$.

III The Fokker-Planck operator

$$\partial_t P = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\hbar \tau \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + V'(x) \right] P(x, t) \quad (1) \Leftrightarrow \partial_t P = -H_{FP} P \text{ where } H_{FP} \text{ is}$$

the operator $H_{FP} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\hbar \tau \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + V'(x) \right]$ which acts on the Hilbert space of functions $\mathcal{H}(P)$ that depends on the domains and boundary conditions of the problem.

The study of H_{FP} contains a lot of information on the dynamics of the system

III.1) Relaxing towards equilibrium

Has the system a typical relaxation time scale? Look for $P(x, t) = e^{-\lambda t} P_0(x)$

$$(1) \Rightarrow \partial_t P = -\lambda P_0 e^{-\lambda t} = -H_{FP} P_0 e^{-\lambda t} \Rightarrow H_{FP} P_0 = \lambda P_0; P_0(x) \text{ is an eigenvector of } H_{FP}.$$

If H_{FP} is diagonalisable in $\mathcal{H}(P)$, there exists a basis $\varphi_\alpha(x)$ of $\mathcal{H}(P)$ made of eigenvectors of H_{FP} : $H_{FP} \varphi_\alpha(x) = \lambda_\alpha \varphi_\alpha(x)$.

All initial distributions $P(x, 0)$ can be split as $P(x, t) = \sum_\alpha c_\alpha(t) \varphi_\alpha(x)$

$$\partial_t P = \sum_{\alpha} \dot{c}_{\alpha}(t) \varphi_{\alpha}(x) = -H_{FP} \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} \varphi_{\alpha}(x) = - \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}(t) H_{FP} \varphi_{\alpha}(x) = - \sum_{\alpha} \lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} \varphi_{\alpha}(x)$$

$\{\varphi_{\alpha}\}$ is a free family so that $\dot{c}_{\alpha} = -\lambda_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} \Rightarrow c_{\alpha}(t) = c_{\alpha}(0) e^{-\lambda_{\alpha} t}$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{P(x,t) = \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha}(0) e^{-\lambda_{\alpha} t} \varphi_{\alpha}(x)} \Rightarrow \text{solution (1) } \forall (x,t)!$$

Comments: $\text{Re}(\lambda_{\alpha}) > 0$, otherwise $P(x,t) \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow \infty]{} +\infty \Rightarrow$ normalisation problem...

• Inf $(\lambda_{\alpha}) = 0$: $\varphi_0(x) = Z^{-1} \exp[-\beta V(x)]$; $H_{FP} \varphi_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_0 = 0$

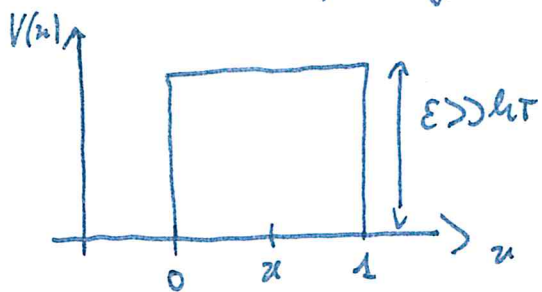
• $P(x,0) = c_1 \varphi_1 + c_2 \varphi_2$ with $\text{Re}(\lambda_1) < \text{Re}(\lambda_2)$

$$\text{then } P(x,t) = c_1 \varphi_1 e^{-\lambda_1 t} + c_2 \varphi_2 e^{-\lambda_2 t} = c_1 e^{-\lambda_1 t} \left[\varphi_1 + \underbrace{\frac{c_2}{c_1} \varphi_2 e^{-(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)t}}_{\xrightarrow[t \rightarrow \infty]{} 0} \right]$$

φ_2 is "forgotten" exponentially fast, with a typical time-scale given by the gap $\frac{1}{\text{Re}(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)}$

\Rightarrow The typical timescale can be read in the spectrum of H_{FP} . (See appendix on metastability)

III.2] Example of diagonalisation of H_{FP} : diffusion with absorbing boundaries



If $x(t)$ ~~exists~~ exits $[0,1]$, the particle cannot come back \Rightarrow absorbing boundary conditions.

Q: how does $P(x,t)$ evolves for $x \in [0,1]$?

\rightarrow solve $\partial_t P = D \partial_{xx} P$ with $P(x=0,t) = P(x=1,t) = 0$

Then $\int_0^1 dx P(x,t)$ is the probability that the system is still in $[0,1]$ at time t , this is called a survival probability.

