

Statistical properties of N-particle system (12)

Coordinates $q = (r_1, \dots, r_N) \in \mathbb{R}^n$,
 $n = 3N$ is the number of degrees of freedom.

Momenta $P = (p_1, \dots, p_N) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $p_a = m_a \dot{r}_a$

Hamilton's equations: $\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}$, $\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$.
vector of derivatives

We are interested in the case of very large N.

1 mole = N for 12 grams of carbon $\approx 6 \cdot 10^{23}$ ~~particles~~ atoms.

Problems: (a) extremely large system (hard to solve)
(b) no initial conditions available in real-world applications.

Method: study statistical properties:

Consider the phase space

$$(p, q) \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$$

of very large dimension



\Rightarrow

probability of (p, q) to be in the phase-space region $\{(p, q) \in V \subset \mathbb{R}^{2n}\}$ is

$$\int_V \rho(p, q) dp dq$$

(13)

$\rho(p, q)$ is a probability density function, which defines the \S statistical distribution in phase space.

Total probability to be somewhere: $\int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} \rho dp dq = 1$
(normalization cond.)

For any "observable" function $f(p, q)$ we define

the mean value

$$\bar{f} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} \underbrace{f(p, q)}_{\text{value}} \underbrace{\rho(p, q)}_{\text{probability}} dp dq$$

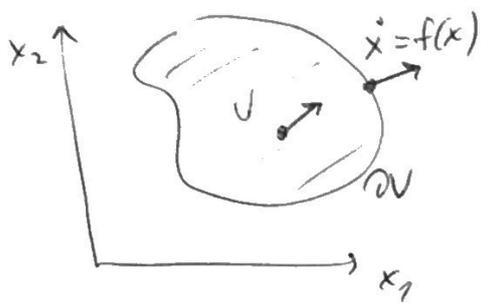
~~Observably~~ For example, f can describe the energy of a subsystem $f = H_A(p_A, q_A)$.

In practical applications, \S mean values are very precise: ~~the~~ mean energy of 1 mole has $\sim 10^{-12}$ relative difference from its exact value.

Obs: central limit theorem: $E \sim N$, $\delta E \sim \sqrt{N}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\delta E}{E} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sim 10^{-12} \quad \text{for one mole } N \sim 10^{24}$$

Equation for the probability density



Consider (in general) a differential equation

$$\dot{x} = f(x), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Consider a statistical description (ensemble of systems) with the probability density $\rho(x)$.

Probability ~~of~~ of having the system in region $x \in V$ is equal to $\int_V \rho(x) dx$. Since each system satisfies the equation $\dot{x} = f(x)$, we have

$$\underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_V \rho(x) dx}_{\text{change of probability}} = - \int_{\partial V} \underbrace{f(x) \rho(x) dx}_{\text{flux through the surface } \partial V}.$$

flux through the surface ∂V .

For fixed volume V and using the divergence theorem:

$$\int_V \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} dx = - \int_V \text{div}(f\rho) dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_V \left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}(f\rho) \right) dx = 0 \quad \text{for any } V \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

Hence $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}(f\rho) = 0$ continuity equation for probability density.

Example: Ham. eqs: $x \rightarrow (p, q)$, $f \rightarrow \left(-\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}, \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} \right)$.

We assume that the system converges to a statistical equilibrium if

$$\rho_{eq}(p, q) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \rho(p, q, t).$$

from some initial condition $t=0: \rho = \rho_0(p, q).$

Obs From the theory of dynamical systems (chaos), we expect that there is a typical relaxation time T such that $\rho \approx \rho_{eq}$ for $t \gg T.$

It is also expected ~~that~~ (assumed) that both ρ_{eq} and T are ~~not~~ independent on ~~the~~ the initial condition.

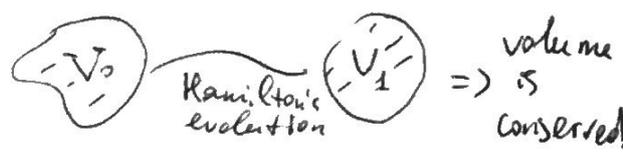
Obs Usually, T is larger for a larger system (N).

Liouville's theorem

Consider a probability distribution $\rho(p, q, t)$ for the Hamilton's equations. Then $\frac{d\rho}{dt} = 0$, i.e.

