

## Interacting Classical Gases

Real gases differ from ideal gases in two important ways

- ① Interactions are present.
- ② there are (or maybe) quantum mechanical effects.

Let us consider first the case of a gas sufficiently dilute so that the <sup>(mean)</sup> distance between the atoms (or molecules) is large compared to their de Broglie thermal wavelength, i.e.

$$\lambda_T = \frac{h}{p} = \left( \frac{2\pi \hbar^2}{mkT} \right)^{1/2} \ll n^{-1/3} \quad (n = \frac{N}{V})$$

$$\Rightarrow n^{2/3} \ll \frac{m k T}{2\pi^2 \hbar^2}$$

In this regime quantum effects are ~~are~~ negligible. Also if  $n$  is low enough, interaction effects may <sup>also</sup> be weak.

In this limit we expect ~~to~~ to find that quantities of interest should be computable as a power series expansion of the density (in suitable units)

Thus consider a classical system of  $N$  particles of mass  $M$   
 (for the moment we will work in the Canonical Ensemble)  
 with an energy (or Hamiltonian)

$$\begin{aligned} E_N(\vec{r}_1, \dots, \vec{r}_N; \vec{p}_1, \dots, \vec{p}_N) &= \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\vec{p}_i^2}{2M} + \sum_{i < j} U(|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j|) \end{aligned}$$

Here we are assuming that the particles are point-like and that as such we can work with central potentials. This assumption clearly breaks down at high densities and its failure is connected with the fact that, for instance, water has a complex phase diagram. However, at low densities the behavior of a real gas should differ from an ideal gas only by corrections that of controlled by the density.

For a system of  $N$  particles, the partition function is

$$Z_N = \frac{1}{N!} \int \frac{d^3 p_1 \dots d^3 p_N \cdot d^3 r_1 \dots d^3 r_N}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3N}} e^{-E_N(\vec{r}_1, \dots, \vec{r}_N)/kT}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N!} \left( \frac{V}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^N \frac{Q_N}{V^N} \quad (\lambda_T = \left( \frac{2\pi\hbar^2}{mkT} \right)^{1/2})$$

$$Q_N = \int d^3 r_1 \dots d^3 r_N e^{-\sum_{i < j} U(|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j|)/kT}$$

which is known as the configurational Partition Function.

For a classical ideal gas  $\frac{Q_N}{V^N} = 1$ .

Consider first a two-particle problem ( $N=2$ )

$$\Rightarrow Q_2 = \int d^3 r_1 d^3 r_2 e^{-\beta U(|\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|)}$$

In the coordinates

$$\vec{r}_1 = \vec{R} + \frac{1}{2} \vec{r}, \quad \text{i.e. } \vec{R} = \frac{1}{2} (\vec{r}_1 + \vec{r}_2) = \vec{R}_{CM}$$

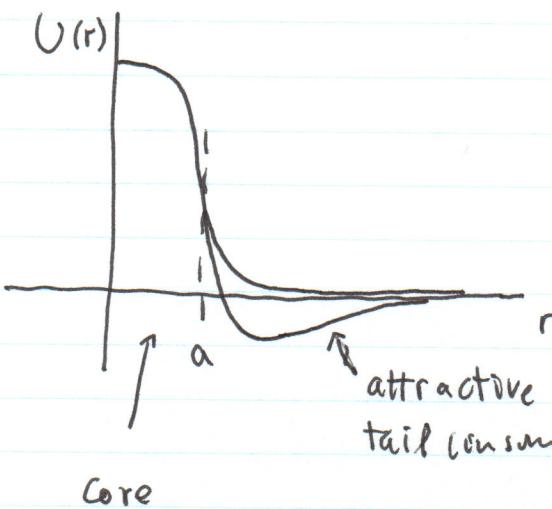
$$\vec{r}_2 = \vec{R} - \frac{1}{2} \vec{r} \quad \vec{r} = \vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2 = \text{rel. cond.}$$

(with Jacobian = 1) we can write  $Q_2$  as

$$Q_2 = \int d^3 R d^3 r e^{-\beta U(r)} \equiv V \int d^3 r e^{-\beta U(r)}$$

(since  $\int d^3 R = V$ )

Typical form of  $U(r)$  for neutral systems



(for charged systems there  
is a Coulomb piece  
which goes like  $\sim \frac{1}{r}$ )

In many systems (e.g. He) there is a strong short-range repulsion and a weak longer range attraction (the latter due to van der Waals interactions  
~~which have a quantum mechanical origin~~)  
of the form (Lennard-Jones)

$$U_{LJ} = \frac{A}{r^n} - \frac{B}{r^6} \quad (\text{typically } n=12) \quad (6-12 \text{ potential})$$

