

Chapter 2 Statistical Entropy and Boltzmann distribution

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Now that we have reviewed the concepts of thermodynamics we turn our attention to describing microstates - either classically or quantum mechanically

Quantum mechanics

From the point of view of quantum mechanics, the problem we need to solve is governed by Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} |\Psi(t)\rangle = \hat{H} |\Psi(t)\rangle$$

Where

$\hat{H} = \hat{H}(t)$ is the Hamiltonian for an isolated system at time t or for a Hamiltonian that interacts with the outside world

→ \hat{H} is independent of time if isolated, but could be dependent on time if it interacts

$|\Psi(t)\rangle$ is the state that describes the system at time t

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An equivalent formulation of the problem is given by applying a time evolution operator $U(t, t_0)$ to an initial state $|\Psi(t_0)\rangle$

The problem then is to calculate the time evolution operator which itself can be obtained by solving a Schrödinger-like equation

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} U(t, t_0) = \hat{H}(t) U(t, t_0)$$

Properties: (i) The time evolution operator is unitary

$$U^\dagger(t, t_0) = U^{-1}(t, t_0)$$

(ii) satisfies the group property

$$U(t, t_0) = U(t, t_1) U(t_1, t_0)$$

(iii) If \hat{H} is time independent

$$U(t, t_0) = \exp\left[-i\frac{\hat{H}(t-t_0)}{\hbar}\right]$$

If we consider that the state evolves, but (in the case of a time independent \hat{H}) operators do not we are in the so-called Schrödinger picture (in the case of a time-varying Hamiltonian we can define time-dependent operators)

We can define another picture where the state remains fixed - and operator changes with time)

take $|\psi(t)\rangle$ and apply the inverse operator of the time evolution operator \rightarrow takes us back to $|\psi(t_0)\rangle$

$$|\psi_t\rangle = |\psi(t_0)\rangle = U^\dagger(t, t_0) |\psi(t)\rangle$$

The key point is that whatever picture we choose, physical quantities must remain unaltered

In the case of QM \rightarrow physical quantities $\langle A \rangle_{\text{H}}$ average of operator A as a function of time

In the Schrödinger picture:

$$\hat{A} = \hat{A}(H)$$

$$\langle \hat{A} \rangle_s(t) = \langle \psi(t) | \hat{A}(t) | \psi(t) \rangle = \langle \psi(t_0) | U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{A}(t) U(t, t_0) | \psi(t_0) \rangle$$

$$\langle \hat{A}_s \rangle_s(t) = \langle \psi(t) | \hat{A}_s(t) | \psi(t_0) \rangle$$

since

$$\langle \hat{A} \rangle_s(t) = \langle \hat{A}_s \rangle_s(t)$$

$$\hat{A}_s(t) = U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{A}(t) U(t, t_0)$$

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For the special case of the Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H}_s(t) = U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{H}(t) U(t, t_0)$$

In the case where
 \hat{H} does not depend on time

$$\hat{A}_s = \hat{A} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

Proof $U(t, t_0) = \exp -i\hat{H}(t-t_0)/\hbar$ commutes with \hat{H} $\forall t$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{A}_s(t) = \hat{A} \underbrace{U^\dagger(t, t_0) U(t, t_0)}_{\text{II}} = \hat{A}$$

In the special case that

$$[\hat{H}(t_i), \hat{H}(t_j)] = 0 \quad \forall t_i, t_j$$

$$U(t, t_0) = \exp -i \int_{t_0}^t H(t) dt$$

and eq. ① also holds

Let's then calculate the derivative

$$i\hbar \frac{d\hat{A}_H}{dt} = i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} [U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{A}(t) U(t, t_0)] = i\hbar \left[\frac{d}{dt} U^\dagger(t, t_0) \right] \hat{A}(t) U(t, t_0) \\ + i\hbar U^\dagger(t, t_0) \frac{\partial \hat{A}(t)}{\partial t} U(t, t_0) + i\hbar U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{A}(t) \frac{d U(t, t_0)}{dt}$$

The complex conjugate operator obeys

$$-i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} U^\dagger(t, t_0) = U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{H}$$

