# **Kharagpur Lecture 8**

microscopic reversibility and MACROSCOPIC IRREVERSIBILITY

- 1. What is microscopic reversibility ?
- 2. What is the stability of the motion ?
- 3. Macroscopic Irreversibility
- 4. Shockwave Structure Dynamics
- 5. Shockwave Structure Models

### William G. Hoover

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## What is microscopic reversibility ?

Certainly the leapfrog algorithm , which generates a string of coordinates equally spaced in time , *is* time-reversible . Time enters into the motion equations as ( dt )<sup>2</sup> . When the Lagrangian equations of motion are written In terms of the second derivatives , (  $d^2q/dt^2$  ) , they too are time-reversible . The Hamiltonian equations of motion ,

are more problematic because the reversed trajectory breaks the usual convention that momentum is the time derivative of the coordinate. It is simpler to state that if the time-reversed movie of the motion obeys the same motion equations as those in the original forward movie, the motion is 'time-reversible". It is my view that this is a good definition. It is evident that if there are equations describing nature well they are *not* time-reversible. Nature is definitely not reversible.





irreversibility is the norm .

















### Q: Why is the direction of the perturbation irrelevant ? A: The direction of most rapid growth wins out soon !

We demonstrate with an example in which one variable is unstable and the other one is not . { dq/dt = q ; dp/dt = 0 } . We consider the evolution of a linear perturbation ( $\delta_q, \delta_p$ ) constrained to have unit length by the Lagrange multiplier  $\lambda$  :

$$d\delta_q/dt = \delta_q - \lambda \delta_q$$
;  $d\delta_p/dt = -\lambda \delta_p \rightarrow \lambda = \delta_q^2 / (\delta_q^2 + \delta_p^2)$ 

To solve the differential equations use  $(\delta_q, \delta_p) = ( +\cos(\theta), -\sin(\theta) )$ .

$$-\sin(\theta) (d\theta/dt) = +\cos(\theta) - \cos^{3}(\theta) \rightarrow (d\theta/dt) = -\sin(\theta)\cos(\theta)$$

which has the solution  $\delta_q = [1 + e^{-2t}]^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ ;  $\delta_p = -[1 + e^{+2t}]^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ 

This example demonstrates that the dominant growth direction wins out over all the others exponentially fast .





2. What is the stability of classical motion ?
The Bouncing Ball Problem is *typical* : Time-reversible equations of motion ; Logarithmic measure of instability , λ ; λ depends on the past , *not* the future .
Many-Body Problems are more typical , but they are more difficult to treat numerically . Lyapunov analysis provides an *Arrow*. We consider a manybody collision in which Time's Arrow is clearly evident . We can understand IRREVERSIBILITY !

### 2. What is the stability of classical motion ?

Mesoscopic motion (molecular dynamics simulations) obeys the Second Law. One way to see this is to simulate a noticeably irreversible process. Thus we consider the inelastic collision of two 400-particle balls. All 800 particles interact with a repulsive pair potential,  $(1 - r^2)^4$ . The attraction is furnished by an additional "embedded-atom" potential,  $\Sigma (1/2)(\rho - 1)^2$ , where each of the 800 terms in the sum depends on the deviation of the particle densities from unity. The particle densities are computed from Lucy's weight function with a range of h = 3.5; here z = r/h :

 $w(r < h = 3.5) = (5/\pi h^2)[1 + 3z][1 - z]^3$ .

In the continuum descriptions of macroscopic flows it is usual to use Newtonian viscosity and Fourier heat conduction to describe the irreversible processes involving dissipation and transport. These processes are irreversible in the sense that a reversed flow no longer satisfies the same motion equations. Fourier's Law,  $Q_x = -\kappa (dT/dx)$ , that heat flows from hot to cold furnishes the simplest example. If the flow is instantaneously reversed (changing the signs of all of the velocities) the heat flux will also be reversed but the temperature will remain unchanged. In the artificial reversed flow heat flows from cold to hot which would correspond to a negative heat conductivity ( $\kappa < 0$ ) and a violation of the Second Law of Thermodynamics. Although the dynamics of a few particles can violate the "law" for a short time 800 particles are enough to be described by macroscopic phenomenological constitutive equations. We will illustrate this now.



