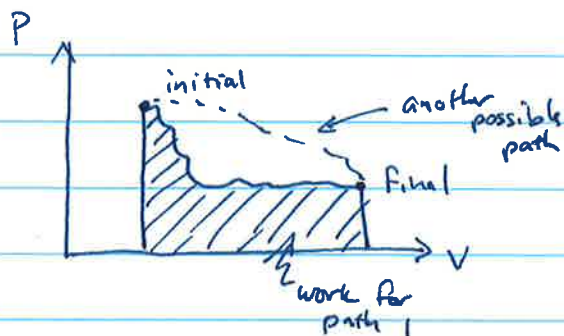


State Variables

$Q(N, V, T)$

$P, V, T$ , ~~chemical potential~~ or any 2 of them.



P ressure is a force per area

$$\frac{f}{A} = P$$

$$f = PA$$



$$W = \int_i^f P dV$$

$$\text{work} = f \Delta L$$

$$f = P \cdot A$$

$$\text{work} = P A \Delta L$$

$$W = P \Delta V$$

So work will depend on the path we take from initial to final states.

If there is a function that does not depend on path:

i.e.

$$\int_i^f dU = U_f - U_i = \Delta U$$

U is then called a state function and its value depends only on current state of the system ( $P, V, T$ ) and not on the path we took to get there

State Functions

- U = total energy
- S = total entropy
- H = enthalpy
- G = gibbs free energy
- A = Helmholtz free energy

Non-state functions

- work (w)
- heat (q)

PV

Ties between what we've done so far:

$\rho(\vec{q}, \vec{p})$  = density of our ensemble near point  $\vec{q}, \vec{p}$  in phase space

$$S \equiv -k_B \iint \rho(\vec{q}, \vec{p}) \ln \left[ \frac{\rho(\vec{q}, \vec{p})}{h^{3N}} \right] d\vec{q} d\vec{p}$$

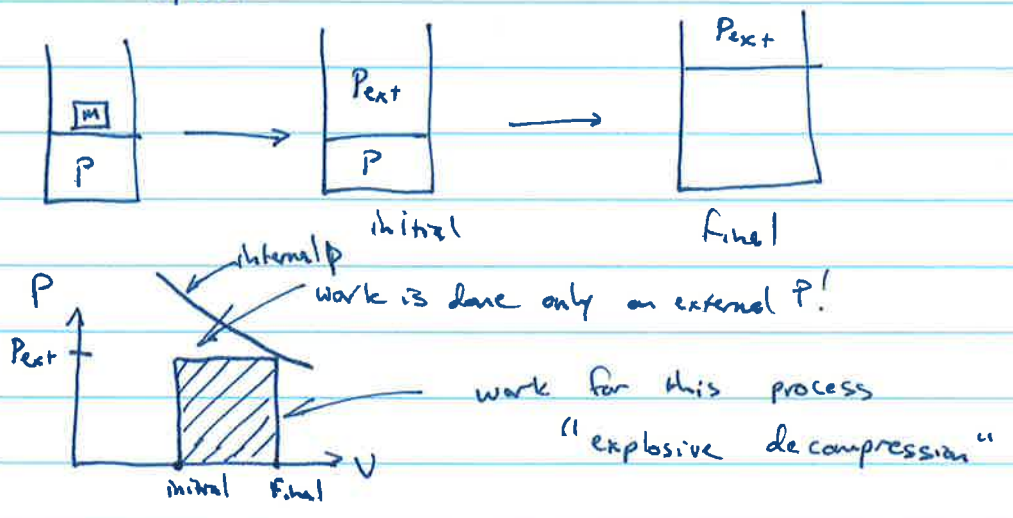
definition of the entropy of an ensemble

$U = \langle E \rangle = - \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta} \right)$   
 $A = -$

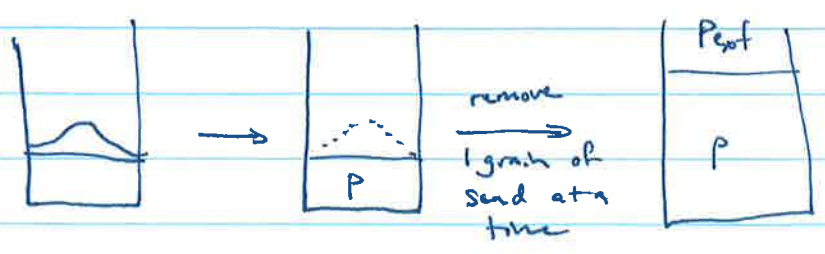
Reversible processes:

We must have  $P_{ext} > P$  to compress a gas  
 or  $P_{ext} < P$  to expand a gas

Consider this expansion:

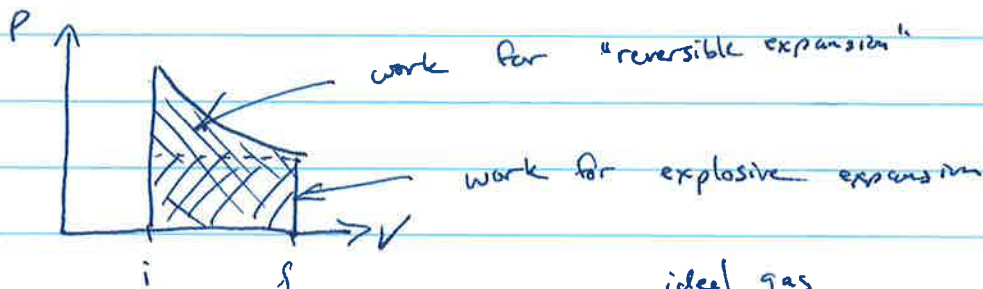


Another way to do the same expansion



15-3

Here,  $P_{ext}$  is kept just barely above  $P$  for the entire expansion



$$W_{rev} = - \int_{init}^{final} P_{internal} dV \quad \xrightarrow{\text{ideal gas}} \quad = - \int_{init}^{final} \frac{nRT}{V} dV$$
$$= -nRT \int_{i}^{f} \frac{dV}{V} = -nRT \left[ \ln V \right]_{V_i}^{V_f}$$

$$W_{rev} = -nRT \ln \frac{V_f}{V_i}$$

If  $V_f > V_i$ ,  $-W_{rev} \leq 0$ , so the system has done work  
( $\oplus \rightarrow$  surroundings do work)

If  $V_f < V_i$ ,  $W_{rev} > 0$ , so the surroundings did work on the system

Energy is a state function

$$\int_1^2 \delta w \leftarrow \text{exact differential} = w \leftarrow \text{path function}$$

$$\int_1^2 \delta q = q \leftarrow \text{heat \& work are both path functions}$$

$$\int_1^2 \delta u \leftarrow \text{exact differential} = u_2 - u_1 = \Delta u$$

15-4

Both heat & work are forms of energy, so if we lose energy going from 1 state to another, it goes in to heat or work or a combination of the 2:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} dU &= \delta q + \delta w \\ \Delta U &= q + w \end{aligned} \right\} \text{forms of the 1st law}$$

1<sup>st</sup> thing to notice:

$\delta q$  &  $\delta w$  are path dependent, but their sum  $dU$  is not

2<sup>nd</sup> thing to notice: this is a conservation law

If we make a complicated path



$\Delta U$  for this must be 0!

- 1) total work + heat is conserved
- 2) total energy is conserved.



Energy laws tend to favor stable equilibria

(16-1)

$$S \equiv k_B \ln W$$

↑ entropy

← degeneracy or multiplicity of microscopic states that make up macroscopic state

Maximizing entropy also maximizes  $W$

Connecting  $W$  to state probabilities:

$$W = \frac{N!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_L!}$$

←  $N$  trials with  $\pm$  possible outcomes

$n_i = \#$  of outcomes in state  $i$

Stirling's approximation

$$\begin{aligned} \ln n! &\approx n \ln(n) - n \\ &\approx n \ln(n) - n \ln(e) \\ &= n \ln\left(\frac{n}{e}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ln n! &= \ln\left(\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n\right) \\ n! &\approx \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \end{aligned}$$

∴

$$W = \frac{(N/e)^N}{\left(\frac{n_1}{e}\right)^{n_1} \left(\frac{n_2}{e}\right)^{n_2} \dots \left(\frac{n_L}{e}\right)^{n_L}}$$

Since  $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_L = N$   
there are the same number of  $e$ 's on top and bottom, so:

$$W = \frac{N^N}{n_1^{n_1} n_2^{n_2} \dots n_L^{n_L}}$$

And, since  $P_1 = \frac{n_1}{N}$ ,  $P_2 = \frac{n_2}{N}$

$$P_1^{n_1} = \frac{n_1^{n_1}}{N^{n_1}}, \quad P_2^{n_2} = \frac{n_2^{n_2}}{N^{n_2}}$$

We have:

$$W = \frac{N^N}{n_1^{n_1} n_2^{n_2} \dots n_t^{n_t}} = \frac{N^{n_1} \cdot N^{n_2} \dots N^{n_t}}{n_1^{n_1} \cdot n_2^{n_2} \dots n_t^{n_t}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_t^{n_t}}$$

Entropy is in terms of  $\ln W$ , so:

$$\ln W = \ln 1 - n_1 \ln p_1 - n_2 \ln p_2 \dots - n_t \ln p_t$$

$$\ln W = - \sum_{i=1}^t n_i \ln p_i$$

$$\frac{1}{N} \ln W = - \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{n_i}{N} \ln p_i = - \sum_{i=1}^t p_i \ln p_i$$

$$\frac{S}{N k_B} = - \sum_{i=1}^t p_i \ln p_i$$

← probability of outcome  $i$

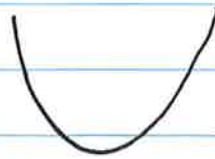
Entropy is a function of the distribution of state probabilities!

