

THERMAL AND STATISTICAL PHYSICS (I) Thermodynamics. concerns the flow of energy from (i) microscopic \leftrightarrow microscopic length scales (ii) one kind of microscopic degree of freedom to another.

1) Thermodynamic variables

Functions of State.

i.e. depend only on system extents + environment. NOT just system.

microscopic observables

Don't average to zero when averaging over large #'s of events.

Two types.

EXTRINSIC - Scales with system size.

INTRINSIC - independent of system size.

P, T, μ

System only contains energy; not work or heat

2) First law of Thermodynamics

"Energy is conserved if heat is taken into account"

Define $U = U(S, V, N)$ as internal energy, dW = change in U due to work done on the system (of a system) dQ = heat transferred to system. (\Rightarrow no functional form of W, Q)

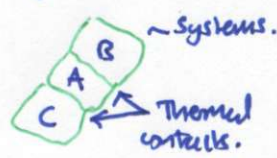
\therefore 1st law $\Rightarrow dU = dW + dQ$ Now $dQ_{rev} = TdS + \mu dN$ $dW_{rev} = -pdV$ or

$$dU = TdS - pdV + \mu dN \quad (1) \quad \text{REVERSIBLE PROCESSES.}$$

- T Absolute temperature /K
- S Entropy /Jk⁻¹
- μ chemical potential /J
- N Particle #
- P Pressure of system. /Nm⁻²
- V Volume of system. /m³

Now dS, dV, dN are differential functions of state so providing we refer to a change between two EQUILIBRIUM STATES (1) is quite general, even if the processes connecting the eq. states are IRREVERSIBLE. (Since we can always get the same result by choosing a reversible path).

3) The other laws of thermodynamics [0] - If A is in thermal e.g. with B and A " " " " " C \Rightarrow B is in thermal e.g. with C.



[2] - $dS_{universe} \geq 0$ [3] - Entropy changes $\rightarrow 0$ as $T \rightarrow 0$.

Proof of [2]: CLAUSIUS' INEQUALITY states $dQ_{rev}^{sys} > dQ_{irrev}^{sys}$ for any heat

change of a system. \rightarrow consider isothermal compression of a system. $W_{rev} = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} p_{rev} dV$. $W_{irrev} = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} p_{irrev} dV$. Now p_{system} increases as V_{sys} decreases. \therefore Reversible path (where $p = p_{ext}$) must have $\frac{\partial p}{\partial V} \geq 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial p}{\partial V} < 0$. Hence using graph - $W_{rev} = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} p_{rev} dV$. $\Rightarrow -W_{irrev} \Rightarrow W_{irrev} \geq W_{rev}$. Now for isothermal process no energy is stored $\Rightarrow dU = 0$. $\therefore dQ = -dW$. Now clearly since $\frac{\partial p_{rev}}{\partial V} \leq 0 \forall V \Rightarrow dW_{irrev} \geq dW_{rev} \Rightarrow dQ_{irrev} \geq dQ_{rev}$. (This is in fact quite a general result).

Now if $dN=0$ $dQ_{rev} = TdS$ so $dS_{universe} = dS_{sys} + dS_{sur} = \frac{dQ_{rev}^{sys}}{T} + \frac{dQ_{rev}^{sur}}{T}$. Now assume surroundings represent an infinite heat reservoir $\Rightarrow dQ_{sur}$ is always reversible. [Note REVERSIBLE process is one which can be reversed by an infinitesimal modification of a thermodynamic variable]. $\therefore dQ_{rev}^{sur} = dQ_{sur} = -dQ_{irrev}^{sys}$. $\therefore TdS_{universe} = dQ_{rev}^{sys} - dQ_{irrev}^{sys}$ which is ≥ 0 by Clausius' inequality. So $dS_{universe} \geq 0$ for any change taking place in time dt . i.e. $\frac{dS_{universe}}{dt} \geq 0$ QED.

4) Manipulations with U and Euler relations. Assume $U = U(T, S, P, V, \mu, N)$ $\{ \lambda \text{ is a scaling factor} \}$

Now U, S, V, N are all extensive variables $\Rightarrow U(\lambda T, \lambda S, \lambda P, \lambda V, \lambda \mu, \lambda N) = \lambda U \equiv U_\lambda$. $\therefore \frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial \lambda} = U$. Now $\frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial \lambda} = \left(\frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial S} \right)_{\lambda V, \lambda N} \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial \lambda} \right)_{\lambda V, \lambda N} + \left(\frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial V} \right)_{\lambda S, \lambda N} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \lambda} \right)_{\lambda S, \lambda N} + \left(\frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial N} \right)_{\lambda S, \lambda V} \left(\frac{\partial N}{\partial \lambda} \right)_{\lambda S, \lambda V}$. Since T, P, μ effectively behave as constants w.r.t λ and S, V, N variables - hence chain rule above. $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial \lambda} = \left(\frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial S} \right)_{\lambda V, \lambda N} S + \left(\frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial V} \right)_{\lambda S, \lambda N} V + \left(\frac{\partial U_\lambda}{\partial N} \right)_{\lambda S, \lambda V} N$ let $\lambda = 1 \Rightarrow U_\lambda = U$. $\Rightarrow U = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S} \right)_{V, N} S + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V} \right)_{S, N} V + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N} \right)_{S, V} N$ so $U = U(S, V, N)$ (QED, practical).

Now using $dU = TdS - pdV + \mu dN$ and fact that since $U = U(S, V, N)$ we can write $dU = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S} \right)_{V, N} dS + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V} \right)_{S, N} dV + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N} \right)_{S, V} dN \Rightarrow T = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S} \right)_{V, N}$ $P = - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V} \right)_{S, N}$ $\mu = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N} \right)_{S, V}$ TASP ①

$u = TS - PV + \mu N$ (Euler #1). $du = Tds + sdT - pdv - vdp + \mu dn + nd\mu$
 $= Tds - pdv + \mu dn$ from 1st law. $\Rightarrow sdt - vdp + nd\mu = 0 \Rightarrow d\mu = \frac{v}{N} dp - \frac{s}{N} dT$
GIBBS-DUHEM RELATION. Now if $u = u(S, V, N) \Rightarrow S = S(U, V, N)$
 $\Rightarrow ds = \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial u}\right)_{V,N} du + \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial v}\right)_{U,N} dv + \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V} dN$. Now from 1st law $\left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial u}\right)_{V,N} = \frac{1}{T}$ (better definition of T.)
 $ds = \frac{du}{T} + \frac{pdv}{T} - \frac{\mu dn}{T} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial u}\right)_{V,N}; \frac{p}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial v}\right)_{U,N}; \frac{\mu}{T} = -\left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V}$

one last manipulation of Euler #1 gives $S = \frac{U}{T} + \frac{PV}{T} - \frac{\mu N}{T}$ (Euler #2)
 which $\Rightarrow ds$ can be integrated easily like du wrt the other extensive variables.
rearrange

5) Equilibrium of closed systems - By doing thought experiments using internal constraints \rightarrow derive e.g. conditions for closed systems. Use principle of maximum entropy to determine e.g. point. i.e. $\frac{\partial S}{\partial x} = 0$ where x is some thermodynamic variable that describes a particular eq.

U, V, N

\rightarrow

U_1, U_2
 V_1, V_2
 N_1, N_2

\uparrow
 imaginary partition

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Energy and} \\ \text{particles can flow} \\ \text{through it.} \end{array} \right.$

$U_1 + U_2 = U$
 $V_1 + V_2 = V$
 $N_1 + N_2 = N$
 $\rightarrow \begin{array}{l} du_1 = du_2 \\ dv_1 = -dv_2 \\ dN_1 = -dN_2 \end{array}$

Now $dS_{sys} = dS_1 + dS_2 = \frac{du_1 + p_1 dv_1 + \mu_1 dN_1}{T_1} + \frac{du_2 + p_2 dv_2 + \mu_2 dN_2}{T_2}$
 so $dS_{sys} = \left(\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2}\right) du_1 + \left(\frac{p_1}{T_1} - \frac{p_2}{T_2}\right) dv_1 - \left(\frac{\mu_1}{T_1} - \frac{\mu_2}{T_2}\right) dN_1$
 Now since $dS_{sur} = 0 \Rightarrow dS_{sys} \geq 0$ by 2nd law.

3 special cases: ① $dv_1 = dN_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \left(\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2}\right) du_1 \geq 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} T_1 > T_2 \Rightarrow du_1 < 0 \\ T_1 < T_2 \Rightarrow du_1 > 0 \end{cases} \left| \frac{\partial S_{sys}}{\partial u_1} = \frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right| \Rightarrow 0 \text{ when } T_1 = T_2$
 - Approach to e.g.: "heat flows from hot to cold"

② $dN_1 = 0, T_1 = T_2 \Rightarrow (p_1 - p_2) dv_1 \geq 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} p_1 > p_2 \Rightarrow dv_1 > 0 \\ p_1 < p_2 \Rightarrow dv_1 < 0 \end{cases} \left| \frac{\partial S_{sys}}{\partial v_1} = \frac{p_1}{T_1} - \frac{p_2}{T_2} \right| \Rightarrow 0 \text{ when } p_1 = p_2$
 - "higher pressure subsystem expands"

③ $T_1 = T_2, dv_1 = 0 \Rightarrow (\mu_2 - \mu_1) dN_1 \geq 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mu_1 > \mu_2 \Rightarrow dN_1 < 0 \\ \mu_1 < \mu_2 \Rightarrow dN_1 > 0 \end{cases} \left| \frac{\partial S_{sys}}{\partial N_1} = \frac{\mu_2}{T_2} - \frac{\mu_1}{T_1} \right| \Rightarrow 0 \text{ when } \mu_1 = \mu_2$
 - "particles flow from high to low chemical potential"

6) Equilibrium in open systems. Same approach to above except the two subsystems are the system in question and the surroundings - (an infinite reservoir where intrinsic variables p, T, μ do not vary). Label "system" 1 and "surroundings" 0. (Together form a closed system)
 Second law $\Rightarrow dS_1 + dS_0 \geq 0$ using 1st law $du_1 = -du_0$ etc...