## The stability of motion *via* "the" Lyapunov Exponent

At any time the direction of the Lyapunov instability vector (satellite – reference) can be determined by following two trajectories with the separation between them constrained (this is the Benettin + Shimada + Nagashima idea of 1979-1980). By looking at the components of the vector one can identify the "important" particles at any time. It is good manners to recognize that these "local-exponent" properties depend upon the choice of coordinate system, which causes mathematicians to fret.

In the previous (forward view) it is the leading-edge particles which contribute most to the Lyapunov instability. In the following (backward reversed-velocity view) the important particles are the surface particles undergoing plastic strain. Such a calculation could not be reversed in continuum mechanics as the flow equations are not time-reversible.

Although microscopic Newtonian mechanics *is* reversible the reversed results are completely unstable and can only be obtained by storing or using Levesque-Verlet.







### 2. What is the stability of classical motion ?

The Second Law is readily apparent in these plastic flows or in shear flows or in heat flows . In a viscous fluid the shear stress is proportional to the strain rate in a thermostated isochoric flow . In a heat flow the heat flux Q is proportional to the temperature gradient :

#### $-P_{xy} = \sigma_{xy} = \eta [(du/dy) + (dv/dx)]; Q_x = -\kappa (dT/dx).$

We know from the virial theorem and the heat theorem that the stress and the temperature gradient are independent of time reversal while the strain rate and the heat flux are not . Any flow which obeys the phenomenological linear laws can easily be detected by computing  $\eta$  and  $\kappa$ . If these transport coefficients are negative the motion has been reversed ! There is an obvious arrow of time with dt > 0 having normal transport coefficients and dt < 0 having abnormal ones .

### 3. Macroscopic Irreversibility ?

The Second Law is automatically satisfied in the phenomenological models used in shockwave simulations . Viscoelastic models of material response stress the parallel structures of homogeneous linear elasticity and fluid linear viscosity :

$$\begin{split} \sigma_{xx} &= 2\eta (du/dx) + \lambda [ (du/dx) + (dv/dy) ] \\ &\text{ and } \sigma_{xy} = \eta [ (du/dy) + (dv/dx) ] \text{ and } \\ \sigma_{yy} &= 2\eta (dv/dy) + \lambda [ (du/dx) + (dv/dy) ] . \end{split}$$

In two dimensions  $\eta$  is shear viscosity or shear modulus while  $\lambda + \eta$  is the bulk viscosity or bulk modulus . (u,v) are displacements or velocities . The products of stress times strain or strainrate correspond to work done in the elastic case and rate of heating in the viscous case . The elastic  $\lambda$  and  $\eta$  are the Lamé constants .









#### 5. Back to Stationary Shockwave Structure with Unit Viscosity \*

Let us consider the simplest possible fluid shockwave . We imagine a fluid with a weak repulsive energy proportional to  $\rho$  and a thermal energy T so that the thermomechnical equation of state is :  $P = \rho e = (\rho^2/2) + \rho T$  with  $e = (\rho/2) + T$ . These relations, as well as the entropy S follow from the corresponding Gibbs' canonical partition function :

 $Z^{1/N} = e^{[-A/NkT]} = e^{[+S/Nk]}e^{[-E/NkT]} = (VT/N)e^{[-N/2VT]}$ 

A steady shockwave necessarily has constant fluxes of mass, momentum, and energy . We choose to study a wave with twofold compression from the cold T = 0 state :

ρ: 1 → 2; u: 2 → 1; P: (1/2) → (5/2); e: (1/2) → (5/4); T: 0 → (1/4).

Notice that the three fluxes are constant where we omit Q<sub>x</sub> for simplicity :

 $\rho u = 2$ ;  $P_{xx} + \rho u^2 = (9/2)$ ;  $(\rho u)[e + (P_{xx}/\rho) + (u^2/2)] = 6$ .

