

From Dynamics to Thermodynamics

Stefano Olla – CEREMADE, Paris

WIAS, February 21-23, 2012

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- ▶ Zemanski: Heat and Thermodynamics (*my book of 1st year undergraduate in physics*)
- ▶ Fermi: Thermodynamics
- ▶ Callen: Thermodynamics, and introduction of thermostatics. (axiomatic approach)
- ▶ Lawrence Evans: Entropy and Partial Differential Equation (*unpublished notes, can be found in his web site*)
<http://math.berkeley.edu/~evans/entropy.and.PDE.pdf>

A one dimensional system

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ A one dimensional system

Mechanical Equilibrium: $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\tau)$

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$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\tau)$$

Draw picture bar, L , τ etc.

If a system A remains in equilibrium when isolated and placed in thermal contact first with system B and then with system C, the equilibrium of B and C will not be disturbed when they are placed in contact with each other.

Here “*remains in equilibrium*” means that $\mathcal{L}(\tau)$ does not change. We also use here the concept of *isolated system* and *thermal contact*, that require respectively the notion of adiabatic wall and conductive wall.

The system A and B are separated by an *adiabatic wall* if they can have different equilibrium relation between \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{T} . They are separated by a *conductive wall* if they must have the same equilibrium relation.

One could see all these as circular definition, in fact all this is equivalent as postulating the existence of adiabatic and diathermic (thermally conductive) walls that are defined as devices that have the above properties. From all this we obtain the existence of the parameter θ that we call temperature (see in Zemanski a very detailed discussion of this

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$$d\mathcal{L} = \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \theta}\right)_\tau d\theta + \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \tau}\right)_\theta d\tau \quad (1)$$

Differential changes of equilibrium states

Performing (slowly) a differential change of tension $d\tau$ or a change of temperature $d\theta$, the equilibrium length will change

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One of the main issues in discussing foundations of thermodynamics is the physical meaning of these differential changes of *equilibrium* states. In principle, as we actually change the tension of the cable, the system will go into a sequence of non-equilibrium states before to relax to the new equilibrium. But, quoting Zemanski, *thermodynamics does not attempt to deal with any problem involving the rate at which the process takes place*. And, always quoting Zemanski: *Every infinitesimal in thermodynamics must satisfy the requirement that it represents a change in a quantity which is small with respect to the quantity itself and large in comparison with the effect produced by the behavior of few molecules*.

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What does it mean physically?

- Reversible or quasi-static transformations
- Irreversible transformations

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└ Differential changes of equilibrium states

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From the mechanics we have the notion of infinitesimal *work* done by the force/tension τ

$$dW = \tau d\mathcal{L}$$

that change the *energy* \mathcal{U} of the system.

This permit to define the energy (called *internal energy*) as a function of the state of the system: $\mathcal{U}(\mathcal{L}, \theta)$.

So positive work, $dW > 0$, means the external force *tau* has done work nto the system and that energy of the system is increased.

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└ Work → Energy

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Non-adiabatic work: heat

If the work is not adiabatic, there is exchange of energy with the system that is not due to the work of the (*external*) force τ . This is called heat

$$d\mathcal{U} = \tau d\mathcal{L} + \delta Q$$

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$$dU = \tau d\mathcal{L} + dQ$$

$\tau d\mathcal{L}$ and dQ are not exact differential, and the total work or total heat exchanged during a thermodynamic transformation:

$$W = \int_i^f \tau d\mathcal{L}, \quad Q = \int_i^f dQ$$

depend from the particular *path* chosen, i.e. from the particular procedure (isothermal, isochore....) that takes from one equilibrium i to the equilibrium f .

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This is usually only referred as a statement on *conservation of energy*.

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└ 1st principle of thermodynamics

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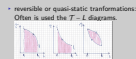
- the external work $\tau d\mathcal{L}$ done by a *known, slow, controllable, macroscopic* force τ ,
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reversible or quasi-static transformations:
Often is used the $\mathcal{T} - L$ diagrams.

In the third transformation the work is given by the integral along the cycle

$$\Delta W = \oint \tau dL \quad (2)$$

that by the first principle will be equal to $-\Delta Q$, where ΔQ is the total heat produced by the process during the cycle and transmitted to the exterior (or absorbed by the exterior, depending from the sign).

Thermodynamic transformations and Cycles

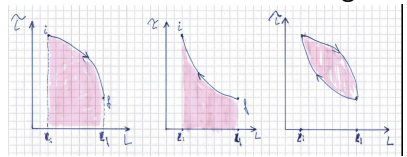
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We can represent a finite thermodynamic transformation by integration along path of the differential forms defined above. Each choice of a path defines a different *thermodynamic process* or *quasi static* transformation. Depending on the type of transformation it may be interesting to make a different choice of the coordinates to represent it graphically. The first diagram on the left describe a quasi-static transformation for length L_i to L_f . If this is happening for example as a free expansion means that the tension \mathcal{T} is decreasing, but it could be increasing if instead \mathcal{T} is pulling with respect the mechanical equilibrium. The second diagram represent a compression from L_f to L_i , and the third a so called *cycle*, returning to the original state. The shaded area represent the work done during the transformation (taken with the negative sign in the second diagram).

In principle any transformation that is not quasi-static, but brings the system from an initial equilibrium state $i = (\mathcal{L}_0, \tau_0)$ to a final state $f = (\mathcal{L}_1, \tau_1)$.

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Still funny pictures appears in the thermodynamic books:



Fig. 11.

from the Fermi's *Thermodynamics*

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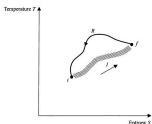


FIGURE 8-8

An irreversible process followed by a reversible process to complete an irreversible cycle:

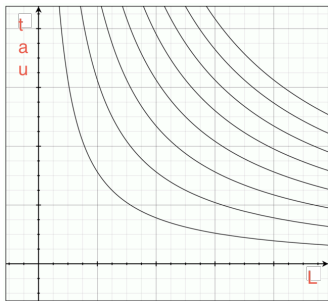
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Special quasi-static transformations

► Isothermal:

System in contact with a *thermostat* while the external force τ is doing work:

$$\delta W = \tau d\mathcal{L} = \tau \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \tau} \right)_\theta d\tau = -\delta Q + dU \quad (3)$$



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└ Special quasi-static transformations

Special quasi-static transformations

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System in contact with a thermostat while the external force τ is doing work:

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While a force perform work on the system, this is in contact with a *thermostat*, a **huge** system in equilibrium at a given temperature θ , so big that the exchange of heat with our elastic does not perturb the equilibrium state of the thermostat. Ideally a thermostat is an infinite system. During a isothermal transformation only the length \mathcal{L} changes as effect of the change of the tension $d\tau$, and the infinitesimal exchanges of heat and work are related by (??).

The isothermal transformations defines isothermal lines parametrized by the temperature (each temperature defines an isothermal line in the $\tau - \mathcal{L}$ plane).

- ▶ **Adiabatic:** $\delta Q = 0$.

$$\delta W = \tau d\mathcal{L} = dU$$

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└ Special quasi-static Transformations

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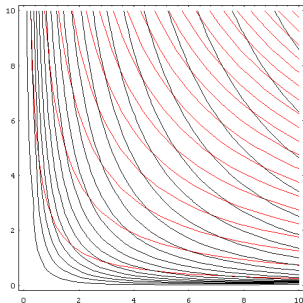
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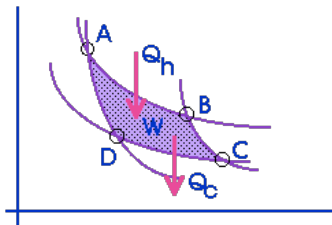


- ▶ **Isocore:** Thermodynamic transformation at fixed length \mathcal{L} .
Consequently $\delta W = 0$, no work if performed to or by the system, and

$$\delta Q = dU$$

- ▶ **Isobar:** Thermodynamic transformation at fixed tension \mathcal{L} ,
 $d\tau = 0$

Carnot Cycles



$A \rightarrow B$, $C \rightarrow D$ isothermal
 $B \rightarrow C$, $D \rightarrow A$ adiabatic

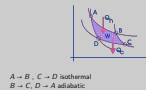
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Carnot Cycles



$W > 0$ means that has done a work W on the exterior (heat machine).