$dS_0 = \frac{du_0 + p_0 dv_0 + \mu_0 dN_0}{T_0} = -\frac{du_1 + p_0 dv_1 + \mu_0 dN_1}{T_0}$ \therefore 2nd law $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{T_0} (T_0 dS_1 - du_1 - p_0 dv_1 + \mu_0 dN_1) \geq 0$

$\Rightarrow -\frac{1}{T_0} d(u_1 + p_0 v_1 - T_0 s_1 - \mu_0 N_1)$ since $dp_0 = dT_0 = d\mu_0 = 0$. Define AVAILABILITY A_1 as
 $A_1 = u_1 + p_0 v_1 - T_0 s_1 - \mu_0 N_1 \Rightarrow -\frac{1}{T_0} dA_1 \geq 0 \therefore dA_1 \leq 0$ So 2nd law becomes this and eq. written for open systems is MINIMISATION of availability. Note using Euler #1 we can write
 $A_1 = (T_1 - T_0)S_1 - (p_1 - p_0)V_1 + (\mu_1 - \mu_0)N_1$ - we will drop the 1 suffix from now on... (well when clear!)

4 special cases: ① constant T, V, N i.e. $T_1 = T_0, dv_1 = 0, dN_1 = 0 \Rightarrow dA_1 = d(u - T_0 s)$
 Define HELMHOLTZ FREE ENERGY $F = U - TS$. At eq. F is minimised.
 ② P, S, N constant i.e. $p_1 = p_0, ds_1 = 0, dN_1 = 0 \Rightarrow dA_1 = d(u + p_0 v)$. Define ENTHALPY $H = U + PV$
 @ eq. H is minimised. ③ constant T, P, N $\Rightarrow T_1 = T_0, p_1 = p_0, dN_1 = 0 \Rightarrow dA_1 = d(u + p_0 v - T_0 s)$
 @ eq. G is minimised. Define GIBBS FREE ENERGY $G = \mu N$. @ eq. G is minimised.
 Note $dG = \mu dN + N d\mu = -sdt + vdp + \mu dn$ using Gibbs-Duhem relation. TASP @

④ constant $T, V, \mu \Rightarrow T=T_0, dV=0, \mu=\mu_0 \Rightarrow dA_1 = d(U_1 - TS_1 - \mu_1 N_1)$ Define GRAND POTENTIAL $\Phi = U - TS - \mu N = F - \mu N = -PV$ (from Euler #1).
 $d\Phi = -SdT - PdV - Nd\mu$ (using 1st law).

7) Analytic methods and Applications * Techniques with partial derivatives

chain rule $\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_z$ for $x(y)$ - all other variables represented by z held constant.

and if $\phi = \phi(x, y, z, \dots)$ $d\phi = \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}\right)_{y,z,\dots} dx + \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}\right)_{x,z,\dots} dy + \dots$ Reciprocity theorem if $\phi = \phi(x, y)$
 $d\phi = \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x}\right)_y dx + \left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y}\right)_x dy$ let $d\phi = 0$

* Maxwell relations

- use differential forms of Potentials F, H, G, Φ defined above. (Actually U is used instead of Φ). i.e. $dG = -SdT + VdP + \mu dN$. Now since $G = G(U, P, V, T, S)$ by chain rule
 $dG = \frac{\partial G}{\partial U} dU + \frac{\partial G}{\partial P} dP + \frac{\partial G}{\partial V} dV + \frac{\partial G}{\partial T} dT + \frac{\partial G}{\partial S} dS$. compare with dG above:
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial G}{\partial T} = -S \quad \frac{\partial G}{\partial P} = V$ and all others are zero. (let's assume $dN=0$) Now since $\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial P \partial T} = \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial T \partial P}$

$\Rightarrow -\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial P}\right)_T = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P$ repeat process.... (dN=0 always)

* Applications - since all thermodynamic variables are functions of state the path between successive eq does not affect either eq. Also, we are free to assign the thermodynamic variable dependent of each state. - usually done in pairs. This of course very much depends of the system in question.

Example 1: Entropy of a perfect gas. System described by EQUATION OF STATE of form $f(P, V, T, N) = 0$ quantities U, S, μ can be derived from the equation of state. In the case of an ideal/perfect gas $PV = Nk_B T$. let's assume N constant so $S = S(P, T)$ or $S(V, T)$ or $S = S(P, V)$ since we have two equations ($dN=0$ and $f=0$) which relate P, V, N, T and \therefore reduce the # of independent variables to 2. It doesn't actually matter which pair we use \rightarrow Maxwell relations will help. So, let's use $S = S(T, P)$.

$\therefore dS = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_P dT + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial P}\right)_T dP$ removes dependence via MAXWELL E2 $dS = -\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P dP + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_P dT$
 Now C_p is defined $C_p = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial T}\right)_P = T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_P$ so $dS = -\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P dP + \frac{C_p}{T} dT$
 Now $\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P = \frac{Nk_B}{P}$ from Equation of state $\Rightarrow dS = -\frac{Nk_B}{P} dP + \frac{C_p}{T} dT$
 $\therefore S(P, T) = N S_0 - Nk_B \ln P + C_p \ln T$ with $N S_0$ the integration constant.

E.g 2: relate C_p and C_v use $S = S(T, V)$ since $C_v = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial T}\right)_V = T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_V$
 i.e. $dS = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_V dT + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T dV \Rightarrow \frac{dS}{dT} = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_V + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T \frac{dV}{dT}$ Now since $P = \text{constant}$ would allow the total derivatives to be evaluated
 $\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_P = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_V + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P$ Now $\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V$ (MAXWELL RELATION)
 $\Rightarrow T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_P = T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_V + T\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P = T\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T}\right)_V + T\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P$

{ C_p easy to measure, C_v not so, use this relation to calculate C_v }

$$\Rightarrow C_p = C_v + T\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P$$

For an ideal gas $\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V = \frac{TNk_B}{V} \Rightarrow C_p = C_v + Nk_B$
 $\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P = \frac{Nk_B}{P}$

TASP ③

E.G.3 Derivation (1) of the Schottky-Tetrode Equation for the Entropy of an ideal gas i.e. $S = S(U, V, N)$
 Already proved for an ideal gas of constant N $S = Nk_B \ln p + c \ln T$ Now from 1st
 law $du = Tds - pdv$ if $dn=0$ if $dv=0$ $\frac{du}{dT} = T \frac{ds}{dT} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial T} \right)_V = T \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial T} \right)_V$ Now for a monatomic
 ideal gas with 3 D.O.F \Rightarrow Equipartition
 theorem $\Rightarrow U = \frac{3}{2} Nk_B T$. $\therefore T \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial T} \right)_V = C_V = \frac{3}{2} Nk_B$ \therefore using $c_p = c_v + Nk_B$
 $\Rightarrow c_p = \frac{5}{2} Nk_B$. $\therefore S = Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{Nk_B T}{V} \right) + \frac{5}{2} Nk_B \ln T$. Now $T = \frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B}$
 $\Rightarrow S = Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \right) + \frac{5}{2} Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B} \right) = Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \right) + \frac{5}{2} Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B} \right)$ oops missed out a step
 $\hookrightarrow S = Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \right) + \frac{5}{2} Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B} \right) = Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \right) + \frac{5}{2} Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B} \right)$ - which seems first!
 $= Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \right) + \frac{5}{2} Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B} \right) = Nk_B \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \right) + \frac{5}{2} Nk_B \left\{ \ln \left(\frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B} \right) - \frac{2}{3} \ln \left(\frac{Nk_B}{V} \right) \right\}$
 $\Rightarrow S(U, V, N) = Nk_B \ln \left\{ \frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{Nk_B} \left(\frac{V}{Nk_B} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \right\}$

E.G.4 Joule Expansion

Equations (1) \rightarrow (3) \Rightarrow only one independent thermodynamic variable.
 out of T, P, V . Want to know $T_2(V_2)$
 so consider $T = T(V) \Rightarrow dT = \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V} \right)_U dV$ Now $T = T(V, U) \Rightarrow$ reciprocity: $\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V} \right)_U = - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_V \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial U} \right)_V$
 Now from 1st law $du = Tds - pdv$ if $dn=0$
 $\therefore \frac{du}{dv} = T \frac{ds}{dv} - p \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v} \right)_T = T \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial v} \right)_T - p = T \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right)_V - p$ (MAXWELL RELATION)
 Now $\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial u} \right)_V = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial T} \right)_V} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial T} \right)_V}$ using $du = dQ - pdv = \frac{1}{C_V}$

$\therefore \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial v} \right)_U = \frac{-1}{C_V} \left(T \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right)_V - p \right)$ JOULE COEFFICIENT. $\Rightarrow T_2 = T_1 + \int_{V_1}^{V_2} \frac{1}{C_V} \left(T \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T} \right)_V - p \right) dV$
 For ideal gas $T_2 = T_1$ but for V.D.W gas $p = \frac{Nk_B T}{V - Nb} - \frac{N^2 a}{V^2}$; $\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial v} \right)_U = \frac{-1}{C_V} \frac{a N^2}{V^2}$
 so $T_2 < T_1$.

E.G.5: Joule-Kelvin Expansion

$\Rightarrow dW = -pdv$
 Since process is rapid \Rightarrow pressures P_1, P_2 are \propto constant. $\therefore U_2 = U_1 + P_1 V_1 - P_2 V_2$ or $U_1 + P_1 V_1 = U_2 + P_2 V_2$
 \therefore work done $= P_1 V_1 - P_2 V_2 = U_2 - U_1$ i.e. $H_1 = H_2$. \rightarrow want to calculate $T_2(V_2)$ i.e. V_1, T_1 known

Now S.K. is irreversible but since T is a state function we can pretend a reversible constant H process occurred. $H = U + PV$ i.e. $H(U, P, V) = 0$
 Now $N =$ constant and e.o. state $\Rightarrow f(T, P, V, N) = 0$ Now $U = U(T, P, V, N)$ so $H(T, P, V, N) = 0$
 Again - only 1 independent variable. want $T(P)$ so choose P . $\therefore dT = \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P} \right)_H dP$

Now using reciprocity: $\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P} \right)_H = - \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T} \right)_P \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P} \right)_T$ using $dH = Tds + vdp$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{dH}{dP} = T \frac{ds}{dP} + v \therefore \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial P} \right)_T = T \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial P} \right)_T + v = -T \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right)_P + v$ using Maxwell relation.

