# Summer Course at PKU (July 2020) Introduction to Kinetic Theory – Lecture Notes

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#### 1 Introduction

These lecture notes are a collection of materials related to various aspects of modern kinetic theory, including physical derivation, mathematical theory, and numerical methods. The main focus is on the Boltzmann-like collisional kinetic equations and their numerical approximations. To begin with, let us take a look at Figure 1 to understand the role of kinetic theory in multiscale modeling hierarchy.

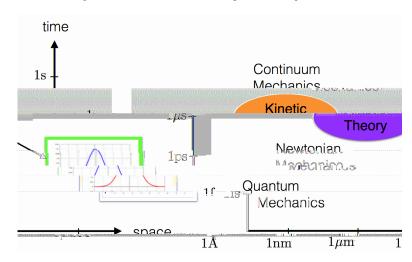


Figure 1: Role of kinetic theory in multiscale modeling hierarchy.

# 2 The Boltzmann equation for hard spheres

Proposed by Ludwig Boltzmann in 1872, the Boltzmann equation is one of the fundamental equations in kinetic theory. It describes the non-equilibrium dynamics of a gas or system comprised of a large number of particles. In this very—rst part of the course, we derive the Boltzmann equation for hard sphere molecules. For better understanding, we start with a heuristic derivation and then discuss a more formal derivation from the Liouville equation.

#### 2.1 Heuristic derivation

This part of the presentation mainly follows [2, Chapter 1.2].

Let us start with the function  $P^{(1)}(t;x_1;v_1)$ , which is the one-particle *probability* density function (PDF).  $P^{(1)} dx_1 dv_1$  gives the probability of nding one xed particle (say, the one labeled by 1) in an in nitesimal volume  $dx_1 dv_1$  centered at the point  $(x_1;v_1)$  of the phase space, where  $x_1 2 \mathbb{R}^3$  is the position and  $v_1 2 \mathbb{R}^3$  is the particle velocity.

When two particles (say, particles 1 and 2) collide, momentum and energy must be conserved (mass is always conserved). Let  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$  be the velocities before a collision and  $(v_1'; v_2')$  the velocities after a collision. From

$$V_1 + V_2 = V_1' + V_2'; \quad jV_1j^2 + jV_2j^2 = jV_1j^2 + jV_2j^2;$$
 (2.1)

one can derive that

$$V_1 = V_1 \quad [(V_1 \quad V_2) \quad !]!; \quad V_2 = V_2 + [(V_1 \quad V_2) \quad !]!;$$
 (2.2)

where ! is the impact direction (the unit vector connecting the centers of particles 1 and 2). Note from (2.2) that

$$v_2' \quad v_1' = (v_2 \quad v_1) \quad 2[(v_2 \quad v_1) \quad !]!;$$
 (2.3)

i.e., the relative velocity undergoes a specular re ection at the impact (see Figure 2).

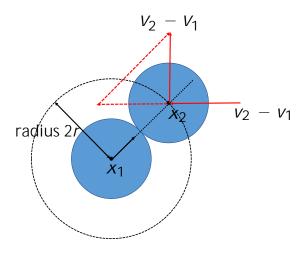


Figure 2: Illustration of particle collisions.

In the absence of collisions and external forces,  $P^{(1)}$  would remain unchanged along the trajectory of particle 1. That is,  $P^{(1)}$  satis es

$$\frac{@P^{(1)}}{@t} + V_1 \quad \Gamma_{x_1} P^{(1)} = 0: \tag{2.4}$$

Now with collisions, one would expect

$$\frac{@P^{(1)}}{@t} + V_1 \quad \Gamma_{x_1} P^{(1)} = G \quad L; \tag{2.5}$$

where  $L dx_1 dv_1 dt$  gives the probability of nding particles with position between  $x_1$  and  $x_1 + dx_1$  and velocity between  $v_1$  and  $v_1 + dv_1$  that disappear from these ranges of