What distribution of  $p_i$  values will maximize the entropy?

Extremum Principles

Stable:

$f(x)$

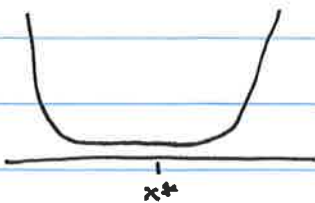


$$f(x) - f(x^*) > 0 \quad \forall x \neq x^*$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{x^*} = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}\right)_{x^*} > 0$$

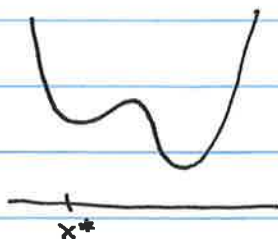
Neutral:



$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{x^*} = 0$$

and  $\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}\right)_{x^*} = 0$

Metastable:



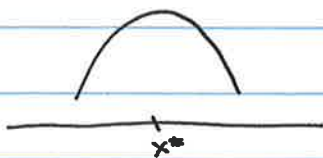
$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{x^*} = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}\right)_{x^*} > 0$$

$$f(x) - f(x^*) > 0$$

for small  $|x - x^*|$   
but not for all  $x$

Unstable:

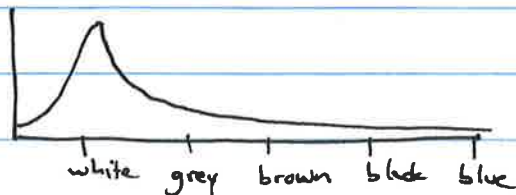


$$\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)_{x^*} = 0$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}\right)_{x^*} < 0$$

Maximizing Entropy

$P(\text{socks})$



low-entropy distribution

high-entropy distribution



What distribution will give us the maximum entropy?

$$\frac{dS}{dp_i} = 0 \quad \text{for all } p_i \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d^2 S}{dp_i^2} < 0$$

There is a constraint, however:

$$\sum_{i=1}^t P_i = 1 \quad \leftarrow \text{total probability must be conserved}$$

Method of Lagrange Multipliers applied to Maximizing Entropy

$$S = -k \sum_i P_i \ln P_i$$

$$\delta S = -k \sum_i (\ln P_i + 1) dP_i \quad \leftarrow \text{won't preserve constraint}$$

$$F = -k \sum_i P_i \ln P_i + \alpha P_i$$

$$\delta F = -k \sum_i (\ln P_i + 1 + \alpha) dP_i \quad \leftarrow \text{will preserve constraint}$$

" 0

$\leftarrow$  if all of these are zero, the sum over  $i$  will also be zero

$\leftarrow$  Probability of state  $i$  that maximizes entropy

$$-k(\ln P_i^* + 1 + \alpha) = 0$$

$$\ln P_i^* = -1 - \alpha$$

$$P_i^* = e^{-1-\alpha} \quad \leftarrow \text{no dependence on the state } i$$

Conservation

$$\sum_{i=1}^t P_i^* = t(e^{-\alpha-1}) = 1$$

$$\text{so } e^{-\alpha-1} = \frac{1}{t} \quad \leftarrow \text{solves Lagrange multiplier } \alpha \text{ in terms of number of states } t.$$

And individual state probabilities:

$$\frac{P_i^*}{\sum_i P_i^*} = \frac{e^{-1-\alpha}}{t(e^{-\alpha-1})} = \frac{1}{t}$$

Maximum entropy = Equal a priori probabilities = probability independent of state



There's one more constraint

$$U = \langle E \rangle = \frac{E}{N} = \sum_{i=1}^t p_i \epsilon_i$$

Moving probability around must conserve total energy as well as total probability

$\therefore \delta F = 0$  where second Lagrange multiplier

$$F = -k \sum_{i=1}^t [p_i \ln p_i + \alpha p_i + \beta \epsilon_i p_i]$$

$$\delta F = -k \sum_{i=1}^t [\ln p_i^* + 1 + \alpha + \beta \epsilon_i] dp_i = 0$$

||  
0  $\leftarrow$  same logic. total sum will be zero when each contribution is zero

$$\ln p_i^* + 1 + \alpha + \beta \epsilon_i = 0$$

$$\ln p_i^* = -1 - \alpha - \beta \epsilon_i$$

$$p_i^* = e^{-1-\alpha} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}$$

Now we need to apply the constraints:

$$\sum_{i=1}^t p_i^* = 1 = \sum_{i=1}^t e^{-1-\alpha} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} = \underbrace{e^{-1-\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^t e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}}_{\text{conservation of probability}} = 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^t e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} = e^{1+\alpha} \rightarrow \text{let's call this total} = q$$

Now the energy constraint:

$$\langle E \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^t \epsilon_i p_i = \sum_{i=1}^t e^{-1-\alpha} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} \epsilon_i = \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{1}{q} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} \epsilon_i$$

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{1}{q} \sum_{i=1}^t \epsilon_i e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}$$

$\nwarrow$  this second Lagrange multiplier is why we use  $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$

State variables

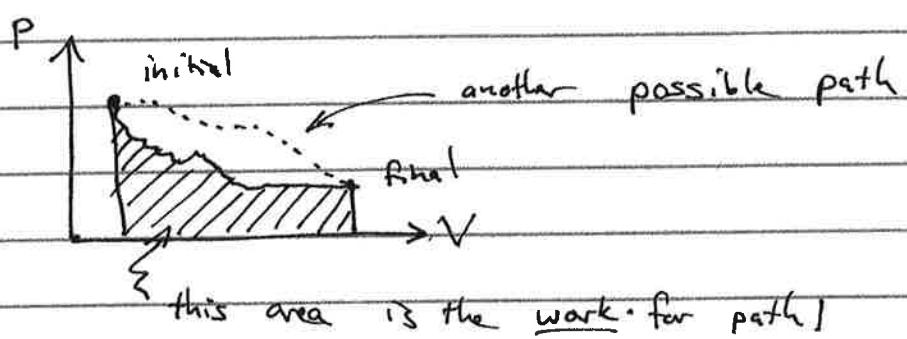
$P_1, V_1, T_1$

→ add heat  $q$   
under various conditions

→ calculate  $w$   
 $P_2, V_2, T_2, \Delta U$   
and  $\Delta S$

If we change the state variables, we can

do work:



Work depends on the path we take from initial to final states

$$\delta W = - \int_i^f P dV$$

1<sup>st</sup> law of thermodynamics:

$dU = \delta W + \delta q$
----------------------------

↖ state function      ↗ path dependent

A state function doesn't depend on the path we take, just on the initial & final states:

$$\int_i^f dU = U_f - U_i = \Delta U$$

$\delta q > 0$  when heat flows into a system

$\delta W > 0$  when work is performed on a system

Examples of State Functions

- $U$  = internal energy
- $S$  = entropy
- $H$  = enthalpy
- $G$  = gibbs free energy
- $A$  = Helmholtz free energy

