

Lecture 14

Recall from last lectures...

$$\mu(T, p) = \mu^{(0)}(T) + k_B T \ln\left(\frac{p}{p_0}\right)$$

[Problem Set 4 #3 from a lattice model]

$$\begin{aligned} Q(N, V, T) &= \frac{1}{N!} (g_{\text{translations}} g_{\text{internal}})^N \\ &= \frac{1}{N!} \left(\frac{V}{\lambda(T)^3} g_{\text{int}}(T) \right)^N \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \beta p = \left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right)_{T, N} = \frac{N}{V} \Rightarrow \boxed{\beta p = \rho}$$

↑
Ideal gas law

$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial N} \right)_{T, V} = -\beta \mu = \ln \frac{V g_{\text{int}}(T)}{N \lambda(T)^3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \mu = k_B T \ln \frac{p_0 \beta \lambda(T)^3}{g_{\text{int}}(T)} + k_B T \ln \frac{p}{p_0}$$

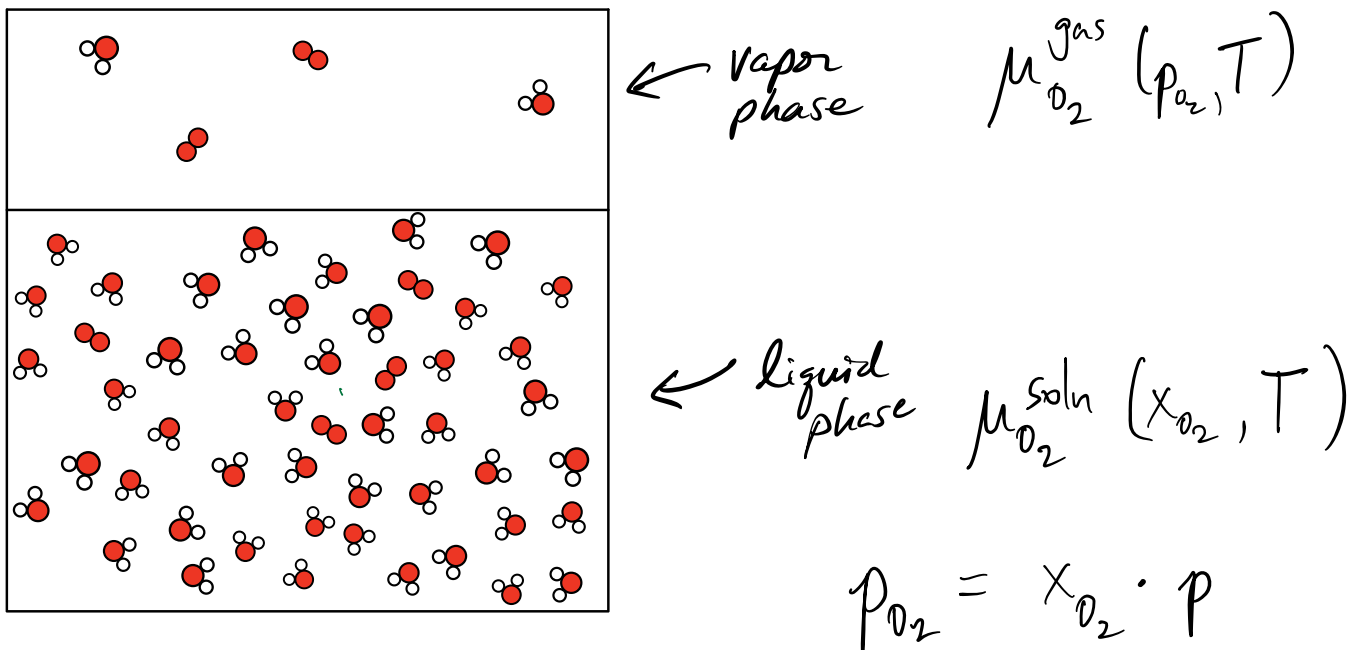
(our lattice model result but now with $\mu^{(0)}$ in terms of de Broglie)

Notice that the essential feature leading to these ideal forms was the factorization of the partition function into a product of single-particle partition functions. Fluctuations in particle 1's state are decorrelated from fluctuations in particle 2's state.

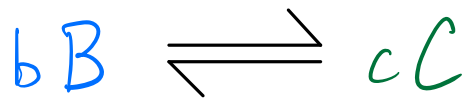
Decorrelated fluctuations are the essence of ideal systems (ideal gases, ideal solutions, etc.)

