

Generalized statistical mechanics methods for pattern forming - and turbulent systems

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Theory:

C. B., Phys. Rev. Lett. 87, 180601 (2001)

C. B., E.G.D. Cohen, Physica 322A, 267 (2003)

Application to hydrod. turbulence:

C. B., G.S. Lewis, H.L. Swinney,
Phys. Rev. E 63, 035303 (R) (2001)

C. B., Europhys. Lett. 64, 151 (2003)

Application to pattern-forming systems (defect turbulence)

K.E. Daniels, C. B., E. Bodenschatz, Physica D,
in press (2003) (cond-mat/0302623)

- 1e -

foundations of (ordinary) statistical mechanics:

entropy $S = - \sum_i p_i \ln p_i$
↑
prob. of microstates

extremize subject to constraints

$$\sum p_i = 1$$

$$\sum p_i E_i = U$$

↑
energies of microstates

result: $p_i = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\beta E_i}$ (canonical distribution)

$$Z = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$$
 (partition function)

Q: Why this particular function $S = - \sum p_i \ln p_i$?

A1: Because it works! (physics correctly described)

A2: Because it satisfies certain nice axioms
of information measures

(see, e.g., C. Beck, F. Schlögl,
Thermodynamics of Chaotic Systems,
Cambridge University Press 1993)

but: generalized Khinchin axioms (Abe, 2000)

→ more general information measures possible
Tsallis entropies

Khinchin axioms

(desirable properties of an information measure)

- i) $S = S(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_w)$
(function of probabilities only)
- ii) $p_i = \frac{1}{w} \Rightarrow S = \max$
(maximum for equal probability distr.)
- iii) $S(p_1, \dots, p_w, 0) = S(p_1, \dots, p_w)$
(no change by event with prob. zero)
- iv) $S(\text{I+II}) = S(\text{I}) + S(\text{II}|\text{I})$
↑
conditional entropy
↑
composed system

i) - iv) $\Rightarrow S = -\sum p_i \ln p_i$ uniquely

But: If you allow a slightly more general form of iv)

$$\text{iv}^*) S(\text{I+II}) = S(\text{I}) + S(\text{II}|\text{I}) + (1-q) S(\text{I}) \cdot S(\text{II}|\text{I})$$

then you end up uniquely with

$$S = \frac{1}{q-1} \left(1 - \sum_i p_i^q \right)$$

In particular, for independent subsystems I and II



$$S_q(\text{I+II}) = S_q(\text{I}) + S_q(\text{II}) + (1-q) S_q(\text{I}) S_q(\text{II})$$

↑
entropy is not extensive any more
(for $q \neq 1$)

Can now do generalized version of stat. mech. by extremizing Tsallis entropies S_q subject to constraints

$$\sum_i p_i = 1$$

$$\sum_i p_i \epsilon_i = U_q$$

(or $\sum_i P_i \epsilon_i = U_q$ with $P_i = \frac{p_i^q}{\sum p_i^q}$)
↑
escort distributions

$$\leadsto p_i = \frac{1}{Z_q} (1 - \beta(1-q) \epsilon_i)^{\frac{1}{1-q}} \quad (\text{generalized canonical distribution})$$

$$Z_q = \sum_i (1 - (1-q)\beta \epsilon_i)^{\frac{1}{1-q}} \quad (\text{partition function})$$

Entire formalism of thermodynamics
has q -generalization / q -invariance

helpful tool:

define

$$e_q^x := (1 + (1-q)x)^{\frac{1}{1-q}} \rightarrow e^x \quad (q \rightarrow 1)$$

q -exponential

$$\ln_q x := \frac{x^{1-q} - 1}{1-q} \rightarrow \ln x \quad (q \rightarrow 1)$$

q -logarithm

$$e_q^{\ln_q x} = x \quad \forall q$$

canonical distributions become

$$p(\epsilon) \sim e_q^{-\beta \epsilon} = (1 - \beta(1-q)\epsilon)^{\frac{1}{1-q}}$$

↑
generalized Boltzmann
factor

can also derive

$$F_q = U_q - T S_q = -\frac{1}{\beta} \ln_q Z_q$$

$$\frac{1}{T} = \frac{\partial S_q}{\partial U_q}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial U_q^2} = -\frac{1}{T^2} \frac{1}{C_q} \quad \text{etc....}$$

