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Key results from last lecture:

Discussed ideal gas of identical weakly-interacting fermions
in context of electron gas

Looked at $T=0$ limit for which Fermi-Dirac distribution f^{FD}
becomes simple:

$$T=0 \quad \bar{n}_{\text{FD}}(\epsilon) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \epsilon < \mu \\ 0 & \text{if } \epsilon > \mu \end{cases}$$

Could then evaluate average energy by using quantum states of
free particle in cubic box of volume $V = L^3$ with impenetrable walls

$$E(n_x, n_y, n_z) = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_x^2} + \frac{1}{\lambda_y^2} + \frac{1}{\lambda_z^2} \right) \quad \lambda_i = \frac{2L}{n_i} \quad n_i \geq 1$$
$$= \frac{\hbar^2}{8mL^2} (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)$$

$$\langle E \rangle = 2 \sum_{n_x} \sum_{n_y} \sum_{n_z} E(n_x, n_y, n_z) \bar{n}_{\text{FD}}[E(n_x, n_y, n_z)] \quad \text{general case}$$

$$\approx 2 \int_0^{n_{\text{max}}} dn \int_0^{\pi/2} d\theta \int_0^{\pi/2} d\phi \frac{\hbar^2 n^2}{8mL^2} \cdot n^2 \sin\theta \cdot 1$$

$$\approx \frac{\pi \hbar^2 n_{\text{max}}^5}{40mL^2} = \frac{3}{5} N E_F \quad E_F = \frac{\hbar^2 n_{\text{max}}^2}{8mL^2} = \frac{\hbar^2}{8m} \left(\frac{3}{\pi} \frac{N}{V} \right)^{2/3} = \text{Fermi energy}$$

$$P = - \frac{\partial \langle E \rangle}{\partial V} = \frac{2}{5} \frac{N}{V} E_F = \frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V} \quad \text{degeneracy pressure}$$

$S = ?$ class question

$$p \approx 4 \cdot 10^5 \text{ atm}$$

Cu

$$B = -V \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V} \right)_T = \frac{10}{9} \frac{U}{V} \sim 6 \cdot 10^5 \text{ atm for Cu at 300K}$$

$$C_V \approx \left(\frac{kT}{E_F} \right) \cdot Nk \cdot \frac{3}{2} \quad \text{grows linearly with } T, \text{ only electrons near Fermi energy can contribute}$$

Highlights of Section 7.4: Blackbody radiation

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Classical equipartition theorem applied to light in a metal box ("cavity") leads to terribly wrong prediction:

Maxwell equations predict light in box described by superposition of Fourier modes:

$$\vec{E} = \sum_{\vec{k}} E_{\vec{k}}(t) e^{i(k_x x + k_y y + k_z z)} + \text{c.c.}$$

where each mode $E_{\vec{k}}(t)$ satisfies harmonic oscillator, so contributes $2 \times \frac{kT}{2}$ thermal energy. But light has no limit to range of wavelengths,

$\lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n}$, $n=1, 2, \dots, \infty$, so predict infinite amount of energy in box if light is in equilibrium, wrong!

Planck suggested this "ultraviolet catastrophe", no limit to short-wavelength modes, could be eliminated if oscillator energy was quantized in equal integer amounts

$$E_n = 0, \epsilon, 2\epsilon, \dots$$

$$\epsilon = hf$$

$$Z = 1 + e^{-\beta\epsilon} + e^{-2\beta\epsilon} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta\epsilon}}$$

$$e^{-\beta\epsilon} < 1 \Leftrightarrow e^{-\beta\epsilon} > 0, \text{ always true}$$

$$\bar{N} = \frac{\bar{E}}{\epsilon} = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \left(-\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \beta} \right) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta\epsilon} - 1}$$

Planck distribution implies $\mu=0$ when compared with $\bar{n}_{BE}(\epsilon)$

$$\bar{E} = -\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \beta} = \frac{\epsilon}{e^{\beta\epsilon} - 1} \quad \text{finite energy!}$$

