

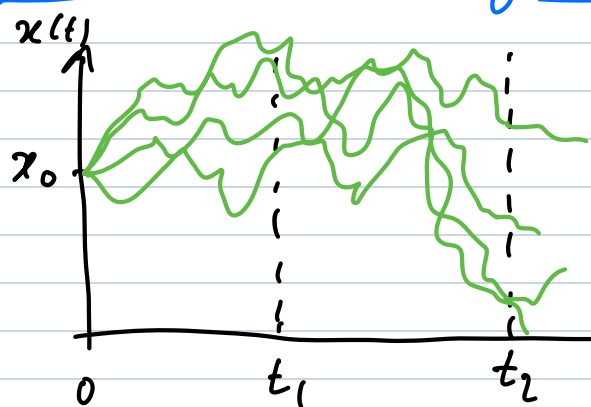
Chapter 3: The Fokker-Planck equation

(1)

Reference: Rishu, "The Fokker-Planck equation", Springer

Take $x(t)$ such that $x(0) = x_0$ & $\dot{x}(t) = F(x(t)) + \zeta(t)$ (1), where ζ is a GWN s.t. $\langle \zeta(t) \rangle = 0$, $\langle \zeta(t) \zeta(t') \rangle = 2D \delta(t-t')$

Consider several realizations of $x(t)$



We denote by $P(x(t) = \bar{x}, t | x_0, 0)$ the probability that the process $x(t)$ reaches the position \bar{x} at time t , given that it was at x_0 at time 0.

More concisely, we write $P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0)$ and stress that \bar{x} & x_0 are numbers while $x(t)$ is a stochastic process.

Clearly $P(\bar{x}, t_1 | x_0, 0) \neq P(\bar{x}, t_2 | x_0, 0) \Rightarrow \underline{Q}$: how does $P(\bar{x}, t | x_0, 0)$ evolves in time?

1) The Fokker-Planck Equation

In Eq (1), the statistics of $\zeta(t)$ do not depend on $x(t)$. This is called an additive noise. Instead we can consider a case when, say, the temperature is inhomogeneous $T_1 \left[\text{box with a dot} \right] T_2 > T_1$

Then $T(x)$ & the Langevin equation is of the type

$$\dot{x} = F(x) + \sqrt{2D(x)} \zeta(t) \quad (2)$$

with $\langle \xi \rangle = 0$ & $\langle \xi(t) \xi(t') \rangle = \delta(t-t')$

This is called a *multiplicative noise*. Itô formula can be extended to this case, which requires the time discretization of Eq (2) to be

$$x(t+d\epsilon) = x(t) + F(x(t))d\epsilon + \sqrt{2D(x(t))} \int_t^{t+d\epsilon} \xi(s) ds$$

Let us derive the evolution of $P(x, t | x_0, 0)$ in this more general case

Trick: $P(x, t | x_0, 0) = \int dy P(y, t | x_0, 0) \delta(x - y) = \langle \delta(x - y(t)) \rangle$

number (under y) *number* (over $y(t)$)
stochastic process (under $y(t)$)
average over the realization of the process $y(t)$.

Then we find

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\epsilon} P(x, t | x_0, 0) &= \left\langle \frac{d}{d\epsilon} \delta(x - y(t)) \right\rangle_y \\ &\stackrel{\text{Itô}}{=} \left\langle \left[\partial_y \delta(x - y) \right] \dot{y} + \frac{1}{2} 2D(y) \partial_y^2 \delta(x - y) \right\rangle_y \quad \text{where } \partial_y f \equiv \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ &= \left\langle F(y) \partial_y \delta(x - y) \right\rangle + \underbrace{\left\langle \xi(t) \sqrt{2D(y(t))} \partial_y \delta(x - y(t)) \right\rangle}_{\stackrel{\text{Itô}}{=} \underbrace{\left\langle \xi(t) \right\rangle}_{=0} \left\langle \sqrt{2D(y)} \partial_y \delta(x - y) \right\rangle} + \left\langle D(y) \partial_y^2 \delta(x - y) \right\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Using that $\langle O(x) \rangle = \int dx O(x) P(x)$, we get

