

1. Small-Mass Cell Model for Hard Particles

From either of two viewpoints [1] the dynamics of a light particle, or [2] the repeated Monte Carlo moves of an arbitrary particle, there is a well-defined "free volume". The virial theorem can be applied to relate the free volume to the pressure, $PV/NkT = 1 + (\sigma/4) < s^{f}/v^{f} >$, where it is assumed that all configurations of the free volume, bounded by the surface s^{f} , are of equal probability. This assumption is certainly true for Monte Carlo simulations, and is an accepted result, usually attributed to Sinai, in ergodic theory. My 1978 work for disks, with a single computation for hard spheres led to extensive results (hundreds of data points) for spheres by Sastry *et alii* in 1998 [Molecular Physics 95, 289-297]. The results can be summarized by generalizing the exact one-dimensional result to a two-parameter empirical fit :

$\int vf(v) dv = \int v dv e^{-[v/\langle v \rangle]} / \langle v \rangle^2 \rightarrow f(v) = v^a exp[-v^b]$

Here a and b are close to 1/3 and 1/2 for spheres . For disks a is approximately 0.1 . The application of these ideas to continuous potentials is not so straightforward because the possibility of escape from the cell is always present . On the other hand a model , the "Cell Model" can be implemented numerically as an approximation to the canonical partition function's Nth root . This idea was pursued by Lennard-Jones and Devonshire in 1937-8 (in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London) and was brought up to date by Magee and Wilding (in Molecular Physics) in 2002 . The Lennard-Jones-Devonshire model is spherically smoothed which adds some arbitrariness to the model . The results they found are interesting . First we will consider simple one- and two-dimensional systems .



1. Small-Mass Dynamics or Gibbs suggest "Cell" Models

The many-body problem can be approximated by a one-body problem . We can select a *typical* many-body configuration and examine its one-body properties . There are special cases in which this idea is exact rather than approximate . This idea can serve as a basis for "cell models" .



For simplicity we consider hard disks . This simplifies the graphics , the topology , and the dynamics . Disks are a good model system as they exhibit both fluid and solid phases .

To the left is an equilibrated fluid configuration of 48 hard disks . The boundary conditions are periodic so that any disk leaving the box is simultaneously introduced on the opposite side . At this density , 4/5 that of the "triangular" close-packed lattice , the solid phase is more stable than the fluid .

Such an equilibrium configuration can be obtained from molecular dynamics or Monte Carlo simulations. The two approaches produce identical results with microcanonical and canonical configurations identical.



1. Magee-Wilding Cell Model for Lennard-Jones ϕ

Magee and Wilding (2002) explored the spherically smoothed LJD cell model using the 12-6 potential :

$$φ$$
 (r) = 4 ε [(σ/r)¹² – (σ/r)⁶].

Here ϵ is the well depth and σ is the collision diameter . They found the relatively bizarre phase diagram shown here with two coexistence regions (only one of these had been found by LJD), along with two critical points . Gholamreza Vakili-Nezhaad extended this work by varying the coordination number, adding more complexity to a model nearly 80 years old !

In the plots the units of T are (ϵ/k), of P are (ϵ/σ^3), while those of ρ are (m/σ^3). Evidently there is food for thought in the model . We next pursue simpler applications, hard rods, disks, and spheres, as well as crystal lattices held together with Hooke's-Law spring interactions, with ϕ (r) = $\kappa(r-d)^2/2$, where d is the restlength of the springs.



2. Einstein Model for the Harmonic Chain and Hard Rods

Starting at one end of the harmonic chain and integrating exp[$-\kappa \delta x^2/2kT$]d δx gives the exact limiting result for the configurational Integral : $Z_q = (2\pi kT/\kappa)^{(N/2)}$.

Einstein's approximation , picking one oscillator in the middle , gives a smaller result : $exp[-2\kappa\delta x^2/2kT]d\delta x \rightarrow (\pi kT/\kappa)^{(N/2)}$, so that the oscillator integral is too small by $\sqrt{2}$. The exact entropy exceeds the Einstein model by 0.3466 Nk .

The hard-rod configurational integral gives a similar result . In the exact case there is an iterated integral over a space $(V - N)^N$. If the particles remain ordered then the result is $Z_q = (V - N)^N/N$! The result is exactly the same if the particles are allowed *any* ordering and then the integral is corrected for indistinguishability. The exact (Stirling limit) result $Z_q = [(V/N) - 1]^N e^N$, is bigger than the cell model estimate $[(V/N) - 1]^N 2^N$ by a factor of 1.3591, similar to 1.4142. The entropy exceeds the Einstein value by 0.30685 Nk. Stirling's approximation : N! $\approx \sqrt{(2\pi N)(N/e)^N} + O(1/N)$.

