0. Physical constants

 $k=1.381\times 10^{-23} J/K=8.617\times 10^{-5} eV/K,\, N_A=6.022\times 10^{23},\, R=8.315 J/mol\cdot K,\, h=6.626\times 10^{-34} J\cdot s=4.136\times 10^{-15} eV\cdot S$

1. Energy in Thermal Physics

- 1.1. **Thermal equilibrium.** Temperature is a measure of the tendency of an object to spontaneously give up energy to its surroundings. When two objects are in thermal contact, the one that tends to spontaneously lose energy is at the higher energy. Room temperature 300K
- 1.2. The ideal gas. $PV = nRT = Nk_BT$. n is no of moles, $N = nN_A$ is number of molecules. $k_B = R/N_A$. Latter equation is valid when avg. space b/w molecules is larger than size of molecules. $\bar{E}_{K,trans} = \frac{3}{2}kT$.
- 1.3. Equipartition of energy. Theorem: at temperature T, the average energy of any quadratic degree of freedom is $\frac{1}{2}kT$. $U_{thermal}=Nf\frac{1}{2}kT$. Monoatomic gas: f=3. Diatomic gas: f=5,6 (3 trans., 2-3, rot.) or f=8 (3 trans., 3 rot., 2 vibr. K, P). Solid: f=6 (6 vibr. 3K, 3P). Some vibrational energies may be "frozen out" at room temperature.
- 1.4. **Heat and work.** First law of thermodynamics $\Delta U = Q + W$. The change in energy is equal to the heat added and the work done. Heat transfer happens by *conduction*, *convection* and *radiation*.
- 1.5. Compression work. Consider a piston. The force is F=PA. Assumes that the pressure is uniform. Compression must be slow enough so the gas has time to continually equilibrate to the changing conditions $\rightarrow quasistatic$. A compressed gas, i.e. negative ΔV gives $W=F\Delta x=PA\Delta x=-P\Delta V$.
- 1.5.1. Compression of ideal gas. Two idealised ways: Isothermal compression is so slow that the temperature of the gas does not rise (quasistatic). Adiabatic compression is so fast that no heat escapes during the compression. $VT^{f/2} = \text{constant}, \ V^{\gamma}P = \text{constant}. \ \gamma = \frac{f+2}{f}$ is the adiabatic exponent.
- 1.6. **Heat capacities.** Amount of heat needed to raise an object's temperature, per degree temperature increase: $C = \frac{Q}{\Delta T} = \frac{\Delta U W}{\Delta T}$. W = 0 and V = constant is called heat capacity heat capacity at constant volume, else there would be compression work, $-P\Delta V$. $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V$. If an object expand when heated and do work on surroundings, there is negative W. At constant P, Q i unambiguous \rightarrow heat capacity at constant pressure: $C_P = \left(\frac{\Delta U (-P\Delta V)}{\Delta T}\right)_P = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P + P\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}_P$.
- 1.6.1. Latent heat. During a phase transformation $C = \frac{Q}{\Delta T} = \frac{Q}{0} = \infty$. While $L = \frac{Q}{m}$ is the heat required to accomplish the transformation, the latent heat.

1.6.2. Enthalpy. To create a rabbit out of nothing, the sorcerer must summon up not only the energy U of the rabbit, but also some additional energy, equal to PV, to push the atmosphere out of the way to make room. The enthalpy: H = U + PV. At constant P, $\Delta H = Q + W_{other}$.

2. The Second Law

Entropy, and multiplicity, tends to increase.