$$\frac{d}{d\epsilon} P(x, t | x_0, 0) = \int dy P(y, t | x_0, 0) \left[F(y) \partial_y \delta(x - y) + D(y) \partial_y^2 \delta(x - y) \right]$$

$$\text{IBP} = \int dy \delta(x-y) \left\{ -\frac{\partial}{\partial y} [F(y)P(y,t|x_0,0)] + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} [D(y)P(y,t|x_0,0)] \right\} \quad (3)$$

+ boundary terms (3)

Boundary terms:

Case 1: periodic boundary condition $[...]_{\text{boundary 1}}^{\text{boundary 2}} = 0$

Case 2: closed box, $x \in [x_1, x_2]$, then $P(x < x_1 | x_0, 0) = P(x > x_2 | x_0, 0) = 0$
 $\Rightarrow [...]_{\text{boundary 1}}^{\text{boundary 2}} = 0$

Case 3: Infinite system. $\int dx P(x,t|x_0,0) = 1 \Rightarrow P(x \rightarrow \pm\infty, t|x_0,0) = 0$
 $\Rightarrow [...]_{\text{boundary 1}}^{\text{boundary 2}} = 0$


\Rightarrow In all standard cases, the boundary terms vanish.

Then, in (3), $\int dy \delta(x-y) H(y) = H(x)$ so that

$$\frac{d}{dt} P(x,t|x_0,0) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[-F(x) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} D(x) \right] P(x,t|x_0,0) \quad (4)$$

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

This is the celebrated **Fokker-Planck equation**.

 Be careful with the position of $D(y)$ that does not commute with $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$.

Mathematical route

Let us follow a slightly more mathematical route to the FPE.

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a C^2 function. By definition $\langle f(x(t)) \rangle = \int dx f(x) P(x, t | x_0, 0)$

$$\text{Thus } \boxed{\frac{d}{dt} \langle f(x(t)) \rangle = \int dx f(x) \frac{\partial P(x, t | x_0, 0)}{\partial t}} \quad (1)$$

Itô formula also tells us that $\frac{d}{dt} f(x(t)) = f'(x(t)) \dot{x} + D f''(x(t))$

Taking the average,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \langle f(x(t)) \rangle = \langle f'(x(t)) \cdot \dot{x}(t) \rangle + \underbrace{\langle f'(x(t)) \xi(t) \rangle}_{\text{Itô } \langle f' \rangle \langle \xi \rangle = 0} + D \langle f''(x(t)) \rangle$$

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

$$\stackrel{\text{IBP}}{=} \left[\cancel{f(x) F(x) P(x, t | x_0, 0)} + D \cancel{f'(x) P(x, t | x_0, 0)} \right]_{\text{boundary 1}}^{\text{boundary 2}} = 0 \text{ as before}$$

$$= \int dx \left\{ f(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [F(x) P(x, t | x_0, 0)] + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [D P(x, t | x_0, 0)] \right\}$$

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

(1) & (2) hold for any function f so that

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

Intuition:

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① $F=0$; $\dot{x} = \sqrt{2D} \, \eta \Leftrightarrow$ random walk $\Rightarrow \frac{dP}{dt} = D \Delta P$ which is the diffusion eq°.

② $D=0$; $\dot{x} = F(x) \Leftrightarrow$ advection & $\frac{dP}{dt} = -\partial_x (F \cdot P)$

The Fokker-Planck is the combination of diffusion due to the noise & advection of probability due to the force

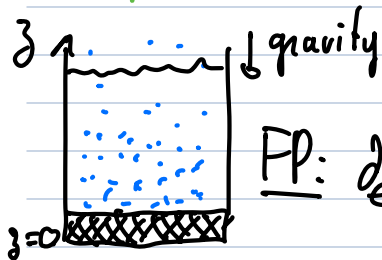
Conservation of probability:

$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} P(x) dx = 1$ is a global conservation law for $P(x)$

(1) $\Leftrightarrow \partial_t P = -\partial_x [J(x)]$ with $J(x) = +F(x)P - D \partial_x P$ is a local conservation law for the probability density and $J(x)$ is called a probability current.

