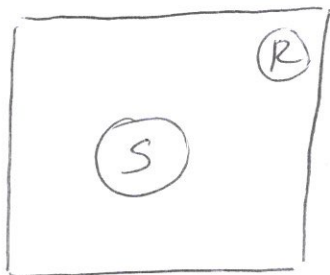


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Consider a small volume of ISM inside a huge cloud of ISM. Let's call the small volume  $S$  and the huge one  $R$ .



$S$  can absorb energy from  $R$  and give energy to  $R$ , but  $R$  is so large that we can consider that the energy remains constant  $\pm \Delta R$ .

$S$  is a system that can be in two energy states

—  $E_a$

—  $E_b$

Assume ~~Consider~~ that the energy difference is 1 and that the reservoir has 10 particles and an initial energy  $U_0 = 100$  units. In how many ways can the energy be distributed among the 10 particles? E.g.

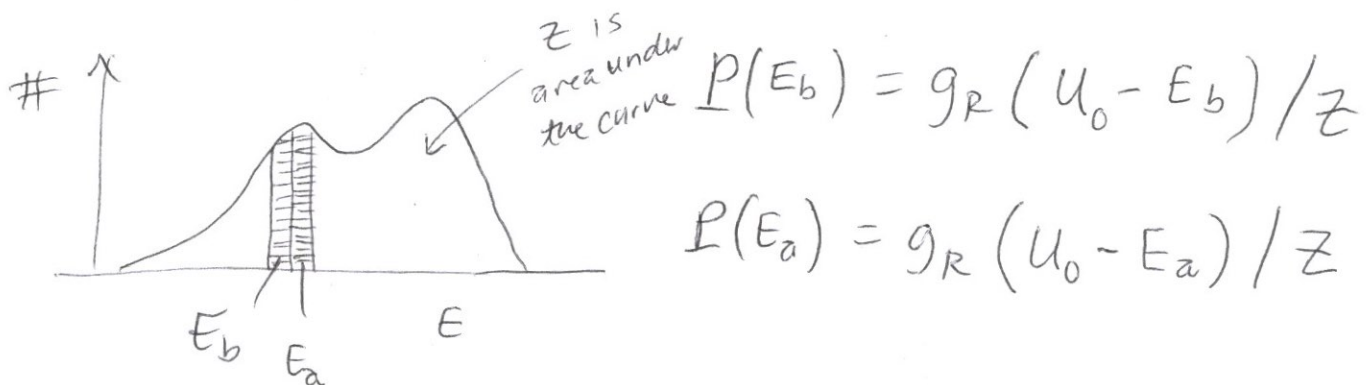
Particle	state 1	state 2	state 3	... state p	... state q
1	100	99	98	10	0
2	0	1	1	10	0
3	0	0	1	10	0
4	0	0	0	10	0
5	0	0	0	10	0
6	0	0	0	10	0
7	0	0	0	10	0
8	0	0	0	10	0
9	0	0	0	10	0
10	0	0	0	10	100

The actual number does not matter, only the fact 131 that there is in principle a number of ways the energy can be arranged. Let's call it  $g_R(U_0)$ .

If R loses 1 unit of energy to S and  $U - E_b = 99$ ,  
~~is the num~~  $\star$  IS THE NUMBER OF WAYS THE ENERGY  
CAN BE ARRANGED THE SAME FOR  $g_R(U_0)$  and  $g_R(U - E_b)$   
IS IT GREATER? LOWER? ??

In general, whether it is greater or lower depends on the specifics of the system, but what really matters here is that  $g_R(U_0)$  and  $g_R(U - E_b)$  can be different.

If we want to know whether S is in the energy state A or B, we could measure the energy of R. if there are many energy states, we can't know for sure, but we can get a probability.



WHAT IS THE RATIO OF THE PROBABILITIES?

$$\frac{P(E_b)}{P(E_a)} = \frac{g_R(U_0 - E_b)/Z}{g_R(U_0 - E_a)/Z}$$

The definition of entropy is the natural log of the number of states available to the system, so  
(times  $k_B$ )  $S = k_B \ln g$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P(E_b)}{P(E_a)} &= \frac{\exp \{ \ln [g_R(U_0 - E_b)] \}}{\exp \{ \ln [g_R(U_0 - E_a)] \}} = \frac{\exp \{ S_R(U_0 - E_b) / k_B \}}{\exp \{ S_R(U_0 - E_a) / k_B \}} \\ &= \exp \left[ \frac{S_R(U_0 - E_b) - S_R(U_0 - E_a)}{k_B} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\Delta S_R \equiv S_R(U_0 - E_b) - S_R(U_0 - E_a)$ , then

$$\frac{P(E_b)}{P(E_a)} = \exp \left[ \Delta S_R / k_B \right] \quad \text{The ratio of the probabilities is proportional to } e^{\Delta S_R / k_B}$$