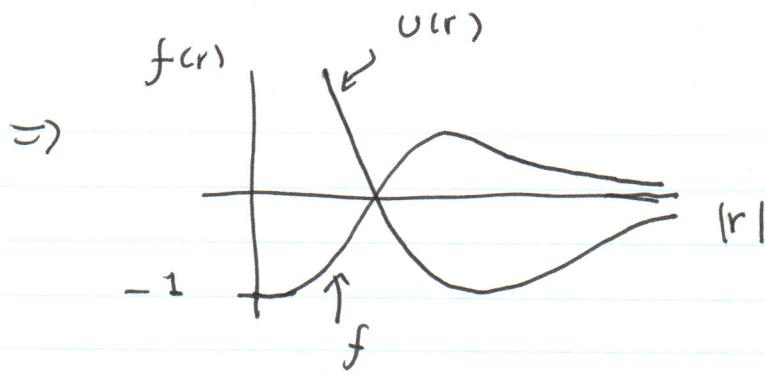
Let us define the quantity

$$f_{0j}(r) = e^{-\beta U(|\vec{r}_0 - \vec{r}_j|)} - 1$$

Clearly  $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} f(r) = 0 \quad (O(\beta U))$

and  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} f(r) = -1 \quad (\text{if } U \rightarrow \infty)$

(otherwise  $f(0) = e^{-\beta U(0)} - 1$ )



$\Rightarrow f(r)$  is bounded (everywhere) and becomes small at large distances.

Let us write the Grand Partition Function  $Z$

(i.e. in the Grand Canonical Ensemble with

fugacity  $z = e^{\beta \mu}$  ;  $\mu$ : chemical potential)

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} z^N Z_N \\ &\equiv \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{N!} \left( \frac{z}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^N Q_N(V, T) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-\beta U(\vec{r}_{ij})} = 1 + f_{ij}$$

$$f_{ij} = f(|r_{ij}|)$$

$$\Rightarrow Q_N = \int d^3 r_1 \dots d^3 r_N \prod_{i < j} (1 + f_{ij}[r])$$

Clearly

$$Q_N = \int d^3r_1 \dots d^3r_N \left[ 1 + (f_{12} + f_{13} + \dots) + (f_{12} f_{13} + f_{12} f_{14} + \dots) + \dots \right]$$

$\Rightarrow Q_N$  is a series (actually a polynomial) involving integrals of products of  $f$ 's. What does it mean? The term "1" is the ideal gas term. Here each point particle does not interact with the others. The terms linear in  $f$ 's involve two-particle "collisions", whereas terms with say  $f_{12} f_{13}$  involve a 3-particle cluster of interacting particles. This leads to the notion of a Cluster Expansion (Meyer-Kirkwood)

We will use a graphical method to organize this series. We will construct a graph to represent an arbitrary term contributing to  $Q_N$  as follows. Let represent each of the  $N$  particles by a wicle ( $\Rightarrow N$  circles).

If a pair of particles interact (i.e. if there is an  $f$  for that pair in that contribution)

we will link the two circles by a line

e.g.

$$\quad \quad \quad = f_{12} f_{34} \cdot \frac{1}{(4)}$$

Or:

$$\Rightarrow f_{12} f_{34} f_{68} f_{8,10} f_{10,7} f_{76} f_{6,10} f_{78}$$

Note: only one factor per pair.

Some of these graphs involve separate integrals

e.g.  $\textcircled{1}-\textcircled{2}$  is disconnected from say  $\textcircled{3}-\textcircled{4}$

$$\Rightarrow [\textcircled{4}] \cdot [\textcircled{5}] \cdot [(\textcircled{1}-\textcircled{2})] [(\textcircled{3}-\textcircled{4})] \left[ \begin{array}{c} \textcircled{6}-\textcircled{8} \\ \textcircled{7}-\textcircled{10} \end{array} \right]$$

↑                      ↑                      ↑  
connected          connected          connected

Let us define an  $l$ -cluster integral (i.e. an integral over a cluster with  $l$  connected particles)

$$\equiv \int d^3 r_6 d^3 r_7 d^3 r_8 d^3 r_{10} f_{68} f_{8,10} f_{10,7} f_{7,6} f_{6,10} f_{7,8}$$

Let us define a cluster integral  $b_\ell$

$$b_\ell = \frac{1}{\ell! \lambda_T^{3\ell-3} V} [\text{sum of all possible } \ell\text{-clusters}]$$

Note:  $b_\ell$  is dimensionless and  $\lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} b_\ell = \overline{b}_\ell(\tau) < \infty$

e.g.

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{V} [①] = \frac{1}{V} \int d^3 r_1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

$$b_2 = \frac{1}{2! \lambda_T^3 V} [①-②] =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2! \lambda_T^3 V} \int d^3 r_1 d^3 r_2 f_{12} =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2! \lambda_T^3 V} \int d^3 r_{12} f_{12} < \infty$$

$$b_3 = \frac{1}{3! \lambda_T^6 V} [ \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ | \\ ②-③ \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ | \\ ②-③ \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ | \\ ②-③ \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ | \\ ②-③ \end{array} ]$$

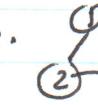
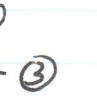
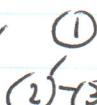
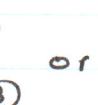
etc.

