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**Institutions:** University of California, Berkeley

**Published on:** 01 Jul 1957 - Physical Review (American Physical Society)

**Topics:** Characteristic equation, Distribution function, Integro-differential equation, Inverse and Heat equation

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### Publication Date

1956-04-13

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Contract No. W-7405-eng-48

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ABSTRACT

The contribution to the Fokker-Planck equation for the distribution function for gases, due to particle-particle interactions in which the fundamental two-body force obeys an inverse square law, is investigated. The coefficients in the equation,  $\langle \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} \rangle$  (the average change in velocity in a short time) and  $\langle \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} \rangle$ , are obtained using the collision cross sections for such forces. These coefficients are obtained in terms of two fundamental integrals which are dependent on the distribution function itself. The transformation of the equation to polar coordinates in a case of axial symmetry is carried out. By expanding the distribution function in Legendre functions of the angle the equation is cast into the form of an infinite set of one dimensional coupled nonlinear integro-differential equations. If the distribution function is approximated by a finite series, the resultant Fokker-Planck equation may be treated numerically using a computing machine. Keeping only one or two terms in the series corresponds to the approximations of Chandrasekhar, and Cohen, Spitzer and McRoutly, respectively.

# THE FOKKER-PLANCK EQUATION FOR AN INVERSE-SQUARE FORCE\*

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## I. INTRODUCTION

In dealing with the nonequilibrium properties of systems whose particles obey an inverse-square law of interaction, it is convenient to make use of the fact that under most circumstances small-angle collisions are much more important than collisions resulting in large momentum changes.<sup>1</sup> This leads to the method often used for treating such systems in which one expands the collision integrand of the Boltzmann equation in powers of the momentum change per collision.

A more generally valid approach to the problem of treating changes in a distribution function resulting from frequently occurring "events," each of which produces a small change in the momentum of a particle, is to use the Fokker-Planck equation, which has been discussed by Chandrasekhar.<sup>2</sup> He has used the formalism of this equation to evaluate the collision terms of the Boltzmann equation under the assumptions that (a) the events producing changes in particle momenta are two-body interactions described by the associated differential scattering cross sections, and (b) that the distribution function is isotropic in space and velocity space. Spitzer and collaborators<sup>3, 4</sup> have extended this calculation to the case in which the distribution function is of the form  $f^{(0)} + \mu f^{(1)}$ , where  $f^{(0)}$  and  $f^{(1)}$  are isotropic and  $\mu$  is the direction cosine between the particle trajectory and some preferred direction in space, and  $f^{(1)}$  is assumed to be small.

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\* This work was done under the auspices of the U. S. Atomic Energy Commission.

It is the purpose of this paper to present the mechanics of two-body collisions in a somewhat simplified form, and to derive the Fokker-Planck equation for an arbitrary distribution function. From this general equation such special cases as those of Chandrasekhar and Spitzer may be easily obtained. For more complex situations the equation is suitable for integration by an electronic computer.

## II. FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM

The Boltzmann equation for the change of the molecular distribution function is given by

$$\frac{\partial f_a}{\partial t} + v^{\mu} \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial x^{\mu}} + \frac{F^{\mu}}{m} \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial v^{\mu}} = \left( \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial t} \right)_c \quad (1)$$

where  $f_a$  is the number of molecules of type  $a$  per unit volume in the phase space of configuration and velocity, and  $F$  is an external force field. The summation on repeated Greek indices is understood in this paper, while sums on Roman letters denoting molecular species are explicitly indicated.

The quantity  $\left( \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial t} \right)_c$  represents the change in the distribution function produced by collisions, and it is this term with which we are concerned. Since the interactions take place between molecules within the same small region in space, we need only consider the velocity dependence of the distribution function in evaluating this term.

The Fokker-Planck equation, which is simply a conservation equation, gives the time rate of change of  $f$  due to collisions as

$$\left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_c = - \frac{\partial}{\partial v^{\mu}} (f_a \langle \Delta v^{\mu} \rangle_a) + 1/2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial v^{\mu} \partial v^{\nu}} (f_a \langle \Delta v^{\mu} \Delta v^{\nu} \rangle_a), \quad (2)$$

where  $v^{\mu}$  is the component of particle velocity in Cartesian coordinates and  $\langle \Delta v^{\mu} \rangle_a$  is the average increment per unit time of the  $\mu$ -th component of velocity of a molecule of type  $a$ . The derivation of this equation rests on the approximation that small changes in  $v^{\mu}$  are the most probable and



that terms involving higher powers of  $\Delta v^\mu$  contribute negligibly to  $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_c^2$ . In the next section we give a more precise statement of the approximation made here.

