

Stochastic Structural Dynamics
Prof. Dr. C. S. Manohar
Department of Civil Engineering
Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore

Lecture No. # 22
Markov Vector Approach-2

(Refer Slide Time: 00:32)

Recall

$$p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n; t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) = \underbrace{p(x_1; t_1)}_{\text{Initial pdf}} \underbrace{\prod_{v=2}^n p(x_v; t_v | x_{v-1}; t_{v-1})}_{\text{Product of transitional pdfs}}$$

Multi-dimensional jpdf

$$p(x_2, t_2 | x_1, t_1) = \int p(x_2, t_2 | x, \tau) p(x, \tau | x_1, t_1) dx$$

for all $t_1 < \tau < t_2$


Kinetic equation


$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial x} = 0 \text{ \& BCS and IC}$$

$$\lambda(x, t) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^{n-1}}{\partial x^{n-1}} [\alpha_n(x, t) p(x, t)]$$

$$p(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t + \Delta t) - X(t)]^n | X(t) = x \rangle, n = 1, 2, \dots$$

$t_1 < \tau < t_2$





So, in this lecture, we will continue with our discussion on properties of Markov processes and how they can be used to analyze probabilistic characteristics of response of randomly driven dynamical systems.

A quick recall of what we did in the previous lecture; we showed, that for a Markov random process, the nth order joint probability density function can be expressed in terms of the initial probability density function, and products of, what are known as transitional probability density function.

So, complete specification of a Markov process, therefore, could be in terms of the initial probability distribution function and this transition - transitional - probability density functions for different choices of t_1, t_2, t_3, t_n and for different choices of n .

We also showed that, the transitional probability density function need to satisfy a compatibility condition known as Chapman-Kolmogorov Smoluchowski equation, where if we consider three time instants x_1 , x_2 and τ , so that, t_1 , t_2 and τ , so that τ lies between t_1 and t_2 ; if we consider the transition from t_1 to t_2 , and look at transition from t_1 to τ , τ to t_2 , you should get the same answer. So, for that to happen, the transition PDF should satisfy this condition and this is known as the Chapman-Kolmogorov Smoluchowski equation.

We also went through a sumo Tds derivation of the governing equation, for evaluation of probability density function of a scalar random process. We showed, that this equation known as kinetic equation has a found, $\frac{dp}{dt} + \lambda \frac{dx}{dx} = 0$ and we discuss the associated the boundary condition and initial condition. This λ , λ for x comma t is expressed in terms of the probability density function, and quantities denoted by α_n , which were known as derivative moments.

So, if you have to utilize this kinetic equation to solve any given problem, we should first evolve a method to determine these derivative moments, because they are the parameters in this governing differential equation.

(Refer Slide Time: 03:05)

Simple random walk

Let $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be an iid sequence of random variables with

$$P(X = \Delta x) = p$$

$$P(X = -\Delta x) = q$$

such that $p + q = 1$.

$$\langle X \rangle = P(X = \Delta x)(\Delta x) + P(X = -\Delta x)(-\Delta x)$$

$$= \Delta x(p - q)$$

$$\langle X^2 \rangle = P(X = \Delta x)(\Delta x)^2 + P(X = -\Delta x)(-\Delta x)^2$$


$$= \Delta x^2(p + q)$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \langle X^2 \rangle - \langle X \rangle^2$$

$$= \Delta x^2(p + q) - \Delta x^2(p - q)^2$$

$$= \Delta x^2(p + q) - \Delta x^2(p - q)^2 \quad (\because p + q = 1)$$

$$= \Delta x^2[(p + q) - (p - q)^2] = 4pq\Delta x^2$$



So, in this lecture, we will consider some of this questions; and we will begin by considering some properties of simple random walk, and how they behave as Δx and

delta t goes to 0; this I had discussed in earlier, one of the earlier lectures; we will proceed beyond what we did in this previous lectures.

So, let us consider, X_i running from 1 to infinity to be on sequence of identically distributed and independent random variables, with three states; probability of X equal to delta x is p, probabilities of X equal to minus delta X is q, so the p plus q is 1. So, the expected value of the X would be delta x into p minus q, and mean square value would be delta x square into p plus q; p plus q is 1, but I still choose to return this as p plus q; variance should be the mean square value minus square of the mean; and we write this in terms of the mean square value and the square of the mean, and manipulate these expressions and we get the variance to be $4pq$ delta x square.

(Refer Slide Time: 04:19)

Let t be the time axis and let us divide the interval $(0, t)$ into n subintervals each of width Δt such that $n\Delta t = t$.

Define $S(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$

$\Rightarrow \langle S(t) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle X_i \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n (p - q) \Delta x$

$= n(p - q) \Delta x //$

$= t(p - q) \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$

$\text{Var}[S(t)] = t 4pq \Delta x^2$

$= t 4pq \frac{\Delta x^2}{\Delta t}$

The slide also features two diagrams: the top one shows a horizontal axis with a red arrow pointing right and another pointing left, representing steps in a random walk; the bottom one shows a red step function graph on a coordinate system, representing the cumulative displacement $S(t)$ over time t .

Now, let us consider t to be the time axis and let us divide the interval 0 to t into n sub intervals, each of width delta t, such that, n delta t is t . Now, I define S of t , a sum of X_i from i equal to 1 to n . Expected value of S of t is expectation of the right hand side, which I show, this to be n into p minus q into delta x; now, substituting for n in terms of t , I can write it as, t into p minus q delta x by delta t. Variance of S of t is $4pq$ delta x square into t , and that I can write it as, the $4pq$ t into delta x square by delta t. Now, this is simple random walk; so, what we are doing is, we are considering n time instants and a every time instants and I am tossing a coin, and if I get head, I will move this way; and if I get, I mean actually one-dimensional, I will move backward or forward, depending on

whether I get tail or head; and S of t tells me, after n such tosses, where I am in time axis. So, we are executing random walk on a line, and that we show, for example, forward moments if I show on this direction and negative one in this side, suppose at this moment I get a head, I move up, I stay put till the next toss, and if I get a head, I move up, stay put, move up, stay put, come down, come down, so on and so far; so, this is one realization of x sequence of toss. So, at any time t , S of t tells me in my position on these line.

(Refer Slide Time: 06:17)

Remarks

- $S(t)$ is known as a simple random walk.
- $S(t)$ is a discrete state, discrete parameter random process.
- Consider the limit of $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$

\Rightarrow

$$\lim_{\substack{\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \\ \Delta t \rightarrow 0}} \langle S \rangle = \lim_{\substack{\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \\ \Delta t \rightarrow 0}} t(p-q) \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$

and

$$\lim_{\substack{\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \\ \Delta t \rightarrow 0}} \text{Var} [S(t)] = \lim_{\substack{\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \\ \Delta t \rightarrow 0}} t 4pq \frac{\Delta x^2}{\Delta t} \rightarrow 0$$

\Rightarrow

In the limit of $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, $S(t)$ becomes a deterministic function.
 This is not an interesting limit from probabilistic point of view.

NPTEL

So, S of t is known as simple random walk. Now, the S of t is the discrete state, discrete parameter random process; it is a Markov chain. Now, what I am interested here is, what happens to this random walk, as we take limits of Δx going to 0 and Δt going to 0. If I do that, limit Δx is going to 0, Δt going to 0 of expected value of S , I get t into p minus q times Δx by Δt , which is the meaningful limit, because both Δx Δt are going to 0; so, it can be a meaningful limit.

But on the other hand, if we look at a similar limit on variance, that is, limit Δx is going to 0, Δt is going to 0, you will look at variance, where to look at $4pq t \Delta x^2$ by Δt ; as Δx goes to 0, the numerator goes to 0. So, this can be written as Δx into Δx divided by Δt ; so, we can see that the variance goes to 0.

That means, if variance is 0, that corresponding quantity is essentially deterministic; so, in the limited Δx going to 0 and Δt going to 0, S of t becomes a deterministic

functions. This is not an interesting limit from the point of view of probabilistic analysis, right; S of t is a random walk, which is a discrete state, discrete parameter random process, but under this limit of Δx going to 0 and Δt going to 0, we get a deterministic process; so, this is not interesting; what can we do now?

(Refer Slide Time: 07:58)

Wiener and Brownian motion Processes

Consider the following limit of the simple random walk

$\Delta x^2 \rightarrow 0$ as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$

with

$\Delta x = \sigma \Delta t; p = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \frac{\mu \sqrt{\Delta t}}{\sigma} \right]; q = \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \frac{\mu \sqrt{\Delta t}}{\sigma} \right]$

\Rightarrow

$\langle S(t) \rangle \rightarrow \mu t$

$\text{Var}[S(t)] \rightarrow \sigma^2 t$


This is an interesting limit!

Let us do the following. Now, let us consider the limit of simple random walk in which Δx square goes to 0, as Δt goes to 0; in that case, what happens? I will rearrange this terms slightly, I will write the Δx is a $\sigma \Delta t$, and p and q are write in the particular form, I introduce the parameter in μ and σ ; and I can show that, under these assumptions, the expected value of S of t goes to μt , and variance goes to σ square t . Mind you the limiting operation is quite peculiar, it is Δx square goes to 0, Δt goes to 0; that means, Δx goes to 0, square root of Δt goes to 0.

(Refer Slide Time: 08:52)

Remarks

- The resulting process is known as the Wiener process.
- This is a process with continuous state and continuous parameter.
- The process is a Gaussian process (central limit theorem).
- The process is nonstationary
- If $\mu = 0$, the process is known as a Brownian motion process.
- Without loss of generality we take $B(0) = 0$.

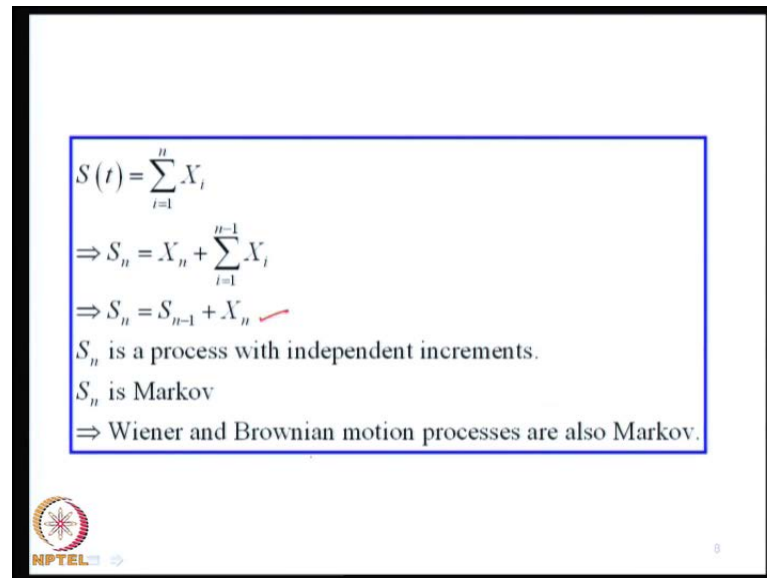
7

So, the resulting process is known as Wiener process. A simple random walk, in which Δx^2 goes to 0, as Δt goes to 0 leads to a random process, which was continuous time in state and that process is known as Wiener process.

