

Phy 114
Seminar 8

1-①

Bolin

Problem 1 Bayesian Stats.

(from earlier week... "leftover" is)

Problem 1

Monty hall Problem via Bayesian Stat's

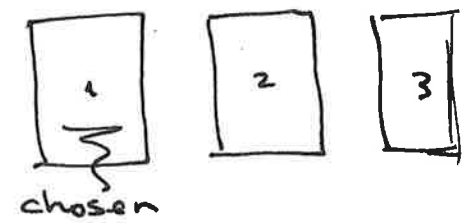
Event A_i : car is behind door i

Event B_i : host opens door i

Definition: $P(E)$ means probability of event E
 $P(E|E_g)$ means probability that
given E_g occurs, E occurs

Known Contestant chooses one of 3 doors
 w.l.o.g. call it door 1

Host opens a door, call it j



Now, contestant would like

to know $P(A_1|B_j)$... likelihood car is
behind chosen door, given host opened door j

Calculations: Host's mentality is known...
 host knows where car is!

$$P(B_2|A_1) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(B_2|A_2) = 0$$

$$P(B_2|A_3) = 1$$

could also calculate $P(B_3|A_i)$ but these would
 be quite similar... $P(B_3|A_1) = \frac{1}{2}$; $P(B_3|A_2) = 1$; $P(B_3|A_3) = 0$

$$P(A_1) = P(A_2) = P(A_3) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$P(B_1) = 0$$

$$P(B_2) = \sum P(B_2 | A_i) P(A_i)$$

$$P(B_2) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(B_3) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Ready to use Bayes' Theorem:

eg. $P(A_1 | B_2) = \frac{P(B_2 | A_1) P(A_1)}{P(B_2)}$

stick $\curvearrowright$ given host opens door 2 $\nearrow$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{3}$$

also $P(A_1 | B_3) = \frac{P(B_3 | A_1) P(A_1)}{P(B_3)} = \frac{1}{3}$

No matter whether host opens door 2 or 3,
Prob of sticking & winning is $\frac{1}{3}$

Checking what we expect ...

if switch to door 3 $\curvearrowright$

$$P(A_3 | B_2) = \frac{P(B_2 | A_3) P(A_3)}{P(B_2)}$$

$$= \frac{1 \cdot \frac{1}{3}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{2}{3}$$

if switch to door 2 $\curvearrowright$

$$P(A_2 | B_3) = \frac{P(B_3 | A_2) P(A_2)}{P(B_3)}$$

$$= \frac{1 \cdot \frac{1}{3}}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{2}{3}$$

Prob of switching & winning is $\frac{2}{3}$

G+T 3.25

Accuracy refers to how many true positives and true negatives a test delivers.

$$A = P(+ | ill) \quad \text{true positive}$$

and also $A = P(- | well) \quad \text{true negative}$

Life doesn't have to be this way! A test could have different probs of true pos + true neg. But we are told to assume these are same.

It is true from probability theory that

$$P(+ | ill) + P(- | ill) = 1$$

$$\therefore P(- | ill) = 1 - A$$

An ill person must get some result

Similarly

$$P(+ | well) + P(- | well) = 1$$

$$\therefore P(+ | well) = 1 - A$$

What a person wants to know is

$$P(ill | +)$$

Bayes' Theorem:

$$P(ill | +) = \frac{P(+ | ill) P(ill)}{P(+)}$$

here $P(+)$ = $P(+ | ill) P(ill) + P(+ | well) P(well)$

Thus,

$$P(\text{ill} | +) = \frac{A P(\text{ill})}{A P(\text{ill}) + (1-A) \underbrace{(1-P(\text{ill}))}_{\text{This is } P(\text{well})}}$$

Let $P(\text{ill}) = \epsilon$

Then $P(\text{ill} | +) = \frac{A \epsilon}{A \epsilon + 1 - A - \epsilon + A \epsilon}$

$P(\text{ill} | +) = \frac{A \epsilon}{2A \epsilon + 1 - A - \epsilon} \quad (1)$

