

Lecture 2: The classical limit

Recap: Fundamental assumption of statistical mechanics (statistical postulate)

Ensemble Theory

Construction of probability densities of microscopic states under macroscopic constraints

Central object to compute in equilibrium statistical mechanics

Partition function \leftrightarrow Thermodynamic potential.

For example, canonical partition function (N, V, T) fixed.

$$Z(N, V, T) = \text{Tr} [e^{-\beta \hat{H}}] = \sum_{\nu} \langle \nu | e^{-\beta \hat{H}} | \nu \rangle = \sum_{\nu} e^{-\beta E_{\nu}} = \sum_{\nu} \Omega(E_{\nu}) e^{-\beta E_{\nu}}$$

Trace over a complete set of states.

with $\hat{H} | \nu \rangle = E_{\nu} | \nu \rangle$

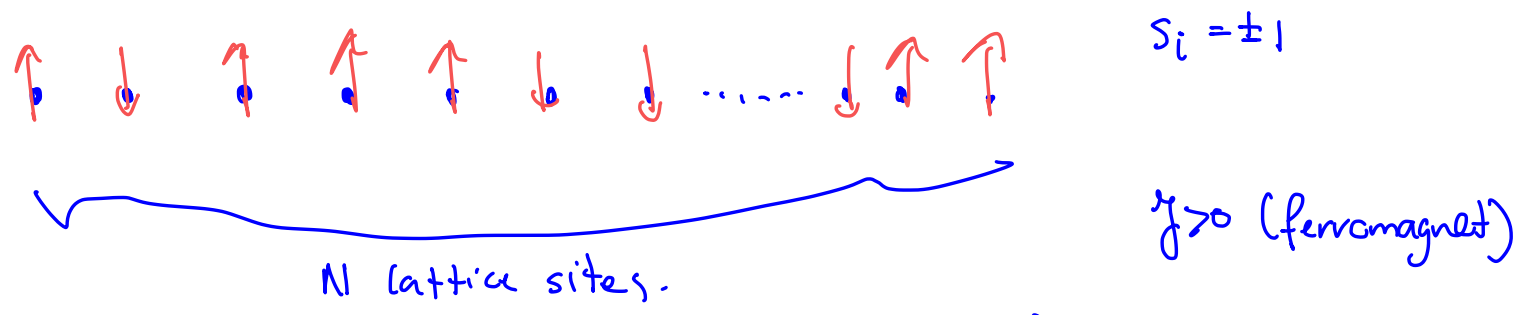
$\{ | \nu \rangle \}$ energy eigenstates.

Thermodynamic potential: $\beta F(N, V, T) = -\log Z$.

In some cases $Z(N, V, T)$ can be computed analytically.

For example, 1D Ising model (Wilhelm Lenz, 1920)

Model for (anti)ferromagnet



Microstate $\{s_i\} \rightarrow E_{\nu}(\{s_i\}) = -J \sum_{\langle i, j \rangle} s_i s_j - \mu H \sum_i s_i$

1D exactly solvable (Ising, 1915) \rightarrow Transfer matrix method.

2D " " (Onsager, 1944)

Ising model is a lattice model, what about more realistic systems?

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\hat{p}_i^2}{2m} + \Phi(\vec{r}_1, \dots, \vec{r}_N)$$

Quantum systems \rightsquigarrow later
(no internal degrees of freedom)

Classical systems: degrees of freedom $\{\vec{p}^N, \vec{r}^N\}$, so we expect

$$\mathcal{Z}(N, V, T) = \int d\vec{p}^N \int d\vec{r}^N e^{-\beta H(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N)} \quad (*)$$

\hookrightarrow classical Hamiltonian.

dimensionless
(log(...))
 $(\text{angular momentum})^{3N}$

Previous courses: $\epsilon_{\vec{k}} = \frac{\hbar^2 \vec{k}^2}{2m}$

$\vec{k} = \left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right) \vec{n}$ quantum number.
 $n_i \in \mathbb{Z}$
(periodic boundary conditions)

Compute partition function in two ways: $\mathcal{Z} = \text{Tr} [e^{-\beta \hat{H}}]$

or with (*) and compare.

But we can give more straightforward method.

