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3-15-11

Welcome back from spring break

Read course announcements

- reading in Schneiders 6.1, 6.2
- Assignment 7 posted
- midterms returned on Thursday
- solutions to midterm posted

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Chapter 6: Boltzmann Statistics

We jump from Chapter 3 to Chapters 6 and 7,
and finish course in Chapter 5, on phase transitions

Discuss new way to study macroscopic equilibrium,
relating energy of microscopic components to macroscopic
properties. We will no longer need to calculate multiplicity S
and entropy S although our knowledge of these crucial for
developing the new ideas.

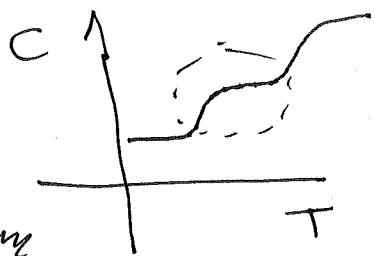
Can illustrate some of the problems we will think about)
calculate from supercomputer simulation "Inner Life of a cell"

- self-assembly of microtubules
- liquid lipid bilayers
- changes in # of particles
-

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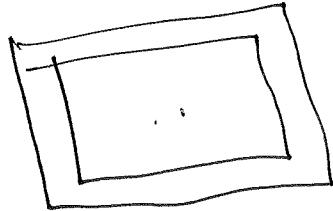
Will apply Boltzmann statistics to:

- ideal gas of molecules
 - understand freezing of ^{rotational} degrees of freedom
 - speed distribution of molecules (Maxwell-Boltzmann)
 - extend Sackur-Tetrode to molecules
- biophysics:
 - binding of O₂ to hemoglobin, ~~why~~ why CO causes suffocation
 - self-assembly, disassembly of large molecules
 - nervous system, why neurons have $\Delta V_{\text{membrane}} \approx 50\text{mV}$
- electrons: metals, white dwarfs
- photons: blackbody radiation
cosmology
global warming
- phonons: fix Einstein's theory to allow coupled oscillators with different frequencies
- Bose-Einstein condensates: hot frontier in physics and engineering

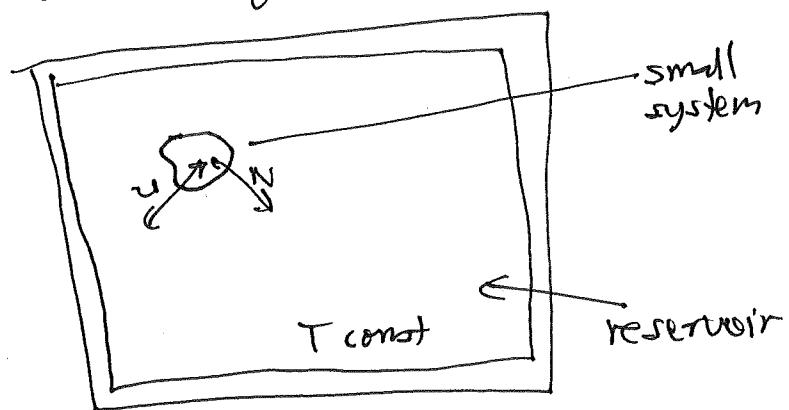


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Will develop and apply powerful formalism called
 Boltzmann statistics that avoids calculating multipliers SZ
 Insight is to consider subsystem that is in equilibrium
 with a large unchanging reservoir of temperature T



Chapter 3:
 system isolated
 U, V, N conserved



Chapters 6 and 7
 U, N, V can vary while in
 equilibrium with reservoir

A new insight will be that small system will be in equilibrium not when entropy is a maximum but when new quantities called thermodynamic potentials for system reach minimum value

enthalpy $H = U + PV$

constant pressure, constant S

Helmholtz free energy $F = U - TS$

constant V , constant T

Gibbs free energy $G = U - TS + PV$ constant T , constant P
 & familiar to you from chem, biology courses

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Do not need to memorize these and other thermodynamic potentials, can all be derived quickly from the thermodynamic identity

$$dU = TdS - PdV + \mu dN \quad U = U(S, V, N)$$

by integration by parts. For example:

$$dU = TdS - PdV + \mu dN$$

$$= d(TS) - SdT - d(PV) + VdP + \mu dN$$

$$\Rightarrow d(\underbrace{U - TS + PV}_{G}) = - SdT + VdP + \mu dN$$

$$G = G(T, P, N)$$

can quickly further discover that

$$S = - \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial T} \right)_{P, N} \quad V = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P} \right)_{T, N}$$

$$\mu = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N} \right)_{T, P}$$

from $dG = - SdT + VdP + \mu dN$

Class project: what thermodynamic potential to use if T, V, μ are experimental variables?

