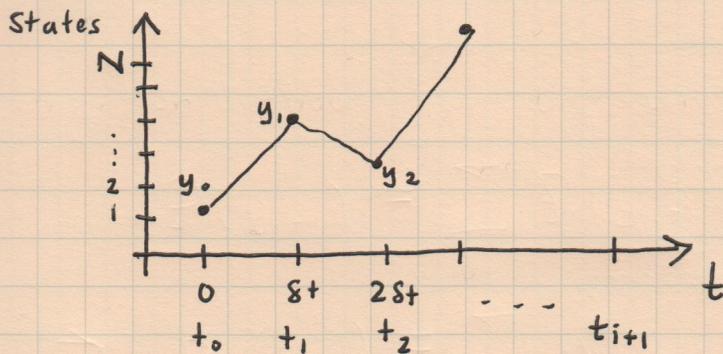


Spring 2017

PHYS 414 notestrajectory $\nu = (y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{i+1})$ 

Key approximation (encapsulates the "randomization" due to environment which causes system to lose dependence on distant past):

Markovian assumption:

$$P(y_{i+1} | y_0, y_1, \dots, y_i) = P(y_{i+1} | y_i)$$

indep. of y_0, \dots, y_{i-1}
dependent only on y_i

Generally one can choose δt large enough such that this is approx. true.

Rewrite:
$$\frac{P(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{i+1})}{P(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_i)} = P(y_{i+1} | y_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{i+1}) = P(y_{i+1} | y_i) P(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_i)$$

sum over all y_0, y_1, \dots, y_i on both sides:

$$\sum_{y_0=1}^N \sum_{y_1=1}^N \dots \sum_{y_i=1}^N P(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_i, y_{i+1})$$

$$= \sum_{y_0} \sum_{y_1} \dots \sum_{y_i} P(y_{i+1} | y_i) P(y_0, y_1, \dots, y_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow P(y_{i+1}) = \sum_{y_i} P(y_{i+1} | y_i) P(y_i)$$

consistent with building up the prob. of the trajectory iteratively:

$$\begin{aligned} P(y_0, \dots, y_i, y_{i+1}) &= P(y_{i+1} | y_i) P(y_0, \dots, y_i) \\ &= P(y_{i+1} | y_i) P(y_i | y_{i-1}) P(y_0, \dots, y_{i-1}) \\ &= \dots \\ &= \left[\prod_{j=0}^i P(y_{j+1} | y_j) \right] P(y_0) \\ &\quad \downarrow \\ &\quad \text{initial distrib. of states} \end{aligned}$$

Key quantity: conditional prob. of state update during time t_i to t_{i+1}

$$\cancel{P(y_i)} \cdot P(y_{i+1} | y_i) \Rightarrow N \times N \text{ matrix}$$

since $y_{i+1} = 1, \dots, N$
 $y_i = 1, \dots, N$

$$\text{Define: } P(y_{i+1} = n | y_i = m) = \underbrace{W_{nm}(t_i)}_{\text{prob. per unit time (or prob. rate) to transition from } m \rightarrow n \text{ between } t_i \text{ and } t_{i+1} = t_i + \delta t.}$$

$W(t)$ matrix is determined by environment. In many cases $W(t) = W$ (no time dependence) if environmental parameters (temp, pressure, etc.) stay same.

properties of W : $\sum_{y_{i+1}} P(y_{i+1} | y_i) = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_n \delta t W_{nm}(t_i) = 1$$

$$\delta t \times (\text{sum of a column}) = 1$$

Our equation above can be written:

$$P(y_{i+1}) = \sum_{y_i} P(y_{i+1} | y_i) P(y_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow P_n(t_{i+1}) = \sum_m W_{nm}(t_i) P_m(t_i) \delta t$$

vector
form

$$\vec{p}(t_{i+1}) = W(t_i) \vec{p}(t_i) \delta t$$

\Rightarrow discrete time master equation

can iterate matrix multiplication
to get $\vec{p}(t_{i+1})$ assuming some
initial $\vec{p}(t_0)$.