An arbitrary  $N$ -particle graph is decomposable

into products of clusters. If we denote by

$m_\ell$  the # of  $\ell$ -particle clusters  $\Rightarrow$

$$N = \sum_{\ell=1}^N \ell m_\ell$$

The integers  $\{m_e\}$  do not specify a graph uniquely since there are many ways to form an  $l$ -particle ~~graph~~ cluster (i.e.  or  etc) and there are many ways of assigning which particle belongs to which cluster ( or )

$\Rightarrow$  the set  $\{m_e\}$  defines a collection of graphs.

$$\Rightarrow Q_N = \sum_{\{m_e\}} S[\{m_e\}]$$

↑  
sum over  
sets

An arbitrary ~~g~~ N-particle graph has  $m_1$  1-clusters,  $m_2$  2-clusters, etc.

$$\underbrace{[0] \dots [0]}_{m_1} \quad \underbrace{[0-0] \dots [0-0]}_{m_2} \quad \underbrace{\textcircled{0} \dots \textcircled{0}}_{m_3} \dots$$

$\Rightarrow$  the numbers  $1, \dots, N$  must be assigned to these circles in all possible ways. Given one ~~assignment~~ a permutation of the labels leads to another graph.

$$\Rightarrow S[\{m_e\}] = \sum_P \{[0]^{m_1} \cdot [0-0]^{m_2} \cdot [\textcircled{0} + \textcircled{0} + \textcircled{0} + \textcircled{0}]^{m_3} \dots\}$$

↑  
permutation of  $N$  objects

Since each graph is an integral which does not depend on the way the variables (circles) are labelled

$$\Rightarrow S[m_e] = (\text{H of terms in } \sum_{\mathbb{P}}) \times \text{value in any term}$$

How many terms do we have?

(1) we have  $m_e$  l-clusters and a permutation of those  $m_e$  things does not lead to a new graph

(2) in the sum over l-clusters a permutation of the l ~~parts~~ particles does not lead to a new graph.

$$\Rightarrow \text{the H of terms in } \sum_{\mathbb{P}} \text{ is : } \frac{N!}{[(1!)^{m_1} (2!)^{m_2} \dots] [m_1! m_2! \dots]}$$

The value of each term is

$$(1! V b_1)^{m_1} (2! \lambda_T^3 V b_2)^{m_2} (3! \lambda_T^6 V b_3)^{m_3} \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow S[m_e] = N! \prod_{l=1}^N \frac{(V \lambda_T^{3l-3} b_l)^{m_l}}{m_l!}$$

$$= N! \lambda_T^{3N} \prod_{l=1}^N \frac{1}{m_l!} \left( \frac{V}{\lambda_T^3} b_l \right)^{m_l}$$

$$\Rightarrow Q_N = N! \lambda_T^{3N} \sum'_{\{m_\ell\}} \prod_{\ell=1}^N \frac{1}{m_\ell!} \left( \frac{V b_\ell}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^{m_\ell}$$

where  $(')$  means that the sum is restricted to those  $m_\ell$ 's s.t.  $\sum_{\ell=1}^N m_\ell = N$

The Grand Partition Function has a simpler structure

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{N!} \left( \frac{z}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^N Q_N \\ &= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{\cancel{N!}}{\cancel{N!} \lambda_T^{3N}} \cancel{\lambda_T^{3N}} \sum'_{\{m_\ell\}} \prod_{\ell=1}^N \frac{1}{m_\ell!} \left( \frac{V b_\ell}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^{m_\ell} \\ &= \sum_{m_1=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m_2=0}^{\infty} \dots \frac{1}{m_1!} \left( \frac{V z b_1}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^{m_1} \frac{1}{m_2!} \left( \frac{V z^2 b_2}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^{m_2} \dots \\ &= \left( \sum_{m_1=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m_1!} \left( \frac{V z b_1}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^{m_1} \right) \left( \sum_{m_2=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m_2!} \left( \frac{V z^2 b_2}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^{m_2} \right) \dots \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  each factor is an exponential!

$$\sum_{m_\ell=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{m_\ell!} \left( \frac{V z^\ell b_\ell}{\lambda_T^3} \right)^{m_\ell} = e^{V z^\ell b_\ell / \lambda_T^3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \log Z = \frac{V}{\lambda_T^3} \sum_{\ell=1}^{\infty} b_\ell z^\ell$$

and  $\frac{1}{V} \log Z = \frac{1}{\lambda_T^3} \sum_{\ell=1}^{\infty} b_{\ell} z^{\ell}$

[Linked Cluster Theorem]

Since  $\log Z = \frac{PV}{kT}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{P}{kT} = \frac{1}{\lambda_T^3} \sum_{\ell=1}^{\infty} b_{\ell} z^{\ell} \quad (1)$$

What is the density? Since  $\frac{\partial \log Z}{\partial \log z} = \langle n \rangle$

$$\Rightarrow n = \frac{1}{V} \frac{\partial \log Z}{\partial \log z} = \frac{1}{v} \quad (v: \text{volume per particle})$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{\lambda_T^3} \sum_{\ell=1}^{\infty} \ell b_{\ell} z^{\ell} \quad (2)$$

The simultaneous solution of (1) + (2) leads to the Equation of State.

