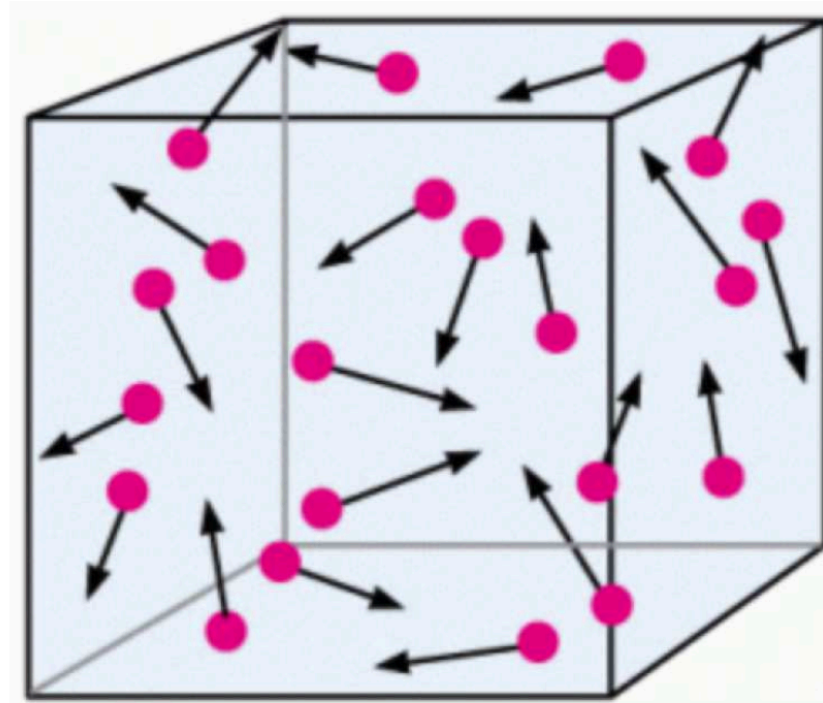


# LECTURE 8

## The Fokker-Planck Equation

# Part II: Kinetic Theory



## Part II: Kinetic Theory

- 6: From Liouville to Boltzmann .....
- 7: From Boltzmann to Navier-Stokes .....
- 8: Stochasticity & the Langevin Equation .....
- 9: The Fokker-Planck Equation .....

# The Smoluchowski Equation

Consider three arbitrary times:  $t_3 > t_2 > t_1$  and let  $x(t)$  be a random process

We can always write that

$$P_2(x_3, t_3 | x_1, t_1) = \int P_3(x_3, t_3 | x_2, t_2; x_1, t_1) P_2(x_2, t_2 | x_1, t_1) dx_2$$

which simply states that as  $x$  transitions from  $x_1$  at  $t_1$  to  $x_3$  at  $t_3$ , it must pass through some  $x_2$  at  $t_2$

Iff the random process is Markovian and stationary, we have that

$$P_3(x_3, t_3 | x_2, t_2; x_1, t_1) = P_2(x_3, t_3 | x_2, t_2) = P_2(x_3, t_3 - t_2 | x_2)$$

In this case the expression simplifies to

$$P_2(x_3, t_3 | x_1) = \int P_2(x_3, t_3 - t_2 | x_2) P_2(x_2, t_2 | x_1) dx_2$$

known as the Smoluchowski equation (or the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation)

# From Smoluchowski Equation to Fokker-Planck

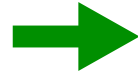
$$P_2(x_3, t_3|x_1) = \int P_2(x_3, t_3 - t_2|x_2) P_2(x_2, t_2|x_1) dx_2$$

$$t_3 \rightarrow t + \Delta t$$

$$x_3 \rightarrow x$$

$$x_2 \rightarrow x - \Delta x$$

$$x_1 \rightarrow x_0$$



$$P_2(x, t + \Delta t) = \int \Psi(\Delta x, \Delta t|x - \Delta x, t) P_2(x - \Delta x, t|x_0) d(\Delta x)$$

only valid for stationary, Markovian random process

where  $\Psi(\Delta x, \Delta t|x - \Delta x, t) = P_2(x, t + \Delta t|x - \Delta x, t)$  is the **transition probability** that starting from  $x - \Delta x$  at  $t$  the random variable undergoes a change  $\Delta x$  in timestep  $\Delta t$

