

FTs and out-of-equilibrium experiments

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Fluctuation Relations

- Probability of the reversed path

$$\widehat{\mathcal{P}}[\widehat{\mathbf{x}} \mid \widehat{\mathbf{x}}(0)] = \mathcal{P}[\mathbf{x} \mid x(0)] e^{-\beta \mathcal{Q}^{\text{B}}[\mathbf{x}]}$$

- Unconditional probabilities: Crooks' relation

$$\widehat{\mathcal{P}}[\widehat{\mathbf{x}}] = \mathcal{P}[\mathbf{x}] e^{-\beta(\mathcal{W}[\mathbf{x}] - \Delta F)}$$

- Integral fluctuation relation: Jarzynski's equality

$$\langle e^{-\beta \mathcal{W}} \rangle = e^{-\beta \Delta F}, \quad \text{with } Z_{\lambda(0)}/Z_{\lambda(t_f)} = \exp(\beta \Delta F)$$

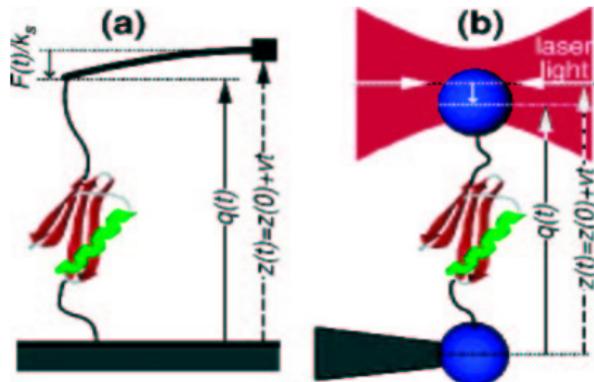
- Detailed fluctuation relation (aka Gallavotti-Cohen relation)

$$\widehat{\mathcal{P}}[\widehat{\mathbf{x}}] = \mathcal{P}[\mathbf{x}] e^{-\Delta \mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}}[\mathbf{x}]/k_B}, \quad \text{with } \Delta \mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}} = \Delta \mathcal{S}^{\text{B}} + \Delta \mathcal{S}^{\text{sys}}$$

$$\mathcal{S}^{\text{B}}[\mathbf{x}] = \sum_{\alpha} \mathcal{Q}^{\text{B}_{\alpha}}[\mathbf{x}]/T_{\alpha}, \quad \Delta \mathcal{S}^{\text{sys}} = k_B \log [p(x(0), t_0)/p(x(t_f), t_f)]$$

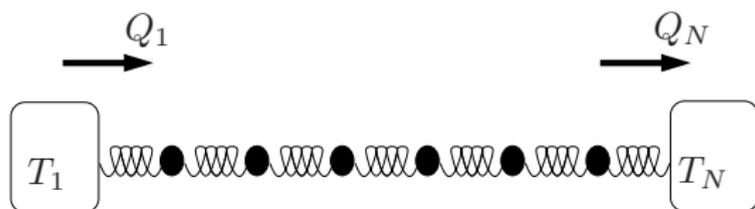
Are they useful?

- Mechanical unfolding of biopolymers (Nucleic Acids, Proteins)



- Experiments performed in non-reversible conditions
- Out-of-equilibrium statistical mechanics can be used to evaluate equilibrium properties of the molecules

System in a steady state



- $H = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{p_i^2}{2m} + \frac{K}{2} \left[q_1^2 + q_N^2 + \sum_{i=1}^N (q_{i+1} - q_i)^2 \right]$
- At equilibrium $T_1 = T_N$
 $\langle p_i p_j \rangle = 0$ if $i \neq j$
 $\langle q_i p_j \rangle = 0, \forall i, j$
- when $T_1 \neq T_N$ these variables are correlated
Let $x = (q_1, \dots, q_N, p_1, \dots, p_N)$, and $C_{ij} = \langle x_i x_j \rangle$
 $P(x) = \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} C_{ij}^{-1} x_i x_j \right] / \left[(2\pi)^N \sqrt{\det(C^{-1})} \right]$
Rieder, Lebowitz, Lieb, J. Math. Phys. (1967)

at exchanged by the i -th particle: Q_i

Langevin equations of motion

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dq_i}{dt} &= \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} = p_i, \\ \frac{dp_i}{dt} &= -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} + (-\Gamma p_i + \eta_i) (\delta_{1,i} + \delta_{N,i})\end{aligned}$$

Q_1 is our *macroscopic* observable

- $$Q_i = \int_{t_0}^{\Delta t} dq_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} + dp_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} = \int_{t_0}^{\Delta t} dt p_i(t) (-\Gamma p_i + \eta_i) (\delta_{1,i} + \delta_{N,i})$$

- with Q_1 and $Q_N \neq 0$, and $Q_i = 0$, $i = 2, \dots, N-1$

Probability distribution $P(Q_1, t)$

- Exact result:

$$\sum_i Q_i = H(\{q_i(\Delta t)\}, \{p_i(\Delta t)\}) - H(\{q_i(t_0)\}, \{p_i(t_0)\})$$

- One expects

- $\langle Q_1 \rangle / t \propto (T_1 - T_N)$ in the long time limit
- $\langle Q_1 \rangle = -\langle Q_N \rangle$