values because of a collision in the time interval between t and t+dt (L is often called the loss term of the collision operator), and  $Gdx_1dv_1dt$  gives the analogous probability of nding particles entering the same range in the same time interval (G is often called the gain term of the collision operator). To count these probabilities, imaging particle 1 as a sphere at rest and endowed with twice the actual radius r and the other particles being the point masses with velocity  $v_2$   $v_1$  (see Figure 2). Fixing particle 1, there are N 1 particles (assume there are a total of N particles) that will collide with it, and they are to be found in the cylinder of height  $j(v_2 v_1)$   $l \neq j \leq t$  and base area  $(2r)^2 dl$ . Then

$$L dx_1 dv_1 dt = (N - 1) \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S_-^2} P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_1 + 2r!; v_2) j(v_2 - v_1) ! j dt$$

$$(2.6)$$

where  $P^{(2)}$  is the two-particle PDF, and  $S_{-}^{2}$  is the hemisphere corresponding to  $(v_2 \ v_1) \ ! < 0$ . Therefore,

$$L = (N - 1)(2r)^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S^2} P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_1 + 2r!; v_2) j(v_2 - v_1) ! j d! dv_2; \qquad (2.7)$$

Similarly,

$$G = (N - 1)(2r)^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S_+^2} P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_1 + 2r!; v_2) j(v_2 - v_1) ! j d! dv_2; \qquad (2.8)$$

where  $S_{+}^{2}$  is the hemisphere corresponding to  $(v_{2} v_{1}) ! > 0$ .

Now we make two crucial assumptions:

Assume  $N \neq 1$ ,  $r \neq 0$ , but  $Nr^2$  is nite. This is the so-called *Boltzmann-Grad limit*.

Assume  $P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_2; v_2) = P^{(1)}(t; x_1; v_1)P^{(1)}(t; x_2; v_2)$  for two particles that are about to collide. This is the *molecular chaos assumption*.

Then L becomes

$$L = N(2r)^{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{3}} \int_{S_{-}^{2}} P^{(2)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}; x_{1}; v_{2}) j(v_{2} v_{1}) ! j d! dv_{2}$$

$$= N(2r)^{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{3}} \int_{S^{2}} P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}) P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{2}) j(v_{2} v_{1}) ! j d! dv_{2};$$
(2.9)

where we used the assumption 1 in the rst equality and assumption 2 in the second

equality. For G, we have

$$G = (N - 1)(2r)^{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{3}} \int_{S_{+}^{2}} P^{(2)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}; x_{1} + 2r!; v_{2}') j(v_{2} - v_{1}) ! j d! dv_{2}$$

$$= N(2r)^{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{3}} \int_{S_{+}^{2}} P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}') P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{2}') j(v_{2} - v_{1}) ! j d! dv_{2}$$

$$= N(2r)^{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{3}} \int_{S_{+}^{2}} P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}') P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{2}') j(v_{2} - v_{1}) ! j d! dv_{2};$$

$$= N(2r)^{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{3}} \int_{S_{+}^{2}} P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}') P^{(1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{2}') j(v_{2} - v_{1}) ! j d! dv_{2};$$

$$(2.10)$$

where the rst equality is because  $P^{(2)}$  is continuous at a collision, the second equality is obtained for the same reason as above for L (since  $(v_2 \ v_1) \ ! > 0$  implies  $(v_2' \ v_1') \ ! < 0$ ), and the third one is a simple change of variable  $! \ !$ 

Putting together G and L, we have

$$\frac{\mathscr{Q}P^{(1)}}{\mathscr{Q}t} + v_1 \quad r_{x_1}P^{(1)} = N(2r)^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S_-^2} j(v_2 \quad v_1) \quad ! j$$

$$[P^{(1)}(t; x_1; v_1)P^{(1)}(t; x_1; v_2) \quad P^{(1)}(t; x_1; v_1)P^{(1)}(t; x_1; v_2)] \, d! \, dv_2:$$
(2.11)

In this course we will often consider the one-particle number distribution function f (i.e.,  $f = NP^{(1)}$ ), then f satis es (changing  $x_1 / x_1 / v_1 / v_2 / v_4 / v_4 / v_5$ )

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + V \Gamma_x f = (2r)^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{(v-v_*) \cdot \omega < 0} j(v \quad v_*) \quad ! \int [f' f'_* \quad f f_*] \, d! \, dv_*; \tag{2.12}$$

where f,  $f_*$ , f',  $f'_*$  are short hand notations for f(t; x; v),  $f(t; x; v_*)$ , f(t; x; v'), f(t; x; v'), and

$$V' = V \quad [(V \quad V_*) \quad !]!; \quad V'_* = V_* + [(V \quad V_*) \quad !]!;$$
 (2.13)

Equation (2.12) is the Boltzmann equation for hard spheres.