2017

4.8

$H_{FP} = -D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$; look for a basis of functions satisfying the boundary conditions and such that $H_{FP} \psi_x = \lambda_x \psi_x \Rightarrow \psi_x''(x) = -\frac{\lambda_x}{D} \psi_x$; $\psi_x = A e^{i\sqrt{\frac{\lambda_x}{D}} x} + B e^{-i\sqrt{\frac{\lambda_x}{D}} x}$

Boundary conditions: $\psi_x(0) = 0 \Rightarrow A = -B$ & $\psi_x(x) = 2iA \sin(\sqrt{\frac{\lambda_x}{D}} x)$
 $\psi_x(1) = 0 \Rightarrow \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_x}{D}} = k_x \pi$ with $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

$\Rightarrow \psi_x(x) = \sin(k_x \pi x)$ and $\lambda_x = D k_x^2 \pi^2$

$t=0$ $P(x,0) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} C_k \sin(k\pi x)$ where $C_k = 2 \int_0^1 dx \sin(k\pi x) P(x,0) dx$

Example: $P(x,0) = \delta(x-x_0) \Rightarrow P(x,t) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2 \sin(k\pi x_0) \sin(k\pi x) e^{-D k^2 \pi^2 t}$

$P(x,t) \underset{t \rightarrow 0}{\sim} 2 \sin(k\pi x_0) \sin(k\pi x) e^{-D k^2 \pi^2 t}$

$P(x \in [0,1], t) \underset{t \rightarrow \infty}{\sim} \int_0^1 dx P(x,t) \sim \frac{4}{\pi} \sin \pi x_0 e^{-D \pi^2 t}$

IV Time-reversibility

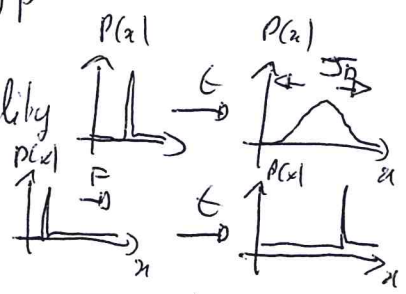
As we shall see, equilibrium systems are often associated with the idea of reversibility or with the absence of a clear arrow of time, let us see how this can be rationalized.

IV.1 Probability current

Fokker-Planck equation: $\partial_t P + \partial_x J = 0$; $J = -D \partial_x P + F(x) P$

$J_D(x) = -D \partial_x P$ diffusive current, spread out the probability

$J_A(x) = F(x) P(x)$ advective current, the force "pushes" the proba



In equilibrium, $J(P) = -kT \partial_x P - V' P = -kT \partial_x [e^{-\beta V}] - V' e^{-\beta V} = 0$

$J(P_{eq}) = 0 \Rightarrow$ no probability flux, there is no preferred direction for the transfer of probability.

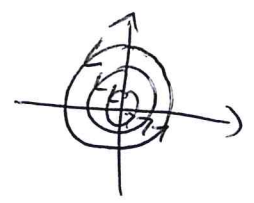
2.07 Kramers equation $\partial_t P(q,p) = -\text{div } \vec{J}$; $\vec{J} = (J_q, J_p)$

harmonic oscillator

$$J_q = pP; J_p = -[c\sigma_p + V(q)]P - \hbar\tau \frac{\partial P}{\partial p}$$

Equilibrium steady-state: $P \propto \exp[-\beta\mathcal{H}]$

$$J_q = p \exp[-\beta\mathcal{H}]; J_p = -V'(q) \exp[-\beta\mathcal{H}] \quad \vec{J} \neq \vec{0}$$



Rg: $\vec{J}(P) = \vec{J}(P) + \vec{n} \circ \vec{A}$ then $\text{div } \vec{J}(P) = \text{div } \vec{J}(P) + \text{div } \vec{n} \circ \vec{A}$
 $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} = 0$

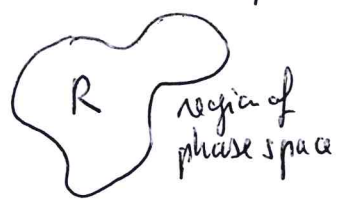
$$\partial_t P = -\text{div } \vec{J} = -\text{div } \vec{J} = 0 \text{ which } \vec{J} \text{ should vanish!}$$