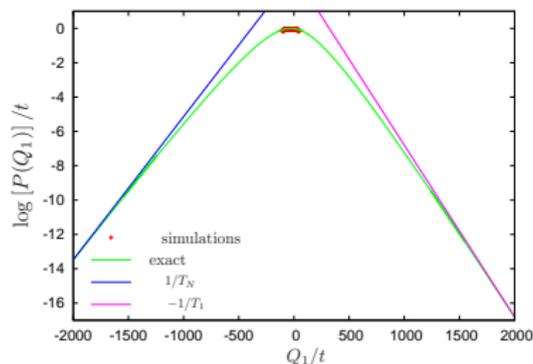
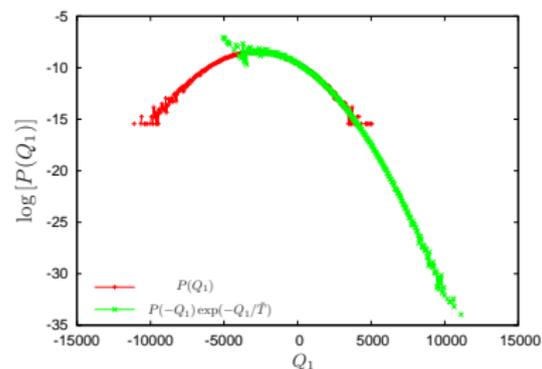
One can prove that, for any interaction potential and for $t \rightarrow \infty$

$$P(Q_1) = P(-Q_1)e^{-Q_1/\tilde{T}},$$

where $k_B = 1$, and $\tilde{T} \equiv (1/T_1 - 1/T_N)^{-1}$

This is a particular case of a more general relation, the Gallavotti-Cohen relation

Simulations vs. exact solution



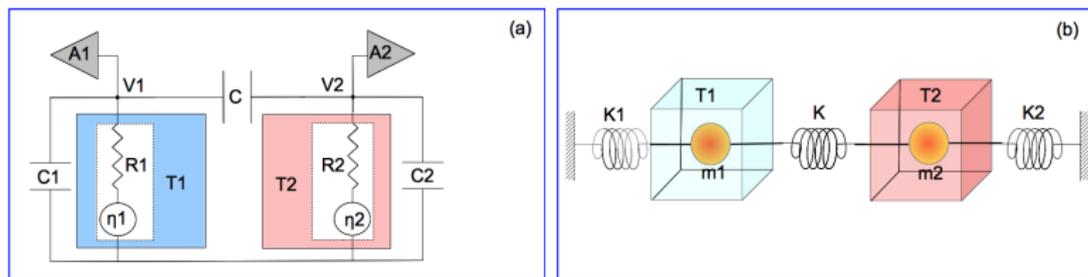
$t = 100$, $N = 10$, $T_1 = 100$, $T_N = 120$, 10^5 simulated trajectories,
 $\zeta = 10$, $k = 60$

H. Fogedby, AI, J. Stat. Mec. 2012;

H. Fogedby, AI, J. Stat. Mec 2014

An electric circuit with viscous coupling

S. Ciliberto, et al. PRL 2013



$$(C_1 + C)\dot{V}_1 = -\frac{V_1}{R_1} + C\dot{V}_2 + \eta_1$$
$$(C_2 + C)\dot{V}_2 = -\frac{V_2}{R_2} + C\dot{V}_1 + \eta_2$$

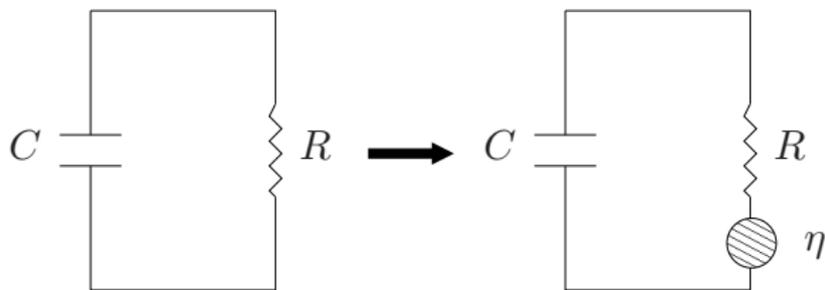
where η_i is the usual white noise: $\langle \eta_i \eta_j' \rangle = 2\delta_{ij} \frac{T_i}{R_i} \delta(t - t')$.