It is often convenient to integrate ! over the whole sphere  $S^2$  rather than hemisphere, which yields

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + v r_x f = 2r^2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \int_{S^2} j(v v_*) ! [f'f'_* ff_*] d! dv_*.$$
 (2.14)

## 2.2 Formal derivation from the Liouville equation (BBGKY hierarchy)

In this section, we give a formal derivation of the Boltzmann equation starting from the Liouville equation. The rigorous derivation was an open and challenging problem for a long time. In 1973, Lanford showed that, although for a very short time, the Boltzmann equation can be derived from the mechanical systems.

This part of the presentation mainly follows [1, Chapter 3.2], where one can also nd the rigorous treatise.

Consider N hard spheres of radius r. Let  $x_i$ ,  $v_i$  denote the position and velocity of particle i, then the state of the system is given by

$$(x_1; v_1; \dots; x_N; v_N) \stackrel{?}{=} N \quad \mathbb{R}^{3N} = :$$

where

$$N = f(x_1; \dots; x_N) j j x_i \quad x_j j > 2r; i \in jg;$$

$$P(x_1; x_1; \dots; x_N; x_N; x_N) j j x_i \quad x_j j = 2r; i \in jg;$$

since the particles cannot overlap.

Let  $P^{(N)}(t; x_1; v_1; \dots; x_N; v_N)$  be the *N*-particle PDF, then  $P^{(N)}$  satis es the Liouville equation

$$\frac{@P^{(N)}}{@t} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i \quad r_{x_i} P^{(N)} = 0:$$
 (2.15)

De ne the s-particle PDF as

$$P^{(s)}(t; X_1; V_1; \dots; X_s; V_s) = \int P^{(N)} dX_{s+1} dV_{s+1} \dots dX_N dV_N; \qquad (2.16)$$

then integrating (2.15) one obtains

$$\frac{\mathscr{Q}P^{(s)}}{\mathscr{Q}t} + I_1 + I_2 = 0; {(2.17)}$$

with

For  $I_2$ , applying the divergence theorem (one can refer to Figure 2 again but with  $(x_1; v_1)$  replaced by  $(x_i; v_i)$ ,  $(x_2; v_2)$  by  $(x_j; v_j)$ , and ! by  $!_{ij}$ , one has

$$I_{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{s} \sum_{i=s+1}^{N} (2r)^{2} \int v_{i} \, !_{ij} P^{(N)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}; \dots; x_{i-1}; v_{i-1}; x_{j} \, 2r!_{ij}; v_{i}; \dots; x_{N}; v_{N})$$

$$d!_{ij} \, dx_{s+1} \dots dx_{i-1} \, dx_{i+1} \dots dx_{N} \, dv_{s+1} \dots dv_{N}$$

$$+ \sum_{\substack{j=s+1, j\neq i}}^{N} \sum_{i=s+1}^{N} (2r)^{2} \int v_{i} \, !_{ij} P^{(N)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}; \dots; x_{i-1}; v_{i-1}; x_{j} \, 2r!_{ij}; v_{i}; \dots; x_{N}; v_{N})$$

$$d!_{ij} \, dx_{s+1} \dots dx_{i-1} \, dx_{i+1} \dots dx_{N} \, dv_{s+1} \dots dv_{N}$$

$$(2.19)$$

The second sum in the above equation is completely zero by the Liouville theorem (it is the integral of  $\sum_{i=s+1}^{N} v_i \ \Gamma_{x_i} P^{(N)}$  relative to the dynamics of the last N-s particles). Using the symmetry of  $P^{(N)}$ , the rst term can be further reduced to