Thermodynamic Limit: Consider the limit  $V \rightarrow \infty$  while keeping the density  $n = \frac{\langle n \rangle}{V}$  finite

We will discuss below where is this limit legitimate and why. We will assume now that it exists.

$\Rightarrow$  we can replace  $b_\ell \equiv b_\ell(v, T) \xrightarrow[v \rightarrow \infty]{} \bar{b}_\ell(T) < \infty$

and write

$$\frac{P}{kT} = \frac{1}{\lambda_T^3} \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \bar{b}_\ell z^\ell \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{\lambda_T^3} \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \ell \bar{b}_\ell z^\ell \quad (2)$$

If these series are convergent (which is what we are assuming)  $\Rightarrow$  within their radii of convergence we can invert (2) and find  $z$  in terms of  $v$  and  $T$  (through the  $\bar{b}_\ell$ 's)

$\Rightarrow$  at least formally we can write  $\frac{Pv}{kT}$  as

an expansion in powers of  $\frac{1}{v}$  of the form

$$\frac{Pv}{kT} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{\infty} a_\ell(T) \left( \frac{\lambda_T^3}{v} \right)^{\ell-1} \quad \underline{\text{Virial Expansion}}$$

The Virial coefficients  $a_\ell(T)$  are related to the cluster integrals  $\bar{b}_\ell(T)$  in a complicated manner.

$$\frac{\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \bar{b}_l z^l}{\sum_{l=1}^{\infty} l \bar{b}_l z^l} = \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} a_l \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \bar{b}_n z^n \right)^{l-1}$$

By expanding the series out we get

$$a_1 = \bar{b}_1 = 1$$

$$a_2 = -\bar{b}_2$$

$$a_3 = 4\bar{b}_2^2 - 2\bar{b}_3$$

$$a_4 = -20\bar{b}_2^3 + 18\bar{b}_2\bar{b}_3 - 3\bar{b}_4$$

etc.

where each  $\bar{b}_n$  is an integral (or integrals)

For example

$$\bar{b}_2 = \lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2! \lambda_T^3 V} \int d^3 r_1 d^3 r_2 (e^{-\beta U(r_{12})} - 1)$$

$$= \lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2! \lambda_T^3} \int d^3 r f_{12}(r) < \infty$$

$$\bar{b}_2 = \frac{4\pi}{2! \lambda_T^3} \int_0^\infty dr r^2 f_{12}(r)$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_T^3} \int_0^\infty dr r^2 f_{12}(r)$$

$$f_{12}(r) = e^{-\beta U(r)} - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{Pv}{kT} = 1 + \alpha_2(T) \frac{\lambda_T^3}{v} + \alpha_3(T) \left( \frac{\lambda_T^3}{v} \right)^2 + \dots$$

Second virial coefficient

This expansion is accurate if  $\frac{\lambda_T^3}{v} \ll 1$

$$\text{where } \alpha_2(T) = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda_T^3} \int_0^\infty dr r^2 f_{12}(r)$$

$$\text{Since } f_{12}(r) = e^{-\beta U(r)} - 1 = 0 \text{ if } U=0 \text{ for some } r_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^\infty dr r^2 f(r) = \left| \int_0^{r_0} dr r^2 f(r) \right| + \int_{r_0}^\infty dr r^2 f(r)$$

provided  $U < 0$  for  $r > r_0$  and  $U > 0$  for  $r < r_0$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_2(T) = + \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_T^3} \left| \int_0^{r_0} dr r^2 f(r) \right| - \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_T^3} \int_{r_0}^\infty dr r^2 f(r)$$

If  $U(r) \rightarrow +\infty$  for  $|r| \leq r_0$  ("hard core")

$$\Rightarrow f(r) = -1 \text{ for } |r| < r_0$$

$$\alpha_2(T) = \frac{2\pi}{3} \frac{1}{\lambda_T^3} - \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_T^3} \int_{r_0}^\infty dr r^2 f(r)$$

(check: this result is equivalent to a low density

expansion of the Van der Waals Equation of State

$$\left(P + \frac{a}{V^2}\right) (V - b) = NkT$$

to lowest order in the density  $\frac{N}{V} = n = \frac{1}{v} \ll 1$

$$P = \frac{NkT}{V-b} - \frac{a}{V^2}$$

$$\frac{PV}{kT} = \frac{1}{1 - \left(\frac{b}{N}\right)\frac{1}{v}} - \left(\frac{a}{N^2 kT}\right)\frac{1}{v} \approx 1 + \frac{1}{v} \left[\frac{b}{N} - \frac{a}{N^2 kT}\right] + \dots$$

$$\frac{b}{N} = \frac{2\pi}{3} r_0^3 \quad (\text{i.e.: excluded volume effect})$$

$$\frac{a}{N^2 kT} = 2\pi \int_{r_0}^{\infty} dr r^2 f(r)$$

Note:  $a \equiv a(T)$  ~~except~~ at very high temperatures

$$\text{where } f(r) \approx -\frac{U(r)}{kT} = \frac{|U(r)|}{kT} \quad (\text{for } r > r_0)$$

$\Rightarrow$  we can "fit Van der Waals" only for high T.