The Hugoniot equation, which results from eliminating the cold and hot velocities, is the overall energy conservation relation for shocks :

 $\Delta e = (1/2)(P_{hot} + P_{cold})\Delta V = (3/4) = (1/2)3(1/2)$ .

#### 5. Back to Stationary Shockwave Structure with Unit Viscosity, $P_{xx} = \rho e - (du/dx)$

Further, we imagine that the viscosity coefficient is equal to unity. We can find a single ordinary differential equation to solve for the shockwave profile by eliminating temperature from the two equations for the fluxes of momentum and energy :

$$(\rho^2/2) + \rho T - (du/dx) + (4/\rho) = (9/2); \ \rho + 2T - (du/dx)/\rho + (2/\rho^2) = 3.$$

With the substitution  $(du/dx) = (-2/\rho^2)(d\rho/dx)^*$  the elimination of the temperature from the flux relations provides a single differential equation for the density as a function of the coordinate x:

$$(d\rho/dx) = (3/2)\rho(\rho - 1)(2 - \rho)$$
.

As is usual, the numerical solution converges easily (starting at the "hot" end with dx = -0.001) using our standby integrator, fourth-order Runge-Kutta. Starting at the cold end is not at all tempting as the entropy diverges there ! \* Remember pu = 2.





#### 5. Solving the Navier-Stokes-Fourier equations for shockwave structure \*

The solution of the Navier-Stokes-Fourier equations is only a little more complicated. We illustrate for a shockwave structure worked out in 1980 for the Lennard-Jones liquid, compressed twofold with a temperature increase of about 10 000 kelvins , enough to begin the ionization process for argon , the fluid being modeled . Bulk and shear viscosity , as well as heat conductivity , were included in the modeling . \* As a result one can solve two simultaneous differential equations , one for (dp/dx) coming from the momentum flux , and one involving both (dp/dx) and (dT/dx) , coming from the energy flux . Alternatively one can divide and solve the resulting equation for (dp/dT) . In order to complete this calculation molecular dynamics simulations for the viscosity coefficients and the thermal conductivity were carried out and fitted with convenient functions of density and temperature . For this shockwave the maximum value of  $T_{xx}$  was about 50% larger than the transverse temperatures  $T_{yy}$  and  $T_{zz}$ .

\* Holian, Hoover, Moran, and Straub in the December 1980 Physical Review A .











[Shockwaves are an ideal test of nonlinear ideas]









expansion of ln( $1 - \delta$ ) does not change the reasoning for large N.



### microscopic reversibility and MACROSCOPIC IRREVERSIBILITY

Before leaving this subject let us consider the difference between equilibrium and nonequilibrium steady states . In both cases fluctuations obey the Central Limit Theorem in time and space. An equilibrium system has no heat flow and no viscous forces. On the other hand it can have mass, momentum, and energy gradients of the kinds typical of gravitational forces, configurational temperature gradients caused by rotation. Notice that a two-dimensional particle circling the origin has a centrifugal force +  $m\omega^2 r$  which can be offset by a spring force -  $\kappa(r - 1)$  so that even a situation of steady rotation and constant angular momentum would produce an apparent gradient in temperature for a rotating solid held together by Hooke's Law forces.

Nonequilibrium steady states would give rise to heat flux , gradients , dimensionality loss in phase space, strange attractors . Notice that the continuity equation is the only one of the three conservation laws which is time reversible,  $(\partial \rho / \partial t) = -(\partial / \partial x)(\rho v_x)$ , with both sides of the equation changing sign if the clock runs backwards . The equations in two or three dimensions have this same form . If the velocities are reversed in a Rayleigh-Bénard problem or a shockwave it is easy to see that the continuum pressure tensor ,  $P = P(\rho, e) - \eta[(\partial v_x/\partial y) + (\partial v_y/\partial x)]$  is typically mixed . Likewise , in a heat flow problem the heat flux is odd in the time while the temperature is even.

An interesting aspect of Hamiltonian Thermostats is that they cannot generate heat flow. There are several examples in our paper "Hamiltonian Systems Fail to Promote Heat Flows", available in the arXiv 1303.6190.