The process is Gaussian, because S of t obtained by adding independent random variables, and we can invoke central limit theorem and prove that the process is actually Gaussian. The process is non-stationary, because mean and variance, function or functions of time; and if mean is 0, we see that the process is a Brownian motion process.


Now, without loss of generality, we take $B(0)$ to be 0. So, the Brownian motion process is a non-stationary Gaussian random process, which is obtained as the limit of a simple random walk, in which Δx^2 goes to 0 and Δt goes to 0. Because of this peculiar property, the sample behavior of the Brownian motion will have many pathologies, and that we need to understand, if you want to proceed with these models.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:00)



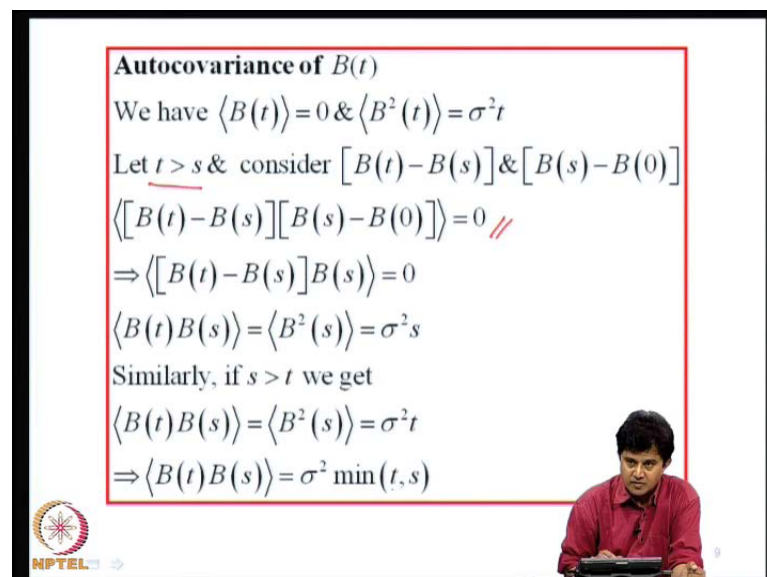
$$S(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$
$$\Rightarrow S_n = X_n + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} X_i$$
$$\Rightarrow S_n = S_{n-1} + X_n$$

S_n is a process with independent increments.
 S_n is Markov
 \Rightarrow Wiener and Brownian motion processes are also Markov.





Now, let us look at this random walk a bit more closely, S of t is sum of i equal to 1 to n X_i ; therefore, S can be written as, X_n plus S_{n-1} as shown here. So, S_n is the process with the independent increments, S_n is Markov. Since Wiener and Brownian motion process is obtained as limit of random walk, the Wiener and Brownian motion processes are also Markov in nature.

(Refer Slide Time: 10:30)



Autocovariance of $B(t)$
We have $\langle B(t) \rangle = 0$ & $\langle B^2(t) \rangle = \sigma^2 t$
Let $t > s$ & consider $[B(t) - B(s)]$ & $[B(s) - B(0)]$
 $\langle [B(t) - B(s)][B(s) - B(0)] \rangle = 0$
 $\Rightarrow \langle [B(t) - B(s)]B(s) \rangle = 0$
 $\langle B(t)B(s) \rangle = \langle B^2(s) \rangle = \sigma^2 s$
Similarly, if $s > t$ we get
 $\langle B(t)B(s) \rangle = \langle B^2(t) \rangle = \sigma^2 t$
 $\Rightarrow \langle B(t)B(s) \rangle = \sigma^2 \min(t, s)$





Now, let us look at some of the properties of Brownian motion process. I would derive the mean, the mean is 0, and variance we have derived. Now, let us look at the mean is 0

and the variance is sigma square t, that is what we have to done. Now, let us look at auto covariance of B of t. Let us consider two time instant, t and s, so t is greater than s; and we consider the increments, B of t minus B of s and B of s minus B of 0. So, I am considering the 0 s and t, three times instants and looking at the increments.

Now, since the process as independent increments, the expected value of B of t minus B of s into B of s into B of 0 is 0, because processes independent increments. Now, B of 0 have to taken into be 0; therefore, B of s into B of t minus B of s 0. So, that would mean, expected value of B of t into B of s is nothing but B square of s, which is sigma square s. So, here, I am assuming t is greater than s; if you assume s to be greater than t, we get this expectation to be sigma square into t; or in other words, I can write auto covariance of B of t as expected value B of t into B of s is, sigma square and min(t,s).

(Refer Slide Time: 11:49)

$\langle B(t)B(s) \rangle = \sigma^2 \min(t, s)$
 $R_{BB}(t, s) = \sigma^2 \min(t, s)$
 Consider $s > t$ Consider $t > s$
 $R_{BB}(t, s) = \sigma^2 t$ with $s > t$ $R_{BB}(t, s) = \sigma^2 s$ with $t > s$
 $\frac{\partial R_{BB}(t, s)}{\partial t} = \sigma^2 U(s-t)$ $\frac{\partial R_{BB}(t, s)}{\partial s} = \sigma^2 U(t-s)$
 $\frac{\partial^2 R_{BB}(t, s)}{\partial t \partial s} = \sigma^2 \delta(s-t)$ $\frac{\partial^2 R_{BB}(t, s)}{\partial t \partial s} = \sigma^2 \delta(t-s)$
 Recall $\delta(ax) = \frac{1}{|a|} \delta(x)$. Δ
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 R_{BB}(t, s)}{\partial t \partial s} = \sigma^2 \delta(t-s)$

So, I will write R B B t comma s is, sigma square minimum of t comma s. Now, let us consider s to be greater than t; I am interested in derivatives of Brownian motion process. So, if I now differentiate the auto covariance with respect to t, I will get, if I assume s to be greater than t, R BB sigma square t is greater than t; therefore, this derivative can be written as, sigma square into unit step function s minus t.

If I now differentiate the next time, the step functions becomes a Direct delta function and I get sigma square s minus t. We can also consider situation t greater than s separately, and using similar logic, we can also show that, dou square R BB t comma s

double delta of t minus s is sigma square. Direct delta of t minus s. But if you recall, Direct delta of a x is nothing but 1 divided by modulus of a into Direct delta of x. So, using that property, we can show that, the second derivative of R BB with respect to t and s is, it can be written as, sigma square delta of t minus s; this is, as we know is auto covariance of white noise process.

(Refer Slide Time: 13:06)

BMP and Gaussian white noise process

$$R_{BB}(t,s) = \sigma^2 \min(t,s) \quad \& \quad \frac{\partial^2 R_{BB}(t,s)}{\partial t \partial s} = \sigma^2 \delta(t-s)$$

Notice: $\sigma^2 \delta(t-s)$ is the autocovariance function of a white noise process.

\Rightarrow Gaussian white noise can be viewed as the formal derivative of a Brownian motion process.

- **Note:** BMP is not pathwise differentiable in the meansquare sense because $\lim_{t \rightarrow s} \frac{\partial^2 R_{BB}(t,s)}{\partial t \partial s} \rightarrow \infty$.

• $dB(t) = W(t)dt$

Handwritten note: $\frac{dB}{dt} = W(t)$

NPTEL

So, we have R BB of t comma s is, sigma square minimum t comma s and its second derivatives sigma square delta of t minus s. Sigma square delta t minus s is auto covariance function of a white noise process. Therefore, a Gaussian white noise process can be viewed as the formal derivative of a Brownian motion process.

Now, you should notice that BMP is not path wise differentiable in the mean square sense, because as limit t tends to s, we are already getting this in Direct delta of function, that shows that it is not differentiable in the mean square sense, right; path wise it is not differentiable. But if you differentiate the auto covariance of the Brownian motion process and allow Direct delta representation in that, in that generalize sense, we get the second derivative of auto covariance Brownian motion process, leads to the auto covariance of white noise processes.

Therefore, we say that, white noise - Gaussian white noise - can be interpreted as a formal derivative of Brownian motion process. The word formal emphasizes, that I am not talking about samples; a sample of white noise do not exist, because the variance of

white noise is infinity and therefore it is not physically realizable. On the other hand, I can write dB by dt , formally can be written as, you know, the formal derivative of Brownian motion is white noise; I can write the increment of the Brownian motion process as W of t into $d t$.

(Refer Slide Time: 14:56)

Increments of BMP

$$\Delta B(t) = B(t + \Delta t) - B(t)$$

$$\langle \Delta B(t) \rangle = \langle B(t + \Delta t) - B(t) \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle \Delta B^2(t) \rangle = \langle \{B(t + \Delta t) - B(t)\}^2 \rangle$$

$$= \langle B^2(t + \Delta t) + B^2(t) - 2B(t + \Delta t)B(t) \rangle$$

$$= \sigma^2 [t + \Delta t + t - 2t]$$

$$= \sigma^2 \Delta t$$

So, the increments of Brownian motion process $\Delta B t$ is B of t plus Δt minus B of t . What is mean of this? Mean is 0. What is its variance? The B of t plus Δt minus B of t whole square; you expand this and we use the, we need auto covariance of B of t plus Δt and B of t , and we know that the sigma square minimum of t comma s if you use and simplify this, we can show that the variance of the increment is sigma square Δt . We should notice that the increment is on Δt , but the variance which is square is again linear function of Δt .

(Refer Slide Time: 15:46)

Fokker Planck equation

Example

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = w(t); x(0) = x_0 \quad \checkmark$$

$3\sigma^4 \quad \Delta t^2$

$$\langle w(t) \rangle = 0; \langle w(t_1)w(t_2) \rangle = 2D\delta(t_1 - t_2)$$

$$dx(t) = dB(t); x(0) = x_0$$



Recall

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} [\alpha_1(x, t)p(x; t)] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [\alpha_2(x, t)p(x; t)] //$$

$$\alpha_n(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t + \Delta t) - X(t)]^n | X(t) = x \rangle //$$

$$\alpha_1(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle dB(t) | X(t) = x \rangle = 0$$

$$\alpha_2(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [dB(t)]^2 | X(t) = x \rangle = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} 2D\Delta t = 2D$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2}; p(x; 0) = \delta(x); p(\pm\infty; t) = 0 //$$



Now, let us look at simple problem, dx by dt is white noise, with initial condition x of 0 is x naught, and the mean of this is 0 and auto covariance is delta function. Now, this is the governing equation, I will write this as, dx of t as dB t , with x of 0 as 0. Now, we have this Fokker-Planck equation, $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}$ which is minus $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ α_1 x comma t p of x comma t etcetera etcetera.

What is α_n ? α_n are this derivative moments, which involves n th moment of the increment. Now, let us start with α_1 , α_1 will be $\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} dB$ of t , x of t plus Δt minus x of t , d x of t , which is dB of t ; so dB of t condition x of t equal to x is 0, because expected value of dB of t 0; α_2 is expected value of dB of t whole square condition x of t equal to x and this is $2D \Delta t$, and $\Delta t \Delta t$ gets cancelled, and I have $2D$.