$$I_{2} = (N \quad s)(2r)^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \int v_{s+1} \cdot !_{s+1,j} P^{(N)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}; \dots; x_{s}; v_{s}; x_{j} \quad 2r!_{s+1,j}; v_{s+1}; \dots; x_{N}; v_{N})$$

$$d!_{s+1,j} dx_{s+2} \dots dx_{N} dv_{s+1} \dots dv_{N}$$

$$= (N \quad s)(2r)^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \int v_{s+1} \cdot !_{s+1,j} P^{(s+1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}; \dots; x_{s}; v_{s}; x_{j} \quad 2r!_{s+1,j}; v_{s+1}) d!_{s+1,j} dv_{s+1};$$

$$(2.20)$$

For  $I_1$ , it can be shown that (see below)

$$I_{1} = \sum_{i=1}^{s} v_{i} \quad r_{x_{i}} P^{(s)} \quad (N \quad s)(2r)^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \int v_{j} \, |_{s+1,j}$$

$$P^{(s+1)}(t; x_{1}; v_{1}; \dots; x_{s}; v_{s}; x_{j} \quad 2r!_{s+1,j}; v_{s+1}) \, d!_{s+1,j} \, dv_{s+1};$$
(2.21)

where the second term is due to the integration domain depends on  $x_i$ .

Putting together  $I_1$  and  $I_2$ , (2.17) becomes

$$\frac{\mathscr{Q}P^{(s)}}{\mathscr{Q}t} + \sum_{i=1}^{s} V_{i} \quad \Gamma_{x_{i}}P^{(s)} = (N \quad s)(2r)^{2} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \int (V_{j} \quad V_{s+1}) \quad !_{s+1,j}$$

$$P^{(s+1)}(t; X_{1}; V_{1}; \dots; X_{s}; V_{s}; X_{j} \quad 2r!_{s+1,j}; V_{s+1}) \, d!_{s+1,j} \, dV_{s+1}; \qquad (2.22)$$

This is the so-called BBGKY hierarchy for hard spheres (the equation of  $P^s$  depends on  $P^{s+1}$ ), named after Bogoliubov, Born, Green, Kirkwood, and Yvon. In particular, taking s = 1 in (2.22) gives

$$\frac{\mathscr{P}^{(1)}}{\mathscr{Q}t} + v_1 \quad r_{x_1} P^{(1)} = (N - 1)(2r)^2 \int (v_1 - v_2) \quad !_{21} P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_1 - 2r!_{21}; v_2) \, d!_{21} \, dv_2$$

$$= (N - 1)(2r)^2 \int (v_2 - v_1) \quad !_{12} P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_1 + 2r!_{12}; v_2) \, d!_{12} \, dv_2$$

$$= (N - 1)(2r)^2 \int_{(v_2 - v_1) \cdot \omega_{12} > 0} j(v_2 - v_1) \quad !_{12} j P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_1 + 2r!_{12}; v_2) \, d!_{12} \, dv_2$$

$$(N - 1)(2r)^2 \int_{(v_2 - v_1) \cdot \omega_{12} < 0} j(v_2 - v_1) \quad !_{12} j P^{(2)}(t; x_1; v_1; x_1 + 2r!_{12}; v_2) \, d!_{12} \, dv_2$$

$$(2.23)$$

This is the same as equation (2.5) with (2.8) and (2.7) derived in the previous section. The rest of the derivation is the same. That is, the rst BBGKY hierarchy yields the Boltzmann equation.

It remains to prove (2.21). Note that in the two-particle case,

Analogously,

This implies

which is (2.21).

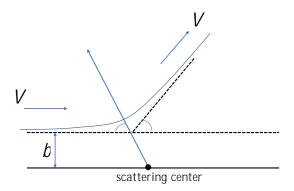


Figure 4: Illustration of particle scattering in a repulsive potential eld (notation consistent with Figure 3). b is the impact parameter, is the scattering angle,  $V = v - v_*$  and  $V' = v' - v_*$ .

where

$$B_{\omega}(jVj;j\cos j) = \frac{1}{2}jVj\frac{b}{\sin |db|}; \qquad (3.6)$$

and

$$V' = V \quad [(V \quad V_*) \quad !]!; \quad V'_* = V_* + [(V \quad V_*) \quad !]!;$$
 (3.7)

This is what we are going to refer to as the !-representation.