Reduced current: $(J_q^{\wedge}, J_p^{\wedge}) = (J_q, J_p) + \hbar\tau (\partial_p P, -\partial_q P)$

$$\text{div } \vec{J}^{\wedge} = \text{div } \vec{J}$$

Equilibrium steady-state $(J_q^{\wedge}, J_p^{\wedge}) = \vec{0}$

\Rightarrow The connection between probability current and equilibrium system and time-reversibility is complex. Is it important? Yes, at a fundamental level, no in practice.



$$P(R) = \int dq dp P(q,p); \partial_t P(R) = -\int dq dp \text{div } \vec{J}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{only } \int \text{div } \vec{J} \text{ matters} = -\oint dS^{\vec{n}} \cdot \vec{J}$$

flux of \vec{J} through surfaces.

Comment: even in the simple overdamped case where $J = 0$, the vanishing of the current is statistically it does not mean that a particle at x has equal probability to go right or left.

Example: $\dot{x} = -\mu mg + \sqrt{2\mu\tau} \dot{z}$
 $\langle \dot{x} \rangle = -\mu mg < 0$

What makes $J=0$ is that the mean fall of particles $J = -\mu mg P$ is balanced by the diffusive drift $-\hbar\tau \partial_x P$; since $P(x)$ decreases, more particles hop at random from x to $x+\delta x$ than conversely.

IV.2 Detailed balance

Statistical reversibility means that observing a succession of events, say the system is at x' at time t and at x at time t' , is equally likely to observe the reversed ~~succession~~ ^{sequence} (x, t) and then (x', t') . This can be written as

$$P(x, t'; x', t) = P(x', t'; x, t) \quad (*)$$

Using Bayes formula $P(A, B) = P(A|B)P(B)$, this becomes in steady-state

$$P(x, t' | x', t) P_{st}(x') = P(x', t' | x, t) P_{st}(x) \quad (2)$$

What is the requirement on the evolution operator H_{FP} ? Use $t' = t + dt$ and Taylor expand (2)

$$\left[P(x, t | x', t) + dt \partial_x P(x, t | x', t) \right] P_{st}(x') = \left[P(x', t | x, t) + dt \partial_{x'} P(x', t | x, t) \right] P_{st}(x) \quad (3)$$

But $P(x, t | x', t) = \delta(x - x')$ as can be checked by computing $\langle f(x(t)) \rangle = f(x)$ and $\partial_x P(x, t | x', t) = -H_{FP}(x)P(x, t | x', t)$ when the dependency of H_{FP} on x has been made explicit

$$(3) \Rightarrow \left[1 - dt H_{FP}(x) \right] \delta(x - x') P_{st}(x') = \left[1 - dt H_{FP}(x') \right] \delta(x - x') P_{st}(x) \quad (4)$$

Since $\delta(x - x') f(x') = \delta(x - x') f(x)$ for any function f , (4) implies

$$H_{FP}(x) \delta(x - x') P_{st}(x') = H_{FP}(x') \delta(x - x') P_{st}(x) \quad (5)$$

let us show that for any operator A , one has $A(x) \delta(x - x') = A^+(x') \delta(x - x')$ where the underlying scalar product is $\langle f, g \rangle = \int dx f(x) g(x)$.

2017] Take a function $f(x)$

(4.11)

$$\begin{aligned} A(x)f(x) &= A(x) \int dx' \delta(x-x') f(x') = \int dx' f(x') A(x) \delta(x-x') \quad \text{since } A(x) \text{ does not act on} \\ &\quad \text{functions of } x' \\ &= \int dx' \delta(x-x') A(x') f(x') = \langle \delta(x-x'), A(x') f(x') \rangle = \langle A^\dagger(x') \delta(x-x'), f(x') \rangle \\ &= \int dx' f(x') A^\dagger(x') \delta(x-x') \end{aligned}$$

so that $\int dx' f(x') [A^\dagger(x') \delta(x-x') - A(x) \delta(x-x')] = 0$

Hence $A^\dagger(x') \delta(x-x') = A(x) \delta(x-x')$

(5) can be rewritten

$$H_{FP}(x) P_{St}(x) \delta(x-x') = P_{St}(x) H_{FP}(x') \delta(x-x') = P_{St}^\dagger(x) H_{FP}^\dagger(x) \delta(x-x')$$

so that $[H_{FP}(x) P_{St}(x) - P_{St}^\dagger(x) H_{FP}^\dagger(x)] \delta(x-x') = 0$

$$\Rightarrow H_{FP}(x) P_{St}(x) = P_{St}^\dagger(x) H_{FP}^\dagger(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \boxed{H_{FP}^\dagger(x) = P_{St}^{-1}(x) H_{FP}(x) P_{St}(x)} \quad (**)$$