Using a **Taylor series expansion** for the integrant in the above expression, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} P_2(x, t + \Delta t) &= \int d(\Delta x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\Delta x)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} [\Psi(\Delta x, \Delta t|x - \Delta x, t) P_2(x - \Delta x, t|x_0)]_{x-\Delta x=x} \\ &= \int d(\Delta x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\Delta x)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} [\Psi(\Delta x, \Delta t|x, t) P_2(x, t|x_0)] \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} \left[ P_2(x, t|x_0) \int d(\Delta x) (\Delta x)^n \Psi(\Delta x, \Delta t|x - \Delta x, t) \right] \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} [\langle (\Delta x)^n \rangle P_2(x, t|x_0)] \end{aligned}$$

# From Smoluchowski Equation to Fokker-Planck

Using that the  $n=0$  term in the Taylor series expansion is nothing but  $P_2(x, t|x_0)$  we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial P_2(x, t|x_0)}{\partial t} &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{P_2(x, t + \Delta t|x_0) - P_2(x, t|x_0)}{\Delta t} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} [D^{(n)}(x, t) P_2(x, t|x_0)]\end{aligned}$$

where we have defined

$$D^{(n)}(x, t) \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle (\Delta x)^n \rangle}{\Delta t}$$

If we only keep the first two terms in the Taylor series expansion (i.e., we assume that  $\Delta x$  is small enough such that the higher order terms can be ignored), then we obtain the

**Fokker-Planck equation**

$$\frac{\partial P_2}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} [D^{(1)} P_2] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [D^{(2)} P_2]$$

This is a [generalized diffusion equation](#) for the evolution of  $P_2$

# The Fokker-Planck Equation

**Validity:** when is the FP equation valid?

**Assumptions made:** random process is **stationary** & **Markovian**  
**diffusive limit** ( $\Delta x$  small)

A **stochastic force** is Markovian if 'sampled' on time scale  $\Delta t > \tau_{\text{coll}}$

As discussed in the lecture notes, these assumptions are valid for describing the collisional evolution of a globular cluster, or the Brownian motion of a pollen floating in the air (if pollen is massive compared to air molecules).

However, the FP equation can not be used to describe the diffusion of individual air molecules.

$$\frac{\partial P_2}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} [D^{(1)} P_2] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [D^{(2)} P_2]$$

$$D^{(n)}(x, t) \equiv \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle (\Delta x)^n \rangle}{\Delta t}$$

**Diffusion in velocity space:**

$$\Delta v = v(\Delta t) - v$$

$$D^{(1)} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle \Delta v \rangle}{\Delta t} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} [\langle v(\Delta t) \rangle - v]$$

$$D^{(2)} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle (\Delta v)^2 \rangle}{\Delta t} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} [\langle v(\Delta t)v(\Delta t) \rangle - 2v\langle v(\Delta t) \rangle + v^2]$$

For **white noise** we have that

$$\langle v(t) \rangle = v e^{-\gamma t/m}$$

$$\langle v(t)v(t) \rangle = \langle v(t) \rangle^2 + \frac{D\gamma}{m} (1 - e^{-2\gamma t/m})$$

Substitution in the expressions for  $D^{(1)}$  and  $D^{(2)}$  and using Taylor series expansion for exponential:

$$D^{(1)} = -v \frac{\gamma}{m}, \quad D^{(2)} = 2D \frac{\gamma^2}{m^2}$$



$$\frac{\partial P(v, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{m} \left[ \gamma \frac{\partial v P(v, t)}{\partial v} + \frac{D\gamma^2}{m} \frac{\partial^2 P(v, t)}{\partial v^2} \right] = \frac{1}{\tau_d} \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \left[ v P(v, t) + \frac{D}{\tau_d} \frac{\partial P(v, t)}{\partial v} \right]$$

Recall: **dissipation time**  $\tau_d = m/\gamma$

$$\frac{\partial P(v, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{m} \left[ \gamma \frac{\partial v P(v, t)}{\partial v} + \frac{D\gamma^2}{m} \frac{\partial^2 P(v, t)}{\partial v^2} \right] = \frac{1}{\tau_d} \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \left[ v P(v, t) + \frac{D}{\tau_d} \frac{\partial P(v, t)}{\partial v} \right]$$