In calculating the average values  $\langle \Delta v^\mu \rangle$  and  $\langle \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu \rangle$  we make the usual assumption that changes in velocity  $v^\mu$  result from two-particle interactions, or collisions during which spatial correlation effects (polarization effects or multiple collisions) are unimportant. For many situations this assumption is believed to be justified, as is indicated by the work of Chapman, Ferraro, and Persico,<sup>1</sup> and more recently, Gasiorowicz, Neuman, and Riddell.<sup>5</sup> The expression for  $\langle \Delta v^\mu \rangle_a$  becomes

$$\langle \Delta v^\mu \rangle_a = \sum_b \int \frac{dv'}{v'} f_b(v'^\mu) \int d\Omega \sigma(u, \Omega) u \Delta v^\mu, \quad (3)$$

where  $u$  is the magnitude of the relative velocity  $|v'^\mu - v^\mu|$ ,  $\sigma(u)$  is the differential scattering cross section,  $\Omega$  is the scattering solid angle, and  $\Delta v^\mu$  is the change in  $v^\mu$  resulting from the collision. The increment  $\Delta v^\mu$  has been integrated over all scattering angles, all velocities  $v'^\mu$  of the scattering particle, and has been summed over all the species of particles. Similarly the average value  $\langle \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu \rangle_a$  is given by

$$\langle \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu \rangle_a = \sum_b \int \frac{dv'}{v'} f_b(v'^\mu) \int d\Omega \sigma(u) u \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu. \quad (4)$$

The differential scattering cross section that we use in Eqs. (3) and (4) is that for an inverse-square law of force,

$$\sigma(\Omega) = (e^4 / 4m_{ab}^2 u^4) (\sin \theta/2)^{-4}, \quad (5)$$

where  $m_{ab} = \frac{m_a m_b}{m_a + m_b}$  is the reduced mass of the colliding particles

and  $\theta$  is the scattering angle in the center-of-mass system.

### III. DERIVATION OF THE EQUATION

We first discuss the kinematics of the collision between a molecule of type a and velocity  $\underline{v}$  and a molecule of type b and velocity  $\underline{v}'$ . The relation between  $\underline{v}_a$ , the velocity  $\underline{V}$  of the center-of-mass, and the relative velocity  $\underline{u} = \underline{v} - \underline{v}'$  is

$$\underline{v}_a = \underline{V} + \frac{m_b}{m_a + m_b} \underline{u}.$$

The change in the  $\mu$ -th component of  $\underline{v}_a$  is given by

$$\Delta v_a^\mu = \frac{m_b}{m_a + m_b} \Delta u^\mu. \quad (6)$$

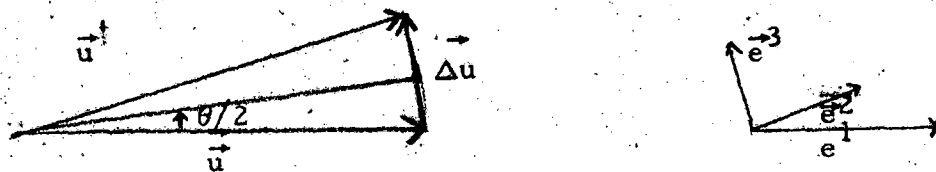
We find it convenient to introduce a local Cartesian coordinate system with unit vectors  $\underline{e}_1', \underline{e}_2', \underline{e}_3'$  whose relation to the fixed system  $\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \underline{e}_3$  is given by

$$\underline{e}_1' = \frac{\underline{u}}{u}, \quad \underline{e}_2' = \frac{\underline{e}_3 \times \underline{u}}{\sqrt{(u^1)^2 + (u^2)^2}}, \quad \underline{e}_3' = \underline{e}_1' \times \underline{e}_2', \quad (7)$$

and in which the relative velocity has components  $u_L^\mu$ . The changes in the components of  $u_L^\mu$  produced by a collision are easily calculated in the local Cartesian coordinates, since the relative velocity vector simply undergoes a rotation through an angle  $\theta$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta u_L^1 &= -2u \sin^2 \theta/2, \\ \Delta u_L^2 &= 2u \sin \theta/2 \cos \theta/2 \cos \phi, \\ \Delta u_L^3 &= 2u \sin \theta/2 \cos \theta/2 \sin \phi. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

A diagram of the scattering is shown in Fig. 1.