$\rho = \text{const}$ (conserved) along any trajectory of the Hamilton's equations $(\dot{p}, \dot{q}) = (-\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}, \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}).$

Obs This implies "incompressibility" of the phase-space ~~to~~ volume (exercise).



Proof of Liouville's th.

(156)

Continuity eq. for $\dot{x} = f(x)$:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla_x \cdot (f\rho) = 0$$

∇_x is a "scalar product" of $\nabla_x = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right)$ and $(f\rho)$.

In our case: $x \rightarrow (p, q)$, $f \rightarrow (\dot{p}, \dot{q}) = \left(-\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}, \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} \right)$

Hence,
$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \underbrace{\nabla_p \cdot (\dot{p}\rho)} + \underbrace{\nabla_q \cdot (\dot{q}\rho)} = 0$$

open derivatives of the product

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + [(\nabla_p \rho) \cdot \dot{p} + (\nabla_q \rho) \cdot \dot{q}] + [\nabla_p \cdot \dot{p} + \nabla_q \cdot \dot{q}] \rho = 0$$

$$\nabla_p \cdot \dot{p} + \nabla_q \cdot \dot{q} = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial \dot{p}_i}{\partial p_i} + \frac{\partial \dot{q}_i}{\partial q_i} \right) \stackrel{\text{(use Hamilt. eqs)}}{=} \sum_i \left(-\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_i \partial q_i} + \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial q_i \partial p_i} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + (\nabla_p \rho) \cdot \dot{p} + (\nabla_q \rho) \cdot \dot{q} = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{d\rho}{dt} = 0.$$

for $\rho = \rho(p(t), q(t), t)$.



Corollary: probability density of a system in the statistical equilibrium is the invariant of motion (conservation law): $\frac{d}{dt} \rho_{eq}(p, q) = 0$.

Obs For non-stationary $\rho(p, q, t)$, we have $\frac{d\rho}{dt} \neq 0$, but the invariant of motion should depend only on (p, q) .

Other conservation laws (invariants) known are:

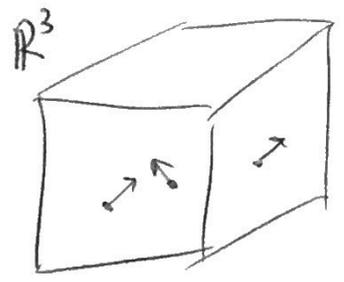
energy $E = H(p, q) \in \mathbb{R}$

momentum $P = \sum_{a=1}^N \vec{p}_a \in \mathbb{R}^3$

angular momentum $M = \sum_{a=1}^N r_a \times p_a \in \mathbb{R}^3$

} 7 invariants

A trick: we will consider the system in a box.



All particles are confined within a box with rigid walls.

Later we will "remove" the box and will see what will change.

Obs In the Lagrangian formulation, the box is introduced via the potential

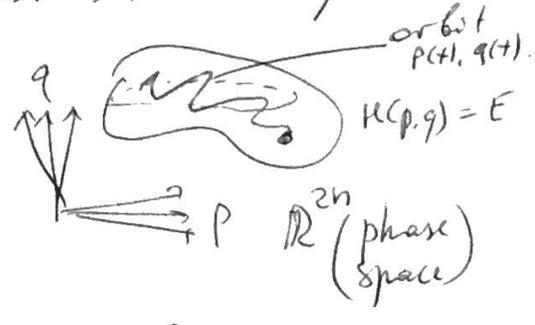


$$U_{\text{tot}} = \sum_{a=1}^N U_{\text{box}}(r_a), \quad U_{\text{box}}(r) = \begin{cases} 0, & r \text{ is in the box} \\ +\infty, & r \text{ is outside the box} \end{cases}$$

Since $E = \underbrace{K}_{\text{kinetic}} + U + U_{\text{box}} = \text{const} \Rightarrow$ all particles remain inside the box.

Ergodicity hypothesis :

The energy surface $H(p, q) = E = \text{const}$ of the system contains a dense orbit



~~In this~~

Since $f_{eq}(p, q) = \text{const}$ along every orbit, ~~hence~~ hence $f_{eq}(p, q) = \text{const}$ in the energy surface (dense orbit) and $f_{eq}(p, q) = 0$ outside energy surface (energy is conserved):

$$f(p, q) = \text{const} \cdot \delta(H(p, q) - E)$$

normalization

Dirac's delta-function

factor: $\int f dp dq = 1$

This distribution is called the microcanonical ensemble.