Let's see what this does:

Let's assume that  $P(v, 0)$  is a narrow **Gaussian** centered on  $v_0 > 0$

The FP expression has three terms:

- $P(v, t)$  which is positive for all  $v$
- $v \partial P / \partial v$  which is positive for  $0 < v < v_0$ , negative otherwise
- $\partial^2 P / \partial v^2$  which is negative for  $|v - v_0| < \sigma$ , positive otherwise

The second term causes the PDF to move towards  $v=0$  (**friction**)

The third term causes the PDF to broaden (**diffusion**)

At **equilibrium**  $\partial P(v, t) / \partial t = 0$ . This requires that  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial v} = -\frac{v\tau_d}{D} P \Rightarrow P \propto \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2D\gamma}\right)$

Using the **Einstein-Smoluchowski equation**, according to which  $D\gamma = k_B T$  and requiring **normalization**, we obtain the **Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution**

$$P_{\text{eq}}(v) = \left( \frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2k_B T}\right)$$



## Extension to higher dimensions:

The **FP equation** we derived thus far is valid for one-dimensional **Markov** processes  $x(t)$ .

It is straightforward to extend this to multi-dimensional **Markov** processes  $\mathbf{x}(t)=[x_1(t),x_2(t),\dots,x_n(t)]$

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial P_2}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} [D^{(1)} P_2] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} [D^{(2)} P_2]} \quad \rightarrow \quad \boxed{\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} [D_i^{(1)} P_2] + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} [D_{ij}^{(2)} P_2]}$$

$$D_i^{(1)} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int d^n(\Delta \vec{x}) (\Delta x)_i \Psi(\Delta \vec{x}, \Delta t | \vec{x}) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle (\Delta x)_i \rangle}{\Delta t}$$

$$D_{ij}^{(2)} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int d^n(\Delta \vec{x}) (\Delta x)_i (\Delta x)_j \Psi(\Delta \vec{x}, \Delta t | \vec{x}) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle (\Delta x)_i (\Delta x)_j \rangle}{\Delta t}$$

Note that the first-order diffusion 'coefficient' is now a **vector**, and the second-order diffusion 'coefficient'; has become a **tensor**

The above multi-dimensional FP equation has many applications in physics, mathematics and beyond...

## The collision integral as a Fokker-Planck equation:

Thus far we focussed on FP applications in which we want to describe the evolution of a PDF  $P(\mathbf{x},t)$  that starts from some  $\mathbf{x}_0$  at  $t=t_0$

Sometimes, though, we want to describe the evolution of an **unconstrained** PDF,  $P(\mathbf{x},t)$ , under the influence of some stochastic force.

A particular application of the latter is to describe the evolution of the 1-particle distribution function,  $f=f^{(1)}$ , under the influence of long-range forces (i.e., gravity) in cases where the **collisionality** of the system is not negligible.

This evolution is described by the **Boltzmann equation**

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \{f, \mathcal{H}\} = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_c$$

with the **collision integral** given by

$$\left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_c = \int d^3\vec{q}_2 d^3\vec{p}_2 \frac{\partial U(|\vec{q}_1 - \vec{q}_2|)}{\partial \vec{q}_1} \cdot \frac{\partial f^{(2)}}{\partial \vec{p}_1}$$

which is a complicated-to-solve **integro-differential equation** that depends on the **2-particle DF**, which thus requires input from higher-order equations in the **BBGKY hierarchy**

## The collision integral as a Fokker-Planck equation:

As an alternative approach, we now try to use the **Fokker-Planck equation** to solve this

Hence, we seek a FP equation that describes the evolution of  $f(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}, t)$ , due to **collisionality**, rather than the evolution of  $P_2(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}, t | \mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{p}_0, t)$

Our **stochastic** variable is  $\mathbf{w}(t) = (\mathbf{q}(t), \mathbf{p}(t))$

Let  $\Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w}) d^6(\Delta\vec{w}) \Delta t$  be the **transition probability** that a particle with phase-space coordinates  $\vec{w}$  is scattered to the phase-space volume  $d^6(\Delta\vec{w})$  centered on  $\vec{w} + \Delta\vec{w}$  during  $\Delta t$