Otherwise, even at low densities,  $a = a(T)$



## Analytic Properties of the (Grand) Partition Function and Phase Transitions

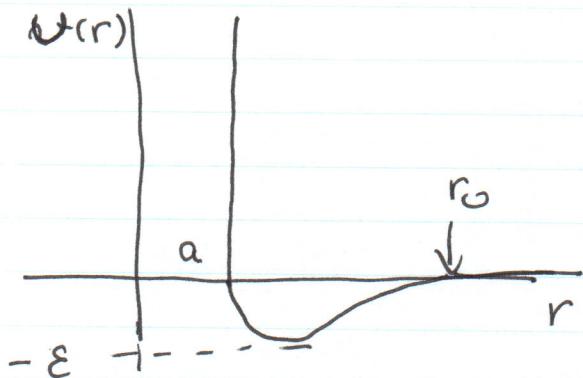
We saw before that, at low densities, it is possible to determine the Equation of State of a gas as a ~~power~~ series expansion in powers of the fugacity  $z$ .

To find the actual equation of state  $P = P(V, T)$

it is also necessary to determine the density in terms of  $z$  and to further invert this relation.

The basic assumptions that we made were that (a) these series converge (uniformly) in the thermodynamic limit ( $V \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $n$  fixed) and (b) that the relation between  $n$  and  $\mu$  (or  $z$ ) is a bijection (i.e. one-to-one). This picture breaks down if there are singularities which put bounds on the radii of convergence of these expansions. These singularities represent phase transitions.

To see how this can happen we have to be more careful with the thermodynamic limit. Imagine that we have a gas of particles in a large but finite volume  $V$  and that the pair-interaction has a hard core radius  $a$  and a finite range (attractive) interaction tail



Under these assumptions there is a maximum # of molecules  $M(V)$  that we can fit in  $V$ .

$\Rightarrow$  the grand partition function

$$\mathcal{Z}(z, V) = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} z Q_1 + \dots + \frac{z^N}{N!} Q_N + \dots + \frac{z^M}{M!} Q_M$$

with  $Q_N = 0$  for  $N > M(V)$  (I have absorbed the factor of  $\lambda_T^{3N}$  in  $Q_N$ )

$\Rightarrow$  in this case  $Z$  is a polynomial with <sup>real</sup> ~~positive~~ coefficients  $\Rightarrow Z$  has no real positive roots.

We determine the equation of state by solving

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{P}{kT} = \frac{1}{V} \log Z(z, V) \\ \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{V} z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \log Z(z, V) \end{array} \right.$$

$$v = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{for } V \text{ finite} \quad P \text{ and } v \text{ are analytic}$$

functions of  $z$  in a region of the complex plane  
 that includes the <sup>(entire)</sup> real axis.  $\Rightarrow P$  is an  
 analytic function of  $v$  for all physical values of  
 $v$  (i.e. the  $> 0$  real axis)  
 $\Rightarrow$  all thermodynamic functions are free of  
 singularities.  $\Rightarrow$

$$P > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} = \frac{-kT}{zv^2[n^2 - \langle n \rangle^2]}$$

$\Rightarrow$  the isotherms are monotonically decreasing  $\leq 0$   
 functions of  $v$ .

To get singularities we must take the thermodynamic  
 limit  $V \rightarrow \infty$  with  $v = \frac{1}{n}$  fixed.

$$\frac{P}{kT} = \lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{V} \log Z(z, V)$$

$$\frac{1}{v} = \lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{V} z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \log Z(z, V)$$

The differentiation  $\frac{\partial}{\partial z}$  and the thermodynamic limit only commute if the convergence is uniform  
(i.e. inside the radius of convergence).