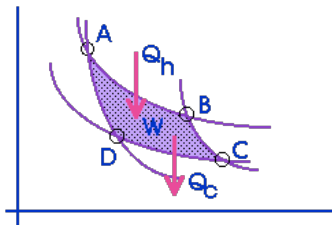
$W < 0$ is a refrigerator.



A → B, C → D isothermal

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$$W = \oint \tau dL = Q_h - Q_c = - \oint \delta Q$$



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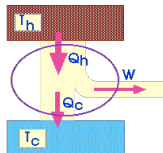
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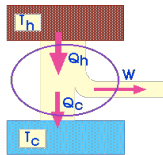
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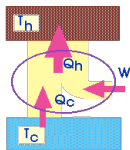


Carnot Cycles

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in a reverse mode is a *Carnot refrigerator*: $W < 0$



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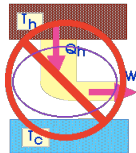
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Lord Kelvin statement: if $W > 0$ then $Q_2 > 0$ and $Q_1 > 0$:



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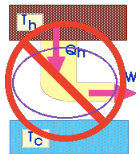
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└ Second Principle of Thermodynamics

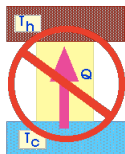
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Clausius Statement: if $W = 0$, then $Q_2 = Q_1 > 0$:



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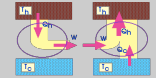
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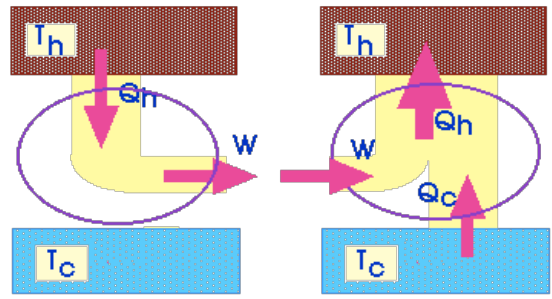
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└ Equivalence of Kelvin and Clausius statement

Equivalence of Kelvin and Clausius statement



if Kelvin statement is not true, we would contradict Clausius, we could use a perfectly efficient carnot machine to make work on another reversible Carnot machine and obtain just transfer of heat from cold to warm.

$$\frac{Q_h}{Q_c} = \frac{g(\theta_h)}{g(\theta_c)}$$

For **any** Carnot cycle operating between temperatures θ_h and θ_c , the ratio $\frac{Q_h}{Q_c}$ depends only from (θ_h, θ_c) and there exist a universal function $g(\theta)$ such that

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From Kelvin's theorem:

$$0 = \frac{Q_h}{T_h} - \frac{Q_c}{T_c} = \oint \frac{\delta Q}{T}$$

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└ Thermodynamic Entropy

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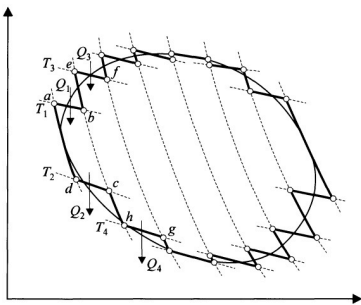
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Thermodynamic Entropy

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There exists a function S of the thermodynamic state such that

$$dS = \frac{\delta Q}{T}$$

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If we choose the extensive coordinates U, \mathcal{L} :

$$dS(U, \mathcal{L}) = -\frac{\tau}{T}d\mathcal{L} + \frac{1}{T}dU$$

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Thermodynamic Entropy

Thermodynamic Entropy

There exists a function S of the thermodynamic state such that

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Axiomatic approach

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└ Axiomatic approach

Extensive quantities: $M, U, \mathcal{L} = (\text{mass, energy, length})$

We can proceed differently and make a more mathematical set-up of the thermodynamics with an axiomatic approach where the extensive quantities U, \mathcal{L} are taken as basic thermodynamic coordinates to identify an equilibrium state and entropy is assumed as a state function satisfying certain properties.

It is convenient in this context to add another macroscopic extensive parameter $M > 0$ that represent the *mass* of the system. This function S contains all the information about the *thermodynamics* of the system.

One can proceed in inverse way as before and construct Carnot cycles and deduce Kelvin or the equivalent Clausius statement of the second law.

- S is concave,
- $\frac{\partial S}{\partial U} > 0$,
- S is positively homogeneous of degree 1:

$$S(\lambda M, \lambda U, \lambda \mathcal{L}) = \lambda S(M, U, \mathcal{L}), \quad \lambda > 0$$

Extensive quantities: $M, U, \mathcal{L} = (\text{mass, energy, length})$

There exist an open cone set $\Gamma \subset \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+$, and $(M, U, \mathcal{L}) \in \Gamma$.

There exists a C^1 -function

$$S(M, U, \mathcal{L}) : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

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One can proceed in inverse way as before and construct Carnot cycles and deduce Kelvin or the equivalent Clausius statement of the second law.

Choose S and \mathcal{L} as thermodynamic coordinates,
there exists a function $U(M, S, \mathcal{L})$ such that $\frac{\partial U}{\partial S} > 0$.

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└ Axiomatic Approach

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$$T = \frac{\partial U}{\partial S} \quad \text{temperature}$$
$$\tau = \frac{\partial U}{\partial \mathcal{L}} \quad \text{tension}$$

$U(M, S, \mathcal{L})$ is homogeneous of degree 1 (*extensive*), and T, τ are homogeneous of degree 0 (*intensive*).

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$$\oint \frac{\delta Q}{T} < 0 \quad \text{Clausius Inequality}$$

or

$$\int_A^B \frac{\delta Q}{T} \leq S(B) - S(A)$$

Not very clear the meaning of this.

For *irreversible* thermodynamic transformations (not quasi-static), we find in thermodynamics books the expression

$$\oint \frac{\delta Q}{T} < 0 \quad \text{Clausius Inequality}$$

or

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Not very clear the meaning of this.

Of course there is a huge literature on this, see Evans notes for a short review.

$$A = (\mathcal{L}_0, T), B = (\mathcal{L}_1, T)$$

$$Q \leq T [S(B) - S(A)]$$

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Isothermal Irreversible Transformations

A = (\mathcal{L}_0, T), B = (\mathcal{L}_1, T)
 $Q \leq T [S(B) - S(A)]$

For an isothermal transformation, it is more clear what it means that it is irreversible. The system is always in contact to a thermostat at temperature T and during the transformation it exchanges the heat Q with it. Going from the state A to the state B , this implies that A and B are at the same temperature. It is convenient here to use (\mathcal{L}, T) as thermodynamic coordinates

This is an upper bound of the amount of heat that can be exchanged during any quasi static isothermal transformation. This is a limit about the amount of work that can be obtained from such transformation. It is then interesting to define the *free energy* $F(\mathcal{L}, T)$ as

$$A = (\mathcal{L}_0, T), B = (\mathcal{L}_1, T)$$

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

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└ Isothermal Irreversible Transformations

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$$F(\mathcal{L}, T) = \inf_U \{U - TS(U, \mathcal{L})\} \quad \text{free energy} \quad (4)$$

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For isothermal transformations, $F = U - TS$

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So in a *reversible* isothermal transformation we have equality and the work done by the system is equal to the difference of the free energy. In a non reversible one, the difference in free energy is only a bound.

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$$0 = Q < S(B) - S(A)$$

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Irreversible Transformations

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

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Two systems: $(M_1, U_1, \mathcal{L}_1)$, $(M_2, U_2, \mathcal{L}_2)$.

If attached they are **not in equilibrium**.

We can define the total entropy as

$$S(M_1, U_1, \mathcal{L}_1) + S(M_2, U_2, \mathcal{L}_2)$$

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Extended thermodynamics

Extended thermodynamics

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A possible definition of a non-equilibrium state is to consider the system, in our case the wire, as spatially extended, and with different parts of the system in different equilibrium states. For example our wire could be constituted by two different wires, that have the same constitutive materials (i.e. they are made by the same material) and they have *mass* M_1 and M_2 respectively, but they are prepared in two different equilibrium states, parametrized by the extensive quantities: (U_1, \mathcal{L}_1) , (U_2, \mathcal{L}_2) . The internal energy of the total system composed by the two wires glued together, will be $U_1 + U_2$, while its length will be $\mathcal{L}_1 + \mathcal{L}_2$. Even though the wire is not in equilibrium, we can say that also the other extensive quantities are given by the sum of the corresponding values of each constitutive part in equilibrium, i.e. in the example the entropy will be given by $S(M_1, U_1, \mathcal{L}_1) + S(M_2, U_2, \mathcal{L}_2)$.