The one-dimensional models can be worked out easily . In two dimensions the harmonic crystal entropy (using the triangular lattice , where each particle has six nearest neighbors) exceeds that of the Einstein model by 0.27326 Nk .







Photo 1 Mary Ann Mansigh, Berni Alder, and Tom Wainwright







4. The Percolation Transition for Hard Disks

It is evident that the free volume is extensive at low density, $v_f \rightarrow V - (N - 1)(\pi\sigma^2)$. Likewise at the high density of 0.8 relative to close packing the free volume is intensive, $v_f \alpha (V/N)[1 - \sqrt{(V_0/V)}]^2$. This observation suggests a transition, called the "percolation transition". The transition can be quantified by measuring the cluster size S : $< 1/S > = 28.8 [0.245 - (V_0/V)]^{2.4} \rightarrow 1/< 1/S > = 56$ at $\rho = (V_0/V) = 0.200$.



4. Exact Cell Models and Percolation for Hard Particles

We have seen that both the "light-particle" dynamical approach [1] and the Monte Carlo statistical approach [2] lead to the conclusion that the pressure (or momentum flux) can be expressed in terms of the free volume v_f and its surface area s_f (a length for disks) :

 $(PV/NkT) = 1 + (1/4) < s_f/v_f > = 1 + (1/4) < s_f > / < v_f > .$

There is a comprehensive table in "Exact Hard-Disk Free Volumes", Journal of Chemical Physics 70, 1837-1844 (1969) showing the quantitative agreement of these equations of state with the many-body simulations. A generation later Srikanth Sastry *et alii* * carried out a comprehensive study of the hard-sphere analog using a division of the many-body configuration into Voronoi cells to partition the free volumes into manageable pieces.

Les Woodcock , in the 2012 Journal of the American Institute of Chemical Engineers , points out that hard spheres have *two* very different "percolation transistions". The lower-density excluded-volume percolation occurs when a single cluster of spheres excludes a volume extending all the way across the system . The higher-density percolation occurs when the volumes available for another sphere become a disjoint set of isolated holes .

* = Truskett, Debenedetti, Torquato, and Stillinger, Molecular Physics 95, 289-297 (1998).



5. Fractal Analysis of the Galton Board Sections

The fractals can be analyzed in terms of "measures" based on $\#^a$ where there are # points in the bins and the exponent a varies (here) from 0 to 10. The most useful measure is the "natural measure" # with a = 1.

Fractals have *fractional* dimensionality in the sense that the number of points # in the vicinity r of an arbitrarily chosen phase-space point varies as a *fractional* power of r. The power is 1.832 in the Galton Board problem where the field strength is 3.

The numerical data show that the apparent dimension varies only a little with the size of the mesh.

FIG. 6. Spectrum of fractal dimension f(a) found here for the nonequilibrium system of Figs. 4 and 5 using a field strength of $3P^2/m\sigma$ and 100 000 000 collisions. Points shown are labeled according to the number of bins spanning $(\alpha, \sin\beta)$ space, 256^2 , 512^2 , and 1024^2 . The q values, in the range from 0 to 10 are indicated, except for $q = \frac{1}{2}$.

5. The Deviations from Equilibrium are Quadratic *

Were it the case that the deviations from equilibrium were smooth and described by a Taylor's series we would expect to find a quadratic dependence of dimensionality on on the field strength E. This idea is not too far from true.

Keep in mind that conductivity varies in a complicated way on field strength . Fractals have structure on all scales , which makes analytic dependences unlikely .

 $D_1 = \sum \mu_1 \ln (\mu_1) / \ln \delta$

 $\mathsf{D}_2=\Sigma\,\mu_2\,\mathsf{ln}\,(\mu_2)\,/\,\mathsf{ln}\,\delta$

 $\alpha_2 = \sum \mu_2 \ln (\mu_1) / \ln \delta$

Here the measures are based on [1] *points* or on [2] *pairs*. TABLE I. Information and correlation dimensions D_1 and D_2 for 100 000 000 hard-disk collisions using 512×512 bins. The *a* value corresponding to the correlation dimension $a_2(q=2)$ is shown also. The "fit" results for these dimensions all give the result of a quadratic dependence between zero field and $E = P^2/m\sigma$. For comparison, the results for $E = 3P^2/m\sigma$ are also shown, though these exhibit significant deviation from the small-field quadratic behavior.