Kinetic network: every W matrix can be
visualized as a graph,
with each element \Rightarrow directed arrow

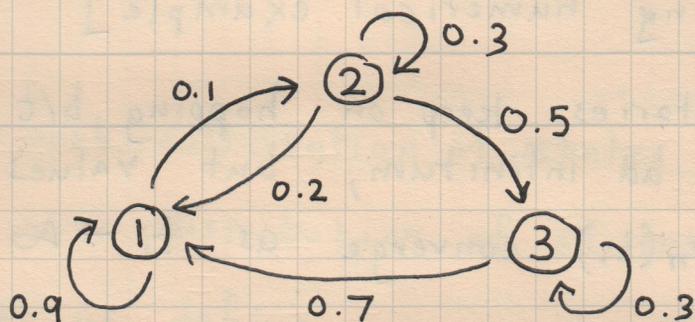
Example: $W(t) = W =$

	1	2	3	
1	0.9	0.2	0.7	[units: s ⁻¹]
2	0.1	0.3	0	
3	0	0.5	0.3	
	1	1	1	

$\delta t = 1 \text{ s}$

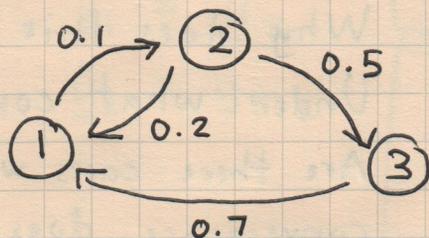
columns sum to 1

network:



typical drawing convention: leave out self-arrows, since these are understood to exist in order to keep columns normalized

i.e.



Discrete master equation allows solving for

$$\vec{p}(t_{i+1}) \quad \text{or} \quad p_n(t_{i+1}) = \frac{\# \text{ of exper. runs with state } n \text{ at time } t_{i+1}}{\text{total } \# \text{ of exper. runs}}$$

How would you generate an "experimental" run on a computer?

algorithm:

at every time step

```

do for
  r = random(0, 1)
  if (state = 1) then {
    if (r ≤ 0.1 δt) then state = 2 }
  if (state = 2) then {
    if (r ≤ 0.2 δt) then state = 1
    if (0.2 δt ≤ r ≤ (0.2 + 0.5) δt) then state = 3 }
  if (state = 3) then {
    if (r ≤ 0.7 δt) then state = 1 }
  t = t + δt
  
```

74 [Slides showing numerical example]

Note: trajectories keep on hopping b/t
in states ad infinitum, but values
the example of $p_n(t_i)$ converge as $t_i \rightarrow \infty$.

This convergence, when $p_n(t_i) \rightarrow p_n^s$ constant value
as $t_i \rightarrow \infty$ is called a
stationary state of the system.

Big questions: Why does this happen?
Under what conditions?
Are there cases where this
convergence does not occur?

Question #1 : Does there exist at least one stationary solution?

discrete master equation

$$\vec{p}(t_{i+1}) = [W \delta t] \vec{p}(t_i)$$

$$\text{stationary solution: } \vec{p}^s(t_{i+1}) = \vec{p}^s(t_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{p}^s = [W \delta t] \vec{p}^s \Rightarrow \vec{p}^s \text{ is right e-vec w/ e-val } 1$$

[Assume W is time indep \Rightarrow environmental parameters fixed]

Property of any real matrix M , i.e. $M = W \delta t$
(not necessarily symmetric $M \neq M^T$)

~~If there exists a left e-vec.~~

\Rightarrow Eigenvalues of left and right e-vecs are the same.

