

# Lecture 11: Non-equilibrium thermodynamics.

Classical thermodynamics: Conversion of heat and work in systems that are in a state of equilibrium.

What does equilibrium mean?

- (i) Does not depend on its history.
- (ii) No time dependence
- (iii) No net transport of heat, mass, ...  $\Rightarrow$  no currents, no fluxes.

Second law of thermodynamics defines arrow of time.

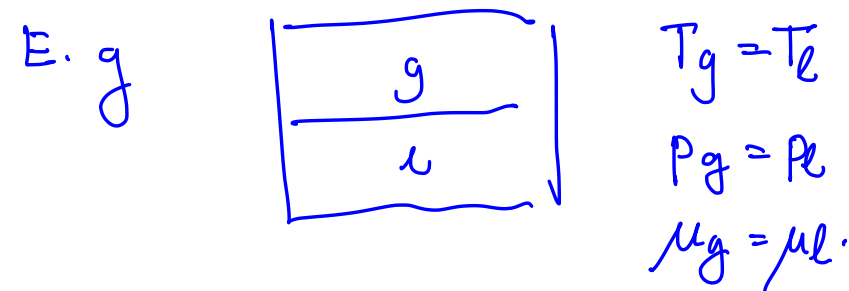
Spontaneous process: The entropy of an isolated system will not decrease.

Thermodynamic potential  $E$  (no work or heat exchange)

<sup>2nd</sup>  
<sub>law</sub>  $\rightarrow$  Energy is minimal, entropy is maximal.

More broadly: System in thermodynamic equilibrium

all intensive thermodynamic variables are constant in space & time



In non-equilibrium state, intensive variables are not constant.

$\rightarrow$  spatial gradients in intensive variables, s.t. system

moves towards a state of thermodynamic equilibrium.

$\rightarrow$  currents & fluxes:

$\nabla p$	$\leftrightarrow$	momentum transport.
$\nabla \mu$	$\leftrightarrow$	mass transport.
$\nabla T$	$\leftrightarrow$	heat (entropy) transport.

"roughly".

# Axiomatic thermodynamics.

Defines thermodynamic state variables  $(T, E, S, \dots)$

↳ depend only on the thermodynamic state.

Collection of state variables define thermodynamic state

↳ equations of state which relate various state variables, e.g.  $\beta p = \rho$   
(ideal gas)

Intensive variables:

$$\vec{f} := (\rho, \mu, \gamma, \vec{E}, \vec{B}, \dots)$$

"generalised forces"

Since product is a form of work.

Extensive variables:

$$\vec{X} := (V, N, A, \vec{P}, \vec{M}, \dots)$$

"generalised displacements"

## Laws of thermodynamics.

0<sup>th</sup> law Systems A & B are in thermal equilibrium  $\Leftrightarrow T_A = T_B$ .

Property is transitive: A in eq. with B and B in equilibrium with C

$$\Rightarrow T_A = T_C, \text{ A is in equilibrium with C}$$

(relevant for thermometers) Applies also to mechanical and chemical equilibrium.

1<sup>st</sup> law There exists a state function  $E$  called internal energy which is additive and extensive.

$$E \text{ is conserved: } dE = dQ + dW$$

Q: heat absorbed by the system.

W: work done on the system.

$$\text{Configurational work: } dW = \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{X}$$

2<sup>nd</sup> law There exists a state function  $S$  called the entropy.  $S$  is extensive and additive. Since it is a state function  $dS$  is exact.

$S$  is postulated to be a monotonically increasing function of  $E$ .

For isolated system:  $S = S(E, \vec{x})$

$$\Delta S = \int_a^b dS \geq 0 \quad \text{for any process connecting thermodynamic states } a \text{ and } b.$$

where equality holds for reversible processes, and strict inequality for spontaneous (i.e. irreversible) processes.

