

# Physics 474 – Applied Solid State Physics - Course Notes

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## Introduction:

Notes written while following Dr. Alannah Hallas's PHYS 474 UBC lecture notes. If any errors are found in the notes, feel free to email me at [tobias.faehndrich@gmail.com](mailto:tobias.faehndrich@gmail.com). Overleaf formatting was copied from Rio W.

## Contents

|          |   |          |
|----------|---|----------|
| <b>1</b> | <b>Introduction</b>   | <b>2</b> |
| <b>2</b> | <b>Heat Capacity Models I — Boltzmann and Einstein</b>        | <b>3</b> |
| <b>3</b> | <b>Heat Capacity Models II — Einstein Revisited and Debye</b> | <b>6</b> |

# **1 Introduction**

This lecture talked about the course structure, grading and basic questions about solid state physics and why it is important.

## 2 Heat Capacity Models I — Boltzmann and Einstein

Chapter 2 covers the Specific Heat of Solids

Recall:

- Heat capacity of material is how much energy (heat) you need to add to change the temp (by 1K).

$$C = \frac{d \langle E \rangle}{dT} \quad (2.1)$$

- Solids are incompressible so  $C_v \simeq C_p$
- “specific heat” and “heat capacity” are used interchangeably
- strictly we are speaking about molar heat capacity (per mol of material) with units of  $[J/\text{mol} \cdot K]$
- 

$$1 \text{ mol} = N_A = 6.022 \times 10^{23}$$

Why do we care?

- gives us info about thermally excited states and so we can look for phase transitions
- largest factor in specific heat is atomic vibrations

Heat capacity of an ideal monoatomic gas at constant volume (3-D)

- Equipartition theorem: each quadratic degree of freedom in the energy contributes  $\frac{1}{2}k_B T$  to  $\langle E \rangle$
- Ideal Gas only has kinetic energy with x, y, and z components so we get

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{3}{2}k_B T \quad (2.2)$$

per atom

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{3}{2}RT \quad (2.3)$$

per mol

$$C = \frac{d \langle E \rangle}{dT} = \frac{3}{2}R \quad (2.4)$$

- Note that:

$$R = N_A \cdot k_B = 8.314 J/\text{mol} K$$

Experimental observations from 1820-1910

- Dulong-Petit Law:

$$C = 3k_B \quad (2.5)$$

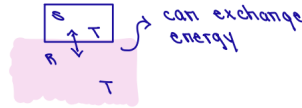
per atom (or  $C = 3R$  per mol)

- Boltzmann made classical statistical model that explained the Dulong-Petit result
  - It treated each atom as a **simple harmonic oscillator**
  - each of which were held in place in each direction by a spring vibrating at a frequency,  $\omega$ .

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \frac{k\hat{x}^2}{2} \quad (2.6)$$

where  $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$  which you will show on HW1 that it gives  $C = 3R$

- But this still does not explain diamond or any solid significantly below room temperature
- Thermodynamics refresher
  - The probability of finding a system, S, that is in thermal equilibrium with a reservoir, R, at some temperature, T, in a given energy state,  $E_i$ ,



is given by

$$\mathbb{P}(E_i) \propto e^{-\beta E_i}$$

where  $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$  with units of  $\left[ \frac{1}{\text{energy}} \right]$

Note that the exponential term is the Boltzmann distribution

- We can use the **partition function (Z)** to normalize our probabilities.  
i.e. so that we get  $\sum_i \mathbb{P}(E_i) = 1$

$$\mathbb{P}(E_i) = \frac{e^{-\beta E_i}}{e^{-\beta E_1} + e^{-\beta E_2} + \dots} = \frac{e^{-\beta E_i}}{Z}$$

where  $Z = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$

- The **expectation value (or thermal average)** for a given quantity is the sum of the possible values weighted by their normalized probabilities.

$$\langle x \rangle = \sum_i x_i \mathbb{P}(E_i) = \sum_i x_i \left( \frac{e^{-\beta E_i}}{Z} \right) = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_i x_i e^{-\beta E_i}$$

where  $Z = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$

- Taking the **derivative of the partition function with respect to  $\beta$**  we uncover a useful trick.

$$\frac{dZ}{d\beta} = \sum_i (-E_i) e^{-\beta E_i}$$

Divide by  $-Z$  and we get

$$\frac{-1}{Z} \frac{dZ}{d\beta} = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_i E_i e^{-\beta E_i} = \langle E \rangle$$

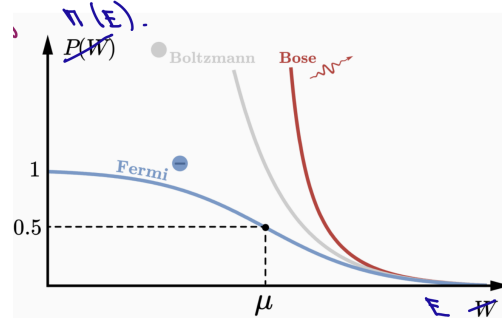
Thus we get the equation that relates the average internal energy to the partition function.

