

複雑液体・ソフトマター論：
コロイドの物理
Physics of colloidal worlds

ST

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Overview

Introduction

- What are colloids?
- Cells as a colloidal world
- Nature of colloids
- Summary

Stochastic process

- Definitions & theorems
- Brownian motion
- Correlation function
- Power spectrum & Wiener-Khinchin theorem

Langevin equation

- Derivation
- Mean square displacement
- Spectra of fluctuation

Fokker-Planck equation

- Derivation
- Diffusion equation

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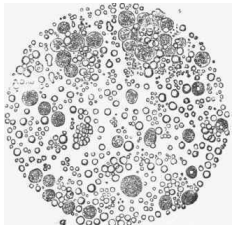
Fokker-Planck equation

- Derivation
- Diffusion equation

Examples of colloids

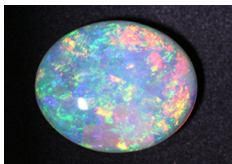
micro	meso	macro
Atoms·Molecules	Colloids	Objects
$\sim 1 \text{ nm}$	$1 \sim 10 \mu\text{m}$	$10 \mu\text{m} \sim$

Milk : Fat particles in water



<https://www.quora.com/If-you-mix-skim-milk-and-whole-milk-will-they-stay-mixed>

Opal : Crystal of silica particles



<http://www.luxrender.net/forum/viewtopic.php?f=36&t=12547>

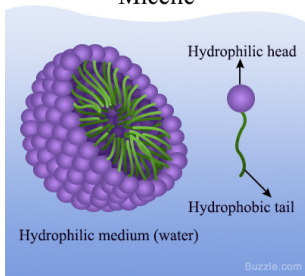
Silica



<http://www.silicagelmanufacturer.com/white-silica-gel.htm>

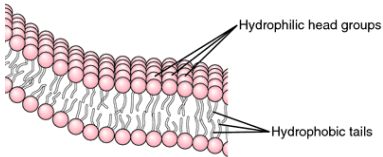
Micelles : Aggregates of surfactants

Micelle



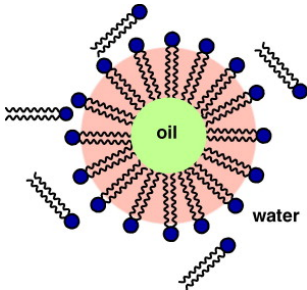
<https://socratic.org/questions/what-are-micelles>

Bilayers : Two dimensional aggregates of surfactants



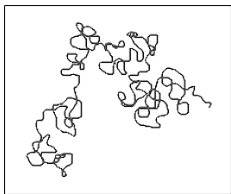
<http://medical-dictionary.thefreedictionary.com/bilayers>

Microemulsions : Droplets stabilized by surfactants



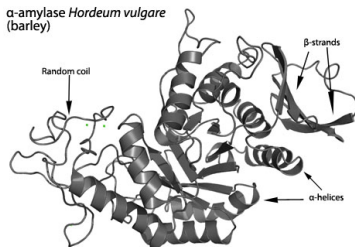
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/215475567_Microemulsion_method_A_novel_route_to_synthesize_organosoluble

Synthetic polymers :



<http://pslc.ws/macrog/property/solpol/ps5.htm>

Natural polymers : Proteins, DNAs, RNAs, ...



<http://www.homebrewtalk.com/showthread.php?t=111819>

Inside a cell

(A cell) = (A space surrounded by membranes, $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$)

+

(Many types of colloids, $1 \text{ nm} \sim 1 \mu\text{m}$)

Proteins (molecular machines), DNA/RNA (molecular information strages), Bilayers (molecular frameworks), ...

It's a small colloidal world!

Ingredients of life

Three major ingredients of life

Nucleic acids : Information

Protein : Functionality

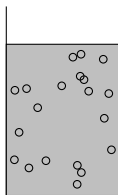
Lipids : Frameworks

All of them are Colloids!

Large interfaces

Exercise 1 : Calculate the total surface area of n colloidal particles of the diameter d .