Proof is straight forward:
the Hamiltonian is Hermitian



$$i\hbar \frac{d\hat{A}_H}{dt} = -i\hbar \underbrace{\frac{d}{dt} U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{H}}_{i\hbar} \hat{A}(t) U(t, t_0) + i\hbar U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{A}(t) \underbrace{\hat{H} U(t, t_0)}_{i\hbar} \\ + i\hbar U^\dagger(t, t_0) \frac{\partial \hat{A}(t)}{\partial t} U(t, t_0) \\ \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial A(H)}{\partial t} \right)_H}_{\hat{A}_H(t)} \\ = -U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{H}(t) U(t, t_0) U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{A}(t) U(t, t_0) \\ + U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{A}(t) U(t, t_0) U^\dagger(t, t_0) \hat{H}(t) U(t, t_0) + i\hbar \left(\frac{\partial A(t)}{\partial t} \right)_H \\ \underbrace{\hat{A}_H(t)}_{\hat{A}_H(t)} \quad \underbrace{\hat{H}_H(t)}_{\hat{H}_H(t)}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{d\hat{A}_H}{dt} = [\hat{A}_H(t), \hat{H}_H(t)] + i\hbar \frac{\partial A(t)}{\partial t}$$



We can also define a projection operator on a state $|\psi\rangle$

$$\mathcal{D} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$$

We note that

$$\text{Tr } |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \sum_n \langle n|\psi\rangle \times \psi|n\rangle$$

the trace is invariant under basis transformation so the choice of $\{|n\rangle\}$ is arbitrary.

where $\{|n\rangle\}$ forms a complete basis of orthonormal states

$$\Rightarrow \sum_n |n\rangle \langle n| = \mathbb{I}$$

$$= \sum_n \langle \psi|n\rangle \langle n|\psi\rangle = \langle \psi \left[\sum_n |n\rangle \langle n| \right] \psi \rangle = \langle \psi|\psi \rangle$$

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$$\langle A \rangle_{\psi} = \underbrace{\langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle}_{|A\rangle} = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi \left[\sum_n |n\rangle \langle n| \right] \psi \rangle = \sum_n \underbrace{\langle n | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | n \rangle}_{A|\psi\rangle}$$

$$= \sum_n \langle n | \left[A |\psi\rangle \langle \psi| \right] |n\rangle = \sum_n \langle n | A D | n \rangle = \underbrace{\text{Tr } AD}_{A|\psi\rangle}$$

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Let's now do the same thing but write the projection operator on a particular basis $\{|i\rangle\}$

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |i\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{D} = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \sum_{i,j} c_j^* c_i |i\rangle \langle j| \Rightarrow D_{ij} = c_i c_j^*$$

But what if we don't know what state the system is in?

Suppose all we know is the probability p_n of finding the system in a state $|\Psi_n\rangle$

$$|\Psi_n\rangle = \sum_i c_i^{(n)} |i\rangle$$

[It is important to note here that we are not talking about our system being in a particular state that is a combination of $|\Psi_n\rangle$]

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_n d_n |\Psi_n\rangle \quad d_n = \sqrt{p_n}$$

This would also imply that we "know" the exact state the system is in. We could apply a basis transformation to go back to $\{|i\rangle\}$, for example

The key point here is that we introduce a probability distribution for the microstates, thus defining a macrostate

$$\begin{aligned} |\Psi\rangle &\equiv \text{pure state} \\ \Rightarrow \{|\Psi_n\rangle, p_n\} &\equiv \text{statistical mixture} \end{aligned}$$

We then define the density operator

$$\mathcal{D} = \sum_n |\Psi_n\rangle p_n \langle \Psi_n|$$

In the special case that \mathcal{D} is given by a pure state it is always possible to find a single $|\Psi\rangle$ for which

$$\mathcal{D} = \underbrace{|\Psi\rangle \langle \Psi|}_{\text{projection operator on state } |\Psi\rangle}$$

For a pure state

$$\langle A \rangle = \text{Tr } AD = \langle \Psi | A | \Psi \rangle$$

For a mixed state

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_i c_i |i\rangle$$

$$\langle A \rangle_{\Psi} = \sum_j c_j^* \langle j | \hat{A} \sum_i c_i | i \rangle = \sum_{ij} c_j^* c_i \langle j | \hat{A} | i \rangle$$

Because the basis is arbitrary I'll choose a basis that is an eigenbasis of \hat{A}

$$|i\rangle = |\alpha_i\rangle \quad \langle i | j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

$$\langle A \rangle_{\Psi} = \sum_i |c_i|^2 \alpha_i$$

probability of measuring the particle in state $|i\rangle$

We then define the average of an operator in a mixed state

$$\langle A \rangle = \sum_n p_n \langle \Psi_n | \hat{A} | \Psi_n \rangle$$

↑
the microstates are independent

$$= \sum_i \sum_n p_n \langle \Psi_n | i \rangle \langle i | \hat{A} | \Psi_n \rangle = \sum_{ijn} \langle i | \hat{A} | \Psi_n \rangle p_n \langle \Psi_n | i \rangle$$

$$= \sum_i \langle i | \hat{A} \sum_n |\Psi_n\rangle \underbrace{\langle \Psi_n | p_n | i \rangle}_{D} = \text{Tr } \hat{A} D$$