Here we can do a Taylor expansion,  $f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots$   
about  $U_0$ , since  $E$  is small.

$$S_R(U_0 - E) \approx S_R(U_0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } x &= U_0 - E \\ a &= U_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$S_R(u_0 - E_b) \approx S_R(u_0) + (u_0 - E_b - u_0) \left. \frac{dS_R}{du} \right|_{u=u_0} + \frac{1}{2} (u_0 - E_b - u_0)^2 \left. \frac{d^2 S_R}{du^2} \right|_{u=u_0}$$

$$S_R(u_0 - E_b) \approx S_R(u_0) - E_b \left. \frac{dS_R}{du} \right|_{u=u_0} + \frac{1}{2} E_b^2 \left. \frac{d^2 S_R}{du^2} \right|_{u=u_0} - \dots$$

Similarly,

$$S_R(u_0 - E_a) \approx S_R(u_0) - E_a \left. \frac{dS_R}{du} \right|_{u=u_0} + \frac{1}{2} E_a^2 \left. \frac{d^2 S_R}{du^2} \right|_{u=u_0} - \dots$$

Since  $E_a$  and  $E_b$  are very small, we can truncate after the first order term. So, to a first approximation,

$$\Delta S_R \approx \cancel{S_R(u_0)} - E_b \left. \frac{dS_R}{du} \right|_{u=u_0} - \left[ \cancel{S_R(u_0)} - E_a \left. \frac{dS_R}{du} \right|_{u=u_0} \right]$$

$$\Delta S_R \approx \left. \frac{dS_R}{du} \right|_{u=u_0} \left[ -(E_b - E_a) \right]$$

The units of  $dS_R$  are  $K_B$ , J/K

The units of  $u$  are J

The units of  $\frac{dS_R}{du}$  are  $\frac{J/K}{J} = \frac{1}{K}$ .  $\frac{dS_R}{du}$  is in fact  $\frac{1}{T}$



$$\Delta S_R \approx - \frac{(E_b - E_a)}{T}, \text{ so}$$

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$$\frac{P(E_b)}{P(E_a)} = \exp \left[ - \frac{(E_b - E_a)}{k_B T} \right] = \frac{\exp[-E_b/k_B T]}{\exp[-E_a/k_B T]}$$

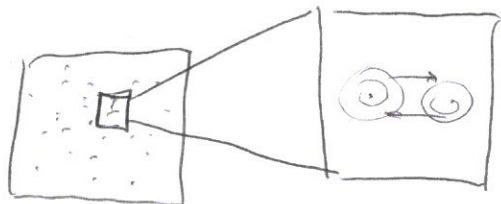
$$P(E_a) = \frac{n_a}{g_a}, \quad P(E_b) = \frac{n_b}{g_b}$$

$$\frac{P(E_a)}{P(E_b)} = \frac{n_a/g_a}{n_b/g_b} = \frac{n_a g_b}{n_b g_a} = \frac{\exp[-E_a/k_B T]}{\exp[-E_b/k_B T]}$$

$$n_a/n_b = \frac{g_a \exp[-E_a/k_B T]}{g_b \exp[-E_b/k_B T]}$$

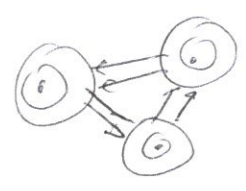
The principle of detailed balance was introduced by Boltzmann in 1872 and used it to prove that entropy always increases in a system which initially has low entropy. It states simply that in equilibrium, each process in a system is in equilibrium with its reverse process.

From the outside it looks like nothing happens, but if you zoom in, you can see that the particles of a system are interacting



moving energy back and forth.