Exercise 2 : Then calculate the total surface area in 1 l of colloidal suspension containing 10%(v/v) of colloids of $1\ \mu\text{m}$ in diameter.

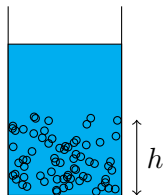


Colloidal suspension

Importance of fluctuation

Sedimentation equilibrium

The number $n(h)$ of colloids at the height h :



$$\frac{n(h)}{n(0)} = \exp \left\{ -\frac{(m - m_w)gh}{k_B T} \right\} \quad (1)$$

m : the mass of a colloid

m_w : the mass of water of the same volume with a colloid

$$= \exp \left(-\frac{h}{\lambda} \right), \quad (2)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{k_B T}{(m - m_w)g} \quad \dots \quad \text{The height where } n(\lambda)/n(0) = e^{-1}. \quad (3)$$

Exercise 3 : Calculate λ for silica particles of the density $\rho = 2.2 \text{ g/cm}^3$ and the radius r below.

$r \text{ (}\mu\text{m)}$	λ
0.1	
1	
10	
100	

When does λ become larger than r ?

Summary

- Colloids are particles of size $1 \text{ nm} \sim 10 \mu\text{m}$.
- It is **mesoscopic** world in between micro and macro.
- The **interface** always plays important role in colloids.
- Also **fluctuation** is always important in colloidal world.

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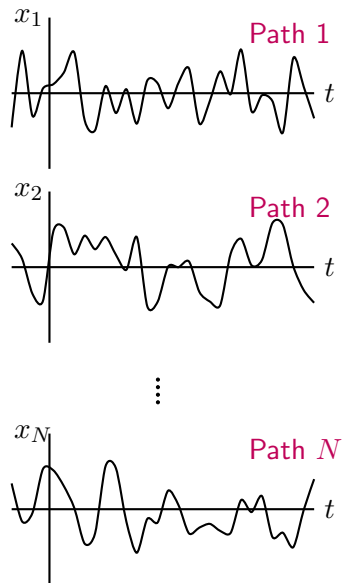
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Ensemble

One dimensional Brownian motion: N times observation



- Each sample is different.
 - But **statistical properties** are common.
- \implies No use of deterministic.
- \implies Need of **statistic**.

Ensemble

x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N : samples
Variables change randomly
 \dots **Random variables**

- Random variable: x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N
- Random **process**: $x(t)$

The process that changes every time sampled.

- **Ensemble average**: Averaged quantity over the ensemble.

$$\langle x(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\text{path}} x_i(t) \quad (4)$$

This is different from the **time average**,

$$\langle x_i \rangle_{\text{time}} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x_i(t) dt \quad (5)$$

Ergodic hypothesis

The ergodic hypothesis assumes for a sufficiently long time,

$$\langle x \rangle = \langle x \rangle_{\text{time}} \quad (6)$$

, if the system is in a steady state.

||

All the microstates the system can access has the same probability to be visited by the system.

Micro states	6
	5
	4
	3
	2
	1

Example: An average of a hundreds dice vs. an average of a die cast a hundred times.

The central limit theorem

Let's consider the random variables $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)$ with $\langle x_i \rangle (t) = 0$, and its sum,

$$X_n(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i(t). \quad (7)$$

Then the mean and variance are

$$\langle X_n \rangle = \left\langle \sum_i x_i \right\rangle = \sum_i \langle x_i \rangle = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$\langle X_n^2 \rangle = \sum_i \langle x_i^2 \rangle \equiv \sum_i \sigma_i^2 \quad (9)$$

Exercise 4 : Confirm eq. (9).

The central limit theorem

If x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are similar random variables, the **probability distribution function** $P(X_n)$ becomes a **Gaussian distribution**,

$$P(X_n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s_n^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{X_n^2}{2s_n^2}\right) \quad (10)$$

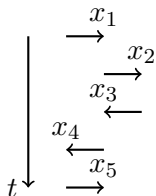
$$s_n^2 = \sum_i \sigma^2. \quad (11)$$

This is called the **central limit theorem**.