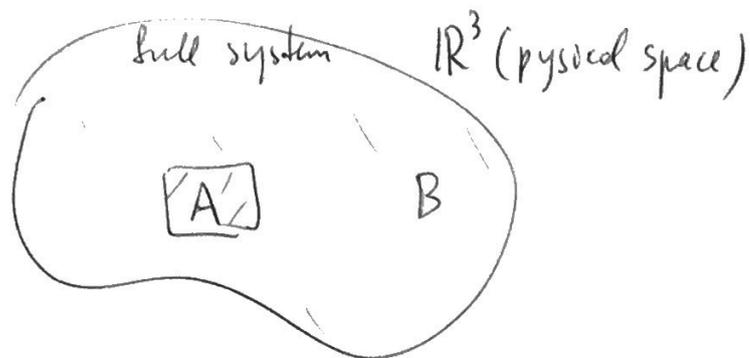
Obs Ergodicity hypothesis is generally wrong!

(KAM - theory!). Perhaps it is true as $N \rightarrow \infty$, in the limit of large number of particles.

Statistical distribution of a macroscopic

(18)

SUB system



Let us divide the system into two parts A and B, with phase variables (p_A, q_A) and (p_B, q_B) .

$$P = (p_A, p_B)$$

$$q = (q_A, q_B)$$

Hamiltonian of the full system:

$$H(p, q) = H_A(p_A, q_A) + H_B(p_B, q_B) + U_{\text{int}}(p, q)$$

(Hamiltonian of system A) (Hamiltonian of system B) (interaction between A and B)

Interaction ~~between~~ among particles is usually local.

Then, only particles near the boundary of A contribute to U_{int} . For a macroscopic (large) system:

$$H_A \sim N_A \text{ (volume particles)} \gg U_{\text{int}} \sim N_A^{2/3} \text{ (surface particles)}$$

\Rightarrow We can approximately neglect U_{int} .

\Rightarrow Systems A and B are approximately decoupled.

(186)

Hence, in the statistical equilibrium, distributions of systems A and B are independent:

$$\rho(p, q) = \rho_A(p_A, q_A) \cdot \rho_B(p_B, q_B).$$

Equivalently,

$$\log \rho = \log \rho_A + \log \rho_B$$

Also, ρ_A is (approximately, neglecting U_{int}) an invariant of system A with the Hamiltonian $H_A(p_A, q_A)$.

Hence, the ~~the~~ equilibrium probability density yields an additive invariant of motion: $\log \rho$.

Poincaré: in a generic (typical) Hamiltonian system, there are no analytic invariants of motion ~~or~~ besides the energy!

Hence $\log \rho$ should be related to the energy E . Both $\log \rho$ and E are additive functions of subsystems (approximately, neglecting U_{int}).

The only possible choice for ~~the~~ $\log p$ is:

$$\log p_A = \alpha_A + \beta H_A(p_A, q_A)$$

where α_A depends on a subsystem, β is the same ~~same~~ constant for all subsystems.

hence, ~~the~~ $p_A = \exp[\alpha_A + \beta H_A(p_A, q_A)]$,

and α_A is defined by the normalization ~~condition~~ condition: $\int p_A dp_A dq_A = 1$.

Obs Note that energy of a subsystem is not constant, it is different for each chosen full system, and also it changes due to U_{int} .

Summary:

Microcanonical ensemble
(for a full system.)

Canonical ensemble
(for a subsystem)

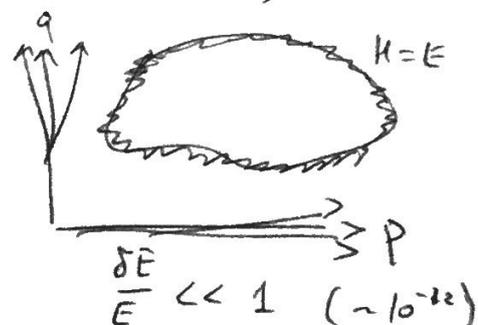
$$p = \text{const} \cdot \delta(H(p, q) - E)$$

$$p = \exp[\alpha + \beta H(p, q)]$$

(const $\leftarrow \int p dp dq = 1$)

($\alpha \leftarrow \int p dp dq = 1$)