Now $\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial H} \right)_P = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T} \right)_P} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial H} \right)_P = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial T} \right)_P = C_P$
 Now $dH = du + vdp + pdv$ if $dp=0$ $\frac{dH}{dT} = \frac{du + pdv}{dT} = \frac{dQ}{dT}$

$\therefore \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P} \right)_H = \frac{-1}{C_P} \left(-T \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right)_P + v \right)$ JOULE-KELVIN COEFFICIENT $\Rightarrow T_2 = T_1 + \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \frac{1}{C_P} \left(-T \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right)_P + v \right) dP$

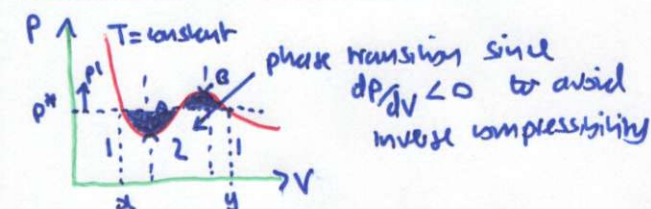
Quick proof that for an adiabatic process via ideal gas $PV^\gamma = \text{const.}$ $\rightarrow T = \text{const. } V^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}}$
 Adiabatic: $du = -pdv$ ($\partial Q = 0$) if $N = \text{const}$ $du = \frac{\alpha}{2} Nk_B dT$ $\therefore PV^{1+\frac{\gamma}{\alpha}} = \text{const}$
 $PV = Nk_B T$ $U = \frac{\alpha}{2} Nk_B T$ ($\alpha = \text{D.O.F}$) so $\frac{\alpha}{2} dT = - \frac{1}{V} dV \Rightarrow \ln T = - \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln V + \text{const}$ $1 + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha} = \frac{C_P}{C_V} = \gamma$
 using $C_P = C_V + Nk_B$ and $C_V = \frac{\alpha}{2} Nk_B$ (4)

8) Phase Equilibria. For P, T, N fixed, minimisation of $G = \mu N$ characterises an equilibrium point. Consider e.g. of two phases that compose the system. i.e. $N = N_1 + N_2$
 Now at e.g. $dG = 0 \Rightarrow dG_1 = -dG_2$ Now $dG = -SdT + VdP + \mu dN$ $G = G_1 + G_2$ for phases 1,2

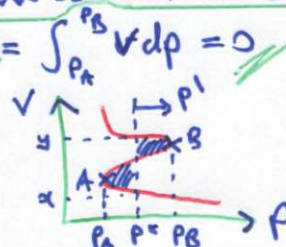
$\Rightarrow -\mu_2 dN_2 = \mu_1 dN_1$ @ e.g. since $T_1 = T_2$ and $P_1 = P_2$ and are fixed. Now $dN = 0$
 $\Rightarrow dN_1 = -dN_2$ so @ e.g. $\mu_1 = \mu_2$. (consistent with result proved for e.g. of closed systems).
 Now $\mu = \mu(T, P, V, N)$, $N = \text{constant}$, $f(T, P, V, N) = 0$ for a particular system obeying state equation $f = 0$. \therefore one independent variable. choose P . $\therefore d\mu = \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial P}\right)_T dP$
 if $T = \text{constant}$.

$\Rightarrow \mu_2 = \mu_1 + \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial P}\right)_T dP$ where P_1, P_2 correspond to pressures either side of a phase transition along a constant T line in P, V space. Now using Obb's-Duhem
 $N d\mu = -SdT + VdP \Rightarrow d\mu = \frac{V}{N} dP$ since $dT = 0$. So $\left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial P}\right)_T = \frac{V}{N}$
 $\Rightarrow \mu_2 = \mu_1 + \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \frac{V}{N} dP$. Now at e.g. $\mu_2 = \mu_1 \Rightarrow \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \frac{V}{N} dP = 0$ @ e.g.

* Application - "equal areas rule" for calculating e.g. pressure for a KAN DER WAALS isotherm
 Along $P = P^*$ line $\int_{P_A}^{P_B} P dV = \int_{P_A}^{P_B} V dP = 0$



(Easier seen line this:)
 clearly $\int_{P_A}^{P_B} V dP = \int_{P_A}^{P_B} P dV$



* Clausius-Clapeyron Equation

defines e.g. between phases 1,2. Consider a coexistence curve on a P, T diagram for a system of N particles. At all points along the curve $\mu_1 = \mu_2 \Rightarrow d\mu_1 = d\mu_2$ for differentiability
 small variations of μ_i along the curve. using Obb's Duhem $\Rightarrow (V_1 dP - S_1 dT)/N_1 = (V_2 dP - S_2 dT)/N_2$
 (P, T same for 1,2 along the line). $\therefore \frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{S_1 N_2 - S_2 N_1}{N_2 V_1 - N_1 V_2} = \frac{S_1/N_1 - S_2/N_2}{V_1/N_1 - V_2/N_2} = \frac{L}{T \left(\frac{V_1}{N_1} - \frac{V_2}{N_2} \right)}$
 where L is the LATENT HEAT.

Note coexistence curves are straight line.

* Landau theory of phase transitions

- identify "order parameter" that characterises an equilibrium state at particular temperature.

e.g. magnetisation of a solid M . - Parameterise Free Energy which applies to the problem (T, V, N for solids $\Rightarrow F$) in terms of order parameter.

i.e. $F(T, M) = F_0 + a(T)M^2 + b(T)M^4 + c(T)M^6 \dots$

- At critical point $a(T)$ changes sign so minimum value of F (which characterises equilibrium) moves from $M=0$ to $M \neq 0$. \therefore Write $a(T) = \alpha(T - T_c)$ Near transition $\alpha(T)$ dominates physics and \therefore can approximate $b, c \dots$ to be independent of T . $\beta = \frac{b}{a^2}$ $\gamma = \frac{c}{a^3}$ $\gamma M^5 = -M$

So write $F(T, M) = F_0 + \alpha(T - T_c)M^2 + \beta M^4 + \gamma M^6$ as an approximate model. \downarrow look at $H=0$

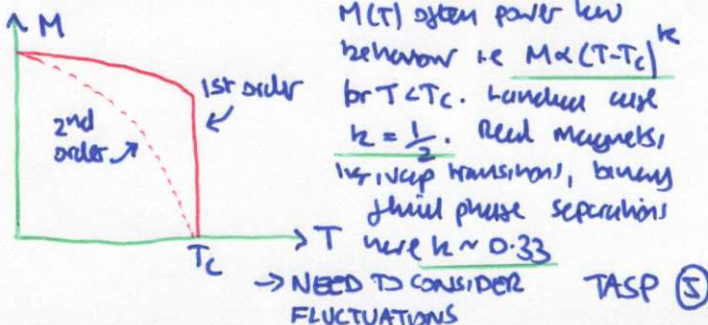
TWO CASES: ① if β +ve 2ND order transition at $T=T_c$ i.e. M changes continuously from zero to a finite value as T decreases

② if β -ve and γ +ve 1ST order transition at $T=T_c$ i.e. M changes discontinuously from zero to a finite value as T decreases.

9) Ideal gas mixtures - consider 1th gas to be ideal.

Dalton's law: $P = \sum_i P_i$ (P = total gas pressure)

Entropy: $S = \sum_i (N_i S_{0,i} + k_B \ln T - N_i k_B \ln P_i)$



$M(T)$ often power law behaviour i.e. $M \propto (T - T_c)^k$ for $T < T_c$. Landau with $k = \frac{1}{2}$. Need magnets, 1st/2nd order transitions, binary fluid phase separations here $k \sim 0.33$

\rightarrow NEED TO CONSIDER FLUCTUATIONS TASP ⑤

Now for pure gas $S_{\text{pure}} = N S_0 + c_p \ln T - N k_B \ln p$. Now $\sum N_i s_{g,i} = N S_0$, $\sum c_p \ln T = c_p \ln T$
 Since all gases are ideal and \therefore here $c_p = \frac{5}{2} N k_B$. (or $\frac{7}{2} N k_B$ if you allow vibration \rightarrow assume by T in molar partition model)

Define Entropy of Mixing as $\Delta S_{\text{mix}} = S - S_{\text{pure}}$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S_{\text{mix}} = -k_B \left(\sum_i N_i \ln p_i - N \ln p \right) = -k_B \left(\sum_i N_i \ln p_i - \ln p \sum_i N_i \right) = -k_B \sum_i N_i \ln \frac{p_i}{p}$$

Now $p_i = N_i k_B T / V$, $p = N k_B T / V$ i.e. T, V fixed so $\frac{p_i}{p} = \frac{N_i}{N} \equiv c_i$

Now $G = G(T, p, N) = G(T, p, V, N)$; $N = \text{const}$; $f = f(T, p, V, N) = 0$ so $\frac{1}{p}$ & T constant \Rightarrow one independent variable - choose p . $\therefore dg = \left(\frac{\partial g}{\partial p} \right)_T dp$ Now let $N_i = \text{constant as well}$

$$\Rightarrow dg_i = \left(\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial p_i} \right)_{T, N_i} dp_i \Rightarrow g_i(p_i, T) = g_i(p, T) + \int_p^{p_i} \left(\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial p_i} \right)_{T, N_i} dp_i$$

$dg_i = -s_i dT + v_i dp_i + \mu_i dN_i$ ($G_i = \mu_i N_i$ and Gibbs theorem) and if $dT = dN_i = 0$

$\Rightarrow dg_i = v_i dp_i$ so $\left(\frac{\partial g_i}{\partial p_i} \right)_{T, N_i} = v_i$. Now since we can't really talk about partial molar volumes of gases since they are all mixed \rightarrow let $v_i = v$. (reasonable since each gas occupies as much space as another).