Now, if you consider α_3 , it will be dB cube of t ; expected value of t dB cube is 0, because B of t is a Gaussian random process with 0 mean, so expected value of cube of random Gaussian random variable is 0. You consider the fourth moment, fourth moment will be 3 into 4th power of the variance, and this will involve Δt square and Δt square in the numerator divided by Δt will be Δt ; and as Δt goes to 0, α_4 goes to 0. So, all higher alphas go to 0, for based on one similar logic, and therefore, the kinetic equation terminates at only two terms; so, this is a kinetic equation that we have to write.

Now, we talking about derivative - formal derivative - Brownian motion process; therefore, the boundaries are x equal to plus minus infinity, because we are talking about Gaussian random processes. So, the initial condition will be this and boundary condition would be this. So, we have to solve this equation, under this prescribed initial conditions and boundary conditions.

(Refer Slide Time: 18:03)

FPK equation
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2}; p(x; 0) = \delta(x - x_0); p(\pm\infty; t) = 0$

Solution
 Consider the characteristic function
 $M(\theta, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x; t) \exp(i\theta x) dx$
 $p(x; t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} M(\theta, t) \exp(-i\theta x) d\theta$
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial M(\theta, t)}{\partial t} \exp(-i\theta x) d\theta$
 $\frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -\theta^2 M(\theta, t) \exp(i\theta x) d\theta$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial M(\theta, t)}{\partial t} \exp(i\theta x) d\theta = D \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -\theta^2 M(\theta, t) \exp(i\theta x) d\theta$

NPTEL 14

(Refer Slide Time: 18:43)

$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial M(\theta, t)}{\partial t} \exp(i\theta x) d\theta = D \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -\theta^2 M(\theta, t) \exp(i\theta x) d\theta$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial M(\theta, t)}{\partial t} + D\theta^2 M(\theta, t) = 0$
 $M(\theta, t) = M_0 \exp(-D\theta^2 t)$
 $M(\theta, 0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x - x_0) \exp(i\theta x) dx = \exp(i\theta x_0)$
 $\Rightarrow M(\theta, t) = \exp(i\theta x_0 - D\theta^2 t)$
 $\Rightarrow p(x, t) \sim N(x_0, Dt)$
 $p(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi Dt}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x - x_0}{\sqrt{Dt}}\right)^2\right]; -\infty < x < \infty$
 $X(t)$ is a nonstationary, Gaussian, Markov random process

NPTEL 15

Now, in this particular example, it is easy to solve this, we can consider the characteristic function, I will call it as m of theta comma t, which is the Fourier transform of the

density function. And I will express now in density function in terms of the characteristic function, and find out, now, $\frac{d p}{d t}$ and $\frac{d^2 p}{d x^2}$, this is like using Fourier transform technique to solve partial differential equation.

So, $\frac{d p}{d t}$ would be in terms of this and $\frac{d^2 p}{d x^2}$ will be in terms of this. Now, we substitute these two into the original equation, I get this; little bit of simplification would lead to ordinary differential equation, for the characteristic equation the characteristic function, and I can get m of θ comma t M naught exponential minus $D \theta^2 t$. Now, what is M θ comma 0 ? Which is actually the Fourier transform of the density function - probability density function - at t equal to 0 , which is Dirac delta function and I get this $i \theta x$ naught.

So, this M naught which is arbitrary constant now turns out to be this. So, if I now substitute into this, this M naught already written, this $i \theta x$ naught minus $D \theta^2 t$; this is nothing but the characteristic function of a Gaussian noise random variable. So, it would mean that, probability density of x comma t is normal function n , with mean x naught and variance Dt , and this is written here. So, from this, you can see that, x of t is non-stationary Gaussian and Markov.

So, I am talking about the formal derivative of Brownian, you know, Brownian is actually, this is we are talking about Brownian motion process, dB by Dt equal to w of t is equation I am solving. So, these are the property of b of t ; this is a Brownian motion process that am talking about. So, this tells as, briefly illustrate how the kinetic equation can be used to analyze a relatively simple problem. We would be interested in this approach, if this approach can be generalized to more complicated systems; so, how do we do that?

(Refer Slide Time: 20:24)

Alternative derivation of the FPK equation
Let $X(t)$ be a scalar Markov random process.
By virtue of CKS equation, the following is true.
$$p(x_2, t_2 | x_1, t_1) = \int p(x_2, t_2 | x, \tau) p(x, \tau | x_1, t_1) dx$$

for all $t_1 < \tau < t_2$.
This is an integral equation. The FPK equation is the associated PDE and can be derived as follows.
Consider
$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y, t | x_0, t_0) dy$$

Here $R(y)$ is an arbitrary function that admits Taylor's expansion and $R(\pm\infty) \rightarrow 0$ sufficiently fast.

The slide features a lecturer in a red shirt in the bottom right corner and an NPTEL logo in the bottom left corner.

Before we get into that, there is an alternative derivation of the Fokker-Planck equation, in terms of the Chapman-Kolmogorov Smoluchowski equation and that is instructive; so, let us go through that. So, let X of t to be a scalar Markov random process and the virtue of Chapman-Kolmogorov Smoluchowski equation, the following will be true; this integral equation is true, where t_1 is t_1 τ t_2 are ordered as shown here.

Now, this is an integral equation. Now, for an given integral equation, we can always derive an associated partial differential equation; and indeed, such that partial differential equation would be the Fokker-Planck equation. We can show that; that would mean Fokker-Planck represents the consistency condition for the process to be Markov, just as this CKS equation represents the consistency conditions for process to be Markov. So, how do we do that? We do, we start by considering an integral minus infinity into plus infinity R of y $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p$ by $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p$ by $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p$ dy . This R of y presently arbitrary function, that admits Taylor's expansion that immediate smooth and well behaved, and also it approaches plus minus infinity sufficiently fast. What exactly mean by this, it will become clear, as we go along; it is a well-behaved function.

(Refer Slide Time: 21:53)

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y; t | x_0; t_0) dy \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} [p(y; t + \Delta t | x_0; t_0) - p(y; t | x_0; t_0)] dy \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) [p(y; t + \Delta t | x_0; t_0) - p(y; t | x_0; t_0)] dy \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) p(y; t | x_0; t_0) dy \right] \right\} \dots (1) \\
 R(y) &= R(x + y - x) = R(x) + (y - x)R'(x) + \frac{(y - x)^2}{2!} R''(x) + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, let us look at this integral i, and I will write this as, this derivative in terms of this limit, dou p by dou t is nothing but 1 by delta t p of t plus delta t minus p of t divided by delta t is delta t goes to 0. So, I will look at this, now, p of y t plus delta t condition x naught t naught, and I will use the CKS equation to represent that in the first term, this is this; in the second term remains as it is. So, I have utilize the factor x of t is Markov. This R of y, I will now expand in Taylor's expansion around x, I will consider R of y and expand around x as shown here, and this expansion is permissible, because I assume R of x is sufficiently smooth; so, I go back and substitute this into the first integral.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:53)

The first of the integral reads

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx \right] dy \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[R(x) + (y - x)R'(x) + \frac{(y - x)^2}{2!} R''(x) + \dots \right] \\
 &\quad \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx \right] dy \\
 \text{Consider } &\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx \right] dy \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) dy \right] dx \\
 &\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx \quad (\text{This cancels with the last term in equation 1})
 \end{aligned}$$

(Refer Slide Time: 23:26)

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y; t | x_0; t_0) dy \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} [p(y; t + \Delta t | x_0; t_0) - p(y; t | x_0; t_0)] dy \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) [p(y; t + \Delta t | x_0; t_0) - p(y; t | x_0; t_0)] dy \\
 &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx \right. \right. \\
 &\quad \left. \left. - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) p(y; t | x_0; t_0) dy \right] \right\} \cdot (1) \\
 R(y) &= R(x + y - x) = R(x) + (y - x)R'(x) + \frac{(y - x)^2}{2!} R''(x) + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

So, R of y into the terms involving the in the CKS equation, I will write like this, and R of x R of y, I am writing in terms of Taylor's expansion and this remains as it is. And I am now considering the first term here, R of x into this here; and we can interchange order of integration, and one of the integration with respect to y, the time actually 1, because the area under the probability density function; and I get R of x p of x x at t condition x naught t naught, this term, and this term just cancel with the second term, that is present here; so, this system now forget; so, what we are left with now? Terms I contributing from the second term onwards.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:41)

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[(y - x)R'(x) + \frac{(y - x)^2}{2!} R''(x) + \dots \right] \\
 &\quad \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx \right] dy \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R'(x) p(x; t | x_0; t_0) \left[\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y - x) p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) dy \right] dx \\
 &\quad + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{R''(x)}{2} p(x; t | x_0; t_0) \left[\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y - x)^2 p(y; t + \Delta t | x; t) dy \right] dx + \dots \\
 I &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [R'(x)A(x, t) + R''(x)B(x, t) + R'''(x)C(x, t) + \dots] p(x; t | x_0; t_0) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

If we do that, first one is gone; so, I am writing in this in terms of this. And a little bit of manipulations of rearranging this terms will show as, that this i can be written as R prime of x into A, R double prime of x into A, this is B or triple prime into C, etcetera into dx.

(Refer Slide Time: 24:10)

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [R'(x)A(x,t) + R''(x)B(x,t) + R'''(x)C(x,t) + \dots] p(x;t | x_0, t_0) dx$$

$$A(x,t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y-x) p(y;t + \Delta t | x;t) dy$$

$$B(x,t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y-x)^2 p(y;t + \Delta t | x;t) dy$$

$$C(x,t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y-x)^3 p(y;t + \Delta t | x;t) dy \dots$$

Consider the first term

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R'(x)A(x,t)p(x;t | x_0, t_0) dx$$



$$= \left[\underbrace{A(x,t)p(x;t | x_0, t_0)R(x)}_0 \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [A(x,t)p(x;t | x_0, t_0)] dx$$

$$= - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [A(x,t)p(x;t | x_0, t_0)] dx$$

Now, this is what it is, where is the A, B, C, etcetera are the you know nothing but the incremental moments in the delta x that I was writing, that alpha n writing in terms of moments of delta x, same things here. If you consider a first term in this R prime of x A x comma t p x colon t dx, I can do an integration by parts; and the first term in the bracket goes to 0, because I am assuming that R x of goes to 0 faster than the other terms; that is what I meant, when I said R of x goes to 0, as x goes to infinity sufficiently fast; that is, it should faster than this, whether this term is 0; I restrict my R of x to only that; so, I get this expression, that is, this expression (Refer Slide Time: 25:00).

