



# Many-particle systems

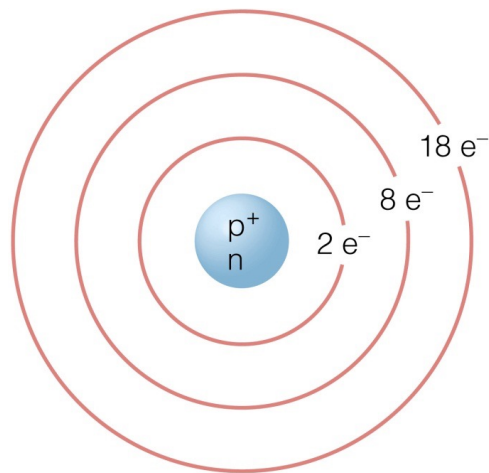
# Boltzmann-distribution

Gases, Liquids and liquid crystals

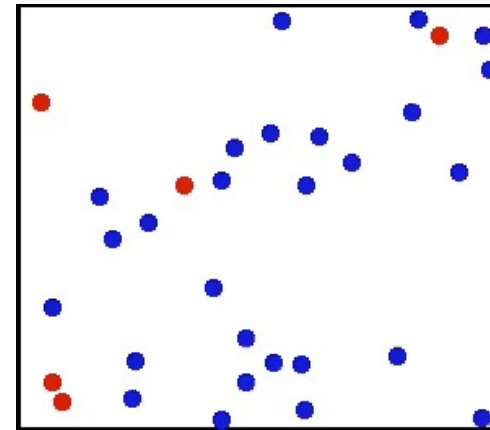
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associate professor

# From atoms to many-particle systems

Atom



“Many-particle system”



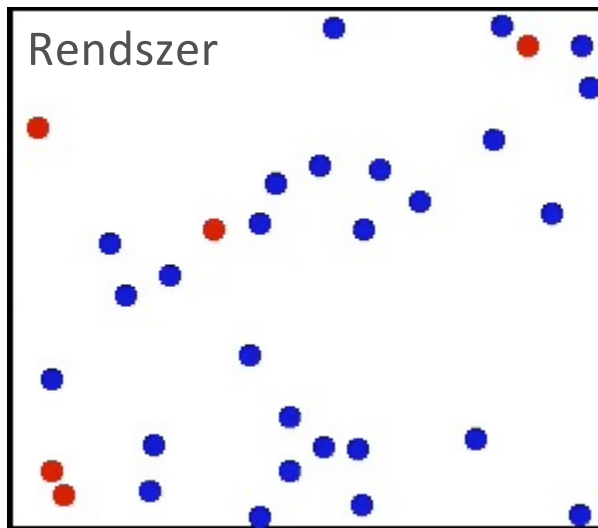
- What is a system?
- How many particles are „many“?
- What is the internal “structure” of the system?

# A system may be characterized by

*macroscopically* ( $p, V, T, n$ ) or **microscopically**:

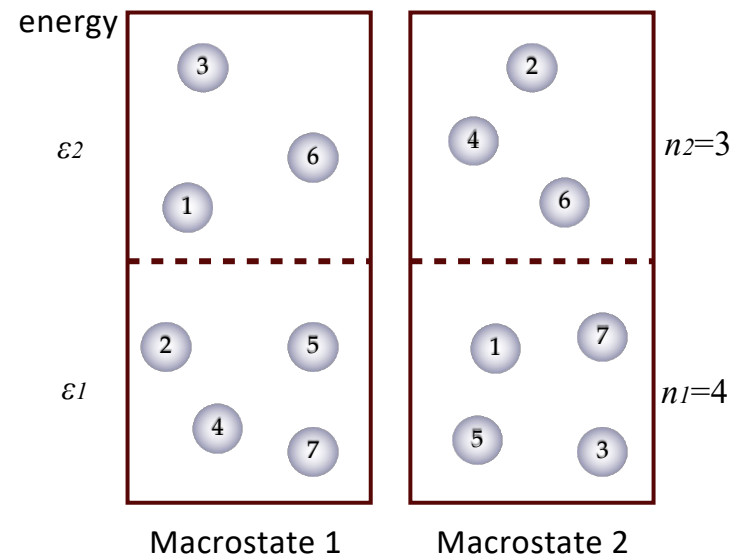
By describing of each particle in the system (i.e. energy)

The energy of each particle in the system is different...