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Compare Chapters 2, 3 with Chapters 6, 7

For isolated systems, strategy was:

$$S_2(N, V, U) \rightarrow S(N, V, U) = k \ln S_2$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U} \right)_{V, N}$$

$$\rightarrow U = U(T)$$

$$\rightarrow C_V(T) = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_{N, V}, M(B, T), \text{etc.}$$

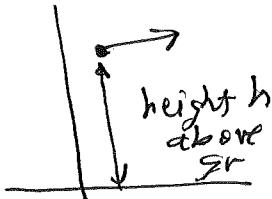
$$S_2 = \binom{N}{N_r}$$

$$= \binom{N+g-1}{g}$$

$$= V^N U^{\frac{3N-1}{2}} f(N)$$

For small systems in equl w/ reservoir with constant T , key input is not multiplicity but energy levels $\{E_n\}$ of each microstate. Levels can be classical

$$E(z, p) = \frac{p^2}{2m} + mgz$$



or quantum

$$E_n = -\frac{R}{n^2} \quad \text{for H atom}$$

or combination.

Key quantity to work with is the partition function $Z(T)$:

$$Z(T) = e^{-\frac{E_1}{kT}} + e^{-\frac{E_2}{kT}} + \dots$$

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Comparison of Formulas

S_E

$$S = k \ln S_E$$

$$P = T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V} \right)_{U,V}$$

$$\mu = -T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N} \right)_{U,V}$$

$$Y/T = + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial N} \right)_{V,N}$$

Z

$$S = \frac{\partial}{\partial T} [kT \ln Z]$$

$$P = kT \left(\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial V} \right)_{T,N}$$

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

no analog since T is given as property of reservoir which system is in equilibrium ~~from~~ with

Knowledge of Z will allow us to calculate all statistical properties of macroscopic system fluxes, electrical currents, max mass of star, etc.

Derivation of the Boltzmann factor $e^{-E_n/kT}$

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Following is one of the few derivations that I will ask you to memorize and master in all details, one of most important insights of the course

My discussion somewhat different from Schroeder, would recommend mastering my reasoning first.

Assume we have a "small" system which has known ~~energy~~ states with energies given by (assumed known)

$$E_1 \leq E_2 \leq E_3 \leq \dots$$

↑
ground state

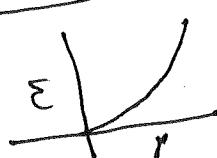
Examples: hydrogen atom H:

$$E_n = -\frac{13.6 \text{ eV}}{n^2} \epsilon,$$

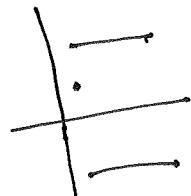


ideal gas ~~atom~~ atom

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

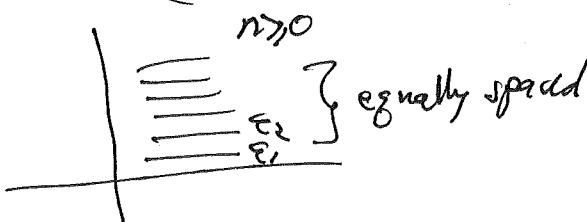


paramagnet dipole $E = -MB$ or $+MB$



Einstein oscillator

$$E_n = \frac{(n + \frac{1}{2})h\nu}{n > 0}$$



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Degenerate energy states

Especially for quantum systems, different states can have same energy. These are called "degenerate states"

Familiar example is H atom

$$E_1 = -\frac{13.6 \text{ eV}}{1^2} \quad \text{only one state} \quad 1s$$

$$E_2 = -\frac{13.6 \text{ eV}}{2^2} \quad 1+3 = 4 \text{ deg. stat} \quad 2s, 2p_x, 2p_y, 2p_z$$

$$E_3 = -\frac{13.6 \text{ eV}}{3^2} \quad 1+3+5 = 3^2 = 9 \text{ degenerate states} \\ 3s, 3p, 3d$$

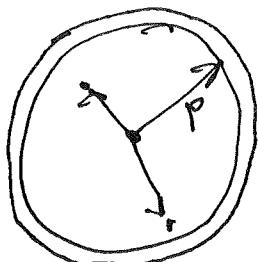
$$E_3 \quad \text{--- --- --- --- ---}$$

$$E_2 \quad \text{--- ---}$$

$$E_1 \quad \text{---}$$

Even for classical molecule, there are degenerate states

for fixed $E = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m}$, \vec{p} can be any vector on sphere of radius $\sqrt{2mE}$



$$\text{degeneracy} \propto 4\pi p^2 dp$$

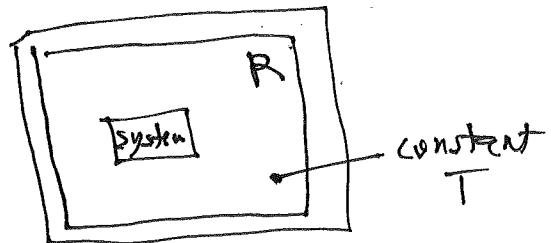
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Assumptions: our small system is in contact

with a large constant-temperature reservoir, sometimes also called a heat bath

large means: $U_R \gg U_S$

↑
(label) for reservoir ↑
 label for system
 (not entropy)