Proof: Let \vec{v} be ~~right e-vec~~, left e-vec:

$$\cancel{M \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}}$$

$$\vec{v}^T M = \lambda \vec{v}^T$$

then \vec{v} is also an ~~e~~ right e-vec of M^T :

$$M^T \vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v} \quad (\text{take transpose of both sides})$$

so λ is a solution to:

$$\det(M^T - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \det((M - \lambda I)^T) = 0 \quad \text{since } I = I^T$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(M - \lambda I) = 0 \quad \text{since } \cancel{\det M^T} = \det M$$

hence λ is also a solution to the right e-vec equation of M ,
 $\det A^T = \det A$
 \therefore there must exist a right e-vec

$$M \vec{u} = \lambda \vec{u}$$

(at least one such e-vec must exist)

If $M \neq M^T$, then \vec{u} can be different than \vec{v}

For $M = W \delta t$, the vector $\vec{v}^T = (1, 1, 1, \dots, 1)$ is a left e-vec w/ e-val $\lambda = 1$, because:

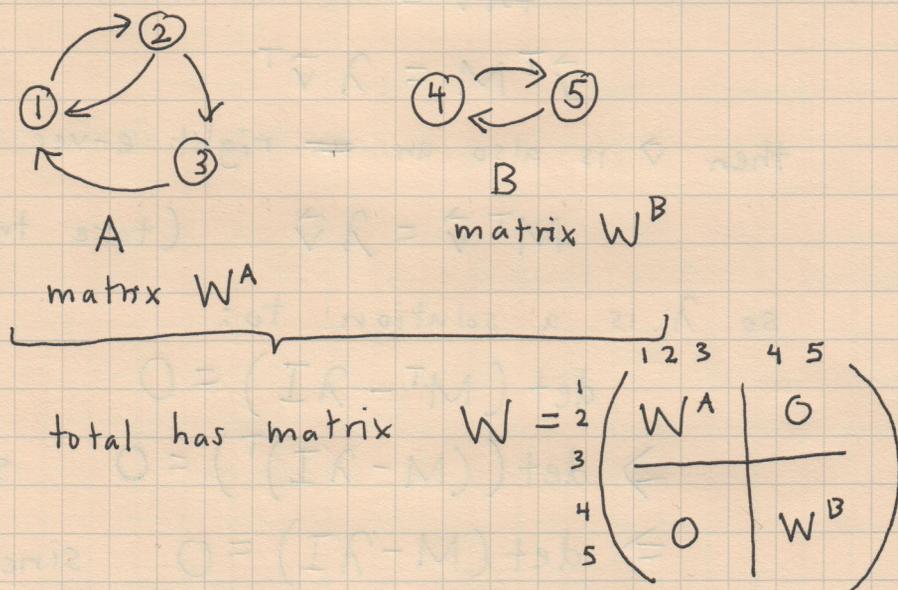
$$(\vec{v}^T M)_m = \sum_n v_n^T W_{nm} \delta t = \sum_n W_{nm} \delta t = 1 = (\vec{v}^T)_m$$

Hence $W \delta t$ must have at least one right e-vec w/ eigenvalue $1 \Rightarrow$ true for any time-indep. W .

Question #2 Under what conditions is \vec{p}^s a unique solution (only one right e-vec corresponding to $\lambda=1$)?

We can easily find situations where \vec{p}^s is not unique.

Consider a disconnected network w/ two connected pieces A and B.



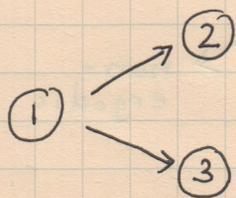
Let \vec{p}_A^s be a stat. state of A (3 comp. vector)

and \vec{p}_B^s be a stat. state of B (2 comp. vector)

then $\vec{p}^s = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{p}_A^s \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\vec{p}^s = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vec{p}_B^s \end{pmatrix}$ are both stat. states of total

So we want the network to be connected as a necessary condition (but not sufficient) to have unique \vec{p}^s .