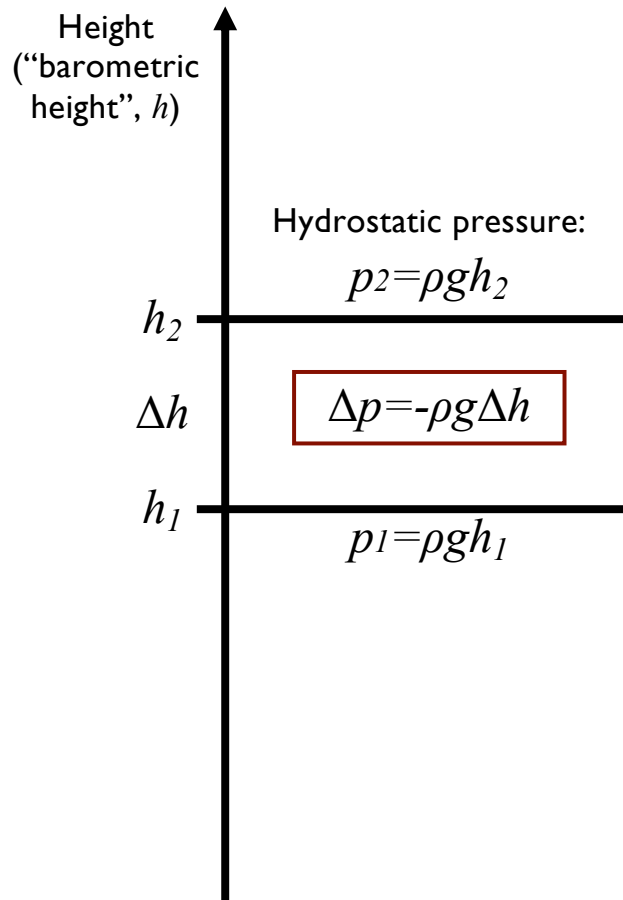


...but the average energy of every particle is proportional to  $kT$  ("equipartition theorem").

Note: the **macrostates** (1 and 2) are identical (number of particles at given energies are same), but their **microstates** (arrangement of actual particles) differ:



# Macroscopic description of a system: distribution of pressure (gas density) in the atmosphere



$g$ : gravitational acceleration  
 $m$ : mass of a gas molecule

since gas density is proportional to pressure ( $\rho \sim p$ ):

$$\Delta \rho = \text{const} \Delta p$$

$$\Delta p = \Delta \rho / \text{const}$$

$$\Delta \rho / \text{const} = -\rho g \Delta h$$

$$\Delta \rho / \Delta h = -\text{const} \rho g$$

If a variable ( $\rho$ ) and its change ( $\Delta \rho$ ) are proportional, we obtain an exponential function:

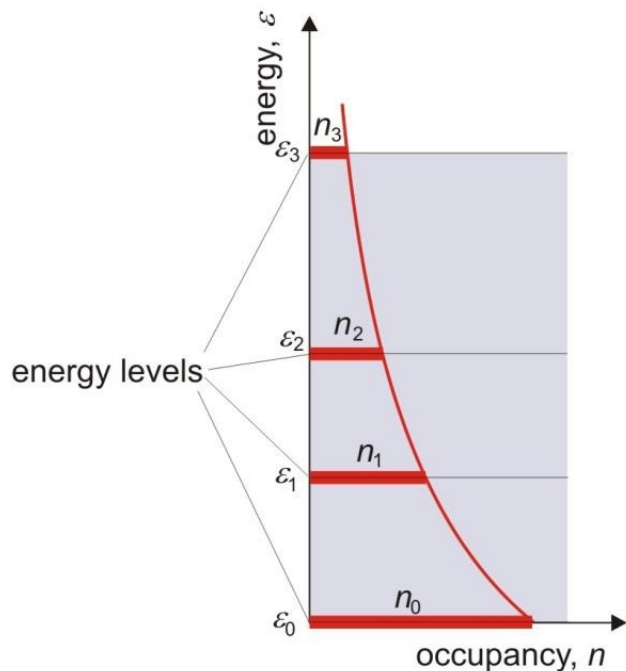
$$\rho_h = \rho_0 e^{-\text{const} g h}$$