Another parametrization of the Boltzmann equation that uses the unit vector  $\mathbf{V}'$  reads

where

$$B_{\sigma}(jVj;\cos) = jVj (jVj; ); (jVj; ) = \frac{b}{\sin} \left| \frac{db}{d} \right|; (3.9)$$

( $\mathit{JVJ}$ ; cos ) is the  $\mathit{differential\ cross\ section\ }$  with 0 < < , and

$$V' = \frac{V + V_*}{2} + \frac{jV - V_*j}{2} \quad ; \quad V'_* = \frac{V + V_*}{2} - \frac{jV - V_*j}{2} \quad ; \quad (3.10)$$

This is what we are going to refer to as the -representation. In particular, the hard sphere collision kernel under this representation reads  $B_{\sigma}(jVj;\cos) = r^2jVj$ .

Now for a general (repulsive) intermolecular potential (r) (r is the distance between two particles), b is related to implicitly as follows

$$= 2 \int_0^{r_0} \frac{\mathrm{d}r}{\left[1 - r^2 - \frac{4\phi(br^{-1})}{m|V|^2}\right]^{1/2}}; \tag{3.11}$$

where m is the single particle mass, and  $r_0$  is the positive root to the equation

$$1 r^2 \frac{4 (br^{-1})}{m/V/^2} = 0: (3.12)$$

Let's take a close look of the inverse power law potential

$$(r) = \frac{K}{r^{s-1}}$$
; 2 < s 1; K is some positive constant: (3.13)

Then (3.11) becomes

$$= 2\int_0^{r_0} \frac{dr}{\left[1 - r^2 - \frac{4Kr^{s-1}}{m|V|^2b^{s-1}}\right]^{1/2}} = 2\int_0^{r_0} \frac{dr}{\left[1 - r^2 - \left(\frac{r}{\beta}\right)^{s-1}\right]^{1/2}}; \quad (3.14)$$

with  $:=\left(\frac{m|V|^2}{4K}\right)^{\frac{1}{s-1}}b$ . Thus the collision kernel  $B_{\sigma}$  is

$$B_{\sigma} = jVj\frac{b}{\sin}\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}b}{\mathrm{d}}\right| = jVj\left(\frac{4K}{mjVj^2}\right)^{\frac{2}{s-1}}\frac{1}{\sin}\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}}\right| = \left(\frac{4K}{m}\right)^{\frac{2}{s-1}}jVj^{\frac{s-5}{s-1}}\frac{1}{\sin}\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}}\right| : \tag{3.15}$$

Since can be solved implicitly from (3.14) to yield = (), (3.15) implies that

$$B_{\sigma} = b_s(\cos)/V_{s-1}^{s-5}; \quad b_s(\cos) = \left(\frac{4K}{m}\right)^{\frac{2}{s-1}} \frac{1}{\sin\left(\frac{d}{d}\right)}$$
(3.16)

When s=5,  $B_{\sigma}$  is a function of only which will lead to many simplications (usually referred to as Maxwell molecules). The hard sphere kernel can be considered as a special case of (3.16) when s=1. Furthermore, (3.16) shows that the velocity dependence in the collision kernel behaves like  $jVj^{\frac{s-5}{s-1}+2}$ . When jVj is small, this is integrable if  $\frac{s-5}{s-1}+2>1$ , i.e. s>2. Note that s=2 corresponds to the Coulomb potential. Therefore, the Boltzmann equation should not be used to describe the Coulomb interaction<sup>1</sup>.

Based on (3.16), it is common in the kinetic literature to distinguish the kernel by its velocity dependence:

$$B_{\sigma} = b_{\lambda}(\cos)/Vj^{\lambda}; \qquad 3 < 1; \tag{3.17}$$

where > 0 is called the *hard potential*, < 0 is the *soft potential*, and = 0 is the *Maxwell kernel*.