Let us check what happens for $H_{FP} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\tau \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + v' \right]$ and $P_{St} = e^{-\beta v}$

$$\begin{aligned} P_{St}^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\tau \frac{\partial}{\partial x} e^{-\beta v} + v' e^{-\beta v} \right] &= P_{St}^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\tau (-\beta v' e^{-\beta v} + e^{-\beta v} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}) + v' e^{-\beta v} \right] \\ &= e^{\beta v} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\tau e^{-\beta v} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right] = e^{\beta v} \left[-\beta v' \tau e^{-\beta v} + \tau e^{-\beta v} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right] \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \left(v' - \tau \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \left(-\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) = H_{FP}^\dagger \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow The Fokker-Planck equation satisfies detailed-balance

Comment: (**) $\Rightarrow H^h = P_{St}^{-1/2} H_{FP} P_{St}^{1/2}$ is hermitian. Indeed

$$(H^h)^\dagger = P_{St}^{1/2} H_{FP}^\dagger P_{St}^{-1/2} = P_{St}^{-1/2} H_{FP} P_{St}^{1/2} = H^h \Rightarrow \text{real spectrum and diagonalisable in orthonormal basis.}$$

$\Rightarrow H_{FP}$ also has a real spectrum.

IV.3) The bra-ket notation & linear response

4.12

Remember quantum mechanics $|x\rangle$ such that $\hat{x}|x\rangle = x|x\rangle$
~~"Bra"~~ \uparrow \uparrow position operator
 "ket"

$P(x)$ can then be represented by $|P\rangle = \int dx P(x) |x\rangle$

and $\langle x'|P\rangle = \int dx \underbrace{\langle x'|x\rangle}_{\delta(x-x')} P(x) = P(x')$
 "bra" \uparrow

Flat measure $\langle -1 = \int dx \langle x|$

Average $\langle Q(x) \rangle = \int dx Q(x) P(x) = \langle -1 | Q | P \rangle$

Fokker-Planck $\partial_t |P(t)\rangle = \int dx \partial_t P(x,t) |x\rangle = - \int dx H_{FP} P(x,t) |x\rangle$
 $= - H_{FP} |P\rangle$

Solution $|P(t)\rangle = e^{-t H_{FP}} |P(0)\rangle$

(Transition probability $P(x,t; x_0, t_0) = \langle x | e^{-(t-t_0) H_{FP}} | x_0 \rangle$) later ↓

Diagonalisation: $H_{FP} |\psi_\alpha^R\rangle = \lambda_\alpha |\psi_\alpha^R\rangle$; $\langle \psi_\alpha^L | H_{FP} = \lambda_\alpha \langle \psi_\alpha^L |$

$H_{FP} \neq$ hermitian $\Rightarrow |\psi_\alpha^R\rangle$ and $\langle \psi_\alpha^L |$ not transpose of each other.

Conservation of probability: $\int dx P(x,t) = 1 \Rightarrow \langle -1 | P \rangle = 1$

$\partial_t \langle -1 | P \rangle = - \langle -1 | H_{FP} | P \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow \langle -1 | H_{FP} = 0$

Steady-state: $\partial_t |P_{stat}\rangle = 0 = - H_{FP} |P_{stat}\rangle \Rightarrow H_{FP} |P_{stat}\rangle = 0$

Transition probability

(4.13)

$$P(x, t | x_0, t_0) = \langle x | e^{-(t-t_0)H_{FP}} | x_0 \rangle \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow P(x, t | x_0, t_0) = \langle x | \dots | x_0 \rangle^\dagger \\ = \langle x_0 | e^{-(t-t_0)H_{FP}^\dagger} | x \rangle$$

$$P^{-1}HP = H^\dagger \Rightarrow (H^\dagger)^4 = P^{-1}HP \cdot P^{-1}HP \cdot \dots \cdot P^{-1}HP = P^{-1}H^4P$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-(t-t_0)H_{FP}^\dagger} = \sum_h \frac{[-(t-t_0)]^h}{h!} (H_{FP}^\dagger)^h = P^{-1} \sum_h \frac{[-(t-t_0)]^h}{h!} H_{FP}^h P = P^{-1} e^{-(t-t_0)H} P$$

$$P(x, t | x_0, t_0) = \langle x_0 | P^{-1} e^{-(t-t_0)H_{FP}} P | x \rangle = \frac{P(x)}{P(x_0)} \langle x_0 | e^{-(t-t_0)H_{FP}} | x \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow P(x_0) P(x, t | x_0, t_0) = P(x) P(x_0, t | x, t_0) \quad \text{detailed balance!}$$