- 2.1. **Two-state systems.** Multiplicity is given by the binomial coefficient. $\Omega(N,n) = \frac{N!}{n! \cdot (N-n)!} = \binom{N}{n}$. How many ways to pick n objects out of N. Permutations: ${}_{n}P_{k} = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$. Unordered permutations: ${}_{n}C_{k} = {}_{n}P_{k}/k! = \binom{n}{k}$.
- 2.2. Einstein model of a solid. One energy unit is $h\nu=\hbar\omega$. Multiplicity of Einstein solid with N oscillators (N/3 atoms) and q energy units: $\Omega(N,q)=\binom{q+N-1}{q}$.
- 2.3. Interacting systems. Two solids are weakly coupled when flow of energy between them is much slower than flow of energy between atoms within each solid. Macrostate is the combined system, specified by temporarily constrained values U_A , U_B . Over time they will change, with the sum $U_{tot} = U_A + U_B$ remaining fixed. All parameters in such a system is N_A , N_B , $q_{tot} = q_A + q_B$, $\Omega_{tot} = \Omega_A \Omega_B$. Fundamental assumption of statistical mechanics: In an isolated system, all accessible microstates are equally probable.
- 2.4. Large systems. If |x| << 1, a Taylor expansion gives $\ln(x+1) \approx x$. If N >> 1 one can apply Stirling's approximation: $N! \approx N^N e^{-1} \sqrt{2\pi N}$. If N is a large number, and N! is very large, the square root factor can be omitted. This is usually good enough: $\ln N! = N \ln N N$. In a large Einstein solid q >> N is the high temperature limit: $\Omega \approx \frac{(q+N)!}{q!N!}$, $\ln \Omega \approx (q+N) \ln(q+N) q \ln q N \ln N$, where $\ln(q+N) \approx \ln q + \frac{N}{q}$. S.T.: $\ln \Omega \approx N \ln \frac{q}{N} + N + \frac{N^2}{q}$.
- 2.5. **The ideal gas.** $\Omega(U,V,N)=f(N)V^NU^{3N/2}$, where f(N) is a complicated function of N. $\Omega_N=\frac{1}{N!}\frac{V^N}{h^{3N}}\times \text{(area of momentum hypersphere)}. "area"=\frac{2\pi^{d/2}}{(\frac{d}{n}-1)}r^{d-1}$, where in general d=3N and $r=\sqrt{2mU}$.
- 2.6. **Entropy.** $S = k \ln \Omega$. Now you see why the logarithm of the multiplicity is nice to have. Entropy of an ideal gas: $S = Nk \left[\ln \left(\frac{V}{N} \left(\frac{4\pi mU}{3Nh^2} \right)^{3/2} \right) + \frac{5}{2} \right]$ (The Sackur-Tetrode equation). Depends on V, E, N. Increasing any of them increases S.
- 2.6.1. Mixing. One gas into another chamber: $\Delta S_A = Nk \ln \frac{V_f}{V_i} = Nk \ln 2$. Two gases mixing, by removing a partition: $\Delta S_{tot} = \Delta S_A + \Delta S_B = 2Nk \ln 2$. Must be distinguishable gases. Gibbs Paradox.
- 2.6.2. Irreversible. Processes that create new entropy are said to be irreversible. A sudden expansion is irreversible. A reversible volume change must in fact be quasistatic such that $W = -P\Delta V$.

