

Chem237: Lecture 18

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1 Note

I have just transcribed the lecture notes, no thought has gone in yet. We need to sit down and analyze this. 9-17-19

2 PDEs

Partial Differential Equations (PDEs) can have ∞ dimensionality, the problems usually involve boundary conditions with an arbitrary function. So you usually need to know the function and its derivative, and the value of the function and the value of the function's derivative at the boundary to solve.

Consider a second order PDE (the wave equation with constant coefficient c)

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} U - c^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} U = 0 \quad (1)$$

We can give some initial conditions like

$$\begin{aligned} U(x, t = 0) &= \phi(x) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} U(x, t = 0) &= \psi(x) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

This PDE is linear and separable, it is the easiest case to solve. As we will see, given a certain set of boundary conditions we may not actually get a useful solution (for example: could get a solution being an infinite sum we can't solve).

One way to approach this problem is to guess a solution (standard approach in PDEs). If we assume the

$$U(x, t) = [f(x - ct) + g(x + ct)] \quad (3)$$

We need to satisfy the initial conditions

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} U = -cf'(x) + cg'(x) = \psi(x) \quad (4)$$

$$\int dx \frac{dU}{dx} \Rightarrow f(x) - g(x) = \frac{-1}{c} \int^x dy \psi(y) \quad (5)$$

Where the lower bound is undefined, because $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are defined up to a constant we do not know the lower bound.

So second order PDE, infinite solution space, need to specify boundary conditions.

$$\begin{aligned} \int f(x) - g(x) &= -\frac{1}{2} \int^x dy \psi(y) \\ -cf'(x) + cg'(x) &= \psi(x) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Solving these two equations simultaneously gives the general solution to the 2D problem.

$$U(x, t) = \frac{1}{2} [\phi(x - ct) + \phi(x + ct)] + \frac{1}{2c} \int_{x-ct}^{x+ct} dy \psi(y) \quad (7)$$

This can be easily generalized to the 3D case, $U(x, y, z, t)$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} U - c^2 \Delta U = 0 \quad (8)$$

3 Diffusion Equation

Fick's law is a well known linear response expression of the form

$$J = -\frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \rho \quad (9)$$

Here we will derive the diffusion equation

Consider an interval $J(x)$ to $J(x + \Delta x)$. Assuming $\rho = \text{constant}$ within our interval Δx then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \rho \Delta x = J(x) - J(x + \Delta x) \quad (10)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho = \frac{J(x) - J(x + \Delta x)}{\Delta x} \xrightarrow{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} J \quad (11)$$

$$J = -\frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \rho, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} J \Rightarrow \quad (12)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \rho$$

3.1 Solving This Equation

$\rho_t(x) = \rho(x, t)$ with initial conditions $\rho_{t=0}(x) = \rho_0(x)$.

Turns out the solution is a Gaussian

$$\rho_t(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2 t}} \exp \left[-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2 t} \right] \quad (13)$$

In the limit of $t=0$, the Gaussian becomes a Delta function.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta(x) f(x) = f(0) \quad (14)$$

The Delta function can also be defined as

$$\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} dx \delta(x) f(x) = f(0) \xrightarrow{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} f(0) \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} dx \delta(x) = 1 \quad (15)$$

In the limit of ϵ going to 0 we have $\epsilon \gg \sqrt{2\sigma^2 t}$, therefore

$$\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} dx \rho_t(x) \rightarrow 1 \quad (16)$$

Let g define a Gaussian $g_t(x)$ (is a distribution).

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx g_t(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx g_0(x) \quad (17)$$

This is conservation of mass, integrals over space must be constant.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx x g_t(x) = 0 \quad (18)$$

Due to symmetry gaussian integral is 0 for the first moment.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx x^2 g_t(x) = \sigma^2 t \quad (19)$$

The second moment gives a broader gaussian (grows linear wrt t). Therefore the rmsd is \sqrt{t} this is due to the diffusion process.

So for a delta function initial condition you get a simple solution of a Gaussian.

What about a general initial condition?

Theorem: This differential equation is a special case if $\rho_0(x) = \phi(x)$, then

$$\rho_t(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \phi(y) g_t(x-y) \quad (20)$$

Apply the operator (in parenthesis) to the function $\rho_t(x)$

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \right) \rho_t(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} g_t(x-y) \right] \phi(y) \quad (21)$$

The RHS is a soln. to a differential equation with initial condition $\delta(x-y)$. At $t=0$, delta function is 0 or 1 therefore

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} g_t(x-y) \right) \phi(y) dy \xrightarrow{t=0} \phi(x) \quad (22)$$

3.2 Schrodinger

TISE

$$(\hat{H} - E_k) \psi_k = 0 \Rightarrow \hat{H} \psi = E \psi \quad (23)$$

Where $\hat{H} = -\nabla^2 + U(r)$.

The TDSE is given by

$$i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi = \hat{H} \psi \quad (24)$$

If H is not a function of t then it is separable.

$$\psi(r, t) = \exp[i\hat{H}t] \psi(r, 0) \quad (25)$$

This is informative but it is not a solution. If H is not a function of t then $e^{i\hat{H}T}$ is equivalent to the eigenvalue problem of TISE $\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$.

If this is the case we can do eigendecomposition.

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\hat{H}t} &= \sum_k c^{iE_k t} |\psi_k\rangle \langle \psi_k| \\ \psi(r, t) &= e^{i\hat{H}t} \psi(r, 0) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{iE_k t} \langle \psi_k | \psi_0 \rangle \psi_k(r) \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

In the beginning of class we did not use separability the wave equation was simple and we guessed a solution. Now we have a separable pde (second order) not simple, so we use separability and just get an infinite sum to solve.