Considering the universal gas law ( $pV = NkT$ ), the definition of density ( $\rho = mN/V$ ), and that  $\rho = \text{const} p$ , "const" can be expressed as  $m/kT$ , hence:

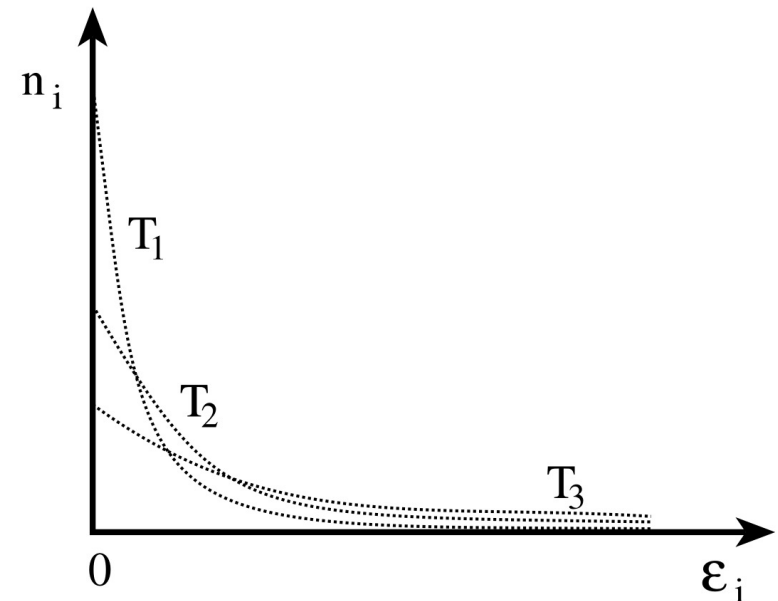
$$\rho_h = \rho_0 e^{-mgh/kT}$$

# Boltzmann's distribution is a universal organizing principle

- In a thermally equilibrated system the energy levels are populated according to an **exponential distribution**.
- Relative population is regulated by the ratio of the **energy difference** between the levels and the **thermal energy**.
- At higher temperatures higher energy levels are more populated.



$$\frac{n_i}{n_0} = e^{-\frac{\epsilon_i - \epsilon_0}{k_B T}}$$



# Boltzmann-distribution applications

## 1. Barometric height formula

Partial oxygen pressure progressively drops with the distance from the sea level: concentration (number of molecules in unit volume,  $n$ ) becomes progressively reduced

$$\frac{n_h}{n_0} = e^{-\frac{mgh}{k_B T}}$$

$n_h$  : concentration at height  $h$   
 $n_0$  : concentration at the reference height  
 $mgh$  : potential energy

## 2. Thermal emission of metals

Upon thermal excitation, electrons leave the metal surface (e.g., x-ray tube, photoelectron multiplier tube)

$$\frac{N_l}{N} = e^{-\frac{W_a}{k_B T}}$$

$N_l$  : number of emitted electrons  
 $W_a$  : work function (work needed by the  $e^-$  to leave the atom)

# Boltzmann-distribution applications

## 3. Nernst equation

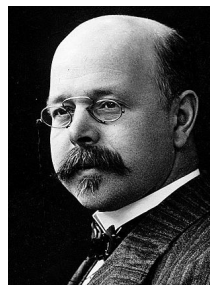
If, between two places ( $A$ ,  $B$ ), the concentration of charged particles ( $n_A$ ,  $n_B$ ) is different, then electrical voltage ( $U$ ) arises between these two places:

$$\frac{c_A}{c_B} = e^{-\frac{Uq}{k_bT}} \quad U = \frac{k_bT}{q} \ln \frac{c_B}{c_A} = \frac{RT}{zF} \ln \frac{c_B}{c_A}$$

$q$  : elementary charge

$U$  : voltage between  $A$  and  $B$

Fundamental equation describing the behavior of concentration cells and the resting potential.