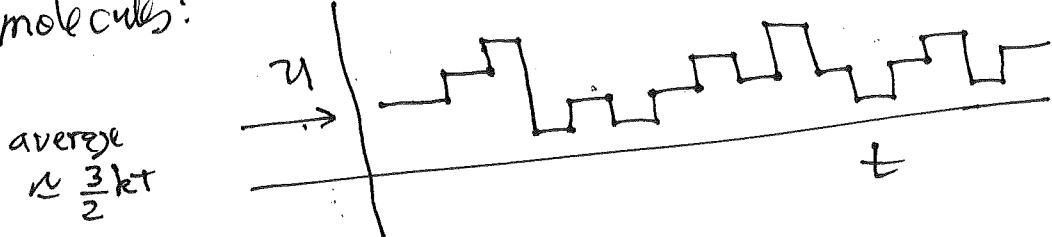


key question to ask: what is probability to observe system in particular states, with energy E_S ?

for isolated system, we know answer: all states with same energy E_S are accessible microstates and so equally likely

for non-isolated system, system can exchange energy with reservoir, sometimes gaining, sometimes losing energy

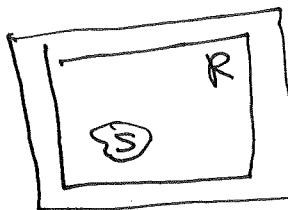
think of pollen grain in water, getting kicked by water molecules:



$$\langle \frac{1}{2}mv_i^2 \rangle \approx \frac{3}{2}kT \text{ by equipartition}$$

Can't apply SC or S or 2nd law $\frac{dS}{dT} > 0$, equal $\Leftrightarrow S_{\max}$

to system or reservoir but can apply SC and 2nd law
to system and reservoir, which we assume are isolated



$E = \text{total energy conserved}$

you can see intuitively why some states s of system S are more or less probable: If energy of S increases, it removes energy from R which causes big reduction in # of microstates of R since, generally, $SC(U)$ is rapid increasing \uparrow^U of U ,

e.g. $SC \propto U^{3N/2}$ for ideal gas of N atoms, $SC \propto \left(\frac{eU}{N}\right)^N$ $\gg N$
Einstein solid

If all microstates of isolated system are equally likely, situation in which system S has a lot of energy will be improbable since this corresponds to small fraction of accessible microstates

can guess

$P_S = \text{prob to observe system } S \text{ to be in state } s$
 $P_S = \text{prob to observe system } S \text{ to be in state } s$
with energy E_s

$$\propto SC_{\text{total}}(E_s) \Leftarrow \cancel{SC_R(E-E_s)}$$

$$P_S \propto \cancel{SC_R(E-E_s)}$$

since $E_s \ll E \Rightarrow SC_s(E_s)$ big # multiplying very big #

Let c be constant of proportionality

$$P_S = c S_R^k (E - E_S)$$

↑ ↑
big energy of reservoir tiny energy of small system

This cries out for Taylor series around big number E , in small correction $-E_S$. But let's use wisdom obtained from Chapters 2 and 3, since S_R is a very large number, usually easier to work with $\ln S_R = S/k$, which is "just" a large #.

We can write:

$$P_S = c S_R^k (E - E_S)$$

write in terms of entropy
 $S = k \ln S_R$

$$= c \exp \left[\ln(S_R^k(E - E_S)) \right]$$

$$\boxed{P_S = c e^{S_R^k(E - E_S)/k}}$$

But: $S_R^k(E - E_S) \approx S_R^k(E) - \left(\frac{\partial S_R}{\partial E} \right)_{V,N} E_S + \text{higher order terms in } E_S$

$$\approx S_R^k(E) - \frac{1}{T_R} E_S$$

exponential is called the "Boltzmann factor"

so $P_S = c \underbrace{e^{S_R^k(E)}}_{\text{constant}} e^{-E_S/(kT)} = \tilde{c} e^{-E_S/(kT)}$
 ↑
 new constant $\tilde{c} e^{S_R^k(E)}$

What is the constant \tilde{c} ? Can obtain by using fact that system has to be in some state s , i.e., probabilities p_s must add to one over all states

$$1 = \sum_s p_s = \sum_s \left[\tilde{c} e^{-E_s/(kT)} \right] = \tilde{c} \sum_s e^{-E_s/(kT)}$$

or $\tilde{c} = \frac{1}{\sum_s e^{-E_s/(kT)}}$

Let's define the $\boxed{\beta = \frac{1}{kT}}$ gets tiring to write $\frac{1}{kT}$ all the time

define "partition function" Z

$$Z = \sum_s e^{-\beta E_s}$$

Z from German
"zustandssumme"
"sum over states"

Then probability to observe small system to be in state s with energy E_s when in equilibrium with large reservoir with fixed temperature T is

$$\boxed{p_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{Z} = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\sum_s e^{-\beta E_s}}}$$