Even connected networks can have multiple \vec{p}^s :



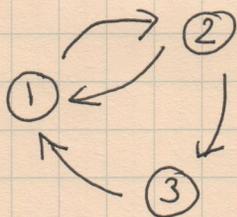
$$\vec{p}^s = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{p}^s = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

are stat. states

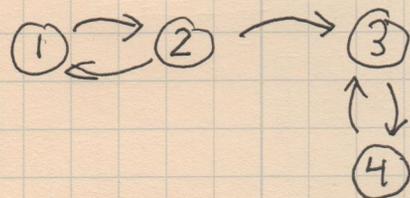
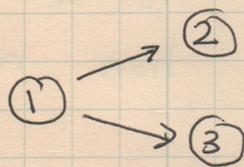
Thus we demand a network be strongly connected: you can reach any other state, starting from any state, following arrows.

This is also called an ergodic network: if you wait long enough, every state will be visited during a trajectory (and you will return to each state ∞ times as $t \rightarrow \infty$).

ergodic network



non-ergodic:



For thermodynamics to make sense, we will demand an even stronger condition:

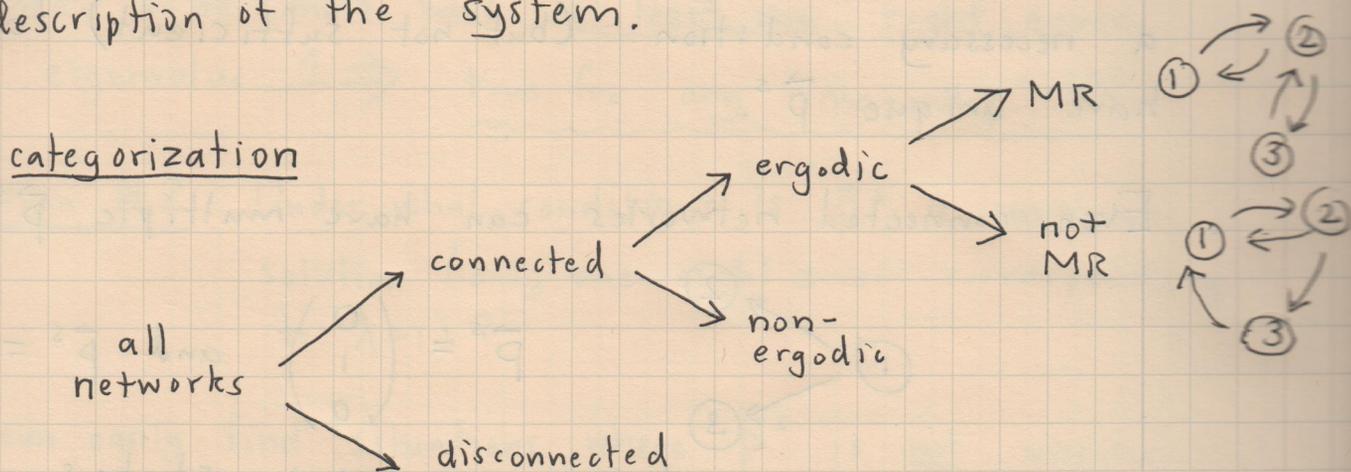
microscopic reversibility: if $W_{mn} \neq 0$, then $W_{nm} \neq 0$

(if two states are connected, arrows must go both ways)

(MR) Microscopic reversibility is a physical assumption, and we will return to its justification later.

In practice, if W_{nm} ($m \rightarrow n$ transition) is large, the reverse W_{mn} ($n \rightarrow m$) may be infinitesimally small (but still technically nonzero).

Without MR you cannot have a thermodynamic description of the system.



note: for ergodic network, vector \vec{p}^s cannot have any zero elements (all states are visited)

But the question still remains:

even if we demand MR, is \vec{p}^s unique?

To answer this, we define a measure of how reversible or irreversible a given trajectory is.