For example, classical limit of $\hat{H} = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m} + V(\vec{r})$ (single particle in an external potential)

$$[\hat{r}, \hat{p}] = i\hbar \mathbb{1}$$

$\frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m}$ kinetic energy
 $V(\vec{r})$ external potential

Recall completeness relations: $\int d\vec{r} |\vec{r}\rangle \langle \vec{r}| = \mathbb{1}$ with $\vec{r} |\vec{r}\rangle = \vec{r} |\vec{r}\rangle$
 $\int d\vec{p} |\vec{p}\rangle \langle \vec{p}| = \mathbb{1}$ with $\vec{p} |\vec{p}\rangle = \vec{p} |\vec{p}\rangle$

Note that this is position and momentum kets are a complete set of states!

Let us compute:

$$\mathcal{Z} = \text{Tr} [e^{-\beta \hat{H}}] = \sum_{\nu} \underbrace{\langle \nu |}_{(*)} e^{-\beta \hat{H}} \underbrace{|\nu\rangle}_{(*)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{\nu} \langle \nu | \int d\vec{r} |\vec{r}\rangle \langle \vec{r} | e^{-\beta \hat{H}} \int d\vec{r}' |\vec{r}'\rangle \langle \vec{r}' | \nu \rangle \\
&= \int d\vec{r} \int d\vec{r}' \langle \vec{r} | e^{-\beta \hat{H}} | \vec{r}' \rangle \sum_{\nu} \langle \vec{r}' | \nu \rangle \langle \nu | \vec{r} \rangle \\
&= \int d\vec{r} \int d\vec{r}' \langle \vec{r} | e^{-\beta \hat{H}} | \vec{r}' \rangle \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{r}') \\
&= \int d\vec{r} \langle \vec{r} | e^{-\beta \hat{H}} | \vec{r} \rangle. \quad (***)
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{\nu} |\nu\rangle \langle \nu| &= \mathbb{1} \\
\langle \vec{r}' | \vec{r} \rangle &= \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{r}')
\end{aligned}$$

Recall the operator identity $e^{\hat{A}} e^{\hat{B}} = e^{\hat{A} + \hat{B} + \frac{1}{2}[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] + \dots}$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-\beta \hat{H}} = e^{-\beta \hat{p}^2 / 2m} e^{-\beta V(\vec{r})} + \mathcal{O}(\hbar)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
(***) &= \int d\vec{r} \langle \vec{r} | e^{-\beta \hat{p}^2 / 2m} e^{-\beta V(\vec{r})} | \vec{r} \rangle \\
&= \int d\vec{r} e^{-\beta V(\vec{r})} \langle \vec{r} | e^{-\beta \hat{p}^2 / 2m} | \vec{r} \rangle
\end{aligned}$$

$$\int d\vec{p} |\vec{p}\rangle \langle \vec{p}|$$

$$= \int d\vec{r} e^{-\beta V(\vec{r})} \int d\vec{p} e^{-\beta \vec{p}^2 / 2m} \langle \vec{r} | \vec{p} \rangle \langle \vec{p} | \vec{r} \rangle \quad \Rightarrow$$

Together with $\langle \vec{r} | \vec{p} \rangle = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r} / \hbar}$

$$\langle \vec{p} | \vec{r} \rangle = \langle \vec{r} | \vec{p} \rangle^*$$

$$\mathcal{Z}(N, V, T) = \frac{1}{h^3} \int_{\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}} d\vec{p} \int d\vec{r} e^{-\beta H(\vec{p}, \vec{r})} \quad \text{with } H(\vec{p}, \vec{r}) \text{ the classical Hamiltonian.}$$

In many-body case, we need to use:

$$|\vec{r}_1, \dots, \vec{r}_N\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \sum_{P \in S_N} \xi^P |\vec{r}_{P(1)}\rangle \dots |\vec{r}_{P(N)}\rangle$$

where $\xi^P = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{bosons} \\ \text{sgn}(P) & \text{fermions} \end{cases}$

Then same can be repeated (see lecture notes):

$$Z(N, V, T) = \frac{1}{N! h^{3N}} \int d\vec{p}^N \int d\vec{r}^N e^{-\beta H(\vec{p}^N, \vec{r}^N)}$$

and therefore,

$$F(N, V, T) = -k_B T \log \left[\underbrace{\frac{1}{N! h^{3N}} \int d\vec{r}^N \int d\vec{p}^N e^{-\beta H(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N)}}_{\text{to be computed.}} \right].$$