When } could this be physically relevant?
why }

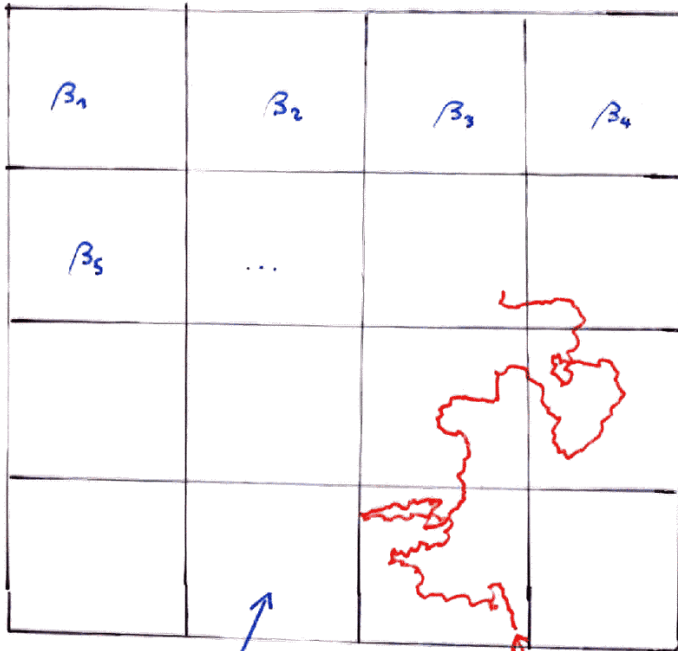
Basic idea:

If system (for whatever reason)
cannot extremize Shannon
entropy it then chooses to
extremize the **second best**
information measures. These
are the Tsallis entropies.

reason could be — system non-mixing

- long range interaction
- complicated multifractal
phase space structure — complicated networks
- external energy input
(nonequilibrium system with
stationary state)
- fluctuations of temp. or energy dissipation rate
- strongly inelastic ...

Non equilibrium system
with fluctuations of (e.g.) ^{inverse} temperature β
or long time scale
(can also be pressure, chemical potential,
energy dissipation rate, ...)



local equilibrium
 $P(E) \sim e^{-\beta_j E}$
in each cell

test particle
simplest model
 $E = \frac{1}{2} u^2$

model: choose a random configuration $\{\beta_j\}$
(β distributed according to density $f(\beta)$)
then choose next random config., and so on.

Dynamical foundation of nonextensive
stat. mech. for systems with fluctuating
temperature or energy dissipation rate

Brownian particle (Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process)

$$\dot{u} = -\gamma u + \sigma L(t)$$

↑
Gaussian white noise

$$p(u|\beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{2\pi}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\beta u^2\right]$$

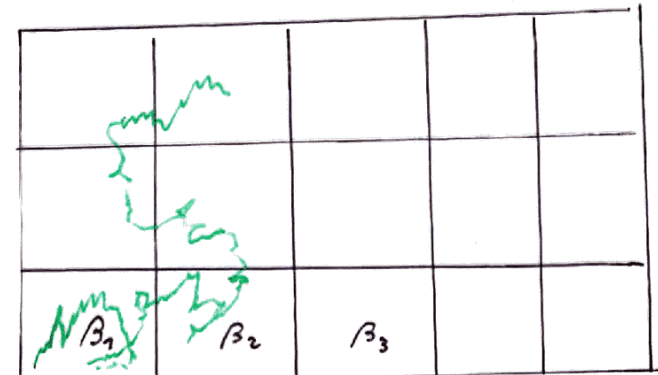
$$\beta = \frac{\gamma}{\sigma^2} \text{ inverse temperature}$$

Assume γ and/or σ fluctuate on large
time scale s.t. $\beta = \frac{\gamma}{\sigma^2}$ is χ^2 distributed
with degree n

$$f(\beta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})} \left\{ \frac{n}{2\beta_0} \right\}^{\frac{n}{2}} \beta^{\frac{n}{2}-1} \exp\left\{-\frac{n}{2} \frac{\beta}{\beta_0}\right\}$$

↑
prob. density

e.g. $\beta = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 \leftarrow$ Gaussian (av. 0)



conditional prob.

$$p(u|\beta) = \sqrt{\frac{\beta}{2\pi}} \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}\beta u^2\}$$

joint prob.

$$p(u, \beta) = p(u|\beta) \cdot f(\beta)$$

marginal prob.

$$p(u) = \int p(u|\beta) f(\beta) d\beta$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z_q} \frac{1}{(1 + \frac{1}{2} \tilde{\beta} (q-1) u^2)^{1/q}}$$

where

$$q = 1 + \frac{2}{n+1}$$

$$\tilde{\beta} = \frac{2}{3-q} \beta_0$$

C.B., PRL 87, 180601 (2001)

$$\beta_0 := \int f(\beta) \cdot \beta d\beta = \text{average of } \beta$$

Simple dynamical model where Tsallis statistics can be proved rigorously.