If the thermodynamic evolution is governed by a dynamics conserving Energy (adiabatic) and length (isocore), and it reaches global equilibrium, then the final entropy is higher than the initial sum of the two entropies.

$$S(M_1, U_1, \mathcal{L}_1) + S(M_2, U_2, \mathcal{L}_2) \leq 2S\left(\frac{M_1 + M_2}{2}, \frac{U_1 + U_2}{2}, \frac{\mathcal{L}_1 + \mathcal{L}_2}{2}\right) - S(M_1 + M_2, U_1 + U_2, \mathcal{L}_1 + \mathcal{L}_2)$$

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Second principle of thermodynamics intended as a strict increase of the entropy if the system undergoes a non-reversible transformation



Property of this transformation to bring the system towards global equilibrium

Local equilibrium thermodynamic states

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Local equilibrium thermodynamic states

$$x \in [0, M], \quad U(x), r(x).$$

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By successive partition, we can go to a continuous description where at each material point x is associated a system in equilibrium at energy $U(x)$ and length (stretch) $r(x)$

Usual thermodynamics does not worry about time scales where the thermodynamic processes happens. But in the extended thermodynamics we can consider time evolutions of these profiles (typically evolving following some partial differential equations). The actual time scale in which these evolution occurs with respect to the microscopic dynamics of the atoms, will be the subject of the hydrodynamic limits that we will study in the later chapters.

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$$\begin{aligned}
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 \mathcal{L}(x) &= \int_0^x r(x') dx' \quad \text{displacement of } x \\
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 S_{tot} &\leq MS(1, M^{-1} U_{tot}, M^{-1} \mathcal{L}_{tot}) = S(M, U_{tot}, \mathcal{L}_{tot})
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Example: adiabatic evolution by Euler Equations

$x \in [0, 1]$. The velocity of the material point x is

$$\pi(x, t) = \partial_t \mathcal{L}(x, t)$$

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Example: adiabatic evolution by Euler Equations

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$$\partial_t v = \partial_x \pi$$

$$\partial_t \pi = \partial_x \tau$$

$$\partial_t \mathcal{E} = \partial_x (\tau \pi)$$

$$v(0, t) = 0, \quad v(1, t) = \bar{v}(t)$$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

2012-03-18

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Example: adiabatic evolution by Euler Equations

Example: adiabatic evolution by Euler Equations

$x \in [0, 1]$. The velocity of the material point x is

$$v(x, t) = \partial_t \mathcal{L}(x, t)$$

the force acting on the material element x is

$$\partial_x \tau(U(x, t), \mathcal{L}(x, t))$$

the total energy of x is

$$\mathcal{E}(x, t) = U(x, t) + \frac{\pi(x, t)^2}{2}$$

$$\partial_t v = \partial_x \pi$$

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$$v(0, t) = 0, \quad v(1, t) = \bar{v}(t)$$

$$\partial_t r = \partial_x \pi$$

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$$\partial_t \mathcal{E} = \partial_x(\tau \pi)$$

This is an hyperbolic non-linear system of PDE, for smooth initial conditions will stay smooth up to a certain time then it will develop shocks and the solution should be intended in the *weak sense*. In the smooth regime the evolution is isentropic in the sense... When shocks comes out, we have to consider weak solutions and uniqueness can be lost. Until the solution is smooth, entropy is constant (per material point) and the equation is completely reversible in time.

$$\begin{aligned}\partial_t r &= \partial_x \pi \\ \partial_t \pi &= \partial_x \tau \\ \partial_t U &= \tau \partial_x \pi \\ \frac{d}{dt} S(U(x, t), r(x, t)) &= \frac{1}{T} \partial_t U - \frac{\tau}{T} \partial_t r = 0\end{aligned}$$

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After shock appears, Entropy should increase:

$$\frac{d}{dt} S(U(x, t), r(x, t)) \geq 0$$

Uniqueness of the weak entropy solution is an open problem.

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$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\tau}(x, t) &= \tau(r(x, t), T) \\ \partial_t r(x, t) &= \partial_x^2 \bar{\tau}(x, t) \\ \partial_x r(0, t) &= 0, \quad \bar{\tau}(1, t) = \tau_1 \end{aligned}$$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

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└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Example: isothermal transformations by diffusion equations

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The rubber is immersed in a very viscous liquid at temperature T . Velocity are damped down by the viscosity. We will see later how to obtain this diffusion equation from a microscopic model. The convenient coordinates are \mathcal{L}, T .

Example: isothermal transformations by diffusion equations

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Example: isothermal transformations by diffusion equations

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free energy of the nonequilibrium profile $\{r(x, t), x \in [0, 1]\}$:

$$\mathcal{F}(t) = \int_0^1 F(r(x, t), T) dx, \quad (F = U - TS) \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \mathcal{F}(t) = - \int_0^1 (\partial_x \bar{\tau}(x, t))^2 dx + \tau_1 \partial_x \tau(1, t)$$

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Isothermal by diffusion

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Isothermal by diffusion

$$\frac{d}{dt}\mathcal{L}(t) = \int_0^1 \partial_{xx}\bar{\tau}(x, t) dx = \partial_x\tau(1, t)$$

i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{F}(t) - \mathcal{F}(0) &= \tau_1(\mathcal{L}(t) - \mathcal{L}(0)) - \int_0^t ds \int_0^1 (\partial_x\bar{\tau}(x, s))^2 dx \\ &= W - \int_0^t ds \int_0^1 (\partial_x\bar{\tau}(x, s))^2 dx\end{aligned}$$

 initial global equilibrium $r(x, 0) = r_0$, $\tau_0 = \tau(r_0, T)$.

 $t \rightarrow \infty$ we have $r(x, t) \rightarrow r_1$, $\tau_1 = \tau(r_1, T)$.

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Suppose that the initial condition is give by the *global* equilibrium $r(x, 0) = r_0$ corresponding to the tension τ_0 and the temperature T . The sending $t \rightarrow \infty$, the solution $r(x, t) \rightarrow r_1$ where $\tau(r_1, T) = \tau_1$. So we have obtained for the difference of the free energy

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Isothermal by diffusion

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Isothermal by diffusion

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

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Irreversible Isothermal Cycle

initial global equilibrium $r(x, 0) = r_0, \quad \tau_0 = \tau(r_0, T).$

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Irreversible Isothermal Cycle

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Inverse transformation: initial global equilibrium

$r(x,0) = r_1, \quad \tau_1 = \tau(r_1, T)$,

and we apply the tension $\tau_0 = \tau(r_0, T)$.

$t \rightarrow \infty$ we have $\tilde{r}(x,t) \rightarrow r_0, \quad \tau_0 = \tau(r_0, T)$.

$$F(r_0, T) - F(r_1, T) = \tau_0(r_0 - r_1) - \int_0^{\infty} ds \int_0^1 (\partial_x \tau(\tilde{r}(x,t), T))^2 dx$$

Irreversible Isothermal Cycle

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Irreversible Isothermal Cycle

Summing up we have a cycle and

$$W = (\tau_1 - \tau_0)(r_1 - r_0) - \int_0^\infty ds \int_0^1 [(\partial_x \tau(r(x, t), T))^2 + (\partial_x \tau(\tilde{r}(x, t), T))^2] dx$$

this work is gone to the thermostat as *heat*.

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Reversible quasi static isothermal transformation

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Reversible quasi static isothermal transformation

Pull slowly: $\bar{\tau}(t)$ smooth and $\bar{\tau}(0) = \tau_0$, $\bar{\tau}(1) = \tau_1$

$$\partial_x r^\epsilon(x, t) = \partial_x^2 \tau(r^\epsilon(x, t))$$

$$\partial_x r^\epsilon(0, t) = 0, \quad \tau(r^\epsilon(1, t)) = \bar{\tau}(t/\epsilon)$$

Pull slowly: $\bar{\tau}(t)$ smooth and $\bar{\tau}(0) = \tau_0$, $\bar{\tau}(1) = \tau_1$

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In order to obtain the reversible (quasi static) transformation, we need to push or pull very slowly, with a tension $\bar{\tau}(t/\epsilon)$ with $\bar{\tau}$ that goes smoothly from τ_0 to τ_1 .

then we have to wait an infinite time in this diffusive time scale, then still rescale time to slow down, and we obtain the reversible transformation where work done is equal to the change in free energy!