Let's analyze a bit the asymptotic behavior of w.r.t. . When 1, (3.14) can be approximated as

$$2\int_0^\beta \frac{\mathrm{d}r}{\left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{\beta}\right)^{s-1}\right]^{1/2}} = 2\int_0^1 \frac{\mathrm{d}u}{(1 - u^{s-1})^{1/2}} = 2A(s); \quad (3.18)$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In this limit, one should consider the so-called Landau operator which is a diffusive type operator. We will come back to this later in the course.

so when !=0, !=, and  $\left|\frac{\mathrm{d}\beta}{\mathrm{d}\chi}\right|$  is well behaved. When 1, (3.14) can be approximated as

$$2\int_0^1 \frac{1 + \frac{1}{2}(1 - r^2)^{-1} \left(\frac{r}{\beta}\right)^{s-1}}{(1 - r^2)^{1/2}} dr = \frac{A(s)}{s-1};$$
 (3.19)

so when / 1, / 0, and

$$\left| \frac{\mathsf{d}}{\mathsf{d}} \right| \qquad ^{-\frac{2}{s-1}-1}, \tag{3.20}$$

i.e., the collision kernel contains a nonintegrable singularity at s > 2 (except s = 1). This can be avoided either by cutting o s = 1, so that the potential is zero for large s = 1, or by the less physical, but mathematically more tractable, method of directly cutting o s = 1, that is, eliminating grazing collisions from the collision term. This is the so-called s = 1 or s = 1.

## 4 Basic properties of the Boltzmann equation

In this section, we derive some basic properties of the Boltzmann equation, which we rewrite here for  $clarity^2$ 

Q(f; f) is the so-called *collision operator*, which is a quadratic integral operator acting only in the velocity space. In fact, it is convenient to introduce a bilinear form of Q as (in both - and ! - representations):

$$Q(g; f)(v) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\sigma}(jv \quad v_*j; \cos) [g'_* f' \quad g_* f] \, d \, dv_*$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_*j; j\cos) [g'_* f' \quad g_* f] \, d! \, dv_*;$$
(4.2)

where

$$v' = \frac{v + v_*}{2} + \frac{jv - v_*j}{2} ; \quad v_* = \frac{v + v_*}{2} - \frac{jv - v_*j}{2} ; \quad \cos \quad = \quad \widehat{(v - v_*)}; \quad (4.3)$$

$$v' = v \quad [(v \quad v_*) \quad !]!; \quad v'_* = v_* + [(v \quad v_*) \quad !]!; \quad j\cos j = j! \quad \widehat{(v \quad v_*)}j: \quad (4.4)$$

Note that the physically relevant case is the dimension d = 3 as we considered in previous sections. Here we assume d = 2 for mathematical generality.

We rst derive a very important formula of the collision operator using the *!* -representation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>We have deliberately ignored the forcing term like  $F(x) \cdot \nabla_v f$  in the discussion so far. With this term, the equation is the so-called Vlasov equation. We will come back to this later in the course.

**Proposition 4.1.** (Boltzmann's lemma) For any functions (v), f(v) such that the integrals make sense, one has

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} Q(f;f)' \, dv = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{$$

Proof.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} Q(f;f)' \, dv = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}]' \, d! \, dv dv_{*}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}]' \, *d! \, dv dv_{*}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{2} \, d! \, dv dv_{*}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [ff_{*} \quad f'f'_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{2} \, d! \, dv dv_{*}$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \frac{''+''}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \frac{''+''}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \frac{''+''}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} \int_{S^{d-1}} B_{\omega}(jv \quad v_{*}j;j\cos j) [f'f'_{*} \quad ff_{*}] \frac{'+'*}{4} \, d! \, dv dv_{*};$$

where in the second line we swapped v and  $v_*$  (hence v' and  $v'_*$ ); in the fourth line we changed  $(v; v_*)$  to  $(v'; v'_*)$  (hence  $(v'; v'_*)$  becomes  $(v; v_*)$ ) for a xed ! and used the fact that  $dv dv_* = dv' dv'_*$  (the transform has the unit Jacobian).