Nyquist effect

The potential difference across a dipole fluctuates because of the thermal noise

$$C\dot{V} = -\frac{V}{R} + \eta$$

with $\langle \eta(t)\eta(t') \rangle = 2\frac{T}{R}\delta(t - t')$



Thermodynamic quantities

- Dissipated power in an electric circuit

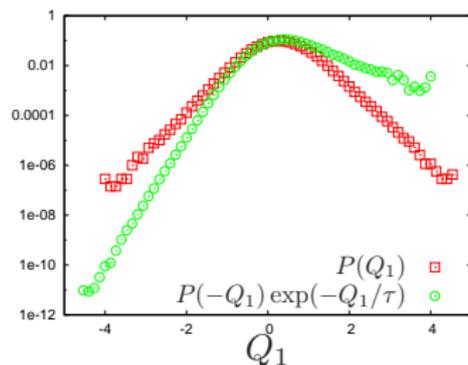
$$P = V \cdot I$$

- Heat dissipated in resistor 1

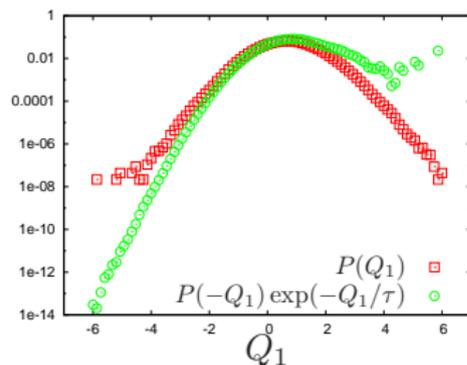
$$\begin{aligned} Q_1(t, \Delta t) &= \int_t^{t+\Delta t} dt' C V_1(t') \frac{dV_2}{dt'} - (C_1 + C) V_1(t') \frac{dV_1}{dt'} \\ &= \int_t^{t+\Delta t} dt' V_1(t') \left(\frac{V_1(t')}{R_1} - \eta_1(t') \right) \end{aligned}$$

- Analogous definition for Q_2

aka FT for Q_1 at $t \rightarrow \infty$: slow convergence



$\Delta t = 0.2$ s,



$\Delta t = 0.5$ s

$$\log \frac{P_{ss}(Q_1)}{P_{ss}(-Q_1)} = -\tilde{\beta} Q_1$$

$$\tilde{\beta} = 1/T_1 - 1/T_2$$

$T_1 = 88$ K, $T_2 = 296$ K, $C = 100$ pF, $C_1 = 680$ pF, $C_2 = 420$ pF and $R_1 = R_2 = 10$ M Ω

A few definitions

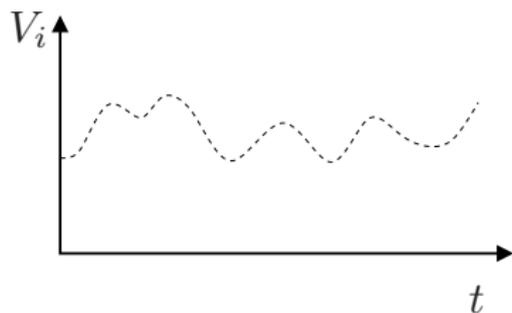
- ΔS^{bath} : the entropy due to the heat exchanged with the reservoirs up to the time Δt

$$\Delta S_{\Delta t}^{\text{bath}} = Q_{1,\Delta t}/T_1 + Q_{2,\Delta t}/T_2$$

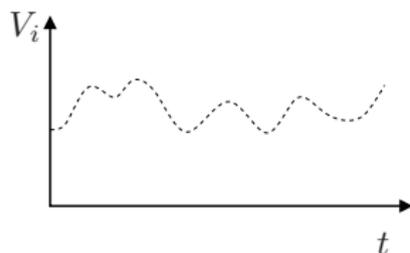
- the reservoir entropy $\Delta S_{\Delta t}^{\text{bath}}$ is not the only component of the total entropy production: entropy variation of the system?

A trajectory entropy

The system follows a stochastic trajectory through its phase space, the dynamical variables are the voltages $V_i(t)$.



A trajectory entropy



- Following [Seifert, PRL 2005](#), for such a system we can define a time dependent trajectory entropy

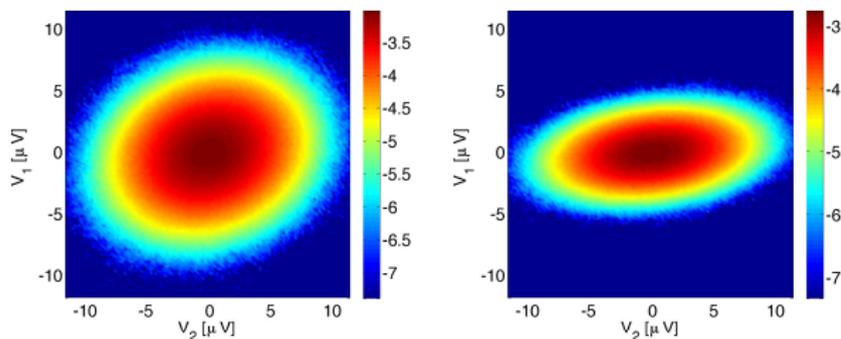
$$S^{sys}(t) = -k_B \log P(V_1(t), V_2(t))$$

- Thus, the system entropy variation reads

$$\Delta S_{\Delta t}^{sys} = -k_B \log \left[\frac{P(V_1(t + \Delta t), V_2(t + \Delta t))}{P(V_1(t), V_2(t))} \right].$$

These are measurable quantities

- Q_i can be measured as discussed earlier
- $P(V_1, V_2)$ can be easily sampled



Left: $T_1 = 296\text{ K}$ (eq.) right: $T_1 = 88\text{ K}$

- The system is in a steady state: $P(V_1, V_2)$ does not change with t

Total entropy

- Measure the voltages V_i at time $t = 0$ and $t = \Delta t$, and thus obtain

$$\Delta S_{\Delta t}^{sys} = -k_B \log \left[\frac{P(V_1(\Delta t), V_2(\Delta t))}{P(V_1(0), V_2(0))} \right].$$