	Dimensionless field strength: $Em\sigma/P^2$						
name and an	0.000	0.250	0.500	0.750	1.000	3.000	
D_1	2.000	1.998	1.995	1.988	1.979	1.832	
Fit	2.000	1.999	1.995	1.988	1.979	1.81ª	
D_2	1.999	1.994	1.980	1.955	1.920	1.583	
Fit	2.000	1.995	1.980	1.955	1.920	1.28	
a_2	2.000	1.995	1.985	1.966	1.940	1.656	
Fit	2.000	1.996	1.985	1.966	1.940	1.46	

6. Conducting Oscillator Using Ergodic Thermostats * As a bit of review let's show that these three equations are consistent with an extended Gibbs' canonical distribution with T = 1. $\begin{aligned} \dot{q} = p ; \ \dot{p} = -q - \zeta [1.5p - 0.5(p^5/T^2)] ; \\ \dot{\zeta} = 1.5[(p^2/T) - 1] - 0.5[(p^6/T^3) - 5(p^4/T^2)] \end{aligned}$ Suppose that $f(q, p, \zeta) = e^{-q^2/2}e^{-p^2/2}e^{-\zeta^2/2}$ and apply Liouville's Theorem . The three-dimensional Gaussian will be a stationary solution provided that $-(\partial \dot{p}/\partial p) + q\dot{q} + p\dot{p} + \zeta\dot{\zeta} = 0$. Writing out these four terms in full gives : $\hat{1}.5\zeta - \hat{2}.5\zeta p^4 + \hat{q}p + p(\hat{-}q - 1.5\zeta p + \hat{0}.5\zeta p^5) + \zeta [-\hat{1}.5 + 1.5p^2 + 2.5p^4 - \hat{0}.5p^6]$. This sum is precisely zero and numerical work indicates that the equations are ergodic . * arXiv 1507.08302 (2015) has all the details.

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8. Addendum : Entropy Production

Extending thermodynamics to nonequilibrium situations requires constitutive relations giving the stress and heat flux in terms of gradients . The Boltzmann equation furnishes a guide . Here we will consider shear flow and heat flow as examples . In periodic shear the temperature can be stabilized by Nosé-Hoover control to reach a steady state . In the steady state heat is extracted by forces $\{-\zeta p^2\}$ and work is performed by the shearing boundary conditions $P_{xy}V(du_x/dy)$ with these energy sinks and sources balancing for long time averages , < dE/dt > = < dQ/dt > - < dW/dt > . What is the "entropy" of the sheared fluid ? By adding the extracted heat divided by the thermostat temperature T one finds that the entropy decreases at the rate $-\Sigma \zeta p^2 / T = -2N < \zeta >$. But of course in a steady state there can be no steady decline – entropy (if it exists) must be constant . The result of this line of thinking is entropy production, dS/dt = - (V/T)dQ/dt - P_{xy}V(du_x/dy) /T . If the viscosity is defined by $P_{xy} = -\eta (du_x/dy)$ then the entropy production per unit volume can be expressed as the square of the stress divided by viscosity or the square of the strain rate multiplied by the viscosity, in either case dividing by the thermostat temperature T .

8. Addendum : Entropy Production

A similar idea can be applied to heat flow . The heat extracted by the cold reservoir gives an entropy loss Q /T while the heat added by the hot reservoir provides an entropy gain . Because there is no long time change in system energy the entropy change is $< Q > [1/T_H - 1/T_c] < 0$. If the temperature difference is expressed in terms of the system length multiplied by a temperature gradient then , just as in the case of shear , the "entropy production" can be expressed as the square of a current divided by the heat conductivity or the square of a gradient multiplied by the conductivity . The entropy production can be viewed as an artifice designed to preserve the Second Law of Thermodynamics .

In a steady shockwave the influx of cold low-entropy fluid does not match the exiting higher-entropy value . Again there is judged to be, or said to be, entropy produced within the system. It is useful to remember that entropy is a property of *distributions* of systems.

8. Addendum : Entropy Production

With the advantage of simulation it became possible to study the Gibbs' entropy of simple systems like the Galton Board or the conducting oscillator . What happens is that the distribution function in the phase space becomes fractal , of zero volume , so that the Gibbs' entropy actually does approach (mathematically) minus infinity . Although the formation of the fractal takes a relatively short time to saturate , perhaps $20/\lambda$ with single precision , $40/\lambda$ with double , and $80/\lambda$ with quadruple , we see that the limited information provided by computation *does* provide a steady state with a very small density of states in the phase space .