The second equality in (4.5) is obtained by changing  $(v_i, v_*)$  to  $(v', v_*)$  only to the gain term.

#### 4.1 Collision invariants and local conservation laws

De nition 4.2. A collision invariant is a continuous function '='(v) such that for each  $v_i v_* \ge \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $! \ge S^{d-1}$ , one has

$$' + '_* = '' + ''_*$$
: (4.7)

Since during collisions, mass, momentum and energy are conserved, it is obvious that functions 1, v, and  $jvj^2$ , and any linear combination of them are the collision invariants. In fact, it can be shown that these are the only collision invariants (this is a non-trivial result, for proof one may refer to [3, p. 36-42]).

Using the Boltzmann's lemma, it is clear that

#### Corollary 4.3.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Q(f; f) \, dv = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Q(f; f) v \, dv = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Q(f; f) / v f^2 \, dv = 0.$$
 (4.8)

Using the Corollary 4.3, if we multiply the Boltzmann equation (4.1) by m, mv,  $m/v/^2 = 2$ , and integrate w.r.t. v, we obtain

$$\begin{cases}
@_t \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} mf \, dv + \Gamma_x & \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} mv f \, dv = 0; \\
@_t \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} mv f \, dv + \Gamma_x & \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} mv & v f \, dv = 0; \\
@_t \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} mj v j^2 f \, dv + \Gamma_x & \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} mv j v j^2 f \, dv = 0.
\end{cases} \tag{4.9}$$

These are the local *conservation laws* (conservation of mass, momentum, and energy).

To better view the connection of f (number distribution function) and macroscopic quantities such as density, temperature, etc., let us de ne

$$n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f \, \mathrm{d}v; \qquad = mn; \quad u = \frac{1}{n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} v f \, \mathrm{d}v; \tag{4.10}$$

where n is the  $number\ density$ , is the  $mass\ density$ , and u is the  $bulk\ velocity$ . Further, with the  $peculiar\ velocity$ 

$$c = V \quad U \tag{4.11}$$

we de ne

$$T = \frac{1}{dRn} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} jcj^2 f \, dv; \quad \mathbb{P} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} mc \quad cf \, dv; \quad q = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} mcjcj^2 f \, dv; \quad (4.12)$$

where T is the *temperature*,  $\mathbb{P}$  is the *stress tensor*, and q is the *heat flux vector*.  $R = k_B = m$  is the gas constant ( $k_B$  is the Boltzmann's constant).

Finally, the pressure p is de ned as

$$p = \frac{1}{d} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbb{P}) = RT: \tag{4.13}$$

With the above de nitions, we can recast the local conservation laws (4.9) using macroscopic quantities:

$$\begin{cases}
\mathscr{Q}_t + \Gamma_x & (u) = 0; \\
\mathscr{Q}_t (u) + \Gamma_x & (u + \mathbb{P}) = 0; \\
\mathscr{Q}_t E + \Gamma_x & (Eu + \mathbb{P}u + q) = 0;
\end{cases}$$
(4.14)

where  $E = \frac{d}{2} RT + \frac{1}{2} u^2$  is the total energy. The system (4.14) is completely equivalent to (4.9), hence to the Boltzmann equation. Note that this system is not closed because  $\mathbb{P}$  and q, generally speaking, cannot be represented in terms of u, and u.

#### 4.2 Boltzmann's H-theorem and Maxwellian

Proposition 4.4. (Boltzmann's H-theorem)

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Q(f; f) \ln f \, \mathrm{d}v = 0; \tag{4.15}$$

and the equality holds if and only if  $f = \exp(a + b \ v + c / v /^2)$ .

*Proof.* Taking  $' = \ln f$  in the Boltzmann's lemma yields

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Q(f; f) \ln f \, dv = \frac{1}{4} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f f_* \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} [f' f'_* - f f_*] [\ln(f' f'_*) - \ln(f f_*)] \, d! \, dv \, dv_* = 0;$$
(4.16)

where the inequality is due to  $\ln x$  is a monotonically increasing function, so  $(x \ y)(\ln x \ln y) = 0$  for any x; y > 0. The equality holds i  $\ln f$  is a collision invariant, i.e.,  $f = \exp(a + b \ v + cjvj^2)$ , with a, b, c being some constants.