- Measure the heats Q_1 and Q_2 flowing from/towards the reservoirs in the time interval $[0, \Delta t]$ and thus obtain

$$\Delta S_{\Delta t}^{\text{bath}} = Q_{1,\Delta t}/T_1 + Q_{2,\Delta t}/T_2$$

- Define the total entropy as

$$\Delta S_{\Delta t}^{\text{tot}} = \Delta S_{\Delta t}^{\text{bath}} + \Delta S_{\Delta t}^{sys}$$

FT for the total entropy

- The theory predicts that the following equality holds

$$\langle \exp(-\Delta\mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}}/k_B) \rangle = 1,$$

- We also know that the following FT holds for any trajectory \mathbf{x}

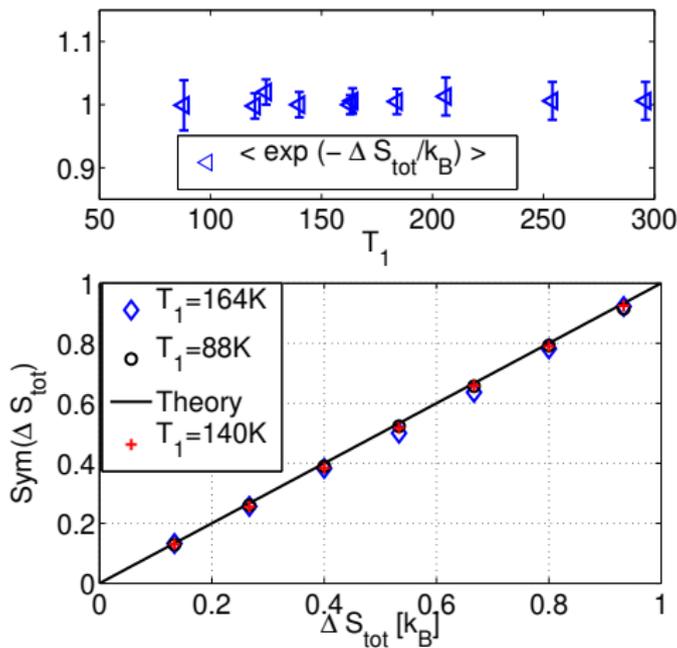
$$\widehat{\mathcal{P}}[\widehat{\mathbf{x}}] = \mathcal{P}[\mathbf{x}]e^{-\Delta\mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}}[\mathbf{x}]}$$

which implies that $P(\Delta\mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}})$ should satisfy a fluctuation theorem of the form

$$\log[P(\Delta\mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}})/P(-\Delta\mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}})] = \Delta\mathcal{S}^{\text{tot}}/k_B, \quad \forall \Delta t, \Delta T,$$

FT for the total entropy: experimental verification

$$\left\langle e^{-\Delta S^{\text{tot}}/k_B} \right\rangle = 1, \quad \text{Sym}(\Delta S^{\text{tot}}) = \log \left[\frac{P(\Delta S^{\text{tot}})}{P(-\Delta S^{\text{tot}})} \right] = \frac{\Delta S^{\text{tot}}}{k_B}, \quad \forall \Delta t, \Delta T,$$



single-electron tunnelling events

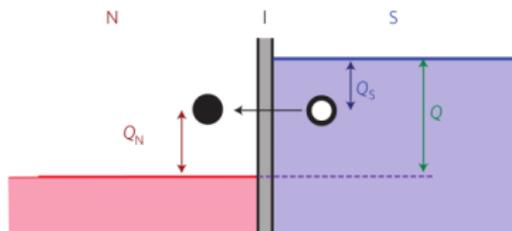
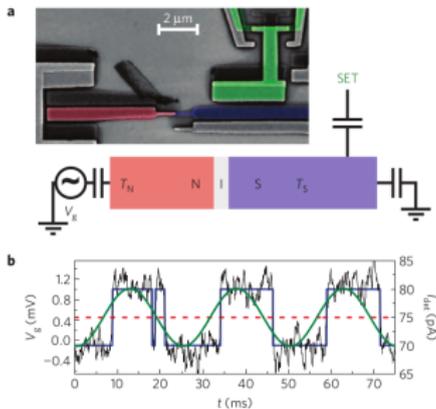
nature
physics

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PUBLISHED ONLINE: 11 AUGUST 2013 | DOI: 10.1038/NPHYS2711