Note that in equilibrium we can introduce a (continuous) probability density on the classical phase space:

$$f_c(\vec{p}^N, \vec{r}^N) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\beta H} \quad (\text{by definition of } Z: \int d\vec{r}^N \int d\vec{p}^N f_c(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) = 1)$$

Suppose we have a function of phase space variables: $A(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N)$

Then
$$\begin{aligned} \langle A(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) \rangle &= \int d\vec{r}^N \int d\vec{p}^N A(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) f_c(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \int d\vec{r}^N \int d\vec{p}^N A(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) e^{-\beta H(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N)} \end{aligned}$$

Ensemble average.

Suppose $(\vec{r}^N(t), \vec{p}^N(t))$ is a solution from Hamilton's equations:

$$\overline{A(\vec{r}^N(t), \vec{p}^N(t))} = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\tau dt A(\vec{p}^N(t), \vec{r}^N(t)) \quad \text{Time average.}$$

(e.g. obtained from molecular dynamics).

$$\text{System is ergodic} \Leftrightarrow \langle A(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) \rangle = \overline{A(\vec{r}^N(t), \vec{p}^N(t))}.$$

Non-ergodic: glasses, ...

It is straightforward to write probability densities for other ensembles in classical limit.

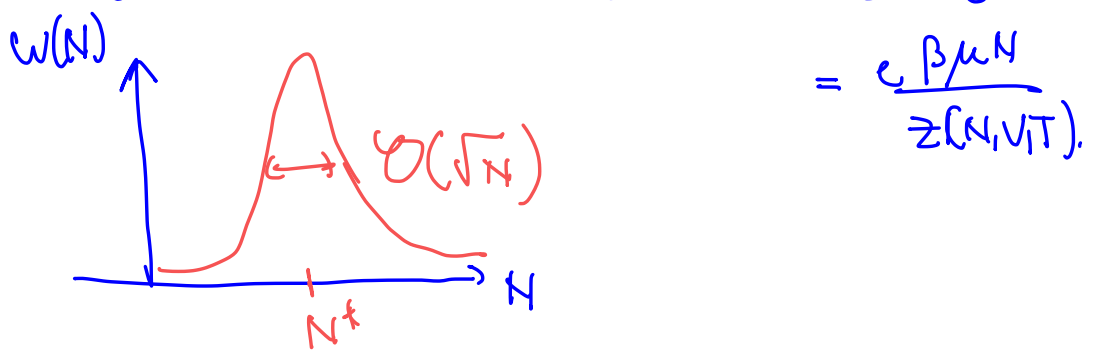
For example, grand canonical ensemble:

$$\Xi(\mu, V, T) = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta\mu N} Z(N, V, T) \quad (\text{grand-canonical partition function})$$

$$\Omega(\mu, V, T) = -k_B T \log \Xi \quad (\text{grand potential})$$

Note that $\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \int d\vec{r}^N \int d\vec{p}^N \int g(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N; N) = 1$

Marginal probability density: $W(N) = \int d\vec{r}^N \int d\vec{p}^N \int g(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N; N)$



General classical Hamiltonians for particles without internal degrees of freedom

$$H(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p_i^2}{2m} + \Phi(\vec{r}^N)$$

N-body interaction potential $\vec{F}_i = -\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \vec{r}_i}$

Simplest case: $\Phi = 0$ (ideal gas).

In this case: $Z(N, V, T) = \frac{1}{N! h^{3N}} \prod_{i=1}^N \int d\vec{p}_i e^{-\beta \vec{p}_i^2 / 2m} \int d\vec{r}^N$

Gaussian integral

$$= \frac{V^N}{N! \Lambda^{3N}}$$

Here, $\Lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2\pi m k_B T}}$

Thermal de Broglie wave length.

From partition function thermodynamic properties can be inferred:

$$\beta f_{id}(g, T) := \frac{\beta F_{id}(N, V, T)}{V} = \rho [\log(\rho \Lambda^3) - 1]$$

where $\rho = \frac{N}{V} = \text{constant}$.