Obs In fact both ensembles are very similar: in canonical ensemble, all systems are found near the energy surface $H(p, q) = E = \overline{H}$ (mean)



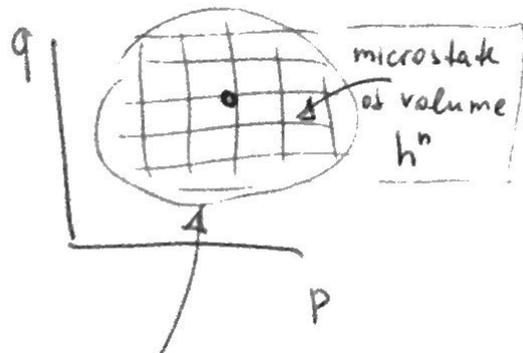
Entropy

Definition. $S = k_B \overline{\log \Omega}$, $\Omega = \frac{1}{g h^n}$

Here: $k_B = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} \left[\frac{J}{K} \right]$ is the Boltzmann constant (it will match units of energy and temperature ~~later~~)

Ω is the number of occupied "microstates" in the phase space $(p, q) \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$

h is the volume of a "microstate" per 1 degree of freedom.



n is the number of degrees of freedom (in our case $n = 3N$).

typical volume occupied $\sim 1/g$

Obs $\log \Omega \sim$ dimension of phase space $\sim n$
Obs h is the Planck constant (justified by quantum mechanics)

$$S = k_B \overline{\log \frac{1}{g h^n}} = -k_B \overline{\log g} + \text{const} = \boxed{-k_B \int g \log g \, dp dq} + \text{const}$$

Entropy measures ~~the~~ a (log of) number of possible microscopic configurations.

Larger $S \Rightarrow$ more possible states \Rightarrow larger disorder.

~~Obs~~
For simplicity, we put $k_B \rightarrow 1$, $const \rightarrow 0$,
(e.g. by choosing appropriate unit system).

Obs for systems with discrete states (e.g. quantum)

$$S = - \sum_i P_i \log P_i$$

where P_i is a probability of state i .

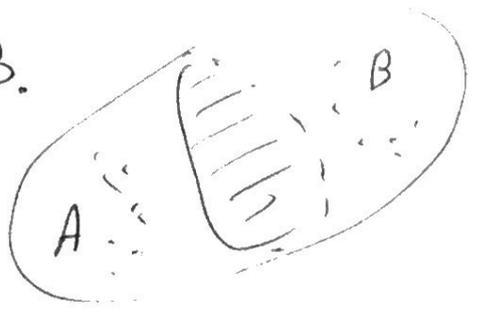
$S=0$ corresponds to the deterministic system with

$P_i=1$ for some state i and 0 otherwise.

Entropy in statistical equilibrium

Consider two subsystems A and B.

Relate S_A, S_B to the entropy
of the whole system S_{A+B} .



$$P_{A+B} \approx P_A P_B \quad \text{- approximate stat. independence}$$

$$\& \text{Phase space element: } dpdq = \int P_A dq_A \int P_B dq_B$$

$$S_{A+B} = - \int P_{A+B} \log P_{A+B} dpdq = - \int P_A P_B \log(P_A P_B) dpdq$$

$$= - \int P_A \log P_A dp_A dq_A \underbrace{\int P_B dp_B dq_B}_1 - \underbrace{\int P_A dp_A dq_A}_1 \int P_B \log P_B dp_B dq_B$$

$$= S_A + S_B$$

(total probab. in state B) (total probability in state A)

$$S_{A+B} = S_A + S_B$$

Entropy is an additive macroscopic quantity.

Entropy of whole system is equal to the sum of entropies of subsystems.

Obs This is also true for systems not in equilibrium.
S_{tot} = $\sum_i S_i$ sum of entropies of subsystems, where each subsystem i is in local stat. equilibrium.

2^d law of Thermodynamics:

- The total entropy of an isolated system can never decrease over time.
- Systems evolve towards thermodynamic equilibrium, where the entropy attains its maximum value.
- Entropy is constant in time if and only if all processes are reversible.

Obs It can be proved in some cases:
see the Boltzmann H-theorem (later in the course)
→ Simon

Obs Idea: system goes to stat. eq \Rightarrow ~~occupies phase space with probability~~
 \Rightarrow occupies all phase space at given E (ergodicity) \Rightarrow max disorder.