Various generalizations possible.

e.g. $\dot{u} = -\gamma F(u) + \sigma L(t)$

$$F(u) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial u} V(u) \quad V(u) \sim |u|^{2\alpha}$$

Fluctuations of β and Tsallis statistics

integral representation of Γ function:

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{z-1} dt$$

substitute

$$t = \beta \left(E(u) + \frac{1}{(q-1)\beta_0} \right)$$

$$z = \frac{1}{q-1}$$



any Hamiltonian or effect. energy

$$(1 + (q-1)\beta_0 E(u))^{-\frac{1}{q-1}} = \int_0^\infty e^{-\beta E(u)} f(\beta) d\beta$$

↑ 'generalized' Boltzmann factor

↑ ordinary Boltzmann factor

$$f(\beta) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{q-1}) \left\{ \frac{1}{(q-1)\beta_0} \right\}^{\frac{1}{q-1}}} \beta^{\frac{1}{q-1}-1} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{q-1} \frac{\beta}{\beta_0}\right\}$$

χ^2 distribution (occurs in many circumstances)

$$\langle \beta \rangle = \int_0^\infty \beta f(\beta) d\beta = \beta_0$$

$$q = \frac{\langle \beta^2 \rangle}{\langle \beta \rangle^2}$$

e.g. $\beta = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \chi_i^2$
 ↑ Gaussian av. 0

WilK et. al. PRL 2000

$$n = \frac{2}{q-1}$$

C.B. PRL 87, 180601 (2001)

More generally one can consider generalized Boltzmann factors

$$B(E) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\beta E} f(\beta) d\beta$$

with general $f(\beta)$: "Superstatistics"
 (C.B., E.G.D. Cohen, cond-mat/0205097)
 Physica 322A, 267 (2003)

- $f(\beta) = \chi^2 \Rightarrow$ Tsallis

- $f(\beta) = \frac{1}{b}$ for $\beta \in [a, a+b]$
 (uniform distribution)

$$\Rightarrow B(E) = \frac{1}{bE} (e^{-(\beta_0 - \frac{1}{2}b)E} - e^{-(\beta_0 + \frac{1}{2}b)E})$$

$$= e^{-\beta_0 E} (1 + \frac{1}{24} b^2 E^2 + \frac{1}{720} b^4 E^4 + \dots)$$

- $f(\beta) =$ log-normal

$$f(\beta) = \frac{1}{\beta s \sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(\log \frac{\beta}{m})^2}{2s^2}\right\}$$

$w := e^{s^2}$

$$\Rightarrow B(E) = e^{-\beta_0 E} (1 + \frac{1}{2} m^2 w (w-1) E^2 + \frac{1}{6} m^3 w^{\frac{3}{2}} (w^3 - 3w + 2) E^3 + \dots)$$

- $f(\beta) =$ F-distribution

$$f(\beta) \sim \frac{\beta^{\frac{v}{2}-1}}{(1+c\beta)^{\frac{v+w}{2}}} \Rightarrow B(E) = \dots$$

Main result:

For small enough variance of the fluctuations of β all superstatistics behave in a universal way

can prove

$$B(E) = e^{-\beta_0 E} (1 + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 E^2 + g(q) \beta_0^3 E^3 + \dots)$$

↓
 variance of distribution $f(\beta)$
 $\sigma^2 = \langle \beta^2 \rangle - \langle \beta \rangle^2$

$$\beta_0 = \langle \beta \rangle$$

can define

$$q = \frac{\langle \beta^2 \rangle}{\langle \beta \rangle^2}$$

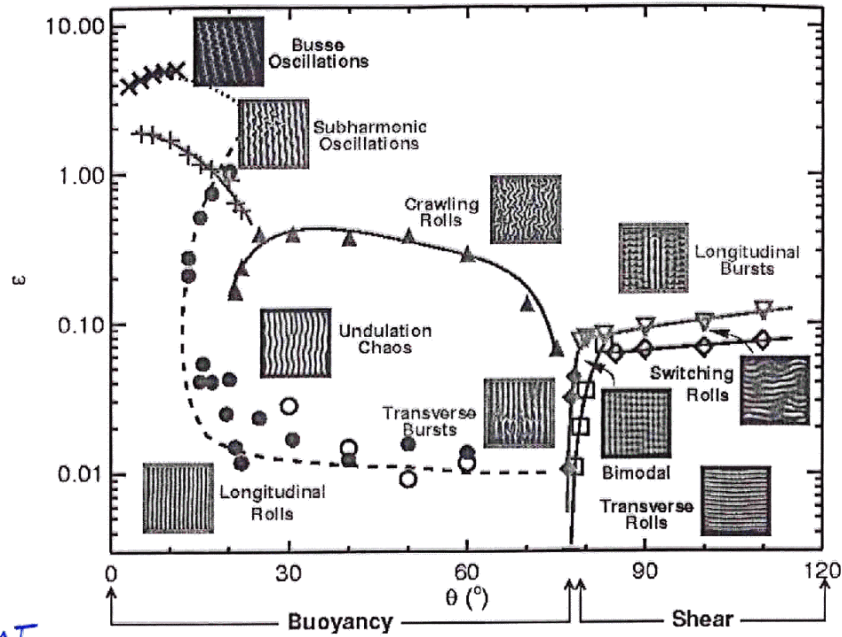
for any superstatistics

next-order term:

$$g(q) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{(uniform)} \\ \frac{1}{3} (q-1)^2 & \text{(\chi}^2\text{)} \\ \frac{1}{6} (q^2 - 3q + 2) & \text{(log-normal)} \\ \frac{1}{3} \frac{(q-1)(5q-6)}{3-q} & \text{(F with } \nu=4\text{)} \end{cases}$$

(non-universal)

Inclined layer convection experiment (Daniels, Bodenschatz 2002)



$$\varepsilon = \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta T_c} - 1$$

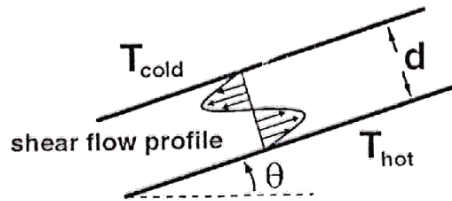
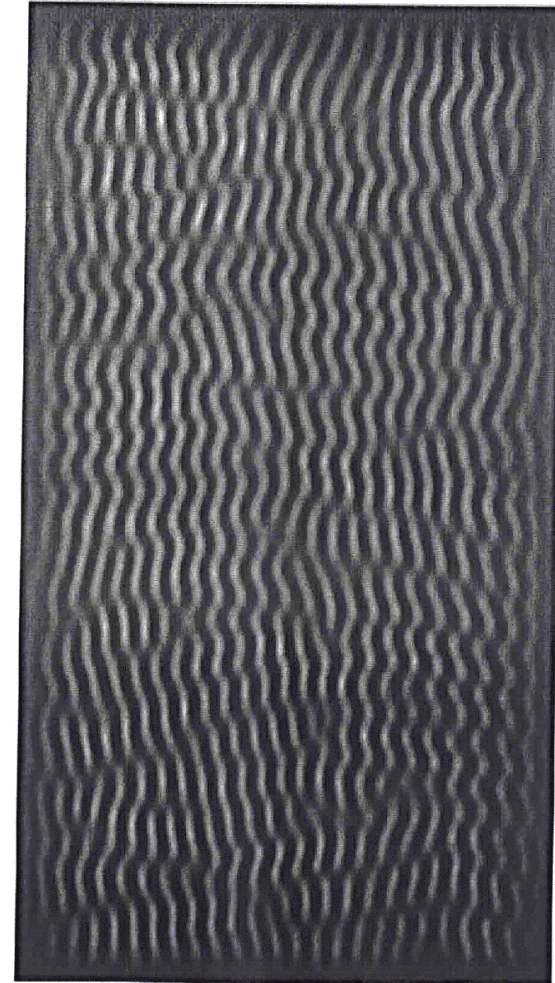
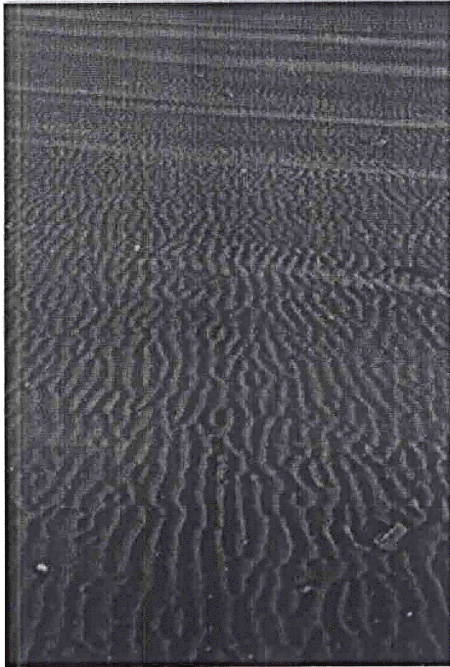


FIG. 1. Schematic drawing of inclined layer convection of cell thickness d and temperature difference $\Delta T \equiv T_{\text{hot}} - T_{\text{cold}}$.