Stochastic collisions cause the distribution function to change based on a competition between a **gain term** and a **loss term**:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{loss term : } \left( \frac{\partial f(\vec{w})}{\partial t} \right)_- &= -f(\vec{w}) \int d^6(\Delta\vec{w}) \Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w}), \\ \text{gain term : } \left( \frac{\partial f(\vec{w})}{\partial t} \right)_+ &= \int d^6(\Delta\vec{w}) \Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w} - \Delta\vec{w}) f(\vec{w} - \Delta\vec{w}) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we can write the **collision integral** as

$$\boxed{\left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_c = \int d^6(\Delta\vec{w}) [\Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w} - \Delta\vec{w}) f(\vec{w} - \Delta\vec{w}) - \Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w}) f(\vec{w})]}$$

Note the subtle assumption that  $f(\vec{w})$  and  $\Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w})$  are statistically independent: **molecular chaos**

## The collision integral as a Fokker-Planck equation:

Now let's restrict ourselves to **weak encounters** only (those for which  $|\Delta\vec{w}|$  is small)

Then we can **Taylor** expand and truncate at second order (i.e., make FP ansatz)

$$\Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w} - \Delta\vec{w}) f(\vec{w} - \Delta\vec{w}) = \Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w}) f(\vec{w}) - \sum_{i=1}^6 \Delta w_i \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} [\Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w}) f(\vec{w})] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^6 \Delta w_i \Delta w_j \frac{\partial^2}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} [\Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w}) f(\vec{w})]$$

Substituting in our expression for the collision integral then yields

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_c = - \sum_{i=1}^6 \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \{D[\Delta w_i] f(\vec{w})\} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^6 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} \{D[\Delta w_i \Delta w_j] f(\vec{w})\}$$

with the following **diffusion coefficients**:

*[.] not 'is a function of', but 'average of'*

$$D[\Delta w_i] \equiv \int d^6(\Delta\vec{w}) \Delta w_i \Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w})$$

$$D[\Delta w_i \Delta w_j] \equiv \int d^6(\Delta\vec{w}) \Delta w_i \Delta w_j \Psi(\Delta\vec{w}, \vec{w})$$

These express the expectation values for changes in  $\Delta w_i$  and  $\Delta w_i \Delta w_j$  per unit time interval

## The collision integral as a Fokker-Planck equation:

Substituting this expression for the collision integral (which is a [Fokker-Planck equation](#)) in the [Boltzmann equation](#) yields

$$\frac{df}{dt} = - \sum_{i=1}^6 \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \{D[\Delta w_i] f(\vec{w})\} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^6 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial w_i \partial w_j} \{D[\Delta w_i \Delta w_j] f(\vec{w})\}$$

[Kramer's equation](#) of [Schwarzschild equation](#)

**NOTE:** sometimes the above equation is simply referred to as the Fokker-Planck equation

The above equation describes the [Lagrangian](#) evolution of the distribution function due to [long-range collisions](#) (for which, as we will see, the assumption of weak collisions is justified).

Note that it is a differential equation, rather than an integro-differential equation, which is much easier to solve.

Key is to compute the first and second order [diffusion coefficients](#)...

This [Kramer's equation](#) is the primary tool we have (in addition to N-body simulations) to describe the evolution of a gravitational system under the influence of collisions

## Weak vs. Strong Encounters

The **Fokker-Planck** equation, and thus **Kramer's** equation, is only valid for **weak encounters**

But among the numerous collisions in a gravitational system, there will always be some some encounters that are strong (cause a large  $|\Delta\vec{w}|$ )...

We now demonstrate that their impact is negligible and can thus be ignored

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The **velocity impuls** of a subject mass due to a high-speed encounter with a field particle of mass  $m$  with impact parameter  $b$  and velocity  $v$  is given by

$$\Delta v_{\perp} \simeq \frac{2Gm}{bv} \quad (\text{you will derive this in one of the problem sets})$$

Let's define **strong** collisions as those for which the impact parameter  $b < b_{90}$  where  $b_{90}$  is the impact parameter for which  $\Delta v_{\perp} = v$ , i.e., for which the deflection is 90 degrees

$$b_{90} = \frac{2Gm}{v^2}$$

The surface density of field particles in a system of size  $R$  is roughly  $N/(\pi R^2)$