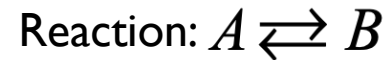
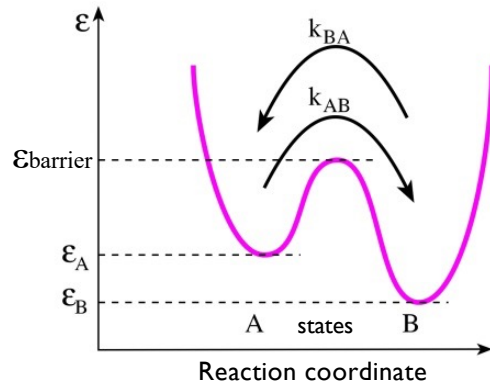


Walther Nernst (1864-1941)  
Nobel-prize (1920)

# Boltzmann-distribution applications

## 4. Reaction equilibrium, rate

The equilibrium (distribution among energy states) and rate (speed of transition between states) of a reaction are determined by relative differences between energy levels.



Equilibrium constant:  $K = \frac{n_A}{n_B} = e^{-\frac{\epsilon_A - \epsilon_B}{k_B T}}$



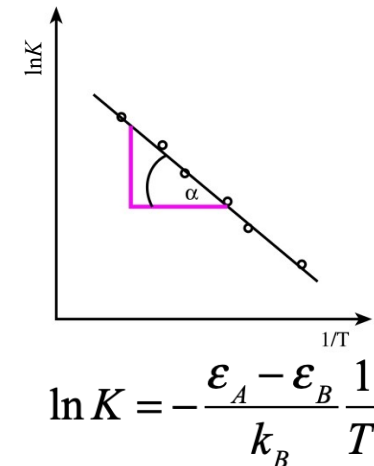
Svante Arrhenius (1859-1927)  
Nobel-prize (1903)

Rate constants:

$$k_{AB} = \omega e^{-\frac{\epsilon_{\text{barrier}} - \epsilon_A}{k_B T}} \quad k_{BA} = \omega e^{-\frac{\epsilon_{\text{barrier}} - \epsilon_B}{k_B T}} \quad \omega : \text{constant (s}^{-1}\text{)}$$

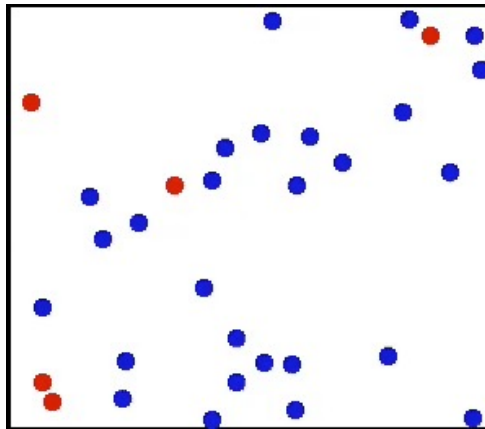
Ratio of rate constants = equilibrium constant:

$$k_{BA} / k_{AB} = e^{-\frac{\epsilon_{\text{barrier}} - \epsilon_B}{k_B T} + \frac{\epsilon_{\text{barrier}} - \epsilon_A}{k_B T}} = e^{-\frac{\epsilon_A - \epsilon_B}{k_B T}} = K$$



# The ideal (perfect) gas

- Composed of a **large** number of identical particles (Avogadro number)
- Particles are **spherical**, their volume is **negligible**
- There is **no interaction** between the particles
- Collisions are **elastic** (sum of energies is constant)
- In the limiting case (point particles) collisions occur only with the wall of the container
- Particle motion follows the laws of classical (Newtonian) mechanics.