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Planck's idea was correct. Photons have property of being absorbed and emitted by matter so number is not conserved. Egail. # of photons determined by minimum in free energy w.r.t. N

$$\mu = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N} \right)_{T,V} = 0 \Rightarrow \mu = 0$$

$\mu = 0$ holds in other cases, e.g. matter/antimatter reactions $e + \bar{e} \rightleftharpoons 2\gamma$
Bose-Einstein distribution then becomes special case called Planck distribution.

$$\bar{n}_{Pl}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta\epsilon} - 1}$$

$\epsilon \geq 0$

For massive bosons like He^3 , $\mu \neq 0$ and is determined by 'conservation of particles':

$$N = \sum_s \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_s - \mu)} - 1}$$

Given Planck distribution, can repeat logic we used for electron gas, compute $\langle E \rangle = U$, C_V , S , P , etc.

Photons have diff. energy dependence

$$E = \sqrt{p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4} \approx pc$$

$$\epsilon = pc = c \sqrt{p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2} = \frac{hc}{2L} n$$

$$n^2 = n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2$$
$$p_n = \frac{h}{\lambda_n} \quad \lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n}$$

$$U = \sum_s E_s \bar{n}_{BE}[E_s] = 2 \sum_{n_x} \sum_{n_y} \sum_{n_z} \left[\frac{hc}{2L} n \right] \cdot \frac{1}{e^{\beta \left[\frac{hc}{2L} n \right]} - 1}$$

convert to spherical coordinates: $n_x, n_y, n_z \rightarrow n, \theta, \varphi$

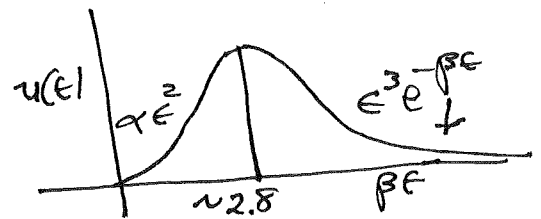
$$u \approx 2 \underbrace{\int_0^\infty dn \int_0^{\pi/2} d\theta \int_0^{\pi/2} d\phi}_{\text{octant of positive triplets } (n_x, n_y, n_z)} n^2 \sin\theta \cdot \frac{hcn}{2L} \cdot \frac{1}{e^{\beta \frac{hcn}{2L}} - 1}$$

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Standard trick is to change variable to simplify integrand
 $\epsilon = \frac{hc}{2L} n$

Find:

$$\frac{u}{V} = \int_0^\infty \frac{8\pi}{(hc)^3} \frac{\epsilon^3}{e^{\beta\epsilon} - 1} d\epsilon$$



Can interpret $u(\epsilon) = \frac{8\pi}{(hc)^3} \frac{\epsilon^3}{e^{\beta\epsilon} - 1}$

as energy density distribution (energy per unit volume density)
 or Planck spectrum. This is universal form that depends only
 on temperature T

has max (peak) for $\beta\epsilon \approx 2.8$, allows frequency f to be deduced
 from peak of spectrum. $\propto f^k$ of energy.

leads to Wien's displacement law

$$\lambda_{\max} = \frac{2,700,000 \text{ nm}}{T}$$

$\lambda_{\max} \neq \epsilon_{\max}$ because of
 Jacobian factor from
 nonlinearity $E \propto \frac{1}{\lambda}$

Examples: Sun: $T \approx 6000\text{K} \Rightarrow \lambda_{\max} \approx 500\text{nm}$

human: $T \approx 300\text{K} \Rightarrow \lambda_{\max} \approx 10^4 \text{ nm}$, for infrared,
 pit viper can detect this

measure temp of sick person by $\lambda_{\max}$ in ear drum

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Get total energy of equil. photon gas by changing variables yet again: $x = \beta E$

$$\frac{U_{\text{photon}}}{V} = \frac{8\pi (kT)^4}{(hc)^3} \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3 dx}{e^x - 1} \propto T^4!$$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{x^3 dx}{e^x - 1} = \frac{\Gamma(n+1) \zeta(n+1)}{6} \quad n=3 = \frac{\pi^4}{15}$$