Suppose $P(\text{ill} | +) = 0.50$

$\epsilon = 0.01 \Rightarrow 0.50 = \frac{0.01}{0.02 + \frac{0.99}{A}} - 1$

$\Rightarrow \underline{A = 0.99 \dots 99\%}$

Suppose $P(\text{ill} | +) = 0.50$; $\epsilon = 0.001$

$\Rightarrow A = 0.999 \dots 99.9\%$

In general

Given $P(\text{ill} | +) = 0.50 = \frac{1}{2}$

Can solve Eq. (1) + get

$A = 1 - \epsilon$

*

2) Grand Canonical Stats + fluids in ideal gas
G + T Problem 6.44

a) WTS that $\mathcal{Z}_G = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{(z z_1)^N}{N!} = e^{z z_1}$

For ideal gas. z is the activity ... $z = e^{\beta \mu}$

solution $\mathcal{Z}_G = \sum_s e^{-\beta(E_s - \mu N_s)}$

Using $E_s = E_s(N_s)$ we rewrite as

$$\mathcal{Z}_G = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \sum_{E_s(N)} e^{-\beta E_s(N)} e^{\beta \mu N}$$

sum over
all states s
with N
particles

Thus

$$\mathcal{Z}_G = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} e^{\beta \mu N} \sum_{E_s(N)} e^{-\beta E_s(N)}$$

$$\equiv \mathcal{Z}(T, V, N)$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{Z}_G = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^N \mathcal{Z}(T, V, 1)^N}{N!}$$

for semi-classical
ideal gas

$$\frac{\mathcal{Z}(T, V, 1)^N}{N!}$$

This series
is an
exponential
 $\Rightarrow$

$$\mathcal{Z}_G = e^{z z_1}$$

QED

b) WTS $\bar{N} = zZ_1$,

and $P_N = \frac{z_N Z(T, V, N)}{Z_G} = \frac{(zZ_1)^N}{N! Z_G} = \frac{\bar{N}^N}{N!} e^{-\bar{N}}$

Solution: $\bar{N} = \frac{1}{Z_G} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} N \frac{(zZ_1)^N}{N!}$

But since $Z_G = e^{zZ_1} = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{(zZ_1)^N}{N!}$,

$$\bar{N} = zZ_1 \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial (zZ_1)} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \frac{(zZ_1)^N}{N!}$$

$$= zZ_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial (zZ_1)} \ln Z_G$$

$$= zZ_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial (zZ_1)} \ln e^{zZ_1}$$

$$= zZ_1 \frac{\partial}{\partial (zZ_1)} zZ_1 = \frac{zZ_1}{1} \quad \text{QED}$$

Now $P_N =$ obvious

$$= \frac{e^{\beta \mu N} Z(T, V, N)}{Z_G} = \frac{z^N Z_1^N}{N! Z_G}$$

from above

$$= \frac{\bar{N}^N}{N!} / e^{\bar{N}} = \frac{\bar{N}^N}{N!} e^{-\bar{N}} \quad \text{QED}$$

c) N -dependence of $\overline{(N-\bar{N})^2}$?

First of all, they must mean $\bar{N}$ dependence is

Anyway, it is variance of Poisson dist'n with mean $\bar{N}$. This is, interestingly, equal to its mean!

$$\overline{(N-\bar{N})^2} = \underline{\underline{\bar{N}}}$$

3.

G&T 6.19

Relation between the energy and pressure equations of state for a non-relativistic ideal gas.

The mean energy is given by

$$E = \int_0^\infty \epsilon \bar{n}(\epsilon) g(\epsilon) d\epsilon$$

where, for non-relativistic particles, the number of microstates in the interval $\epsilon + d\epsilon$ is given by

$$g(\epsilon) d\epsilon = n_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2m)^{3/2} \epsilon^{1/2} d\epsilon$$

The mean number of particles in a single microstate k is given by

$$\bar{n}_k = (e^{\beta(\epsilon_k - \mu)} \pm 1)^{-1}$$

So

$$* E = n_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2m)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{3/2} d\epsilon}{(e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} \pm 1)}$$

The multiplicity Ω is given by the Landau potential in eq 6.86

$$\Omega = \sum_k \Omega_k = \mp K T \sum_k \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon_k - \mu)})$$

Since ϵ_k is very small, adjacent energy levels are very close together and the summation can be rewritten as an integral where the summation argument must be multiplied by the density of states $g(\epsilon)$ in energy space.
So,

$$\Omega = \mp K T \int_0^\infty g(\epsilon) \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}) d\epsilon$$

Using our previous definition of $g(\epsilon)$,

$$\Omega = \mp K T \frac{n_s V}{4\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2m)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}) d\epsilon$$