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{-1}{Z} \frac{dZ}{d\beta}$$

which is useful because we want to calculate  $C = \frac{d\langle E \rangle}{dT}$

- **Bose-Einstein and Fermi-Dirac Statistics** to describe the energy distribution of quantum particles
  - \* BE: photons, cooperes pairs,  $\text{He}^4$ , atomic vibrations (phonons)

- The Bose occupation factor  $n_B$  gives the number of bosonic particles occupying a given energy state at a given temperature.  
As  $T \rightarrow 0$ , all particles occupy the ground state.



$$n_B = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)\beta} - 1}$$

- where in the high T limit looks identical to Boltzmann distribution.
- as  $T \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\beta \rightarrow \infty$  and only the lowest E state ( $E \approx \mu$ ) is occupied
- and  $\mu$  is the chemical potential (energy cost to add a particle to the system)
- \* FD: electrons, other leptons,  $\text{He}^3$ 
  - The Fermi factor  $n_F$  gives the number of fermionic particles occupying a given energy state at a given temperature where each state can only be single occupied due to the Pauli exclusion principle.

$$n_F = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)\beta} + 1}$$

- also looks identical to the Boltzmann distribution in the high T limit

### 3 Heat Capacity Models II — Einstein Revisited and Debye

#### Einstein's model for specific heat

- Einstein improved upon Boltzmann's model by treating each atom as a quantum mechanical simple harmonic oscillator, still being held in place in each spatial direction by a spring that vibrates at a frequency,  $\omega$ .

$$E_n = \hbar\omega \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

where  $\omega$  is the frequency of the spring, and  $n$  is the quantum number.

- Note that in this model the atoms are still not connected to each other.
- You can follow the steps:

- Find  $Z$
- $\langle E \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \frac{dZ}{d\beta}$ ,
- $C = \frac{d\langle E \rangle}{dT}$

and then you get

$$C = 3R(\beta\hbar\omega)^2 \cdot \frac{e^{\beta\hbar\omega}}{(e^{\beta\hbar\omega} - 1)^2}$$

Note that this expression depends on temperature!

- For HW1:

$$\sum_n x^n = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad \text{for } |x| < 1$$

and

$$\sinh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$

- The **high T limit of Einstein's model** gives the expected **Dulong-Petit** value

$$\text{As } T \rightarrow \infty, \beta \rightarrow 0$$

You can Taylor expand for the exponential term in the denominator

$$C \approx 3R(\beta\hbar\omega)^2 \cdot \frac{(1 + \beta\hbar\omega)^{\sim 0}}{(\beta\hbar\omega)^2}$$

$$\boxed{C = 3R} \quad \text{which is the Dulong Petit value!}$$

- The **low T limit** accounts for the observation that specific heat decreases with T

$$\text{As } T \rightarrow 0, \beta \rightarrow \infty$$

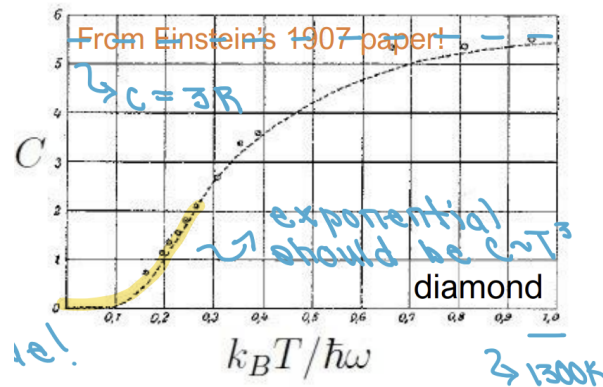
$$C \approx 3R(\beta\hbar\omega)^2 \cdot \left( \frac{1}{e^{\beta\hbar\omega}} \right)$$

Correctly shows that

$$\text{As } T \rightarrow 0, C \rightarrow 0$$

And also the discrepancy for diamond where C increased to 3R above room temp.

But incorrectly suggests an exponential decrease at low T. The data (Einstein's 1907 paper) showed that at low T,  $C \sim T^3$ .



- Einstein temperature is then defined as

$$T_E = \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B}$$

where you can think of a materials hardness to be related to the stiffness of the spring holding it in place

$$T_E \propto \omega, \quad \text{and} \quad \omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

so that the the mass of the atom also determines this temperature.