Brownian motion & Gaussian distribution

Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be displacement at the step i of Brownian motion.

Random walk model



$$\langle x_i \rangle = 0 \quad (12)$$

$$\langle x_i^2 \rangle = \sigma_i^2 \quad (13)$$

Then the distribution of $X_n = \sum_n x_i$ becomes Gaussian because of the central limit theorem.

Exercise 5 : Calculate

$$\langle X_n \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X_n P(X_n) dX_n \quad (14)$$

$$\langle X_n^2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X_n^2 P(X_n) dX_n, \quad (15)$$

$$\text{with } P(X_n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s_n^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{X_n^2}{2s_n^2}\right) \quad (16)$$

$$\text{and } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2\alpha} \left(\frac{\pi}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} \quad (17)$$

Mean square displacement

$$\text{If } \sigma^2 \equiv \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 = \cdots \sigma_n^2,$$

$$s_n^2 = \sum_i \sigma_i^2 = n\sigma^2. \quad (18)$$

Then

$$\langle X_n^2 \rangle = n\sigma^2 \propto n \text{ (the number of steps)}. \quad (19)$$

Then with $n = \frac{t}{\Delta t}$, ($\Delta t =$ Time needed for a step),

$$\langle X_n^2 \rangle = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta t} t \propto t \quad (20)$$

$$= 2Dt, \quad D = \frac{\sigma^2}{2\Delta t}. \quad (21)$$

D is the **diffusion coefficient**.

Exercise 6 : Calculate $\langle X_n^2 \rangle$ directly from

$$\langle X_n^2 \rangle = \langle (x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n)^2 \rangle \quad (22)$$

by assuming the independency between x_i and x_j if $i \neq j$.

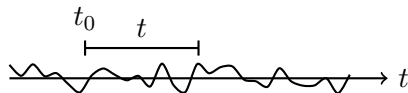
Correlation function

For a random process $x(t)$,

$$\phi(t_0, t) \equiv \langle x(t)x(t_0 + t) \rangle_{\text{time}} \quad (23)$$

$$= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x_k(t_0)x(t_0 + t)dt_0 \quad (24)$$

is called the **correlation function**.



How much similar is $x(t_0 + t)$ with $x(t_0)$?

Under the ergodic hypothesis, the ensemble average

$$\langle x(t_0)x(t_0 + t) \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N x_k(t_0)x_k(t_0 + t) \quad (25)$$

is the same as $\phi(t)$. Thus

$$\phi(t_0, t) = \langle x(t_0)x(t_0 + t) \rangle. \quad (26)$$

Reversibility & Stationarity

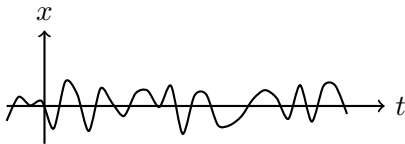
- If the system is in **steady state**, $\phi(t)$ does not depend on t_0 .

$$\phi(t_0, t) = \phi(t) = \langle x(0)x(t) \rangle. \quad (27)$$

- If the system is **reversible**, $\phi(t_0, t)$ does not change when $t \rightarrow -t$.

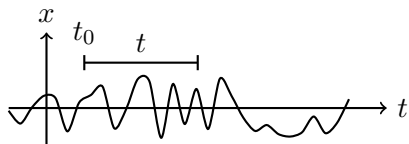
$$\phi(t_0, t) = \langle x(t_0)x(t_0 + t) \rangle = \langle x(t_0)x(t_0 - t) \rangle = \phi(t_0, -t) \quad (28)$$

$$\therefore \phi(t_0, t) \text{ is an even function of } t. \quad (29)$$



It is impossible to determine the direction of time from the data like this.