Reversible quasi static isothermal transformation

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Thermodynamic crash course

└ Reversible quasi static isothermal transformation

Pull slowly: $\bar{\tau}(t)$ smooth and $\bar{\tau}(0) = \tau_0$, $\bar{\tau}(1) = \tau_1$ $\partial_x r^\epsilon(x, t) = \partial_x^2 r^\epsilon(x, t)$ $\partial_x r^\epsilon(0, t) = 0$, $r^\epsilon(1, t) = \bar{\tau}(t/\epsilon)$ after the limit as $\epsilon \rightarrow \infty$:

$$F(r_1, T) - F(r_0, T) = \int_0^1 r^\epsilon(1, \epsilon t) \partial L^\epsilon(\epsilon t) dt$$

$$+ \int_0^1 ds \int_0^1 (\partial_x \tau(r(x, \epsilon t), T))^2 dx$$

$$= W + \epsilon \int_0^1 ds \int_0^1 (\partial_x \tau(r(x, \epsilon t), T))^2 dx$$

and take $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$: $\Delta F = W$.

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Theorem
 $\nu(dx)$ centered probability on \mathbb{R}^r , $\sigma^2 < \infty$
 $\phi(\mathbf{k})$ its characteristic function,
 • $|\phi(\mathbf{k})| < 1$ if $\mathbf{k} \neq \mathbf{0}$
 • $\exists n_0 \geq 1$ such that $|\phi|^{n_0}$ is integrable.
 X_j i.i.d. with common law ν .
 Let $\tilde{g}_n(x)$ density of $(X_1 + \dots + X_n)/\sqrt{n}$.
 Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{g}_n(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{e^{-\mathbf{x} \cdot (\sigma^2)^{-1} \mathbf{x} / 2}}{(2\pi)^{d/2} \sqrt{\det \sigma^2}}$$

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Local Large Deviations Theorem

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ preliminaries: the art of tilting

└ Local Large Deviations Theorem

 $\hat{S}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ on \mathbb{R}^r has density $f_n(\mathbf{x})$.

Theorem

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log f_n(\mathbf{y}) = -I(\mathbf{y}). \quad (7)$$

$$I(\mathbf{y}) = \sup_{\lambda} \left\{ \lambda \cdot \mathbf{y} - \log \int e^{\lambda \cdot \mathbf{x}} d\nu(\mathbf{x}) \right\}$$

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Proof.

$$f_n(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{e^{n(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}) \cdot \lambda}}{M(\lambda)^n} f_n(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = e^{n(I(\mathbf{y}) + \lambda \cdot \mathbf{x})} f_n(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y})$$

It follows that

$$f_n(\mathbf{y}) = e^{-nI(\mathbf{y})} f_n(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{y})$$

□

Ω measurable topological space ($\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{S}^d, \dots$)

α positive measure (Lebesgue, ...)

$\mathbf{g} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r$,

$$\mathcal{Z}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \log \int_{\Omega} e^{\boldsymbol{\lambda} \cdot \mathbf{g}(\omega)} d\alpha(\omega)$$

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

- Statistical Mechanics

- preliminaries: the art of tilting

- Tilting

Tilting

Ω measurable topological space ($\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{S}^d, \dots$)
 α positive measure (Lebesgue, ...)
 $\mathbf{g} : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r$
 $\mathcal{Z}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \log \int_{\Omega} e^{\boldsymbol{\lambda} \cdot \mathbf{g}(\omega)} d\alpha(\omega)$

$\mathcal{Z}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ is convex and lower semicontinuous (it maybe not continuous).

Again strict convexity follows by assuming that every component of \mathbf{g} is not constant. Furthermore $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{Z}}$ is convex.

The Fenchel-Legendre transform is now defined by

With respect to $\alpha_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}}$, \mathbf{g} can be seen as a vector valued random variable with average $\nabla \mathcal{Z}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$ and covariance matrix $\text{Hess} \mathcal{Z}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \nabla^2 \mathcal{Z}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$. Also now $\text{Hess} \mathcal{Z}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) > 0$ just because \mathbf{g} is not constant.

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- Tilting

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$$Z(\lambda + \delta) - Z(\lambda) = \log \int_{\Omega} e^{\delta \cdot \mathbf{g}} d\alpha_{\lambda} \quad (8)$$

In particular notice that the rate function $I_{\lambda}(\mathbf{x})$ corresponding to the tilted measure α_{λ} is given by

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└ Conditioning

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On the surface (microcanonical)

$$\Sigma_n(\mathbf{y}) = \{(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) \in \Omega^n : \mathbf{g}^{(n)} = \mathbf{y}\}.$$

define a finite (not normalized) measure $\gamma_n(\cdot, \mathbf{y})$ by

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\Omega^n} F(\mathbf{g}^{(n)}) G(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) d\alpha^n(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^r} F(\mathbf{y}) \int_{\Sigma_n(\mathbf{y})} G(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n) d\gamma_n(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n, \mathbf{y}) \end{aligned}$$

Tilting and conditioning

Define the (*microcanonical*) volume

$$W_n(\mathbf{y}) = \int_{\Sigma_n(\mathbf{y})} d\gamma_n(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n; \mathbf{y})$$

in the scalar case equal to

$$W_n(y) = \frac{d}{dy} \int_{g^{(n)} \leq y} d\alpha^n(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n).$$

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Boltzmann formula

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Equivalence of Ensembles

$$\mathbf{y} = \nabla \mathcal{Z}(\lambda).$$

Theorem

There exists a constant $C > 0$ such that for any $\epsilon > 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \int_{\Sigma_n(\mathbf{y})} \mathbf{1}_{[|F^{(n)} - \int F d\alpha_\lambda| \geq \epsilon]} d\alpha^{(n)}(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_n | \mathbf{y}) \leq -C\epsilon^2. \quad (9)$$

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└ Equivalence of Ensembles

Along these line, with a bit more work one can prove the following convergence on conditional measure to the unconditioned one. This include the so-called Poincare lemma (even though Poincare had nothing to do with this statement, that goes back to Maxwell): Choose $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and $g(x) = x^2$. The uniform measure on the n -dimensional sphere with radius \sqrt{n} converges, in terms of the finite dimensional distributions, to the product of gaussian measures $e^{-x_i^2/2}/\sqrt{2\pi}$.

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Let $F(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_k)$ a bounded continuous function on Ω^k and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{Z}^*}^0$, then

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$$\begin{aligned}
 & - m = [nM], M = \text{macroscopic mass.} \\
 & - (q_j, p_j) \in \mathbb{R}^2, j = 1, \dots, m. \\
 & - V(q_{i+1} - q_i), V(r) \rightarrow +\infty.
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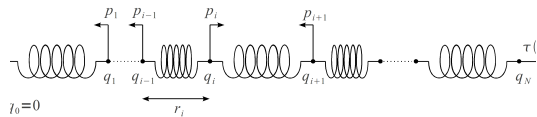
Statistical Mechanics

The microscopic model: chain of anharmonic oscillators

Chain of Oscillators

2012-03-18

Chain of Oscillators



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We study a system of $m = [nM]$ anharmonic oscillators, where $M > 0$ is a positive parameter corresponding to the macroscopic mass of the total system. The particles are denoted by $j = 1, \dots, m$. We denote with $q_j, j = 1, \dots, m$ their positions, and with p_j the corresponding momentum (which is equal to its velocity since we assume that all particles have mass 1). We consider first the system attached to a *wall*, and we set $q_0 = 0, p_0 = 0$. Between each pair of consecutive particles $(i, i+1)$ there is an anharmonic spring described by its potential energy $V(q_{i+1} - q_i)$. We assume V is a positive smooth function such that $V(r) \rightarrow +\infty$ as $|r| \rightarrow \infty$ and such that It is convenient to work with interparticle distance as coordinates, rather than absolute particle position, so we define $\{r_j = q_j - q_{j-1} - a, j = 1, \dots, m\}$.