- You can calculate the typical frequency scale using a typical Einstein temperature using

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi}$$

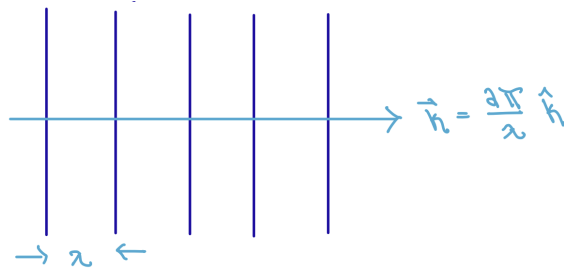
### Debye's model for specific heat

- Debye took Einstein's calculation one step further by realizing that **the atomic vibrations in solids are sound waves** and therefore – not only should the energy levels be quantized – but the energy should vary as a function of the wave vector,  $k$ .

– Einstein:  $\omega = \text{constant}$

– Debye:  $\omega(\vec{k}) = v|\vec{k}|$

- How should we think about the wavevector,  $k$ ?  
e.g. 2D plane wave?



k-space is useful because solids are periodic

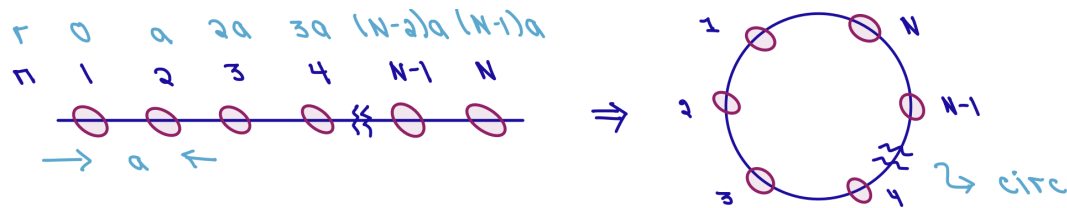
other names:

- momentum space
- reciprocal space
- Q space

Normal space is called "real space"

**Periodic (Born-von Karman) boundary conditions** (equivalent to particle in a box, but easier)

- Rather than treating our solids as having fixed end points, it is very convenient to apply **periodic boundary conditions**.
- In 1D this means taking a very long chain and attaching the ends together.
- Surfaces account for only a tiny fraction of a material so this is a reasonable thing to do.



$$L = N \cdot a$$

- This imposes a condition on the possible k-values: the values of k are quantized!
- A wave  $e^{ikr}$  must have the same value at  $r$  and  $r + L$ :

$$e^{ikr} = e^{ik(r+L)} \Rightarrow e^{ikL} = 1 \Rightarrow k \cdot L = 2\pi n \quad (n = \text{integer})$$

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{L} n$$

k is quantized! and  $\Delta n = 1 \Rightarrow \delta k = \frac{2\pi}{L}$  so that  $L \gg 1$ , then  $\delta k \ll 1$ .

- In 3D ( $v = L^3$ ) we can use the same trick except the solid gets folded into a hypertorus.



- allowed k states  $\vec{k} = \frac{2\pi}{L}(n_x, n_y, n_z)$
- Volume of a k-point ( $\Delta n_i = 1$ ):  $\delta k = \left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)^3$

- Since the number of allowed wave vectors is discrete, we can count them:

$$\#k\text{-points} = \sum_k = \frac{\text{volume of k space}}{\text{volume of k point}} = \frac{\int d\vec{k}}{\left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)^3}$$

- We can convert the sum over all k to a 1D integral (assume spherical symmetry).

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\mathbf{k} \rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} d\varphi \int_0^{\pi} d\theta \sin(\theta) \cdot \int_0^{\infty} k^2 dk$$

For the 3D. Can check 2D and 1D too.

- Now pulling the pieces together for Debye's model, we can calculate the specific heat by starting with an expression analogous to Einstein's except where  $\omega$  depends on  $\mathbf{k}$ .
  - Einstein:

$$\langle E \rangle = 3\hbar\omega \left[ n_B(\beta\hbar\omega) + \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

(from  $\langle E \rangle = -\frac{1}{Z} \frac{dZ}{d\beta}$ )

- Debye:

$$\langle E \rangle = 3 \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \hbar\omega(\mathbf{k}) \left[ n_B(\beta\hbar\omega(\mathbf{k})) + \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

(where  $\omega = v|\vec{k}|$ )

- We can use the relationship above to then convert our sum to an integral – Then, it is preferable to evaluate this integral with respect to  $\omega$  instead of  $k$ .
  1. Convert  $\sum_{\vec{k}}$  to  $\int d\vec{k}$
  2. Convert 3D integral to 1D
  3. Change of variable,  $k = \frac{\omega}{v}$ ,  $dk = \frac{1}{v} d\omega$
  4. Result:

$$\langle E \rangle = \int_0^{\infty} d\omega \cdot \left[ L^3 \cdot \frac{12\pi\omega^2}{(2\pi)^3 v^3} \right] \hbar\omega \left( n_B(\beta\hbar\omega) + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

Note the velocity term!