$\therefore g_i(p_i, T) = g_i(p, T) + \int_p^{p_i} v dp_i$ Now for ideal gas $v = N k_B T / p$ and since $dp_i = \frac{N_i}{N} dp$

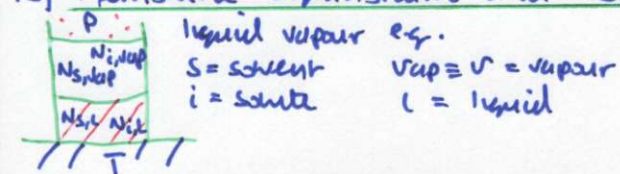
$$\Rightarrow g_i(p_i, T) = g_i(p, T) + \int_p^{p_i} \frac{dp_i}{p_i} \cdot N_i k_B T \Rightarrow g_i(p_i, T) = g_i(p, T) + N_i k_B T \ln c_i$$

Now since $G_i = \mu_i N_i \Rightarrow \mu_i(p_i, T) = \mu_i(p, T) + k_B T \ln c_i$

* Maxwell relation for mixtures $dG = -s dT + v dp + \sum \mu_i dN_i$

$$\therefore \mu_i = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N_i} \right)_{T, p, N_{j \neq i}} \quad \text{Now since } \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial N_i \partial N_j} = \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial N_j \partial N_i} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial \mu_i}{\partial N_j} \right)_{T, p, N_{k \neq j}} = \left(\frac{\partial \mu_j}{\partial N_i} \right)_{T, p, N_{k \neq i}}$$

10) Membrane Equilibrium and Osmotic Pressure



liquid vapour eq.

S = solvent $v_{\text{vap}} \equiv v = \text{vapour}$
 i = solute $l = \text{liquid}$

\rightarrow Assume $N_{s,l} \gg N_{i,l}$ Now at constant T, p

Two mutual equilibria occur

$$\Rightarrow \mu_{i,l} = \mu_{i,v} \text{ and } \mu_{s,v} = \mu_{s,l} @ \text{ eq.}$$

Since $N_i \ll N_s$ can assume HENRY'S LAW $\Rightarrow \frac{p_i}{p} = \frac{N_{i,l}}{N_{s,l}} \Rightarrow \frac{c_{i,v}}{c_{i,l}} = \frac{c_{s,v}}{c_{s,l}}$

Want $\Delta \mu_{s,l} = \mu_{s,l}(N_{i,l}) - \mu_{s,l}(0)$ clearly $\Delta \mu_{s,l} = \int_0^{N_{i,l}} \left(\frac{\partial \mu_{s,l}}{\partial N_{i,l}} \right)_{T, p, N_{s,l}} dN_{i,l}$ since $N_{i,l}$ independent variable.

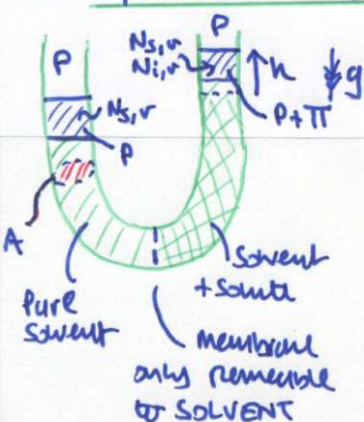
Now using Maxwell relation above:

$$\left(\frac{\partial \mu_{s,l}}{\partial N_{i,l}} \right)_{T, p, N_{s,l}} = \left(\frac{\partial \mu_{i,l}}{\partial N_{s,l}} \right)_{T, p, N_{i,l}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial N_{s,l}} [\mu_{i,v}] = \frac{\partial}{\partial N_{s,l}} (\mu_{i,v}(p, T) + k_B T \ln c_{i,l})$$

$$= k_B T \frac{\partial}{\partial N_{s,l}} \ln \left(\frac{N_{i,l}}{N_{i,l} + N_{s,l}} \right) = -\frac{k_B T}{N_{i,l} + N_{s,l}} \therefore \Delta \mu_{s,l} = -k_B T \ln \left(\frac{N_{s,l} + N_{i,l}}{N_{s,l}} \right) = k_B T \ln c_{s,l}$$

Now $c_{i,l} = 1 - c_{s,l}$ and $\ln(1 - c_{i,l}) \approx -c_{i,l}$ since $c_{i,l} \ll 1$ (Taylor expand)

$$\therefore \Delta \mu_{s,l} \approx -k_B T c_{i,l}$$



Now place this dilute solution next to a pure solvent separated by a solvent only permeable membrane.

\rightarrow Get extra "osmotic pressure" as a result of solvent diffusion across membrane. i.e. $\pi = \rho g h$. $P_{\text{solvent}} \propto P_{\text{dilution}}$

$$\rightarrow \text{At eq. at the membrane: } \mu_{s,l}(T, p + \pi, c_{i,l}) = \mu_{s,l}(T, p, 0)$$

$$\text{Now } \mu_{s,l}(T, p + \pi, c_{i,l}) = \mu_{s,l}(T, p + \pi, 0) + \Delta \mu_{s,l} = \mu_{s,l}(T, p + \pi, 0) - k_B T c_{i,l}$$

$$\text{Now } \mu_{s,l}(T, p + \pi, 0) = \mu_{s,l}(T, p, 0) + \int_p^{p + \pi} \left(\frac{\partial \mu_{s,l}}{\partial p} \right) dp \quad \text{Now Gibbs theorem of constant } T \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial \mu_{s,l}}{\partial p} \right)_T = \frac{V_{s,l}}{N_{s,l}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu_{s,l}(T, p + \pi, 0) \approx \mu_{s,l}(T, p, 0) + \frac{V_{s,l}}{N_{s,l}} \pi \rightarrow \text{etc.}$$

TASP (6)

$$\therefore M_{s,L}(T, P+\Pi, c_{i,L}) = M_{s,L}(T, P, 0) + \frac{V_{s,L} \Pi}{N_{s,L}} - k_B T \left(\frac{N_{i,L}}{N_{i,L} + N_{s,L}} \right) = M_{s,L}(T, P, 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{s,L} \Pi \approx k_B T N_{i,L} \quad (N_{s,L} \gg N_{i,L})$$

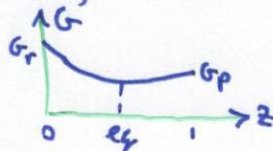
Question: Does it matter how much purge solvent we have? - In principle NO but in order to achieve hydrostatic e.g. in the 1st place in the U tube we need the correct amount of solvent... (In reality this depends where the eq point is....) \rightarrow Best way is to use same volumes of solvent, since to start with.

1) Chemical equilibrium of ideal gases in reactions

consider general reaction $\sum_r \nu_r R \rightarrow \sum_p \nu_p P$
 $r = \text{reactants}$. At constant T, P , ($N \leftarrow$ change particles)
 $p = \text{products}$. not so clearly defined since many different species react though no particles leave, $db \rightarrow$ defined e.g.

Define reaction parameter z (varying from 0-1) which yields proportion of products present and characterises the 'extent of reaction'.

Now $dG = -SdT + VdP + \sum_i \mu_i dN_i$
 So at constant T, P $db = \sum_i \mu_i dN_i$



($G_r = \mu_r N_r \dots$)

e.g. when $\frac{dG}{dz} = 0$ or simply $db = 0$

(Mathematically nicer if we retain dz and use $\frac{dG}{dz} = 0$ @ eq)

$$\text{Now } dN_i = -\nu_i dz \text{ for } i=r$$

$$\text{and } dN_p = \nu_p dz \quad \therefore \text{ @ eq } \sum_p \nu_p \mu_p - \sum_r \nu_r \mu_r = 0$$

$$\text{Now use } \mu_i = \mu_i(P, T) = \mu_i(P, T) + k_B T \ln c_i \Rightarrow 0 = \sum_p \nu_p (\mu_p(P, T) + k_B T \ln c_p)$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{1}{k_B T} \left(\sum_p \nu_p \mu_p(P, T) - \sum_r \nu_r \mu_r(P, T) \right) = \sum_p \ln c_p^{\nu_p} - \sum_r \ln c_r^{\nu_r} - \sum_r (\mu_r(P, T) + k_B T \ln c_r)$$

$$= \ln \prod_p c_p^{\nu_p} - \ln \prod_r c_r^{\nu_r} \quad \text{Define } K_c = \frac{\prod_p c_p^{\nu_p}}{\prod_r c_r^{\nu_r}} \quad \text{"Equilibrium constant"}$$

$$\text{Now } G_p = \sum_p \nu_p \mu_p(P, T), G_r = \sum_r \nu_r \mu_r(P, T) \quad \text{so define } \Delta G = G_p - G_r \quad \therefore -\frac{1}{k_B T} \Delta G = \ln K_c$$

Now use K_c to determine progress of reaction. Note $c_p = \frac{z \nu_p}{V} = z$ and $c_r = (1-z) \frac{\nu_r}{V}$

$$\text{so } K_c = \frac{\prod_p z^{\nu_p}}{\prod_r (1-z)^{\nu_r}} \quad \text{could in principle find } z(K_c) \dots$$

(II) Statistical Mechanics 1) Boltzmann Definition of Entropy. Consider a system characterised by thermodynamic variables P, V, T, U, N, μ, S to consist of a finite # of possible energy states given energy U put into system. I.e. for one MACROSTATE characterised by energy U we will have many microscopic configurations of energy arrangements i.e. MICROSTATES.

Consider system of n elements sharing m quanta of energy U . Divide n into SUBSYSTEM $n_s \ll n$ and RESERVOIR $n_r \sim n$. $n_r + n_s = n$.