The changes in the components of the relative velocity  $\underline{u}$  in the fixed coordinate system are related to these changes in the local system by

$$\Delta u^\mu = (\epsilon_\mu \cdot \epsilon_\nu') \Delta u_L^\nu, \quad (9)$$

$$\Delta u^\mu \Delta u^\nu = (\epsilon_\mu \cdot \epsilon_\sigma') (\epsilon_\nu \cdot \epsilon_\omega') \Delta u_L^\sigma \Delta u_L^\omega.$$

We can next calculate the change of relative velocity in the local system for all collisions by integrating over the scattering angles  $\theta$ ,  $\phi$ , which will be denoted as follows:

$$\langle \Delta u_L^\mu \rangle = \int d\Omega \sigma u (\Delta u_L^\mu). \quad (10)$$

Using Eqs. (5) and (8), we have

$$\langle \Delta u_L^1 \rangle = - \left( \frac{\pi e^4}{m_{ab}^2 u^2} \right) \int_0^\pi \frac{\sin^2 \theta/2 \sin \theta}{\sin^4 \theta/2} d\theta, \quad (11)$$

where we have performed the integration over  $\phi$ . The integral diverges logarithmically at small angles, and we therefore introduce a cutoff at  $\theta_{\min}$  to obtain

$$\langle \Delta u_L^1 \rangle = - (4\pi e^4 / m_{ab}^2 u^2) \ln (2/\theta_{\min}). \quad (12)$$

The small-angle deflections correspond to scatterings with very large impact parameters, and the divergence arises from the long-range nature of the Coulomb forces. The divergence is eliminated, however, when we take into account the shielding that arises from the polarization of charge surrounding the scatterer.<sup>6</sup> This polarization screens the scattering particle and provides a natural cutoff on the maximum impact parameter

of the order of a Debye length  $\lambda_D = \sqrt{kT/4\pi n e^2}$ , and a value for the logarithm in Eq. (12) of

$$\ln \frac{2}{\theta_{\min}} = \ln D = \ln (1/2 m_{ab} u^2) (e^2/\lambda_D)^{-1}, \quad \lambda_D = \frac{kT}{\sqrt{4\pi n e^2} Z_{\text{eff}}}$$

In this equation  $kT$  is proportional to the average kinetic energy,  $n$  is the number of particles per unit volume, and  $e$  is the electronic charge. The quantity  $D$ , which is the ratio of the Debye length  $\lambda_D$  to the classical distance of closest approach  $(1/2)\mu u^2/e^2$  for two particles of relative velocity  $u$ , in most cases of interest will be a very large number so that  $\ln D \gg 1$ . From Eqs. (3), (5), and (8) one can easily see that terms of higher order in  $\Delta v^\mu$ , like  $\langle \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu \Delta v^\omega \rangle$ , will not contain  $\ln D$ , and that the neglect of these terms in the Fokker-Planck equation is therefore justified. The insensitivity of  $\ln D$  to the precise value of  $u$  means that we can simplify our further development by neglecting the weak dependence on  $u$  and using the value for a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of  $(1/2)\mu u^2 = (3/2)kT$ . It would probably not be justified in any event to consider the argument of the logarithm as better determined than this.

The remaining integrations yield

$$\langle \Delta u_L^2 \rangle_a = \langle \Delta u_L^3 \rangle_a = 0 \quad (13)$$

and

$$\langle (\Delta u_L^1)^2 \rangle = 0, \quad \langle (\Delta u_L^2)^2 \rangle = \langle (\Delta u_L^3)^2 \rangle = (4\pi e^4/m_{ab}^2 u^2) \ln D, \quad (14)$$

with all other second-order terms zero (compared to  $\ln D$ ).