- 3. Interactions and Implications
- 3.1. **Temperature.** Two Einstein solids: $\frac{\partial S_A}{\partial U_A} = \frac{\partial S_B}{\partial U_B}$ at equilibrium with N_A , N_B fixed. Temperature is defined as $\frac{1}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_{N,V}$. If the slope is large the temperature must be small and vice versa.
- 3.2. Entropy and heat. Algorithm to predict the heat capacity of a system: 1. Express the multiplicity Ω as a function of N, V and N. 2. Take the logarithm to find the entropy: $S = k \ln \Omega$. 3. Differentiate with respect to U and take the reciprocal to find the temperature, T as a function of U and other var's. 4. Solve for U as a function of T (and others). 5. Differentiate U(T) to obtain a prediction of heat capacity (others held fixed). $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_{N,V}$. At very low temperatures all degrees of freedom must "freeze out", meaning $C_V \to 0$ as $T \to 0$. This is the third law.
- 3.3. **Paramagnetism.** A system consists of N spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles, often referred to as dipoles, immersed in a constant magnetic field **B**. Total energy is $U = \mu B(N_{\downarrow} + N_{\uparrow}) = \mu B(N 2N_{\uparrow})$. Magnetisation is $M = \mu(N_{\downarrow} N_{\uparrow}) = -\frac{U}{B}$. Multiplicity is $\Omega(N_{\uparrow}) = \binom{N}{N_{\uparrow}} = \frac{N!}{N_{\uparrow}!N_{\downarrow}!}$.
- 3.4. Mechanical equilibrium and pressure. Pressure is $P = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_{U,N}$. Another proof of ideal gas law: $\Omega = f(N)V^NU^{3N/2}, \ S = Nk\ln V + \frac{3}{2}Nk\ln U + k\ln f(N), \ P = T\frac{\partial}{\partial V}(Nk\ln V) = \frac{NkT}{V} \to PV = NkT.$
- 3.4.1. Thermodynamic identity. Two steps: ΔU and ΔV . Sum of entropy change: $\Delta S = (\Delta S)_1 + (\Delta S)_2$. S.T. $dS = \left(\frac{\Delta S}{\Delta U}\right)_V \Delta U + \left(\frac{\Delta S}{\Delta V}\right)_U \Delta V$, then for a small change $dS = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_V dU + \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_U dV$. Inserting definitions of temperature and pressure yields $dS = \frac{1}{T}dU + \frac{P}{T}dV$ which can be rearranged to dU = TdS PdV.
- 3.4.2. Entropy and heat again. dU = Tds PdV = Q + W if any volume change is quasistatic. If Q = 0 the process is also adiabatic \rightarrow isentropic. We have $(\Delta S)_V = \int_{T_i}^{T_f} \frac{C_V}{T} dT$ and $(\Delta S)_P = \int_{T_i}^{T_f} \frac{C_P}{T} dT$
- 3.5. Diffusive equilibrium and chemical potential. The chemical potential is $\mu = -T \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N}\right)_{U,V} = \left(\frac{\Delta U}{\Delta N}\right)_S = -\epsilon, \text{ where } \epsilon \text{ is the size of a unit of energy. The generalised thermodynamic identity becomes } dU = TdS PdV + \sum \mu_i dN_i$

4. Engines and Refrigerators

4.1. **Heat engine.** A device that absorbs heat and converts part of that energy into work. The work produced is the difference between the heat absorbed and the waste expelled: $W = Q_h - Q_c$, where Q_h is heat absorbed from the hot reservoir and Q_c is heat expelled to cold reservoir. Efficiency: $e \equiv \frac{W}{Q_h} = \frac{Q_h - Q_c}{Q_h} = 1 - \frac{Q_c}{Q_h}$. First law: energy is conserved. Second law: entropy is a fluid that can be created but never destroyed, ergo $\frac{Q_c}{t_c} \geq \frac{Q_h}{T_h}$ and $\frac{Q_c}{Q_h} \geq \frac{T_c}{T_h}$. One concludes $e \leq 1 - \frac{T_c}{T_c}$.

- 4.1.1. The Carnot cycle (max efficiency). Four steps:
- 1. Isothermal expansion at T_h while absorbing heat. 2. adiabatic expansion to T_c . 3. Isothermal compression at T_c while expelling heat. 4. Adiabatic compression back to T_h . The system must be but in contact with the hot reservoir during step 1 and with the cold reservoir during step 3.
- 4.2. **Refrigerators.** A heat engine in reverse. Efficiency now called coefficient of performance $\text{COP} = \frac{Q_c}{W} = \frac{Q_c}{Q_h Q_c} = \frac{1}{Q_h/Q_c 1}$. Some inequalities: $\frac{Q_h}{T_h} \geq \frac{Q_c}{T_c}$ which gives $\frac{Q_h}{Q_c} \geq \frac{T_h}{T_c}$. One can conclude $\text{COP} \leq \frac{1}{T_h/T_c 1} = \frac{T_c}{T_h T_c}$.