Let $u = \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)})$ and $du = \frac{-\beta e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}}{1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}} d\epsilon$,
so $\int u du = uv - \int v du$

continued...

$$\int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}) d\epsilon = \frac{2}{3} \epsilon^{3/2} \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}) \Big|_0^\infty - \int_0^\infty \frac{2/3 \epsilon^{3/2} (-\beta) e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}}{1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}} d\epsilon$$

Evaluate $\frac{2}{3} \epsilon^{3/2} \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)})$ at ∞

$$\frac{2}{3} (\infty^{3/2}) \ln(1 + 0) \rightarrow \text{undefined}$$

Use l'Hopital's rule, so

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2/3 \epsilon^{3/2} \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)})}{1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}} \xrightarrow{LH} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\beta \epsilon^{3/2} e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}}{1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}}$$

$$= \frac{-\beta \epsilon^{3/2}}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} \pm 1} \approx \frac{-\beta \epsilon^{3/2}}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}} \rightarrow \infty / \infty$$

L'Hopital's again!

$$\xrightarrow{LH} \frac{1}{2} (-\beta) \epsilon^{-1/2} (-\beta) e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} = \frac{1/2 \beta^2}{\epsilon^{1/2} e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1/2 \beta^2}{\infty (\infty)} = 0$$

As $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$,

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{2}{3} \epsilon^{3/2} \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}) = (0) \ln(1 \pm e^{\beta\mu}) = 0$$

So, the uv term goes away entirely, so:

$$\int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} \ln(1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}) d\epsilon = \frac{2}{3} \beta \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{3/2}}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} \pm 1} d\epsilon$$

$$\Omega = \mp K T n_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2m)^{3/2} \frac{2}{3} \beta \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{3/2}}{(e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} \pm 1)} d\epsilon$$

$$* \Omega = -\frac{2}{3} \left[\pm n_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2m)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{3/2}}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} \pm 1} d\epsilon \right]$$

$$\text{Since } E = n_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2m)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{3/2}}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} \pm 1} d\epsilon$$

$$\Omega = -\frac{2}{3} E$$

Since $\Omega = PV$,

$$\boxed{PV = -\frac{2}{3} E} \quad \checkmark$$

Prob 3

WTS

"Surface term"

$$UV \Big|_{\epsilon=0}^{\epsilon=\infty} = 0$$

Here $u = \mp \ln[1 \pm e^{-\beta(\epsilon-\mu)}]$; $v = \frac{2}{3} \epsilon^{3/2}$

Thus, as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

UV approaches $\mp \ln[1 \pm e^{\beta\mu}] \frac{2}{3} \epsilon^{3/2}$ with $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

Thus $UV \Big|_{\epsilon=0} = 0$

Now w $\epsilon \rightarrow \infty \dots$ have $\beta\epsilon \equiv \frac{E}{kT}$ For large number:

$$UV \rightarrow \mp \ln[1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta\epsilon}] \frac{2}{3} \epsilon^{3/2} \frac{1}{\beta^{3/2}}$$

Thus $UV \propto \ln[1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} e^{-\beta\epsilon}] \epsilon^{3/2}$

lets let $x = e^{-\beta\epsilon}$. Then $UV \propto \ln[1 \pm e^{\beta\mu} x] (-\log x)^{3/2}$

Thus $\ln[1 \pm \delta] \approx \pm \delta \Rightarrow$

$$UV \propto x (-\log x)^{3/2}$$

Hence $UV \Big|_{\substack{\epsilon \rightarrow \infty \\ x \rightarrow 0}} \propto -x (\log x)^{3/2} \equiv 0$
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0}$

Aside

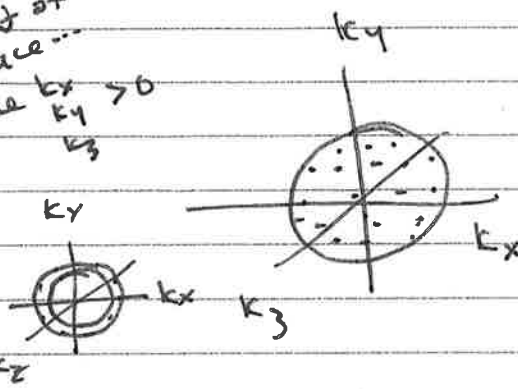
How to find $g(\epsilon)$?