$$\frac{U_{\text{photon}}}{V} = \frac{8\pi (kT)^4}{15 (hc)^3}$$

not large in practice, $T = 460 \text{ K}$ for 375°F
~~equation~~ $\Rightarrow u/v \approx 10^{-5} \frac{\text{J}}{\text{m}^3} \text{ m}^3$
 $NkT \approx PV \approx 10^5 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{m}^3} \text{ much larger}$

$$C_{\text{photon}} = \frac{dU_{\text{photon}}}{dT} \propto T^3 V$$

$$S = \int_0^T \frac{C(T)}{T} dT \propto VT^3 \Rightarrow \text{adiabatic process for photon gas obeys } VT^3 = \text{const}$$

$$P = -\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T \propto T^4 \Rightarrow PV^{4/3} = \text{const for adiabatic}$$

consider clay arc kiln, $T \approx 1500 \text{ K}$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \frac{U}{V} = \frac{8\pi^5 k^4}{15 (hc)^3} \cdot T^4 \approx 10^{-3} \text{ Pa for } T=1500 \text{ K}$$

compare $P_{\text{air}} \approx 10^5 \text{ Pa}$, 10^8 bigger

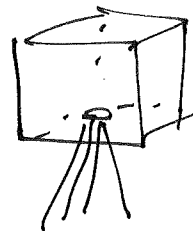
in ~~stars~~ stellar cores, photon pressure can be comparable to gas pressure

$$T \approx 10^8 \text{ K}, P \propto (10^8)^4 \text{ bigger}$$

Blackbody emission of warm opaque objects

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Apply kinetic theory to equilibrium photon gas in box with hole, what is flux of ~~gas~~^{energy} from hole (effusion):



$$\Delta E = \underbrace{(A \cos \theta \Delta t)}_{\Delta \tau} \cdot \left(\frac{U}{V}\right) \cdot \frac{\sin \theta d\theta d\phi}{4\pi}$$

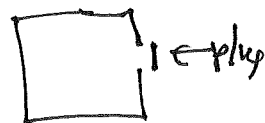
$$\frac{E}{A \Delta t} = \text{energy flux} = \int_0^{\pi/2} d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \left[\cos \theta \cdot \sin \theta \cdot \left(\frac{U}{V}\right) \frac{1}{4\pi} \cdot c \right]$$

power per area = $\frac{c}{4} \frac{U}{V}$ similar to $\frac{1}{4} n v$ formula w/ $v=c$

substitute $\frac{U}{V} = \frac{8\pi^5 (kT)^4}{15 (hc)^3}$, get

$$\boxed{\text{power per unit area} = \sigma T^4, \quad \sigma = \frac{2\pi^5 k^4}{15 h^3 c^2} \approx 6 \cdot 10^{-8} \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2 \text{K}^4}}$$

Stefan's law of 1879, σ called Stefan-Boltzmann constant



Argument due to Kirchhoff in §. 303 of Schweder

leads to conclusion that surface of warm opaque body must emit energy at same rate per unit area as flux

$$\boxed{\text{power emitted} = \sigma e A T^4}$$

$e = \text{emissivity} = 1$ black body
 ≈ 0 mirror

conclude:

blackbody emits thermal spectrum of equil. radiation
light isotropic
light unpolarized
homogeneous

independent of material, shape

by introducing filters of diff. kinds

Application of blackbody emission

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(1) radius of remote star

$$L = \text{luminosity} = \text{total power} = (4\pi R^2) [\sigma T^4]$$

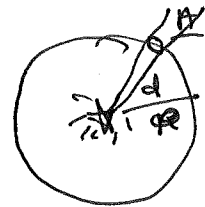
$I = \text{light intensity measured on Earth}$

$$= \frac{\text{area sensor}}{4\pi d^2} \times (4\pi R^2) \cdot \sigma T^4$$

distance to star

fraction of emitted power
absorbed by sensor

Can solve for R from I, d, T ; T known from Wien's law



(2) equil. temp. of planet or rock around Sun

$$(4\pi R_e^2) \sigma T_e^4 = (1-r) \frac{\pi R_e^2}{4\pi d_{\text{sun-earth}}^2} \left[4\pi R_{\text{star}}^2 \cdot \sigma \cdot T_{\text{star}}^4 \right]$$

reflectivity of planet

$$\Rightarrow T_e = (1-r)^{1/4} \sqrt{\frac{R_{\text{star}}}{d_{\text{star-earth}}}} T_{\text{star}}$$

independent of radius
of planet!