Physics of the correlation function



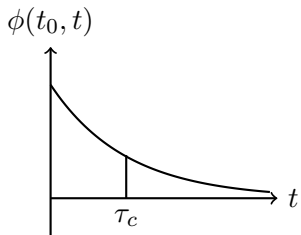
- $t \rightarrow 0$: Always,

$$\langle x(t_0)x(t_0 + t) \rangle = \langle x(t_0)^2 \rangle > 0. \quad (30)$$

- $t \rightarrow \infty$: $x(t_0)$ and $x(t_0 + t)$ is independent. Therefore,

$$\langle x(t_0)x(t_0 + t) \rangle \xrightarrow[t \rightarrow \infty]{} \langle x(t_0) \rangle \langle x(t_0 + t) \rangle = 0 \quad (31)$$

Thus, $\phi(t_0, t)$ is the reducing function of t .



The time at which

$$\phi(t_0, t)/\phi(t_0, 0) = e^{-1} \quad (32)$$

is the **correlation time, τ_c** .

Fourier transformation

The **Fourier integral** or **Fourier transform** of $x(t)$ is

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{x}(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega \quad (33)$$

$$\hat{x}(\omega) : \text{The **Fourier transform** or **spectral composition**.} \quad (34)$$

Since $x(t)$ is real, $x^*(t) = x(t)$.

Exercise 7 : Then show the relation,

$$\hat{x}^*(\omega) = \hat{x}(-\omega). \quad (35)$$

Problem of divergence

Inverse Fourier transform of $x(t)$ gives

$$\hat{x}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-i\omega t} dt. \quad (36)$$

But this will sometimes diverge, because $x(t)$ always has a value. So it is necessary to define $x_T(t)$ as

$$x_T(t) = \begin{cases} x(t) & -T \leq t \leq T \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (37)$$

then its inverse Fourier transform

$$\hat{x}_T(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x_T(t)e^{-i\omega t} dt. \quad (38)$$

does not diverge.

Spectrum of the correlation function

The definition of $\phi(t)$ (under the stationarity assumption) is

$$\phi(t) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x_T(t_0) x_T^*(t_0 + t) dt_0. \quad (39)$$

Exercise 8 : Show the relation

$$\phi(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} |\hat{x}_T(\omega)|^2 e^{i\omega t} d\omega, \quad (40)$$

using

$$x_T(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{x}_T(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega \quad (41)$$

$$\delta(\omega - \omega') = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-T}^T e^{i(\omega - \omega')t} dt. \quad (42)$$

Power spectrum

The **power spectrum** or **spectrum density** is defined as

$$J(\omega) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} |\hat{x}_T(\omega)|^2. \quad (43)$$

Then

$$\phi(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} J(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega. \quad (44)$$

On the other hand, by Fourier inverse transform

$$J(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt. \quad (45)$$

Wiener-Khinchin theorem

Thus there is a relation

$$\phi(t) \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\text{Fourier transform}} \\ \xleftarrow{\text{Fourier inverse transform}} \end{array} J(\omega). \quad (46)$$

This is called **Wiener-Khinchin theorem**.

Exercise 9 : Express $\phi(0) = \langle x^2 \rangle$ using $J(\omega)$.

Exercise 10 : Show that $J(\omega)$ is real.

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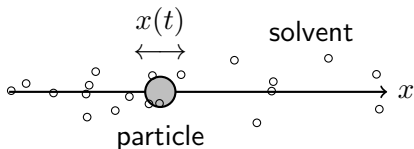
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Equation of motion for Brownian motion

Let's consider one-dimensional Brownian motion.



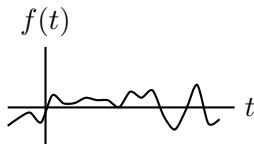
The equation of motion is

$$m \frac{dv}{dt} = F(t) + f(t) \quad (47)$$

$$F(t) : \text{External force} \quad (48)$$

$$f(t) : \text{Force exerted by solvent} \quad (49)$$

$f(t)$: Approximated as a random function of t
 \therefore Random variable



Force exerted by solvent

$f(t)$ can be splitted into two parts

$$f(t) = -\zeta v + f'(t) \quad (50)$$

$$-\zeta v : \text{Viscous resistance} \cdots \text{dissipation} \quad (51)$$

$$f'(t) : \text{Random force} \cdots \text{fluctuation.} \quad (52)$$

Both come from the **interaction to solvent molecules**.