Non-state functions

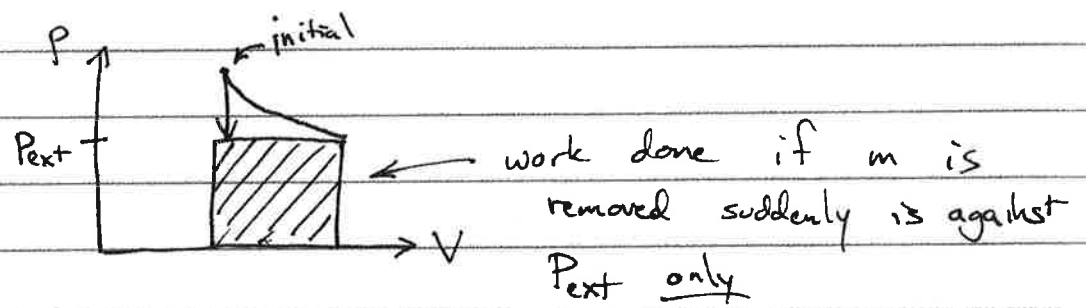
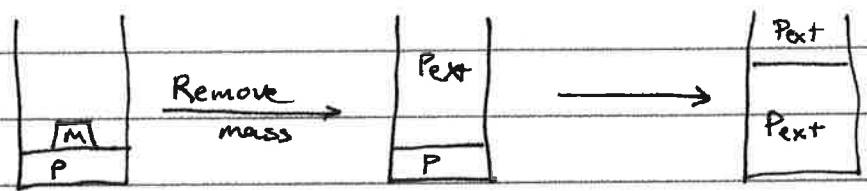
- work ( $w$ )
- heat ( $q$ )

Pressure-Volume work :  $\delta w = -P_{ext}dV$

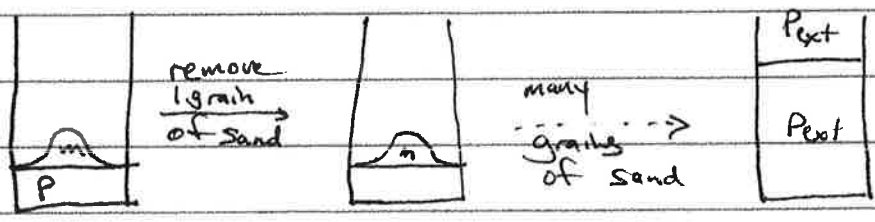
valid only if the expansion or compression occurs very slowly in a quasistatic process

Note:  $\delta w > 0$  if  $dV < 0$  work done on system

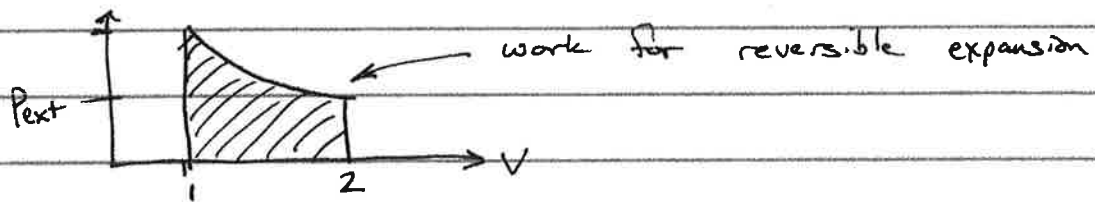
Consider this expansion:



Another way to do the same expansion



In this gradual expansion, the external pressure is kept just above  $P$  for the entire expansion



$$w_{\text{rev}} = - \int_1^2 P_{\text{internal}} dV$$

If the gas is an ideal gas,  $P = \frac{nRT}{V}$

$$w_{\text{rev}} = - \int_1^2 \frac{nRT}{V} dV = -nRT \int_1^2 \frac{1}{V} dV$$

$$= -nRT [\ln V]_1^2 = -nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

- If  $V_2 > V_1$ ,  $w_{\text{rev}} \leq 0$  so the system has done work (remember,  $\oplus \rightarrow$  surroundings do work)
- If  $V_2 < V_1$ ,  $w_{\text{rev}} > 0$ , so the surroundings did work on the gas.
- Reversible (isothermal) expansions & compressions make  $w_{\text{rev}}$  as close as possible to zero!



# Heat

- Heat describes energy transfer via thermal exchange
- Heat capacity is heat uptake per unit temperature change:

$$C_V = \left( \frac{\delta q}{\delta T} \right)_V = \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)$$

↖ ↗ since V is fixed  
δW = 0

Energy is a state function:

$$\int_1^2 \delta w = w \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{inexact differential} \\ \text{path function} \end{array}$$

$$\int_1^2 \delta q = q \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{heat \& work are generally} \\ \text{path functions} \end{array}$$

$$\int_1^2 du = u_2 - u_1 = \Delta U$$

↖ ↗ exact differential

If V is fixed:

$$\Delta U = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} C_V(T) dT = C_V (T_2 - T_1)$$

↖ ↗ only if C<sub>V</sub> is constant  
over temperature range T<sub>1</sub> → T<sub>2</sub>

In general, C<sub>V</sub>(T) must be measured experimentally or derived from statistical mechanics. Thermodynamics alone cannot deduce it.

Let's explore ideal gases for a bit:

$$U = U(T, V) \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{internal energy, } \langle E \rangle \text{ depends only} \\ \text{on these because } Q(N, V, T) \\ U = \frac{\langle E \rangle}{N} \end{array}$$

So:

$$dU = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V}_{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{exact} \\ \text{differential}}} dT + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T}_{\substack{\nearrow \\ \text{all the stuff } U \\ \text{can depend on.}}} dV$$

We know:

$$\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T = 0 \quad \text{for an ideal gas}$$

(they don't interact so their energy can't depend on density changes.)

$$dU = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V dT = C_V dT$$

We've derived  $C_V = \frac{3}{2}R$  for an ideal gas,

$$\Delta U = C_V (T_2 - T_1)$$

## Reversible processes

Consider 3 possibilities

- 1) work  $\rightarrow$  work
- 2) work  $\rightarrow$  heat
- 3) heat  $\rightarrow$  work

1) in principle, work  $\rightarrow$  work can be done with 100% efficiency (if friction can be eliminated)  
 typical electric motors convert electricity to mechanical work with 95% efficiency

2) work  $\rightarrow$  heat can be done with 100% efficiency (sandpaper, stinky water)

3) heat  $\rightarrow$  work is only possible with efficiencies  
 $< 30\% - 50\%$

Why?

- Interconverting work <sup>with maximal efficiency</sup> just requires slow conversion (quasistatic)
- Heat  $\rightarrow$  work with maximal efficiency requires reversible processes.

A reversible process is one in which returning the system to its initial state also returns the surroundings to their initial conditions

$$dS = \frac{\delta q_{\text{rev}}}{T} \quad \text{for a reversible process}$$

$$\delta q_{\text{rev}} = dU = C_V dT$$

$$\Delta S = \int_{T_A}^{T_B} \frac{C_V}{T} dT = C_V \ln\left(\frac{T_B}{T_A}\right)$$

$\uparrow$   
 any reversible  
 process

$\uparrow$   
 only if  $C_V$  is constant  
 like an ideal gas.

Next time we'll go into the 4 basic kinds of transformation we can do to an ideal gas.

A review:

(17-1)

$$S \equiv k_B \ln W$$

Stirling's approximation (and countable states) gave us

$$S = -k_B \sum_i p_i \ln p_i$$

The Second Law of thermodynamics tells us to maximize  $S$  subject to constraints:  $\sum_i p_i = 1$  &  $\langle E \rangle = \sum_i p_i \epsilon_i$

$$F = -k_B \left[ \sum_i p_i \ln p_i + \alpha (\sum_i p_i - 1) + \beta (\sum_i \epsilon_i p_i - \langle E \rangle) \right]$$

$$\left( \frac{\partial F}{\partial p_i} \right)_{p_i^*} = 0 = -k_B \left[ (\ln p_i + 1) + \alpha + \beta \epsilon_i \right] = 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow \ln p_i^* + 1 = -\alpha - \beta \epsilon_i$$

$$p_i^* = e^{-1-\alpha} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}$$

Now apply constraints:

$$\sum_i p_i^* = e^{-1-\alpha} \underbrace{\sum_i e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}}_Q = 1$$

$\therefore$

$$e^{-1-\alpha} = \frac{1}{Q}$$

$$\therefore p_i^* = \frac{1}{Q} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}$$

$$U = \langle E \rangle = \sum_i p_i^* \epsilon_i = \frac{1}{Q} \sum_i \epsilon_i e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}$$

This is now on firm footing from  $S = k_B \ln W$  and 2<sup>nd</sup> Law



Also:  $P_i^* = \frac{1}{Q} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i}$

$$\ln P_i^* = -\beta \epsilon_i - \ln Q$$

$$P_i^* \ln P_i^* = -\beta \epsilon_i P_i^* - \ln Q P_i^* \\ = -\beta \epsilon_i \left( \frac{1}{Q} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} \right) - \ln Q \left( \frac{1}{Q} e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} \right)$$

$$\therefore S = -k_B \left[ \frac{-\beta}{Q} \sum_i \epsilon_i e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} - \frac{\ln Q}{Q} \sum_i e^{-\beta \epsilon_i} \right]$$

$$= -k_B \left[ -\frac{1}{k_B T} \langle E \rangle - \ln Q \right]$$

$$S = \frac{U}{T} + k_B \ln Q$$

$S = k_B \ln \Omega$	$S = \frac{U}{T} + k_B \ln Q$	$dS = \frac{\delta q_{rev}}{T}$
----------------------	-------------------------------	---------------------------------

↗ All are equivalent expressions for the entropy!