Properties of D

(i) $D = D^*$ Hermitian (the p_n 's are real)

(ii) $\text{Tr } D = \sum_n p_n = 1$

$$\sum_i \langle i | D | i \rangle = \sum_i \sum_n \langle i | \Psi_n \rangle p_n \langle \Psi_n | i \rangle = \sum_i \sum_n \sum_{j,j'} \underbrace{\delta_{jj'}}_{\delta_{ij}} \underbrace{\sum_{j,j'} c_j^{(n)} c_{j'}^*}_{c_j^{(n)}} \langle i | j \rangle p_n c_j^* \langle j' | i \rangle$$

$$|\Psi_n\rangle = \sum_j c_j^{(n)} |j\rangle$$

$$1 = \langle \Psi_n | \Psi_n \rangle = \sum_j |c_j^{(n)}|^2 \quad \forall n \quad = \sum_i \sum_n p_n |c_i^{(n)}|^2 = \sum_n p_n \sum_i |c_i^{(n)}|^2 = 1$$

(iv) $D^2 = D$ for a pure state

If D is a pure state

$$D = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| \Rightarrow D^2 = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| \underbrace{|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|}_{1} \langle\psi| = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = D$$

(normalized)

If D is a statistical mixture

$$D = \sum_n |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n| p_n$$

$$D^2 = \sum_{n,n'} |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n| p_n |\psi_{n'}\rangle p_{n'} \langle\psi_{n'}| = \sum_{n,n'} |\psi_n\rangle p_n \alpha_{nn'} p_{n'} \langle\psi_{n'}|$$

In the special case that all states are orthogonal
not the same state

$$\alpha_{nn'} = \delta_{nn'}$$

This would mean

$$= \sum_n p_n^2 |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n| \quad p_n^2 = p_n + \epsilon_n$$

$$\Rightarrow p_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \\ 0 & \end{cases}$$

↓
pure state

and there can be only one value of $p_n = 1$, all the remaining ones must be zero

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Now, considering our definition of the density operator we can define its evolution

$$D(t_0) = \sum_n p_n |\psi_n(t_0)\rangle\langle\psi_n(t_0)|$$

The density operator is in a statistical mixture of states at time t_0

(9)

$$D(t) = \sum_n |\psi_n(t)\rangle p_n \langle \psi_n(t)| = \sum_n U(t,t_0) |\psi(t_0)\rangle p_0 \langle \psi(t_0)| U^{-1}(t,t_0)$$

$$= U(t,t_0) \underbrace{\sum_n |\psi(t_0)\rangle p_0 \langle \psi(t_0)|}_{D(t_0)} U^{-1}(t,t_0)$$

$$D(t) = \underbrace{U(t,t_0) D(t_0) U^{-1}(t,t_0)}$$

different from typical operators.

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$$i\hbar \frac{dD(t)}{dt} = i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} U(t,t_0) D(t_0) U^{-1}(t,t_0) + i\hbar U(t,t_0) D(t_0) \frac{dU^{-1}(t,t_0)}{dt}$$

$D(t_0)$ does not depend on

$$= \underbrace{i\hbar \hat{H} U(t,t_0) D(t_0) U^{-1}(t,t_0)}_{D(t)} - \underbrace{U(t,t_0) D(t_0) U^{-1}(t,t_0) \hat{H}(t)}_{D(t)}$$

$$= [\hat{H}(t), D(t)]$$

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Γ We note that in the Heisenberg picture the state does not depend on time \Rightarrow the density operator does not depend on time

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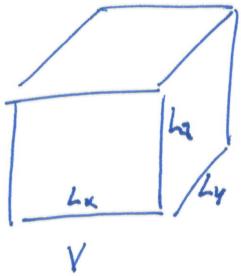
Generalizing for a mixed state evolving in time

$$\langle A \rangle(t) = \text{Tr } A(t) D(t) = \text{Tr } A_H(t) D_H$$

$$D_H = D(t_0)$$

Let's now solve the problem of particles in a box

The particles are free inside the box



$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi(\vec{r}) = E \psi(\vec{r})$$