(Refer Slide Time: 25:08)

Consider the second term

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R''(x) B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0) dx \\
 &= \underbrace{\left[B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0) R'(x) \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty}}_0 - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R'(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] dx \\
 &= - \underbrace{\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} [B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] R(x) \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty}}_0 + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] dx \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] dx
 \end{aligned}$$





(Refer Slide Time: 25:34)

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(y) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y; t | x_0, t_0) dy \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) \left\{ - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [A(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] \right\} dx \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(x) \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y; t | x_0, t_0) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [A(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] \right. \\
 &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] + \dots \right] dx = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Since $R(x)$ is arbitrary, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y; t | x_0, t_0) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [A(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] \\
 &- \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [B(x, t) p(x; t | x_0, t_0)] + \dots = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

This is the FPK equation.

Now, the second term which involve double derivative, will again integrated by parts twice. And here, again I put this as 0, with an assumption the R prime of x goes to 0, as x goes to plus minus goes to infinity, that is what again I meant what is meant by sufficiently first. So, I get here these terms has R of x dou square x by dou x square into this.

Now, let us go back to the definition of i and write in this terms of this, and use this simplified versions, I get an equation R of x into a set of terms inside the bracket into dx

equal to 0. Since R of x is arbitrary, it follows that the term inside the bracket should be 0, because this is 2 for all R of x . And we get that, this is nothing but the Fokker-Planck equation, that we derived by alternate argument. Here, again, there are the infinite the number of term shown here; that if we are dealing with systems driven by Gaussian white noise Gaussian, where white noise is obtained as formal derivate in the browning motion process, we are seen that all the other terms goes to 0 and we are left with only three terms in this, and that becomes, you know, amenable for possible solutions.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:32)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y, t | x_0, t_0) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [A(x, t) p(x, t | x_0, t_0)] - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [B(x, t) p(x, t | x_0, t_0)] + \dots = 0$$

Remarks

- This equation is also known as the Kolmogorov forward equation
- "Forward" because $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(y, t | x_0, t_0)$ refers to time derivative with respect to $t > t_0$.
- A, B, C, \dots are known as the derivative moments

$$A(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (y-x) p(y, t+\Delta t | x, t) dy$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t+\Delta t) - X(t)] | X(t) = x \rangle$$

$$B(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t+\Delta t) - X(t)]^2 | X(t) = x \rangle$$

$$C(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t+\Delta t) - X(t)]^3 | X(t) = x \rangle \dots$$

Now, let us make a few remarks; this equation displayed here is also known as Kolmogorov forward equation. The word forward here is because it contains derivative $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ of the density function, which refers to time derivative with respect to t , which is greater than t_0 ; so, that is what, why we call it as forward equation. So, this connotation also automatically implies, that there is something known as backward equation; so, that will come to later.

And we will show that, the backward equations are useful for solving first passage times and problems of first passage probability, and so on and so forth. Right now, the forward equation; the parameter A, B, C are known as the derivative moments, which are nothing but the alpha discuss in a kinetic equation; there exactly the same. So, they are actually, moments of alpha A is actually the first order moment, B is the second order moment of the increment, C is the third order moment of the increment, and so and so forth.

(Refer Slide Time: 27:40)

Models for systems driven by white noise excitations : Ito's stochastic differential equations

Consider the differential equation governing the $n \times 1$ vector $x(t)$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = F[t, x(t), f(t)]; t \geq t_0 \text{ \& } x(t_0) \text{ specified}$$

Here $f(t)$ is a $m \times 1$ vector random process and F is a $n \times 1$ nonlinear function. If $f(t)$ and F are such that the integral $\int_{t_0}^t F[\tau, x(\tau), f(\tau)] d\tau$ exists in a mean square sense, then

$$x(t) - x(t_0) = \int_{t_0}^t F[\tau, x(\tau), f(\tau)] d\tau \dots (A)$$

is the solution.

NPTEL

24

Now, we have already discussed properties of Brownian motion process. And we will now restrict the admission to models of system driven by white noise excitations and this will lead to what are known as Ito's stochastic differential equation. So, here, we restrict our attention to excitation, which are formal derivative the Brownian motion processes. In deriving the incremental moment, we will use the properties of increments of Brownian motion process.

Now, consider the differential equation governing the n cross one vector x of t , dx by dt some function of t comma x of t comma f of t , where t greater than t naught and x of t naught is specified. Let f of t be a m cross 1 vector random process and capital F is n cross 1 non-linear function. If f of t and capital F are such that, this integral t naught to t , suppose, if we integrate the both sides with respect to t , I will left with t naught to t f of τ x of τ f of τ d τ . If this integral exist in a mean square sense, then the solution can be written as x of t minus x of t naught t naught to t F of τ comma x of τ f of τ d τ etcetera; this is a solution provided; these integrals can be interpreted in a mean square sense.

(Refer Slide Time: 29:02)

If elements of $f(t)$ are Gaussian white noises, then $\int_{t_0}^t F[t, x(t), f(t)] dt$ does not exist in mean square sense and equation (A) loses its meaning.

For the sake of illustration, let us consider the scalar equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f[t, x(t)] + G[t, x(t)]w(t); t \geq 0 \text{ \& } x(0) \text{ is specified.}$$

Here $w(t)$ is a zero mean Gaussian white noise.

Recall $w(t)$ is a formal derivative of Brownian motion process.

That is, $dw(t) = dB(t)$.

$$dx(t) = f[t, x(t)]dt + G[t, x(t)]dB(t); t \geq 0 \text{ \& } x(0) \text{ is specified.}$$

NPTEL

25

If on the way, if f of t if elements of f of t Gaussian white noises, then these kind of integrals, this integral does not exist in the mean square sense and equation a loses its meaning as a solution, because integrals itself is not define in the mean square sense. So, for sake of illustration, let us consider scalar equation, dx by dt f of t comma x of t plus G of t x of t into w of t , where w of t is 0 mean Gaussian white noise. Now, we require the w of t is the formal derivative of Brownian motion process; that is, d w of t can be written as dB of t . Now, I can rewrite this equation dx of t f of t comma x t dt plus G of t comma x of t into dB t , where t greater than or equal to 0, and x of 0 is specify, in terms of increments I am writing.

(Refer Slide Time: 30:04)

$dx(t) = f[t, x(t)]dt + G[t, x(t)]dB(t); t \geq 0 \text{ \& } x(0) \text{ is specified } \dots (B)$

$\Rightarrow x(t) - x(0) = \int_0^t f[\tau, x(\tau)]d\tau + \int_0^t G[\tau, x(\tau)]dB(\tau)d\tau$

$\int_0^t f[\tau, x(\tau)]d\tau$: This integral can be interpreted as the traditional Riemann integral.

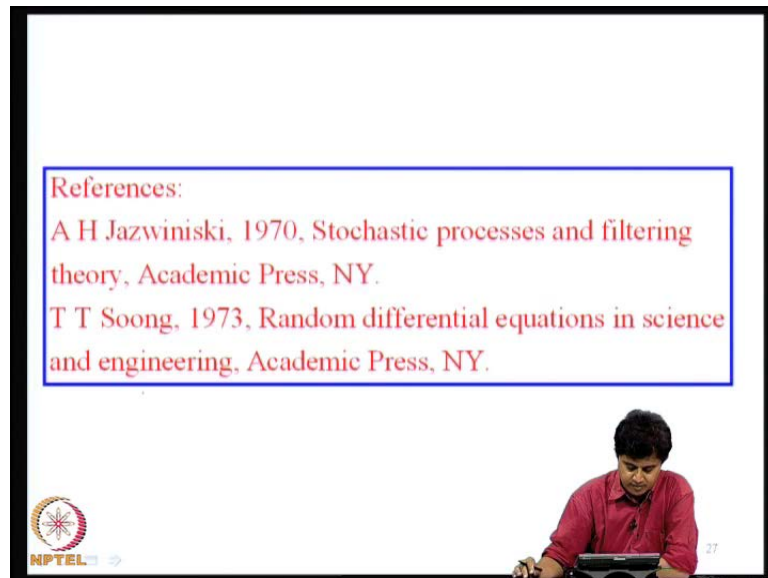
$\int_0^t G[\tau, x(\tau)]dB(\tau)d\tau$: This integral does not exist in a sample sense but can be defined in a mean square sense. (Ito's stochastic integral)

Equation (B) is called the Ito's stochastic differential equation.

NPTEL 26

Now, I can therefore now write this as, x of t minus x of 0 , as 0 to t f of τ comma x of τ $d\tau$ plus 0 to t G of τ comma x of τ dB of τ $d\tau$. Let us look like this two integrals. First of these integral, you know, is integration with respect to τ ; so, this integral can be interpreted in the traditional Riemann sense, in terms of area under the curve, and so on and so forth; whereas second integral, if we look at, this is also random; this integral does not exist in a sample sense, but can be defined in a mean square sense. So, this, that means, you cannot Riemann interpretation for this, but it can be interpreted in a mean square sense and that is what Ito's stochastic integral theory enables us. So, this equation B, we call it as Ito's stochastic differential equation; it is a differential equation to the extended; this is an integral equation, where this integral is an interpreted suitably in a mean square sense.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:19)



References:

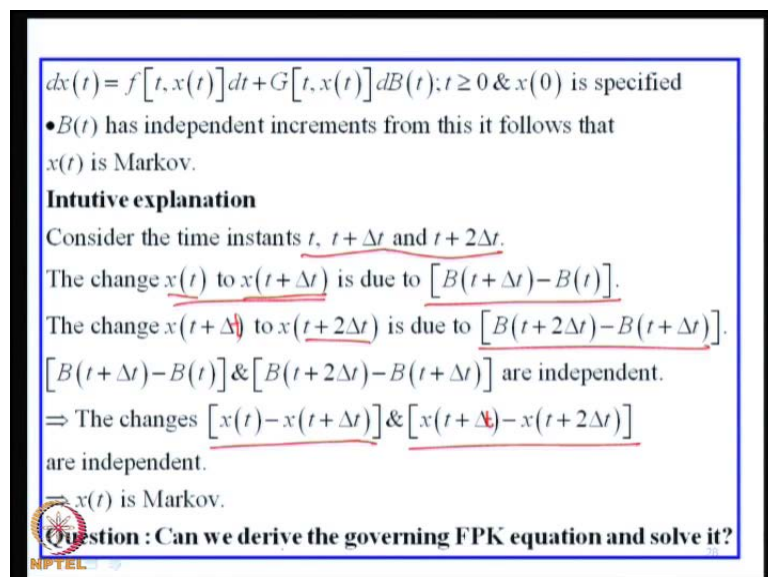
A H Jazwiniski, 1970, Stochastic processes and filtering theory, Academic Press, NY.

T T Soong, 1973, Random differential equations in science and engineering, Academic Press, NY.

The slide also features the NPTEL logo in the bottom left corner and a small image of a person sitting at a desk in the bottom right corner.