Consequences of the ideal form of μ ...

① Partitioning between phases - Raoult's Law



② Chemical equilibrium



upper case: species name
lower case: stoichiometry

ΔN forward reactions takes



How does the Gibbs free energy change as a result?

$$\frac{dG}{d\Delta N} = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N_B} \right)_{T, p, N_C} \left(\frac{\partial N_B}{\partial \Delta N} \right) + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N_C} \right)_{T, p, N_B} \left(\frac{\partial N_C}{\partial \Delta N} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow -b\mu_B + c\mu_C = 0 \quad \text{at equilibrium}$$

$$\Rightarrow b\mu_B = c\mu_C$$

Which, for an ideal solution implies

$$b(k_B T \ln p_B V_0 + \mu_B^{(0)}) = c(k_B T \ln p_C V_0 + \mu_C^{(0)})$$

$$\Rightarrow k_B T \ln \frac{p_B^b V_0^b}{p_C^c V_0^c} = c \mu_C^{(0)} - b \mu_B^{(0)} \equiv \Delta \mu_{\text{rxn}}^{(0)}$$

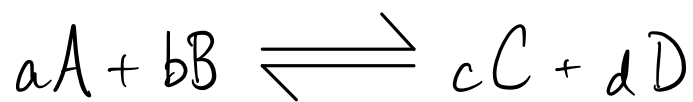
$$\Rightarrow \frac{p_C^c V_0^c}{p_B^b V_0^b} = e^{-\beta \Delta \mu_{\text{rxn}}^{(0)}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{p_C^c}{p_B^b} = V_0^{b-c} e^{-\beta \Delta \mu_{\text{rxn}}^{(0)}} = K_{\text{eq}}(T)$$

Law of mass action



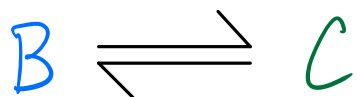
We have the same story for



$$a\mu_A + b\mu_B - c\mu_C - d\mu_D = 0 \text{ at equilibrium}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{[C]^c [D]^d}{[A]^a [B]^b} = K_{eq}(T)$$

Crossovers (as a function of T)