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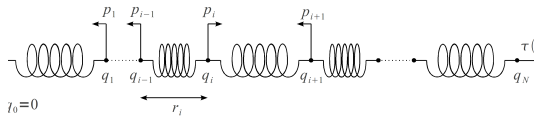
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$$\begin{aligned}
 & \dots \leftarrow \overset{q_{i-1}}{\text{---}} \leftarrow \overset{q_i}{\text{---}} \leftarrow \overset{q_{i+1}}{\text{---}} \leftarrow \dots \\
 & \text{Isobar Dynamics:} \\
 & \dot{r}_j(t) = p_j(t) - p_{j-1}(t), \quad j = 1, \dots, m, \\
 & \dot{p}_j(t) = V'(r_{j+1}(t)) - V'(r_j(t)), \quad j = 1, \dots, m-1, \\
 & \dot{p}_m(t) = \tau - V'(r_m(t)).
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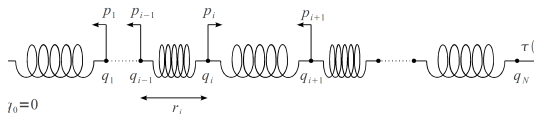
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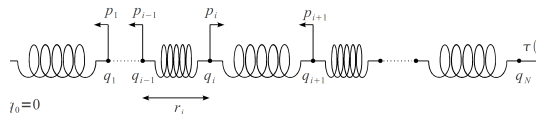
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At the other end of the chain we apply a constant force $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$ on the particle n (tension). The position of the particle m is given by $q_n = \sum_{j=1}^m r_j$. We consider the isobar Hamiltonian dynamics:



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Equilibrium measures:

$$d\alpha_{\tau, \beta}^{n, gc} = \prod_{j=1}^m \frac{e^{-\beta(\mathcal{E}_j - \tau r_j)}}{\sqrt{2\pi\beta^{-1}} Z(\beta\tau, \beta)} dr_j dp_j \quad \forall \beta > 0.$$

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Microcanonical surface: $M > 0, U > 0, \mathcal{L} \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\tilde{\Sigma}_m(M, MU, M\mathcal{L}) := \left\{ (r_1, p_1, \dots, r_m, p_m) : \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^m \mathcal{E}_j = MU, \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^m r_j = M\mathcal{L} \right\}$$

$$= \Sigma_m(U, \mathcal{L}) = \left\{ (r_1, p_1, \dots, r_m, p_m) : \mathcal{E}^{(m)} = U, r^{(m)} = \mathcal{L} \right\}.$$

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This is the fundamental relation that connects the microscopic system to its thermodynamic macroscopic description.

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U, \mathcal{L} are here the coordinates:

$$\tau\beta = \lambda = -\frac{\partial S}{\partial \mathcal{L}}, \quad \beta = \frac{\partial S}{\partial U}$$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ The microscopic model: chain of anharmonic oscillators

└ Thermodynamic relations

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Example: harmonic chain

$V(r) = r^2$, so that, for $\mathcal{L}^2 \leq 2U$,

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Isocore dynamics: microcanonical measure.

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Definition
 Given two profiles $\beta(y) > 0, \tau(y), y \in [0, 1]$, we say that the sequence of probability measures μ_n on \mathbb{R}^{2n} has the **local equilibrium property** (with respect to the profiles $\beta(\cdot), \tau(\cdot)$) if for any $k > 0$ and $y \in (0, 1)$,

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Local Equilibrium measures

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The Gibbs distributions defined in the above sections are also called equilibrium distributions for the dynamics. Studying the non-equilibrium behaviour we need the concept of local equilibrium distributions. These are probability distributions that have some asymptotic properties when the system became large ($n \rightarrow \infty$), vaguely speaking *locally* they look like Gibbs measure. We need a precise mathematical definition, that will be useful later for proving macroscopic behaviour of the system.

Sometimes we will need some weaker definition of local equilibrium (for example relaxing the pointwise convergence in y).

It is important here to understand that *local equilibrium* is a property of a *sequence* of probability measures.

$$\prod_{j=1}^n \frac{e^{-\beta(j/n)(\mathcal{E}_j - \tau(j/n)r_j)}}{\sqrt{2\pi\beta(j/n)^{-1}} Z(\beta(j/n)\tau(j/n), \beta(j/n))} dr_j dp_j = \delta_{(\cdot, \cdot)}^n \prod_{j=1}^n dr_j dp_j$$

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└ Example: Local Gibbs

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The most simple example of local equilibrium sequence is given by the local Gibbs measures:

Of course are local equilibrium sequence also *small order* perturbation of this sequence like

1st order corrections are very important to understand heat conduction and other phenomena. Of course we do not have a Boltzmann's formula for this entropy. The search of a Boltzmann formula out of equilibrium is a long story...

The question is: do we need a Boltzmann formula out of equilibrium?

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or 1st order perturbations:

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with F_j local functions.

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Non-equilibrium isothermal dynamics

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Empirical Distribution: **diffusive scaling**

$$\mu_n(t)(G) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n G\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) r_i(n^2 t)$$

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Empirical Distribution: **diffusive scaling**

$$\mu_n(t)(G) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n G\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) r_i(n^2 t)$$

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in probability, with $r(y, t)$ solution of

$$\partial_t r(y, t) = \partial_y^2 \tau(r(y, t), T)$$

$$\partial_y r(0, t) = 0, \quad \tau(r(1, t), T) = \tau_1$$

with $T = \beta^{-1}$.

Isothermal diffusion limit

Theorem

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n G\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) r_i(n^2 t) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 G(y) r(y, t) dy$$

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with $T = \beta^{-1}$.

This is the isothermal non-equilibrium transformation we describe in thermodynamic before.

$$g_{\tau(\cdot,t)}^n = \prod_i e^{-\beta(\mathcal{E}_i - \tau(i/n,t)r_i + \frac{1}{n}(\partial_y \tau)(i/n)p_i) - \mathcal{Z}(\tau(i/n,t))}$$

Isothermal Diffusion: local equilibrium

Local Gibbs:

$$g_{\tau(\cdot,t)}^n = \prod_i e^{-\beta(\mathcal{E}_i - \tau(i/n,t)r_i + \frac{1}{n}(\partial_y \tau)(i/n)p_i) - \mathcal{Z}(\tau(i/n,t))}$$

a first order correction to the local Gibbs is needed here: the average of the velocities are a bit tilted because of the gradient in the tension, the intuition is that velocities are small because damped, but of the order $1/n$ and pushed by the gradient of the tension.

the real distribution of the particles at time $n^2 t$ is given by the solution of the forward equation

Isothermal Diffusion: local equilibrium

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$$\partial_t f_n(t, r_1, p_1, \dots) = n^2 L f_n(t, r_1, p_1, \dots)$$

$$L = A + S$$

$$A = \sum_i (p_i - p_{i-1}) \partial_{r_i} + (V'(r_{i+1}) - V'(r_i)) \partial_{p_i} + \tau_1 \partial_{p_n}$$

$$S = \sum_i \beta^{-1} \partial_{p_i}^2 - p_i \partial_{p_i}$$

$$f_n(t) \sim g_{\tau}^n(\cdot, t) \quad \text{in some sense.}$$

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Isothermal dynamics

└ Isothermal Diffusion: local equilibrium

Local Gibbs:

$$g_{\tau}^n(\cdot, t) = \prod_i e^{-\beta(\mathcal{E}_i - \tau(i/n, t)r_i + \frac{1}{n}(\partial_y \tau)(i/n)p_i) - \mathcal{Z}(\tau(i/n, t))}$$

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$$H_n(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} f_n(t) \log \left(\frac{f_n(t)}{g_{\tau(\cdot, t)}^n} \right) \prod_i dp_i dr_i$$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Isothermal dynamics

└ Relative Entropy

2012-03-18

$$H_n(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} f_n(t) \log \left(\frac{f_n(t)}{g_{\tau(\cdot, t)}^n} \right) \prod_i dp_i dr_i$$

Add remark of relative entropy in probability, connected to LD, and thermodynamic entropy.

local equilibrium property in a bit weaker sense than pointwise: for any local function F of the configurations and a test function G on the macroscopic interval.

this can be proven by Large deviation via the entropy inequality

Relative Entropy

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Isothermal dynamics

└ Relative Entropy

$$H_n(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} f_n(t) \log \left(\frac{f_n(t)}{g_{\tau(\cdot, t)}^n} \right) \prod_i dp_i dr_i$$

If $H_n(t) \sim o(n)$ then $f_n(t)$ has the *local equilibrium property*:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_j G(j/n) F(r_{i+1}, p_{i+1}, \dots, r_{i+k}, p_{i+k}) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 G(y) \langle F \rangle_{\tau(y, t)} dy$$

in $f_n(t)$ -probability.