So, there are two reference that you may find useful; to study this further, in these lecturer, I will not be getting to greater details of Ito's s d is, but these two references is, one by Jazwiniski Stochastic processes and filtering theory and other one is Soong Random differential equations in science and engineering, which has descriptions which perhaps are accessible to engineers.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:48)



$dx(t) = f[t, x(t)]dt + G[t, x(t)]dB(t); t \geq 0$ & $x(0)$ is specified

- $B(t)$ has independent increments from this it follows that $x(t)$ is Markov.

Intuitive explanation

Consider the time instants t , $t + \Delta t$ and $t + 2\Delta t$.

The change $x(t)$ to $x(t + \Delta t)$ is due to $[B(t + \Delta t) - B(t)]$.

The change $x(t + \Delta t)$ to $x(t + 2\Delta t)$ is due to $[B(t + 2\Delta t) - B(t + \Delta t)]$.

$[B(t + \Delta t) - B(t)]$ & $[B(t + 2\Delta t) - B(t + \Delta t)]$ are independent.

\Rightarrow The changes $[x(t) - x(t + \Delta t)]$ & $[x(t + \Delta t) - x(t + 2\Delta t)]$ are independent.

$\Rightarrow x(t)$ is Markov.

Question : Can we derive the governing FPK equation and solve it?

The slide also features the NPTEL logo in the bottom left corner.

Now, let us look at this equation, again, dx of t is β of t times x of t dt plus G of t times dB of t . We know that B of t has independent increments, and from this, it follows that x of t is Markov.

How do we explain that? The claim I am making is solutions of Ito's differential equations - stochastic differential equations - have Markov property. Therefore, I can write the associated Fokker-Planck equation and solve them; that is the line of thinking that I am trying to develop. Now, how do we show that the solutions here are Markov; so, let us consider the time instants t , $t + \Delta t$ and $t + 2\Delta t$. The change from x of t to x of $t + \Delta t$ is due to change in B of t from $t + \Delta t$ minus B of t ; this is the change in the Brownian motion process, so this produces this change.

Similarly, change from $t + \Delta t$ to $t + 2\Delta t$ is due to this increment, B of $t + 2\Delta t$ minus B of $t + \Delta t$. These increments are independent; that means, an increment B of $t + \Delta t$ minus B of t and B of $t + 2\Delta t$ minus B of $t + \Delta t$ are independent. Consequently, the incremental change in x of t , which is this and this, from t to $t + \Delta t$ and $t + \Delta t$ to $t + 2\Delta t$ are also independent. That would mean, x of t has independent increments, and therefore, it has Markov probability. The question therefore, now, that we are interested in further would be, can we derive the governing FPK equation and solve it? How do we proceed?

(Refer Slide Time: 33:41)

Example

$$\dot{x} + \beta(x) = w(t); t \geq 0 \text{ \& } x(0) = x_0$$

$$\langle w(t) \rangle = 0; \langle w(t_1)w(t_2) \rangle = 2D\delta(t_1 - t_2)$$

$$dx = -\beta[x(t)]dt + dB(t)$$



Quantity of interest: $p(x, t | x_0; 0)$

Initial condition: $p(x, 0 | x_0; 0) = \delta(x - x_0)$

Boundary conditions: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} p(x, t | x_0; 0) \rightarrow 0$

$$\alpha_n(x, t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t + \Delta t) - X(t)]^n | X(t) = x \rangle$$

2, ...

So, let us consider a simple example, x naught plus beta of x equal to w of t , where t is greater than is equal to 0 and x of 0 is x naught. w of t is a Gaussian white noise 0 mean and auto covariance given in terms of Dirac delta function. So, I can derive this equation in terms of Ito's $s d$, as dx equal to minus beta of x of t into dt plus $dB t$.

What is the quantity of interest? Probability density function of x colon t condition on x naught equal to 0. So, therefore, initial condition would be, p of x semicolon 0 x naught semicolon 0 is their delta functions of x minus x naught; boundary conditions as x goes to plus minus infinity, this probability density function goes to 0. These are the incremental moment, that I would be leading to formulate the Fokker-Planck equation - alpha 1 and alpha 2.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:43)

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_1(x, t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t + \Delta t) - X(t)] | X(t) = x \rangle \\ &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle -\beta[x(t)] dt + dB(t) \rangle = -\beta(x) \\ \alpha_2(x, t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X(t + \Delta t) - X(t)]^2 | X(t) = x \rangle \\ &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [-\beta[x(t)] dt + \beta[x(t)] dt + dB(t)]^2 \rangle \\ &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle \beta^2(x) \Delta t^2 + [dB(t)]^2 - 2\beta(x) dt \beta[x(t)] dt \rangle \\ &= 2D \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} &= \frac{\partial [\beta(x)p]}{\partial x} + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2}; p \equiv p(x, t | x_0; 0) \end{aligned}$$

So, how do we derive them? alpha 1 is limit of delta t going to 0 1 by delta t, the first order moment of the increment x of t plus delta t minus x of t , conditioned on x of t equal to x . So, what is dx of t ? dx of t is minus beta of x of t dt plus $dB t$; so, minus beta x of t dt plus $dB t$.

What is the expected value of this? Condition on x of t equal to x , it is nothing but beta of x ; expected value of dB of t is 0. What is the second incremental moment? The square of this increment, condition x of t equal to x ; square of this is, minus beta dt plus $dB t$ whole square, so you expand this, it is beta square delta t square dB square minus 2 beta

into dB of t. Now, this term, it will be beta square into delta t square divided by delta t could be delta t, as limit delta t goes to 0, that goes to 0.

This second term will be 2D and this is mean of dB t is 0, therefore, this term goes to 0; so, I am left with 2D. So, therefore, what is the Fokker-Plank equation? $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}$ is equal to $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} [\beta f x \text{ into } p]$ plus $D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2}$, where p is this transition probability density function. So, from governing equation of motion, have been able to derive now the FPK equation, which again can be viewed as equation of motion for evolution of probability density function.

(Refer Slide Time: 36:34)

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial [\beta(x)p]}{\partial x} + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2}; p \equiv p(x, t | x_0; 0)$$

$$p(x, t | x_0; 0) = \Psi(x)T(t)$$

$$\Psi(x)\dot{T}(t) = [\beta(x)\Psi(x)]' T(t) + D\Psi''(x)T(t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Psi(x)\dot{T}(t)}{\Psi(x)T(t)} = \frac{[\beta(x)\Psi(x)]'}{\Psi(x)T(t)} + \frac{D\Psi''(x)T(t)}{\Psi(x)T(t)}$$

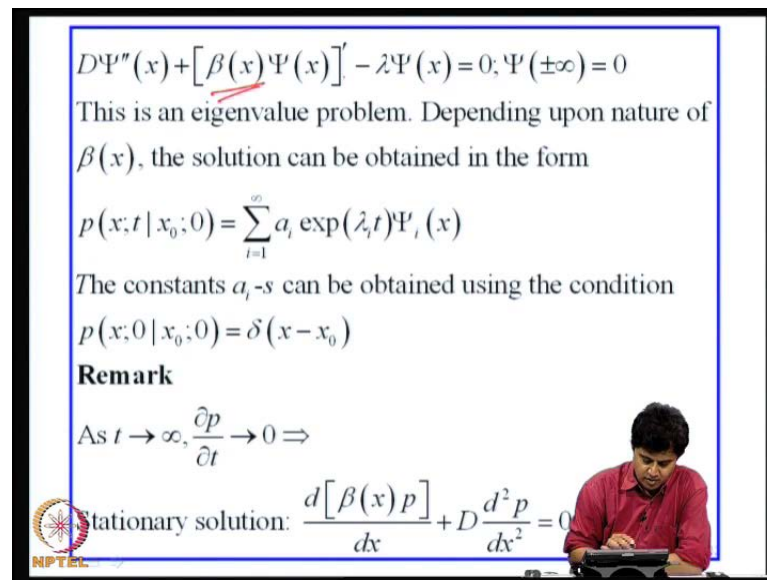
$$\frac{\dot{T}(t)}{T(t)} = \frac{[\beta(x)\Psi(x)]'}{\Psi(x)} + \frac{D\Psi''(x)}{\Psi(x)} = \lambda$$

$$\dot{T} - \lambda T = 0$$

$$D\Psi''(x) + [\beta(x)\Psi(x)]' - \lambda\Psi(x) = 0; \Psi(\pm\infty) = 0$$

Now, how do we solve this? A standard method for solving partial differential equation is using method of variable separation. So, we can seek the solution in the form, psi of x into T of t. So, we substituted that into this, this becomes psi of x T dot plus beta of x psi of x prime into T of t plus d psi double prime into t; it is divided by psi T and simplify, I get T dot by t is equal to beta psi prime divided by psi plus p psi double prime by psi; and if we look at this term, is a functions time alone, this term is the function of x alone. If you change time, and this term, second term cannot change; if you change x, the first term cannot change. So, only way they can be equalize, we have to be equal to constant. So, I get T dot minus lambda t equal to 0 and I get another equation for psi, and second order equation with boundaries at plus minus infinity.

(Refer Slide Time: 37:41)



$D^2\Psi''(x) + [\beta(x)\Psi'(x)]' - \lambda\Psi(x) = 0; \Psi(\pm\infty) = 0$

This is an eigenvalue problem. Depending upon nature of $\beta(x)$, the solution can be obtained in the form

$$p(x; t | x_0; 0) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i \exp(\lambda_i t) \Psi_i(x)$$

The constants a_i -s can be obtained using the condition

$$p(x; 0 | x_0; 0) = \delta(x - x_0)$$

Remark

As $t \rightarrow \infty, \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$

Stationary solution: $\frac{d[\beta(x)p]}{dx} + D \frac{d^2 p}{dx^2} = 0$

So, this is the equation, this is the eigenvalue problem; lambda is eigenvalue, psi of x will be the eigenfunctions. And depending upon the nature of beta of x, this solution can be obtained in the form, i equal to 1 to infinity a i exponential lambda i t psi i of x. The constant a i's can be obtained using the initial conditions, that t equal to 0, this function should get Direct delta function and we will get a i.

Now, the task of finding psi of x depends on choice of beta; so that typically obtained in terms of hyper geometric functions like, hermite polynomials, laguerre polynomials, and so on and so for. Some point the next few lectures, I will touch upon some of the illustrations. Right now, I proceed with how to formulate the governing equation, I am not so much focusing on the exact methods for solution.