\therefore Strong correlation between dissipation and fluctuation
→ the **fluctuation-dissipation theorem**

Langevin equation

Then the equation of motion amounts to

$$m \frac{dv}{dt} = F(t) - \zeta v + f'(t). \quad (53)$$

This is called the **Langevin equation**. It is a **stochastic** differential equation.

Random walk model

Let $x(t)$ to be the position of the particle at t , and

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = v \quad (54)$$

$$x(0) = 0 \quad \therefore \langle x(t) \rangle = 0 \quad (55)$$

$$\langle f'(t) \rangle = 0 \quad (56)$$

$$\langle x f' \rangle = \langle x \rangle \langle f' \rangle = 0 \quad \therefore \text{No correlation} \quad (57)$$

$$F(t) = 0. \quad (58)$$

Then the Langevin equation becomes

$$m \frac{dv}{dt} = -\zeta v + f'(t). \quad (59)$$

Multiply x to both sides and transform,

$$mx \frac{dv}{dt} = -\zeta xv + x f'(t) \quad (60)$$

$$\therefore m \left\{ \frac{d}{dt}(xv) - v^2 \right\} = -\zeta xv + x f'(t). \quad (61)$$

Then take the ensemble average of both sides,

$$m \frac{d}{dt} \langle xv \rangle - m \langle v^2 \rangle = -\zeta \langle xv \rangle + \langle x f'(t) \rangle. \quad (62)$$

With the **equipartition law**,

$$\frac{m \langle v^2 \rangle}{2} = \frac{k_B T}{2} \quad (63)$$

and

$$\langle x f' \rangle = 0, \quad (64)$$

the equation is simplified to

$$m \frac{d}{dt} \langle xv \rangle = k_B T - \zeta \langle xv \rangle. \quad (65)$$

Exercise 11 : Solve Eq. (65) under the initial condition, $\langle x(0) \rangle = 0$.

With

$$\langle xv \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \langle x^2 \rangle, \quad (66)$$

the solution of Eq. (65) is

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{k_B T}{\zeta} \left(1 - e^{-t/\tau} \right), \quad \tau = \frac{m}{\zeta}. \quad (67)$$

Exercise 12 : Solve Eq. (67) under the initial condition, $\langle x^2(0) \rangle = 0$.

The solution of Eq. (67) is

$$\langle x^2(t) \rangle = \frac{2k_B T}{\zeta} \left\{ t - \tau \left(1 - e^{-t/\tau} \right) \right\}, \quad \tau = \frac{m}{\zeta}. \quad (68)$$

Exercise 13 : Calculate the limit of Eq. (68) when $t \ll \tau$ (the short time limit).

Exercise 14 : Calculate the limit of Eq. (68) when $t \gg \tau$ (the long time limit).

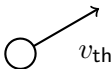
In the short time limit ($t \ll \tau$),

$$\langle x^2(t) \rangle = \frac{k_B T}{\zeta \tau} t^2 \quad (69)$$

$$\therefore \sqrt{\langle x^2(t) \rangle} = \sqrt{\frac{k_B T}{m}} t \quad (70)$$

\therefore In this regime, the particle moves **ballistically** with the **thermal velocity**,

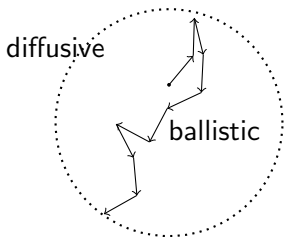
$$v_{\text{th}} = \frac{d}{dt} \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle} = \frac{k_B T}{m}. \quad (71)$$



In the long time limit ($t \gg \tau$),

$$\langle x^2(t) \rangle = \frac{2k_B T}{\zeta} t. \quad (72)$$

$\langle x^2(t) \rangle \propto t$ indicates **diffusive motion** (= the random walk model).