Using these results with Eqs. (6), (7), and (9), we can immediately write down the integrals in the fixed coordinate system,

$$\langle \Delta v^\mu \rangle_a = -(4\pi e^4 \ln D / m_{ab} m_a u^3) u^\mu, \quad (15)$$

$$\langle \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu \rangle_a = (4\pi e^4 \ln D / m_a^2) \left\{ \delta^{\mu\nu} - u^\mu u^\nu / (u^2) \right\}.$$

These equations can be simplified by noting that  $u = [(v^\mu - v'^\mu)(v^\mu - v'^\mu)]^{1/2}$ , so that we have

$$\langle \Delta v^\mu \rangle = \int_a \frac{m_a}{m_{ab}} \frac{\partial}{\partial v^\mu} \frac{1}{u}, \quad \langle \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu \rangle = \int_a \frac{\partial^2 (u)}{\partial v^\mu \partial v^\nu}, \quad (16)$$

$$\int_a = (4\pi e^4 \ln D / m_a^2).$$

Finally, from Eqs. (3), (4), and (16), we obtain

$$\langle \Delta v^\mu \rangle_a = \sum_b \int \underline{dv}' f(\underline{v}') \left\langle \Delta v^\mu \right\rangle_a = \sqrt{\frac{1}{a}} (\partial h_a / \partial v^\mu) \quad (17)$$

$$\langle \Delta v^\mu \Delta v^\nu \rangle_a = \sqrt{\frac{1}{a}} (\partial^2 g / \partial v^\mu \partial v^\nu), \quad (18)$$

where

$$h_a(\underline{v}) = \sum_b \frac{m_a + m_b}{m_b} \int \underline{dv}' f_b(\underline{v}') |\underline{v} - \underline{v}'|^{-1} \quad (19)$$

$$g(\underline{v}) = \sum_b \int \underline{dv}' f_b(\underline{v}') |\underline{v} - \underline{v}'|.$$

It is interesting to note a formal similarity with potential theory,

$$\nabla_v^2 h_a = (\partial^2 / \partial v^\mu \partial v^\mu) h_a = -4\pi \sum_b \frac{m_a + m_b}{m_b} f_b(\underline{v}), \quad (20)$$

$$\nabla_v^4 g = (\partial^4 / \partial v^\mu \partial v^\nu \partial v^\mu \partial v^\nu) g = -8\pi \sum_b f_b.$$

Substituting Eq. (18) into Eq. (2), we obtain the Fokker-Planck equation for an arbitrary distribution function:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \left( \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial t} \right)_c = - \frac{\partial}{\partial v^i} \left( f_a \frac{\partial h_a}{\partial v^i} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial v^i \partial v^j} \left( f_a \frac{\partial^2 g}{\partial v^i \partial v^j} \right) \quad (21)$$

In the general case this fourth-order, three-dimensional, time-dependent, and nonlinear partial differential equation seems quite difficult to handle. In many cases, however, there are simplifications which result when a coordinate system is adopted that embodies the natural symmetries of a problem. For example, in many problems there will be a preferred direction in space, such as the direction of an external applied field, with azimuthal symmetry about this direction. Polar coordinates seem especially suitable for such a problem.

#### IV. TRANSFORMATION OF THE EQUATION

Although it is possible to transform Eq. (21) by a straightforward change of variables, the procedure is tedious and unnecessarily involved. A much simpler and more direct procedure is to write the equation in a covariant form valid in any set of curvilinear coordinates  $q^1, q^2, \text{ and } q^3$ . Let the expression for distance between two points whose coordinates differ by  $dq^1, dq^2, \text{ and } dq^3$  be

$$(ds)^2 = a_{\mu\nu} dq^\mu dq^\nu,$$

where  $a_{\mu\nu}$  is a metric tensor, and let  $a^{\mu\nu} \det a$  be the cofactor of  $a_{\mu\nu}$  in the matrix  $a = (a_{\mu\nu})$ , i. e.,  $a^{\mu\omega} a_{\omega\nu} = \delta_\nu^\mu$ . We observe that the

quantities  $T_a^\mu = \sqrt{a}^{-1} \langle \Delta v_a^\mu \rangle$  and  $S_a^{\mu\nu} = \sqrt{a}^{-1} \langle \Delta v_a^\mu \Delta v_a^\nu \rangle_a$

transform like a contravariant vector and tensor respectively between different Cartesian coordinate systems. The appropriate tensor extension of Eq. (2) is therefore

$$\sqrt{a}^{-1} (\partial f_a / \partial t)_c = - (f T_a^\mu)_{,\mu} + \frac{1}{2} (f S_a^{\mu\nu})_{,\mu\nu}, \quad (22)$$

where the commas indicate covariant derivatives with respect to the  $q^\mu$ . In any Cartesian coordinate system Eq. (22) has precisely the form of Eq. (2). We can now write Eq. (18) in a covariant form,

$$T_a^\mu = a^{\mu\nu} (h_a)_\nu, \quad S_a^{\mu\nu} = a^{\mu\omega} a^{\nu\tau} (g_{,\omega\tau}). \quad (23)$$