← Undulation chaos in inclined layer convection



↑
sand pattern
(St. Andrews, Scotland)

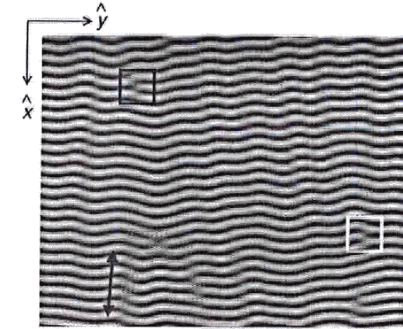


Fig. 1. Example shadowgraph image of undulation chaos in fluid layer heated from below and cooled from above, inclined by an angle $\theta = 30^\circ$. The nondimensional driving parameter is $\epsilon = 0.08$. Black box encloses a positive defect; white, a negative. Arrow is adjacent to a tearing region of low-amplitude convection. Uphill direction is at left side of page. Region shown is the subregion of size $51d \times 63d$ used for analysis.

Defects are created and annihilated
in pairs.

They move in a spatio-temporally chaotic
way, like particles.

ordinary particles would have

$$y^* = \frac{6\pi V S a}{m} = \text{const}$$

but defects are no ordinary particles
eff. y^* fluctuates \Rightarrow superstatistics

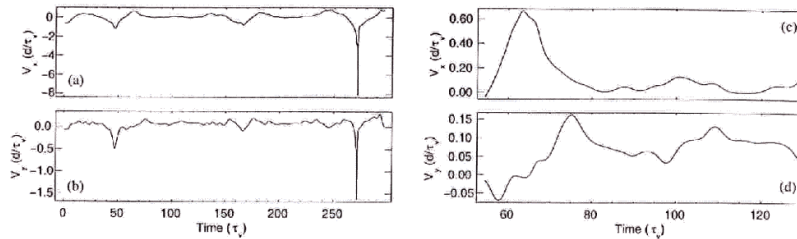


Fig. 2. Sample plots of (a,c) $v_x(t)$ and (b,d) $v_y(t)$ for $\epsilon = 0.08$ over two different time scales (a,b) defect lifetime from creation to annihilation and (c,d) region of duration $75 \tau_t$

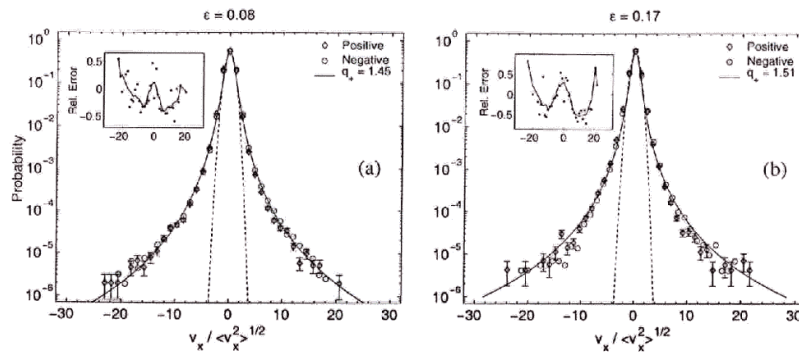


Fig. 3. Transverse velocity (v_x) distributions at (a) $\epsilon = 0.08$ and (b) $\epsilon = 0.17$ for positive and negative defects, rescaled to $\sigma = 1$. Solid lines are one-parameter fits to Eq. (6) for positive defects. Unrescaled standard deviations were: (a) $\sigma_+ = 0.550d/\tau_v$, $\sigma_- = 0.553d/\tau_v$ and (b) $\sigma_+ = 0.586d/\tau_v$, $\sigma_- = 0.565d/\tau_v$. Dashed line is Gaussian with $\sigma = 1d/\tau_v$. Inset Relative error of experiment and theory: $(p_{exp} - p_{theory})/p_{theory}$ for positive defects.

$$p(v) = \frac{1}{Z_q} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} (q-1) \tilde{\beta} v^2 \right)^{-\frac{1}{q-1}}$$

$$Z_q = \sqrt{\frac{2}{(q-1)\tilde{\beta}}} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{2}) \Gamma(\frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{1}{q-1})}$$