Einstein relation

If compared with the result from the random walk model,

$$\langle x^2(t) \rangle = 2Dt, \quad (73)$$

the **Einstein relation** is obtained,

$$D = \frac{k_B T}{\zeta}. \quad (74)$$

$$D : \text{Characteristics of } \mathbf{fluctuation} \quad (75)$$

$$\zeta : \text{Characteristics of } \mathbf{dissipation} \quad (76)$$

\therefore This relation is one of **fluctuation-dissipation theorem**.

Spectrum of velocity fluctuation

Let $F(t) = 0$,

$$m \frac{dv}{dt} = -\zeta v + f'(t). \quad (77)$$

Multiply $v(0)$ and average,

$$m \frac{d}{dt} \langle v(0)v(t) \rangle = -\zeta \langle v(0)v(t) \rangle + \langle v(0)f'(t) \rangle \quad (78)$$

$$\underbrace{\langle v(0) \rangle}_{\parallel} \langle f'(t) \rangle = 0$$

$$\therefore m \frac{d\phi_v}{dt} = -\zeta \phi_v, \quad (79)$$

$$\phi_v = \langle v(0)v(t) \rangle : \text{velocity correlation function} \quad (80)$$

Exercise 15 : Solve Eq. (79) with $\langle v^2(0) \rangle = k_B T / m$ (equipartition law).

Thus the velocity correlation function is

$$\phi_v = \frac{k_B T}{m} e^{-t/\tau_c}, \quad \tau_c = \frac{m}{\zeta} \quad (81)$$

Since $\phi_v(t) = \phi_v(-t)$,

$$\phi_v = \frac{k_B T}{m} e^{-|t|/\tau_c} \quad (82)$$

The spectrum of v , $J_v(\omega)$, can be obtained using Wiener-Khinchin theorem,

$$\phi_v(t) \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\text{inverse Fourier}} \\ \xleftrightarrow{\text{Fourier}} \end{array} J_v(\omega) \quad (83)$$

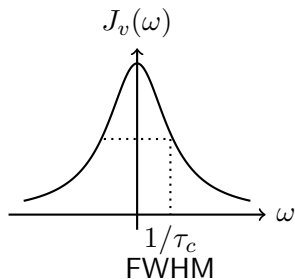
$$J_v(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_v(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt \quad (84)$$

Exercise 16 : Solve Eq. (84) using Euler's formula,

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta. \quad (85)$$

Debye relaxation spectrum

$$J_v(\omega) = \frac{2k_B T}{\zeta} \frac{1}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_c^2}. \quad (86)$$



Spectrum of random force

Fourier transform $v(t)$, $f'(t)$,

$$\begin{aligned}v(t) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{v}(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega \\f'(t) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}'(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega\end{aligned}\tag{87}$$

Exercise 17 : Substitute Eqs. (87) into the Langevin equation ($F(t) = 0$) and obtain the relation between \hat{v} and \hat{f}' .

From the relation,

$$\hat{v} = \frac{\hat{f}'}{im\omega + \zeta} \quad (88)$$

the power spectrum can be obtained,

$$J_v(\omega) = |\hat{v}|^2 = \frac{|\hat{f}'|^2}{|im\omega + \zeta|^2} = \frac{J_{f'}(\omega)}{|im\omega + \zeta|^2}. \quad (89)$$

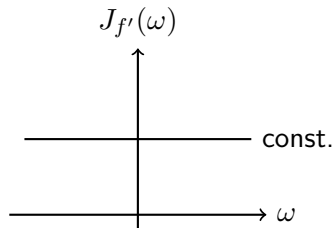
Exercise 18 : Using

$$J_v(\omega) = \frac{2k_B T}{\zeta} \frac{1}{1 + \omega^2 \tau_c^2}, \quad (90)$$

calculate $J_{f'}(\omega)$.