We can now connect one of the free energies to  $Q$

Helmholtz free energy:  $A = U - TS$

$$A = U - T \left( \frac{U}{T} + k_B \ln Q \right)$$

$$= U - U - k_B T \ln Q$$

$A = -k_B T \ln Q$
--------------------

← Helmholtz free energy is directly related to canonical (NVT) ensemble!

17-3

Some more revelations:

We know  $Q$  is a function of  $N, V, T$  (or  $N, V, \beta$ ):  
and energy (total) depends on  $N$  and  $V$  <sup>can why?</sup>  
 $\uparrow$   
molecules

$\therefore$  the state probability:  $P_j = \frac{e^{-\beta E_j(N, V)}}{Q(N, V, \beta)} = P_j(N, V, \beta)$

Let's write out an expression for energy (thermodynamic)

$$U = \langle E \rangle = \sum_j P_j E_j = \sum_j P_j(N, V, \beta) E_j(N, V)$$

To make a total differential,

$$dU = \sum_j P_j dE_j + \sum_j E_j dP_j$$

And we know

$$dE_j = \left( \frac{\partial E_j}{\partial N} \right) dN + \left( \frac{\partial E_j}{\partial V} \right) dV$$

$\uparrow$  due to translational states

If we keep  $N$  fixed, like in a closed box,

$$dE_j = \left( \frac{\partial E_j}{\partial V} \right) dV$$

$$dU = \sum_j P_j \left( \frac{\partial E_j}{\partial V} \right) dV + \sum_j E_j dP_j$$

Compare this to the thermodynamic definition

$$dU = \delta w_{\text{rev}} + \delta q_{\text{rev}}$$

$$= -P dV + \delta q_{\text{rev}}$$

17-4

Therefore

$$\text{pressure } P = - \sum_j P_j(N, V, \beta) \left( \frac{\partial E_j}{\partial V} \right)_N$$
$$= - \left\langle \left( \frac{\partial E}{\partial V} \right)_N \right\rangle$$

And more importantly,

$$\delta q_{\text{rev}} = \sum_j E_j \delta P_j$$

From thermodynamic definition of  $S$ ,

$$dS = \frac{\delta q_{\text{rev}}}{T}$$

We now have

$$T dS = \sum_j E_j \delta P_j$$

(This was a missing piece in our Lagrange multipliers.)

Consider a reaction



$$Q_{\text{reactant}} = \frac{q_{AB}^{N_{AB}} q_{CD}^{N_{CD}}}{N_{AB}! N_{CD}!}$$

$$Q_{\text{product}} = \frac{q_{AC}^{N_{AC}} q_{BD}^{N_{BD}}}{N_{AC}! N_{BD}!}$$

$$\Delta A = A_{\text{prod}} - A_{\text{react}}$$

$$= -k_B T \ln Q_{\text{product}} - (-k_B T \ln Q_{\text{reactant}})$$

$$\Delta A = -k_B T \ln \frac{Q_{\text{product}}}{Q_{\text{reactant}}}$$

↗ Free energy change in a reaction is derivable from ratios of partition functions

Chemical Equilibria



Could also be written

$$0 = cC + dD - aA - bB$$

$$= \nu_c C + \nu_d D + \nu_a A + \nu_b B$$

$\nu_i$  = stoichiometric coefficient in one sided reaction!

We'll also need to consider what happens if the number of molecules changes in the reaction. To do that we'll need the Grand Canonical Ensemble!



18-2

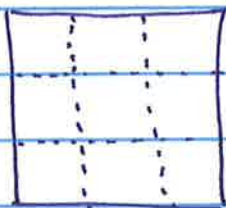
## Grand Canonical Ensemble

To get this ensemble, we allow the number of particles to fluctuate, but constrain the average number of particles  $\langle N \rangle$ . This is like allowing the energy to fluctuate, but constraining the average energy  $\langle E \rangle$

We need to maximize  $S$ , with 3 constraints

$$\sum_i P_i = 1 \quad \sum_i \epsilon_i P_i = \langle E \rangle \quad + \text{one for particles!}$$

Consider



← each member of the ensemble has fixed  $V \& T$ , but they can exchange particles!

$a_{N,j}$  = # of systems in ensemble with  $N$  molecules and in state  $j$

$$\sum_N \sum_j a_{N,j} = \mathcal{M} = \text{total \# of systems in ensemble}$$

$$\sum_N \sum_j E_{N,j} a_{N,j} = \mathcal{E} = \text{total energy of ensemble}$$

$$\sum_N \sum_j N a_{N,j} = \mathcal{N} = \text{total \# of molecules in ensemble}$$

$$P_{N,j} = \frac{a_{N,j}}{\mathcal{M}} = \text{probability of 1 system having } N \text{ particles \& found in state } j$$

We need to maximize entropy:

$$S = -k_B \sum_N \sum_j P_{N,j} \ln P_{N,j}$$

But we need to write our constraints first:

(18-3)

Total probability:  $\sum_N \sum_j P_{N,j} = 1$

Energy:  $\sum_N \sum_j E_{N,j} P_{N,j} = \langle E \rangle = E/gM$

Avg. Particle number:  $\sum_N \sum_j N P_{N,j} = \langle N \rangle = n/gM$

Our New objective function to ~~minimize~~ <sup>maximize</sup>:

$$F = -k_B \sum_N \sum_j P_{N,j} \ln P_{N,j} + \alpha (P_{N,j}) + \beta E_{N,j} P_{N,j} + \gamma N P_{N,j}$$

Lagrange Multipliers

Remember: we set  $(\frac{\partial F}{\partial P_{N,j}}) = 0$ , then apply constraints.

$$\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial P_{N,j}}\right) = -k_B [\ln P_{N,j} + 1 + \alpha + \beta E_{N,j} + \gamma N] = 0$$

Solve for  $P_{N,j}^*$  ← probabilities that maximize entropy

$$P_{N,j}^* = e^{-1-\alpha} e^{-\beta E_{N,j}} e^{-\gamma N}$$

Now, we need to apply the constraints:

Conservation of probability:  $1 = \sum_N \sum_j e^{-1-\alpha} e^{-\beta E_{N,j}} e^{-\gamma N}$

So:  $e^{1+\alpha} = \sum_N \sum_j e^{-\beta E_{N,j}} e^{-\gamma N} \equiv \Xi = \text{Grand Canonical Partition Function!}$

(18-4)

By comparing to some known thermodynamic quantities, we can identify the other Lagrange multipliers:

$$\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{-\mu}{k_B T} \quad \leftarrow \text{chemical potential}$$

$$\Xi(V, T, \mu) = \sum_N \sum_j e^{-E_{N,j}(V)/k_B T} e^{\mu N/k_B T}$$
$$= \sum_N Q(N, V, T) e^{\mu N/k_B T}$$

Let's connect this partition function to thermodynamics like we did for  $Q$ :

$$S = -k_B \sum_N \sum_j P_{N,j} \ln P_{N,j}$$

but we know

$$P_{N,j} = \frac{e^{-\beta E_{N,j}} e^{\beta \mu N}}{\Xi}$$

So:

$$\ln P_{N,j} = -\beta E_{N,j} + \beta \mu N - \ln \Xi$$

$$P_{N,j} \ln P_{N,j} = -\beta E_{N,j} P_{N,j} + \beta \mu N P_{N,j} - \ln \Xi P_{N,j}$$

$$S = -k_B \sum_N \sum_j P_{N,j} \ln P_{N,j} = -k_B \sum_N \sum_j (-\beta E_{N,j} P_{N,j} + \beta \mu N P_{N,j} - \ln \Xi P_{N,j})$$

$$= -k_B (-\beta \langle E \rangle + \beta \mu \langle N \rangle - \ln \Xi)$$

$$S = \frac{\langle E \rangle}{T} - \frac{\mu \langle N \rangle}{N} + k_B \ln \Xi$$