Reciprocity relation

$$C_{AB}(t, t') = \langle - | A e^{-(t-t')H} B e^{-t'H} | P_{\text{initial}} \rangle$$

$$\text{take } t \gg t' \rightarrow \infty \quad e^{-t'H} | P_{\text{initial}} \rangle = | P_{GB} \rangle$$

$$C_{AB}(t, t') = C_{AB}(t-t') = \langle - | A e^{-(t-t')H} B | P_{GB} \rangle$$

$$= \langle P_{GB} | B^\dagger e^{-(t-t')H^\dagger} A^\dagger | - \rangle$$

$$= \langle - | e^{-\beta H} B e^{\beta H} e^{-(t-t')H} e^{-\beta H} A | - \rangle$$

$$= \langle - | B e^{-(t-t')H} A | - \rangle = C_{BA}(t, t')$$

Measuring A and then B leads to the same correlations as measuring B and then A \Rightarrow signature of time reversal symmetry.

Fluctuation-dissipation relation:

4.14

Small perturbation of the energy of the system

$$E(t) = E - h(t) A(x)$$

Impact on observable $B(x)$ for "weak" field

$$\langle B(t) \rangle_h \approx \langle B(t) \rangle_{h=0} + \sum_{t'} \frac{\partial \langle B(t) \rangle}{\partial h(t')} \cdot h(t') \quad (\text{Taylor})$$

$$\approx \langle B(t) \rangle_{h=0} + \int dt'' \frac{\delta \langle B(t) \rangle}{\delta h(t'')} h(t'') \quad (\text{Functional derivative})$$

$$+ \mathcal{O}(h^2) \rightarrow \text{neglect} \rightarrow \text{linear response} \quad \frac{\delta \langle B(t) \rangle}{\delta h(t')} \equiv R(t-t')$$

* Take $h(t) = h_0$ for $t < t'$
 $= 0$ for $t > t'$

\rightarrow Large t' , system equilibrates at $P_{st} = \frac{1}{Z_{h_0}} e^{-\beta[E - h_0 A]}$

$$P_{st}^{h_0} \approx \frac{1}{Z_{h_0}} (1 + \beta h_0 A) e^{-\beta E} \quad ; \quad Z_{h_0} = \int dx e^{-\beta(E - h_0 A)} \approx \int dx (1 + \beta h_0 A) e^{-\beta E} \\ = Z (1 + \beta h_0 \langle A \rangle_{h=0})$$

$$P_{st}^{h_0} \approx \frac{1}{Z} (1 + \beta h_0 A) (1 - \beta h_0 \langle A \rangle) e^{-\beta E} \\ \approx \frac{1}{Z} (1 - \beta h_0 \langle A \rangle + \beta h_0 A) e^{-\beta E}$$

$$\rightarrow \langle B(t) \rangle_h \approx \langle B(t) \rangle_{h=0} + \int_{-\infty}^{t'} dt'' h_0 R(t-t'') = \langle -1 B e^{-(t-t'')H} | P_{st}^{h_0} \rangle \\ = \langle -1 B e^{-(t-t'')H} (1 - \beta h_0 \langle A \rangle + \beta h_0 A) | P_{st}^{h=0} \rangle \\ = \langle B(t) \rangle_{h=0} + \beta h_0 \underbrace{\langle -1 B e^{-(t-t'')H} A | P_{st}^{h=0} \rangle}_{C_{BA}(t-t')} - \beta h_0 \langle A \rangle \langle B \rangle$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t'} \Rightarrow h_0 R(t-t') = \beta h_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t'} C_{BA}(t-t') \Rightarrow \boxed{R(t) = -\beta \frac{d}{dt} C_{BA}(t)} = -\beta \langle \dot{B}(t) A(t) \rangle$$

The response of B to an external perturbation $E \rightarrow E - \chi A$
is given by the correlations between A & B in the absence
of the field.

4.15