The two covariant derivatives that appear in Eq. (23) can be found from

$$(h_a)_\nu = \partial h_a^\nu / \partial q^\nu, \quad g_{,\omega\tau} = \partial^2 g / \partial q^\omega \partial q^\tau - \left\{ \begin{matrix} \sigma \\ \omega \tau \end{matrix} \right\} (\partial g / \partial q^\sigma), \quad (24)$$

where  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \sigma \\ \omega \tau \end{matrix} \right\}$  is a Christoffel symbol of the second kind defined by

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} \nu \\ \omega \mu \end{matrix} \right\} = a^{\nu\tau} \left[ \omega\mu, \sigma \right] = \frac{1}{2} a^{\nu\tau} \left( \partial a_{\omega\tau} / \partial q^\mu + \partial a_{\mu\tau} / \partial q^\omega - \partial a_{\omega\mu} / \partial q^\tau \right). \quad (25)$$

The covariant derivative  $(f T_a^\mu)_{,\mu}$  can be simply expressed

$$(f T_a^\mu)_{,\mu} = a^{-1/2} (\partial / \partial q^\mu) (a^{1/2} f T_a^\mu), \quad a = \det (a_{\mu\nu}), \quad (26)$$

and for  $(f S^{\mu\nu})_{,\mu\nu}$ ,

$$(f S^{\mu\nu})_{,\mu\nu} = a^{-1/2} (\partial^2 / \partial q^\mu \partial q^\nu) (a^{1/2} f S^{\mu\nu}) + a^{-1/2} (\partial / \partial q^\nu) \left[ a^{1/2} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \nu \\ \omega \mu \end{matrix} \right\} f S^{\mu\omega} \right]. \quad (27)$$

The writing of Eq. (22) in arbitrary curvilinear coordinates now becomes a straightforward application of Eqs. (23), (24), (26), and (27), in that order.

As an example we can easily write down the equation in spherical polar coordinates in velocity space, assuming azimuthal symmetry about the  $\theta = 0$  symmetry axis, so that we have  $f(v, \mu)$  where  $\mu = \cos \theta$ . In these coordinates we have

$$q^1 = r \quad q^2 = \mu \quad q^3 = \phi,$$

$$ds^2 = dr^2 + r^2(1 - \mu^2)^{-1}(d\mu)^2 + r^2(1 - \mu^2)(d\phi)^2,$$

$$a_{11} = 1, \quad a_{22} = r^2(1 - \mu^2)^{-1}, \quad a_{33} = r^2(1 - \mu^2),$$

$$a_{ij} = 0 \quad i \neq j,$$

$$a^{11} = 1, \quad a^{22} = r^{-2}(1 - \mu^2), \quad a^{33} = r^{-2}(1 - \mu^2)^{-1},$$

$$a^{ij} = 0 \quad i \neq j,$$

$$a = \det(a_{\mu\nu}) = r^4. \quad (28)$$

From Eqs. (23), (24), and (26) we obtain

$$T_a^1 = (\partial h_a / \partial r), \quad T_a^2 = r^{-2}(1 - \mu^2)(\partial h / \partial \mu), \quad T_a^3 = 0,$$

$$(f T_a^\mu)_{,\mu} = r^{-2}(\partial / \partial r)(f r^2 \partial h_a / \partial r) + r^{-2}(\partial / \partial \mu) \left[ f(1 - \mu^2) \partial h_a / \partial \mu \right]. \quad (29)$$