From standard thermodynamic relations, we find: (Check!)

$$\beta E = \frac{3}{2} ; \quad \beta P = \rho ; \quad \beta \mu = \log(\rho \Lambda^3)$$

$$S / k_B = \frac{5}{2} N - N \ln \rho \Lambda^3 \quad (\text{Sackur-Tetrode equation})$$

Note that above expressions are valid for $\rho \Lambda^3 \ll 1$.

Namely, for $\rho \Lambda^3 > \exp(5/2) \quad S < 0$

\Rightarrow Quantum mechanical effects become important!

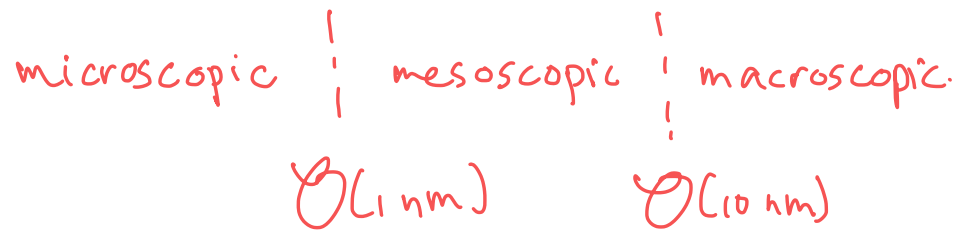
So a rough measure when quantum effects become important

$$\rho \Lambda^3 \approx 1$$

Then $\Lambda \sim \frac{h}{\sqrt{\langle p^2 \rangle}}$

Note that classical effects dominate when $m \uparrow \quad T \uparrow \quad \rho^{-1/3} \uparrow$

What systems behave classically?



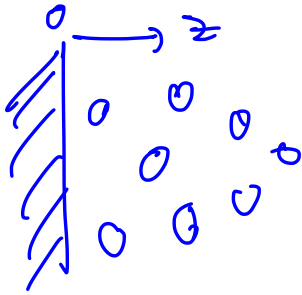
- Macroscopic objects
- Simple fluids (one-component, atomic, molecular, ...)
- Complex liquids (milk, blood, polymer melts, liquid crystals, proteins ...)

Interacting classical fluids. ($\Phi \neq 0$)

Generally, we can write.

$$\Phi(\vec{r}^N) = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^N V_{ext}(\vec{r}_i)}_{\text{one-body (external potential)}} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j>i}^N v(|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j|)}_{\text{two-body interactions (isotropic, translational invariance)}} + \dots \quad \begin{matrix} \checkmark \\ \text{three-body} \\ \text{four-body etc.} \end{matrix}$$

Examples



hard wall.

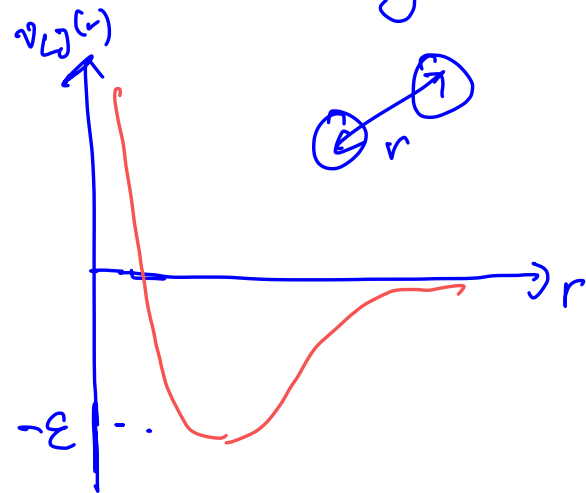
$$V_{ext}(z) = \begin{cases} \infty & z < 0 \\ 0 & z \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Coulomb

$$v(r) = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

For classical systems, we often use various model potentials:

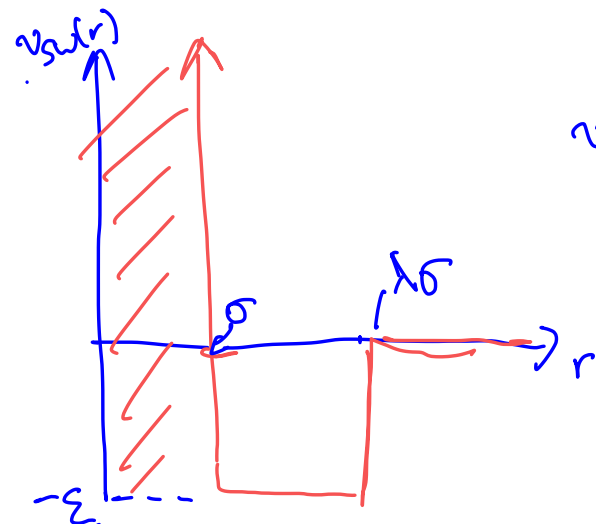


Lennard-Jones potential (empirical)

$$v_{LJ}(r) = 4\epsilon \left[\left(\frac{\sigma}{r}\right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{r}\right)^6 \right]$$

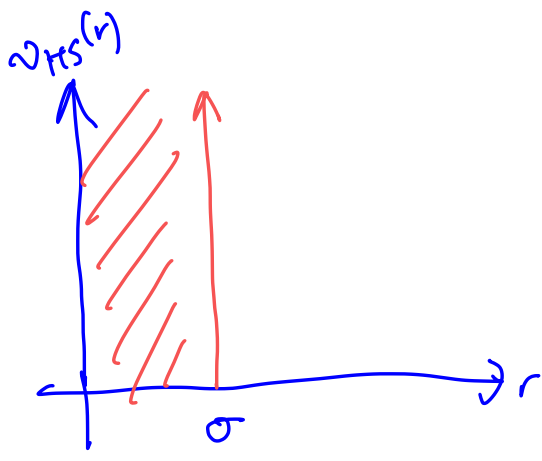
Pauli exclusion + Born repulsion.

Van der Waals interaction.



$$v_{SW}(r) = \begin{cases} \infty & r < \sigma \\ -\epsilon & \sigma < r < \lambda\sigma \quad (\lambda > 1) \\ 0 & r > \lambda\sigma. \end{cases}$$

Square-well potential. When $\epsilon > 0$ also called sticky hard spheres.



$$v_{HS}(r) = \begin{cases} \infty & r < \sigma \\ 0 & r > \sigma. \end{cases}$$

Hard-sphere potential.

Non-isotropic potentials:

$$v_{GB}(\vec{r}, \hat{u}_1, \hat{u}_2) = \epsilon(\hat{u}_1, \hat{u}_2, \hat{r}) \left[\left(\frac{\sigma_0}{r - \sigma(\hat{u}_1, \hat{u}_2, \hat{r}) + \sigma_0} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma_0}{r - \sigma(\hat{u}_1, \hat{u}_2, \hat{r}) + \sigma_0} \right)^6 \right].$$

Gay-Berne potential.

Dipole-dipole interaction:

$$v(r, \vec{\mu}_1, \vec{\mu}_2) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^3} \left[\underbrace{\vec{\mu}_1 \cdot \vec{\mu}_2}_{\text{distance}} - 3 \underbrace{(\vec{\mu}_1 \cdot \hat{r})(\vec{\mu}_2 \cdot \hat{r})}_{\text{orientational part}} \right]$$

In general, all these model potential are so-called effective interaction potentials ∇ (Integrated out degrees of freedom).

Note that for $H(\vec{r}^N, \vec{p}^N) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\vec{p}_i^2}{2m} + \Phi(\vec{r}^N)$

that $Z(N, V, T) = \frac{Q(N, V, T)}{\Lambda^{3N} N!}$ where $Q(N, V, T) = \int d\vec{r}^N e^{-\beta\Phi(\vec{r}^N)}$