Taking the limit of a large box with periodic boundary conditions

$$\psi(0, y, z) = \psi(L_x, y, z)$$

$$\psi(x, 0, z) = \psi(x, L_y, z)$$

$$\psi(x, y, 0) = \psi(x, y, L_z)$$

Equation is separable with solution

$$\psi(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_x L_y L_z}} e^{i \vec{k}_n \cdot \vec{r}} \quad \text{with} \quad \frac{\hbar^2 k_n^2}{2m} = E$$

From the boundary condition we get

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{L_x L_y L_z}} e^{i(k_n^y y + k_n^z z)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_x L_y L_z}} e^{i k_n^x L_x} e^{i(k_n^y y + k_n^z z)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = e^{i k_n^x L_x} \Rightarrow k_n^x L_x = 2\pi n_x \\ k_n^x = \frac{2\pi n_x}{L_x} \quad k_n^y = \frac{2\pi n_y}{L_y} \quad k_n^z = \frac{2\pi n_z}{L_z}$$

In each direction we notice that the difference between consecutive quantum numbers n_i is

$$\Delta k_i^n = \frac{2\pi}{L_i} \Delta n_i$$

so the volume in k space of small variations between states is

$$\rho(\vec{n}) = \frac{L_x}{2\pi} \frac{L_y}{2\pi} \frac{L_z}{2\pi} \sim \frac{L_x L_y L_z}{(2\pi)^3} = \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \sim \text{density of states in } k \text{ space}$$

For a free particle $\vec{p} = \hbar \vec{k}$

$$E(\vec{k}) = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \frac{P^2}{2m}$$

Let's say we want to calculate a quantity that is better defined in the energy domain.

$$\Phi = \int g(E) \rho(E) dE$$

(number of states in the energy range $\{E, E+dE\}$)

The same quantity can be calculated by considering all possible states in k -space

$$V/(2\pi)^3$$

$$\Phi = \int g(E) \underbrace{\rho(\vec{k})}_{\text{function of } k} d^3k \rightarrow k^2 d\Omega_k dk$$

but ~~$d\Omega_k$~~

$$E(\vec{p}) = \frac{P^2}{2m} \quad \text{does not depend on direction}$$

$$dE = \frac{2P dP}{2m} = \frac{P dP}{m} \quad k = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}$$

$$= 4\pi \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \int g(E) k^2 dk = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \int g(E) \frac{k m}{\hbar^2} dE$$

$$\Phi = \int g(E) \underbrace{\frac{Vm}{2\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2mE)^{1/2}}_{\rho(E)} dE$$

$\rho(E)$ = density of states

For an ideal non-interacting quantum gas

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m} \left(\frac{n_x^2}{L_x^2} + \frac{n_y^2}{L_y^2} + \frac{n_z^2}{L_z^2} \right)$$

If we consider that in equilibrium the system is isotropic

$$\frac{\langle n_x^2 \rangle}{L_x^2} = \frac{\langle n_y^2 \rangle}{L_y^2} = \frac{\langle n_z^2 \rangle}{L_z^2}$$

the average of the square of the momentum squared is the same in all directions

$$\langle \mathcal{E} \rangle = \frac{3\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m} \frac{\langle n_x^2 \rangle}{L_x^2}$$

$$\frac{\langle n_x^2 \rangle}{L_x^2} = \frac{2m \langle \mathcal{E} \rangle}{3\hbar^2 \pi^2}$$

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Varying the size of the box in x

$$\frac{\partial \langle \mathcal{E}_r \rangle}{\partial L_x} = - \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m} \frac{2\langle n_x^2 \rangle}{L_x^3} = - \frac{2}{L_x^2} \underbrace{\frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m} \frac{\langle n_x^2 \rangle}{L_x^2}}_{\langle \mathcal{E} \rangle} \frac{\langle \mathcal{E} \rangle}{3}$$

$$= - \frac{2}{3L_x} \langle \mathcal{E} \rangle$$

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If the system is isolated $\delta Q = 0$

$$dE = dW = - P_{Ly} L_z dL_x$$

$$\frac{dE}{dL_x} = - P_{Ly} L_z$$

$$-\frac{2}{3L_x} \langle \mathcal{E} \rangle = - P_{Ly} L_z$$

$$PV = \frac{2}{3} \langle \mathcal{E} \rangle$$

Classical Mechanics

$$H(q_i, p_i) = \sum_i \frac{p_i^2}{2m} + \sum_i U(q_i) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} U(q_i, p_i)$$

Hamilton's equations

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} = \dot{q}_i \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} = -\dot{p}_i$$

We then define a phase space by the set of coordinates (q_i, p_i) microstate $\rightarrow (q_i(t), p_i(t))$