What is probability of MACROSTATE m_s quanta in the subsystem? well, # ways of arranging m quanta in n 'containers' = $g_n(m) = \binom{n+m-1}{m} = \frac{(n+m-1)!}{m!(n-1)!}$

Proof: $\parallel x \mid x \mid x \mid \dots \parallel$ $g_n(m) = \# \text{ ways of arranging } m \text{ and } x$.
 well \uparrow quanta \uparrow container well m x's and $n-1$ 1's \Rightarrow Binomial distribution
 yields $\binom{N}{R} = \frac{N!}{R!(N-R)!}$ = # ways of ~~arranging~~ arranging R and $N-R$ objects of different type i.e. $x, 1$. Hence $g_n(m) = \binom{n+m-1}{m}$ QED.

microstates for m_s quanta in subsystem = $g_{n_s}(m_s) g_{n_r}(m-m_s)$
 $\therefore P(m_s, n_s) = \frac{g_{n_s}(m_s) g_{n_r}(m-m_s)}{g_n(m)}$ { For every subsystem microstate there are $g_{n_r}(m-m_s)$ reservoir microstates }

so consider closed system with energy U and U_s in subsystem. Since $g_n(m)$ is a microstate
 \uparrow Probability of U_s energy in subsystem, $U-U_s$ in reservoir
 $P(U_s, U-U_s) = \frac{g_{n_s}(U_s) g_{n_r}(U-U_s)}{g_n(U)}$ \uparrow slight change in notation or density
 TASP 7

This of course assumes all microstates are equally likely. \rightarrow Principle of Equal Equilibrium Probability (PEEP). So given U , we expect at eq $P(U_S, U-U_S)$ to be maximised. i.e. since U_S is the only independent variable $\frac{dP}{dU_S} = 0$
 $\therefore 0 = \frac{1}{g(U)} \left[g_S(U_S) \frac{dg_R(U-U_S)}{dU_S} + g_R(U-U_S) \frac{dg_S(U_S)}{dU_S} \right]$ @ eq. Now $\frac{dU_S}{dU_S} = -\frac{d(U-U_S)}{dU_S}$
 Since $dU = 0$

$$\Rightarrow g_S(U_S) \frac{dg_R(U-U_S)}{d(U-U_S)} = g_R(U-U_S) \frac{dg_S(U_S)}{dU_S} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{g_R(U-U_S)} \frac{dg_R(U-U_S)}{d(U-U_S)} = \frac{1}{g_S(U_S)} \frac{dg_S(U_S)}{dU_S}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d \ln g_S(U_S)}{dU_S} = \frac{d \ln g_R(U-U_S)}{d(U-U_S)} \text{ @ eq.}$$

Now at eq $S_{\text{total}} = S_S + S_R$ is maximised. If $dV_S = dN_S = 0$ $dS_{\text{tot}} = \left(\frac{1}{T_S} - \frac{1}{T_R} \right) dU_S$
 i.e. at eq $T_S = T_R$. Now $\frac{1}{T_i} = \frac{\partial S_i}{\partial U_i}$ for any closed system i .
 i.e. agrees with our thermodynamic condition. $E = \text{energy}$ $g = \text{number of microstates}$

So if we define $S_i = k_B \ln g_i(U_i)$ (has just a constant to get dimensions correct)

above shows at eq $\frac{\partial S_S}{\partial U_S} = \frac{\partial S_R}{\partial U_R} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{T_S} = \frac{1}{T_R}$ i.e. agrees with our thermodynamic condition.

Hence $S = k_B \ln g$ is a good definition of entropy. $g = g(U) = g_n(ME) = \frac{(M+n-1)!}{n!(n-1)!}$

Now if we had two systems with g_1, g_2 total entropy $= k_B \ln g_1 g_2 = k_B \ln g_1 + k_B \ln g_2 = S_1 + S_2$. So S is additive as we might have hoped from thermodynamics!

But what happens if PEEP is not true i.e. each microstate has a particular probability due to a distribution which is not uniform? \Rightarrow GIBBS ENTROPY. Start with a system where $S_B = k_B \ln g$ is true. $P_i = \frac{1}{g}$ (P_i = probability of i th microstate) and $\sum P_i = 1$. $\therefore S_B = -k_B \ln \frac{1}{g} = -k_B \times 1 \times \ln P_i = -k_B \sum P_i \ln P_i \equiv S_G$
 (last step works because all $\ln P_i$'s are the same for this system) - but result is more general. i.e. when P_i 's not all $\frac{1}{g}$.

2) Ensembles, Boltzmann and Gibbs distributions. (i) In a MICROCANONICAL ENSEMBLE $P_i = \frac{1}{g}$ i.e. all states have same energy \rightarrow Not much bearing on reality.

(ii) In a CANONICAL ENSEMBLE, i th subsystem has energy E_i out of total system energy U . Assume only one possible subsystem configuration $\therefore P_i(E_i) \propto g_r(U-E_i) = e^{\ln g_r(U-E_i)} = \exp \left[\ln g_r(U) - E_i \frac{\partial \ln g_r(U)}{\partial U} + \dots \right] \approx \exp \left[\ln g_r(U) - E_i / k_B T \right]$ \leftarrow reservoir or "reservoir" $g_r(U)$ is a constant
 using $S_r = k_B \ln g_r$ and $\frac{\partial S_r}{\partial U} = \frac{1}{T_r} (= \frac{1}{T})$. $\therefore P_i(E_i) \propto e^{-E_i / k_B T}$

$$\Rightarrow P_i(E_i) = \frac{e^{-E_i / k_B T}}{Z} \quad \text{Boltzmann Distribution where PARTITION FUNCTION } Z = \sum e^{-E_i / k_B T}$$

(iii) In a GRAND CANONICAL ENSEMBLE subsystem i has energy E_i shared amongst movable PARTICLES of # N_i which unlike the fixed "containers" above can be transferred to the reservoir and vice versa. Let total energy be U , total # particles N . $\therefore P(E_i, N_i) \propto e^{\ln g_r(U-E_i, N-N_i)}$ assuming degeneracy of state of subsystem $|E_i, N_i\rangle = 1$.

Now $\ln g_r(U-E_i, N-N_i) \approx \ln g_r(U, N) - E_i \left(\frac{\partial \ln g_r(U, N)}{\partial U} \right)_N - N_i \left(\frac{\partial \ln g_r(U, N)}{\partial N} \right)_U$ (Two variable Taylor expansion).

Now $S_r = k_B \ln g_r$ and use thermodynamic results $\frac{1}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U} \right)_N$ $\mu = -T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N} \right)_U$
 (V_r constant here) $\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial \ln g_r(U, N)}{\partial U} \right)_N = \frac{1}{k_B T}$
 $\left(\frac{\partial \ln g_r(U, N)}{\partial N} \right)_U = -\frac{\mu}{k_B T}$ $\therefore P(E_i, N_i) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{k_B T} (E_i - \mu N_i)}$
 \Rightarrow GIBBS DISTRIBUTION $P(E_i, N_i) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{k_B T} (E_i - \mu N_i)}}{\Xi}$
 $\Xi = \sum_N \sum_i e^{-\frac{1}{k_B T} (E_i - \mu N_i)}$ GRAND PARTITION FUNCTION
 N_i, E_i independent so drop i sum \sum_N and N and N . TASP (8)

Substitute $P_i = \frac{e^{-E_i/k_B T}}{Z} \Rightarrow S_G = -k_B \sum_i P_i \left(-\frac{E_i}{k_B T} - \ln Z \right)$ Now $\sum_i P_i E_i = U$

and $\sum_i P_i = 1 \Rightarrow S_G = \frac{U}{T} + k_B \ln Z$ Now FREE ENERGY $F = U - TS$
 $\Rightarrow F = -k_B T \ln Z$ So if one can calculate Z one can calculate all

other thermodynamic variables since $S = -(\partial F / \partial T)_V$ and $P = -(\partial F / \partial V)_T$ (So requires $Z = Z(T, V)$ in general). $\therefore U = F + TS$, $M = \frac{U - TS + PV}{N}$, $G = \mu N$, $H = U + PV$

\uparrow N constant as well \rightarrow (i.e. we can use B.D.)
 Note F is free energy / particle \rightarrow multiply EXTRINSIC variables by N .
 So if know $Z(T, V, N)$ can calculate anything!

eg. Paramagnetic salt in uniform B field. $E_{\uparrow} (|| B) = -mB$ $E_{\downarrow} = mB$.
 if N atoms with spin $\frac{1}{2}$, magnetic moment m : $N_{\uparrow} = \frac{N e^{-E_{\uparrow}/k_B T}}{Z}$ $N_{\downarrow} = \frac{N e^{-E_{\downarrow}/k_B T}}{Z}$

$Z = e^{mB/k_B T} + e^{-mB/k_B T} = 2 \cosh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right)$ $\therefore F = -k_B T \ln(2 \cosh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right))$
 $\therefore S = -(\partial F / \partial T)_V = k_B \ln(2 \cosh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right)) + \frac{k_B T}{2 \cosh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right)} \cdot 2 \sinh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right) \cdot \left(-\frac{mB}{k_B T^2}\right)$

$\therefore U = F + TS = -mB \tanh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right) \rightarrow$ This is AVERAGE energy / atom.

$\Rightarrow \langle M \rangle = -U/B = m \tanh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right)$ * Microscopic meaning of heat and work

$dS_G = -k_B \sum_i (dP_i \ln P_i + dP_i)$ - substitute for $P_i = \frac{e^{-E_i/k_B T}}{Z}$ and note if $\sum_i P_i = 1$
 $\Rightarrow dS_G = -k_B \sum_i dP_i \left(-\frac{E_i}{k_B T} - \ln Z \right) = k_B \sum_i dP_i \frac{E_i}{k_B T}$

$\therefore T dS_G = \sum_i dP_i E_i$ Now if $dN = 0$ and $U = \sum_i E_i P_i \Rightarrow dU = \sum_i E_i dP_i + P_i dE_i$
 $= T dS + dW \therefore dW = \sum_i P_i dE_i$ So....
 Heat \Rightarrow change in probability distribution with energy levels unchanged
 Work \Rightarrow shift in energy levels with probability distribution unchanged.

Applications of Gibbs Distribution

Start from Gibbs ~~distribution~~ $S_G = -k_B \sum_{N, i} P_{N, i} \ln P_{N, i}$. Substitute P_i for Gibbs distribution
 $S_G = -k_B \sum_{N, i} P_{N, i} \left(-\frac{(E_i - \mu N)}{k_B T} - \ln \Xi \right)$ using $\sum_{N, i} P_{N, i} = 1$ and $\sum_{N, i} P_{N, i} (E_i - \mu N) = U - \mu \langle N \rangle$

$\Rightarrow TS = U - \mu \langle N \rangle + k_B T \ln \Xi$. Now $\Xi = U - TS - \mu \langle N \rangle$ GRAND POTENTIAL
 $\Rightarrow \Xi = -k_B T \ln \Xi$ So if know $\Xi(T, V, \mu)$ can calculate anything!