18-5

Multiply everyone by  $T$ :

$$TS = U - \underbrace{\mu N} + k_B T \ln \Xi$$

↓  
chemical potential is just  $\mu = \frac{G}{N}$

$$\therefore G = U - TS + k_B T \ln \Xi$$

(but we know)

$$G = U - TS + PV$$

$$\therefore \boxed{PV = k_B T \ln \Xi(V, T, \mu)}$$



Table 3-1. A summary of formulas for several types of ensemble

---

 microcanonical ensemble,  $\Omega(N, V, E)$ 


---

$$S = k \ln \Omega$$

$$dS = \frac{1}{T} dE + \frac{p}{T} dV - \frac{\mu}{T} dN$$

$$\frac{1}{kT} = \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Omega}{\partial E} \right)_{N, V} \quad (3-25)$$

$$\frac{p}{kT} = \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Omega}{\partial V} \right)_{N, E} \quad (3-26)$$

$$\frac{\mu}{kT} = - \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Omega}{\partial N} \right)_{V, E} \quad (3-27)$$

---

 canonical ensemble,  $Q(N, V, T)$ 


---

$$A = -kT \ln Q$$

$$dA = -S dT - p dV + \mu dN$$

$$S = k \ln Q + kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial T} \right)_{N, V} \quad (3-28)$$

$$p = kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right)_{N, T} \quad (3-29)$$

$$\mu = -kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial N} \right)_{V, T} \quad (3-30)$$

$$E = kT^2 \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial T} \right)_{N, V} \quad (3-31)$$

---

 grand canonical ensemble,  $\Xi(V, T, \mu)$ 


---

$$pV = kT \ln \Xi$$

$$d(pV) = S dT + N d\mu + p dV$$

$$S = k \ln \Xi + kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial T} \right)_{V, \mu} \quad (3-32)$$

$$N = kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial \mu} \right)_{V, T} \quad (3-33)$$

$$p = kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial V} \right)_{\mu, T} = kT \frac{\ln \Xi}{V} \quad (3-34)$$

---

 isothermal-isobaric ensemble,  $\Delta(N, T, p)$ 


---

$$G = -kT \ln \Delta$$

$$dG = -S dT + V dp + \mu dN$$

$$S = k \ln \Delta + kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Delta}{\partial T} \right)_{N, p} \quad (3-35)$$

$$V = -kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Delta}{\partial p} \right)_{N, T} \quad (3-36)$$

$$\mu = -kT \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Delta}{\partial N} \right)_{T, p} \quad (3-37)$$

19-1

## Quantum particles

Ideal systems of non-interacting subsystems

$$E = E_1 + E_2$$

$$Q = \sum_{\substack{\text{states} \\ \text{state } z}} e^{-\beta(E_1 + E_2)}$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{\text{states} \\ \text{state } z}} e^{-\beta E_1} e^{-\beta E_2}$$

$$= \left( \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_1} \right) \left( \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_2} \right) = Q_1 Q_2$$

$$Q = q^N \quad \leftarrow \text{distinguishable particles}$$

$$= \frac{q^N}{N!} \quad \leftarrow \text{indistinguishable particles}$$

Other stats:

Bose-Einstein: Any # of particles in same Quantum state

Fermi-Dirac: No 2 particles in same quantum state

$n_i =$  # of atoms in quantum state labeled by  $i$

$$n_i = \begin{cases} 0 \\ 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{F-D} \quad \text{no restriction for B-E}$$

$$E_j = \text{energy of system} = \sum_k E_k n_k$$

$\leftarrow$  energy of quantum state  $k$   
 $n_k$  # of particles in state  $k$

$$N = \text{total \# of particles} = \sum_k n_k$$

$$Q = \sum_j e^{-\beta E_j} = \sum_{n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots}^* e^{-\beta \sum_k E_k n_k}$$

restricted sum  
not a free sum  
internal restrictions on #s in states

If we try to use  $Q$ ,

$$\sum_{n_0, n_1, \dots}^*$$

↑ the indices must sum to N

Consider 3 particles:

For Fermi-Dirac:

$\frac{n_0}{1}$	$\frac{n_1}{1}$	$\frac{n_2}{1}$	✓
2	1	0	X not allowed

For Bose-Einstein:

$\frac{n_0}{3}$	$\frac{n_1}{0}$	$\frac{n_2}{0}$	✓
2	1	0	✓
2	0	1	✓
2	2	0	X not allowed

So rather than try to use a restricted sum, we'll use the Grand Canonical Partition function instead:

$$\Xi = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta \mu N} Q(N, V, T) \quad \leftarrow \text{let's call } e^{\beta \mu} = \lambda$$

$$= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \lambda^N \sum_{n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots}^* e^{-\beta \sum_k \epsilon_k n_k} \quad \leftarrow \text{But } N = n_1 + n_2 + \dots = \sum_k n_k$$

$$= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n_0, n_1, \dots}^* \lambda^{\sum_k n_k} e^{-\beta \sum_k \epsilon_k n_k} \quad \leftarrow \text{combine the two sums in an exponent to get a product}$$

$$= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \prod_{n_0, n_1, \dots, k} \left( \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k} \right)^{n_k}$$

allowing  $n_0, n_1, n_2$  to range over all possible values (unrestricted) will actually get the variable particle number!

$$= \sum_{n_0=0}^{n_{\max}} \sum_{n_1=0}^{n_{\max}} \dots \prod_k \left( \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k} \right)^{n_k}$$

sum of products  
product of sums

$$= \sum_{n_0=0}^{n_{\max}} \left( \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_0} \right)^{n_0} \sum_{n_1=0}^{n_{\max}} \left( \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_1} \right)^{n_1} \dots$$

$$\Xi = \prod_k \sum_{n_k=0}^{n_{\max}} \left( \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k} \right)^{n_k}$$

In the case of Fermi-Dirac statistics

$$n_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{unoccupied} \\ 1 & \text{occupied} \end{cases}$$

$$(1e^{-\beta \epsilon_k})^0 + (1e^{-\beta \epsilon_k})^1$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\Xi_{FD} = \prod_k (1 + \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k})}$$

For Bose-Einstein statistics:  $n_k = 0, 1, \dots, \infty$

$$\Xi_{BE} = \prod_k \sum_{n_k=0}^{\infty} \lambda^{n_k} \quad \text{with} \quad \lambda = \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k}$$

$$\boxed{\Xi_{BE} = \prod_k \left( \frac{1}{1 - \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k}} \right)}$$

These can be combined in a compact notation:

$$\Xi_{FD/BE} = \prod_k (1 \pm \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k})^{\pm 1}$$

One odd side effect:  ~~$\langle n_k \rangle = \frac{1}{\Xi} \sum_{k=0}^{k+1} (\lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k})^{n_k} \prod_{k \neq k'} (\lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}})^{n_{k'}}$~~

$$\langle n_k \rangle = \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial (-\beta \epsilon_k)} \quad \leftarrow \text{average occupancy of state } k$$

Let's do it for  $\Xi_{BE} = \prod_{k'} (1 - \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}})^{-1}$

$$\ln \Xi = \sum_{k'} -\ln(1 - \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}})$$

$$\langle n_k \rangle = \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial (-\beta \epsilon_k)} = - \frac{1}{1 - \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k}} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\mu - \epsilon_k)} - 1}$$

What happens when  $\mu = \epsilon_k$ ? Bose-Einstein condensate!

Now, for Fermi-Dirac:

19-4

$$\langle n_k \rangle_{FD} = \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial (-\beta \epsilon_k)}$$

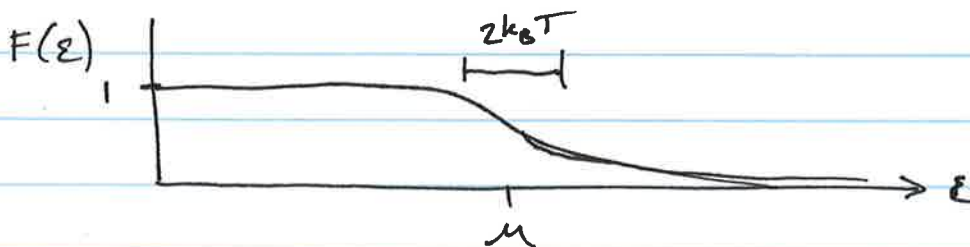
$$\Xi_{FD} = \prod_{k'} (1 + \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}})$$

$$\ln \Xi_{FD} = \sum_{k'} \ln (1 + \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}})$$

$$\frac{\partial \ln \Xi_{FD}}{\partial (-\beta \epsilon_k)} = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k}} (\lambda e^{-\beta \epsilon_k}) = \frac{1}{\lambda e^{+\beta \epsilon_k} + 1}$$

$$\langle n_k \rangle_{FD} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_k - \mu)} + 1}$$

$$F(\epsilon) = \text{Fermi function} = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon - \mu)/kT} + 1}$$



$$\langle n_k \rangle_{FD} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_k - \mu)} \pm 1} = \frac{e^{-\beta(\epsilon_k - \mu)}}{1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon_k - \mu)}}$$

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \langle n_k \rangle_{FD} = e^{-\beta \epsilon_k}$$

Boltzmann statistics are high T limit of



Last time, we talked about quantum statistics:

Fermions:  $n_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{unoccupied} \\ 1 & \text{occupied} \end{cases}$   $n_k = \text{occupation of } k^{\text{th}} \text{ quantum level}$

Bosons:  $n_k = 0, \dots, \infty$

We derived the grand canonical partition functions:

$$\Xi_{\text{FD BE}} = \prod_k (1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta E_k})^{\pm 1}$$

Today, I want to think a bit about the definition of  $\Xi$ :

$$\Xi = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta\mu N} Q(N, V, T) = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta\mu N} \sum_j e^{-\beta E_{j,N}}$$

Remember that  $\Xi$  is the normalization factor when our ensemble has lots of possible numbers of particles and lots of different possible energy states  $j$ .