5. Free energy and Chemical Thermodynamics

Processes that are not cyclic. Interaction with environment s.t. T and P are constant, not E and V.

5.1. Free Energy as Available work. Environment with constant P, related to *enthalpy* is **Helmholtz free energy**: $F \equiv U - TS = U - T\Delta S$. Energy needed to create system, minus energy for from environment at temp T.

Environment with constant P and T, work needed to create/destroy is Gibbs free energy G = U - TS + PV = H - TS. The magician needs not the entire enthalpy, some comes for free as heat.

The four functions U, H, F and G are called **thermodynamic potentials**. Identities: $H \colon dH = dU + PdV + VdP = TdS + VdP + \mu dN, F \colon dF = dU - TdS - SdT = -SdT - PdV + \mu dN, <math>S = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_{V,N}, P = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_{T,N}, \mu = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T_P}.$ $G \colon dG = -SdT + VdP + \mu dN, S = -\left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial T}\right)_{P,N}, V = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P}\right)_{T,N}, \mu = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N}\right)_{T_P}.$

Example of **Maxwell relation**: $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial V} \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S}\right)_{V,N}\right)_{S,N}$ = $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial S} \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_{S,N}\right)_{V,N} \rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_{S} = -\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial S}\right)_{V}$.

- 5.2. Free Energy as a Force toward Equilibrium. An increase in total entropy. Constant N, U, V: S increase. Constant N, T, V: F decrease. Constant N, T, P: G decrease. Extensive properties: V, N, S, U, H, F, G, m. Intensive properties: T, P, μ, ρ .
- 5.3. Phase Transformations of Pure Substances. The Clausius-Clapyron relation: $G_l = G_g$ at phase boundary, to remain $G_l = dG_g$. Thermodynamic identity for G: $-S_l dT + V_l dP = -S_g dT + V_g dP$ gives $\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{S_g S_l}{V_g V_l}$. Write $S_g S_l = \frac{L}{T}$, where L is latent heat, to get $\frac{dP}{dT} = \frac{L}{T\Delta V}$. Applies to the slope of any phase boundary line on a PT diagram.

The van der Waals equation is $\left(P + \frac{aN^2}{V^2}\right)(V - Nb) = NkT$. Mod of ideal gas with molecular interaction.

6. Boltzmann Statistics

6.1. The Boltzmann factor. System in contact with reservoir and assume equal probability for all microstates. Boltzmann factor $= e^{-E(s)/kT}$

Partition function: $Z = \sum_{s} e^{-E(s)/kT}$. Botlzmann/canonical distribution: $\mathcal{P}(s) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-E(s)/kT}$.