The second-rank tensor  $S^{\mu\nu}$  follows in the same way:

$$S^{11} = \partial^2 g / \partial r^2, \quad S^{22} = r^{-4} (1 - \mu^2)^2 \left[ \partial^2 g / \partial \mu^2 + r (1 - \mu^2)^{-1} (\partial g / \partial r) - \mu (1 - \mu^2)^{-1} \partial g / \partial \mu \right],$$

$$S^{13} = S^{23} = 0,$$

$$S^{12} = r^{-2} (1 - \mu^2) \left[ \partial^2 g / \partial r \partial \mu - r^{-1} \partial g / \partial \mu \right],$$

$$S^{33} = r^{-4} (1 - \mu^2)^{-1} \left[ r \partial g / \partial r - \mu \partial g / \partial \mu \right]. \quad (30)$$

Using Eq. (26) we calculate the second covariant derivative of  $(f S^{\mu\nu})_{,\mu\nu}$  and can then write down Eq. (22) as

$$\begin{aligned} \left[ f_a^{-1} (\partial f_a / \partial t) \right]_c &= -r^{-2} (\partial / \partial r) (f_a r^2 \partial h_a / \partial r) - r^{-2} (\partial / \partial \mu) \left\{ f_a (1 - \mu^2) \partial h_a / \partial \mu \right\} \\ &+ (2r^2)^{-1} (\partial^2 / \partial r^2) (f_a r^2 \partial^2 g / \partial r^2) \\ &+ (2r^2)^{-1} (\partial^2 / \partial \mu^2) \left\{ f_a \left[ r^{-2} (1 - \mu^2)^2 (\partial^2 g / \partial \mu^2) \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. + r^{-1} (1 - \mu^2) (\partial g / \partial r) - r^{-2} \mu (1 - \mu^2) (\partial g / \partial \mu) \right] \right\} \\ &+ r^{-2} (\partial^2 / \partial \mu \partial r) \left\{ f_a (1 - \mu^2) \left[ (\partial^2 g / \partial \mu \partial r) - r^{-1} (\partial g / \partial \mu) \right] \right\} \\ &+ (2r^2)^{-1} (\partial / \partial r) \left\{ f_a \left[ -r^{-1} (1 - \mu^2) (\partial^2 g / \partial \mu^2) - 2 (\partial g / \partial r) \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. + 2\mu r^{-1} (\partial g / \partial \mu) \right] \right\} \\ &+ (2r^2)^{-1} (\partial / \partial \mu) \left\{ f_a \left[ r^{-2} \mu (1 - \mu^2) (\partial^2 g / \partial \mu^2) + 2\mu r^{-1} (\partial g / \partial r) \right. \right. \\ &\quad \left. \left. + 2r^{-1} (1 - \mu^2) (\partial^2 g / \partial \mu \partial r) - 2r^{-2} (\partial g / \partial \mu) \right] \right\} \quad (31) \end{aligned}$$

The equation that describes a system of particles interacting according to an inverse-square law of force when there exists an axis of symmetry is now obtained by combining Eqs. (1), (19), and (31). The quantities  $h_a$  and  $g$  can be given in terms of two-dimensional integrals,



$$\begin{aligned}
 h_a(v, \mu) &= \sum_b \frac{m_a + m_b}{m_b} \int_0^\infty dv' v'^2 \int_{-1}^1 d\mu' f_b(v', \mu') \Lambda(v', \mu'; v, \mu), \\
 g(v, \mu) &= \sum_b \int_0^\infty dv' v'^2 \int_{-1}^1 d\mu' f_b(v', \mu') \Omega(v', \mu'; v, \mu),
 \end{aligned} \tag{32}$$

with  $\Lambda$  and  $\Omega$  defined in terms of the complete elliptic integrals  $K$  and  $E$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Lambda &= 4 \left[ v^2 + v'^2 - 2 v v' \left( \mu \mu' - \sqrt{(1 - \mu^2)(1 - \mu'^2)} \right) \right]^{-1/2} \\
 &\quad \cdot K \left( \frac{4 v v' \sqrt{(1 - \mu^2)(1 - \mu'^2)}}{\sqrt{v^2 + v'^2 - 2 v v' \left( \mu \mu' - \sqrt{(1 - \mu^2)(1 - \mu'^2)} \right)}} \right) \\
 \Omega &= 4 \left[ v^2 + v'^2 - 2 v v' \left( \mu \mu' - \sqrt{(1 - \mu^2)(1 - \mu'^2)} \right) \right]^{1/2} \\
 &\quad \cdot E \left( \frac{4 v v' \sqrt{(1 - \mu^2)(1 - \mu'^2)}}{\sqrt{v^2 + v'^2 - 2 v v' \left( \mu \mu' - \sqrt{(1 - \mu^2)(1 - \mu'^2)} \right)}} \right)
 \end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

The spatially homogeneous two-dimensional time-dependent Eq. (31) is not too complex for electronic digital computers. Moreover, Eq. (31) forms a useful starting point for developing an approximate distribution function when axial symmetry exists. A method for reducing the Eq. (31) to a coupled set of one-dimensional nonlinear integrodifferential equations which can be treated quite simply numerically will be given.