Corollary Consider  $dS = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial E}\right)_{\vec{x}} dE + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \vec{x}}\right)_E \cdot d\vec{x}$ .  $\left(\Rightarrow\right)$

For reversible process:  $dE = (dQ)_{rev} + \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{x}$

$$dS = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial E}\right)_{\vec{x}} (dQ)_{rev} + \left[ \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \vec{x}}\right)_E + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial E}\right)_{\vec{x}} \vec{f} \right] \cdot d\vec{x} \quad (*)$$

For adiabatic reversible process:  $(dQ)_{rev} = 0$ .

But (\*) must hold for all reversible processes, thus:  $\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \vec{x}}\right)_E = - \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial E}\right)_{\vec{x}} \vec{f}$

Since  $S$  monotonically increases with  $E$ :  $\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial E}\right)_{\vec{x}} =: \frac{1}{T} > 0$

Therefore:  $\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \vec{x}}\right)_E = - \frac{\vec{f}}{T}$ .

So we conclude for reversible processes:  $dS = \frac{1}{T} dE - \vec{f}/T \cdot d\vec{x}$   
 $\Leftrightarrow dE = T dS + \vec{f} \cdot d\vec{x}$ .

In other words  $S$  is the exact differential corresponding to heat transport with temperature being the integrating factor.

See Chandler  $S$  maximal for isolated system  $\Leftrightarrow E$  minimal.

$\Rightarrow \vec{f}$  must be constant in space <sup>& time</sup> in equilibrium. (eq. condition)  
 and  $\frac{\partial \vec{f}}{\partial \vec{x}} > 0$  (stability condition)

3<sup>rd</sup> law S approaches a constant value as the absolute temperature reaches zero Kelvin.

⇒ T=0 cannot be reached in finite number of processes.

⌈ in equilibrium constant in space and time. What about nonequilibrium?

Fundamental assumption: Even for systems that are globally out of equilibrium, locally it acquires equilibrium so fast that we can define local versions of the intensive variables.

⇒ Non-eg. thermodynamics focuses on time scales much longer than the time scales of the establishment of local equilibrium.

Recall:  $dS = \frac{1}{T} dE - \frac{\vec{p}}{T} \cdot d\vec{X}$

Note  $\frac{1}{T}$  is conjugate to E  
 $-\frac{\vec{p}}{T}$  is conjugate to  $\vec{X}$

⇒ We conjecture that gradients in  $\frac{1}{T}$  cause energy transport.  
and gradients in  $\frac{\vec{p}}{T}$  cause transport of  $\vec{X}$ .

Let's focus on an isolated system.  
E and N are conserved.

So we can define local quantities

$e = e(\vec{r}, t)$  and  $\rho = \rho(\vec{r}, t)$ .

For now we don't take into account balance of linear momentum. (no convection)

Continuity equations:

$\frac{\partial e}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \vec{j}_e = 0$

(energy conservation)

$\vec{j}_e$ : flux.

$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \vec{j}_\rho = 0$

(particle number conservation)

We impose the so-called phenomenological laws:

$\vec{j}_i = \sum_k L_{ik} \nabla \phi_k$

$L_{ik}$ : phenomenological coefficients

$\phi_k$ : thermodynamic forces.

So we find:

$$\vec{j}_p = L_{pp} \nabla \left( -\frac{\mu}{T} \right) + L_{pe} \nabla \left( \frac{1}{T} \right)$$

$$\vec{j}_e = L_{ep} \nabla \left( -\frac{\mu}{T} \right) + L_{ee} \nabla \left( \frac{1}{T} \right)$$

cross coefficients.

Soret effect:  
coupling between mass & heat transport.

Temperature gradient  
↔ concentration gradient.

Onsager (Nobel prize, 1968) :  $L_{ij} = L_{ji}$ . (we will prove it later).

Connection with empirical transport laws.

E.g.:

$$\vec{j}_p = -D \nabla p. \quad D [m^2 s^{-1}] : \text{diffusivity or diffusion constant.}$$

Fick's first law of diffusion. Isothermal particle transport.

Valid for dilute gases / dilute solutions.

How it connects to  $\vec{j}_p = L_{pp} \nabla \left( -\frac{\mu}{T} \right)$  ?  $\Rightarrow L_{pp} = \frac{Dp}{k_B}$ .