Distribution of entropy production in a single-electron box

J. V. Koski^{1*}, T. Sagawa², O-P. Saira^{1,3}, Y. Yoon¹, A. Kutvonen⁴, P. Solinas^{1,4}, M. Möttönen^{1,5}, T. Ala-Nissila^{4,6} and J. P. Pekola¹



single-electron tunnelling events: FT

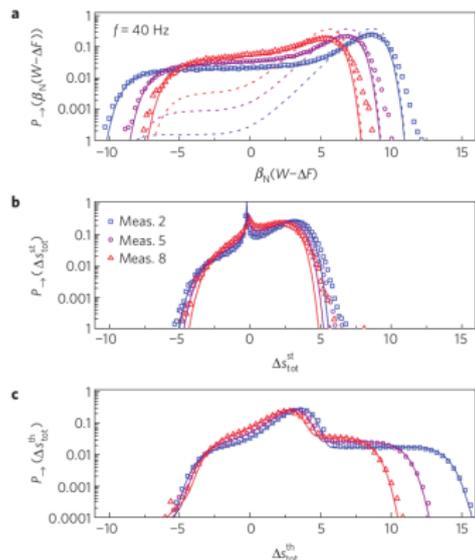


Figure 3 | Distributions of entropy production at different temperatures. **a**, $\beta_N(W - \Delta F)$ distributions for a 40 Hz forward protocol at different bath temperatures. The symbols show measured values (key in **b** applies to all panels), solid lines are numerical expectations (all panels), and dashed lines demonstrate what the distribution would be for $T_S = T_N$, such that Jarzynski Equality would be satisfied. **b**, Corresponding ΔS_{tot}^{st} distributions. **c**, ΔS_{tot}^{th} distributions for single jump trajectories.

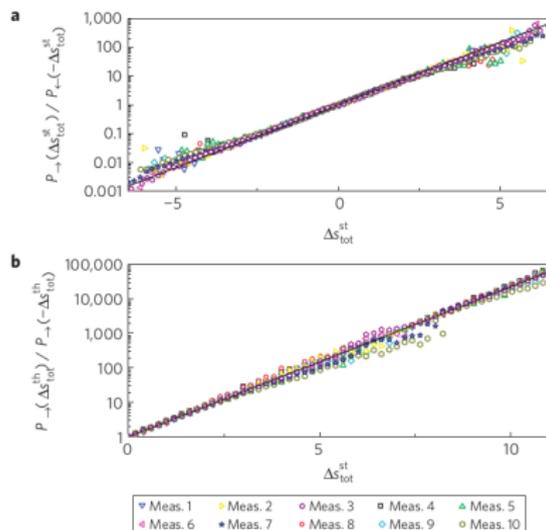
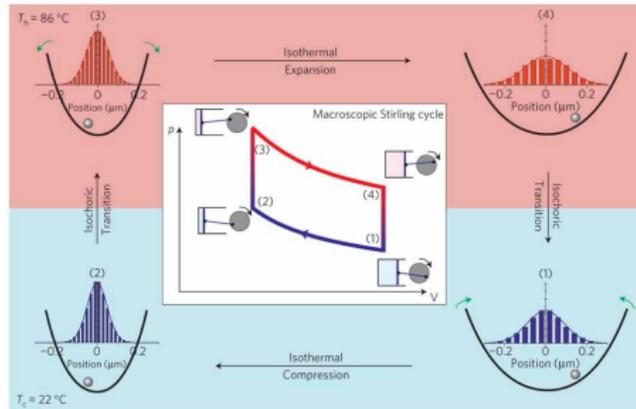


Figure 5 | Test of the DFR. **a**, DFR for ΔS_{tot}^{st} . Despite the asymmetry of forward and backward protocols due to detector back-action, the relation is satisfied. **b**, DFR for ΔS_{tot}^{th} of the forward protocol. In both **a** and **b**, the expected dependence given by equation (5) is shown as a solid black line.

Thermal cyclic engines: classical system

Realization of a micrometre-sized stochastic heat engine
Working fluid: a single colloidal particle in a laser trap

$$U(x, t) = \frac{k(t)}{2} x^2$$



V. Blickle and C. Bechinger *Nat Phys* (2012)

Thermal cyclic engines: classical system II

NATURE PHYSICS DOI: 10.1038/NPHYS2163

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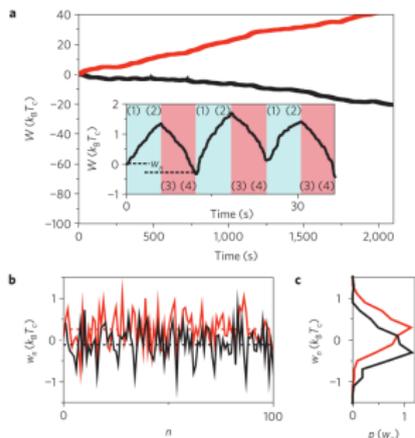


Figure 2 | Extracted work of the microscopic heat engine. **a**, W versus time for a heat engine in clockwise (black curve) and counter-clockwise (red curve) cycle direction with $\tau = 12$ s. In the latter case, the machine acts as a heat pump. (Inset) Magnified view where the individual steps during three cycles are resolved. **b**, Work accumulated over one cycle as a function of the cycle number n for clockwise (black) and counter-clockwise (red) cycle directions. The average work per cycle is -0.11 kgT and 0.25 kgT , respectively, for the two cases. **c**, Corresponding probability distributions, $p(w_n)$, to the plots in **b**.