V. REDUCTION OF THE FOKKER-PLANCK EQUATION FOR AXIAL SYMMETRY

The solution to Eq. (31) can be expanded in a series of Legendre polynomials:

$$f_a(v, \mu) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n^{(a)}(v) P_n(\mu). \quad (34)$$

This expansion provides an expansion of the two functions  $h_a(v, \mu)$  and  $g(v, \mu)$ , which can be obtained from Eq. (19). We first evaluate the integral appearing in the definition of  $h_a(v, \mu)$ . Let us define

$$P_n(\mu) A_n^{(a)}(v, \mu) \equiv \int \underline{dv}' a_n^{(a)}(v') P_n(\mu') |\underline{v} - \underline{v}'|^{-1}. \quad (35)$$

Then, inserting

$$|\underline{v} - \underline{v}'|^{-1} = (2\pi^2)^{-1} \int \underline{dk} e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot (\underline{v} - \underline{v}')} k^{-2}$$

into Eq. (35), we have

$$P_n(\mu) A_n^{(a)}(v, \mu) = (2\pi^2)^{-1} \int \underline{dv}' a_n^{(a)}(v') \int \underline{dk} e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot (\underline{v} - \underline{v}')} k^{-2} P_n(\mu') \quad (36)$$

Writing  $\mathbf{k} \cdot (\underline{v} - \underline{v}') = k \cdot \underline{v} - kv'(\mu''\mu' + \sqrt{1-\mu''^2} \sqrt{1-\mu'^2} \cos \phi)$ ,

where  $\mu'' = \cos(\underline{k}, \underline{e}_z)$ ,  $\mu' = \cos(\underline{v}', \underline{e}_z)$ , and  $\phi$  is the angle between the plane of  $\underline{v}'$  and  $\underline{e}_z$  and the plane of  $\underline{k}$  and  $\underline{e}_z$ , we have

$$\int e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \underline{v}'} P_n(\mu') d\mu' d\phi = 2\pi \int e^{-ikv'\mu''\mu'} J_0(kv' \sqrt{(1-\mu''^2)(1-\mu'^2)}) P_n(\mu') d\mu'. \quad (37)$$

Using a formula given by Watson<sup>7</sup> (12.14) we can finally integrate this to

$$\int e^{-i\mathbf{k} \cdot \underline{v}'} P_n(\mu') d\mu' d\phi = 2\pi (2\pi/kv')^{1/2} (-i)^n P_n(\mu'') J_{n+1/2}(kv'). \quad (38)$$

If we write  $\underline{k} \cdot \underline{v} = kv (\mu \mu'' + \sqrt{(1 - \mu^2)(1 - \mu''^2)} \cos \gamma)$ , where  $\mu = \cos(\underline{v}, \underline{e}_z)$  and  $\gamma$  is the angle between the plane of  $\underline{k}, \underline{e}_z$  and  $\underline{v}, \underline{e}_z$ , we can employ the same formula to integrate Eq. (36) with respect to  $k$ , obtaining

$$A_n^{(a)}(v, \mu) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty dv' v'^2 a_n^{(a)}(v') \int_0^\infty dk J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv) J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv') k^{-1} (vv')^{-1/2}. \quad (39)$$

The integral over  $k$  is found in Watson<sup>7</sup> (13.42) also:

$$\int_0^\infty dk J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv) J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv') k^{-1} = (2n+1)^{-1} \left( \frac{v_{<}}{v_{>}} \right)^{n+\frac{1}{2}}$$

where  $v_{<}$  is the smaller of  $v, v'$  and  $v_{>}$  is the greater. Thus the final result is

$$a_n^{(a)}(v, \mu) = 4\pi (2n+1)^{-1} \left[ \int_0^v dv' \frac{(v')^{n+2}}{v^{n+1}} a_n^{(a)}(v') + \int_v^\infty dv' \frac{v^n}{(v')^{n+1}} a_n^{(a)}(v') \right]. \quad (40)$$

