

Advanced Statistical Physics – CORRECTION OF THE JANUARY 2023 EXAM

1 Swimming bacteria

We study here the "Langevin" equation

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = F(x(t)) + v_0 \sigma(t) \quad (1)$$

where the noise is a random telegraph process $\sigma(t) = \pm 1$ for rate λ .

1/ Diffusion constant.— We analyse the motion in the absence of the drift (set $F(x) = 0$) :

$$\langle x(t)^2 \rangle = v_0^2 \int_0^t dt_1 \int_0^t dt_2 \langle \sigma(t_1) \sigma(t_2) \rangle \approx v_0^2 t \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d(t_1 - t_2) \overbrace{\langle \sigma(t_1) \sigma(t_2) \rangle}^{=e^{-2\lambda|t_1-t_2|}} = \frac{v_0^2}{\lambda} t \equiv 2D t \quad (2)$$

hence

$$D = v_0^2 / (2\lambda) . \quad (3)$$

2/ For $\sigma(t) = +1$ we have $\frac{dx}{dt} = F(x) + v_0$ corresponding to $\partial_t P_+ = -\partial_x [(F(x) + v_0)P_+]$. With rate λ , the noise makes a transition $\sigma(t) = +1 \rightarrow -1$, hence the term $-\lambda P_+$. The last term $+\lambda P_-$ corresponds to the contribution of a transition $\sigma(t) = -1 \rightarrow +1$.

3/ PDE for $P = P_+ + P_-$ and $Q = P_+ - P_-$ are

$$\partial_t P = -\partial_x [F(x)P] - v_0 \partial_x Q \quad (4)$$

$$\partial_t Q = -\partial_x [F(x)Q] - v_0 \partial_x P - 2\lambda Q \quad (5)$$

4/ Equation $\partial_t P(x; t) = -\partial_x J(x; t)$ is a conservation equation involving the probability current $J(x; t)$ through x at time t . Obviously, from previous PDE, we have

$$J(x; t) = F(x)P(x; t) + v_0 Q(x; t) \quad (6)$$

The first term is the usual *drift current* (drift \times probability density). Hence the second term should be interpreted as a *diffusion current*.

5/ Stationary solution corresponds to $\partial_t P = 0$ and $\partial_t Q = 0$, hence $J(x; t) = J$.

Equilibrium solution corresponds to $J = 0$, hence $Q(x) = -F(x)P(x)/v_0$ in this case. Injecting this into the PDE for Q we get $0 = \partial_x [F(x)^2 P(x)] / v_0 - v_0 \partial_x P(x) + 2\lambda F(x) P(x) / v_0$, i.e.

$$\partial_x [(v_0^2 - F(x)^2)P(x)] = 2\lambda F(x) P(x) \quad (7)$$

The RTP can only explore regions where $|F(x)| < v_0$: this is clear from the Langevin equation. Consider $\sigma(t) = +1$, i.e. $\frac{dx}{dt} = F(x) + v_0$: $x(t)$ grows until $F(x) + v_0$ vanishes. Then, $x(t)$ can decrease only when $\sigma(t) = +1 \rightarrow -1$.

Solution of the differential equation

$$\partial_x [(v_0^2 - F(x)^2)P(x)] = \frac{2\lambda F(x)}{v_0^2 - F(x)^2} (v_0^2 - F(x)^2)P(x) \quad (8)$$

is

$$\begin{cases} (v_0^2 - F(x)^2)P(x) = \mathcal{N} \exp \left\{ 2\lambda \int_0^x \frac{dy F(y)}{v_0^2 - F(y)^2} \right\} & \text{for } |F(x)| < v_0 \\ P(x) = 0 & \text{for } |F(x)| > v_0 \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

We can rewrite the equilibrium solution as

$$\boxed{P_{\text{eq}}(x) = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{v_0^2 - F(x)^2} e^{-\mathcal{U}(x)/D}} \quad \text{where } \mathcal{U}(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} -v_0^2 \int_0^x \frac{dy F(y)}{v_0^2 - F(y)^2} \quad (10)$$

is an *effective* potential and $D = v_0^2/2\lambda$ the diffusion constant identified above.