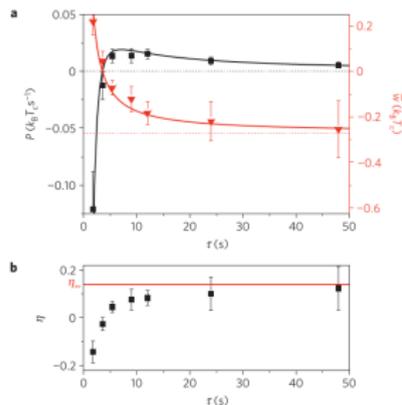
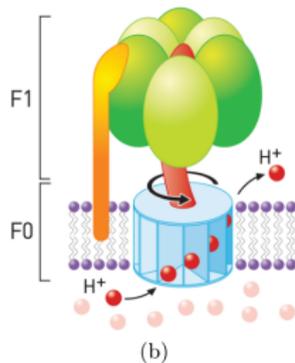
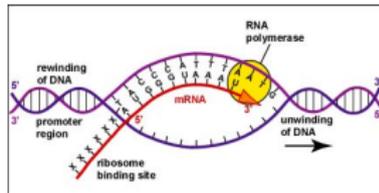
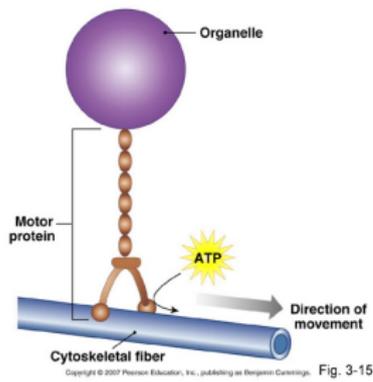


Figure 3 | Power, work and efficiency versus the cycle revolution time τ . **a**, Averaged work \dot{w} and power as a function of the cycle time τ for the experimental conditions $T_h = 76^\circ \text{C}$, $T_c = 22^\circ \text{C}$, $k_{\text{max}}/k_{\text{min}} = 4.4$, $\dot{w}_\infty = -0.27 \text{ kgT}$ and $\eta_c = 0.15$. The red solid line is a fit according to $\dot{w} = \dot{w}_\infty - \Sigma/\tau$ with the free fitting parameter $\Sigma = 0.95 \text{ kgT}$. For $\tau < 3.6$ s the machine is not extracting energy, \dot{w} becomes positive and the output power negative. **b**, Efficiency η versus cycle time. In the long-time limit the measured efficiency approaches $\eta_\infty = 0.14$ (solid line). Note that the efficiency at maximum power is $\eta = 0.08$. The error bars indicate the standard deviations of the mean among individual cycles.

Motors and rotors of biological interests

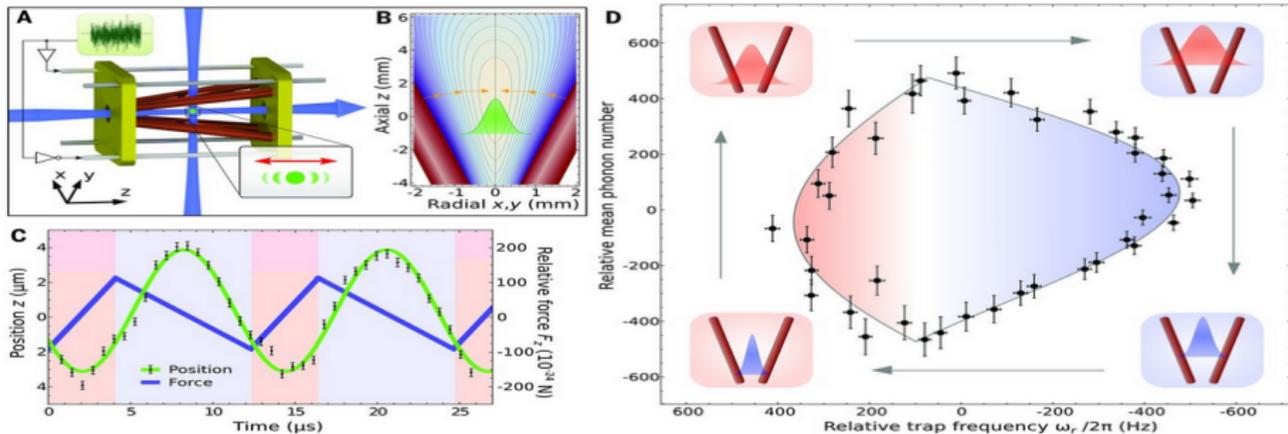


- Molecular motors are protein machines that convert chemical energy into useful work
- Example: Kinesin moves cargo inside cells along microtubules
- Example: RNA polymerase, transcribes DNA sequences into mRNA
- Example: ATP-synthase. The motor is driven by a proton gradient across the membrane.

Thermal cyclic engines: quantum system

A single-atom heat engine

Working fluid: a single calcium ion in a tapered ion trap

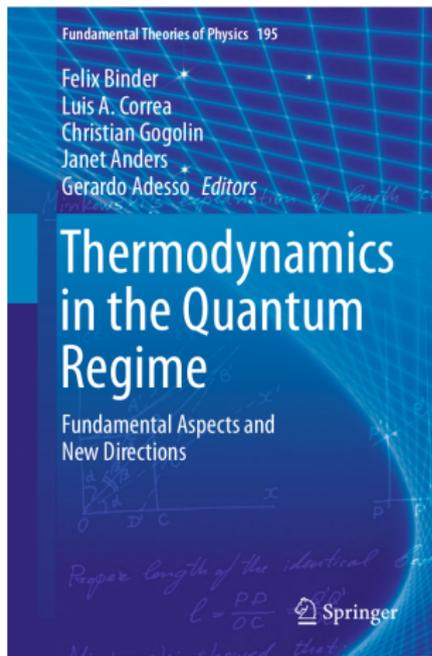


Johannes Roßnagel et al. Science (2016)

Quantum thermodynamics

Thermodynamics preceded quantum mechanics, and for many decades the two theories developed separately.