Recall, $I(k) = \frac{4\pi k^3/3}{(\pi/L)^3}$
 is # of states up to wave number k

only take 1st octant of k -space...
 where $k_x, k_y, k_z > 0$

$$\text{And } g(k) dk = \frac{L^3 k^2 dk}{2\pi^2} = \frac{V k^2 dk}{2\pi^2}$$

is volume of k -space shell of width dk



Now, what is $g(\epsilon)$? We need two ideas:

① Conservation of probability
 $g(\epsilon) d\epsilon \equiv g(k) dk$

② "Dispersion relation" tells us what the relationship is between ϵ & k .

eg. massive particle: $\epsilon = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$; $k = \sqrt{2m\epsilon/\hbar^2}$

eg. photon: $\epsilon = \hbar ck$; $k = \epsilon/\hbar c$

Thus $g(\epsilon) = g(k) \frac{dk}{d\epsilon}$

or
 $g(\epsilon) = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m\epsilon}{\hbar^2} \right) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\epsilon\hbar^2}}$

for massive particles
 $g(\epsilon) = \frac{V}{4\pi^2 \hbar^3} (2m)^{3/2} \epsilon^{1/2} \checkmark$

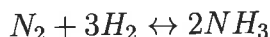
Note: If there are n_s internal states

we multiply this $g(\epsilon)$ by n_s :

4: Production of Ammonia

4: Chemical reactions: production of Ammonia

The commercial production of ammonia from nitrogen and hydrogen is an example of a reaction that occurs the gaseous state:

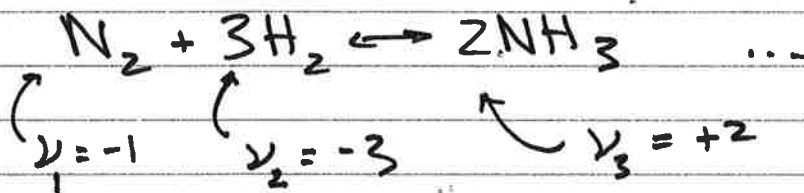


- Write down the equilibrium constant, K , in terms of the partial pressures of the nitrogen, hydrogen, and ammonia. (You may take $p^\circ = 1 \text{ atm.}$)
- Using the data tables at the back of Schroder (on our website under "Resources" link) please confirm that at $T = 298K$, $K = 5.9 \times 10^5$.
- Please draw a quantitatively accurate plot of $\log K$ vs. $1/T$. From this plot or in some other way, find K when $T = 773K$. (This is $500^\circ C$ which is apparently a good temperature at which to run this reaction, using a catalyst to speed it up.)
- Will you drive the equilibrium toward more ammonia, or more nitrogen and hydrogen, if you increase T ?
- Same question, if you increase the pressure?

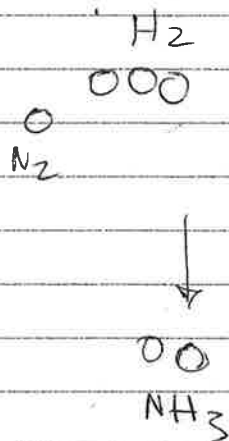
a)
$$K = \sum_{j=1}^{p+q} \left(\frac{P_j}{P^\circ} \right)^{\nu_j}$$

p products
q reagents

so here



$$K = \frac{P_{NH_3}^2 P^\circ{}^2}{P_{N_2} P_{H_2}^3}$$



b) Also could write

$$\ln K = - \frac{\Delta_r G^\circ}{RT}$$

look at Schroeder data

$$\Delta_r G^\circ = 2 \underbrace{\Delta G^\circ_{\text{NH}_3}}_{-16.45 \text{ kJ}} - \underbrace{\Delta G^\circ_{\text{N}_2}}_0 - 3 \underbrace{\Delta G^\circ_{\text{H}_2}}_0$$

$$\therefore \Delta_r G^\circ = -32.9 \times 10^3 \text{ J and}$$

$$\ln K = - \frac{-32.9 \times 10^3 \text{ J}}{8.315 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{mol K}} \cdot 298 \text{ K}} = 13.2775$$

$$\Rightarrow K = 5.8 \times 10^5 \quad \text{close enough :)}$$

c)

Try this ...

$$\frac{d \ln K}{dT} = \frac{\Delta_r H^\circ}{RT^2} \Rightarrow \frac{d \ln K}{d(1/T)} = - \frac{\Delta_r H^\circ}{R}$$

This is van 't Hoff eq ...

see graph of $\ln K$ vs. $1/T$ is straight line with slope $-\Delta_r H^\circ/R$.