Hence, when a subject mass crosses the system once it has  $\frac{dN}{db} db = \frac{N}{\pi R^2} \cdot 2\pi b db = \frac{2N}{R^2} b db$  encounters with impact parameters in the range  $b, b+db$

## Weak vs. Strong Encounters

If we assume that the system is **homogeneous**, then  $\langle \Delta v_{\perp} \rangle = 0$  (average out)

$$\text{However, } \overline{\Delta v^2} = \int_{b_{\min}}^{b_{\max}} (\Delta v_{\perp})^2(b) \frac{dN}{db} db = 8 N \left( \frac{Gm}{Rv} \right)^2 \int_{b_{\min}}^{b_{\max}} \frac{db}{b} = 8 N \left( \frac{Gm}{Rv} \right)^2 \ln \Lambda$$

where we have defined the **Coulomb logarithm**  $\ln \Lambda = \ln \left( \frac{b_{\max}}{b_{\min}} \right)$

For **weak** encounters we can set  $b_{\min} = b_{90}$  and  $b_{\max} = R$

Substituting the expression for  $b_{90}$  we then have that  $\ln \Lambda \approx \ln N$

Using that the typical velocity  $v \sim \sqrt{\frac{GM}{R}} = \sqrt{\frac{GNm}{R}}$  we obtain that  $\overline{\Delta v^2} = \frac{8}{N} \ln N v^2$

Thus, it takes of the order of  $N/(8 \ln N)$  crossings for the net effect of **weak** encounters to be such that  $(\Delta v_{\perp})^2 \sim v^2$

This is called the **two-body relaxation time**

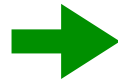
$$\tau_{\text{relax}} = \frac{N}{8 \ln N} \tau_{\text{cross}}$$

## Weak vs. Strong Encounters

For comparison, we now compute how long it takes for **strong** collisions to have a comparable effect

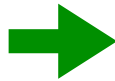
Since a single strong collision already causes  $(\Delta v_{\perp})^2 \geq v^2$  we just need to calculate the collision time for strong collisions

$$\begin{aligned}\tau_{\text{coll}} &= (n\sigma v)^{-1} \\ n &= 3N/4\pi R^3 \\ \sigma &= \pi(2b_{90})^2 = 4\pi b_{90}^2\end{aligned}$$



$$\tau_{\text{coll}}^{\text{strong}} = \frac{1}{3N} \left( \frac{R}{b_{90}} \right)^2 \tau_{\text{cross}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}b_{90} &= \frac{2Gm}{v^2} \\ v^2 &= \frac{GNm}{R}\end{aligned}$$



$$\tau_{\text{coll}}^{\text{strong}} = \frac{N}{12} \tau_{\text{cross}} = \frac{2}{3} \ln N \tau_{\text{relax}}$$

The net impact of **weak encounters** is of order  $\ln N$  times as important as that of **strong encounters**



## The Diffusion Coefficients:

Solving the **Fokker-Planck equation** basically boils down to computing the **diffusion coefficients**  $D[\Delta w_i]$  and  $D[\Delta w_i \Delta w_j]$  with  $w_i$  being a 6D phase-space vector

In general, doing this in 6D phase-space is extremely complicated. However, we can simplify things

From the expression for  $\overline{\Delta v^2}$  we see that each octave in impact parameter makes an equal contribution

Let us use this to derive the impact parameter  $b_{1/2}$  such that encounters with  $b < b_{1/2}$  contribute 50 percent to the total. This requires solving

$$\ln(b_{1/2}) - \ln(b_{\min}) = \ln(b_{\max}) - \ln(b_{\min})$$

$$\begin{array}{l} b_{\max} = R \\ b_{\max}/b_{\min} = \Lambda \sim N \end{array} \quad \rightarrow \quad b_{1/2} = \frac{R}{\sqrt{N}}$$

More than 50 percent of the total impact of collisions is due to those with an impact parameter that is significantly smaller than the **mean particle separation**  $\lambda_{\text{int}} = R/N^{1/3}$



**local approximation** is justified (unless **resonance** effects are important...)

$|\Delta x| \ll |\Delta v|$  this is true because encounter time  $b/v$  is much smaller than orbital time

(you will derive this in one of the problem sets)