(Refer Slide Time: 38:39)

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial [\beta(x)p]}{\partial x} + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x^2}; p \equiv p(x, t | x_0; 0)$$

$$p(x, t | x_0; 0) = \Psi(x)T(t)$$

$$\Psi(x)\dot{T}(t) = [\beta(x)\Psi(x)]' T(t) + D\Psi''(x)T(t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Psi(x)\dot{T}(t)}{\Psi(x)T(t)} = \frac{[\beta(x)\Psi(x)]' T(t)}{\Psi(x)T(t)} + \frac{D\Psi''(x)T(t)}{\Psi(x)T(t)}$$

$$\frac{\dot{T}(t)}{T(t)} = \frac{[\beta(x)\Psi(x)]'}{\Psi(x)} + \frac{D\Psi''(x)}{\Psi(x)} = \lambda$$

$$\dot{T} - \lambda T = 0$$

$$D\Psi''(x) + [\beta(x)\Psi(x)]' - \lambda\Psi(x) = 0; \Psi(\pm\infty) = 0$$

Now, before will leave this, we have to see here, if we focus on this equation, as t tends to infinity, if system admits the steady state, then the probability density function will become independent of time and I get dou p by dou t equal to 0. So, if that happens, the governing equation for stationary solution will be an ordinary equation - ordinary differential equation - d by dx of beta of x into p plus D into d square p by dx square equal to 0. This can again be solved; this is easy to solve; I will illustrate the solution later, when I consider specific examples.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:17)

Example

$$\ddot{x} + 2\eta\omega\dot{x} + \omega^2x = w(t); t \geq 0; x(0) = x_0; \dot{x}(0) = \dot{x}_0$$

$$\langle w(t) \rangle = 0; \langle w(t)w(t+\tau) \rangle = 2D\delta(\tau)$$

$$X(t) = \begin{Bmatrix} X_1(t) \\ X_2(t) \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} x(t) \\ \dot{x}(t) \end{Bmatrix} \quad dB(t) = dt w(t)$$

$$dX_1 = X_2 dt$$

$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt + dB(t)$$

$$p \equiv p[\tilde{x}; t | \tilde{x}_0] = p[x_1, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_0, \dot{X}_1(0) = \dot{x}_0]$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p]$$

Now, we will come to one of the simplest problem in vibration analysis, namely, a single degree freedom system under Gaussian white noise. So, let us the system initial condition be, x naught and \dot{x} naught, and mean of w of t is 0 and auto covariance of w of t is $2D$ into δ of τ . This is second order differential equation. First, what I will do is, I introduce state vector x of t consisting of x_1 and x_2 , where x_1 is x and x_2 is \dot{x} ; this is displacement and this is velocity.

So, what will be the \dot{x}_1 is actually \dot{x} ; therefore, dX_1 is equal to X_2 into dt , that would be the first equation; dX_2 by dt would be \ddot{x} , which is equal to $2\eta\omega\dot{x} - \omega^2 x + w$ of t ; so, that would be, dX_2 be therefore $\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1$ into dt plus dB of t , because, w of t dB of t is what? dt into w of t , because Brownian motion where interpreting as white noise - Gaussian white noise - where interrupted as formulate derivative of Brownian motion; so, I get this equation.

So, now, I am ready to launch my calculation for finding α_1 and α_2 . So, the probability density function that I am looking for, is now actually for the vector X of t ; it is scalar, because these vectors has two elements. The Markov property is satisfied by X of t , it is not satisfied by X_1 , it is not satisfied by X_2 , it is satisfied by X of t ; that what the initial remark I made, that elements of vector Markov process need not to be a Markov themselves.

And also, you can see the displacement and velocity will have to different levels of differentiability, because \ddot{x} is proportional to a white noise. So, therefore, \dot{x} is not differentiable, but x is differentiable, in the mean square sense. So, that is another point that I have made earlier. Now, the evaluation equation for the probability density function the $d p t f$ is shown here, and now to proceed further, I have to find now this alphas here and alphas here; how to do we that?

(Refer Slide Time: 41:50)

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p]$$

$$\alpha_j = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X_j(t + \Delta t) - X_j(t)] | X(t) = \tilde{x} \rangle$$

$$\alpha_{ij} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [X_i(t + \Delta t) - X_i(t)] [X_j(t + \Delta t) - X_j(t)] | X(t) = \tilde{x} \rangle$$

$$dX_1 = X_2 dt$$

$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt + dB(t)$$

$$\alpha_1 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2(t) dt | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = x_2$$

$$\alpha_2 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt + dB(t) | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle$$

$$= -2\eta\omega x_2 - \omega^2 x_1$$

$$\alpha_{11} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2^2 (dt)^2 | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = 0$$

Similarly, $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{21} = 0$ & $\alpha_{22} = 2D$

Alpha j is limit of delta t going to 0 1 by delta t increment condition X of t equal to x delta, and alpha i j is actually X i of t plus delta t minus X i of t into X j of t plus delta t minus x of t condition X of t x delta. Alpha 1, let us look at, limit delta t goes to 0 1 by delta t d X 1 is X 2 dt, therefore X 2 dt condition X 1 is equal to X 1 of t X 2 of t equal to X 2, this is nothing but X 2, because this is X 2 here; it is condition at X 2. Alpha 2 would be, minus 2 eta omega X 2 minus omega square x 1 plus dB of t condition 1 x 1 of t x 1 x 2 of t is x 2; so, this will be minus 2 eta omega x 2 minus omega square x 1; the third time will 0, because the expected value of dB of t 0.

Alpha 1 1 will be what? Square of X 2 square into dt square condition in X 1 t equal to x 1 X 2 t equal to x 2; now, under these limiting operation, this will be 0, therefore alpha 1 1 will be 0; this will be X 2 square dt square 1 by delta t, as the delta t goes to 0, that will be 0. So, I get alpha 1 2 equal to alpha 2 1 equal to 0; and alpha 2 2, we have to square this and take expectations by conditioning this way, and the first two terms will vanish and cross term will vanish, and dB square of t will lead to 2D; that we are done previously, therefore I am not repeating here.

(Refer Slide Time: 43:35)

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p] //$$

$$\alpha_1 = x_2; \alpha_2 = -2\eta\omega x_2 - \omega^2 x_1; \alpha_{11} = \alpha_{12} = \alpha_{21} = 0 \text{ \& } \alpha_{22} = 2D$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} [2\eta\omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1] p + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_2^2}$$

$$p(x_1, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = \delta(x_1 - x_{10}) \delta(x_2 - x_{20})$$

$$p(\pm\infty, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = 0$$

$$p(x_2, \pm\infty; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = 0$$

Remark
The FPK equation can be viewed as the equation of motion governing the evolution of pdf $p(\tilde{x}, t | \tilde{x}_0; 0)$

So, I am ready with now the governing equation; this is the general form and we have derived now this alphas. And if I substitute into this, I get $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}$ is minus $x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1}$ plus $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} [2\eta\omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1] p$ plus $D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_2^2}$. The initial conditions, at t equal to 0, displacement is x naught, velocity x naught dot and both are Dirac delta functions. So, as t tends to 0, this condition would be satisfied; and similarly, I have at boundary plus minus infinity, the density function is 0; so, x_1 equal to plus minus infinity this is 0; x_2 equal to plus minus infinity equal to 0.

So, the problem now on hand now reduces to solution of a partial differential equation, under this initial condition and boundary conditions. So, this is the different exercise in mathematics that can be done. We will see how it can be done in the next lectures, but right now, we are focusing on how to formulate the problem. So, again, let me emphasize that, the FPK equation can be viewed as a equation on motion governing in the evolutions of the probability density function.

(Refer Slide Time: 44:54)

$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} \rightarrow 0$

Equation in the steady state ($t \rightarrow \infty$)

$$-x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} [\{ 2\eta \omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1 \} p] + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_2^2} = 0$$

BCS

$$p(\pm\infty, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = 0$$
$$p(x_2, \pm\infty; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = 0$$

NPTEL

Now, if a steady state is possible, as t tends to infinity, the probability density function would become independent of time; therefore, $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}$ would go to 0, and I get a simplified version of this equation, which is still a partial differential equation, because now I have two independent variables x_1 and x_2 . And if you are interested only in stationary solutions, we can directly tackle this equation.

You should of course independently verify, whether the mechanics of the problem admits the steady state solutions; if this, for example, if system is un damped, there would not be any steady state; although you can write such solution, try to see what you get, it would not be correct. And in this boundary conditions, of course, again, at plus minus infinity on x_1 and x_2 , the density functions are 0. So, these are the associated boundary condition, under which we have to solve this reduced partial differential equation.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:57)

Example : nonstationary inputs

$$\ddot{x} + 2\eta\omega\dot{x} + \omega^2x = e(t)w(t); t \geq 0; x(0) = x_0; \dot{x}(0) = \dot{x}_0$$



$$\langle w(t) \rangle = 0; \langle w(t)w(t+\tau) \rangle = 2D\delta(\tau)$$

$e(t)$ = deterministic excitations. *modulating function*

$$X(t) = \begin{Bmatrix} X_1(t) \\ X_2(t) \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} x(t) \\ \dot{x}(t) \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} dX_1 = X_2 dt \\ dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt + e(t) dB(t) \end{cases}$$

$$p \equiv p[\tilde{x}; t | \tilde{x}_0] = p[x_1, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_0, \dot{X}_1(0) = \dot{x}_0]$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p]$$



We considered stationary inputs; so, I want to now going in some sequence, I will consider non-stationary excitations, non-linear systems, non-Gaussian excitations and multi degree system; and I will show that, for each of this cases, we can formulate the governing Fokker-Planck equation. So, let us consider now non-stationary inputs; so, this same single degree freedom system, now it is driven by e of t into w of t , where e of t is the deterministic modulating function; w of t is as before white noise is 0 mean and auto covariance, in terms Direct delta functions. As before I define the vector x of t as $x_1 \times 2$ and I get this equation state in space representation, and again look at the governing Fokker-Planck equation.

(Refer Slide Time: 46:58)

$dX_1 = X_2 dt$
 $dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt + e(t) dB(t)$
 $\alpha_1 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2(t) dt | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = x_2$
 $\alpha_2 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt + dB(t) | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle$
 $= -2\eta\omega x_2 - \omega^2 x_1$
 $\alpha_{11} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2^2 (dt)^2 | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = 0$
 Similarly, $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{21} = 0$ & $\alpha_{22} = 2De^2(t)$
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} [\{2\eta\omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1\} p] + \underline{De^2(t)} \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_2^2}$
 Note: no steady state solution exists.

Here, nothing really changes, we get the same values for alpha 1 and alpha 2; except that, for alpha 2 2, I get the effect of the envelope, which is 2 De square of t. So, the governing equation will be quite identical to what we got earlier, except that now, I have in this term, d into e square of t dou square p by dou x 2 square. Clearly, in this case, we cannot talk about a steady state solution, because on the right hand side, there is t; that means, if the incremental moment themselves are functions of time, then there is no basics on which we can talk about steady state solutions; p will continue to be function of time, even for large times.

(Refer Slide Time: 47:43)

Example : Nonlinear system
 $\ddot{x} + 2\eta\omega \dot{x} + \omega^2 x + \alpha x^3 = w(t); t \geq 0; x(0) = x_0; \dot{x}(0) = \dot{x}_0$
 $\langle w(t) \rangle = 0; \langle w(t) w(t+\tau) \rangle = 2D\delta(\tau)$
 $X(t) = \begin{Bmatrix} X_1(t) \\ X_2(t) \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} x(t) \\ \dot{x}(t) \end{Bmatrix}$
 $dX_1 = X_2 dt$ ✓
 $dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1 - \alpha X_1^3] dt + dB(t)$
 $p \equiv p[\tilde{x}; t | \tilde{x}_0] = p[x_1, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_0, \dot{X}_1(0) = \dot{x}_0]$
 $\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p]$

How about nonlinearity? So, I introduce a slight change, I add a cubic non-linear term; so, this system now become doffing oscillator with cubic non-linear term. The problem formulation is essentially similar, except that one of the incremental moment would now change, to allow for this additional influence of non-linear terms. So, I have dX_1 as $X_2 dt$, dX_2 as $2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1 - \alpha X_1^3$; this is the new term, minus alpha X_1 cube this.