Again from Schroeder's table:

$$\Delta_r H^\circ = 2 \underbrace{(-46.11) \text{ kJ}}_{\text{NH}_2 \text{ contrib}} = -92.2 \text{ kJ}$$

Thus, with $R = 8.315 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{mol K}} \dots$

4-3

$$\ln k = +11.09 \times 10^3 \left(\frac{1}{T} \right) + \ln k_0$$

or ...

$$\ln k(773) - \ln k(298) = +11.09 \times 10^3 \left(\frac{1}{773} - \frac{1}{298} \right)$$
$$= -9.587$$

see fitted
slope below :)

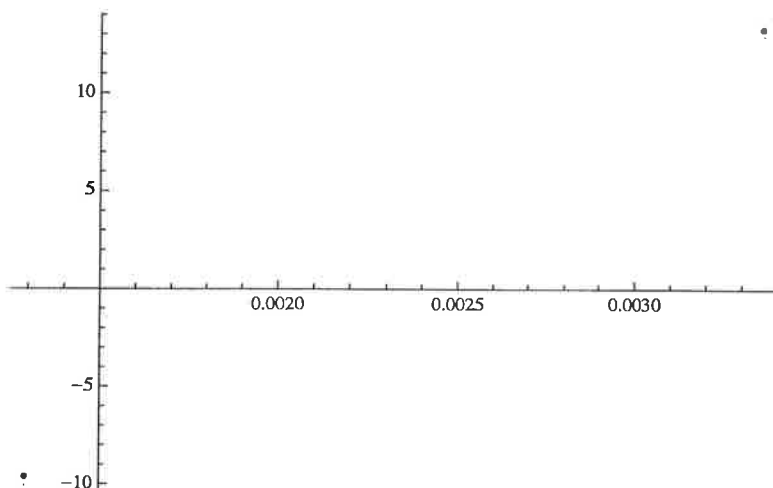
$$\Rightarrow k(773) = 6.86 \times 10^{-5}$$

wow!
really different
& less.

```
lnKdata = {{1/298.0, 13.2775}, {1/773.0, -9.587}}
```

```
{{0.0033557, 13.2775}, {0.00129366, -9.587}}
```

```
Aplot = ListPlot[lnKdata]
```



```
LinearModelFit[lnKdata, x, x]
```

```
FittedModel[-23.9315 + 11088.3 x]
```

d) Le Chatelier's principle: If you heat up an exothermic rxn, you slow it down. You make less NH_3 . (Duh... that's what part c) just showed.)

e) Le Chatelier again: If you increase pressure, rxn will try & make a lower pressure. Thus, since $\rightarrow$ 4 gas molecules LHS & 2 on RHS, you make more NH_3 .

Problem 5

5-1

Absorption onto a surface

Suppose a surface has M distinguishable sites, each of which can absorb at most one indistinguishable gas molecule. Say that an absorbed gas molecule has an energy of $-\epsilon$ compared with an unabsorbed molecule. The molecules have chemical potential μ both in the gas phase and on the surface. (This is what it means for the gas phase to be in equilibrium with the absorbed phase.)

a) Show that $Z(T, V, \mu) = (1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)})^M$

b) Find the equilibrium fraction, f , of sites that have absorbed molecules. In other words, if N_o molecules are absorbed, then $f = N_o/M$.

c) By equating μ with the chemical potential of an ideal gas at pressure P and temperature T , show that

$$f = \frac{P}{P + P_o(T)}$$

and find an expression for $P_o(T)$. Hint: P_o will also depend on ϵ , the mass of the gas particles, and constants of nature.

Absorption Onto a Surface

Suppose a surface has M distinguishable sites, each of which can absorb at most one indistinguishable gas molecule. Say that an absorbed gas molecule has an energy of $-\epsilon$ compared with an unabsorbed molecule. The molecules have chemical potential μ both in the gas phase and on the surface. (This is what it means for the gas phase to be in equilibrium with the absorbed phase.)