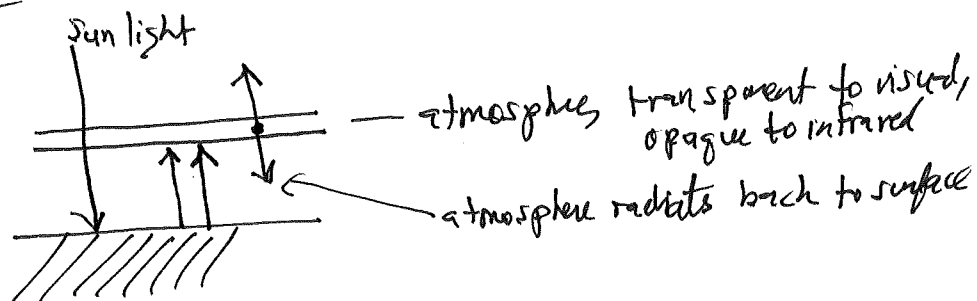
Calculation assumes no atmosphere, fast rotation so T constant over surface

	r	predicted	actual
Earth	30%	-16°C	15°C
Venus	75%	-40°C	470°C
Mars	12%	-56°C	-50°C
Moon	?	-2°C	125°C day, -175°C night

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Deviation of equil. temp from prediction due
to greenhouse gases H_2O , CO_2 , CH_4

greenhouse is good: life couldn't otherwise exist, Earth
would freeze



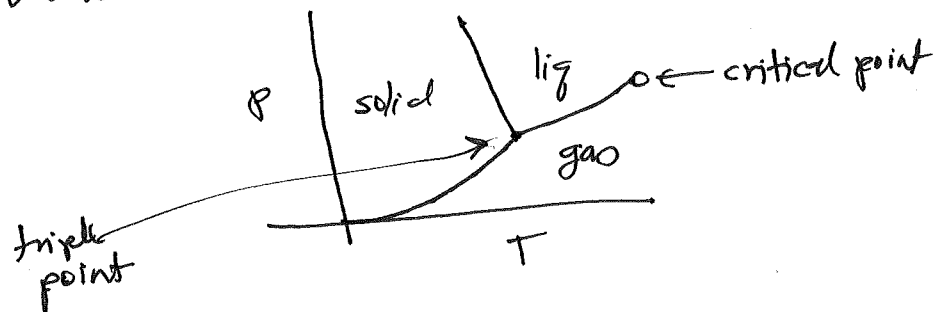
atmosphere absorbs infrared from warm ground and radiates
out into space and back to ground.

so ground has to radiate twice as much power as amount from Sun,
i.e. $power \propto T^{1/4}$ inverse in T ✓

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Section 5.3: Phase transition of pure substances.

when particles can interact, can get novel structure as T, P, B varied. Diff. arrangements of same particles called phases



Vocabulary: phase region
phase line
phase

triple point
critical point

solid $\rightarrow$ gas sublimation

gas $\rightarrow$ solid deposition

solid $\rightarrow$ liquid melting

liquid $\rightarrow$ solid freezing

liquid $\rightarrow$ gas vaporization

gas $\rightarrow$ liquid condensation

critical point:

liquid-gas line ends, many remarkable properties

near this point: no surface tension

high heat transport

increased solubility (remove coffee)

triple point: 3 phases can coexist

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show some slides:

H_2O phase diagram { can boil water with ice!

