

Relation between Statistical Mechanics and Thermodynamics

- $\langle E \rangle_{NVT} = k_B T^2 \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial T} |_{NV} \hat{=} U(N, V, T)$
- $k_B T \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial V} |_{N,T} = p$
- $-k_B T \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial N} |_{V,T} = \mu$
- $k_B T \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial T} |_{NV} + k_B \ln Z = S$

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Lecture 3

The **partition function** contains all information regarding a given thermodynamic state.

$$Z = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$$

- Sum over all quantum states (including degeneracy).
- $Z = Z(N, V, T)$ (infinite heat bath)

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Computing the trace in CM for a continuous system

- Let $H = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p_i^2}{2m} + V(r_1, \dots, r_N)$.
- $Z_{NVT}^{CM} = \frac{1}{h^{3N} N!} \int dp^{3N} dr^{3N} e^{-\beta H(\{p_i\}, \{r_i\})}$.

Normalisation

- **h**: Historically introduced to make dimensions work, but its origin is in QM (Gibbs + Boltzmann couldn't find this).
- **N!**: Gibbs factor, corrects for particles to be indistinguishable. (This is not fully correct since Bose-Einstein/Fermi-Dirac statistics lead to other prefactors in different thermal limits).

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$$Z_{NVT}^{CM} = \frac{1}{N! h^{3N}} \int dp^{3N} \exp[-\beta \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m}] \cdot \int dr^{3N} \exp[-\beta V(r_1, \dots, r_N)]$$

Ideal Gas partition function

- An ideal gas consists of point-like, non-interacting particles confined in a fixed volume.
- $H = \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m_i}$ (assume same m)
- $Z = \frac{1}{N! h^{3N}} \int dp^{3N} \exp[-\beta \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m}] \int_V d^3N r = \frac{V^N}{N! h^{3N}} \int dp^{3N} \exp[-\beta \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m}]$
- The momentum integral can be separated: $\int d^3N p \exp[-\beta \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m}] = \prod_{i=1}^N \int \exp[-\beta \frac{p^2}{2m}] d^3 p = \prod_{i=1}^N 4\pi \int_0^\infty dp p^2 \exp[-\beta p^2/2m]$.
- Using the standard integral: $\int_0^\infty x^2 \exp(-ax^2) dx = \frac{\pi^{1/2}}{4a^{3/2}}$.

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- $J = -k_B T \ln Z_{\mu VT} = -\rho V$ (Massieu) for the **grand canonical ensemble**.

Evaluating the Partition Function

- $Z = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$
- More correctly, $Z = \text{tr}(e^{-\beta \hat{H}})$ (true for both classical and quantum mechanics).

Computing the trace in QM

- $\text{tr}(\hat{\theta}) = \sum_i \langle \psi_i | \hat{\theta} | \psi_i \rangle$
- Also, $\hat{H} | \psi_i \rangle = E_i | \psi_i \rangle \Rightarrow e^{-\beta \hat{H}} | \psi_i \rangle = e^{-\beta E_i} | \psi_i \rangle$.
- (Exercise: show that this is true). This allows recovery of $Z = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$.

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- $-k_B T \ln Z = F(N, V, T)$ (**Helmholtz free energy**)
- Exercise: prove these.
- It holds that $F = U - TS$.
- $dF = -SdT - p dV + \mu dN$
- Knowing Z as a function of N, V, T defines the thermodynamic state of the system exactly.
- Since $Z = Z(\{E_i(N, V)\}, T)$, knowing all quantum states yields the thermodynamics.

Note: Thermodynamic Potentials

- $F = -k_B T \ln Z_{NVT}$ (Helmholtz) for the **canonical ensemble**.
- $G = -k_B T \ln Z_{NPT}$ (Gibbs) for the **isothermal-isobaric ensemble**.
- $S = +k_B T \ln Z_{NVE}$ (entropy) for the **microcanonical ensemble**.

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- $\Rightarrow Z = \frac{V^N}{N!} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_T} \right)^{3N}$
- Where $\lambda_T = \frac{h}{[2\pi m k_B T]^{1/2}}$ is the **thermal de Broglie wavelength**.

Motivating Monte Carlo Statistical Sampling 🎲

- How to compute $Z = \text{tr}(e^{-\beta \hat{H}})$?
- It is often not feasible to determine all eigenstates of \hat{H} or to integrate analytically over all of phase space.
- Not all of phase space is relevant. Many regions are exponentially suppressed and thus don't contribute to Z.

The probability of a state is given by $\frac{\exp(-\beta H)}{Z}$.

Importance Sampling

- The expectation value of an observable θ is $\langle \theta \rangle = \int \theta(r, p) P(r, p) dr^{3N} dp^{3N} \approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \theta(r_i, p_i)$.
- This approximation holds if the M configurations (r_i, p_i) are drawn from the distribution $P(r, p)$.
- $\langle \theta \rangle = \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \theta(r_i, p_i)$
- Recall $P(r, p) = \frac{\exp[-\beta H(r, p)]}{Z}$, where $Z = \int \exp(-\beta H) dr dp$.
- Note that (a) $\exp(-\beta H(r, p))$ is relatively easy to compute, but (b) Z is difficult to compute.

Key point in Metropolis Monte Carlo: It allows us to draw samples from a probability distribution $P(x)$ when we only know the distribution up to a constant, i.e., $h(x) = cP(x)$.

- It relies on the fact that the ratio of probabilities can be computed without knowing the constant: $\frac{h(x_1)}{h(x_2)} = \frac{p(x_1)}{p(x_2)}$.
- **Downside:** The generated samples are no longer independent.

Figure 3.1: Measuring the depth of the Nile: a comparison of conventional quadrature (left), with the Metropolis scheme (right).

- The left image shows a map of Africa and the Middle East with a uniform grid of sample points laid over it.
- The right image is a cartoon depicting a more targeted sampling method, with a person sampling in the Nile river itself, near pyramids.

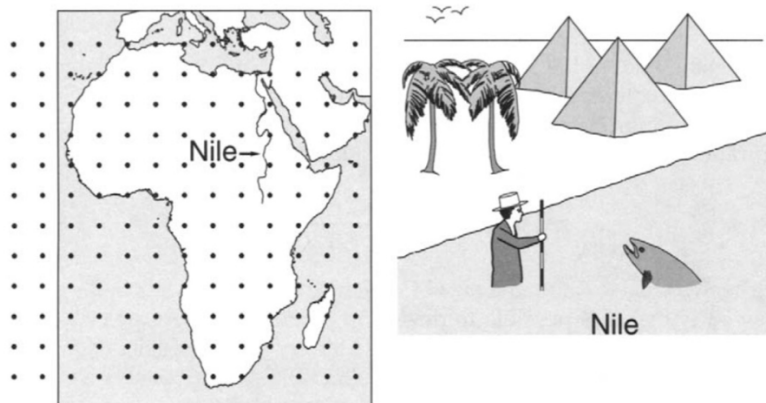


Figure 3.1: Measuring the depth of the Nile: a comparison of conventional quadrature (left), with the Metropolis scheme (right).