$\forall \delta > 0$

$$\int F f_n(t) d\mathbf{p}d\mathbf{r} \leq \frac{1}{\delta} \int e^{\delta F} g_{\tau(\cdot, t)}^n d\mathbf{p}d\mathbf{r} + \frac{H_n(t)}{\delta}$$

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Relative Entropy method

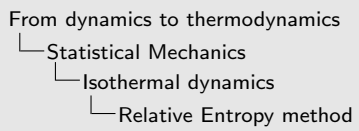
Compute

$$\frac{dH_n(t)}{dt} \leq \int \frac{n^2 L^* g_t^n - \partial_t g_t^n}{g_t^n} f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n$$

$$- \int \sum_i (\partial_t \tau)(i/n, t) \left[V'(r_i) - \tau(r(i/n, t)) - \frac{d\tau}{dr}(r_i - r(i/n, t)) \right] f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n + o(n)$$

In the harmonic case: $V'(r_i) = r_i$, $\tau(r) = r$, and $\frac{dH_n(t)}{dt} \leq o(n)$

2012-03-18



Relative Entropy method

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Relative Entropy method

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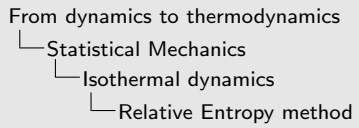
$$\frac{dH_n(t)}{dt} \leq \int \frac{n^2 L^* g_t^n - \partial_t g_t^n}{g_t^n} f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n$$

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 In anharmonic case we need

$$\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k V'(r_{i+j}) \sim \tau \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k r_{i+j}, T \right)$$

2012-03-18



Relative Entropy method

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if we can justify

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2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Isothermal dynamics

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2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

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Use again the relative entropy inequality:

$$\leq \frac{C}{\delta} \log \int e^{\delta \sum_i (\bar{r}_{i,k} - r(i/n,t))^2} g_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n + C \frac{H_n(t)}{\delta} + o(n,k)$$

$$\leq C \frac{H_n(t)}{\delta} + o_1(n,k)$$

and conclude by Gronwall that $H_n(t) \sim o(n)$.

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$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \left| \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k V'(r_{i+j}) - \tau \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k r_{i+j}, T \right) \right| f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n = 0$$

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We have here already some information about the local equilibrium: the velocities are automatically distributed by a maxwellian at temperature $T = \beta^{-1}$.

$$\frac{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \left| \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k V'(r_{i+j}) - \tau \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k r_{i+j}, T \right) \right| f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n}{\frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \bar{f}_n(t) dt} \leq \frac{C}{n}$$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \left| \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k V'(r_{i+j}) - \tau \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k r_{i+j}, T \right) \right| f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{t} \int_0^t f_n(t) dt = \bar{f}_n$$

$$\sum_i \int \frac{(\partial_{p_i} \bar{f}_n)^2}{\bar{f}_n} d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n \leq \frac{C}{n}$$

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1-block estimate

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Isothermal dynamics

└ 1-block estimate

$$\frac{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \left| \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k V'(r_{i+j}) - \tau \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k r_{i+j}, T \right) \right| f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n - 0}{\frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \bar{e}_n(t) - \bar{e}_0}{\sum_i \int \frac{(\partial_{p_i} \bar{f}_n)^2}{\bar{f}_n} d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n \leq \frac{C}{n}} \rightarrow \bar{e}_0 \Big|_{[i,i+k]} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{f}^{(i,k)}(r_1, \dots, r_k)$$

independent of the p 's!

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2n}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \left| \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k V'(r_{i+j}) - \tau \left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=i}^k r_{i+j}, T \right) \right| f_n(t) d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n = 0$$

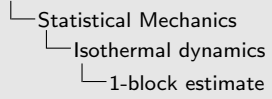
$$\frac{1}{t} \int_0^t f_n(t) = \bar{f}_n$$

$$\sum_i \int \frac{(\partial_{p_i} \bar{f}_n)^2}{\bar{f}_n} d\alpha_{0,\beta}^n \leq \frac{C}{n}$$

$$\implies \bar{f}_n \Big|_{[i,i+k]} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{f}^{(i,k)}(r_1, \dots, r_k)$$

independent of the p 's!

We have here already some information about the local equilibrium: the velocities are automatically distributed by a maxwellian at temperature $T = \beta^{-1}$.



$$\begin{aligned} & \bar{f}_n \Big|_{[i, i+k]} \alpha_{\beta,0}^k \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{f}^{(i,k)} \alpha_{\beta,0}^k \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} \nu_i \\ & \nu_i(d_j, dp_j, j \in \mathbb{Z}) \text{ stationary measure for the infinite Hamiltonian} \\ & \text{dynamics: for any local smooth function } F, F_i \text{ its translation by } i, \\ & \int AF d\nu_i = \int (A+S)F d\nu_i = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int LF_i \bar{f}_n d\alpha_{\beta,0}^n \\ & = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2 t} \int_0^t ds \int n^2 LF_i f_n(s) d\alpha_{\beta,0}^n \\ & = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2 t} \int F_i [f_n(t) - f_n(0)] d\alpha_{\beta,0}^n = 0. \\ & \implies d\nu_i = \int d\alpha_{\beta,\tau}^\infty d\tilde{\nu}_i(\tau) \end{aligned}$$

1-block estimate

$$\bar{f}_n \Big|_{[i, i+k]} \alpha_{\beta,0}^k \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{f}^{(i,k)} \alpha_{\beta,0}^k \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} \nu_i$$

$\nu_i(dr_j, dp_j, j \in \mathbb{Z})$ stationary measure for the infinite Hamiltonian dynamics: for any local smooth function F , F_i its translation by i ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int AF d\nu_i &= \int (A+S)F d\nu_i = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int LF_i \bar{f}_n d\alpha_{\beta,0}^n \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2 t} \int_0^t ds \int n^2 LF_i f_n(s) d\alpha_{\beta,0}^n \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2 t} \int F_i [f_n(t) - f_n(0)] d\alpha_{\beta,0}^n = 0. \\ &\implies d\nu_i = \int d\alpha_{\beta,\tau}^\infty d\tilde{\nu}_i(\tau) \end{aligned}$$

This argument shows that just from the presence of the thermostats (noisy), the local distributions are maxwellian on the velocities with the right temperature, and in the positions is a convex combinations of Gibbs of different tensions τ . The hard part is to show that this convex combination is a delta on the right one given by the solution of the macroscopic equation.



Balistic dynamics:

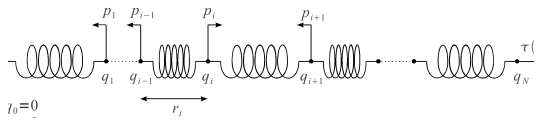
$$\begin{aligned} \dot{r}_j(t) &= p_j(t) - p_{j-1}(t), & j &= 1, \dots, n, \\ \dot{p}_j(t) &= (V'(r_{j+1}(t)) - V'(r_j(t))) dt, & j &= 1, \dots, n-1, \\ \dot{p}_n(t) &= (\tau_1 - V'(r_n(t))) dt \end{aligned}$$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

- └ Statistical Mechanics
 - └ Adiabatic dynamics
 - └ Adiabatic dynamics

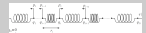
2012-03-18

Adiabatic dynamics



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Deterministic dynamics **difficult!**
 Locally momentum and energy are also conserved:
 \implies hyperbolic scaling and (non-linear) wave equations.

From dynamics to thermodynamics

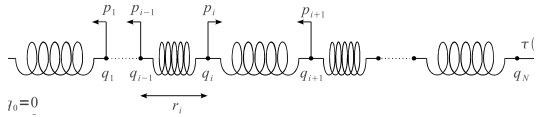
Statistical Mechanics

Adiabatic dynamics

Adiabatic dynamics

2012-03-18

Adiabatic dynamics



Balistic dynamics:

$$\dot{r}_j(t) = p_j(t) - p_{j-1}(t), \quad j = 1, \dots, n,$$

$$dp_j(t) = (V'(r_{j+1}(t)) - V'(r_j(t))) dt, \quad j = 1, \dots, n-1,$$

$$dp_n(t) = (\tau_1 - V'(r_n(t))) dt$$

Deterministic dynamics: **difficult!**

Locally momentum and energy are also conserved:
 \implies hyperbolic scaling and (non-linear) wave equations.