What is:  $\frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial (\beta\mu)} = \frac{1}{\Xi} \frac{\partial}{\partial (\beta\mu)} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta\mu N} \sum_j e^{-\beta E_{j,N}}$

$$= \frac{1}{\Xi} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} N e^{\beta\mu N} \underbrace{\sum_j e^{-\beta E_{j,N}}}_{p(N)}$$

↑  
Normalization

$$\frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial (\beta\mu)} = \langle N \rangle$$

$\therefore$

$$\langle N \rangle = \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial (\beta\mu)} \right)_{V, T} = k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial \mu} \right)_{V, T}$$

Now, say we want the average population in level  $k'$

To get  $\langle n_{k'} \rangle$  we can't use  $\partial(\beta\mu)$  to do this, so we need to go back one level:

$$\Xi = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta\mu N} \sum_{n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots}^* e^{-\beta \sum_k \epsilon_k n_k}$$

remember this was a restricted sum so  $n_0 + n_1 + \dots = N$

We need a derivative that will pull down  $n_{k'}$  into the sum and out of the exponent:

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial(\beta \epsilon_{k'})} &= \frac{-1}{\Xi} \frac{\partial}{\partial(\beta \epsilon_{k'})} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta\mu N} \sum_{n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots}^* e^{-\sum_k \beta \epsilon_k n_k} \\ &= \frac{-1}{\Xi} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta\mu N} \sum_{n_0, n_1, n_2, \dots}^* -n_{k'} e^{-\sum_k \beta \epsilon_k n_k} \end{aligned}$$

↑ acts in here

$$-\frac{\partial \ln \Xi}{\partial(\beta \epsilon_{k'})} = \langle n_{k'} \rangle \quad \leftarrow \text{so that's the appropriate derivative}$$

Let's apply it:

$$\Xi_{FD/BE} = \prod_k (1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta \epsilon_k})^{\pm 1}$$

$$\ln \Xi_{FD/BE} = \sum_k \pm \ln(1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta \epsilon_k})$$

$$-\frac{\partial \ln \Xi_{FD/BE}}{\partial(\beta \epsilon_{k'})} = \frac{1}{\pm (1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}})} \cdot -(\pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}})$$

$$\langle n_{k'} \rangle_{FD/BE} = \frac{e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}}}{1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}}} = \frac{e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{k'} - \mu)}}{1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{k'} - \mu)}}$$

The high temperature limit ( $\beta \rightarrow 0$ ) is fascinating when  $\mu$  is small

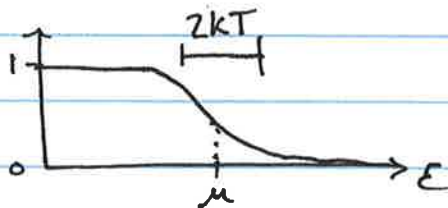
$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \langle n_{k'} \rangle_{FD/BE} = e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{k'} - \mu)} \approx e^{-\beta \epsilon_{k'}} \quad \uparrow \text{ Boltzmann!}$$

So we recover Boltzmann statistics at high temperatures.

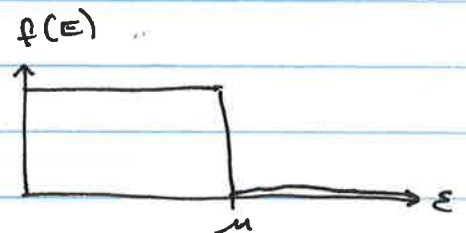
Fermions:  $\langle n_{k'} \rangle = \frac{e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{k'} - \mu)}}{1 + e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{k'} - \mu)}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon_{k'} - \mu)}}$

If the energies of the quantum states are nearly continuous, we can turn this into the Fermi function:

$$f(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}}$$



$T \rightarrow 0$   
→



For a metal  $\mu_0 = \frac{h^2}{2m} \left( \frac{3}{8\pi} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{N}{V} \right)^{2/3}$

$N = \#$  of valence electrons

$V =$  per volume

$\mu_0$  is usually in the 1-5 eV range

At room temperature,  $\beta \mu_0 \sim 100$ , so we're close to the  $T=0$  limit of the Fermi function!

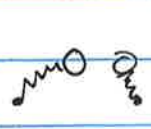
Bosons:  $\langle n_{k'} \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\mu - \epsilon_{k'})} - 1}$

For these particles, when  $\mu = \epsilon_{k'}$ , we get a divergence in  $\langle n_{k'} \rangle$  and all particles occupy the same QM state. This is a Bose-Einstein condensate



(21-1)

We had a problem in the last problem set on solids (i.e. Einstein's model):

 ← each atom is pinned to a lattice site with springs

This is equivalent to  $3N$  independent harmonic oscillators each with frequency  $\omega$ :

$$q_{HO} = \frac{e^{-\beta\hbar\omega/2}}{1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}}$$

← partition function for one oscillator

$$Q(N, V, T) = \left( \frac{e^{-\beta\hbar\omega/2}}{1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}} \right)^{3N}$$

← no factorial because the lattice sites are distinguishable

Helmholtz free energy:

$$A(T, N) = -k_B T \ln Q = -3N k_B T \left[ -\frac{\beta\hbar\omega}{2} - \ln[1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}] \right]$$
$$= \frac{3N}{2} \hbar\omega + 3N k_B T \ln(1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega})$$

$$\langle E \rangle = -\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta} = 3N \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \left( -\frac{\beta\hbar\omega}{2} - \ln(1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}) \right) \right]$$

$$= 3N \left( \frac{\hbar\omega}{2} + \frac{\hbar\omega e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}}{1 - e^{-\beta\hbar\omega}} \right)$$
$$C_V = \frac{\partial \langle E \rangle}{\partial T} = 3N k_B \left( \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B T} \right)^2 \frac{e^{-\hbar\omega/k_B T}}{(1 - e^{-\hbar\omega/k_B T})^2} = 3N k_B \left( \frac{\Theta_V}{T} \right)^2 \frac{e^{-\Theta_V/T}}{(1 - e^{-\Theta_V/T})^2}$$

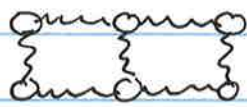
This works well as  $T \rightarrow \infty$  ( $C_V \rightarrow 3R$ ), but at low  $T$

$$C_V \approx 3N k_B \left( \frac{\Theta_V}{T} \right)^2 e^{-\Theta_V/T}$$

← this falls much more rapidly than the experimentally observed  $T^3$

## The Debye model:

include couplings between oscillators



$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{3N} \frac{p_i^2}{2m} + \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} A_{ij} q_i \cdot q_j$$

↗ includes  $q_i^2$  terms!

If we change variables to new coordinates  $(Q_k, P_k)$

Such that matrix  $\underline{A}$  is diagonal,  $\underline{U}$  is a unitary transform: mass weighted force constant matrix.

$$\underline{\omega}^2 = (\underline{U}^T \underline{A} \underline{U}) \quad \underline{U}^T \underline{U} = \underline{I}$$

↗ frequency matrix      ↖ identity matrix

Then:

$$\mathcal{H}(\underline{Q}, \underline{P}) = \sum_k \frac{P_k^2}{2m} + \sum_k \frac{m\omega_k^2}{2} Q_k^2$$

↗  $\omega$  is not the same for each oscillator  
↖ single sum

$P_k$  &  $Q_k$  describe phonons or the normal modes of an extended solid.

