

An important relation between the transition probabilities can be formulated for **Markovian processes**. Summing all possible densities at time t_2 by integrating p_3 over all possible states at time t_2 we get:

joint prob. $p_2(x_1, t_1; x_3, t_3) = \int dx_2 p_3(x_1, t_1; x_2, t_2; x_3, t_3)$ (11)

for the 3 states at three subsequent moments in time $t_1 < t_2 < t_3$

and expanding the two joint probability densities p_2 and p_3 at both sides according to (10) gives **Chapman-Kolmogorov equation**:

$$p_n(x_1, t_1; \dots; x_n, t_n) = p_2(x_n, t_n | x_{n-1}, t_{n-1}) \dots p_2(x_2, t_2 | x_1, t_1) p(x_1, t_1)$$

(10)

cond. prob.

$$p_2(x_3, t_3 | x_1, t_1) = \int dx_2 p_2(x_3, t_3 | x_2, t_2) p_2(x_2, t_2 | x_1, t_1)$$

(12)

basic evolutionary equation for Markovian processes

One can rewrite (12) by distinguishing between trans out of the given state and the prob-ty to stay in the state.

We introduce rates of jumps between different states, $\Delta x \neq 0$, by (freq-ies) $(x \text{ and } \Delta x \text{ at time } t)$

$$W(x \rightarrow x + \Delta x, t) = \lim_{dt \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{dt} p_2(x + \Delta x, t + dt | x, t)$$

(13)

time interval is small

The full transition probability may be replaced for short times by

$$p_2(x, t + dt | x + \Delta x, t) = (1 - dt \int dx' W(x + \Delta x \rightarrow x', t)) \delta(\Delta x) + W(x + \Delta x \rightarrow x, t) dt + O(dt^2)$$

(14)

The first term is the probability remaining in state x with $\Delta x = 0$.

Substituting (14) into the integral of (12) by appropriate assignments gives for the limit $dt \rightarrow 0$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p_2(x, t | x_1, t_1) = \int dx' [W(x' \rightarrow x, t) p_2(x', t | x_1, t_1) - W(x \rightarrow x', t) p_2(x, t | x_1, t_1)]$$

(15)

"in" "out"

(15) is called the master equation, or Pauli equation (2)
in the case of discrete events. It expresses the temporal evolution of probability ^{characteristics} at x _{state} through the balance of out- and inflowing probability.

5.4. Stationarity

A stochastic process is called strictly stationary if the joint probability density depends on the difference between two subsequent times. A change of $t_i \rightarrow t_i + \tau$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ does not affect the probability density. One may also state that the process is independent of the initial time t_0 .

As conclusion one gets immediately for the transition probability density:

$$p_2(x_2, t + \tau | x_1, t) = p_2(x_2, \tau | x_1) \quad (16)$$

It depends on the time difference $\tau = t_2 - t_1$ and is, therefore, time homogeneous.

An important measure characterizing stationarity of a process is its final stationary probability density. If ergodic, the process loses its dependence on the initial state x_0 . The transition probability density in the limit $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ approaches the stationary probability density:

$$p^s(x) = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} p_2(x, \tau | x_0) \quad (17)$$

Asymptotically periodic stochastic processes possess/have asymptotic probability densities which vary periodically in time:

$$p(x, t - t_0) = p(x, t + T - t_0).$$

These processes are invariant with respect to time shifts of one period. Example: periodically driven stochastic systems.

5.5. Moments of stochastic processes

Stochastic processes can be defined by their time-dependent moments. The number of moments which is sufficient to define the stochastic process $\xrightarrow{\text{determ. functions if } \neq \text{ or constants}}$ gives the number of independent parameters of the process. (3)

Gaussian processes

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can be characterized through the first and second moment only (all higher cumulants vanish)

Exponential or Poissonian processes

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all higher moments are expressed through the first moment.

The conditional first moment of the transition probability density is given by

$$\langle x_g(t) \rangle_{x_g(t_0)=x_0} = \int dx \, x \, p_2(x, t | x_0, t_0) \quad (18)$$

In the asymptotic limit $t_0 \rightarrow -\infty$, it loses its dependence on the initial time:

$$\langle x_g(t) \rangle_{\text{asy}} = \lim_{t_0 \rightarrow -\infty} \langle x_g(t) \rangle_{x_g(t_0)=x_0}, \quad (19)$$

if the transition probability density converges in this limit to $p(x, t)$:

$$p_2(x, t | x_0, t_0) \rightarrow p(x, t).$$

For stationary processes this limit is independent of time, and, therefore, without loss of generality, we can assume

$$\langle x \rangle_{\text{asy}} = 0.$$

An important characterization is given by the second moment defined at two different times. Again we have an initial state condition: $x_g(t_0) = x_0$

$$\langle x_z(t) x_z(t+\tau) \rangle_{x_z(t_0)=x_0} = \int dx_1 dx_2 x_1 x_2 p_2(x_2, t+\tau | x_1, t) \cdot p_2(x_1, t | x_0, t_0) \quad (20) \quad (4)$$

It is known as the **autocorrelation function** of the stochastic process x . It may be expressed through the conditional first moment:

$$\int dx_2 \langle x_z(t+\tau) \rangle_{x_z(t)=x_1} x_2 p_2(x_1, t | x_0, t_0) \quad (21)$$

If $t \rightarrow -\infty$ the autocorrelation function (ACF) approaches its asymptotic limit:

$$\langle x_z(t) x_z(t+\tau) \rangle_{asy} = \int dx_1 dx_2 x_1 x_2 p_2(x_1, t, x_2, t+\tau) \quad (22)$$

For $\tau=0$ it equals to the second moment $\langle x^2(t) \rangle$. On the other hand, if $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ (22) factorizes in many cases into:

$$\langle x_z(t) x_z(t+\tau) \rangle_{asy} = \langle x_z(t+\tau) \rangle_{asy} \langle x_z(t) \rangle_{asy} \quad (23)$$

For stationary processes the asymptotic values do not depend explicitly on time, and the stationary ACF remains a function of the time difference τ only:

$$C_{xx}(\tau) = \int dx_1 dx_2 x_1 x_2 p_2(x_1, \tau | x_2) p(x_2). \quad (24)$$

The stationary process is invariant with respect to the shifts in time $t \rightarrow t-\tau$, and it follows that C_{xx} is an even function in time, $C_{xx}(\tau) = C_{xx}(-\tau)$.

The ACF gives an important measure of the stochastic process $\rightarrow$ **the correlation time τ_c** . It can be defined in several ways, but most often it is defined as

$$\tau_c = \frac{1}{C_{x,x}(0)} \int_0^{\infty} dt |C_{x,x}(t)| \quad (25)$$

Example: two-dimensional stochastic process
 $\{x(t), y(t)\}$.

Cross-correlations can be similarly introduced on the basis of the joint probability density $P_{x,y}(x,t; y, t+\tau)$. For the stationary process it gives: $C_{x,y}(\tau) = C_{y,x}(-\tau)$. The absolute value of the correlation function obeys:

$$|C_{x,y}(\tau)|^2 \leq \langle x^2 \rangle \langle y^2 \rangle$$

↑
Cauchy-Schwartz inequality

Therefore, for the ACF:

$$|C_{x,x}| \leq \langle x^2 \rangle$$