N not fixed as with Z . $S = -\left(\frac{\partial \Xi}{\partial T}\right)_{V, \mu}$ $P = -\left(\frac{\partial \Xi}{\partial V}\right)_{T, \mu}$ $\langle N \rangle = -\left(\frac{\partial \Xi}{\partial \mu}\right)_{T, V}$
 where U is the average energy of $\langle N \rangle$ particles. Scale extrinsic variables by N'
 where N' is total # particles in the system. $\langle N \rangle$ is average # particles with energy $\frac{N'}{\langle N \rangle}$

Fluctuations The mean square fluctuation (or variance) of a thermodynamic quantity X given instructive to calculate. Given this is small but can sometimes diverge at critical points / phase transitions and \therefore dominate the physics describing the situation. Define $\langle \Delta x^2 \rangle$ as:
 $\langle \Delta x^2 \rangle = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$. Can often use Boltzmann or Gibbs distribution to find $\langle \Delta x^2 \rangle$

eg. with paramagnetic salt want $\langle \Delta M^2 \rangle$ where $\langle M \rangle = N \langle m \rangle = N m \tanh\left(\frac{mB}{k_B T}\right)$
 $\langle M \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_i M_i e^{M_i B / k_B T} = \frac{k_B T}{Z} \left(\frac{\partial Z}{\partial B} \right)_T$ $\langle M^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_i M_i^2 e^{M_i B / k_B T} = \frac{(k_B T)^2}{Z} \left(\frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial B^2} \right)_T$ TASP(9)

(which is probably a quicker method of finding $\langle M \rangle$ than using $F = -k_B T \ln Z$).

Now $\left(\frac{\partial \langle M \rangle}{\partial B} \right)_T = \frac{-k_B T}{Z^2} \left(\frac{\partial Z}{\partial B} \right)^2 + \frac{k_B T}{Z} \left(\frac{\partial^2 Z}{\partial B^2} \right)_T = -\frac{\langle M \rangle^2}{k_B T} + \frac{\langle M^2 \rangle}{k_B T}$ so $\langle M^2 \rangle - \langle M \rangle^2 = k_B T \left(\frac{\partial \langle M \rangle}{\partial B} \right)_T = \langle \Delta M^2 \rangle$

$\therefore \langle \Delta M^2 \rangle = \frac{Nm^2}{\cosh^2(MB/k_B T)}$ and R.M.S fluctuation $\frac{\langle \Delta M^2 \rangle^{1/2}}{\langle M \rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \left[\text{sech} \left(\frac{MB}{k_B T} \right) \right]^{-1}$

* Availability Method Consider a system within an infinite reservoir. As shown above, probability of system being characterized by microstate x (x is a thermodynamic variable) $P(x) = N g_s(x) g_r(x)$ (in above case $x = U_s$ and $g_r(U_s) = g_r(U - U_s)$ - abbreviate to $g_r(U_s)$ and then apply constraint of constant total U)

$= N e^{\ln g_s(x) + \ln g_r(x)}$ \uparrow Normalisation $= N \exp \left[\frac{S_s}{k_B} + \frac{S_r}{k_B} \right]$ using $S = k_B \ln g$. $\Rightarrow P(x) = N e^{S_{tot}/k_B}$

Now $S_{tot} = S_{tot}(\langle x \rangle) + \Delta S_{tot}$ Now use result $dS_{tot} = -dA_{Tr}$ AVAILABILITY only concerns system variables

So $\Delta S_{tot} = -dA_{Tr} = -\frac{1}{T_r} (A(x) - A(\langle x \rangle)) \therefore S_{tot} = \text{const.} - A(x)/T_r$ $\text{const.} = S_{tot}(\langle x \rangle) + A(\langle x \rangle)/T_r$

$\Rightarrow P(x) = N' e^{-A(x)/T_r k_B}$ (N' is modified normalisation)

Now $A(x) = A(\langle x \rangle) + \Delta x \frac{\partial A}{\partial x} \Big|_{\langle x \rangle} + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{\langle x \rangle} + \dots$ Now @ eq $\frac{\partial A}{\partial x} = 0$ i.e. at $x = \langle x \rangle$

So $A(x) \approx \langle A \rangle + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{\langle x \rangle}$ Now $e^{-A(x)/k_B T_r} \approx 1$

So $P(x) = P(\Delta x) \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi k_B T_r \left(\frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{\langle x \rangle} \right)^{-1}}} e^{-\frac{\Delta x^2}{2 k_B T_r} \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{\langle x \rangle}}$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{i.e. Gaussian} \\ \text{\& general form} \\ P(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \\ \text{Variance} = \sigma^2 \equiv \langle \Delta x^2 \rangle \end{array} \right.$ $x - \langle x \rangle = \Delta x$

$\therefore \langle \Delta x^2 \rangle = k_B T_r / \frac{\partial^2 A}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{\langle x \rangle}$ So since $A = U - T_r S + P_r V - \mu_r N$
 $\Rightarrow dA = dU - T_r dS + P_r dV - \mu_r dN$ one can calculate $\langle \Delta x^2 \rangle$ knowing where what is fixed and what is not.

e.g. $\langle \Delta U^2 \rangle_{T,V} = k_B T^2 C_V$ R.M.S fluctuation $= \frac{\langle \Delta U^2 \rangle_{T,V}^{1/2}}{\langle U \rangle} = \frac{T \sqrt{k_B C_V}}{\frac{3}{2} N k_B T}$ ($C_V = \frac{3}{2} N k_B$)

So $\frac{\langle \Delta U^2 \rangle^{1/2}}{\langle U \rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3/2} \sqrt{N}}$ IDEAL GAS. $N \sim 10^{23}$ per 1 mole
 So Fluctuations v. small.

5) Fluctuation-Dissipation Theorem. Consider system described by equation in variable x
 $m\ddot{x} + \Gamma\dot{x} + kx = f(t)$ i.e. if x is displacement - damped, driven S.H.O. Consider an ensemble of N such systems. Now define $\alpha(\omega) = \langle x \omega / f \omega \rangle$ where $x \omega = x(t) e^{i\omega t}$

\Rightarrow if $f(t) = f_0 e^{i\omega t}$, $\alpha(\omega) = \frac{m(\omega_0^2 - \omega^2) - i\Gamma\omega}{m^2(\omega_0^2 - \omega^2)^2 + \Gamma^2\omega^2}$ $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$

Now any fluctuating system can be represented as a damped S.H.O with a Random force $f(t)$. So consider fluctuating system to be an N member ensemble of such S.H.O's.

j th member has $\langle x^2 \rangle_j = \frac{1}{\theta} \int_{-\theta/2}^{\theta/2} dt x_j^2(t)$ using F.T of $\alpha(t), \alpha(\omega)$ can show $\alpha(t) = \frac{1}{\theta} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega$ and $\alpha(t) = \frac{1}{\theta} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega$ $\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi\nu}{\theta}$

$\langle x^2 \rangle_j = \frac{1}{\theta^2} \sum_n |\alpha_j(\omega)|^2 \Rightarrow \langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{\theta^2} \sum_n \langle |\alpha(\omega)|^2 \rangle$ averaging over ensemble. Since $\langle |\alpha(\omega)|^2 \rangle$ varies slowly on the scale of $d\omega = 2\pi/\theta \Rightarrow \langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{\theta} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \langle |\alpha(\omega)|^2 \rangle$ Now $\langle |\alpha(\omega)|^2 \rangle = \frac{\langle |\alpha(\omega)|^2 \rangle \langle |f(\omega)|^2 \rangle}{\langle |f(\omega)|^2 \rangle}$

So using definition show $\langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{\langle |f(\omega)|^2 \rangle}{\theta 2\pi k}$ TASP (10)

Now by equipartition $\frac{1}{2} k \langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} k_B T \therefore \frac{2}{\theta} \langle |f_n(\omega)|^2 \rangle = 4\pi k_B T$
 $\approx \frac{2}{\theta} \langle |f_n(\omega)|^2 \rangle$ { $f_n(\omega)$ was used instead of $f_n(t)$ to bring it out of an integral where it was deemed not to vary much }
 $\therefore \frac{2}{\theta} \langle |x(\omega)|^2 \rangle = 4\pi k_B T |x(\omega)|^2 = \text{Power spectrum of } x \text{ } C_x(\omega).$

$$\therefore \langle x^2 \rangle = \int_0^\infty d\omega 4\pi k_B T |x(\omega)|^2$$

i.e. for noise voltage in circuits (LRC)

$$\pi |x(\omega)|^2 = R$$

$$\text{So } C_V(\omega) = 4k_B T R$$



(or over a finite interval if limited bandwidth)



"Johnson Noise"

6) Classical and not so classical gases - Statistical Mechanics of Continuous Systems

The Quantum states of an ideal gas are the 'particle in a 3D box' solutions to Schrödinger's equation. If the box has dimensions L_x, L_y, L_z (i.e. rectangular)

$\psi = \psi_0 \sin(k_x x) \sin(k_y y) \sin(k_z z)$ where $\sin \psi = 0$ at $x=y=z=0$ and at walls

$k_x = \frac{\pi n_x}{L_x}$ etc... Allowed values of k form a lattice in k space with volume / point k \rightarrow integer $= \frac{\pi^3}{L_x L_y L_z} = \frac{\pi^3}{V}$. Hence # states / unit volume of k space is $\frac{V}{\pi^3}$ - we must also multiply by any spin degeneracy $\sigma = 2s+1$

where s = spin of gas particle.