$$\frac{p_C}{p_B} = e^{-\beta \Delta \mu^{(0)}} \text{ at equilibrium}$$

$(\Delta \mu^{(0)} = \mu_C^{(0)} - \mu_B^{(0)})$

If $p_B + p_C = \bar{p}$ is fixed

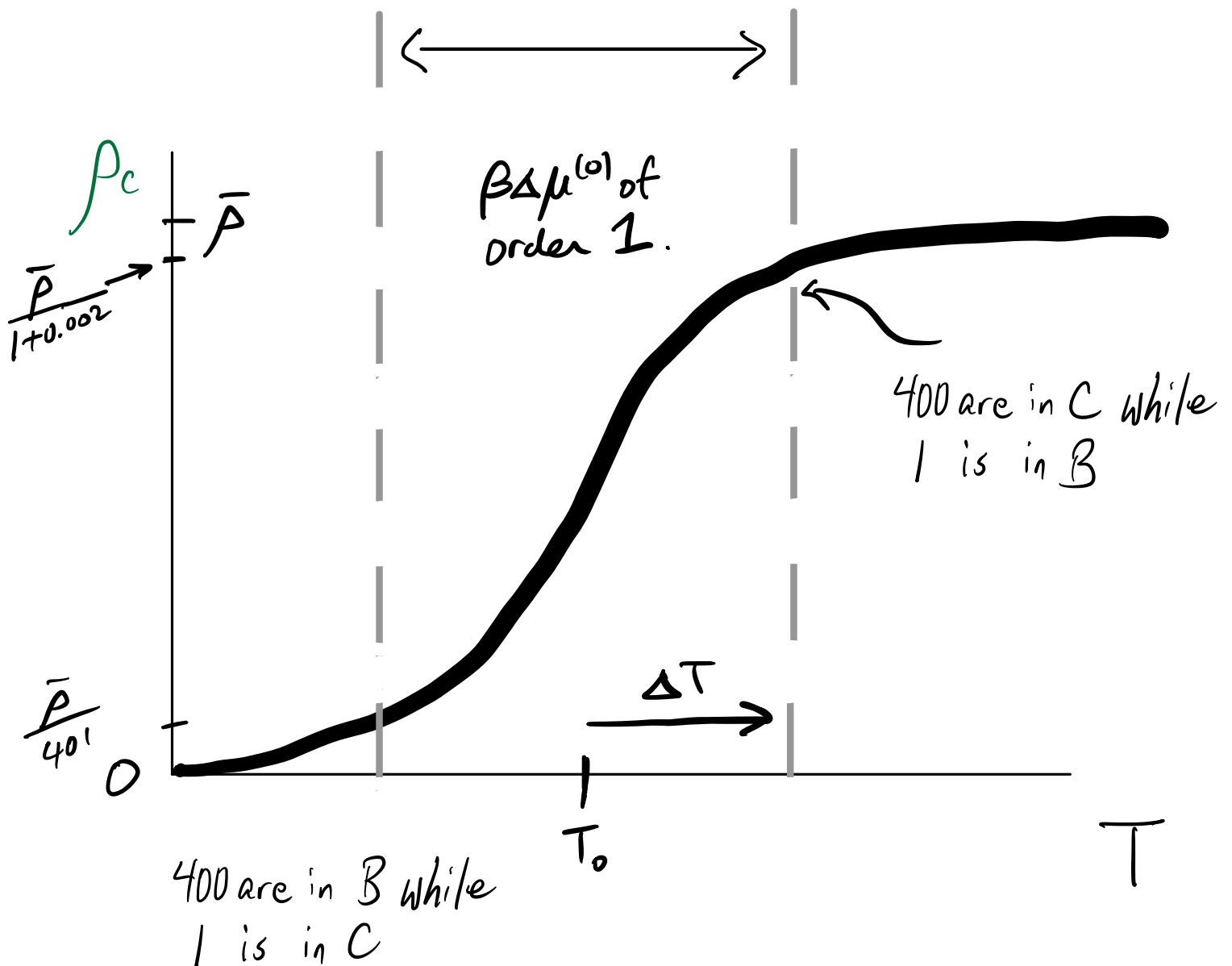
$$p_C = p_C \frac{\bar{p}}{p_B + p_C} = \frac{\bar{p}}{1 + e^{\beta \Delta \mu^{(0)}}}$$

$$(\Delta\mu^{(0)} > 0)$$

At low T , $\rho_c = 0$

At high T , $\rho_c = \bar{\rho}$

How broad is this crossover?



Say between $e^{\beta \Delta \mu^{(0)}} = e^{-6} \approx 0.002$
+ $e^{\beta \Delta \mu^{(0)}} = e^6 \approx 400$

At $T = T_0$, $p_c = \frac{\bar{p}}{2}$, $e^{\beta \Delta \mu^{(0)}} = 1$, $\Delta \mu^{(0)} = 0$

What T causes $\Delta \mu^{(0)}$ to vanish? T_0

$$\begin{aligned} G &= E - TS + pV \\ &= (E + pV) - TS \\ &= H - TS \end{aligned}$$

$$dG = -SdT + Vdp + \mu dN \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial N} \right)_{p,T} = \mu$$

$$\Delta \mu^{(0)} = \Delta h^{(0)} - T \Delta s^{(0)}$$

lowercase indicates
per particle/rxn

Both are positive and independent of T

$$\Delta\mu^{(0)} = 0 \quad \text{at} \quad T_0 = \frac{\Delta h^{(0)}}{\Delta S^{(0)}}$$

Let's consider the behavior at $T = T_0 + \Delta T$
(near T_0 when ΔT is small)

$$\begin{aligned} \beta \Delta\mu^{(0)} &= \frac{1}{k_B T} (\Delta h^{(0)} - T \Delta S^{(0)}) \\ &= \frac{1}{k_B (T_0 + \Delta T)} (\Delta h^{(0)} - (T_0 + \Delta T) \Delta S^{(0)}) \\ &\approx - \frac{\Delta T \Delta S^{(0)}}{k_B T_0} + O(\Delta T^2) \\ &\approx \frac{-\Delta h^{(0)}}{k_B T_0} \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \end{aligned}$$