- 6.2. Average Values. $\bar{X} = \sum_s X(s)P(s)$. $\bar{E} = -\frac{1}{Z}\frac{\partial Z}{\partial \beta} = -\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \beta}$. Example: Rotation of diatomic molecules (2 rot d.o.f.). Assuming low density. Allowed energies $E(j) = j(j+1)\epsilon$, $j=0,1,\ldots$ with degeneracy $\Omega(j))2j+1$. Then $X_{rot} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (2j+1)e^{-E(j)/kT}$. One can approximate with an integral if $kt >> \epsilon$: $Z_{rot} \approx \int_0^{\infty} (2j+1)e^{-E(k)/kT}dj = \frac{kT}{\epsilon} \to \bar{E} = kT$ in agreement with the equipartition theorem (identical atoms, divide by 2). $C_V = \frac{\partial \bar{E}}{\partial T} = k$. At low T, $C_V \to 0$ according to third law. Agrees with exact Z.
- 6.3. The Equipartition Theorem. Applies to systems with energy in the form of quadratic degrees of freedom: $E(q) = cq^2$ where c is a constant and q is a coordinate or momentum variable (x, p_x, L_x) . Each q corresponds to a separate, independent state. Pretend they're discretely spaced, separated by intervals Δq . $Z = \sum_q e^{-\beta cq^2} \approx \frac{1}{\Delta q} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\beta cq^2} dq$. Approximate to integral if Δq is small. Bell curve. Calculate $\bar{E} = \frac{1}{2}kT$ from this to confirm equipartition theorem. Only true in high T limit, or when spacing b/w energy levels i much less than kT.
- 6.4. The Maxwell Speed Distribution. From equipartition theorem, $v_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}}$. This is an average, we want a distributions for speed of molecules. v can vary continuously \rightarrow infinitely small probabilities. Use intervals, area under graph: $\mathcal{P}(v_1 \dots v_2) = \int_{v_1}^{v_2} \mathcal{D}(v) dv$, where $\mathcal{P}(v) \propto e^{-mv^2/2kT}$ and $\mathcal{D}(v) \propto \mathcal{P}(v) \times \Omega(v)$, where $\Omega(v)$ is no of vectors \vec{v} corresponding to $v \propto 4\pi v^2$. Must be set of vectors on surface of sphere with Area = $4\pi v^2$. Then $\mathcal{D}(s) = C \cdot 4\pi v^2 e^{-mv^2/2kT}$. Find C by normalising, with substitute $x = \sqrt{m/2kT}$, $1 = 4\pi C \left(\frac{2kT}{m}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty x^2 e^{-x^2} dx \rightarrow C = (m/2\pi kT)^{3/2}$. Final result: $\mathcal{D}(v) = \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} 4\pi v^2 e^{-mv^2/2kT}$, note that $\bar{v} = \sqrt{\frac{8kT}{\pi m}}$.
- 6.5. Partition Functions and Free Energy. System at fixed U in contact with reservoir at T. Z(T) analogous to $\Omega(T)$. $F = U TS = -kT \ln Z$, tends to decrease. $S = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial T}\right)_{V,N}, \, P = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_{T,N}, \, \mu = +\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T,V}.$
- 6.6. Partition Functions for Composite Systems. Two particles: $Z_{tot} = \sum_{s} e^{-\beta[E_1(s) + E_2(s)]} = \sum_{s} e^{-\beta E_1(s)} e^{-\beta E_2(s)}$. Distinguishable $Z_{tot} = \sum_{s_1} \sum_{s_2} e^{-\beta E_1(s_1)} e^{-\beta E_2(s_2)} = Z_1 Z_2$. Indistinguishable $Z_{tot} = \frac{1}{2} Z_1 Z_2$. N particles: Distinguishable $Z_{tot} = Z_1 Z_2 Z_3 \dots Z_N$. Indistinguishable $Z_{tot} \frac{1}{Z} Z_1^N$. Assumes low density, i.e.
- 6.7. **Ideal gas revisited.** Boltzmann factors $e^{-E(s)/kT} = e^{-E_{tr}(s)/kT}e^{-E_{int}(s)/kT}$, additionally $Z_1 = Z_{tr}Z_{int}$. Translational first: Standing wave patterns are limited to $\lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n}$, using de Broglie $(p = h/\lambda)$, $p_n = \frac{h}{\lambda_n} = \frac{hn}{2L}$. Energy-momentum relation $(E = p^2/2m)$, $E_n = \frac{p_n^2}{2m} = \frac{h^2n^2}{8mL^2}$. $Z_{1D} = \sum_n e^{-E_n/kT} = \sum_n e^{-h^2n^2/8mL^2kT}$. Integral approx $Z_{1D} = \int_0^\infty e^{-h^2n^2/8mL^2kT} dn = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \sqrt{\frac{8mL^2kT}{h^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi mkT}{h^2}} L \equiv \frac{L}{\ell_Q}$. In 3D: $E_{tr} = \frac{p_x^2}{2m} + \frac{p_y^2}{2m} + \frac{p_z^2}{2m}$ and $Z_{tr} = \frac{L_x L_y L_z}{\ell_Q \ell_Q \ell_Q} = \frac{V}{v_Q}$. Partition function for one particle: $Z_1 = \frac{V}{v_Q} Z_{int}$ and for N: $Z = \frac{1}{N!} \left(\frac{VZ_{int}}{v_Q}\right)^N$.