For dilute gases / dilute solutions  $\beta \mu = \ln p \nu$

When inserted in continuity equation:  $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = D \nabla^2 \rho$ .

Fick's second law.

Entropy production.

Consider general system (not necessarily isolated).

$$dS = dS_i + dS_e \leftarrow \text{entropy supplied to the system by its surroundings.}$$

↑  
entropy produced inside the system.

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Recall:  $dS_i = 0$  for reversible (equilibrium) transformations.

$dS_i > 0$  for irreversible.

$dS_e$  can be positive, negative, or zero depending on how system interacts with surroundings.

Adiabatic systems:  $dS_e = 0 \Rightarrow dS \geq 0$  for adiabatically insulated system.

For closed system:  $dS_e = \frac{\pm Q}{T}$  (Carnot-Clausius theorem)

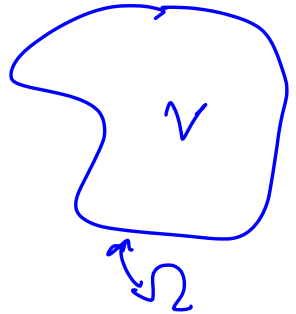
$$dS \geq \frac{\pm Q}{T}$$

In irreversible thermodynamics:  $dS_i > 0$

Central goal is to relate this contribution to the entropy production.

$$S = \int_V d\vec{r} s(\vec{r}, t)$$

$$\frac{dS_e}{dt} = - \int_{\Omega} \vec{j}_s \cdot d\vec{\Omega}$$



$$\frac{dS_i}{dt} = \int_V d\vec{r} \sigma$$

entropy source strength or "entropy production".

entropic flux per unit area per unit time.

Using Gauss law, we find:

$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} = - \nabla \cdot \vec{j}_s + \sigma$$

$\sigma \geq 0$  (Entropy production must be positive even locally, strong conjecture).

$$\text{Locally: } T ds = d\epsilon - \sum_{k=1}^n \mu_k dp_k$$

Assume this equation is valid for a volume element followed along its centre of gravity motion.

$$T \frac{ds}{dt} = \frac{d\epsilon}{dt} - \sum_{k=1}^n \mu_k \frac{d\rho_k}{dt}$$

For now no convection:  
 $\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial s}{\partial t} &= - \frac{\nabla \cdot \vec{j}_\epsilon}{T} + \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=1}^n \mu_k \nabla \cdot \vec{j}_k \\ &= - \nabla \cdot \left[ \frac{\vec{j}_\epsilon - \sum_k \mu_k \vec{j}_k}{T} \right] + \vec{j}_\epsilon \cdot \nabla \left( \frac{1}{T} \right) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=1}^n \vec{j}_k \cdot \nabla \left( \frac{\mu_k}{T} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Comparison to the entropy balance gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{j}_s &= \frac{1}{T} \left( \vec{j}_\epsilon - \sum_{k=1}^n \mu_k \vec{j}_k \right) \\ \sigma &= \vec{j}_\epsilon \cdot \nabla \left( \frac{1}{T} \right) - \sum_{k=1}^n \vec{j}_k \cdot \nabla \left( \frac{\mu_k}{T} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Separation into div + source term is constrained s.t.  $\sigma = 0$  in equilibrium.

and that it must be invariant under a Galilei transformation.

Furthermore,

$$\frac{ds}{dt} \geq - \int_{\Omega} \frac{\vec{j}_\epsilon}{T} \cdot d\vec{\Omega}$$

Together with phenomenological laws, we see that:

$$\sigma = \sum_i \underbrace{j_i}_{\text{generalized fluxes}} F_i \quad \Leftrightarrow \text{generalised forces} = \sum_{i,k} L_{ik} F_i F_k$$

$\Rightarrow L_{ik}$  must be positive definite; and together with Onsager reciprocity  $L_{ik} = L_{ki}^+$

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The only thing left to prove is Onsager reciprocity.

For this we need the so-called Einstein fluctuation theory.