CO_2

iron-steel

He^3 , He^4

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Understanding phase boundaries via Gibbs free energy G

$$G = U - TS + PV$$

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

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

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

slope of G vs T curve gives S

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

slope of G vs P curve gives V

$$G = N\mu$$

phase with smaller Gibbs free energy (chem. potential) is more stable and will be observed.

phase line occurs when chem. pot of two phases are equal

$$\mu_S = \mu_L \text{ or } \mu_L = \mu_G \text{ or } \mu_L = \mu_S$$

Example: graphite $\leftrightarrow$ diamond conversion
at atm pressure, for one mole of C atoms

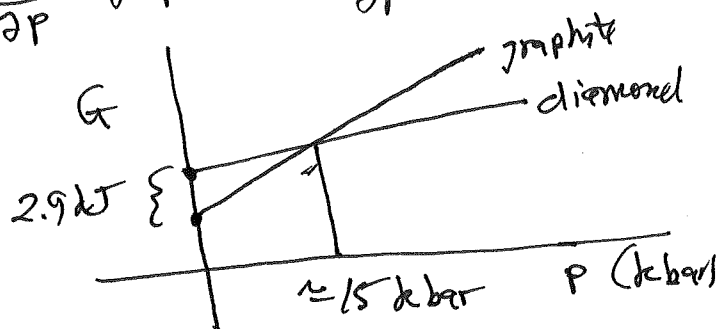
$$G_{\text{graphite}} < G_{\text{diamond}}$$

what about higher pressure?

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

$V_{\text{graphite}} > V_{\text{diamond}}$ for one mole (diamond denser)

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P} \right)_{\text{graphite}} > \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P} \right)_{\text{diamond}}$$



explains why diamonds form ~ 50 km underground

Similarly,

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

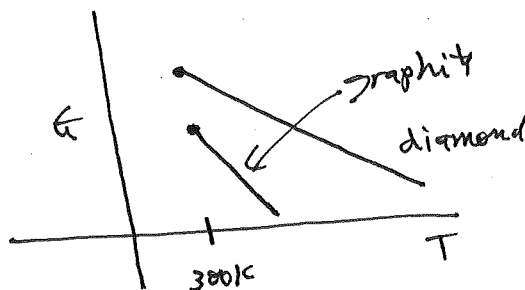
$$S_{\text{graphite}} = 5.7 \text{ J/K}$$

$$S_{\text{diamond}} = 2.4$$

p. 404-405
Schroeder

$$\text{so } \left| \frac{\partial G}{\partial T} \right|_{\text{graphite}} > \left| \frac{\partial G}{\partial T} \right|_{\text{diamond}}$$

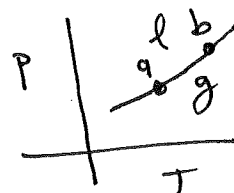
conclude: increasing temp makes
graphite more stable compared
to diamond,



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Clausius - Clapeyron eq. for phase boundaries

make small change along phase boundary



$$\begin{aligned} G_l^a &= G_g^b \\ - G_l^b &= - G_g^a \\ \hline \Delta G_l &= \Delta G_g \end{aligned}$$

$$dG = -SdT + VdP$$

$$-S_g \Delta T + V_g \Delta P = -S_l \Delta T + V_l \Delta P$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{S_g - S_l}{V_g - V_l}}$$

Clausius - Clapeyron eq

often $V_g \gg V_l, V_s$ $S_g - S_l = \frac{L}{T}$

$$\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{L}{T \Delta V} \approx \frac{L}{T V_g}$$

$$\Delta V \approx V_g - V_l \approx V_g$$

application: how to boil water with ice

$$\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta T} \approx \frac{L_{\text{mol}}}{T \Delta V_{g-l}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} L &= 333 \text{ J} \\ V_{\text{ice}} &= (917,000)^{-1} \text{ m}^3 \approx 1.091 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \\ V_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} &= 1000 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta T} \approx \frac{333}{273 (-0.091 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3)} \approx -140 \frac{\text{bar}}{\text{K}}$$

need to increase pressure by 140 bar to have ice melt at -1°C
(not how ice skates work)