It is possible to show that phase transitions (i.e. singularities) are controlled by the distribution of roots of  $Z$  in the complex  $z$ -plane ( $z$ : fugacity). These conditions are summarized in two theorems due to S.T.D. Lee and C.N. Yang (we will not prove them)

① Existence of the Thermodynamic Limit

$$\lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{V} \log Z(z, V) \text{ exists for}$$

all  $z > 0$  and it's a continuous non-decreasing function of  $z$ . The limit is independent of the shape of  $V$  if the surface area of  $V$  increases no faster than  $V^{2/3}$  (v.e. not a fractal)

② Distribution of Zeros:

Let  $R$  be a region of the complex plane  $z$  that ~~includes~~ includes a segment of the positive real axis,

and contains no roots of  $Z$ . Then, in  $R$ ,  
 $\frac{1}{V} \log Z$  converges uniformly to its limit  
as  $V \rightarrow \infty$ . The limiting function is analytic  
for all  $z \in R$

~~A~~ A consequence of these theorems is that  
a thermodynamic phase is the set of values of  $z$   
contained in any single region of  $R$ . Since  
inside this region we have uniform convergence  
we get

$$F_\infty(z) = \lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{V} \log Z(V, z)$$

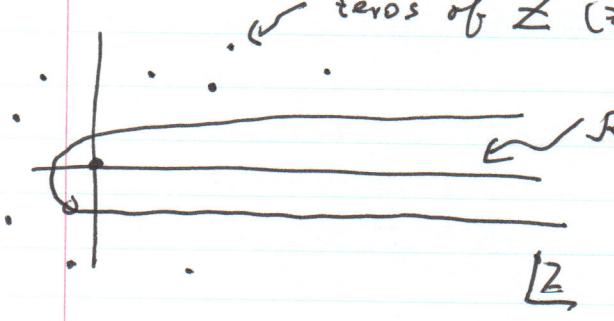
and  $\frac{P(z)}{kT} = F_\infty(z)$  and  $\frac{1}{V(z)} = z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} F_\infty(z)$

(Note the exchange of the order of operations)

$\Rightarrow$  inside a particular region  $P > 0$  and  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} < 0$

Let us consider several possible situations:

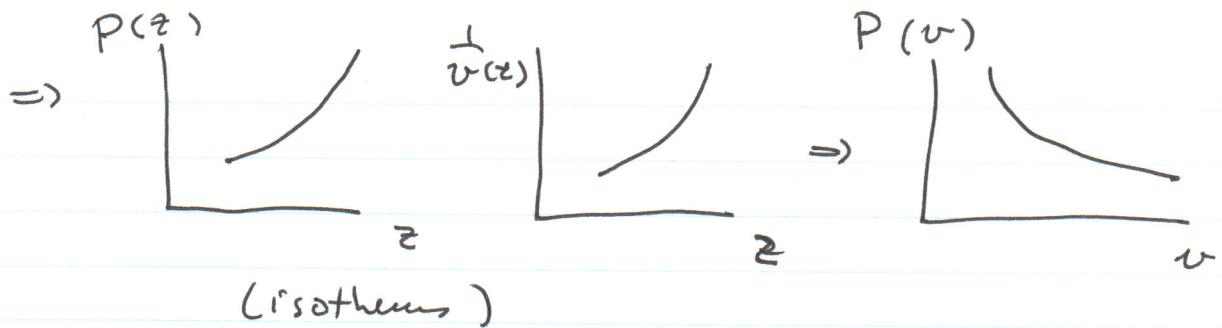
(a)  $R = \mathbb{R}^+$  (i.e.  $R$  the entire positive real axis)



$\Rightarrow$  the system is always

in a single phase

In this region  
continuous and  
 $P > 0$ , ~~and~~ non-decreasing  
and ~~is~~  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial z} < 0$

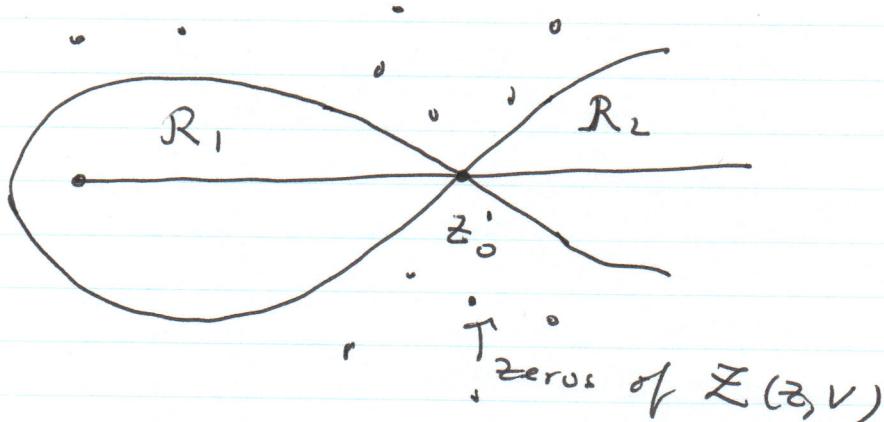


(b) Suppose that  $\exists$  a zero  $z_0$  of  $Z(z, v)$

which approaches the real axis as  $v \rightarrow \infty$

$\Rightarrow$  the real axis is split into two regions

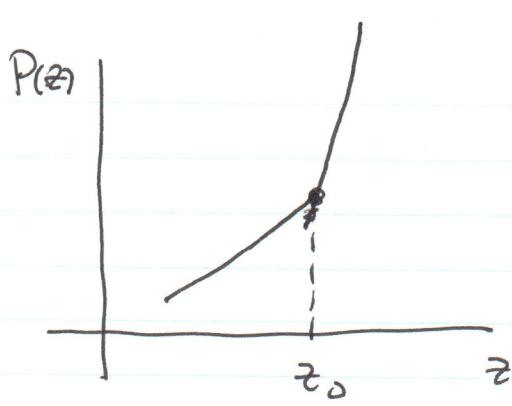
$$R = R_1 \cup R_2, \text{ separated by } z_0$$