Hence any sums over states of the particle can be written as a k space integral

i.e. $\sum_{k, \text{spin}} D(E_k) f(E_k) \rightarrow \frac{\sigma V}{8\pi^3} \int_0^\infty f(E_k) k^2 dk \cdot 4\pi$ i.e. $D(k) = \frac{\sigma V}{2\pi^2} k^2 dk$
 (degeneracy of state k) (energy of state k) (volume of k space shell) (note: include the k above, no k below)

$\Rightarrow \int_0^\infty f(E) D(E) dE = \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2\pi}{h} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty f(E) \sqrt{E} dE$ More useful to use energy as variable. Use $E_k = \frac{h^2 k^2}{2m}$ for particle of mass m . So $D(E) = \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \sqrt{E}$

Now for 1 ideal gas particle can use partition function to find U, S

$Z = \sum_{k, \text{spin}} D(E_k) f(E_k)$ where $f(E_k) = e^{-E_k/k_B T} \Rightarrow Z = \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty e^{-E/k_B T} \sqrt{E} dE$

using $E/k_B T = x^2$ substitution $Z = \sigma V \left(\frac{m k_B T}{2\pi h^2} \right)^{3/2} = \sigma V n_Q(T) \leftarrow \text{QUANTUM CONCENTRATION}$

Now $U = \sum_k E_k \frac{e^{-E_k/k_B T}}{Z} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial (1/k_B T)} \cdot \frac{1}{Z} = \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{1}{k_B T} \right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{1}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$ as expected

and $S = - \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T} \right)_V = -\frac{\partial}{\partial T} (-k_B T \ln Z) = k_B \ln Z + \frac{k_B T}{Z} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \sigma V \left(\frac{m k_B T}{2\pi h^2} \right)^{3/2} T^{1/2}$
 $= k_B \ln Z + \frac{3}{2} k_B = k_B \ln Z + k_B \ln e^{3/2} \Rightarrow S = k_B \ln \left\{ \exp(3/2) \sigma V \left(\frac{m k_B T}{2\pi h^2} \right)^{3/2} \right\}$

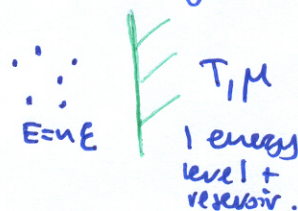
This DOES NOT scale up to N particles. Need to consider what states are disallowed - quantum symmetry etc... \rightarrow consider occupation # of each energy level of the ENTIRE gas $f(E)$ to be n particles and energy $E = n E$.

Since n, E can vary use \square, Φ to describe system.

$\square = \sum_{n=0}^\infty (e^{-(E-M)/k_B T})^n$ Now for BOSONS $n=0,1,2,\dots,\infty$ and for FERMIONS $n=0,1$

So $\square_B = \sum_{n=0}^\infty (e^{-(E-M)/k_B T})^n = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-(E-M)/k_B T}}$ $\square_F = 1 + e^{-(E-M)/k_B T}$

\uparrow geometric progression.



TASP 11

\therefore BOSE-EINSTEIN distribution is $P_B(n) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{kT}(n\epsilon - n\mu)}}{\square_B}$ $n = 0, 1, \dots, \infty$
 and FERMI-DIRAC distribution is $P_F(n) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{kT}(n\epsilon - n\mu)}}{\square_F}$ $n = 0, 1$.
 Average occupancy is $\sum_n n P(n) = \begin{cases} \text{B.E} & \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{kT}(\epsilon - \mu)} - 1} \\ \text{F.D} & \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{kT}(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \end{cases}$
 (Trick: for B.E $\sum_n n P(n) = \left(\frac{1}{\square} k_B T \frac{\partial \square}{\partial \mu} \right)^n$)

Now in classical regime probability of double occupancy becomes v. rare - in fact one would expect $\langle n \rangle \ll 1$. In this case B.E and F.D yield the same result of $\langle n \rangle_{\text{classical}} \propto e^{-\frac{1}{kT}(\epsilon - \mu)}$. For this to be correct classical must be large and we.
 Now since $n > 1$ terms yield tiny contribution to $\square_{\text{classical}} \Rightarrow \square_{\text{classical}} = 1 + e^{-\frac{1}{kT}(\epsilon - \mu)}$
 $\therefore \Phi(\epsilon) = -k_B T \ln \square_{\epsilon} \approx -k_B T e^{-\frac{1}{kT}(\epsilon - \mu)}$ small term. i.e. F.D.

\therefore overall grand potential of gas is $\Phi_g = \int_0^\infty \Phi(\epsilon) D(\epsilon) d\epsilon = -k_B T \sigma V n_Q(T) e^{\frac{\mu}{kT}}$
 v. handy. $N = -\left(\frac{\partial \Phi_g}{\partial \mu}\right)_{T,V} = \sigma V n_Q(T) e^{\frac{\mu}{kT}} \Rightarrow \mu = k_B T \ln\left(\frac{N}{\sigma V n_Q(T)}\right)$

* Substitute μ into $n(\epsilon) D(\epsilon) d\epsilon$ get Maxwell Boltzmann distribution
 * Sub. into Φ_g get $\Phi_g = -N k_B T$. * Sub into $P = -\left(\frac{\partial \Phi_g}{\partial V}\right)_{T,\mu} \Rightarrow P = \frac{N k_B T}{V}$
 * $\Rightarrow \Phi = -PV$ (GENERAL RESULT) * $S = -\left(\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial T}\right)_{\mu,V} = k_B N \ln \left\{ \exp\left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \frac{\sigma V}{N} n_Q(T) \right\}$
 i.e. Sackur-Tetrode Equation.

* The expression for μ has other uses. 1 particle partition function $z_1 = \sigma V n_Q(T)$ for ideal gas. \therefore since $\mu = k_B T \ln(N / \sigma V n_Q(T)) = k_B T (\ln N - \ln \sigma V n_Q(T))$
 $\Rightarrow \mu = k_B T (\ln N - \ln z_1)$ This in fact is a general result when E_k has rotational, vibrational and other terms. Now equilibrium constant $K_c = \frac{\prod_i (N_{eq})^{v_i}}{\prod_r (N_{eq})^{v_r}}$
 Define $K_N = \frac{\prod_i N_i^{v_i}}{\prod_r N_r^{v_r}}$ ($K_c = \frac{\prod_i N_i^{-v_i}}{\prod_r N_r^{-v_r}} K_N$) At eq $\sum_i v_i \mu_i - \sum_r v_r \mu_r = 0$
 \Rightarrow substitute for $\mu_i, \mu_r \Rightarrow N_i = z_{i,1} / P @ \text{eq.} \therefore K_N = \frac{\prod_i z_{i,1}^{v_i}}{\prod_r z_{r,1}^{v_r}}$ work out z_1 for each species $\rightarrow K_N$.

7) Classical \leftrightarrow Quantum crossover
 In classical limit particle energy $E \sim k_B T$. Now $E = \frac{1}{2} m v_{rms}^2$ so max k at T is $k_{max} \sim \sqrt{\frac{2m k_B T}{\hbar^2}}$. \therefore minimum wave packet size to make particle $\sim \frac{2\pi}{k_{max}} \sim \sqrt{\frac{\hbar^2}{2m k_B T}} = \lambda_{thermal}$ (thermal De Broglie wave length)
 wave packets overlap if $V < N \lambda_{thermal}^3$
 i.e. $\frac{N}{V} > \lambda_{thermal}^{-3} = \left(\frac{2m k_B T}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} = \left(\frac{m k_B T}{2\pi \hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} = \pi^{3/2} n_Q \sim n_Q$. so QUANTUM if $\frac{N}{V} > n_Q$

8) Ideal Bose-Einstein Gases
 * Black Body radiation - Photons. Photons are non self interacting so achieve eq in a black body cavity by being absorbed and re-radiated by the walls. $\Rightarrow N$ not constant. However, @ eq $\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V} = 0$ Now $\mu = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V}$ so $\mu = 0$ for black body radiation. (Hmmm... $dF = 0$ @ eq when T, V, N fixed...)
 $\therefore n(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{kT}} - 1}$ Now $E = \hbar \omega$ for photons so $D(\omega) = \frac{\sigma V}{8\pi^3} 4\pi \hbar^2 k^2 dk = \frac{V}{\pi^2 c^3} \omega^2 d\omega$
 $\omega = ck$
 $\sigma = 2$ (2 polarizations)
 \therefore energy density $u(\omega) = \hbar \omega n(\omega) D(\omega)$ BLANK RADIATION LAW
 \uparrow energy/angular frequency $= \frac{V}{\pi^2 c^3} \frac{\hbar \omega^3}{e^{\frac{1}{kT}} - 1} d\omega$
 Number density $= \frac{u(\omega)}{\hbar \omega}$ varies strongly with T
 Predicts $\int_0^\infty \frac{d\omega}{\omega} = \infty$ at $T=0$... ok for photons but N is fixed pr. abs \neq TASP (12)

* Bose Einstein condensation For a gas of B.E atoms $N = \int_0^\infty n(E) dE = \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{E^{1/2} dE}{e^{\beta(E-\mu)} - 1}$
 N is a fixed quantity, hence problem at $T=0$.

Verify this by asserting below a certain temperature T_0 , atoms start to pile up in ground state s.t at $T=0^+$ $\langle n \rangle \equiv n(E) = n(0) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(E-\mu)} - 1} = N \Rightarrow N = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(E-\mu)} - 1}$ No need for integrals DISCRETE distribution

Now $\frac{M}{kT}$ small so that $e^{-M/kT} \sim 1$ to get N to be macroscopically large ($\sim 10^{23}$)
 $e^{-M/kT} = 1 - \frac{M}{kT} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{M}{kT} \right)^2 + \dots$ hence since $\frac{M}{kT}$ small $e^{-M/kT} - 1 \approx -\frac{M}{kT}$

$\therefore N \propto -\frac{k_B T}{\mu}$ in this limit $\Rightarrow \mu \propto -k_B T/N$

So: At $T < T_0$ $N - N'$ atoms in $E=0$ state "Bose Einstein condensate" and N' in excited states with B.E occupation #. These excited atoms have $\mu \propto -k_B T/N$.
 (Purpose of returning T in analysis above. Assume $T_0 \sim 0$ K). i.e. since N is large and k_B small and T small $\mu \approx 0$ to v. good approximation.