$$\tilde{\beta} = \frac{2}{5-3q}$$

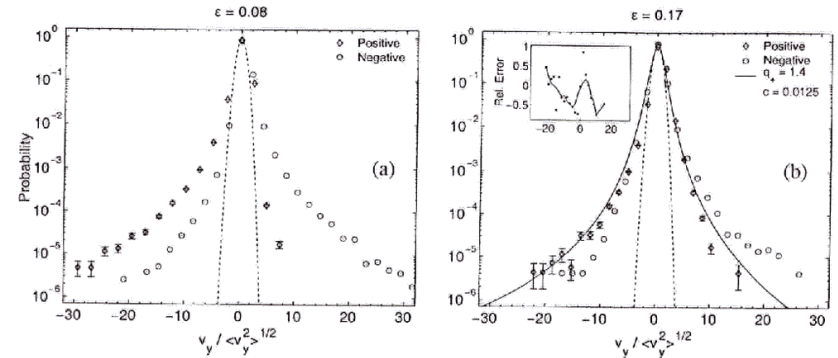


Fig. 4. Longitudinal velocity (v_y) distributions at (a) $\epsilon = 0.08$ and (b) $\epsilon = 0.17$ for positive and negative defects, rescaled to $\sigma = 1$. Solid line is a fit to Eq. (10) for positive defects. Unrescaled standard deviations were: (a) $\sigma_+ = 0.099d/\tau_v$, $\sigma_- = 0.115d/\tau_v$ and (b) $\sigma_+ = 0.141d/\tau_v$, $\sigma_- = 0.128d/\tau_v$. Dashed line is Gaussian with $\sigma = 1d/\tau_v$. Inset: Relative error of experiment and theory: $(p_{exp} - p_{theory})/p_{theory}$ for positive defects.

asymmetric correction:

$$p(v) = \frac{1}{Z_q} \left(1 + \tilde{\beta} (q-1) \left(\frac{1}{2} v^2 - c \left(v - \frac{1}{3} v^3 \right) \right) \right)^{-\frac{1}{q-1}}$$

↑
From general dynamical systems considerations

(A. Hilgers, C.B., Phys. Rev. 60 E, 5385 (1999))

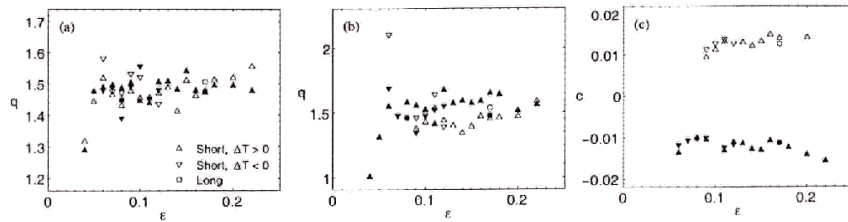


Fig. 8. Values of fit parameters (a) q for v_x (b) q for v_y , and (c) c for v_y as a function of ϵ . Open points are for positive defects; filled points are for negative. Short runs in which data were obtained by quasistatic temperature increases from below are marked with Δ , and the converse with \blacktriangledown .

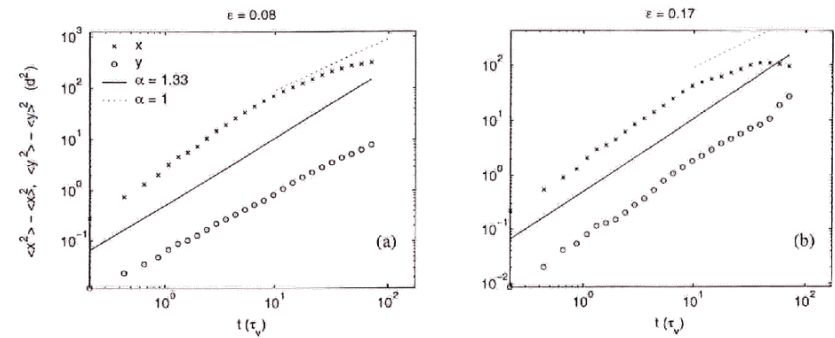


Fig. 6. Second moment of position trajectories in \hat{x} and \hat{y} . Solid line is diffusive behavior predicted by Eq. (18) for $q = 1.5$; dotted line is normal diffusive limit ($q = 1$). Fits to the data give values ranging from $\alpha = 1.16$ to $\alpha = 1.50$ depending on the region being fit.

Position of defects
exhibits anomalous diffusion

$$\langle x^2(t) \rangle \sim t^\alpha$$

$$\alpha \approx 1.3$$

Generalized Fokker-Planck eq.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} p(x,t) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (F(x)p(x,t)) + D \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (p(x,t))^\nu$$

$\nu \neq 1$ generates Tsallis distributions

with

$$q = 2 - \nu$$

$$F(x) = K_1 - K_2 x$$

Plastino & Plastino, Physica A (1995)

Tsallis & Bukman, PRE (1996)

Model also generates

anomalous diffusion

$$\langle x^2(t) \rangle \sim t^\alpha$$

$$\alpha = \frac{2}{1+\nu} = \frac{2}{3-q}$$

Measured q from defect velocity distribution

$$q = 1.45 \pm 0.05$$

\Rightarrow predicted anomalous diffusion coeff.

$$\alpha = \frac{2}{3-q} = 1.90 \pm 0.03$$

measured an. diff. coeff.

$$\alpha = 1.3 \pm 0.1$$

also predicted: power law decay of vel. corr. fct

Patterns in turbulent flows

(rotating annulus)