Obs: A trajectory in phase-space cannot self intersect (unless the system is cyclic)

→ deterministic \Rightarrow the microstate is uniquely defined

Time evolution

$$q'_i = q_i + \dot{q}_i dt = q_i + \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} dt$$

$$p'_i = p_i + \dot{p}_i dt = p_i - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} dt$$

vector quantity

$$\begin{pmatrix} q'_i \\ p'_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} q_i \\ p_i \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \dot{q}_i \\ \dot{p}_i \end{pmatrix} dt$$

Let's then say we want to integrate over the phase space

$$dq_i dp_i$$

If we want to perform this integral at a time of later

$$dq'_i dp'_i$$

$$\Rightarrow dq_i dp_i = \underbrace{\left| \frac{\partial (q_i, p_i)}{\partial (q'_i, p'_i)} \right|}_{\text{Determinant of the Jacobian}} dq'_i dp'_i$$

$$\frac{\partial(q'_i, p'_i)}{\partial(q_i, p_i)} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial q'_i}{\partial q_i} & \frac{\partial q'_i}{\partial p_i} \\ \frac{\partial p'_i}{\partial q_i} & \frac{\partial p'_i}{\partial p_i} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_i \partial q_i} dt & \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_i^2} dt \\ -\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial q_i^2} dt & 1 - \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_i \partial q_i} dt \end{pmatrix}$$

$$J(t) = \left| \frac{\partial(q'_i, p'_i)}{\partial(q_i, p_i)} \right| = 1 - \left(\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_i \partial q_i} dt \right)^2 + \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial p_i^2} dt \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial q_i^2} dt = 1 + O(dt^2)$$

to order dt the Jacobian is independent of time

$$\frac{d J(t)}{dt} = 0$$

$$J = 1$$

$$\mathcal{V}_i dq_i dp_i = \mathcal{V} dq'_i dp'_i$$

The volume in phase-space
is constant

Liouville's theorem.

Density

A microstate is defined as a set of particles in a set of coordinates in phase space $\{\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i\}$

A macrostate will be an average of microstates.

We then define the probability of observing a particular microstate

$$\mathcal{D}(\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i, t) \quad \text{at } t=0 \quad \mathcal{D}(\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i, t=0) = \mathcal{D}_0(\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i)$$

If we integrate over the entire phase space we must get 1

$$\Rightarrow C \prod_{i=1}^N d^3p_i d^3r_i \mathcal{D}_0(\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i) = \int dP \mathcal{D}_0(\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i)$$

where $dP = C \prod_{i=1}^N d^3p_i d^3r_i$

in principle, an arbitrary constant

The same is valid for any time +

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considering the conservation of probability

$$\mathcal{D}(q(t+dt), p(t+dt), t+dt) dq' dp' = \mathcal{D}(q(t), p(t), t) dq dp$$

From Liouville's theorem

$$dq' dp' = dq dp$$

Taylor expanding the LHS

$$\mathcal{D}(q(t+dt), p(t+dt), t+dt) = \mathcal{D}(q(t), p(t), t) + \frac{\partial \mathcal{D}}{\partial q} \frac{\partial q}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial \mathcal{D}}{\partial p} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial \mathcal{D}}{\partial t}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left\{ \underbrace{\frac{\partial D}{\partial q} \dot{q} + \frac{\partial D}{\partial p} \dot{p} + \frac{\partial D}{\partial t}}_{=0} \right\} dt = 0$$

arbitrary

This means that $\frac{dD}{dt} = 0$

For N particles with components $\alpha \in \{x, y, z\}$

$$\sum_{i\alpha} \left(\frac{\partial D}{\partial q_{i\alpha}} \dot{q}_{i\alpha} + \frac{\partial D}{\partial p_{i\alpha}} \dot{p}_{i\alpha} \right) + \frac{\partial D}{\partial t}$$

$\uparrow \quad \uparrow$
 $\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{i\alpha}} \quad - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_{i\alpha}}$

$$\{H, D\} + \frac{dD}{dt}$$

$$\text{where } \{H, D\} = \sum_{i\alpha} \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{i\alpha}} \frac{\partial D}{\partial q_{i\alpha}} - \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_{i\alpha}} \frac{\partial D}{\partial p_{i\alpha}} \right)$$

Poisson bracket

$\rightarrow \rightarrow$

For a general dynamical variable

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \{H, A\} + \frac{dA}{dt}$$

and

$$\langle A \rangle(t) = \int dx D(x(t), t) A(x) - \int dx \rho_0(x) A(x(t), t)$$