$\therefore N' = \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\sqrt{x} dx}{e^x - 1} \quad \left[\text{set } \frac{E}{kT} = x \right] \equiv N \left(\frac{T}{T_0} \right)^{3/2}$ USE THIS TO DEFINE T_0

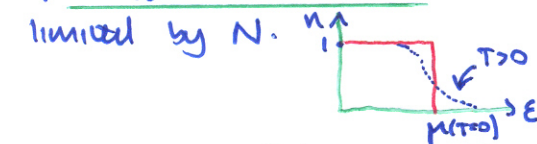
i.e. at $T = T_0$ $N' = 0$ and condensate disappears, $T=0$ $N' = 0$.

$T_0 = \frac{2\pi h^2}{mk_B} \left(\frac{N}{2.612 \sigma V} \right)^{2/3}$ (~ 3 K for ^4He at liq. He densities).

Below T_0 (i.e. $\mu=0$) we can calculate $u = \int_0^\infty E n(E) dE = \text{const. } T^{5/2}$

\Rightarrow Specific heat $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial T} \right)_V \propto T^{3/2}$

9) Ideal Fermi Gas



So if $n(E) = \begin{cases} 1 & E < \mu(0) \\ 0 & E > \mu(0) \end{cases}$

At $T=0$ $n(E) = 1 \forall E$ upto a particular value

i.e. $1 = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(E-\mu)} + 1}$ when $T=0$ For $E > \mu(T=0)$ $n(E) = 0$ since $E - \mu$ becomes +ve.

Clearly μ is the since $E = \mu$ yields $n(E) = 1$ and $E > 0$.

\nwarrow FERMION ENERGY

\nwarrow k_F corresponds to $E_F = \mu(0) = \frac{h^2 k_F^2}{2m}$

$\Rightarrow N = \frac{\sigma V}{8\pi^3} \int_0^\infty 4\pi k^2 n(E) dk = \frac{\sigma V}{2\pi^2} \int_0^{k_F} k^2 dk = \frac{\sigma V}{6\pi^2} k_F^3$ $k_F = \left(\frac{6\pi^2 N}{\sigma V} \right)^{1/3}$
FERMI WAVEVECTOR

characteristic temperature is $T_F = \frac{E_F}{k_B} \sim 50,000$ K for metals.

Fermi gas ($T \ll T_F$) has thermodynamic properties calculable from $\Phi(E) = -k_B T \ln \square_{FD}$

$\Rightarrow \Phi_g = \int_0^\infty -k_B T \ln(1 + e^{-\frac{1}{kT}(E-\mu)}) dE$ Turns out in the limit $T \ll T_F$ integrals of form

$\int_0^\infty \frac{f(E) dE}{e^{\beta(E-\mu)} + 1} \approx \int_0^{E_F} f(E) dE + \frac{\pi^2}{6} k_B^2 T^2 f'(E_F)$ $\Phi_g = -\frac{2}{3} \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{E^{3/2} dE}{e^{\beta(E-\mu)} + 1}$
 $\beta = \frac{1}{kT}$ $\Rightarrow \Phi_g = -\frac{2}{3} \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{5}{2} E_F^{5/2} + \frac{\pi^2}{6} k_B^2 T^2 \cdot \frac{3}{2} E_F^{3/2} \right)$

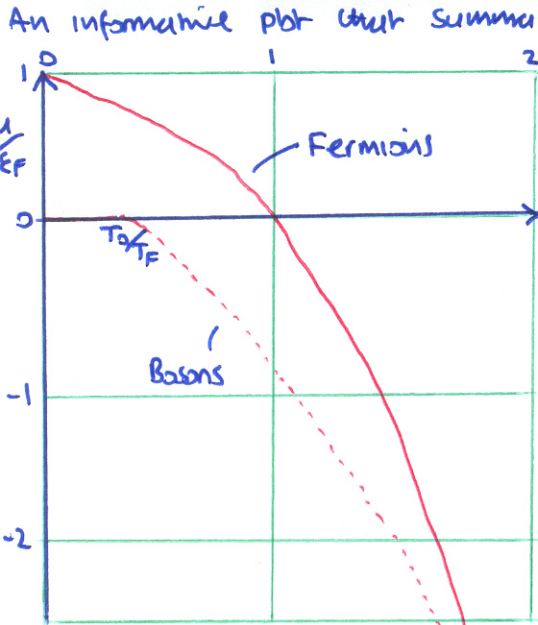
$\therefore S = - \left(\frac{\partial \Phi_g}{\partial T} \right)_{\mu, V} = \frac{\pi^2}{3} D(E_F) k_B^2 T$ (electrons $\sigma = 2$)

and $C_V = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial T} \right)_V = \frac{\pi^2}{3} D(E_F) k_B^2 T$ So $C_V \propto T$ $D(E_F) = \frac{\sigma V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \sqrt{E_F}$

* Entropy of a Fermi gas is $S = -k_B \sum p_n \ln p_n$ for energy level n .

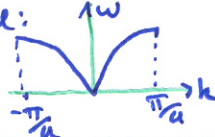
Now level is either occupied with probability $\langle n_n \rangle$ or empty with probability $1 - \langle n_n \rangle$

$\Rightarrow S = -k_B \sum_n \left\{ \langle n_n \rangle \ln \langle n_n \rangle + (1 - \langle n_n \rangle) \ln (1 - \langle n_n \rangle) \right\}$



10) Interacting Many particle systems

If a system has NORMAL MODES can treat as non interacting system with energy states of energy $\hbar\omega$.
i.e. an ideal gas of PHONONS. At low temperature phonons have similar dispersion relation to photons i.e. $\omega = c \sin(ka)$. Actual dispersion relation is more like: $\omega = \frac{c}{a} \sin(ka)$. a = lattice parameter of solid producing normal modes.



* Debye Theory - treat as $\omega = ck$ but truncate integral over states to ω_D where $3N = \int_0^{\omega_D} n(\omega) D(\omega) d\omega$ defines ω_D .

(N = # atoms - 3 D.O.F.)

$$\therefore U = \int_0^{\omega_D} \hbar\omega n(\omega) D(\omega) d\omega$$

$n(\omega)$ is B.E distribution with $\mu=0$

behave like photons i.e. have $U \propto T^4$ and $C_V \propto T^3$. (can \propto integral to ∞ since integrand dies away with ω rapidly)

* Quantum systems ($N_V \sim NQ$) sometimes benefit from this normal mode approach but often not. i.e. high temp superconductors etc....

* Classical liquids (i.e. classical gases with strong interactions)

No normal modes so need different approach.

Define VIRIAL $\gamma = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \mathbf{f}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i$ i corresponds to i th particle in the liquid.

$$\text{Now } \sum_i \mathbf{f}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i = \sum_i m \frac{d\mathbf{r}_i}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{r}_i = \sum_i m \frac{d}{dt} (\mathbf{r}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i) - \sum_i m \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}_i}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \sum_i m \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i - \sum_i m \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}_i}{dt}$$

$$\text{So } \langle \gamma \rangle = -\frac{1}{2} m \left\langle \sum_i \frac{d}{dt} (\mathbf{r}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i) \right\rangle + \frac{1}{2} \sum_i m \langle \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}_i}{dt} \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i m \langle \mathbf{r}_i \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}_i}{dt} \rangle = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T \text{ using equipartition.}$$

Now can also write $\langle \gamma \rangle = \langle \gamma_{int} \rangle + \langle \gamma_{ext} \rangle$ collisions with walls containing liquid

$$\langle \gamma_{ext} \rangle = -\frac{1}{2} \langle \sum_i \mathbf{f}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \rangle_{\text{walls}} = \frac{3}{2} pV \quad \therefore \langle \sum_i \mathbf{f}_i \cdot \mathbf{r}_i \rangle_{\text{walls}} = -3pV$$

Now if inter particle potential

$$\text{is } \phi \quad \gamma_{12} = -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{f}_{12} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{r} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d\phi}{dr} r \quad \text{if } \mathbf{r}_1 = 0, \mathbf{r}_2 = \mathbf{r}$$

$\Rightarrow \langle V_{int} \rangle =$ Sum of virials due to interaction of 1 with all the other particles. Note # of particles at a distance r from the origin is $4\pi r^2 dr n g(r)$ (n is density). $g(r)$ is Radial Distribution Function - probability that two particles are separated by distance r . \downarrow multiplying by N particles in liquid - each interacts with all the others.

$$\Rightarrow \langle V_{int} \rangle = \frac{N}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{d\phi}{dr} r^3 4\pi n g(r) dr$$

$$\therefore \langle \gamma \rangle = \frac{3}{2} pV + 2Nn \int_0^\infty r^3 \pi \frac{d\phi}{dr} g(r) dr$$

$$\Rightarrow p = nk_B T - \frac{n^2}{6} \int_0^\infty 4\pi r^3 \frac{d\phi}{dr} g(r) dr$$

GENERAL EQUATION OF STATE

Now in low density limit $g(r) \approx e^{-\phi/k_B T}$

can write p in terms of a VIRIAL EXPANSION $p = \frac{n k_B T}{1 + B_2(T)n + B_3(T)n^2 + \dots}$ (this is correctly normalised) $\text{virial expansion in terms of density}$

for $g(r) = e^{-\phi/k_B T}$ integration by parts \Rightarrow

$$B_2(T) = \int_0^\infty 2\pi r^2 (1 - e^{-\phi/k_B T}) dr$$

$B_2(T)$ (and higher) = 0. So generate equation of state by using a model like the 6-12 potential $\phi(r) = 4\epsilon \left(\left(\frac{r_0}{r} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{r_0}{r} \right)^6 \right)$. Now if we define P_0, n_0, T_0 as characteristic pressures, densities and Temperatures for each material (i.e. boiling point etc) and define dimensionless variables by $(\epsilon/k_B T) p P_0 = p \Rightarrow$ eq. of state remains unchanged \rightarrow so solve for p etc and find $p = P_0 f$ know two boiling points and density characteristics \rightarrow can find critical pressure but related to the dimensionless variables i.e. is universal. $\text{LAW OF CORRESPONDING STATES}$ TASP (14)