(a) Show that $Z(T, V, \mu) = (1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)})^M$

Well, while the gas molecules are indistinguishable, the surface is distinguishable, so we can use B & B 21.25,

$$Z_N = (Z_1)^N$$

Since there are two states, 0 and $-\epsilon$, the probability for one would be

$$Z_1 = \sum_S e^{-\beta(E_S - \mu N_S)}$$

$$= 1 + e^{-\beta(-\epsilon - \mu)}$$

$$= 1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)}$$

$$Z_M = (1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)})^M$$

This is perfectly correct, but see next page for alternative soln...

The solution for 1a) found

Z_1 for one surface site:

The circled site could have

1 molecule: prob $\sim e^{\beta(\mu - \epsilon)}$

or 0 molecule: prob $\sim e^0$



Thus $Z_1 = 1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)}$; $Z_N = (Z_1)^N$ ✓

Alternatively

$$Z_G(T, V, N) = \sum_{N=0}^M e^{\beta \mu N} e^{\beta N \epsilon} g(N)$$

microstates

with N particles
in M distinguishable
locations ... giving
energy $-N\epsilon$

$$g(N) = \frac{M!}{N!(M-N)!}$$

like
 N indisting
balls in
 M disting. boxes

Thus... $Z = \sum_{N=0}^M e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)N} \frac{M!}{N!(M-N)!} = (1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)})^M$

Just
a binomial
expansion

(b) $f = \frac{\bar{N}}{M}$

To find f we can use formula that is
in reading & also subject of problem (9) ☺

$$\bar{N} = \frac{kT}{Z_G} \frac{\partial Z_G}{\partial \mu}$$

part (a) $\Rightarrow \frac{\bar{N}}{M} = f = \frac{e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)}}{(1 + e^{\beta(\epsilon + \mu)})}$

This makes sense b/c it follows Gibb's dist & says fraction
of all sites occupied is just probability that any single site
is occupied.

c) Suppose that gas is at pressure P .

$$PV = NKT$$

for ideal gas

$$\mu = kT \ln\left(\frac{N}{V} \lambda_{th}^3\right)$$

$$= kT \ln\left(\frac{P}{KT} \lambda_{th}^3\right)$$

$$\lambda_{th} = \sqrt{\frac{h^2}{2\pi m k T}}$$

$$= \ln\left(\frac{P}{KT} \lambda_{th}^3\right) kT$$

$$\therefore f = \frac{\left(\frac{P}{KT} \lambda_{th}^3\right)^{\beta kT} e^{\beta \epsilon}}{1 + \left(\frac{P}{KT} \lambda_{th}^3\right)^{\beta kT} e^{\beta \epsilon}}$$

$$= \frac{P}{P + kT e^{-\beta \epsilon} \lambda_{th}^{-3}}$$

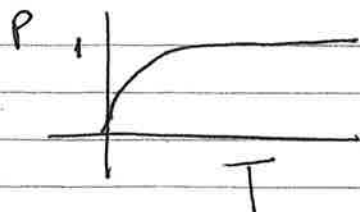
$$f = \frac{P}{P + \frac{kT \sqrt{2\pi m k T}^3}{h^3} e^{-\beta \epsilon}}$$

$$\text{where } P_0(T) = \frac{k e^{-\beta \epsilon} (2\pi m k)^{3/2}}{h^3}$$

$$P_0(T) = kT^{5/2} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi m k}{h^2}}^3 e^{-\beta \epsilon}$$

As $T \rightarrow 0$, $P_0 \rightarrow 0$ so $f \rightarrow 1$

as $T \rightarrow \infty$, $P_0 \rightarrow \infty$ so $f \rightarrow 0$



"Langmuir Isotherm"

Problem 6 → Chem pot'l + eqv. of state of ideal gas

i) G + T Prob 6.21

Problem 6.21. The chemical potential.

- (a) Estimate the chemical potential of one mole of an ideal monatomic classical gas at standard temperature and pressure and show that $\mu \ll 0$.