Each  $\omega_k$  is different, but the overall form of the Hamiltonian is preserved:

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_k \left( \frac{P_k^2}{2m} + \frac{m\omega_k^2}{2} Q_k^2 \right) \quad \leftarrow \text{classical}$$

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_k \hbar\omega_k \left( \hat{n}_k + \frac{1}{2} \right) \quad \leftarrow \text{each oscillator has a quantum number}$$

$$E = E_{\text{mode1}} + E_{\text{mode2}} + E_{\text{mode3}} + \dots$$

$$= \hbar\omega_1 \left( n_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \hbar\omega_2 \left( n_2 + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \hbar\omega_3 \left( n_3 + \frac{1}{2} \right) + \dots$$



$$E = \sum_k (\hbar\omega_k) (n_k + \frac{1}{2})$$

$$Q_N = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}} = \sum_{n_1=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2=0}^{\infty} \dots e^{-\beta \sum_{k=1}^{3N} \hbar\omega_k (n_k + \frac{1}{2})}$$

this can't move out front this time!

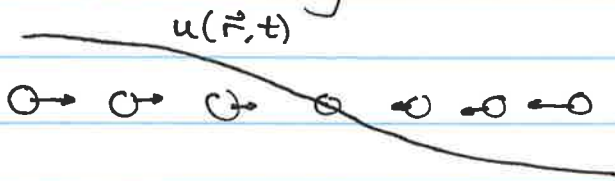
$$A(T, V, N) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{3N} \hbar\omega_k + k_B T \sum_{k=1}^{3N} \ln [1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega_k}]$$

If we have many modes, with closely-spaced frequencies:

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} g(\omega) d\omega + k_B T \int_0^{\infty} g(\omega) \ln [1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}] d\omega$$

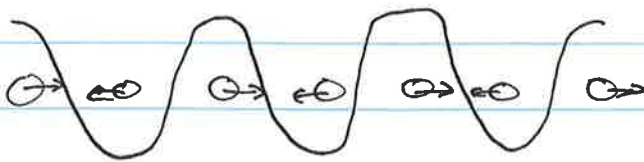
$g(\omega) d\omega$  = the number of modes with frequency between  $\omega$  &  $\omega + d\omega$ , or the degeneracy of phonons with frequency  $\omega$ . What does  $g(\omega)$  look like?

Phonons are really waves moving through a crystal:



← low frequency

$u(\vec{r}, t)$  measures the displacement of atom at  $\vec{r}$  at time  $t$  due to this phonon.



← high frequency

$$u(\vec{r}, t) = A e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$$

← wave with amplitude  $A$  travelling in  $\vec{k}$  direction with frequency  $\omega = 2\pi\nu$

$$|\vec{k}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \leftarrow \text{wavelength}$$

Useful relations:

$$|\vec{k}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad \lambda = \frac{v_p}{\nu} \quad \nu = \frac{v_p}{\lambda}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi\nu$$

A standing wave:

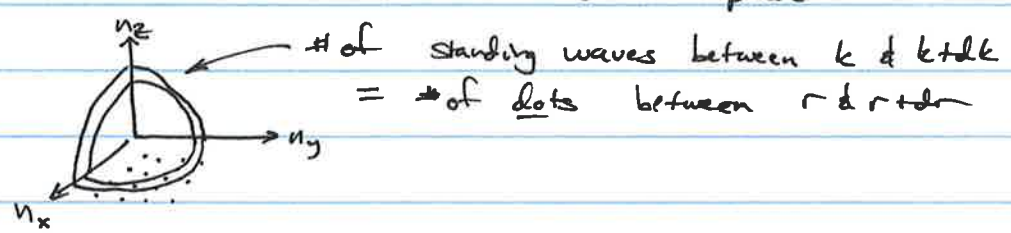
$$u(\vec{r}, t) = 2A e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}} \cos \omega t$$

Since the wave must vanish at the edges of the crystal, we really have particle-in-a-box boundary conditions:

$$\vec{k} = \frac{\pi}{L} \vec{n} \leftarrow \text{vector of } \begin{matrix} \text{positive} \\ \text{integers} \end{matrix} \begin{pmatrix} n_x \\ n_y \\ n_z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\vec{k}|^2 = \left(\frac{\pi^2}{L^2}\right) (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)$$

$|\vec{k}|^2$  is like the radius<sup>2</sup> of a sphere



Volume of the sphere:  $V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \cdot \frac{1}{8} = \frac{\pi}{6} r^3$

$\nearrow$  one octant only

$$r = \sqrt{n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2} = \frac{|\vec{k}|L}{\pi} \implies r^3 = \frac{k^3 L^3}{\pi^3} = \left(\frac{kL}{\pi}\right)^3$$

So:

$$\Phi(k) = \frac{\pi}{6} \left(\frac{kL}{\pi}\right)^3 = \frac{L^3 k^3}{6\pi^3} = \frac{V k^3}{6\pi^3}$$

$\nwarrow$  volume

$\nearrow$  number of dots contained within sphere defined by  $|\vec{k}|$

But # between  $k$  &  $k+dk$  = surface area of shell  $\times dk$

$$g(k)dk = \frac{d\Phi(k)}{dk} \times dk$$

$$g(k)dk = \frac{4\pi k^2}{2\pi^2} dk$$

speed of propagation

But we want  $g(\omega)$  or  $g(\nu)$ :  $\nu = \frac{v_p}{\lambda} = \frac{v_p k}{2\pi}$

So: 
$$g(\nu)d\nu = \frac{4\pi V \nu^2}{v_p^3} d\nu$$

There are 2 kinds of transverse waves  
there is 1 kind of longitudinal wave

$$g(\nu) d\nu = \left( \frac{2}{v_t^3} + \frac{1}{v_l^3} \right) 4\pi V \nu^2 d\nu$$

These waves have an average velocity:  $\frac{3}{v_0^3} \approx \frac{2}{v_t^3} + \frac{1}{v_l^3}$

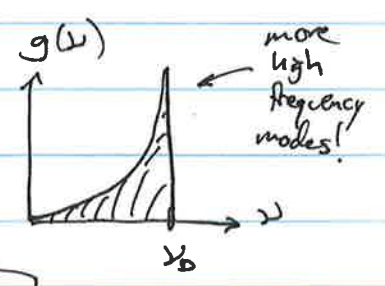
$\therefore g(\nu) d\nu = \frac{12\pi V}{v_0^3} \nu^2 d\nu$   $\omega = 2\pi\nu$   
 $d\omega = 2\pi d\nu$

$\therefore g(\omega) d\omega = \frac{6V}{4\pi^2 v_0^3} \omega^2 d\omega$

Normalization: Total # of frequencies =  $3N$

$$\int_0^{\nu_0} g(\nu) d\nu = 3N$$

$$\nu_0 = \left( \frac{3N}{4\pi V} \right)^{1/3} v_0$$



$$g(\nu) d\nu = \begin{cases} \frac{9N}{\nu_0^3} \nu^2 d\nu & \nu \leq \nu_0 \\ 0 & \nu > \nu_0 \end{cases}$$

$$C_V = 9Nk \left(\frac{T}{\Theta_D}\right)^3 \int_0^{\Theta_D/T} \frac{x^4 e^{-x}}{(e^x - 1)^2} dx$$

$$\Theta_D = \frac{h\nu_D}{k_B} \quad x = \frac{h\nu}{k_B T}$$

The Debye model gives almost perfect agreement with experiments!

$$C_V (T \rightarrow \infty) = 3R$$

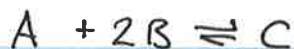
$$C_V (T \rightarrow 0) = \frac{12\pi^4}{5} Nk_B \left(\frac{T}{\Theta_D}\right)^3$$



# Chemical Equilibrium

(22-1)

Review of the basics:



$$K_{eq} = \frac{[C]}{[A][B]^2}$$

←  $K_{eq}$  is related to  $\Delta G$ , one of the thermodynamic free energies.