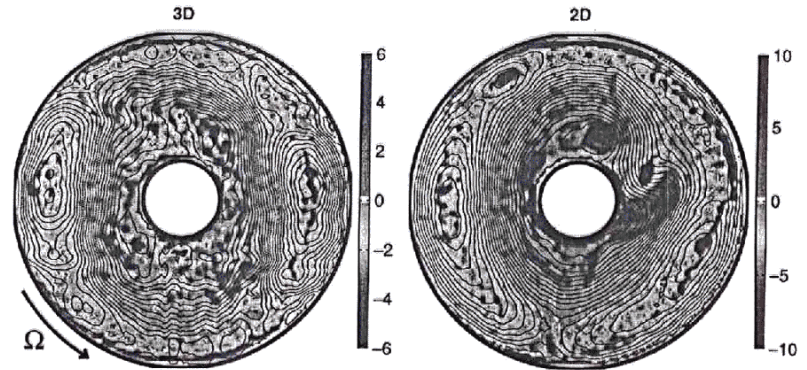


Fig. 1. Vorticity and streamfunction maps for the 3D and 2D flows, at $\Omega = 1.57$ and 11.0 rad/s, respectively. The cyclonic (red center) anti-cyclonic (blue center) vortices are advected clockwise by the mean anti-cyclonic jet, as the tank rotates counter-clockwise. The sq of the streamline contours is $12 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ for the 3D case and $30 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ for the 2D case, and the color bars show the vorticity values (

from:

C.N. Baroud, H.L. Swinney, Physica 184 D, 21 (2003)

Probability densities of velocity differences well approximated by 'canonical' distributions of generalized stat. mech

$$q \approx 1.3 \quad (2D)$$

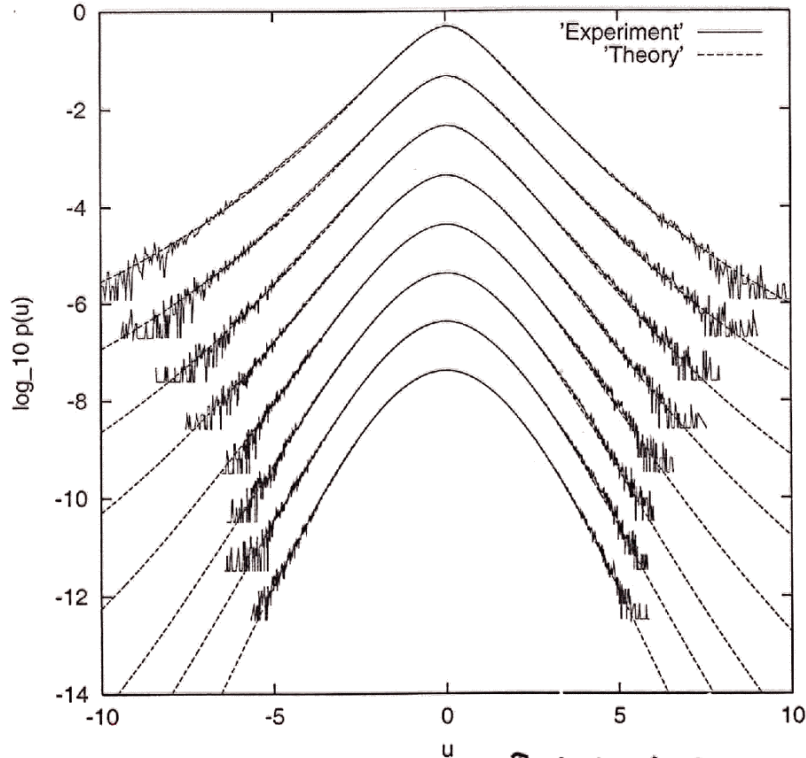
$$q \text{ scale dep.} \quad (3D)$$

Turbulent
Covette-Taylor flow (Lewis & Swinney)

- 7 -

Re = 540 000

Fig. 1a



Beck, Lewis, Swinney
Phys. Rev. E (2004)
63E, 035303(R)

from top to bottom:

$$\frac{t}{\tau} = 11.6, 23.1, 46.2, 92.5, 208, 399, 827, 14450$$

$$q = 1.168, 1.150, 1.124, 1.105, 1.084, 1.065, 1.055, 1.038$$

$$\alpha = 2 - q$$

(shift by -1 unit for better visibility)

Lagrangian test particle
in turbulent flow

Bodenschatz et al.