## Einstein fluctuation theory

We write the local entropy as  $dS = \vec{\phi} \cdot d\vec{\rho}$   $\leftarrow$  generalised densities.  
 $\uparrow$   
 generalised potentials

$$\text{So: } \vec{\rho} = (\epsilon, \rho_1, \dots, \rho_n, \dots)$$

$$\vec{\phi} = (T^{-1}, -T^{-1}\mu_1, \dots, -T^{-1}\mu_n, \dots)$$

Let  $\Omega(E)$  denote the number of microstates of an isolated system.

(microcanonical ensemble).

Consider  $\Omega(E, \vec{\rho}) < \Omega(E)$ .

Fundamental assumption of statistical mechanics:

$$P(E, \vec{\rho}) = \frac{\Omega(E, \vec{\rho})}{\Omega(E)} \quad \left\{ \Rightarrow \right. \quad P(E, \vec{\rho}) = \frac{1}{\Omega(E)} \exp \left[ - \frac{S(E, \vec{\rho})}{k_B} \right].$$

$$S(E, \vec{\rho}) = k_B \ln \Omega(E, \vec{\rho})$$

Second law: entropy is maximal in equilibrium.  $\vec{\rho} = \vec{\rho}_{eq}$ .

Define  $\vec{\alpha} = \vec{\rho} - \vec{\rho}_{eq}$ . (small fluctuation away from equilibrium)

$$\text{Then: } S(E, \vec{\rho}) = S(E, \vec{\rho}_{eq}) - \frac{1}{2} \vec{\alpha} \cdot \underline{g} \cdot \vec{\alpha} + \dots$$

$$\text{where } \underline{g} = - \frac{\partial}{\partial \vec{\rho}} \left( \frac{\partial S}{\partial \vec{\rho}} \right) \Big|_{\vec{\rho} = \vec{\rho}_{eq}} ; \quad g_{\alpha\beta} = - \frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial \rho_\alpha \partial \rho_\beta} \Big|_{\vec{\rho} = \vec{\rho}_{eq}}.$$



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Note that  $g$  must be positive definite (second law).  
 $g = g^T$  ( $S$  is a state function).

Note furthermore  $g_{\alpha\beta} = g_{\beta\alpha} \Rightarrow$  Maxwell relations.

Assuming that  $-\infty < \alpha_k < \infty$ , we have that

$$P(E, \vec{p}) = P(\vec{\alpha}) = \sqrt{\frac{\det g}{(2\pi k_B)^n}} \exp\left(-\frac{\vec{\alpha} \cdot g \cdot \vec{\alpha}}{2k_B}\right).$$

This is a Gaussian distribution, so:  $\langle \alpha_i \alpha_j \rangle = k_B g_{ij}^{-1}$   
 $\langle \vec{\alpha} \vec{\alpha} \rangle = k_B g^{-1}$

which follows also from  $\left\langle \left( \frac{\partial \Delta S}{\partial \alpha_i} \right) \alpha_j \right\rangle = -k_B \delta_{ij}$  (exercise).

To proceed, we need to extend above formalism to include temporal fluctuations.

Since  $\Gamma = \Gamma(t)$ , where  $\Gamma = (\vec{p}^N, \vec{r}^N) \Rightarrow \vec{\alpha} = \vec{\alpha}(t)$ .

Recall time evolution is given by  $\frac{\partial \vec{p}_i}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{r}_i}$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{r}_i}{\partial t} = +\frac{\partial H}{\partial \vec{p}_i}$$

with  $6N$  initial conditions.

Note that these equations are invariant under  $t \rightarrow -t$   
 $\vec{p}^N \rightarrow -\vec{p}^N$ .

This is called time-reversal invariance.