Example:

$\dot{z} = -\mu \delta m g + \sqrt{2\mu h T} \, \eta$ where δm is the difference between the colloid mass & the mass of the same volume of fluid.



$$\text{FP: } \partial_t P = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} [\mu \delta m g P + \mu h T \partial_z P]$$

Start with $P(z,0)$ and wait until the system reaches a **steady state** in which it does not evolve statistically: $\partial_t P(z,t) = 0 \Rightarrow \mu \delta m g P + \mu h T \partial_z P = C^{te}$

Since $P=0$ for $z < 0$, $C^{te} = 0$ & $\partial_z P = -\frac{\delta m g}{h T} P \Rightarrow P(z) = P_0 e^{-\frac{\delta m g z}{h T}}$

This exponential "atmosphere" is called a **Penim profile** & was measured experimentally by Jean Penim (Nobel prize in 1926)

More generally: $\ddot{x} = -\mu V'(x) + \sqrt{2\epsilon kT} \zeta(t)$, where $V(x)$ is a confining potential

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The Fokker-Planck equation reads

$$\partial_t P = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\mu kT \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \mu V'(x) P \right]$$



so that $P(x) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\frac{V(x)}{\epsilon kT}}$ is a steady-state solution of the system.

This is the Boltzmann weight & the colloid reaches thermal equilibrium. The solvent acts like a thermostat: an equilibrated fluid drives an inert particle into an equilibrated stationary state.

Object in
equilibrated bath $\xrightarrow{\text{coupling}}$ Langevin
equation $\xrightarrow{\text{stationary
state}}$ Canonical
ensemble

Comment: For $P(x)$ to be normalizable, we need $\int dx e^{-\beta V(x)} < +\infty$
 $\Rightarrow V(x)$ has to diverge fast enough.

If $V(x) \sim \epsilon \log|x|$, $e^{-\beta V(x)} \sim \frac{1}{|x|^{\beta\epsilon}}$ not integrable for $\epsilon\beta \leq 1$
 $\Rightarrow kT \geq \epsilon$

\Rightarrow at high temperature, the system does not equilibrate.

The potentials that diverge faster than logarithmically are called confining potentials.

4.2) The N -dimensional Fokker-Planck equation

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let's consider $x_i = F_i(x_1, \dots, x_N) + z_i$ where z_i are Gaussian s.t. $\langle z_i \rangle = 0$

$$\text{and } \langle z_i(t) z_h(s) \rangle = B_{ih} \delta(t-s)$$

$$P(x_1, \dots, x_N, t) = \langle \prod_i \delta(x_i - g_i) \rangle_{\vec{g}}$$

$\xrightarrow{\text{numbers}}$
 $\xrightarrow{\text{stochastic processes}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} &= \sum_h \left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial g_h} \left[\prod_i \delta(x_i - g_i) \dot{g}_h \right] \right\rangle_{\vec{g}} + \sum_{j,h} \left\langle \frac{B_{jh}}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial g_j \partial g_h} \prod_i \delta(x_i - g_i) \right\rangle_{\vec{g}} \\ &\quad \text{Ito } \left\langle \frac{\partial}{\partial g_h} \left[\prod_i \delta(x_i - g_i) F_h \right] \right\rangle_{\vec{g}} \\ &= \int \left(\prod_i dg_i \right) \left\{ \sum_h \frac{\partial}{\partial g_h} \left[\prod_i \delta(x_i - g_i) F_h P \right] + \sum_{j,h} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial g_j \partial g_h} \left[\prod_i \delta(x_i - g_i) \frac{B_{jh}}{2} P \right] \right\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{IBP}}{=} \int \prod_i dg_i \cdot \left[\prod_i \delta(x_i - g_i) \right] \left\{ \sum_h - \frac{\partial}{\partial g_h} [F_h P] + \sum_{j,h} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial g_j \partial g_h} \left[\frac{B_{jh}}{2} P \right] \right\}$$