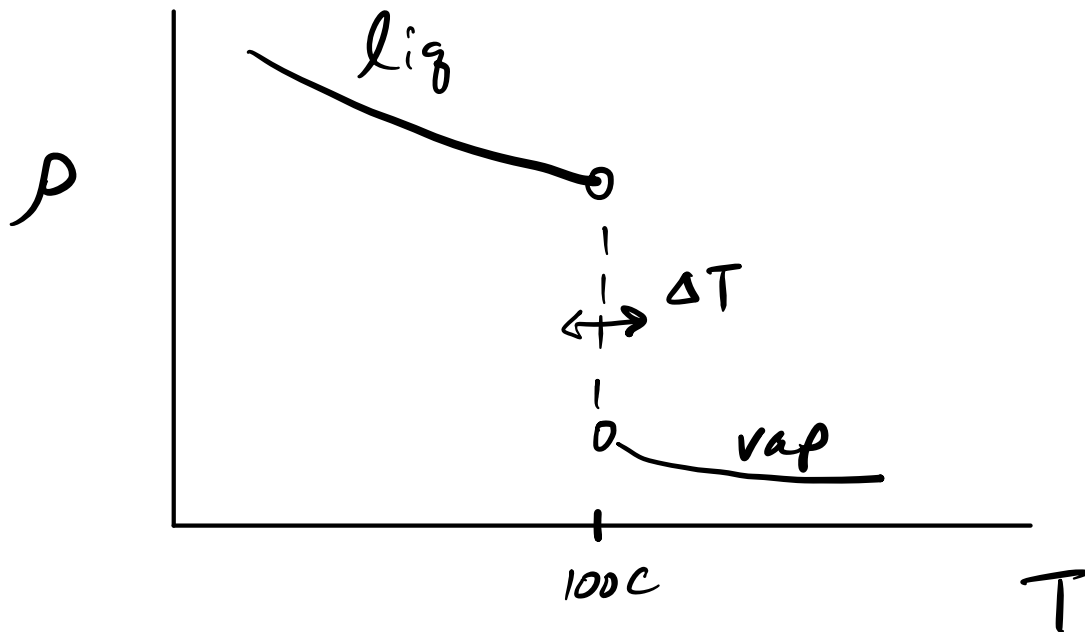
$\beta \Delta\mu^{(0)}$ spans ± 6 when $\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}$ spans $\pm 6 \frac{k_B T_0}{\Delta h^{(0)}}$

If the crossover is near room temperature (300K)
and the reaction is very endothermic ($\Delta h^{(0)} = 600 k_B T_0$)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\Delta T}{T_0} \text{ spans } \pm 0.01$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta T \approx \text{a few degrees C.}$$

By contrast, for a liquid-vapor transition at
fixed p ,



How broad? $\Delta T \approx 0$

"Non-analytic" behavior defines a phase transition.
What's so special about this?

$$P_{\text{liq}} = \frac{Q_{\text{liq}}}{Q}, \quad \text{where} \quad Q_{\text{liq}} = \int_{\text{liq}} dr^N \underbrace{e^{-\beta U(r^N)}}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{Smooth function} \\ \text{at finite } T}}$$

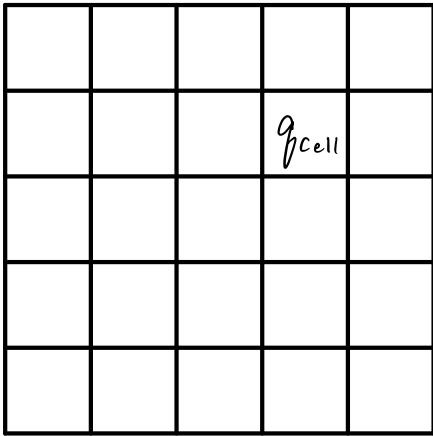
Q_{liq} and Q are sums of smooth functions (of T)

\Rightarrow They cannot be non-analytic!

What gives?

Strict phase transitions are only possible
when $N \rightarrow \infty$ (thermodynamic limit)

We have employed lattice models...



We can divide a macroscopic system into many (M) uncorrelated subsystems.

Let q_{cell} = partition function for all fluctuations in a given cell (a smooth function of T)

$$\Rightarrow Q = q_{\text{cell}}^M$$

$$\Rightarrow -\beta A = \ln Q = M \ln q_{\text{cell}}$$

$\Rightarrow \frac{A}{M}$, the free energy per site is also smooth
 \Rightarrow No phase transitions

Therefore, phase transitions must involve fluctuations which are correlated over macroscopic distances.

This motivates our exploration in the next lecture of the Ising model.