The overall moral is that extending the concept of entropy to nonequilibrium systems is not a practical activity^{*}. On the other hand the fractals produced by nonequilibrium simulations can be viewed and analyzed. Let us look in detail at a simple model for the fractal character of nonequilibrium flows, the Baker Map.

* There is a nice article in the 2011 volume of Entropy by R M Velasco, Leo G-C Scherer and F J Uribe .

8. Addendum : Entropy Production via Ergodic Baker Maps

The "entropy" < ln(f) > has been calculated here using what is called the "Natural Measure", where f is the frequency with which the box is visited. It is perfectly feasible (but not necessarily useful) to define other measures by computing powers of f. The "information dimension" is the one we have calculated. The "correlation dimension" is based on the square of frequency and can alternatively be evaluated by computing the logarithmic dependence of the number of *pairs* of points in each bin on the bin size. The dimension decreases as the power used in defining it increases. Because information dimension is directly related to Gibbs' entropy it is the one most likely to be useful for statistical mechanics.

Addendum : Maximum Entropy as a Predictor

Edwin Jaynes (1922-1998) believed that "entropy" – k < ln(f) > could be used to predict *nonequilibrium* probabilities, not just equilibrium ones. His maximum-entropy principle suggests to me that he would expect larger-entropy situations more likely to be observed than their smaller-entropy relatives. A good test of this idea is the degenerate Rayleigh-Bénard problem.

Addendum : Maximum Entropy as a Predictor

Vic Castillo (at the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory) did his 1999 PhD work with Bill in the University of California's Department of Applied Science at Livermore . He studied the Rayleigh Bénard problem with an emphasis on entropy and chaos . Many of his interesting publications can be found on Research Gate . Here Vic is mentoring new students in computational physics .

8. Maximum Entropy as a Structural Predictor ?

We know that gravity and temperature can interact to cause Rayleigh-Bénard instability . An enclosed fluid , heated from below with vertical gravity , can generate convection currents . We can imagine a competition between Fourier's Law , where the entropy production depends on the temperature gradient , and convection currents , which add dissipation from velocity gradients . Because we expect a stationary state when the boundary temperatures are fixed we can measure the entropy production in two ways :

 $[1] Q [(1/T_{COLD}) - (1/T_{HOT})], from heat transfer at the top and bottom boundaries.$ $[2] Integrate the local production over the entire volume V : <math>\int dV (\sigma : \nabla u - q \cdot \nabla \ln T) / T$.

These two methods agree precisely for the following model :

Solve the Eulerian Fluid Equations :

$$(\partial \rho / \partial t) = - \nabla \cdot (\rho v),$$

$$(\partial v/\partial t) = -v \cdot \nabla v + (1/\rho) \nabla \cdot \sigma + g,$$

$$(\partial e/\partial t) = -v \cdot \nabla e + (1/\rho) [\nabla v : \sigma - \nabla \cdot Q].$$

PV = NkT with constant $v = (\eta/\rho)$ and κ . Centered differences in space with v and e at nodes and ρ in cell centers ; g = $\Delta T/H \rightarrow$ constant density with a constant temperature gradient.

Simple Constitutive Fluid Model :

8. Maximum Entropy Production as a Structural Predictor

TABLE I. The horizontal and vertical contributions to the kinetic energy per unit mass, the internal energy per unit mass, the boundary heat flux, and the small-amplitude growth rate of the kinetic energy, multiplied by the system width W, are given for a series of fully converged solutions at a Rayleigh number of 40 000. Two-roll, four-roll, and six-roll solutions are compared. W=2H. $N=2H^2$. In the continuum limit energies vary as N, traversal times, diffusion times, and dissipation rates as $N^{1/2} \propto H$.

Rolls	K_x/Nm	K_y/Nm	E/Nm	Q_{boundary}	W/τ
2	0.003730	0.00357	1.014	0.0120	1.42
4	0.001139	0.00410	1.018	0.0118	1.70
6	0.000274	0.00226	1.012	0.0106	1.25

[There are several papers by Vic Castillo, Oyeon Kum, Harald Posch, and the Hoovers in the late 1990s]

Statistical Mechanics of Small Systems

EQUILIBRIUM IDEAS :

- 1. The small-mass limit → cell model , the Einstein model for a chain of oscillators .
- 2. Tonks' hard-rod model validates Mayers' theory
- 3. Hard disks validate cell-model ideas .
- 4. Percolation transition \rightarrow interesting topology .

NONEQUILIBRIUM IDEAS :

- 5. Galton Board \rightarrow Fractal Sea , Tori , and Limit Cycles .
- 6. Conducting oscillator \rightarrow 7. Fractals , Linear response .
- 8. Maximum Entropy seems to be a Failure .