leading to the Fokker-Planck equation

$$\frac{\partial P(x_1, \dots, x_N, t)}{\partial t} = \sum_h \frac{\partial}{\partial x_h} \left[-F_h - \sum_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \frac{B_{jh}}{2} \right] P(x_1, \dots, x_N, t)$$

Conservation of probability:

This can again be written as

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = - \sum_h \frac{\partial}{\partial x_h} J_h = - \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J}, \text{ where the probability}$$

$$\text{current is given by } J_h = \underbrace{F_h P}_{\text{advection}} - \sum_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \underbrace{\frac{B_{jh}}{2} P}_{\text{diffusion}}$$

Bjkh tells us how noise along \hat{q} leads to a diffusive current along \hat{h} . (7)

Application: Underdamped Langevin equation & the Kramers equation

$$\dot{q} = p; \quad \dot{p} = -\gamma p - V'(q) + \sqrt{2\gamma\hbar T} \zeta(t) \quad \text{with } \langle \zeta(t) \rangle = 0 \quad (m=1)$$

and $\langle \zeta(t) \zeta(s) \rangle = \delta(t-s)$. As before, we can understand this

equation as experiencing noise on both q & p , but with

$B_{qq} = B_{qp} = B_{pq} = 0$ & $B_{pp} = 2\gamma\hbar T$. Then the equation for $P(q, p, t)$ reads

$$\partial_t P(\vec{q}, \vec{p}, t) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial q} (p P) + \frac{\partial}{\partial p} [\gamma p + V'(q)] P + \gamma\hbar T \frac{\partial^2}{\partial p^2} P$$

This is called the Kramers equation.

Steady state solution in the presence of a confining potential

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2} + V(q)$$

Let's show that the steady-state solution is $z^{-1} e^{-\beta H}$.

$$-\frac{\partial}{\partial q} (p e^{-\beta H}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial p} (\cancel{\gamma p e^{-\beta H}} + V'(q) e^{-\beta H} + \cancel{\gamma\hbar T (-\beta p e^{-\beta H})})$$

$$= -p [-\beta V'(q) e^{-\beta H}] + V'(q) [-\beta p e^{-\beta H}] = 0$$

Again, the steady state corresponds to the Boltzmann weight.

Comment: The steady state is independent from γ , which is a purely kinetic parameter and plays no role in the thermodynamics of

equilibrium systems. It, however, controls the relaxation rate of the system towards steady-state.

Comment: The same result holds for a space-dependent viscosity $\gamma(\vec{q})$, but not for $\Gamma(\vec{q})$, which leads to a nonequilibrium steady state.

Recap so far:

Stochastic dynamics: $\dot{\vec{r}} = -\mu \vec{\nabla} V + \sqrt{2\mu kT} \vec{\xi}$

→ clear physical picture of the dynamics

→ simulations

→ stochastic calculus → evolution of observable

→ correlation functions

Fokker-Planck equation: $\partial_t P = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot [-\mu \vec{\nabla} V P - \mu kT \vec{\nabla} P]$

→ hard to simulate

→ statistical information/intuition through $P(\vec{r})$

e.g. Show that $P_s(\vec{r}) \propto e^{-\beta H}$

→ Now: very powerful operator calculus

4.3) The Fokker-Planck operator

$$\partial_t P = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[kT \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - F(x) \right] P(x, t) \quad (1) \Leftrightarrow \partial_t P = -H_{FP} P \quad \text{where}$$

$H_{FP} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[kT \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - F(x) \right]$ which acts on the Hilbert space of functions

$\mathcal{H}(P)$ that depends on the dimensions & boundary conditions of the problem.