6/ Brownian limit. The correlator of the "Langevin force" $\xi(t) = v_0 \sigma(t)$ is

$$\langle \xi(t)\xi(t') \rangle = v_0^2 e^{-2\lambda|t-t'|} = \frac{v_0^2}{\lambda} \underbrace{\lambda e^{-2\lambda|t-t'|}}_{\xrightarrow{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \delta(t-t')} \quad (11)$$

The Gaussian white noise limit is reached for

$$\lambda \rightarrow \infty \text{ and } v_0 \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{with} \quad D = v_0^2/2\lambda \text{ fixed.} \quad (12)$$

In this case the effective potential coincides with the potential

$$\mathcal{U}(x) = -v_0^2 \int_0^x \frac{dy F(y)}{v_0^2 - F(y)^2} \longrightarrow - \int_0^x dy F(y) = V(x) \quad (13)$$

Hence the equilibrium distribution is $P_{\text{eq}}(x) \propto \exp[-V(x)/D]$, as expected for a diffusion in a potential $V(x)$.

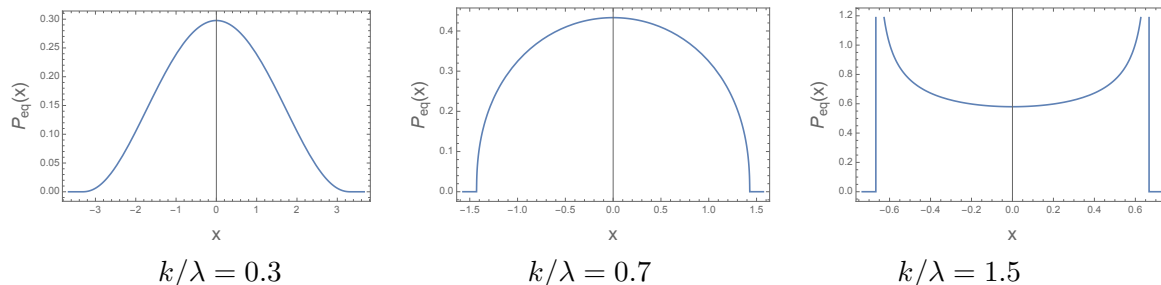
(see discussion below).

7/ Harmonic confinement.— For a linear force $F(x) = -kx$ we get

$$\mathcal{U}(x) = -\frac{v_0^2}{2k} \ln(1 - (kx/v_0)^2) \quad (14)$$

hence

$$P_{\text{eq}}(x) \propto \left[1 - \left(\frac{kx}{v_0} \right)^2 \right]^{-1+\lambda/k} \quad \text{for } x \in [-v_0/k, +v_0/k]. \quad (15)$$



The "Brownian limit" is

$$P_{\text{eq}}(x) \propto \left[1 - \frac{k}{\lambda} \frac{kx^2}{2D} \right]^{-1+\lambda/k} \xrightarrow{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \exp -kx^2/2D \quad (16)$$

We recover the expected Gaussian distribution, with support $[-v_0/k, +v_0/k] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

8/ Active/passive transition.— The above equilibrium distribution $P_{\text{eq}}(x)$ exhibits a transition for $\lambda/k = 1$: from a distribution maximum at $x = 0$ and vanishing at the boundaries $\pm v_0/k$ for $\lambda > k$ (high rate/weak confinement), like for in the Brownian limit, to a distribution diverging at the boundaries $\pm v_0/k$ for $\lambda < k$ (low rate/strong confinement).

The accumulation at the boundaries for $\lambda < k$ is understood as follows : consider the rate $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ and start with $\sigma(t) = +1$, hence the particle reaches the boundary where $F(x) + v_0 = -kx + v_0 = 0$ where it gets stuck, until $\sigma(t) = +1 \rightarrow -1$, then it goes backward to the boundary where $F(x) - v_0 = -kx - v_0 = 0$, etc. This explains which the RTP spends most of the time at the boundaries when $\lambda \rightarrow 0$. This occurs when the characteristic time related to the deterministic dynamics (drift) is short compare to the persistent time $\tau = 1/\lambda$.