The gap is now being bridged

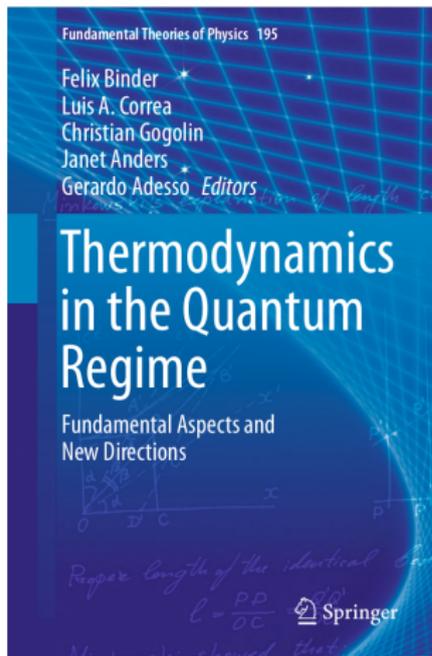


- How can process-dependent thermodynamic quantities, such as work and heat, be meaningfully defined and measured in quantum systems?
- What are the efficiencies of quantum engines and refrigerators? Are they better or worse than their classical counterparts?
- How do non-equilibrium fluctuation relations extend to the quantum regime?
- Which corrections to standard thermodynamic laws and relations have to be made when considering systems that couple strongly to their surroundings?

Quantum thermodynamics

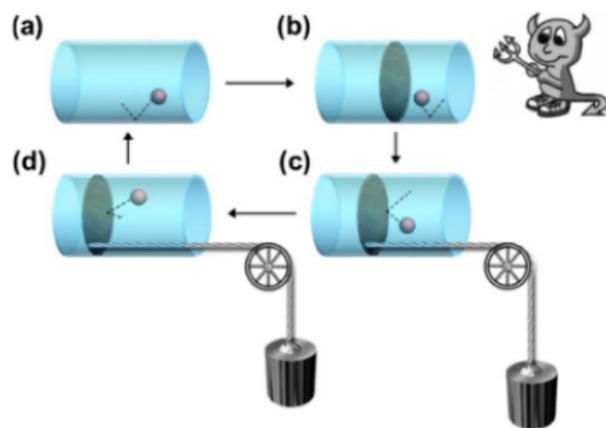
Thermodynamics preceded quantum mechanics, and for many decades the two theories developed separately.

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Thermodynamic of Information



K. K. Maruyama, F. Nori,
and V. Vedral
The physics of Maxwell's
demon and information.
Rev. Mod. Phys. 81, 1
(2009).

FIG. 1. (Color online) Schematic diagram of Szilard's heat engine. A chamber of volume V contains a one-molecule gas, which can be found in either the right or the left part of the box. (a) Initially, the position of the molecule is unknown. (b) Maxwell's demon inserts a partition at the center and observes the molecule to determine whether it is in the right- or the left-hand side of the partition. He records this information in his memory. (c) Depending on the outcome of the measurement (which is recorded in his memory), the demon connects a load to the partition. If the molecule is in the right part as shown, he connects the load to the right-hand side of the partition. (d) The isothermal expansion of the gas does work upon the load, whose amount is $kT \ln 2$ which we call 1 bit. Adapted from Fig. 4 in Plenio and Vitelli, 2001.

Experimental verification of Landauer's principle linking information and thermodynamics

Antoine Bérut¹, Artak Arakelyan¹, Artyom Petrosyan¹, Sergio Ciliberto¹, Raoul Dillenschneider² & Eric Lutz^{3*}