The expansion for  $h_a(v, \mu)$  follows from Eqs. (19) and (35):

$$h_a(v, \mu) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_b (m_a + m_b) m_b^{-1} a_n^{(b)}(v, \mu) P_n(\mu). \quad (41)$$

The expansion for  $g(v, \mu)$  can be found in the same way by first using

$$|\underline{v} - \underline{v}'|^{-1} = -\pi^{-2} \int d\underline{k} e^{i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{v} - \underline{v}')} k^{-4}.$$

If we define

$$P_n(\mu) B_n^{(a)}(v) \equiv \int dv' a_n^{(a)}(v') \int d\underline{k} e^{i\underline{k} \cdot (\underline{v} - \underline{v}')} P_n(\mu') k^{-4}, \quad (42)$$

the same steps followed above give

$$B_n^{(a)}(v) = 2\pi \int_0^\infty dv' (v')^2 a_n^{(a)}(v') \int_0^\infty dk J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv) J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv') k^{-3} (vv')^{-1/2}. \quad (43)$$

The  $k$  integral can be evaluated in terms of the hypergeometric function  ${}_2F_1(a, b; c; z)$  (Reference 7, section 13.4):

$$\int_0^\infty dk J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv) J_{n+\frac{1}{2}}(kv') k^{-3} = \frac{1}{8} (v_<)^{n+1/2} (v_>)^{n-3/2} (n^2 - \frac{1}{4})^{-1} \times \\ \times {}_2F_1\left(n - \frac{1}{2}, -1; n + \frac{3}{2}; \frac{v_<^2}{v_>^2}\right). \quad (44)$$

The hypergeometric function appearing here is actually a polynomial, and the result for  $B_n^{(a)}(v)$  is

$$B_n^{(a)}(v) = -4\pi (4n^2 - 1)^{-1} \left[ \int_0^v dv' a_n^{(a)}(v') \frac{(v')^{n+2}}{v^{n-1}} \left(1 - \frac{n-1/2}{n+3/2} \frac{(v')^2}{v^2}\right) \right. \\ \left. + \int_v^\infty dv' a_n^{(a)}(v') \frac{v^n}{(v')^{n-3}} \left(1 - \frac{n-1/2}{n+3/2} \frac{v^2}{(v')^2}\right) \right]. \quad (45)$$

The expansion for  $g(v, \mu)$  follows from Eq. (19) and (42):

$$g(v, \mu) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_b B_n^{(b)}(v) P_n(\mu). \quad (46)$$

The procedure for obtaining an approximate solution to Eq. (31) is to retain terms in  $f_a(v, \mu)$  to some order  $N$ ,

$$f_a(v, \mu) \approx \sum_{n=0}^N a_n^{(a)}(v) P_n(\mu), \quad (47)$$

and obtain the corresponding expansions of  $h_a(v, \mu)$  and  $g_a(v, \mu)$ , which also are to order  $N$ . These expressions are now inserted in Eq. (31) and the result expressed as a series in Legendre polynomials. Of use for this purpose is

$$P_l(\mu) P_l(\mu) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C_{ll'k} P_k(\mu), \quad (48)$$

where the  $C_{ll'k}$  are given in Condon and Shortley.<sup>8</sup> Assuming spatial homogeneity, we find that the velocity-dependent term  $v_{\mu} (\partial f_a / \partial v_{\mu})$  of the Boltzmann differential operator Eq. (1) can also be expanded in Legendre polynomials. Equating coefficients of Legendre polynomials of the same order in the expansions of Eq. (1) and (31), one now obtains a system of coupled one-dimensional nonlinear integrodifferential equations.

The two simplest approximations are the following:

(a)  $f_a(v, \mu)$  in  $h_a(v, \mu)$  and  $g(v, \mu)$  is isotropic and Eq. (31) is the equation given by Chandrasekhar; (b)  $f_a(v, \mu) = a_0(v) + a_1(v)P_1(\mu)$ , and Eq. (31) is the equation used by Spitzer and collaborators.<sup>3, 4</sup>

This work was begun while the first two authors were at the University of California Radiation Laboratory.

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