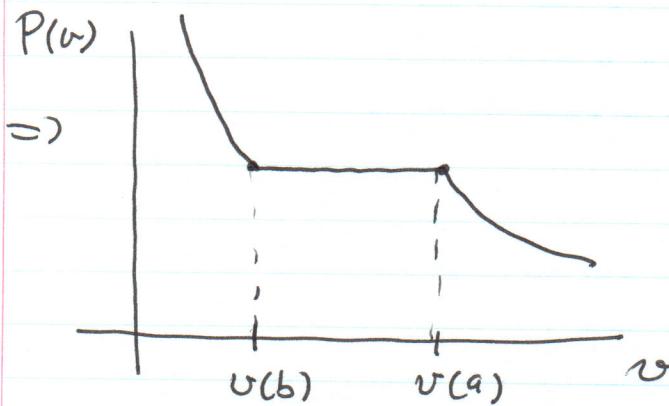
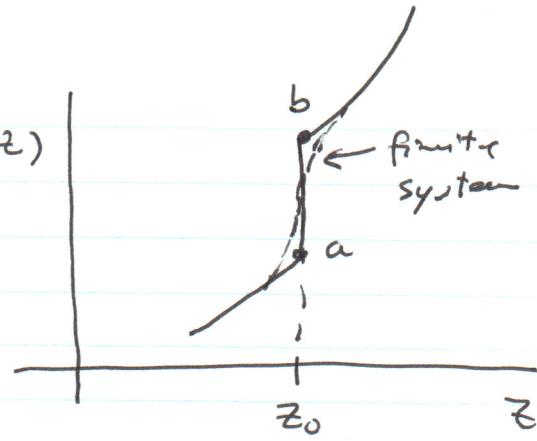
$\Rightarrow$  the conditions of the theorem are valid separately

on  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ . However Thm 1 requires  
that even at  $z_0$   $P(z)$  be ~~a~~ continuous. However  
~~it may not be differentiable.~~

Suppose that  $P(z)$  is continuous but that  
its derivative  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial z}$  ~~is~~ is discontinuous at  $z_0$



$$n = \frac{1}{v(z)}$$



This happens since

$\frac{1}{v(z)}$  is a non-decreasing function of  $z$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} / \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$$

$$z \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{v(z)} = \left( z \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \log z$$

$$= \langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 \geq 0$$

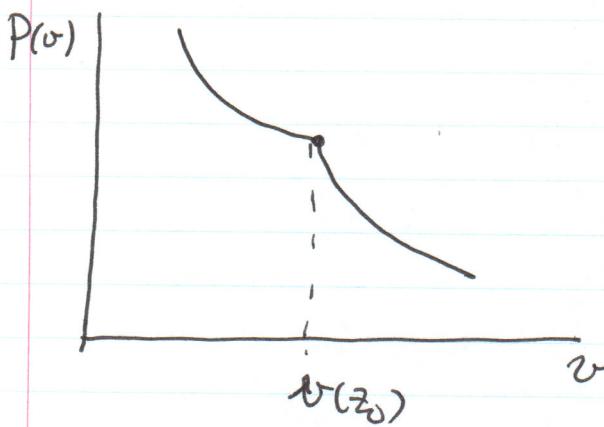
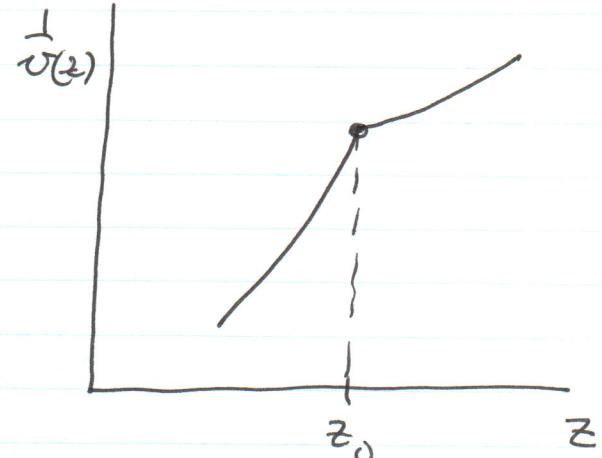
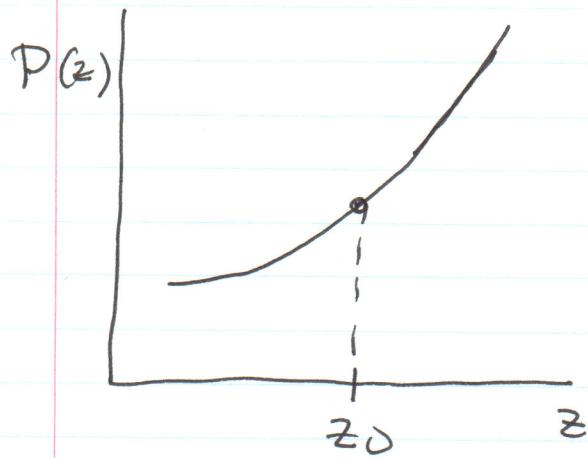
$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{v}$  must jump upwards as  $z \uparrow$