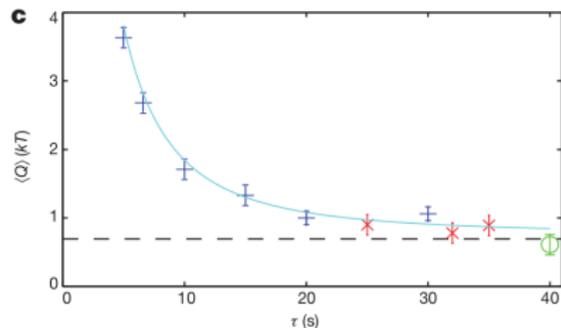
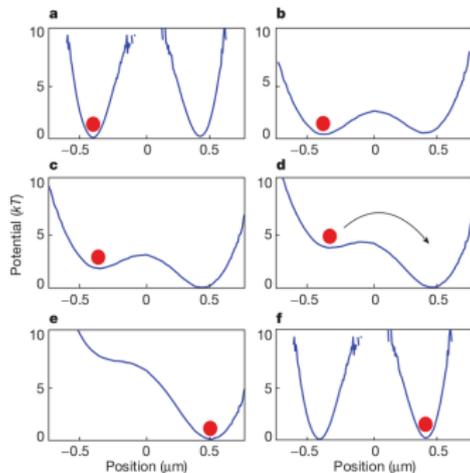
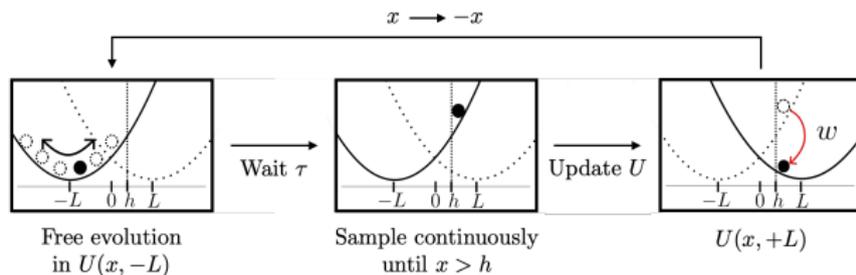


Figure 1 | The erasure protocol used in the experiment. One bit of information stored in a bistable potential is erased by first lowering the central barrier and then applying a tilting force. In the figures, we represent the transition from the initial state, 0 (left-hand well), to the final state, 1 (right-hand well). We do not show the obvious $1 \rightarrow 1$ transition. Indeed the procedure is such that irrespective of the initial state, the final state of the particle is always 1. The potential curves shown are those measured in our experiment (Methods).

Information engine



- Brownian particle in $U(x, \lambda) = k/2(x - \lambda)^2$, with $P(x, t = 0) = P^{eq}(x, \lambda = -L)$
- first passage at $x = h$
- extracted work $w = 2khL$

Cooling of trapped atoms with a Maxwell's Demon

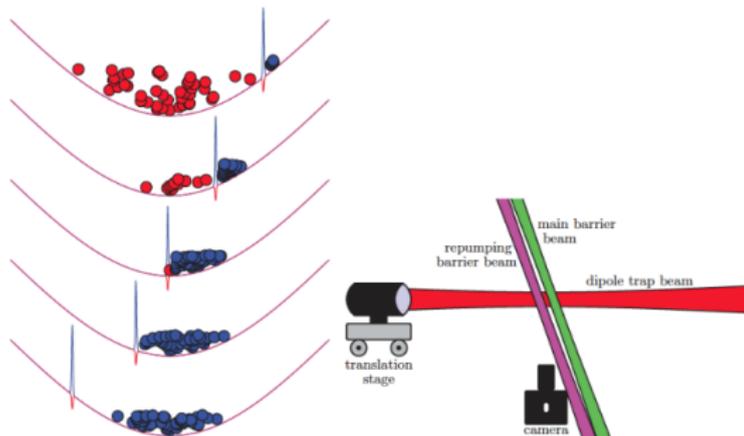


Figure 3: Using a Maxwell's demon to cool atoms. A pair of laser beams can be tuned to atomic transitions and configured to create a one-way potential barrier; atoms may cross unimpeded in one direction, from left to right left in this figure, but not in the other. Left panel : when the barrier is introduced at the periphery of the trapping potential, (right side) the atoms that cross the barrier will be those that have converted nearly all their kinetic energy to potential energy, in other words, the cold ones. By slowly sweeping the barrier (from the right to the left) across the trapping potential, one can sort cold atoms (blue) from hot ones (red), reminiscent of Maxwell's famous thought experiment, or cool an entire atomic ensemble. Because the cold atoms do work against the optical barrier as it moves, their kinetic energy remains small even as they return to the deep portion of the potential well. Right panel: schematic representation of the optical set-up showing the optical trap (red beam), the translational stage and the two beams one way barrier

Climbing a staircase with a Maxwell's Demon

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PUBLISHED ONLINE: 14 NOVEMBER 2010 | DOI: 10.1038/NPHYS1821

nature
physics

Experimental demonstration of information-to-energy conversion and validation of the generalized Jarzynski equality

Shoichi Toyabe¹, Takahiro Sagawa², Masahito Ueda^{2,3}, Eiro Munevuki^{1*} and Masaki Sano^{2*}

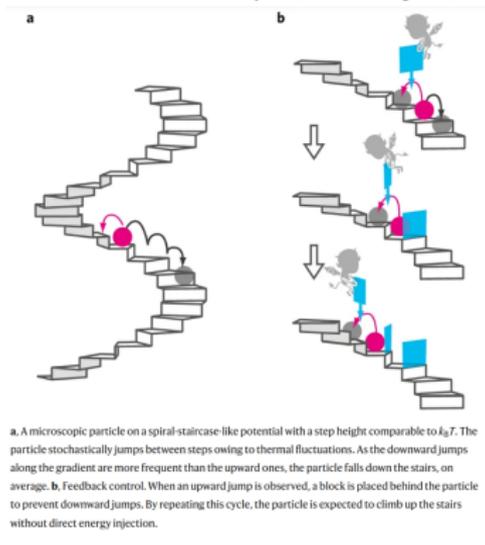


Figure 2: Experimental set-up^{29,30}.