Nature (2001)

J. Fluid Mech. (2002)

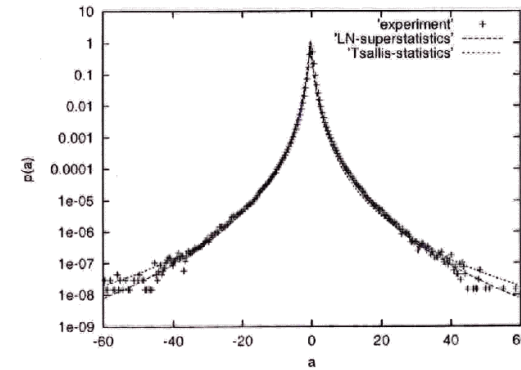


Fig. 5 Acceleration distribution as measured by Bodenschatz et al. and comparison with the log-normal superstatistics distribution (15) with $s^2 = 3.0$. Also shown is a Tsallis distribution (13) with $q = 1.2$ and $\alpha = 0.5$.

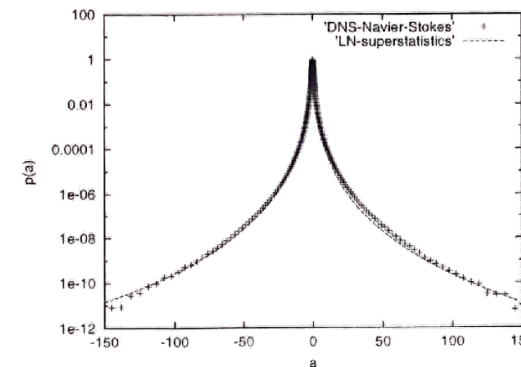


Fig. 6 Pressure statistics as obtained by Gotoh et al. in a direct numerical simulation of the Navier-Stokes equation, and comparison with log-normal superstatistics with $s^2 = 3.0$.

Sawford model

(B.L. Sawford, Phys. Fluids A3, 1577 (1991))

model for Lagrangian test particle in turbulent flow

 $(a(t), u(t), x(t))$
 accel. vel. position

$$\dot{a} = -(T_L^{-1} + t_\eta^{-1})a - T_L^{-1} t_\eta^{-1} u + \sqrt{2\sigma_u^2 (T_L^{-1} + t_\eta^{-1}) T_L^{-1} t_\eta^{-1}} L(t)$$

$$\dot{u} = a$$

$$\dot{x} = u$$

↑ Gaussian white noise

$$T_L = \frac{2\sigma_u^2}{C_0 \bar{\epsilon}} \gg t_\eta = \frac{2a_0 \nu^{1/2}}{C_0 \bar{\epsilon}^{1/2}}$$

↑ average energy dissipation

Min. viscosity ↓

 C_0, a_0 : Lagrangian structure function constants
 σ_u^2 : variance of velocity distribution

$$R_\lambda = \frac{\sqrt{15} \sigma_u^2}{\sqrt{\nu \bar{\epsilon}}} \text{ Reynolds number}$$

predicts Gaussian acceleration distributions!

In the limit $T_L \rightarrow \infty$, Sawford model reduces to

$$\dot{a} = -\gamma a + \sigma L(t)$$

with

$$\gamma = \frac{C_0}{2a_0} \nu^{-1/2} \bar{\epsilon}^{1/2}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{C_0^{3/2}}{2a_0} \nu^{-1/2} \bar{\epsilon}$$

Hence

$$\beta = \frac{\gamma}{\sigma^2} = \frac{2a_0}{C_0^2} \nu^{3/2} \bar{\epsilon}^{-3/2}$$

This naturally leads to a generalized (super statistical) Sawford model with a fluctuating β

$$\beta = \frac{\gamma}{\sigma^2} = \frac{2a_0}{C_0^2} \nu^{3/2} \bar{\epsilon}^{-3/2}$$

All you have to do: decide on prob. density $f(\beta)$

↑ fluctuating energy dissipation

C.B., PRL (2001)
Europhys. Lett. (2003)
A. Reynolds

↑ Gaussian for constant coeff γ, σ . How can we save this model? Let γ, σ fluctuate! ⇒ superstatistics

Conclusion

- Generalized stat. mech. often due to a 'superstatistics'.
 - **Superstatistics** is a 'statistics of a statistics' relevant for driven non equilibrium systems with intensive parameter fluctuations (e.g. $\beta = (kT)^{-1}$)
 - contains **Tsallis statistics** as a special case, but other statistics possible as well
 - $q = \frac{\langle \beta^2 \rangle}{\langle \beta \rangle^2}$ can be formally defined for **any** superstatistics
 - β sharply peaked (q close to 1)
 \Rightarrow all superstatistics similar to Tsallis statistics
 - Very good agreement with experimental data from
 - hydrodynamic turbulence
 - defect turbulence (Rayleigh Benard)
 - cosmic ray statistics
- Parameter predictions possible based on simple model assumptions