The processes should be elemental, detailed balance is based on microscopic reversibility (the laws of physics are the same in  $+t$  and  $-t$ ). Cyclical process that conserve energy do not seem to contribute to equilibrium



Local detailed balance is the basis of non-equilibrium thermodynamics

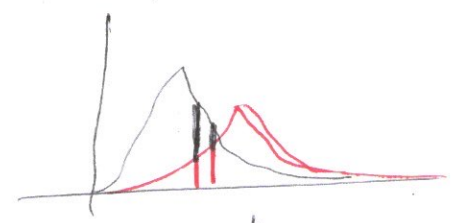
Einstein used detailed balance with his coefficients

$B_b^a n_b$	$- B_a^b n_a$	$= A_a^b n_a$	$n_a$ number density of particles in energy level a
Absorption $E_b \rightarrow E_a$	stimulated emission $E_a \rightarrow E_b$	spontaneous emission $E_a \rightarrow E_b$	$n_b$ Energy level b

$$\rho(\nu, T) \left( B_b^a g_b e^{-E_b/k_B T} - B_a^b g_a e^{-E_a/k_B T} \right) = A_a^b g_a e^{-E_a/k_B T} \quad \text{W3.1.13}$$

Applying the condition that the black-body radiation spectrum is unchanged, multiply times  $\rho(\nu, T)$

$$\rho(\nu, T) = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3} \left[ \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/k_B T} - 1} \right]$$



W3.1.13 should hold for all temperatures, but  $B_a^b, B_b^a, A_a^b$  are atomic energy levels and hence temperature-independent. This leads to:

This leads to:

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$$B_b^a g_b = B_a^b g_a \quad \text{and} \quad A_a^b = \left( \frac{8\pi h \nu_{ab}^3}{c^3} \right) B_a^b$$

Since

$$K(\nu) = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left( B_b^a n_b - B_a^b n_a \right) / c$$

fraction of photon energy absorbed by the medium per distance traveled

emission lineshape  
number of particles in state b  
transition rate from b to a  $E_b < E_a$

$$K(\nu) = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left( B_a^b n_b - B_a^b n_a \right) / c = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left( B_b^a n_b - B_b^a n_a \right) / c$$

$$= h\nu \phi(\nu) B_b^a \left[ \frac{g_b e^{-E_b/k_B T}}{g_b e^{-E_a/k_B T}} n_a - n_a \right]$$

$$K(\nu) = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left[ n_b - \frac{g_a e^{-E_a/k_B T}}{g_b e^{-E_b/k_B T}} n_b \right] B_b^a / c$$

$$K(\nu) = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left[ 1 - \frac{g_a e^{-E_a/k_B T}}{g_b e^{-E_b/k_B T}} \right] B_b^a n_b / c \Rightarrow \text{algebra}$$

$$K(\nu) = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left[ 1 - \frac{g_a e^{-E_a/k_B T}}{g_b \left( \frac{e^{-E_a/k_B T}}{n_a/n_b} \right)} \right] B_b^a n_b / c \quad | - g$$

$$K(\nu) = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left[ 1 - \frac{g_a}{\frac{g_b}{n_a/n_b}} \right] B_b^a n_b / c = h\nu \phi(\nu) \left[ 1 - \frac{g_a}{\frac{1}{\frac{g_b n_b}{n_a}}} \right] B_b^a n_b / c$$

$$K(\nu) = h\nu\phi(\nu) \left[ 1 - \frac{n_a/g_a}{n_b/g_b} \right] B_b^a n_b / c$$

(137)

Similarly, with  $J(\nu) = h\nu\phi(\nu) A_a^b n_a$ , we end up

~~$$\frac{J(\nu)}{K(\nu)} = \left( \frac{8\pi h\nu_{ab}^3}{c^2} \right) \left[ \frac{n_b/g_b}{n_a/g_a} - 1 \right]^{-1}$$~~

$$\frac{J(\nu)}{K(\nu)} = \left( \frac{8\pi h\nu_{ab}^3}{c^2} \right) \left[ \exp\left(\frac{h\nu_{ab}}{k_B T}\right) - 1 \right]^{-1}$$

Energy diff

Remember

$$I(\nu, s) = e^{-\tau} I(\nu, s_1) + \frac{J(\nu)}{4\pi c K(\nu)} \left[ 1 - e^{-\tau(\nu, s)} \right] \quad \underline{\text{W3.1.6}}$$

with  $\tau(\nu, s) \equiv \int_{s_1}^s K(\nu, s') ds'$

if we consider  $s_1$  to be the far end of a cloud, then

$$I(\nu, s_1) = 0 \quad \text{and}$$

$$I(\nu, s) = \frac{J(\nu)}{4\pi c K(\nu)} \left[ 1 - e^{-\tau(\nu, s)} \right] = \frac{\rho(\nu_{ab}, T)}{4\pi} \left[ 1 - e^{-\tau(\nu, s)} \right]$$

$$\tau(\nu, s) = h\nu\phi(\nu) B_b^a \left[ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{h\nu_{ab}}{k_B T}\right) \right] \frac{N_b(s)}{c} \quad \text{where}$$

$$N_b(s) = \int_{s_1}^s n_b(s') ds \leftarrow \text{column density}$$