This is a discontinuous or first order phase transition

This happens because the grand potentials match up at  $z_0$  with a discontinuity in their derivatives.

However it may also be possible to have a singularity in which  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial z}$  exists and it's a continuous function of  $z$  at  $z_0 \Rightarrow$  we get instead

a continuous or second order phase transition

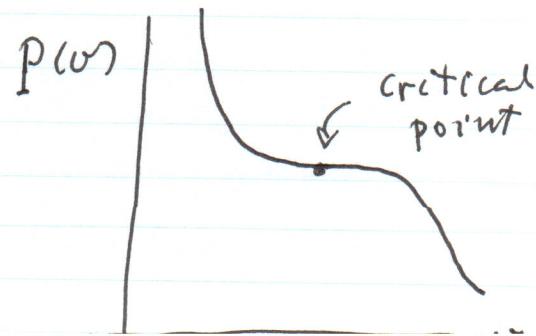
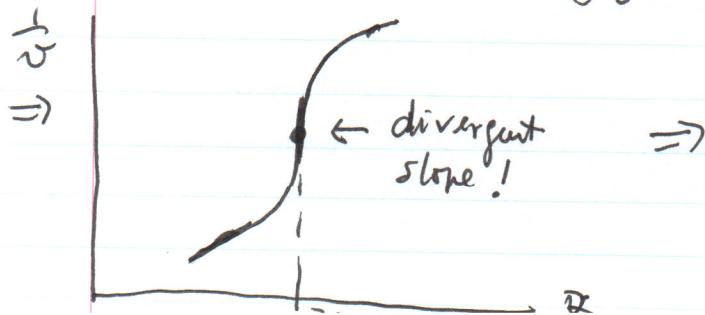


There is a special and very important type of second order transition called a critical point.

At a critical point  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial v} \rightarrow 0$

$$\text{Since } \frac{\partial P}{\partial v} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} = -\frac{kT}{zv^3} \quad \frac{\frac{1}{zv}}{\frac{\partial z}{\partial v}}$$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial v} \rightarrow 0 \iff \frac{\partial \frac{1}{zv}}{\partial z} \rightarrow \infty \iff \langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 \rightarrow \infty$$



## The Lee-Yang Circle Theorem

There is an explicit and simple model in which a phase transition can be demonstrated to occur.

Consider a lattice and atoms to be regarded as point particles that can singly occupy the sites of this lattice, i.e. a "lattice gas". The interatomic potential is

$$U(\vec{r}) = \begin{cases} \infty & \vec{r} = 0 \quad (\text{i.e. only 1 atom/site}) \\ U < 0 & \text{between } \neq \text{sites} \end{cases}$$

(write it as an Ising Model)

~~key~~ Lee-Yang Thm: The roots of  $Z(z, V) = 0$

lie on the unit circle of the complex  $z$  plane.

Since  $Z$  is a real polynomial (finite system)

$\Rightarrow$  roots are complex conjugate pairs none of which can be on the  $>0$  real axis, but can approach  $R^+$  if  $V \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$  In this case they must approach  $z=1 \Rightarrow$  there is a unique transition.

$$\Rightarrow Z(z, V) = \text{const} \prod_{\text{roots}} (z - e^{i\theta_k})$$

As  $V \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow$  the roots become continuously distributed over the unit circle - let  $g(\theta)$  be the distribution function ( i.e. the density of roots in  $[\theta, \theta + d\theta]$  ) defined by

$$\frac{1}{V} \sum_k \rightarrow \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} g(\theta)$$

$$\text{Paired roots} \Rightarrow g(\theta) = g(-\theta)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{P}{kT} = \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{\pi} g(\theta) \log (1 - 2z \cos \theta + z^2)$$

$$\frac{1}{V} = \int_0^{\pi} \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} g(\theta) \frac{z - \cos \theta}{1 - 2z \cos \theta + z^2}$$

$\Rightarrow$  the only singularity is at  $z = 1$

$\Rightarrow$  there is a critical point only if  $g(0) \neq 0$

and there are two solutions  $\theta$ , one for  $|z| > 1$  and another one for  $|z| < 1$  which cannot be continued into each other.