9/ Confinement with soft walls.— We consider confinement with soft walls in a region $[0, L]$: $V(x) = -\int_0^x dF(y) = \frac{k}{2}x^2$ for $x < 0$, $V(x) = 0$ for $x \in [0, L]$ and $V(x) = \frac{k}{2}(x - L)^2$ for $x > L$. Clearly the equilibrium solution is now

$$P_{\text{eq}}(x) \propto \begin{cases} \left[1 - \left(\frac{kx}{v_0}\right)^2\right]^{-1+\lambda/k} & \text{for } x \in [-v_0/k, 0] \\ \text{cste} & \text{for } x \in [0, L] \\ \left[1 - \left(\frac{k(x-L)}{v_0}\right)^2\right]^{-1+\lambda/k} & \text{for } x \in [L, L + v_0/k] \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

For $\lambda < k$, the density presents divergences at the boundaries. The experimental data precisely exhibits the accumulation of bacteria *C. crescentus* at the boundary.

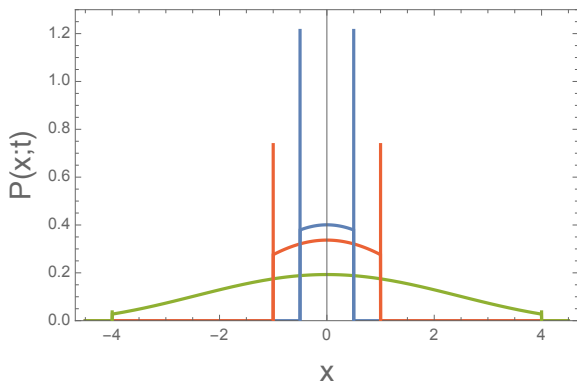
Discussion and additional information

The mathematical point of view : persistent random walk.— In the problem, we have studied the persistent random walk on \mathbb{R} in the presence of a drift term $F(x)$.

For $F(x) = 0$, the position is incremented by $\pm v_0\tau_i$ after each time step τ_i , where τ_i is exponentially distributed (with $p(\tau) = \lambda e^{-\lambda\tau}$). The walker at time t has explored the region $[-v_0t, +v_0t]$ (the diffusion presents fronts). In the large time limit, it eventually coincides with the usual diffusion as the ballistic fronts are much faster than the typical region $\sim \sqrt{Dt}$. This is the result of the central limit theorem. The solution of the master equation is known :

$$P(x;t) = \frac{1}{2}e^{-\lambda t} \left[\delta(x - v_0t) + \delta(x + v_0t) + \frac{\lambda}{v_0} I_0 \left(\lambda \sqrt{t^2 - (x/v_0)^2} \right) + \frac{\lambda t}{\sqrt{(v_0t)^2 - x^2}} I_1 \left(\lambda \sqrt{t^2 - (x/v_0)^2} \right) \right] \quad (18)$$

for $x \in [-v_0t, v_0t]$, and zero outside. $I_\nu(x)$ is the modified Bessel function of first kind. See for example the paper : H. G. Othmer, S. R. Dunkar & W. Alt, *Models of dispersal in biological systems*, J. Math. Bio. **26**, 263–298 (1988).



Free RTP at times $t = 0.5, 1$ and 4 .

- For a finite confining drift $F(x)$, there is a new characteristic time scale to be compared with the typical time between jumps, $\tau = 1/\lambda$. If the jumps can be considered "small", i.e. $F(x)$ is almost constant on scale v_0/λ , this is similar to a continuous diffusion in the presence of the drift $F(x)$.
- However, if the jumps $\sim v_0/\lambda$ are big for $F(x)$, the distribution is very different from the one obtained for a continuous diffusion, as we have seen.

The physical point of view : passive *versus* active.— The general form of a Langevin equation is

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = v(t) \tag{19}$$

$$m \frac{dv(t)}{dt} = - \int_0^\infty d\tau \gamma(\tau) v(t - \tau) + F(x(t)) + \xi(t) \tag{20}$$

where the damping is in general described by an integral term (dissipation is only effective after some finite time). The damping function $\gamma(\tau)$ depends on the microscopic details of the model (fluctuations in the environment). The fluctuation-dissipation theorem, relying on the existence of a thermal equilibrium for the particle and the fluid, implies that the correlator of the noise $C(\tau) = \langle \xi(t)\xi(t + \tau) \rangle$ is related to the damping function by $C(\tau) = k_B T \gamma(\tau)$ (for $\tau > 0$). See § 4.3 of the lecture notes.