Solution. We use (6.115) with $\bar{N}/V = P/kT$ and $P \approx 1 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2$ and $T \approx 273 \text{ K}$. Thus, $kT \approx (1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}) 273 \text{ K} = 3.77 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J}$. We consider an argon atom, which has a mass of $(39.95)(1.66 \times 10^{-27}) \approx 6.63 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg}$. Thus, in SI units

$$\mu = kT \ln \left[\frac{\bar{N}}{V} \left(\frac{2\pi\hbar^2\beta}{m} \right)^{3/2} \right] \quad (\text{S6.65a})$$

$$\approx 3.77 \times 10^{-21} \ln \left[\frac{(1.013 \times 10^5)}{(3.77 \times 10^{-21})} \left(\frac{2(3.14)(1.05 \times 10^{-34})^2}{(3.77 \times 10^{-21})(6.63 \times 10^{-26})} \right)^{3/2} \right] \quad (\text{S6.65b})$$

$$\approx -6 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J}, \quad (\text{S6.65c})$$

which is $\approx -60/3.77 \approx -16kT$. Thus, compared to kT , μ is large in magnitude and negative.

- (b) Show that $\bar{N}$ can be expressed as [see (6.114)]

$$\bar{N} = \frac{V}{\lambda^3} e^{\beta\mu}, \quad (6.116)$$

and hence

$$\mu(T, V) = -kT \ln \frac{1}{\rho\lambda^3}, \quad (6.117)$$

where $\rho = \bar{N}/V$.

Solution. Equation (6.114) is

$$\bar{N}(T, V, \mu) = V \left(\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar^2\beta} \right)^{3/2} e^{\beta\mu}. \quad (6.114)$$

From (6.2) we have

$$\lambda = \left(\frac{2\pi\hbar^2\beta}{m} \right)^{1/2}. \quad (6.2)$$

Thus,

$$\bar{N}(T, V, \mu) = V\lambda^{-3} e^{\beta\mu} = \frac{V}{\lambda^3} e^{\beta\mu}. \quad (\text{S6.66})$$

- (c) In Section 6.1 we argued that the semiclassical limit $\lambda \ll \rho^{-1/3}$ [see (6.1)] implies that $\bar{n}_{\mathbf{k}} \ll 1$; that is, the mean number of particles in any single particle energy state is very small. Use the expression (6.117) for μ and (6.87) for $\bar{n}_{\mathbf{k}}$ to show that the condition $\bar{n}_{\mathbf{k}} \ll 1$ implies that $\lambda \ll \rho^{-1/3}$.

Solution. Equation (6.87) is

$$\bar{n}_{\mathbf{k}} = e^{-\beta(\epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)} \quad (\text{S6.67})$$

If $\bar{n}_{\mathbf{k}} \ll 1$, then $\beta\mu \ll 0$, which implies that $\ln(1/\rho\lambda^3) \gg 0$. Hence, $\rho\lambda^3 \ll 1$, $\lambda^3 \ll \rho^{-1}$, and $\lambda \ll \rho^{-1/3}$.

Prob 7 cont

ii) G+T Prob 6.22

Problem 6.22. Show that $E = (3/2)NkT$ and $PV = NkT$ from the results of this section.

Solution. From (6.121) and (6.122) we have

$$\bar{P} = \frac{kT}{\lambda^3} e^{\beta\mu}, \quad (6.121)$$

and

$$\bar{N} = -\left(\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \mu}\right)_{V,T} = \frac{V}{\lambda^3} e^{\beta\mu}. \quad (6.122)$$

The ratio of these two equations yields

$$\frac{\bar{P}}{\bar{N}} = \frac{kT}{V}, \quad (S6.68)$$

or $\bar{P}V = \bar{N}kT$ as expected. Because $\bar{E} = (3/2)\bar{P}V$, we have $\bar{E} = (3/2)\bar{N}kT$.

Problem 7

7-1

Ionization of H

B+B Problem 22.6

B+B prob. 22.6 (with a side-stop
at B+B prob. 22.5)

22.6 (a) Consider



To explain: why $\mu_H = \mu_p + \mu_e$

Answer: This is discussed in derivation and leads

to $\sum_{j=1}^{p+q} \nu_j \mu_j = 0$ Here $\nu_H = -1$
 $\nu_{p^+} = \nu_{e^-} = +1$

Thus $-\mu_H + \mu_p + \mu_e = 0 \dots - +$
 $\Rightarrow \mu_H = \mu_p + \mu_e$ QED ✓