If a function f is of the form  $\exp(a + b v + cjvj^2)$ , it can be rewritten as

$$f = \exp\left(c\left|v + \frac{b}{2c}\right|^2 - \frac{jbj^2}{4c} + a\right)$$
 (4.17)

For f to be integrable, c must be negative. Choosing c' = c,  $b' = \frac{b}{2c}$ ,  $a' = \exp(\frac{|b|^2}{4c} + a)$  gives

$$f = a' \exp(-c'jv - b'j^2): \tag{4.18}$$

Using the de nition of n, u and T given in the previous section, we can see that<sup>3</sup>

$$f = \frac{n}{(2 RT)^{d/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\int V u j^2}{2RT}\right) := \mathcal{M}:$$
 (4.19)

(4.19) is called the *Maxwellian*.

Corollary 4.5. The following statements are equivalent.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} Q(f; f) \ln f \, dv = 0 \quad () \quad f = \mathcal{M} \quad () \quad Q(f; f) = 0:$$
 (4.20)

Corollary 4.6.

$$\mathscr{Q}_t \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f \ln f \, dv + r_x \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} v f \ln f \, dv = D(f) \quad 0; \tag{4.21}$$

where

$$D(f) = \frac{1}{4} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} B_{\omega}[f'f'_* \quad ff_*][\ln(f'f'_*) \quad \ln(ff_*)] \, \mathrm{d}! \, \, \mathrm{d}v \, \mathrm{d}v_* : \tag{4.22}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} \text{Note the Gaussian integrals} \frac{R_{\infty}}{-\infty} e^{-\alpha v^2} \, \mathrm{d}v = \frac{\pi}{\alpha} \, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{R_{\infty}}{-\infty} v^2 e^{-\alpha v^2} \, \mathrm{d}v = \frac{1}{2\alpha} \, \frac{\pi}{\alpha} \, \frac{1}{2}.$$

If we assume f decays fast enough as  $x \neq 1$ , or is periodic in x, then (4.21) upon further integration in x yields

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}H(t) = 0; \tag{4.23}$$

where  $\mathcal{H}(t) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f \ln f \, dv \, dx$  is the H function. (4.23) shows that  $\mathcal{H}$  is always non-increasing and reaches its minimum value i f reaches the Maxwellian (local equilibrium). This is consistent to the second law of thermodynamics.

### 4.3 Boundary condition

The commonly used boundary condition for the Boltzmann equation consists of the following: for a boundary point  $x \ge \emptyset$  and outward pointing normal n(x),

In ow boundary:

$$f(t;x;v) = \frac{n_0}{(2 RT_0)^{d/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{jv u_0 j^2}{2RT_0}\right); \quad v \quad n < 0;$$
 (4.24)

where  $n_0(t;x)$ ,  $u_0(t;x)$ , and  $T_0(t;x)$  are the prescribed density, velocity and temperature.

Maxwell di usive boundary:

$$f(t; x; v) = {}_{w}(t; x) f_{w}(t; x; v); \quad (v \quad u_{w}) \quad n < 0; \tag{4.25}$$

with

$$f_w(t;x;v) = \exp\left(-\frac{jv - u_w j^2}{2RT_w}\right); \tag{4.26}$$

where  $u_w(t;x)$  and  $T_w(t;x)$  are the wall velocity and temperature.  $_w(t;x)$  is determined by

$$_{w}(t;x) = \frac{\int_{(v-u_{w})\cdot n \ge 0} (v - u_{w}) \cdot nf \, dv}{\int_{(v-u_{w})\cdot n \le 0} (v - u_{w}) \cdot nf_{w} \, dv}$$
(4.27)

Re ective boundary:

$$f(t; x; v) = f(t; x; v \quad 2[(v \quad u_w) \quad n]n); \quad (v \quad u_w) \quad n < 0.$$
 (4.28)

# References

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