## The Diffusion Coefficients:

Hence, if we pick  $\vec{w} = (\vec{x}, \vec{v})$  then we are justified in setting  $D[\Delta x_i] = D[\Delta x_i \Delta x_j] = D[\Delta x_i \Delta v_j] = 0$  and the **Fokker-Planck** equation simplifies to

$$\left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_c = - \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial v_i} \{ D[\Delta v_i] f(\vec{w}) \} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^3 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial v_i \partial v_j} \{ D[\Delta v_i \Delta v_j] f(\vec{w}) \}$$

and we are left with the task to compute  $D[\Delta v_i]$  and  $D[\Delta v_i \Delta v_j]$

Working out how encounters with impact parameter  $b$  between a field particle and a subject mass impact the velocity of the latter and computing the expectation values  $\langle \Delta v_i \rangle$  and  $\langle \Delta v_i \Delta v_j \rangle$  by integrating over  $b$  and the velocity distribution  $f(v)$  of the field particles, yields

$$D[\Delta v_i] = \langle \Delta v_i \rangle = 4\pi G^2 m_a (m + m_a) \ln \Lambda \frac{\partial}{\partial v_i} h(\vec{v})$$

$$D[\Delta v_i \Delta v_j] = \langle \Delta v_i \Delta v_j \rangle = 4\pi G^2 m_a^2 \ln \Lambda \frac{\partial^2}{\partial v_i \partial v_j} g(\vec{v})$$

with  $h(v)$  and  $g(v)$  known as the **Rosenbluth potentials**, given by

$$h(\vec{v}) \equiv \int d^3 \vec{v}_a \frac{f_a(\vec{v}_a)}{|\vec{v} - \vec{v}_a|}$$
$$g(\vec{v}) \equiv \int d^3 \vec{v}_a f_a(\vec{v}_a) |\vec{v} - \vec{v}_a|$$

(see Binney & Tremaine for detailed derivation)

## The Diffusion Coefficients:

If the velocity distribution of field particles is **isotropic**, this simplifies to

$$\begin{aligned}D[\Delta v_{\parallel}] &= -16\pi^2 G^2 m_a (m + m_a) \ln \Lambda \mathcal{E}_2(v) \\D[(\Delta v_{\parallel})^2] &= \frac{32}{3} \pi^2 G^2 m_a^2 \ln \Lambda v [\mathcal{E}_4(v) + \mathcal{F}_1(v)] \\D[(\Delta v_{\perp})^2] &= \frac{32}{3} \pi^2 G^2 m_a^2 \ln \Lambda v [3\mathcal{E}_2(v) - \mathcal{E}_4(v) + 2\mathcal{F}_1(v)]\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{E}_n(v) &= \int_0^v \left(\frac{v_a}{v}\right)^n f_a(v_a) dv_a \\ \mathcal{F}_n(v) &= \int_v^{\infty} \left(\frac{v_a}{v}\right)^n f_a(v_a) dv_a\end{aligned}$$

It is straightforward to compute related diffusion coefficients, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}D[\Delta E] &= \frac{1}{2} \langle (\vec{v} + \Delta \vec{v})^2 - v^2 \rangle = \langle \Delta v \cdot \vec{v} \rangle + \langle \Delta \vec{v} \cdot \Delta \vec{v} \rangle \\ &= v D[(\Delta v)_{\parallel}] + \frac{1}{2} D[(\Delta \vec{v})_{\parallel}]^2 + \frac{1}{2} D[(\Delta \vec{v})_{\perp}]^2\end{aligned}$$

$$D[(\Delta E)^2] = v^2 D[(\Delta \vec{v})_{\parallel}]^2$$

## The Diffusion Coefficients:

Now that we can compute the diffusion coefficient due to weak gravitational encounters we can compute a more accurate (and more local) estimate of the **two-body relaxation time**

Since the two-body relaxation time is defined as the time scale on which the cumulative effect of two-body collisions becomes significant, we have that

$$\tau_{\text{relax}} = \frac{v_{\text{rms}}^2}{D[(\Delta v_{\parallel})^2]}$$

Assuming that the velocity distribution of field particles is **isotropic** and **Maxwellian**, that  $v_{\text{rms}}^2 = \sigma^2$ , and that the typical speed of a particle is equal to  $v = \sqrt{3} \sigma$ , one obtains

$$\tau_{\text{relax}} = 0.34 \frac{\sigma^3}{G^2 m \rho \ln \Lambda}$$

Unlike the more common  $\tau_{\text{relax}} = N/(8 \ln N) \tau_{\text{cross}}$  this expression is based on local quantities