Hyperbolic Adiabatic Dynamics

3 conserved quantities:

stretch $\mathcal{R}_n(t)[G] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i G(i/n) r_i(nt)$

momentum $\pi_n(t)[G] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i G(i/n) p_i(nt)$

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$$(\mathcal{R}_n(t), \pi_n(t), \epsilon_n(t)) \rightarrow (r(x, t) dx, \pi(x, t) dx, \epsilon(x, t) dx)$$

$$\partial_t r = \partial_x \pi$$

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Ergodicity of the infinite dynamics

2012-03-18

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ Ergodicity of the infinite dynamics

Consider the dynamics of the infinite system:

$$\dot{r}_j(t) = p_j(t) - p_{j-1}(t), \quad j \in \mathbb{Z}$$

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Under this ergodic property, the 1-block estimate that we described before it is possible to prove, and relative entropy method works fine at least in the smooth regime of the macroscopic equations.

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We say that it is *ergodic* if all stationary translational invariant probability measures locally absolutely continuous are convex combinations of the Gibbs measures:

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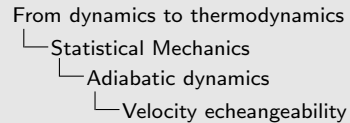
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Theorem (Fritz, Funaki, Lebowitz, 1993)
if $d\nu$ is a (regular) translation invariant probability on $(\mathbb{R}^2)^{\mathbb{Z}}$
stationary for the infinite dynamics and such that
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So it should be the collision mechanism due to the non-linearities of the
dynamics, to induce this exchangeability properties of the stationary
measures.

This ergodic property seems too difficult to be proven for deterministic
dynamics, but this theorem suggest what a stochastic perturbation
should do in order to garantier the ergodicity of the infinite dynamics.

We search for stochastic perturbations that conserve *energy*, *momentum*, *length*, and that will give the ergodic property requested:

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└─ Adiabatic dynamics

└─ Stochastic dynamic perturbations

Stochastic dynamic perturbations

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We search for stochastic perturbations that conserve energy, momentum, length, and that will give the ergodic property requested:

momentum exchange For each couple of nearest neighbor particle, we randomly exchange momentum, $(p_i, p_{i+1}) \rightarrow (p_{i+1}, p_i)$, with intensity 1. The resulting infinite dynamics has the ergodic property.

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Linear wave equation + explicit $\epsilon(x, t)$ as function of the solution of it.

In the harmonic case there is no dissipation in the hyperbolic time scale, the equation itself will not converge to *equilibrium*.

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Adiabatic diffusion of Energy

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└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ Adiabatic diffusion of Energy

Adding a pinning potential $U(q_i)$ we destroy the conservation of momentum (as we have seen with the thermostatted dynamics with the Langevin heat bath).
 Also $\sum_i r_i$ is not conserved anymore, so we only consider the diffusion of the energy, that has to happen at a diffusive space-time scale.

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$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_i \left[\frac{p_i^2}{2} + V(q_i - q_{i-1}) + U(q_i) \right]$$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

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└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ Chain of Anharmonic oscillators

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Chain of Anharmonic oscillators

 $p_i, q_i \in \mathbb{R}, i \in \Lambda, |\Lambda| = N \text{ or } \Lambda = \mathbb{Z}.$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H} &= \sum_i \left[\frac{p_i^2}{2} + V(q_i - q_{i-1}) + U(q_i) \right] \\ &= \sum_i e_i \end{aligned}$$

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$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i G(i/N) e_i(N^2 t) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \int G(y) u(t, y) dy$$

with $u(t, y)$ solution of the nonlinear heat equation:

$$\partial_t u = \partial_y \mathcal{D}(u) \partial_y u$$

with the thermal conductivity defined by the Green-Kubo formula:

$$\mathcal{D}(u) = \chi_\beta^{-1} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} \int_0^\infty \langle J_{i, i+1}(t) J_{0,1}(0) \rangle_\beta dt, \quad \beta = \beta(u)$$

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Equilibrium Fluctuations: Linear response

Here is a theorem that has a clear and precise mathematical statement:

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└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ Equilibrium Fluctuations: Linear response

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Equilibrium Fluctuations: Linear response

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Consider the system in equilibrium at temperature $T = \beta^{-1}$, and perturb it at time 0 in atom 0 by adding some energy there:

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We want to study the time evolution of

$$\langle e_i(t) \rangle_{Q'_\beta} = \int e_i dQ'_{\beta,t} = \frac{\langle e_i(t) e_0(0) \rangle}{\langle e_0 \rangle}$$

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Assuming that the corresponding limits exist, we have that

$$\mathcal{D} = \frac{\kappa}{\beta^2 \chi(\beta)} = \frac{\langle e_0 \rangle_\beta}{\chi(\beta)} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} i^2 \langle e_i(t) \rangle_{Q'_\beta}$$

with $\chi(\beta) = \sum_i (\langle e_i e_0 \rangle_\beta - \langle e_i \rangle_\beta \langle e_0 \rangle_\beta)$.

- └ Statistical Mechanics
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In fact, using stationarity and translation invariance

$$\begin{aligned} \langle e_0 \rangle_\beta \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} i^2 \langle e_i(t) \rangle_{Q'_\beta} &= \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} i^2 \langle (e_i(t) - e_i(0)) e_i(0) \rangle_\beta \\ &= 2 \int_0^t ds \int_0^s d\tau \sum_i \langle J_{i,i+1}(s-\tau) J_{0,1}(0) \rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} 2 \int_0^\infty \sum_i \langle J_{i,i+1}(s) J_{0,1}(0) \rangle ds \end{aligned}$$

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Define

$$C(i,j,t) = \langle e_i(t)e_j(0) \rangle_\beta - \bar{e}^2$$

Linearized heat equation

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this is more challenging than proving existence for \mathcal{D} .

Linearized heat equation

Define $C(i, j, t) = \langle e_i(t) e_j(0) \rangle_\beta - \bar{e}^2$

Conjecture:

$$NC([N_x], [N_y], N^2 t) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} (2\pi\mathcal{D})^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-y)^2}{2t\mathcal{D}}\right)$$

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How to prove this?

Define, for a *good* choice of a sequence of smooth local functions \mathcal{F}_n

$$\Phi_n = J_{0,1} - \mathcal{D}(e_1 - e_0) - L\mathcal{F}_n$$

with L the generator of the dynamics,

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└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ How to prove this?

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$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i,j} G\left(\frac{i}{N}\right) F\left(\frac{j}{N}\right) [C(i,j, N^2 t) - C(i,j, 0)]$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int_0^t \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i,j} \Delta G \left(\frac{i}{N} \right) F \left(\frac{j}{N} \right) \mathcal{D} \langle e_i(N^2 s) e_j(0) \rangle ds \\
&+ \int_0^t \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i,j} \nabla G \left(\frac{i}{N} \right) F \left(\frac{j}{N} \right) \langle (N^2 L) \tau_i \mathcal{F}_n(N^2 s) e_j(0) \rangle ds \\
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&+ \int_0^t \sum_{i,j} F \left(\frac{j}{N} \right) \nabla G \left(\frac{i}{N} \right) \left\langle \frac{1}{2k} \sum_{|i-l| \leq k} \tau_l \Phi_n(N^2 s) e_j(0) \right\rangle ds
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By Schwarz we can bound the square of the last term by

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Varadhan's Non Gradient methods.

- ▶ S.R.S. Varadhan (1990): Non-gradient Ginzburg-Landau conservative model (*reversible*).

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└└ Adiabatic dynamics

└└└ Stochastic dynamics perturbations

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- ▶
- ▶ Romero (Dauphine-PhD thesis 2010): Energy conserving momentum dynamics (non-linear vector fields, *reversible*).

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└ Varadhan's non-gradient method

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Varadhan's non-gradient method

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For the finite set $\Lambda_k = \{-k, \dots, k\}$, consider the generator L_{Λ_k} with free B.C.