A narrow function $\gamma(\tau) \rightarrow \gamma \delta(\tau)$ corresponds to a local damping term (case studied in the lectures), which describes the large time scales. In the overdamped limit, this leads to the Langevin equation $\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{\gamma} [F(x(t)) + \xi(t)]$ where $\xi(t)$ is a white noise.

Let us come back to the two situations encountered in the problem :

- When fluctuations (noise) are due to the fluid (*passive* matter), the Einstein-Stokes relation $D = k_B T / \gamma$ holds (in the problem, the friction coefficient was set to unity, $\gamma = 1$) and the equilibrium distribution $P_{\text{eq}}(x) \propto \exp[-V(x)/D]$ corresponds to the Gibbs equilibrium. Here, this form is obtained for a δ -correlated noise, which is consistent with the local damping term in the Langevin equation, which is implicitly chosen to get (1).
- On the contrary, if the noise is characterized by a finite persistent time and the damping is kept local in time, FDT is violated, meaning that the "Langevin" equation should describe a *non-equilibrium* situation. This corresponds to *active* matter, described here by the RPT model, where the motion is due to energy injected by the particle (the flagellar motors). This leads to the strongly **non Gibbsian** equilibrium distribution (10).

Final remark : several models of active matter exist : the run-and-tumble model discussed here, the active Brownian motion model (velocity with fixed modulus and orientation performing a BM), active Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process, etc.

2 The O(N) model

Consider a system characterized by a real vectorial order parameter with N components described by the Landau-Ginzburg functional

$$F[\vec{\phi}(x)] = \int d^d x \left[\frac{g}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (\vec{\nabla} \phi_i)^2 + \frac{a}{2} \vec{\phi}^2 + \frac{b}{4} (\vec{\phi}^2)^2 - \vec{\phi} \cdot \vec{h} \right] \quad (21)$$

1/ Principles of the Landau-Ginzburg approach :

- phenomenological approach
- propose a functional $F[\vec{\phi}(x)]$ controlling the incomplete partition function $Z[\vec{\phi}(x)] \sim e^{-\beta F[\vec{\phi}(x)]}$ for constrained configuration.
principles : assume $F[\vec{\phi}(x)]$ analytic in the field, locality, existence of a minimum and use symmetry of the problem
- find the optimal field configuration minimizing $F[\vec{\phi}(x)]$

2/ Field equation is

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta \phi_i(x)} = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad -g \Delta \phi_i(x) + a \phi_i(x) + b \vec{\phi}(x)^2 \phi_i(x) = h_i(x) \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, N. \quad (22)$$

3/ **Homogeneous solution (for $\vec{h} = 0$)** : We have to solve $a \phi_i + b \vec{\phi}^2 \phi_i = 0$. Two cases :

- (i) $a > 0$, then $\vec{\phi} = 0$.
- (ii) $a < 0$, then $\|\vec{\phi}\| = \sqrt{-a/b}$. All directions are possible, hence the system chooses one direction (*spontaneous symmetry breaking*).

For the O(N) model, the symmetry breaking scheme is : $\text{SO}(N) \rightarrow \text{SO}(N-1)$.

4/ We now consider small spatial modulations around the homogeneous solution : $\vec{\phi}(x) = \vec{e}_1 [\phi_0 + \varphi_{\parallel}(x)] + \vec{\varphi}_{\perp}(x)$ with $\vec{\varphi}_{\perp} = (0, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_N)$. We linearize the field equation by assuming that φ_{\parallel} and φ_{\perp} are much smaller than ϕ_0 .