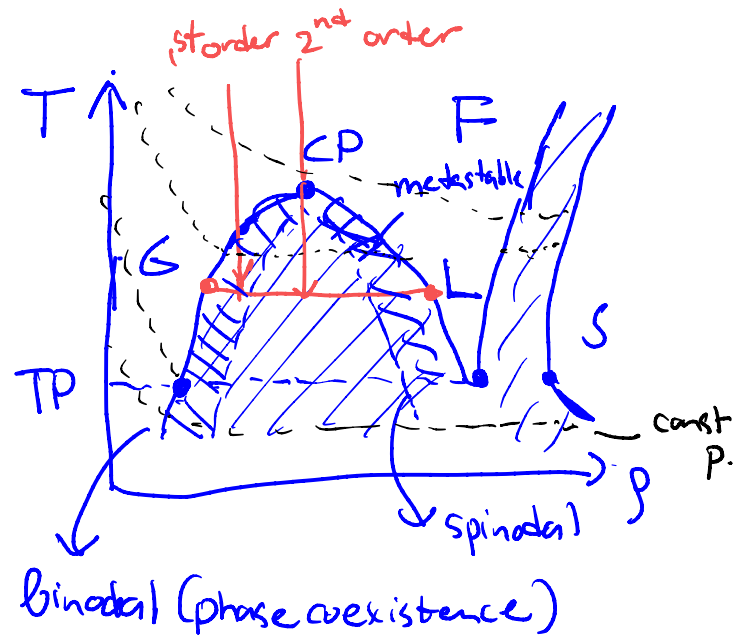
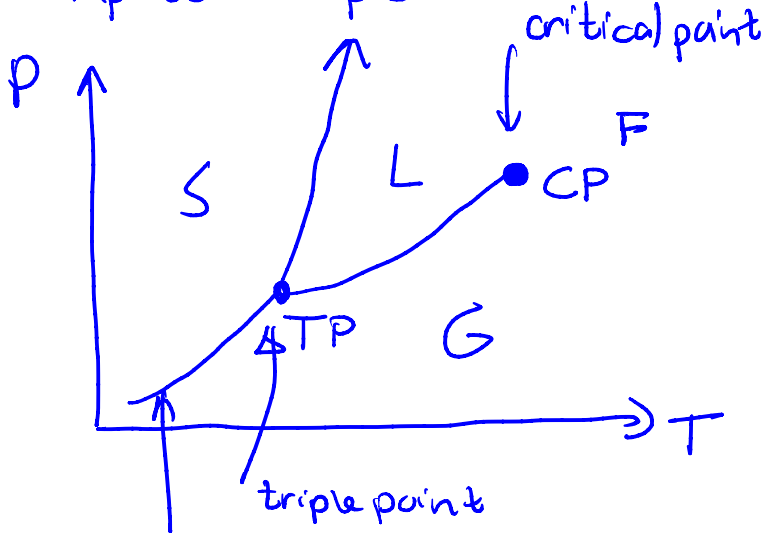
configurational integral.

Note that for ideal gas $Q(N, V, T) = V^N$.

Interactions can lead to non-trivial phase behaviour

Phase diagrams: Conditions under which phases coexist.

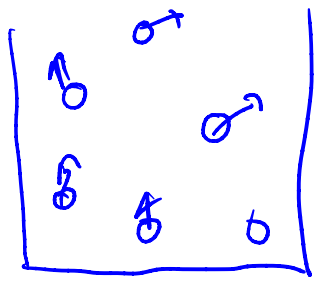
Simplest example:



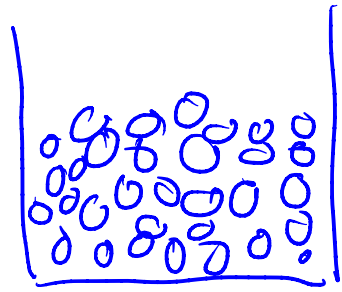
phase boundaries (coexistence)

in coexisting phases, all intensive thermodynamic variables are constant!

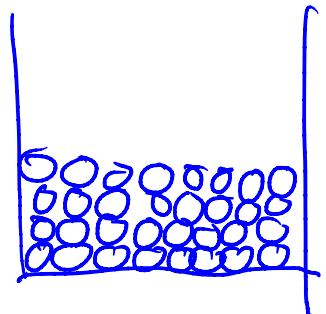
S: solid
L: liquid
G: gas
F: fluid.



gas



liquid



solid-

- volume not fixed
- low density
- non-fixed shape
- high compressibility
- translational inv.
- potential energy

$$\langle K \rangle \gg \langle \Phi \rangle$$

kinetic energy

- fixed volume
- high density
- non-fixed shape
- low compressibility
- translational inv.

$$\langle K \rangle \sim \langle \Phi \rangle$$

- fixed volume
- high density
- fixed shape
- low compressibility
- Translational symmetry broken (crystal) or invariant (amorphous)

$$\langle \Phi \rangle \gg \langle K \rangle$$

Phase diagrams can be very complicated (e.g. water...)