7. QUANTUM STATISTICS

7.1. The Gibbs Factor. Gibbs factor $= e^{-[E(s) - \mu N(s)]/kT}$. $\mathcal{P}(s) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-[E(s) - \mu N(s)]/kT}$. The grand partition function $\mathcal{Z} = \sum_s e^{-[E(s) - \mu N(s)]/kT}$.

7.2. **Bosons and Fermions.** Particles with integer spin are

- bosons, while particles with half-integer spin are fermions. Two identical fermions cannot occupy the same space (Pauli exclusion principle). If $Z_1 >> N$ chance of two particles in same state is negligible. For ideal gas $Z_1 = \frac{VZ_{int}}{v_q}$. The quantum volume is $v_Q = \ell_Q^3 = \left(\frac{h}{\sqrt{2\pi m k T}}\right)^3$, a cube of the average de Broglie wavelength. Then: $\frac{V}{N} >> v_q$. Distance b/w particles must be greater than de Broglie w.l. Fermi-Dirac: n can only be 0 or 1, so $\mathcal{Z} = 1 + e^{-(\epsilon \mu)/kT}$. Occupancy: $\bar{n} = \sum_n = n\mathcal{P}(n) = 0 \cdot \mathcal{P}(0) + 1 \cdot \mathcal{P}(1) = \frac{e^{-(\epsilon \mu)/kT}}{1 + e^{-(\epsilon \mu)/kT}}$. Simplification yields distribution $\bar{n}_{FD} = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon \mu)/kT} + 1}$. Bose-Einstein: n can be any non-negative integer, so the grand partition function is $\mathcal{Z} = 1 + e^{-(\epsilon \mu)/kT} + e^{-2(\epsilon \mu)/kT} + \cdots = 1 + e^{-(\epsilon \mu)/kT} + (e^{-(\epsilon \mu)/kT})^2 + \cdots = \frac{1}{1 e^{-(\epsilon \mu)/kT}}$. μ must be less than ϵ , the series must converge. Occupancy: $\bar{n} = \sum_n n\mathcal{P}(n) = 0 \cdot \mathcal{P}(0) + 1 \cdot \mathcal{P}(1) + 2 \cdot \mathcal{P}(2) + \ldots$, abbreviate $x \equiv (\epsilon \mu)/kT$. Then $\bar{n} = \sum_n \frac{e^{-nx}}{\mathcal{Z}} = -\frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}} \sum_n \frac{\partial}{\partial x} e^{-nx} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial \mathcal{Z}}{\partial x}$. Distribution: $\bar{n}_{BE} = -(1 e^{-x}) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (1 e^{-x}) = (1 e^{-x})(1 e^{-x})^{-2}(e^{-x}) = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon \mu)/kT 1}}$
- 7.3. **Degenerate Fermi Gases.** At t=0 Fermi-Dirac becomes step function. All states $\epsilon_s < \mu$ are occupied and v.v. μ is the **Fermi energy**: $\epsilon_F \equiv \mu(T=0)$. A free electron in a box have allowed wavelengths $\lambda_n = \frac{2L}{n}$, $p_n = \frac{h}{\lambda_n} = \frac{hn}{2L}$, in 3D $p_x = \frac{hn_x}{2L}$ etc. which yields allowed energies $\epsilon = \frac{|\vec{p}|^2}{2m} = \frac{h^2}{8mL}(n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)$. ϵ_F is the energy of a state that sits just on the surface of an eight-sphere in "n-space", so $\epsilon_F = \frac{h^2n_{max}^2}{8mL^2}$. Because fermions have two spin orientations, the number of occupied states is twice the volume of an eight-sphere $N=2\times (\text{volume of eigth-sphere}) = 2\cdot\frac{1}{8}\cdot\frac{4}{3}\pi n_{max}^3 = \frac{\pi n_{max}^2}{3}$. Combining gives the Fermi energy $\epsilon_F = \frac{h^2}{8m}\left(\frac{3N}{\pi V}\right)^{2/3}$.