$G(T, P, N_A, N_B, N_C)$  = Gibbs free energy (fixed  $T$  &  $P$ )

$A(T, V, N_A, N_B, N_C)$  = Helmholtz free energy (fixed  $T$  &  $V$ )

$$dA = \left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial T}\right) dT + \left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial V}\right) dV + \left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial N_A}\right) dN_A + \left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial N_B}\right) dN_B + \left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial N_C}\right) dN_C$$

↙ exact differential ↘  
↖ all the things ↗  
↘ A can depend on ↗

$$dA = -S dT - P dV + \mu_A dN_A + \mu_B dN_B + \mu_C dN_C$$

If we hold the reaction volume & temperature fixed  
 $dV=0$  &  $dT=0$ , so

$$dA = \mu_A dN_A + \mu_B dN_B + \mu_C dN_C$$

But the numbers of particles are tied together by Stoichiometry:

$$dN_A = -dN_C \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{every time we lose an A} \\ \text{we gain a C} \end{array}$$

$$dN_B = -2dN_C \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{everytime we lose 2 B's} \\ \text{we gain a C} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore dA &= \mu_A dN_A + \mu_B dN_B + \mu_C dN_C \\ &= (-\mu_A + 2\mu_B + \mu_C) dN_C \end{aligned}$$

At equilibrium the free energy is minimized with respect to changes in  $N_c$ , so  $\left(\frac{\partial A}{\partial N_c}\right) = 0$

$$\therefore \mu_A + 2\mu_B = \mu_C$$

(A similar treatment works with  $G$  if we fix  $T$  &  $P$ )

What this tells us is that the thermodynamic property that predicts chemical equilibrium is the chemical potential

A more general reaction:



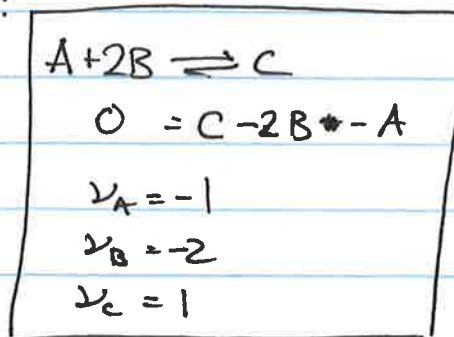
or

$$0 = cC + dD - aA - bB$$

$$0 = \sum_i \nu_i \mu_i$$

$\begin{matrix} \nearrow \\ \sum \end{matrix}$ 
 $\nu_i$  symbol for compound  $i$   
 stoichiometric coefficient for compound  $i$

example:



We also define:  $dN_i = \nu_i d\lambda$  ↔ extent of reaction

So we can write:

$$dA = \sum_i \left( \frac{\partial A}{\partial N_i} \right)_{T, V, N_{j \neq i}} dN_i$$

$$= \sum_i \mu_i dN_i$$

$$dA = \sum_i \mu_i \nu_i d\lambda = \left( \sum_i \mu_i \nu_i \right) d\lambda$$

Generally at equilibrium  $A$  is minimized with respect to the extent of the reaction,  $\left( \frac{\partial A}{\partial \lambda} \right) = 0$   
 So we have:

$$\boxed{\sum_i \nu_i \mu_i = 0}$$

Now on to statistical mechanics:

For a mixture of  $A + B + C + D$

$$Q = Q_A Q_B Q_C Q_D$$

← partition functions for separate components

$$Q = \frac{q_A^{N_A}}{N_A!} \frac{q_B^{N_B}}{N_B!} \frac{q_C^{N_C}}{N_C!} \frac{q_D^{N_D}}{N_D!}$$

Also:  $A = -k_B T \ln Q$

And:  $\mu_i = \left( \frac{\partial A}{\partial N_i} \right)_{V, T}$

So:  $\mu_A = \left( \frac{\partial A}{\partial N_A} \right)_{V, T} = -k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial N_A} \right)_{V, T} = -k_B T \frac{\partial}{\partial N_A} \left[ N_A \ln q_A - \ln N_A! \right]$

↗ all other terms have no  $N_A$

Remember that  $\ln N_A! \approx N_A \ln N_A - N_A$



Now, let's divide each of these factors by a volume:

$$\frac{\left(\frac{q_c}{V}\right)^c \left(\frac{q_D}{V}\right)^d}{\left(\frac{q_A}{V}\right)^a \left(\frac{q_B}{V}\right)^b} = \frac{\left(\frac{N_c}{V}\right)^c \left(\frac{N_D}{V}\right)^d}{\left(\frac{N_A}{V}\right)^a \left(\frac{N_B}{V}\right)^b} \leftarrow \frac{N_A}{V} = [A]$$

$$= \frac{[C]^c [D]^d}{[A]^a [B]^b} = K_{eq}$$

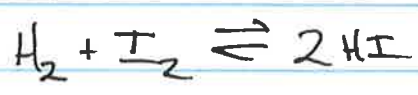
$$K_c = \frac{\left(\frac{q_c}{V}\right)^c \left(\frac{q_D}{V}\right)^d}{\left(\frac{q_A}{V}\right)^a \left(\frac{q_B}{V}\right)^b}$$

← equilibrium constant is derivable from partition functions of reactants & products!

For gases:

$$K_p(T) = (k_B T)^{c+d-a-b} K_c(T)$$

An example:



$$K_c(T) = \frac{(q_{HI}/V)^2}{(q_{H_2}/V)(q_{I_2}/V)} = \frac{q_{HI}^2}{q_{H_2} q_{I_2}}$$

$$q = q_{trans} q_{vib} q_{rot} q_{elect} = \left( \left( \frac{2\pi M k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V \frac{T}{\sigma \theta_{rot}} \frac{e^{-\theta_{vib}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}/T}} g_{el} e^{D_0/kT} \right)$$

M = total mass of diatomic

$$\text{for HI: } q_{HI} = \left( \left( \frac{2\pi m_{HI} kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V \frac{T}{\theta_{HI}^{rot}} \frac{e^{-\theta_{vib}^{HI}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}^{HI}/T}} e^{D_0^{HI}/kT} \right)$$

$$\text{for } H_2: q_{H_2} = \left( \left( \frac{2\pi m_{H_2} kT}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V \frac{T}{2\theta_{rot}^{H_2}} \frac{e^{-\theta_{vib}^{H_2}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}^{H_2}/T}} e^{D_0^{H_2}/kT} \right)$$



$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \mu_A &= -k_B T \frac{\partial}{\partial N_A} \left[ N_A \ln q_A - N_A \ln N_A + N_A \right] \\ &= -k_B T \left[ \ln q_A - \ln N_A - \frac{N_A}{N_A} + 1 \right] \\ &= -k_B T \left[ \ln q_A - \ln N_A \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\mu_A = -k_B T \ln \frac{q_A}{N_A}$$

Now, using our equilibrium condition:  $\sum_i \mu_i \nu_i = 0$

$$\nu_C \ln \left( \frac{q_C}{N_C} \right) + \nu_D \ln \left( \frac{q_D}{N_D} \right) + \nu_A \ln \left( \frac{q_A}{N_A} \right) + \nu_B \ln \left( \frac{q_B}{N_B} \right) = 0$$

$\swarrow$  these two are positive because C & D are products  
 $\nwarrow$  these two are negative because A & B are reactants

Here's a neat trick:

$$\nu_C \ln \left( \frac{q_C}{N_C} \right) = \nu_C \ln q_C - \nu_C \ln N_C = \ln q_C^{\nu_C} - \ln N_C^{\nu_C}$$

Apply this to the equation above and we get

$$\ln q_C^{\nu_C} + \ln q_D^{\nu_D} + \ln q_A^{\nu_A} + \ln q_B^{\nu_B} = \ln N_C^{\nu_C} + \ln N_D^{\nu_D} + \ln N_A^{\nu_A} + \ln N_B^{\nu_B}$$

$$\ln \left[ q_C^{\nu_C} q_D^{\nu_D} q_A^{\nu_A} q_B^{\nu_B} \right] = \ln \left[ N_C^{\nu_C} N_D^{\nu_D} N_A^{\nu_A} N_B^{\nu_B} \right]$$

$$q_C^{\nu_C} q_D^{\nu_D} q_A^{\nu_A} q_B^{\nu_B} = N_C^{\nu_C} N_D^{\nu_D} N_A^{\nu_A} N_B^{\nu_B}$$

Remember  $\nu_A = -a$     $\nu_B = -b$     $\nu_C = c$     $\nu_D = d$

$$\frac{q_C^c q_D^d}{q_A^a q_B^b} = \frac{N_C^c N_D^d}{N_A^a N_B^b}$$

22-6

$$K_e(T) = \left( \frac{m_{HI}}{m_{H_2} m_{I_2}} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{4 \theta_{rot}^{H_2} \theta_{rot}^{I_2}}{(\theta_{rot}^{HI})^2} \right) \frac{(1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}^{H_2}/T})(1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}^{I_2}/T})}{(1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}^{HI}/T})^2}$$
$$\times \frac{(e^{-\theta_{vib}^{HI}/2T})^2}{(e^{-\theta_{vib}^{H_2}/2T})(e^{-\theta_{vib}^{I_2}/2T})} \times e^{2D_0^{HI} - D_0^{H_2} - D_0^{I_2}/kT}$$

What do we need to know to predict  $K_{eq}$ ?

$m, M, r_0, k, D_0$

$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}$  easy

$\underbrace{\hspace{2cm}}$  come from Spectroscopy!