White spectrum

$$J_{f'}(\omega) = 2\zeta k_B T \quad (91)$$

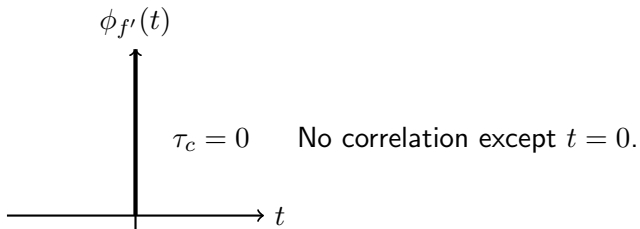


It is also called **white noise**.

Exercise 19 : Calculate the correlation function, $\langle f'(0)f'(t) \rangle$, using the definition of δ function,

$$\delta(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega t} d\omega \quad (92)$$

$$\langle f'(0)f'(t) \rangle = 2\zeta k_B T \delta(t) \quad (93)$$



Outline

Introduction

- What are colloids?
- Cells as a colloidal world
- Nature of colloids
- Summary

Stochastic process

- Definitions & theorems
- Brownian motion
- Correlation function
- Power spectrum & Wiener-Khinchin theorem

Langevin equation

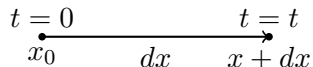
- Derivation
- Mean square displacement
- Spectra of fluctuation

Fokker-Planck equation

- Derivation
- Diffusion equation

Transition probability

Let's consider the transition probability, $P(x, t|x_0)dx$.



A diagram illustrating a transition in space and time. A horizontal line represents the spatial axis. On the left, a black dot is labeled x_0 below it and $t = 0$ above it. An arrow points from this dot to the right, ending at a point labeled $x + dx$ below it and $t = t$ above it. The label dx is placed below the arrow, indicating the distance between the two points.

Initial condition:

$$P(x, 0|x_0) = \delta(x - x_0) \quad (94)$$

Markov process

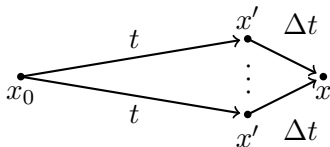
The Markov process:

*If each step of a random process depends **only on the state a step ago**, the process is the Markov process.*

Then,

$$P(x, t + \Delta t | x_0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x, \Delta t | x') P(x', t | x_0) dx', \quad (95)$$

which is called **Chapman-Kolmogorov equation**.



Kramers-Moyal expansion

When $\Delta t \ll 1$, the left-hand side of Eq. (95) can be expanded,

$$P(x, t|x_0) + \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} \Delta t = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x, \Delta t|x - \Delta x)P(x - \Delta x, t|x_0)d\Delta x, \quad (96)$$

with a change of variables, $\Delta x = x - x'$, where $\Delta x \ll 1$ for $\Delta t \ll 1$.

Expansion of $P(x, \Delta t|x - \Delta x)P(x - \Delta x, t|x_0)$ around $x + \Delta x$ yields,

$$P(x, \Delta t|x - \Delta x)P(x - \Delta x, t|x_0) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-\Delta x)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} P(x + \Delta x, \Delta t|x)P(x, t|x_0) \quad (97)$$

Exercise 20 : Confirm Eq. (97).

$$\therefore P(x, t|x_0) + \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} \Delta t = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} P(x, t|x_0) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\Delta x)^n P(x + \Delta x, \Delta t|x) d\Delta x.$$

At $n = 0$,

$$P(x, t|x_0) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x + \Delta x, \Delta t|x) d\Delta x = P(x, t|x_0). \quad (98)$$

$$= 1$$

Then,

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} [\alpha_n(x) P(x, t|x_0)] \quad (99)$$

$$\alpha_n(x) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\Delta x)^n P(x + \Delta x, \Delta t|x) d\Delta x \quad (100)$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle (\Delta x)^n \rangle}{\Delta t} \quad (101)$$

$\langle (\Delta x)^n \rangle \dots$ n th moment of Δx .

This is called **Kramers-Moyal expansion**.

Exercise 21 : Confirm Eq. (99).