(Refer Slide Time: 48:17)

$$dX_1 = X_2 dt$$

$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1 - \alpha X_1^3] dt + dB(t)$$

$$\alpha_1 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2(t) dt | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = x_2$$

$$\alpha_2 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1 - \alpha X_1^3] dt + dB(t) | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle$$

$$= -2\eta\omega x_2 - \omega^2 x_1 - \alpha x_1^3$$

$$\alpha_{11} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2^2(dt)^2 | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = 0$$

Similarly, $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{21} = 0$ & $\alpha_{22} = 2D$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left[\{2\eta\omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1 + \alpha x_1^3\} p \right] + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_2^2}$$

Steady state ($t \rightarrow \infty$)

$$-x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left[\{2\eta\omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1 + \alpha x_1^3\} p \right] + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial x_2^2} = 0$$

Now, alpha 1 would remain as x_2 , but this alpha 2 would now contain the influence of non-linear term, and alpha 1 1, alpha 1 2 and alpha 2 1 will be 0, and alpha 2 2 will be 2D. Now, the governing equation will have the influence of nonlinearity through an additional term in the co efficient here. So, here again, since the incremental moments are independent of time, one can think of steady state solutions and we can look at the reduce partial differential equation, governing the steady state solution.

So, I will be showing the subsequent lectures, that exact solution to this problem is obtainable; that means, for a doffing oscillator undr white noise, the steady state response is exactly determinable. It should be appreciated, because if you considering doffing oscillator under harmonic excitation, under steady state, no exact solution exist for deterministic problem. When excitation is white noise, the problem somehow becomes simple enough to allow for an exact solution.

(Refer Slide Time: 49:30)

Example : parametric random excitations

$$\ddot{x} + \dot{x} [2\eta\omega + \varepsilon W_1(t)] + x [\omega^2 + \alpha W_2(t)] = W_3(t);$$

$$t \geq 0; x(0) = x_0; \dot{x}(0) = \dot{x}_0$$

$$dB_i(t) = W_i(t) dt; \langle dB_i(t) dB_j(t + \tau) \rangle = 2D_{ij} \delta(\tau)$$

$$X(t) = \begin{Bmatrix} X_1(t) \\ X_2(t) \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} x(t) \\ \dot{x}(t) \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$dX_1 = X_2 dt$$

$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt - \varepsilon X_2 dB_1(t) - \alpha X_1 dB_2(t) + dB_3(t)$$

$$p \equiv p[\tilde{x}; t | \tilde{x}_0] = p[x_1, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_0, \dot{X}_1(0) = \dot{x}_0]$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p]$$

Now, we can make the problem slightly more complicated. We can have external excitation and also parametric excitation; so, I have now linear single degree freedom system with three white noise excitations - two of them are parametric and one is external. So, again I consider system starting from x naught and \dot{x} naught dot, and the three random white noise processes, I will assume that, there are all correlated, and this is the metrics of cross covariance functions; so, $\langle dB_i(t) dB_j(t + \tau) \rangle = 2D_{ij} \delta(\tau)$.

Now, again I define the state vector $X = [X_1, X_2]^T$, which is x and \dot{x} and get the equation in this form. Now, there will be addition terms here, containing increments of three Brownian motion processes and they are multiplied by systems states for the two terms, and of course, third term is an excitations. Again, we are interested in finding the evaluations of the transitional probability density function, which is now function of x_1, x_2, t condition on x naught and \dot{x} naught dot. So, that FPK equation will have these forms and need not to determine α_j and α_{jk} .

(Refer Slide Time: 51:00)

$$dX_1 = X_2 dt \quad \checkmark$$

$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt - \varepsilon x_2 dB_1(t) - \alpha x_1 dB_2(t) + dB_3(t)$$

$$\alpha_1 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2(t) dt | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = x_2 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\alpha_2 = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt + dB(t) | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle$$

- \varepsilon x_2 dB_1(t) - \alpha x_1 dB_2(t)

$$= -2\eta\omega x_2 - \omega^2 x_1 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\alpha_{11} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle X_2^2 (dt)^2 | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle = 0$$

Similarly, $\alpha_{12} = \alpha_{21} = 0$

$$\alpha_{22} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \langle \{ [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt - \varepsilon x_2 dB_1(t) - \alpha x_1 dB_2(t) + dB_3(t) \}^2 | X_1(t) = x_1, X_2(t) = x_2 \rangle$$

$$= 2\varepsilon^2 x_2^2 D_{11} + 2\alpha^2 x_1^2 D_{22} + 2D_{33} + 4\varepsilon\alpha x_1 x_2 D_{12} - 4\varepsilon x_2 D_{13} - 4\alpha x_1 D_{23}$$

42

This is to $dX_1 = X_2 dt$ and dX_2 is having this additional terms. α_1 would be still x_2 ; α_2 could not change, because the expected value of dB of t and other these terms are still 0; therefore, this would not change. So, here, we have to add $\varepsilon x_2 dB_1(t)$ minus $\alpha x_1 dB_2(t)$ and their mean values are 0, therefore, it would still be this. α_{11} would again be 0; similarly, α_{12} , α_{21} will be 0, but α_{22} will now be expected value of square of this condition on X_1 of t is x_1 , X_2 of t is x_2 ; so, this involves some calculations; the only term that will remain, after we take expectation and apply the limits, will be associated with variances of these three terms and later cross covariance's; and if you do that, I get this α_{12} to be this.

(Refer Slide Time: 52:16)

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left[\{2\eta\omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1\} p \right] +$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} \left[(2\varepsilon^2 x_2^2 D_{11} + 2\alpha^2 x_1^2 D_{22} + 2D_{33} + 4\varepsilon\alpha x_1 x_2 D_{12} - 4\varepsilon x_2 D_{13} - 4\alpha x_1 D_{23}) p \right]$$

$$p(x_1, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = \delta(x_1 - x_{10}) \delta(x_2 - x_{20})$$

$$p(\pm\infty, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = 0$$

$$p(x_2, \pm\infty; t | X_1(0) = x_{10}, X_2(0) = x_{20}) = 0$$

If stationary solution exist, it is governed by

$$-x_2 \frac{\partial p}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} \left[\{2\eta\omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_1\} p \right] +$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} \left[(2\varepsilon^2 x_2^2 D_{11} + 2\alpha^2 x_1^2 D_{22} + 2D_{33} + 4\varepsilon\alpha x_1 x_2 D_{12} - 4\varepsilon x_2 D_{13} - 4\alpha x_1 D_{23}) p \right] = 0$$

Now, I have governing FPK equation will be, dou p by dou t minus x 2 by dou p by dou x 1; this term also could not change, but now the terms involved the second derivative will be more complicated; they will have these terms. The initial conditions would be remain the same, the boundary condition would also be the same. And if a stationary solution exists, we are not sure, when there are parametric excitations, we know we are never sure if there is a steady state. The system became a unstable, there will be a steady state; so, if a steady state exists, it is governing by this reduced equation.

(Refer Slide Time: 53:00)

Example : parametric random excitations

$$\ddot{x} + \dot{x} [2\eta\omega + \varepsilon W_1(t)] + x [\omega^2 + \alpha W_2(t)] = W_3(t);$$

$$t \geq 0, x(0) = x_0; \dot{x}(0) = \dot{x}_0$$

$$dB_i(t) = W_i(t) dt; \langle dB_i(t) dB_j(t + \tau) \rangle = 2D_{ij} \delta(\tau)$$

$$X(t) = \begin{Bmatrix} X_1(t) \\ X_2(t) \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} x(t) \\ \dot{x}(t) \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$dX_1 = X_2 dt$$

$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1] dt - \varepsilon x_2 dB_1(t) - \alpha x_1 dB_2(t) + dB_3(t)$$

$$p \equiv p[\tilde{x}; t | \tilde{x}_0] = p[x_1, x_2; t | X_1(0) = x_0, \dot{X}_1(0) = \dot{x}_0]$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{k=1}^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p]$$

Again, a general class of deterministic problems with this kind of parametric excitation terms is not solvable; there is no exact solution in deterministic case. But it turns out that, for certain cases of problems with parametric excitations, we can get an exact solution using Fokker-Planck equation. Furthermore, I am now right now talking only about probability density functions - evolutions of probability density function; from that evaluation of the probability density function, I can also derive the evaluation equation for moments - response moments. It turns out that, for this class of the problems - linear systems with parametric Gaussian white noise excitations - the moment equations are exactly solvable. So, the Fokker-Planck equations approach which sources of exact solutions for white noise of problems, where the counter parts in deterministic analysis are not solvable.

(Refer Slide Time: 53:55)

Example : Filtered white noise excitations

$$\ddot{x} + 2\eta\omega\dot{x} + \omega^2x + \alpha x^3 = f(t); t \geq 0; x(0) = x_0; \dot{x}(0) = \dot{x}_0$$

$$\ddot{f} + 2\xi\lambda\dot{f} + \lambda^2 f = w(t); t \geq 0; f(0) = f_0; \dot{f}(0) = \dot{f}_0$$



$$\langle w(t) \rangle = 0; \langle w(t)w(t+\tau) \rangle = 2D\delta(\tau)$$

$$X(t) = \{x(t) \quad \dot{x}(t) \quad f(t) \quad \dot{f}(t)\}^t$$

$$dX_1 = X_2 dt$$

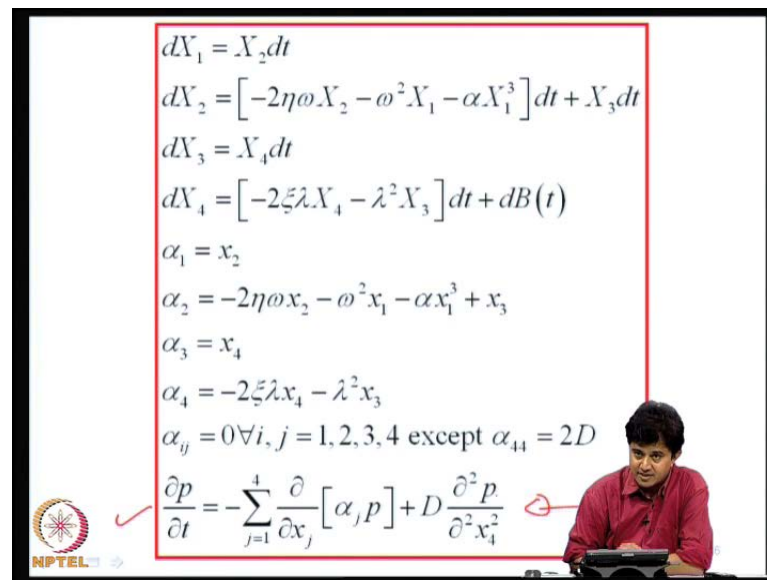
$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1 - \alpha X_1^3] dt + X_3 dt$$

$$dX_3 = X_4 dt$$

$$dX_4 = [-2\xi\lambda X_4 - \lambda^2 X_3] dt + dB(t)$$



Some more examples, suppose, I have been talking only about white noise excitations; suppose, the filter white noise excitations; the excitation is not white, but it is colored. So, f of t, I modulate as output of a single degree freedom system, which receives as a white noise excitations. Now, handle this problem, I define in a extended vector of responses quantities $x \dot{x} f \dot{f}$; that means, f of t is a excitations, but excitation itself is modeled using linear system driven by white noise. So, we can show this extended vector will have Markov problem, right; therefore, I can write the governing Markov FPK equation further.