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$$L_{\Lambda_k} u_k = \frac{1}{2k} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j_{j,j+1}$$

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$$L_{\Lambda_K} u_k = \frac{1}{2K} \sum_{i=-K}^{k-1} J_{i,i+1}$$

going back to the full generator of the infinite dynamics:

$$\frac{1}{2K} \sum_{i=-k}^{k-1} J_{i,i+1} = -(L - L_{\Lambda_K}) u_k + L u_k$$

It is the boundary term $(L - L_{\Lambda_K}) u_k$ that gives origin to the gradient $\mathcal{D}_T(e_k - e_{-k})$, in the proper limit.

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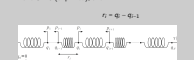
This requires some work and two ingredients: bounds on the spectral gap and a sector condition.

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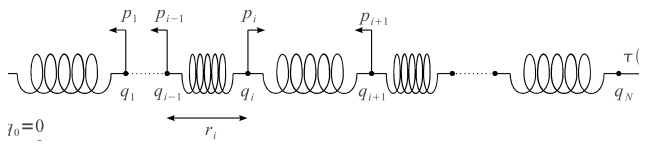
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- └ Statistical Mechanics
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 - └ Chain un unpinned anharmonic oscillators with conservative noise


Chain un unpinned anharmonic oscillators with conservative noise

Joint work with *Makiko Sasada* (Keio University, Tokyo).
Take $U = 0$ (unpinned), and

$$r_i = q_i - q_{i-1}$$



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 Take $U = 0$ (unpinned), and



Equilibrium measure are product:

$$dQ_\beta = \prod_i \frac{e^{-\beta(p_i^2/2 + V(r_i))}}{Z_\beta} dp_i dr_i \quad \beta = T^{-1} > 0$$

$V \in \mathcal{C}^2, 0 < C_- \leq V''(r) \leq C_+ < +\infty$.

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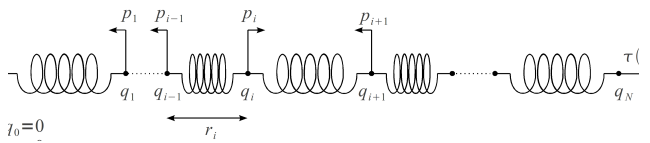
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 - └ Adiabatic dynamics
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Chain un unpinned anharmonic oscillators with conservative noise

Joint work with *Makiko Sasada* (Keio University, Tokyo).
 Take $U = 0$ (unpinned), and

$$r_i = q_i - q_{i-1}$$



Equilibrium measure are product:

$$dQ_\beta = \prod_i \frac{e^{-\beta(p_i^2/2 + V(r_i))}}{Z_\beta} dp_i dr_i \quad \beta = T^{-1} > 0$$

$$V \in \mathcal{C}^2, 0 < C_- \leq V''(r) \leq C_+ < +\infty .$$

$$Y_{i,j} = p_i \partial_{r_j} - V'(r_j) \partial_{p_i},$$

$$X_i = Y_{i,i}$$

The Hamiltonian vector field is

$$A = \sum_i (p_i - p_{i-1}) \partial_{r_i} - V'(r_i) (\partial_{p_i} - \partial_{p_{i-1}}) = \sum_i (X_i - Y_{i-1,i})$$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ Energy Conserving Noise

2012-03-18

Energy Conserving Noise

We use the vector fields tangent to the microcanonical surface:

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We add stochastic dynamics with generator defined by

$$S = \sum_i (X_i^2 + Y_{i,i+1}^2)$$

$$L = A + S$$

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NON GRADIENT CURRENTS

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NON GRADIENT CURRENTSIn the harmonic case ($V(r) = r^2/2$) we have the decomposition:

$$j_{0,1} = \mathcal{D}(e_1 - e_0) + LF$$

for a homogeneous second order polynome $F(r, p)$ and \mathcal{D} constant

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$$\Phi_n = J_{0,1} - \mathcal{D}_T(e_1 - e_0) - LF_n$$

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By a general inequality valid for all Markov processes:

$$\left\langle \left(\int_0^t N \sum_j G'(i/N) \tau_i \hat{\Phi}_{n,K}(N^2 s) ds \right)^2 \right\rangle$$

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Microcanonical variance

$\langle \cdot \rangle_{K,E}$: microcanonical expectation on the energy shell

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From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ Microcanonical variance

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- Statistical Mechanics

- Adiabatic dynamics

- variational formulas

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- Statistical Mechanics

- Adiabatic dynamics

- exact forms

2012-03-18

exact forms

We need to show that closed form are approximated (in $L^2(Q_\beta)$) by **exact forms**:

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This is proven by a careful construction, integrating the form

$$\{\xi_j^m, j = 1, \dots, K, m = 0, 1\}$$

on the microcanonical surface $\Sigma_{E,K}$, that has the same cohomology of the $2K$ -sphere, and controlling the boundary conditions as $K \rightarrow \infty$, with the spectral gap on S_K .

From dynamics to thermodynamics

Statistical Mechanics

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exact forms

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Ingredients to prove this:

- ▶ Spectral gap bound for S_K : $SG(S_K) \geq CK^{-2}$.
- ▶ Sector condition: $|\langle vAu \rangle|^2 \leq C \langle v(-S)v \rangle \langle u(-S)u \rangle$.

$$\langle f^2 \rangle_{K,E} \leq C_1 \sum_{i=1}^K \langle (X_i f)^2 \rangle_{K,E} + C_2 K^2 \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} \langle (Y_{i,i+1} f)^2 \rangle_{K,E}$$

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- ▶ Spectral gap bound for S_K : $SG(S_K) \geq CK^{-2}$.

i.e. for any smooth local f such that $\langle f \rangle_{K,E} = 0$

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For any i decompose $f = f_{i,odd} + f_{i,even}$

$$f_{i,odd}(p) = \frac{1}{2}(f(p^{(i)}) - f(p)), \quad f_{i,even}(p) = \frac{1}{2}(f(p^{(i)}) + f(p)),$$

with $p_i^{(i)} = -p_i$ and $p_j^{(i)} = p_j$ if $j \neq i$.

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 $\langle vAu \rangle = \sum_i \langle v(X_i - Y_{i-1,i})u \rangle$

From dynamics to thermodynamics

└ Statistical Mechanics

└ Adiabatic dynamics

└ Sector Condition

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Sector Condition

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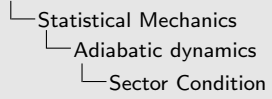
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 $\leq C \langle (X_i v)^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle (X_i u)^2 \rangle^{1/2} + \langle (X_i u)^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle (X_i v)^2 \rangle^{1/2}$
 and similarly for $\langle vY_{i-1,i} u \rangle$.
 $\implies |\langle vAu \rangle| \leq C \langle v(-S)v \rangle \langle u(-S)u \rangle.$

Statistical Mechanics

Adiabatic dynamics

Sector Condition

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Sector Condition

For any i decompose $f = f_{i,odd} + f_{i,even}$

$$f_{i,odd}(p) = \frac{1}{2}(f(p^{(i)}) - f(p)), \quad f_{i,even}(p) = \frac{1}{2}(f(p^{(i)}) + f(p)),$$

with $p_j^{(i)} = -p_j$ and $p_j^{(i)} = p_j$ if $j \neq i$.

$$\langle vAu \rangle = \sum_i \langle v(X_i - Y_{i-1,i})u \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle vX_i u \rangle &= \langle v_{i,odd} X_i u_{i,even} \rangle + \langle v_{i,even} X_i u_{i,odd} \rangle \\ &= \langle v_{i,odd} X_i u_{i,even} \rangle - \langle u_{i,odd} X_i v_{i,even} \rangle \\ &\leq \langle v_{i,odd}^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle (X_i u_{i,even})^2 \rangle^{1/2} + \langle u_{i,odd}^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle (X_i v_{i,even})^2 \rangle^{1/2} \\ &\leq C \langle (X_i v)^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle (X_i u)^2 \rangle^{1/2} + \langle (X_i u)^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle (X_i v)^2 \rangle^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

and similarly for $\langle vY_{i-1,i} u \rangle$.

$$\implies |\langle vAu \rangle| \leq C \langle v(-S)v \rangle \langle u(-S)u \rangle.$$

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- equilibrium fluctuations

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equilibrium fluctuations

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proof of spectral gap bound

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start with the martingale decomposition:

$$\mathcal{G}_k = \sigma \{a_1, \dots, a_k, p_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, \dots, p_L, r_L\}$$

$$f_k := E[f | \mathcal{G}_k], \quad f_L = f_L(a_1, \dots, a_L)$$

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