Note that

$$\vec{\phi}(x)^2 = (\phi_0 + \varphi_{\parallel})^2 + \vec{\varphi}_{\perp}^2 \simeq \phi_0^2 + 2\phi_0 \varphi_{\parallel} \quad (23)$$

at linear order. Hence linearized field equation is

$$-g \Delta (\vec{e}_1 \varphi_{\parallel} + \vec{\varphi}_{\perp}) + 2\phi_0^2 \vec{e}_1 \varphi_{\parallel} \simeq \vec{h} \quad (24)$$

Projection in the two directions gives

$$-g \Delta \varphi_{\parallel} + 2\phi_0^2 \varphi_{\parallel} \simeq h_{\parallel} \quad (25)$$

$$-g \Delta \vec{\varphi}_{\perp} \simeq \vec{h}_{\perp} \quad (26)$$

In the first equation we identify the correlation length ξ such that

$$1/\xi^2 = 2\phi_0^2/g \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \xi = \sqrt{gb/(-2a)} \propto 1/\sqrt{T_c - T} \quad (27)$$

We can rewrite

$$\left(-\Delta + \frac{1}{\xi^2} \right) \varphi_{\parallel} \simeq \frac{1}{g} h_{\parallel} \quad (28)$$

$$-\Delta \vec{\varphi}_{\perp} \simeq \frac{1}{g} \vec{h}_{\perp} \quad (29)$$

We can say that $\xi_{\parallel} = \xi$ is finite while $\xi_{\perp} = \infty$.

- 5/ The equation with the conjugated field is linear, hence the general solution is a convolution of the form

$$\varphi_i(x) \simeq \int d^d x' \sum_j \chi_{ij}(x-x') h_j(x') \quad (30)$$

where $\chi_{ij}(x)$ is a *response function*.

- 6/ The two equations for φ_{\parallel} and $\vec{\varphi}_{\perp}$ are uncoupled, hence we can introduce $\chi^{\parallel}(x)$ for the equation for φ_{\parallel} and $\chi_{ij}^{\perp}(x)$ for the equation for $\vec{\varphi}_{\perp}$. They obey

$$\left(-\Delta + \frac{1}{\xi^2}\right) \chi^{\parallel}(x) \simeq \frac{1}{g} \delta(x) \quad (31)$$

$$-\Delta \chi_{ij}^{\perp}(x) \simeq \frac{1}{g} \delta_{ij} \delta(x) \quad (32)$$

i.e.

$$\tilde{\chi}^{\parallel}(q) = \frac{1/g}{q^2 + \xi^{-2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\chi}_{ij}^{\perp}(q) = \delta_{ij} \frac{1/g}{q^2} \quad (33)$$

The spatial structures are

$$\chi^{\parallel}(x) \sim e^{-\|x\|/\xi} \quad \text{at large distance} \quad (34)$$

$$\chi_{ij}^{\perp}(x) \sim \|x\|^{-d+2} \quad (35)$$

Parallel response function decays exponentially, however response perpendicular to $\phi_0 \vec{e}_1$ is long range.

- 7/ Thanks to the fluctuation-dissipation theorem, we can relate the equilibrium correlation function $C_{ij}(x-x') = \langle \varphi_i(x) \varphi_j(x') \rangle_c$ to the response function

$$C_{ij}(x) = k_B T \chi_{ij}(x). \quad (36)$$

Correspondingly correlations $\langle \varphi_{\parallel}(x) \varphi_{\parallel}(x') \rangle_c$ are *short range* (decay exponentially over distance ξ) while $\langle \varphi_{\perp,i}(x) \varphi_{\perp,j}(x') \rangle_c$ are *long range* (power law).

- 8/ **Goldstone theorem.**— In the scalar case studied in the lectures (case $N = 1$), for $T < T_c$, the field is trapped at $\phi(x) \simeq \phi_0$ or $-\phi_0$. Fluctuations are mainly small fluctuations around the minimum because overcoming the free energy barrier $\Delta f_L = f_L(0) - f_L(\phi_0)$ is a huge cost.

Here, for the vectorial model, there is a continuum of minima for $\|\vec{\phi}\| = \phi_0$. A rotation of the optimal solution does not cost energy, hence fluctuations perpendicular to the chosen direction ($\phi_0 \vec{e}_1$ above) are made easy. This is a general situation when the broken symmetry is **continous**. The Goldstone theorem states that the spontaneous breaking of a continuous symmetry is accompanied by the existence of massless modes, the so-called "Goldstone modes", (with long range correlations). Here the SSB scheme is $\text{SO}(N) \rightarrow \text{SO}(N-1)$, correspondingly there are $N-1$ Goldstone modes in the ordered phase.