The number of states in n-space with magnitude n between n and n+dn is $D(n)dn=2\cdot\frac{1}{8}\cdot 4\pi n^2dn=\pi n^2dn$. No of states: $N=\sum_{n_x,n_y,n_z}2\bar{n}(\epsilon(n_x,n_y,n_z),\mu,T)=\int_0^\infty \bar{n}(\epsilon(n),\mu,T)D(n)dn$. Avg energy: $\bar{E}=\sum_{n_x,n_y,n_z}2\epsilon(n_x,n_y,n_z)\bar{n}(\epsilon(n_x,n_y,n_z),\mu,T)=\int_0^\infty \epsilon(n)\bar{n}(\epsilon(n),\mu,T)D(n)dn$. Substitute: $d\epsilon(n)=\frac{d\epsilon}{dn}dn$. Which gives $N=\int_0^\infty \bar{n}(\epsilon(n),\mu,T)D(n(\epsilon))\frac{1}{d\epsilon/dn}d\epsilon$ and $\bar{E}=\int_0^\infty \epsilon(n)\bar{n}(\epsilon(n),\mu,T)D(n(\epsilon))\frac{1}{d\epsilon/dn}d\epsilon$. See that $D(n)dn=D(\epsilon)d\epsilon$. Apply relation $\epsilon(n)=\frac{\hbar}{2m}\left(\frac{\pi}{L}\right)^2n^2=an^2\to n=\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{a}}$ and $\frac{d\epsilon}{dn}=2an$. Then: $D(\epsilon)=D(n)\frac{1}{d\epsilon/dn}=\pi n^2\frac{1}{2an}=\frac{\pi}{2a}\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{a}}=\frac{\pi}{2a^{3/2}}\epsilon^{1/2}=\frac{\pi(8m)^{3/2}}{2h^3}V\sqrt{\epsilon}=\frac{3N}{2\epsilon_F^{3/2}}\sqrt{\epsilon}$.

7.4. **Blackbody Radiation.** QHO allowed energies: $E_n = 0, hf, 2hf, \ldots$ Partition function: $Z = 1 e^{-\beta hf} + e^{-2\beta hf} + \cdots = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta hf}}$. Average energy: $\bar{E} = -\frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial \beta} = \frac{hf}{e^{hf/kT} - 1}$. Average number of units of energy is $\bar{n}_{Pl} = \frac{1}{e^{hf/kT} - 1}$.

7.5. **Bose-Einstein Condensation.** Energy of atoms in box: $\epsilon_0 = \frac{3h^2}{8mL^2}$. Atoms in this state (B-E): $N_0 = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon_0 - \mu)(kt_{-1})}}$. Taylor series gives $\frac{kT}{\epsilon_0 - \mu}$. Total number of atoms approximated by integral $N = \int_0^\infty g(\epsilon) \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon - \mu)/kT_{-1}}} d\epsilon$. Density of states: $g(\epsilon) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{2\pi m}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} V \sqrt{\epsilon}$. Guess $\mu = 0$, switch $x = \epsilon/kT$. $N = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{2\pi m}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} V \int_0^\infty \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon} d\epsilon}{e^{\epsilon/kT_{-1}}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{2\pi mkT}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} V \int_0^\infty \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon} d\epsilon}{e^{\epsilon/kT_{-1}}}$. The integral is 2.315. Wrong result. $N_{excited} = 2.612 \left(\frac{2\pi mkT}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} V = \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^{3/2} N$ when $T < T_c$. Rest is in ground state, $N_0 = N - N_{excited} = \left[1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^{3/2}\right] N$. Abrupt accumulation of atoms in ground state at temperatures below T_c is called **Bose-Einstein con-**

densation.