Fokker-Planck equation

When a change of x is induced by many random events (such as diffusion), $P(x, t|x_0)$ becomes Gaussian for the central limit theorem. Then

$$\alpha_n = 0 \quad (n \geq 3). \quad (102)$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\alpha_1 P) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}(\alpha_2 P). \quad (103)$$

Simplified a lot!

1st and 2nd moment

Calculate α_1 , α_2 using the Langevin equation:

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + \zeta \frac{dx}{dt} = F(x, t) + f'(t). \quad (104)$$

Assuming (inertia) \ll (viscous resistance),

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{\zeta} F(x, t) + \frac{1}{\zeta} f'(t). \quad (105)$$

Then integrate both sides,

$$\int_t^{t+\Delta t} \frac{dx}{dt} dt' = \frac{1}{\zeta} \int_t^{t+\Delta t} F(x, t') dt' + \frac{1}{\zeta} \int_t^{t+\Delta t} f'(t') dt'. \quad (106)$$

A B

$$\therefore A = x(t + \Delta t) - x(t) = \Delta x \quad (107)$$

$$B = \frac{1}{\zeta} F(x, t) \Delta t. \quad (108)$$

(assuming $F(x, t)$ is slowly changing.)

Then

$$\Delta x = \frac{1}{\zeta} F(x, t) \Delta t + \frac{1}{\zeta} \int_t^{t+\Delta t} f'(t') dt'. \quad (109)$$

Exercise 22 : Calculate α_1 and α_2 using Eq. (109).

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{F(x, t)}{\zeta} \quad (110)$$

$$\alpha_2 = \frac{2k_B T}{\zeta}. \quad (111)$$

Then with $P = P(x, t|x_0)$,

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{F}{\zeta} P \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \left(\frac{2k_B T}{\zeta} P \right). \quad (112)$$

Using the Einstein relation,

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{F}{k_B T} P \right). \quad (113)$$

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

Exercise 23 : Confirm Eq. (113).

Diffusion equation

Let

$$\rho(x, t)dx : \text{Probability to find a particle at } x \sim x + dx \text{ at } t, \quad (114)$$

then $\rho(x, t)$ is the normalized density, and

$$\rho(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x, t|x_0)\rho(x_0, 0)dx_0 \quad (115)$$

where $\rho(x_0, 0)$ is the initial density. Time derivative yields,

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial P}{\partial t} \rho(x_0, 0)dx_0 \quad (116)$$

Exercise 24 : Substitute the Fokker-Planck equation and simplify Eq. (116).

Answer:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} - \frac{F}{k_B T} \rho \right) \quad (117)$$

Thus ρ itself is the Fokker-Planck equation. This is called **diffusion equation**.

Flux

The **flux**, j , is defined as

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial j}{\partial x}. \quad (118)$$

This is called **Continuity equation**. Using j , the diffusion equation is rewritten as

$$j = \frac{\rho}{\zeta} \left(-k_B T \frac{\partial \ln \rho}{\partial x} + F \right). \quad (119)$$

Diffusion force External force

Thus, the flux is proportional to (density) \times (force).

Exercise 25 : Confirm Eq. (119).

If F is a potential force,

$$F = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \quad (120)$$

with the potential U . Then

$$j = -\frac{\rho}{\zeta} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (U + k_B T \ln \rho), \quad (121)$$

where

$$\mu = U + k_B T \ln \rho \quad (122)$$

is the **chemical potential**. Thus the flux is proportional to the chemical potential gradient.

Exercise 26 : Confirm Eq. (121).

Stationary state

When $U(x, t) = U(x)$, the stationary state ($\partial\rho/\partial t = 0$) is given by

$$\frac{\partial\rho}{\partial x} + \frac{\rho}{k_B T} \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} = 0. \quad (123)$$

Exercise 27 : Solve Eq. (123) to calculate the stationary density distribution $\rho(x)$.

Answer:

$$\rho \propto \exp\left(-\frac{U}{k_B T}\right) \quad (124)$$

Then

$$j = -\frac{\rho}{\zeta} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (U + k_B T \ln \rho) = 0. \quad (125)$$

Thus there is no flux in the stationary state.