Solar neighborhood: ( $\sigma = 30 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ,  $\rho = 0.04 \text{ M}_{\odot} \text{ pc}^{-3}$ ,  $m = 1 \text{ M}_{\odot}$ )



$$\tau_{\text{relax}} = 6 \times 10^{14} \text{ yr} (\ln \Lambda / 18.5)^{-1}$$

**Hamiltonian Dynamics**

**Liouville Theorem**

$$\frac{df^{(N)}}{dt} = \frac{\partial f^{(N)}}{\partial t} + \{f^{(N)}, \mathcal{H}^{(N)}\} = 0$$

$$f^{(N)} = f^{(N)}(\vec{q}_1, \vec{q}_2, \dots, \vec{q}_N, \vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2, \dots, \vec{p}_N, t)$$

$$\mathcal{H}^{(N)} = \sum_i^N \frac{p_i^2}{2m} + \sum_i^N V(\vec{q}_i) + \sum_{i < j} U(\vec{q}_i - \vec{q}_j)$$

**BBGKY Hierarchy**

$$\frac{df^{(K)}}{dt} = \frac{\partial f^{(K)}}{\partial t} + \{f^{(K)}, \mathcal{H}^{(K)}\} = \mathcal{I}[f^{(K+1)}]$$

$$f^{(K)} = \int \prod_{i=K+1}^N d\vec{q}_i^3 d\vec{p}_i^3 f^{(N)}$$

$$\frac{df^{(1)}}{dt} = \frac{\partial f^{(1)}}{\partial t} + \{f^{(1)}, \mathcal{H}^{(1)}\} = \mathcal{I}[f^{(2)}]$$

is the system collisionless?

$\mathcal{I}[f^{(2)}] = 0$   
**Collisionless Boltzmann Equation**

are the forces short-range?

**Molecular Chaos**  
 $f^{(2)}(\vec{q}, \vec{q}, \vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2) = f^{(1)}(\vec{q}, \vec{p}_1) f^{(1)}(\vec{q}, \vec{p}_2)$   
**Boltzmann Equation**

**Diffusive limit**  
 $|\Delta \vec{w}| = (|\Delta \vec{x}|, |\Delta \vec{v}|)$  small for  $\Delta t \simeq \tau_{\text{coll}}$   
**Fokker-Planck Equation**

**Collisionless Boltzmann Equation:**  $\frac{df^{(1)}}{dt} = 0$

**Boltzmann Equation:**  $\frac{df^{(1)}}{dt} = \left(\frac{\partial f^{(1)}}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{coll}}$

**Fokker-Planck Equation:**  $\frac{df^{(1)}}{dt} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial v_i} \left\{ D[\Delta v_i] f^{(1)} \right\} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial v_i \partial v_j} \left\{ D[\Delta v_i \Delta v_j] f^{(1)} \right\}$

**Collisionless Boltzmann Equation**

$$\frac{df^{(1)}}{dt} = 0$$

take moments

$$\int d^3\vec{v} \frac{df^{(1)}}{dt} = \dots$$

take moments

$$\frac{df^{(1)}}{dt} = \left(\frac{\partial f^{(1)}}{\partial t}\right)_{\text{coll}}$$

**Boltzmann Equation**



**Master Moment Equation**

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} n \langle \chi \rangle + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} [n \langle \chi p_i \rangle] + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_i} \left\langle \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial p_i} \right\rangle = 0$$

$\chi(\vec{p}) = \text{collisional invariant}$

**Collisionless Fluid**

**Jeans Equations**

$$\sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ji}$$

6 unknowns

$$\frac{du_i}{dt} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \sigma_{ij}}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_i}$$

No Equation of State



**Collisional Fluid**

**Navier-Stokes Equations**

$$\frac{du_i}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x_i} + \mu \left[ \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} - \frac{2}{3} \delta_{ij} \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_k} \right] - \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_i}$$

zero viscosity  
 $\mu = 0$



**Euler Equations**

$$\frac{du_i}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial P}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x_i}$$

Equation of State  
 $P = P(\rho)$