(Refer Slide Time: 54:46)



$$dX_1 = X_2 dt$$

$$dX_2 = [-2\eta\omega X_2 - \omega^2 X_1 - \alpha X_1^3] dt + X_3 dt$$

$$dX_3 = X_4 dt$$

$$dX_4 = [-2\xi\lambda X_4 - \lambda^2 X_3] dt + dB(t)$$

$$\alpha_1 = x_2$$

$$\alpha_2 = -2\eta\omega x_2 - \omega^2 x_1 - \alpha x_1^3 + x_3$$

$$\alpha_3 = x_4$$

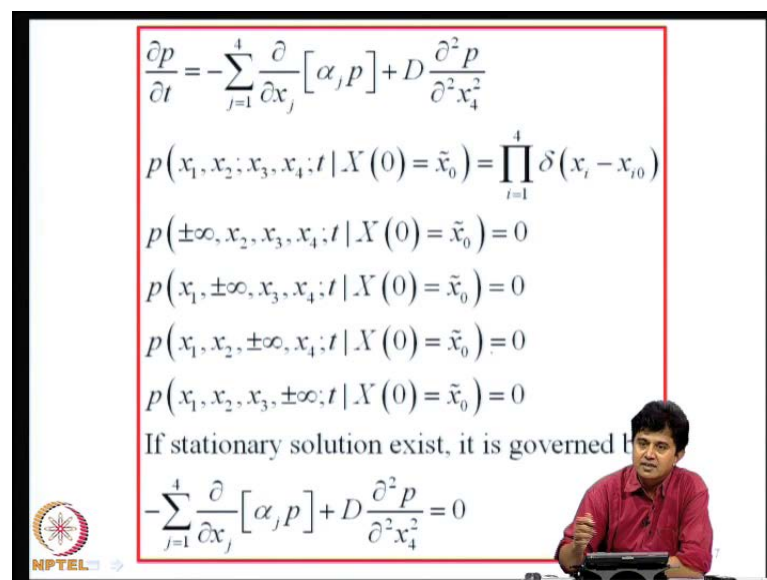
$$\alpha_4 = -2\xi\lambda x_4 - \lambda^2 x_3$$

$$\alpha_{ij} = 0 \forall i, j = 1, 2, 3, 4 \text{ except } \alpha_{44} = 2D$$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^4 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial^2 x_4^2}$$

So, I have dX_1, dX_2, dX_3, dX_4 and I can go through this, find out $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4$ and get the governing Fokker-Planck equation even for this case.

(Refer Slide Time: 54:56)



$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -\sum_{j=1}^4 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial^2 x_4^2}$$

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4; t | X(0) = \tilde{x}_0) = \prod_{i=1}^4 \delta(x_i - x_{i0})$$

$$p(\pm\infty, x_2, x_3, x_4; t | X(0) = \tilde{x}_0) = 0$$

$$p(x_1, \pm\infty, x_3, x_4; t | X(0) = \tilde{x}_0) = 0$$

$$p(x_1, x_2, \pm\infty, x_4; t | X(0) = \tilde{x}_0) = 0$$

$$p(x_1, x_2, x_3, \pm\infty; t | X(0) = \tilde{x}_0) = 0$$

If stationary solution exist, it is governed by

$$-\sum_{j=1}^4 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + D \frac{\partial^2 p}{\partial^2 x_4^2} = 0$$

So, I can write these equations and write down the boundary conditions. Now, there are four independent spatial variables x_1, x_2, x_3 and x_4 , in addition to time; so, but in principle, the problem is formulated.

(Refer Slide Time: 55:10)

Example : Linear MDOF systems

$$M\ddot{X} + C\dot{X} + KX = W(t); t \geq 0; X(0) = X_0; \dot{X}(0) = \dot{X}_0$$

$$X(t) \sim N \times 1$$



$$\langle W(t) \rangle = 0; \langle W(t)W^T(t+\tau) \rangle = [2D_{ij}] \delta(\tau)$$

$$\ddot{X} + M^{-1}C\dot{X} + M^{-1}KX = M^{-1}W(t)$$

$$Y = \begin{Bmatrix} Y_I \\ Y_{II} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} X \\ \dot{X} \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$dY_I = Y_{II} dt$$

$$dY_{II} = -M^{-1}CY_{II} - M^{-1}KY_I + M^{-1}dB(t)$$

$$dY(t) = PYdt + QdB(t) \quad t \geq 0; Y(0) = Y_0$$



Now, how about linear multi degree freedom systems? I am going to talk about the single degree freedom system. So, I can multiply this governing equation by M inverse and write it as X double dot M inverse CX dot M inverse KX and m inverse this. So, I can introduce now a two-dimensional state space Y i by Y double I, and write an equation for Y i and Y double I, and cross it in the form of the Ito's differential equation.

(Refer Slide Time: 55:45)

Example : Nonlinear MDOF systems

$$M\ddot{X} + F[X, \dot{X}] = W(t); t \geq 0; X(0) = X_0; \dot{X}(0) = \dot{X}_0$$

$$X(t) \sim N \times 1$$



$$\langle W(t) \rangle = 0; \langle W(t)W^T(t+\tau) \rangle = [2D_{ij}] \delta(\tau)$$

$$\ddot{X} + M^{-1}F[X, \dot{X}] = M^{-1}W(t)$$

$$Y = \begin{Bmatrix} Y_I \\ Y_{II} \end{Bmatrix} = \begin{Bmatrix} X \\ \dot{X} \end{Bmatrix}$$

$$dY_I = Y_{II} dt$$

$$dY_{II} = -M^{-1}F(Y) dt + M^{-1}dB(t)$$

$$dY(t) = P(Y)dt + QdB(t) \quad t \geq 0; Y(0) = Y_0$$



So, it is possible to cause this equation in the Ito's; so, the moment to put in the Ito's form, so I can derive I know the solution is Markov and I can derive the governing

Fokker-Planck equation. Now, what happens if non-linear systems the multi degree and non-linear? So, F of X comma X dot. There again, I can introduce the extended the vectors of Y i Y double i Y double I; and I can still write the Fokker-Planck equation, where this M inverse F of Y is P of Y ; so, this is F which is a non-linear function and here still represented in my equation.

(Refer Slide Time: 56:23)

General: n -dimensional Itô SDE

$$dX(t) = f[t, X(t)] dt + G[t, X(t)] dB(t); t \geq 0; X(0) = X_0$$

$X(t), f[t, X(t)] \sim n \times 1$

$G[t, X(t)] \sim n \times m$

$dB(t) \sim m \times 1$

$\langle dB(t) \rangle = 0; \langle \Delta B_i(t) \Delta B_j(t + \tau) \rangle = 2D_{ij} \delta(\tau)$

$\alpha_j = f_j[t, x]; j = 1, 2, \dots, n$

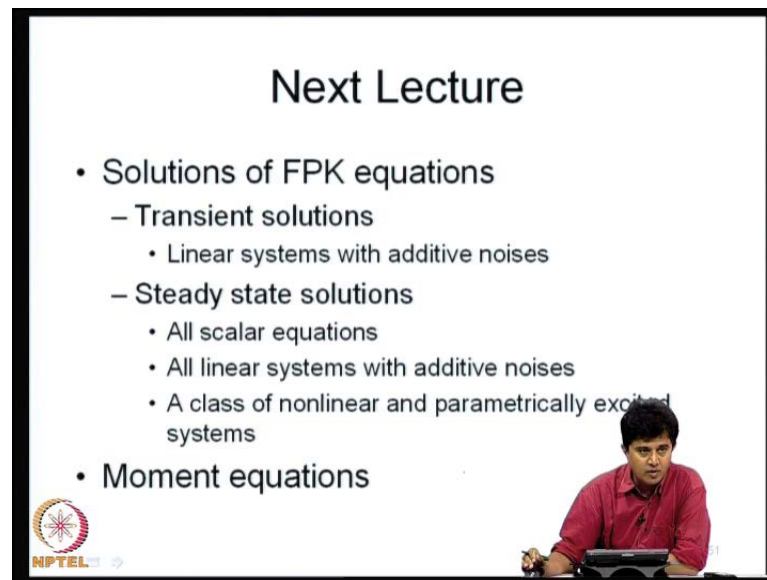
$\alpha_{ij} = 2[G D G^T]_{ij}; i, j = 1, 2, \dots, m$

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = - \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} [\alpha_j p] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} [\alpha_{jk} p]$$

$p(\tilde{x}, 0 | \tilde{x}_0; 0) = \prod_{i=1}^n \delta(x_i - x_{i0}) + \text{BCS}$

So, now, if we consider the general n dimensional Itô's stochastic differential equation, I shown the multi degree freedom system can always be cast in this form; so, we can consider a general Itô's multi degree equation, where there are non-linear drift and diffusion terms, this is also known as drift and diffusion terms, I can use this you know state space representation and derive the incremental moments, in terms of this f and this G , and I can still get the associated Fokker-Planck equation. So, the formulation for the Fokker-Planck equation itself is fairly general; it can be parametric excitations, it can handle the non-linear systems, and so on and so forth.



(Refer Slide Time: 57:08)



The slide is titled "Next Lecture" and contains a bulleted list of topics. In the bottom right corner, there is a small inset image of a man in a red shirt sitting at a desk. In the bottom left corner, there is an NPTEL logo.

Next Lecture

- Solutions of FPK equations
 - Transient solutions
 - Linear systems with additive noises
 - Steady state solutions
 - All scalar equations
 - All linear systems with additive noises
 - A class of nonlinear and parametrically excited systems
- Moment equations

So, in the next lecture, what will do is, we will next think of how to solve the governing Fokker-Planck equation. And how do a transient solutions? How to get a study state solutions? And when we get exact solutions for these problems? And what approximate strategies that we can develop? And how to derive moment equations from the governing equation for evolution of probability density function?

This will consider in the next lecture; we will conclude this at this stage.