(b) For H atoms, we can use

$$\sum_1^H = \frac{V}{\lambda^3} e^{\frac{\beta R}{2}} = -\beta E_{gs}$$

Eq. 21.50 ...
assumes $kT \ll R$

Also prob 22.5 asks us to show

$$\mu = -kT \ln \frac{\sum_1}{N}$$

This readily follows from $\sum_N = \frac{\sum_1^N}{N!}$; $F = -kT \ln \sum_N$

$$= -kT [N \ln \sum_1 - N \ln N + N]$$

$$= -NkT [\ln \sum_1 - \ln N + 1]$$

and $\mu = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N} \right)_{T,V} = -kT (\ln \sum_1 - \ln N + 1) + \frac{NkT}{N}$

$$\mu = -kT \ln \frac{\sum_1}{N} \quad \checkmark$$

Thus, $\mu_H = \mu_p + \mu_e$ Using Z_{ig} for ideal gas

$$\Rightarrow -kT \ln \frac{Z_{ig}^H}{N_H} e^{\beta R} = -kT \ln \frac{Z_{ig}^p}{N_p} - kT \ln \frac{Z_{ig}^e}{N_e}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-\beta R} = \frac{Z_{ig}^H}{N_H} \frac{N_e N_p}{Z_{ig}^p Z_{ig}^e}$$

$$e^{-\beta R} = \frac{Z_{ig}^H}{N_H} \frac{n_e n_p}{Z_{ig}^p Z_{ig}^e} \frac{V}{V} \quad (1)$$

Now $Z_{ig} = \frac{V}{\lambda_{th}^3} = V \sqrt{\frac{2\pi m k T}{h^2}}$ so assuming $m_H \approx m_p$

Eq (1) becomes

$$e^{-\beta R} = \frac{n_e n_p}{n_H} \frac{h^3}{\sqrt{2\pi m_e k T}}$$

or $\frac{n_e n_p}{n_H} = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi m_e k T}}{h^3} e^{-\beta R}$ Saha Eq!

(b) Charge neutrality must give us $n_e = n_p$ bc H has zero net charge.. so an uncharged system of H , n_e, n_p has equal amounts

of n_e with charge $-1e$ + n_p with charge $+1e$.

Similarly, $n_H + n_p = n$... can't create or destroy a nucleon like proton.

Let $y = \frac{n_p}{n}$ be the degree of ionization. Saha eqn. is

$$\frac{n_e n_p}{n_H} = \frac{\lambda_{m,e}^{-3}}{e} e^{-\beta R} \quad \text{Saha}$$

And we have $n_H = n - n_p$

$$n_e = n_p$$

Thus
$$\frac{n_p n_p}{n - n_p} = \frac{e^{-\beta R}}{\lambda_{m,e}^3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{y^2}{1-y} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{e^{-\beta R}}{n \cdot \lambda_{m,e}^3} \right)}_{\equiv A} \quad \text{Eq. (22.108)}$$

Find this for atomic cloud at 1000K +
 $n = 10^{20} \text{ m}^{-3}$

We solve quadratic

$$y^2 = A(1-y)$$

$$y^2 - Ay - A = 0 \quad \text{For this cloud, } \lambda_{m,e} = 2.36 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = 2.3 \times 10^{-63}$$

$$\Rightarrow y \approx 5 \times 10^{-32}$$

(c) $y \uparrow$ when $n \downarrow$. Why? I guess this is law of mass action. Ionization rate $\propto n_H$

Recombination rate $\propto n_p n_e \propto n_p^2$ so I guess

that if we suddenly rescaled n it would hit recomb rate harder than ionization rate. So smaller $n \Rightarrow$ less recomb $\Rightarrow$ higher y

Problem 8

Condition of chemical equilibrium:

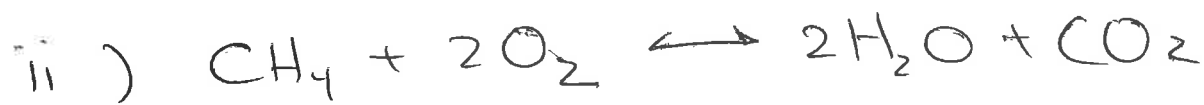
Please write the conditions^{*} for equilibrium to exist:

* i.e. what is true of
 ν_i & μ_i



$$\mu_{e^+} + \mu_{e^-} = 0$$

photons have
 $\mu_\gamma = 0$



$$\mu_{CH_4} + 2\mu_{O_2} = 2\mu_{H_2O} + \mu_{CO_2}$$