Now consider joint probability distribution that  $\vec{\alpha} = \vec{\alpha}(0)$   
 $\vec{\alpha}' = \vec{\alpha}(t)$

$$P(\vec{\alpha}, \vec{\alpha}'; t) = \int_{(E, E+dE)} d\Gamma \int d\Gamma' P(\Gamma, \Gamma'; t) \delta(\vec{\alpha} - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma)) \delta(\vec{\alpha}' - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma'))$$

$$\Gamma = (\vec{p}^N(0), \vec{r}^N(0)) \quad \Gamma' = (\vec{p}^N(t), \vec{r}^N(t)).$$

where it is implied that integrations of  $\Gamma$  and  $\Gamma'$  are confined to energy shell  $(E, E+dE)$

Now consider conditional probability  $P(\vec{\alpha} | \vec{\alpha}'; t)$

Probability to have  $\vec{\alpha}$  at time  $t$  given that system was at  $t=0$  at  $\vec{\alpha}'$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } P(\vec{\alpha}, \vec{\alpha}'; t) &= P(\vec{\alpha} | \vec{\alpha}'; t) P(\vec{\alpha}) \\ &= \int_{(E, E+dE)} d\Gamma \int d\Gamma' P(\Gamma) P(\Gamma | \Gamma'; t) \delta(\vec{\alpha} - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma)) \delta(\vec{\alpha}' - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma')) \\ &= \frac{1}{\Omega} \int_{(E, E+dE)} d\Gamma \int d\Gamma' P(\Gamma | \Gamma'; t) \delta(\vec{\alpha} - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma)) \delta(\vec{\alpha}' - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma')) \end{aligned}$$

Because of microscopic time reversibility:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N | \vec{r}'^N, \vec{p}'^N; t) &= P(\vec{r}^N, -\vec{p}^N | \vec{r}'^N, -\vec{p}'^N; -t) \\ &= P(\vec{r}^N, -\vec{p}'^N | \vec{r}'^N, -\vec{p}^N; t) \end{aligned}$$

↑  
causality

This expression shows that if we reverse momenta, particles retrace their former path.

Let's apply this expression to

$$P(\vec{\alpha})P(\vec{\alpha}'|\vec{\alpha};t) = \frac{1}{\Omega} \int_{\Gamma} \int_{\Gamma'} P(\Gamma'|\Gamma;t) \delta(\vec{\alpha}' - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma')) \delta(\vec{\alpha} - \vec{\alpha}(\Gamma)) \delta(E, E+dE)$$

Here, we used that  $(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) \rightarrow (\vec{r}^N, -\vec{p}^N)$   
 $(\vec{r}'^N, \vec{p}'^N) \rightarrow (\vec{r}'^N, -\vec{p}'^N)$ .

and that  $\vec{\alpha}$  variables are even functions of momenta, i.e.

$$\vec{\alpha}(\vec{r}, \vec{p}) = \vec{\alpha}(\vec{r}, -\vec{p})$$

$$\Rightarrow P(\vec{\alpha})P(\vec{\alpha}'|\vec{\alpha};t) = P(\vec{\alpha}')P(\vec{\alpha}|\vec{\alpha}';t). \text{ (detailed balance)}$$

From detailed balance one can show that:

$$\langle \vec{\alpha}(0)\vec{\alpha}(t) \rangle = \langle \vec{\alpha}(t)\vec{\alpha}(0) \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \vec{\alpha}(0)(\vec{\alpha}(t) - \vec{\alpha}(0)) \rangle = \langle (\vec{\alpha}(t) - \vec{\alpha}(0))\vec{\alpha}(0) \rangle$$

Divide by t and take  $t \rightarrow 0$

$$\left\langle \vec{\alpha} \frac{\partial \vec{\alpha}}{\partial t} \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{\partial \vec{\alpha}}{\partial t} \vec{\alpha} \right\rangle \quad (*) \quad \forall t \text{ since in equilibrium time-translation invariance.}$$

Onsager regression hypothesis: Decay or regression of spontaneous fluctuations is governed by the same laws as macroscopic flows that occur in response to an external perturbation.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \alpha_i}{\partial t} = \sum_k L_{ik} \left( \frac{\partial \Delta S}{\partial \alpha_k} \right) \quad \left( \Rightarrow L_{ij} = L_{ji} \quad \square \right)$$

$$(*) \quad \left\langle \frac{\partial \Delta S}{\partial \alpha_i} \alpha_j \right\rangle = -k_B \delta_{ij}$$

Can be generalized to variables that are odd under momentum reversal (see de Groot, Mazur)