# Ideal gas relationships

Average energy of a particle  
(**equipartition theorem**):

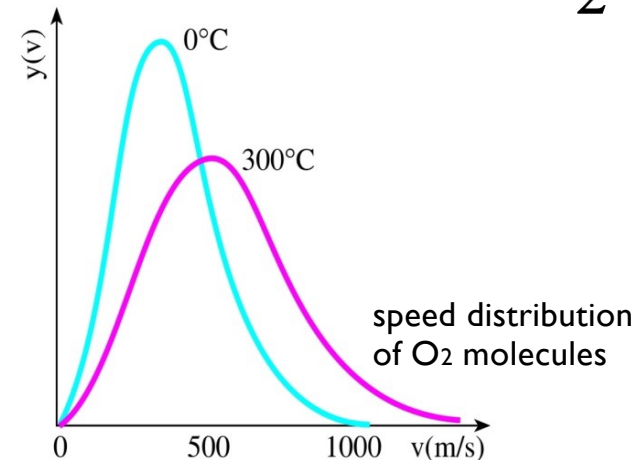
$$\frac{1}{2} m \bar{v}^2 = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$$

Internal energy of a system  
containing  $N$  particles:  $E_b = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T$

## Speed distribution - Maxwell distribution

Upon increasing temperature:

- the average of the absolute value of molecular speeds increases (see equipartition)
- the width of the distribution increases



**Universal gas law:** relationship between the pressure, volume, temperature and matter content of the ideal gas (state equation).

Boyle's law

$$pV = \text{constant}_I$$

$$\frac{p}{T} \cdot \frac{V}{N} = \text{const}_{III} \cdot \text{const}_{IV}$$

$$pV = \frac{N}{N_A} k_B N_A T$$

Charles' law

$$\frac{V}{T} = \text{constant}_{II}$$

$$k_{III} \cdot k_{IV} = k_B = 1,38 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$

$$(k_B \cdot N_A = R) \quad \left( n = \frac{N}{N_A} \right)$$

Gay-Lussac's law

$$\frac{p}{T} = \text{constant}_{III}$$

Avogadro's law

$$\frac{V}{N} = \text{constant}_{IV}$$

$$pV = N k_B T$$

$$pV = nRT$$

# The real gas

- Particles are not point-like, their volume ( $b$ ) is not negligible.

Consequence: the volume available for motion =

$$V - Nb$$

$N$  = particle number

- Interactions ( $a$ ) arise between the particles.

Consequence: pressure becomes reduced

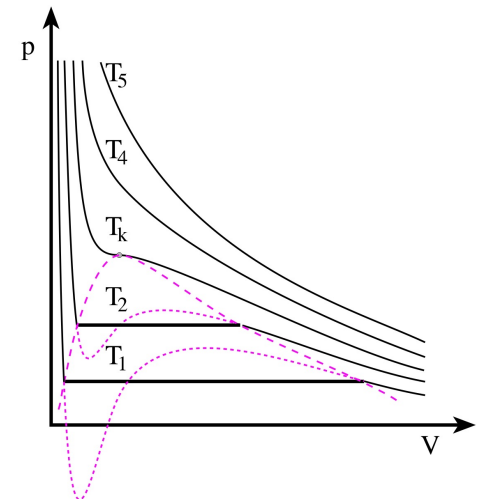
$$p = \frac{Nk_B T}{V - Nb} - an^2$$

$n$  = number of particles in unit volume ( $N/V$ )

- Van der Waals state function:  $\left( p + a \frac{N^2}{V^2} \right) (V - Nb) = Nk_B T$

- Van der Waals isotherms:

Below a critical temperature ( $T_c$ ), at low pressures phase transition occurs (e.g., condensation)



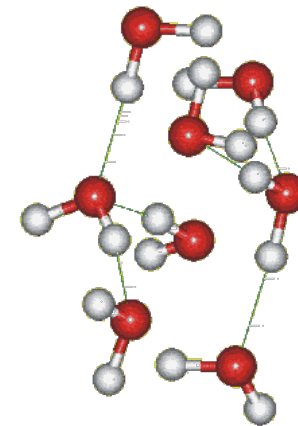
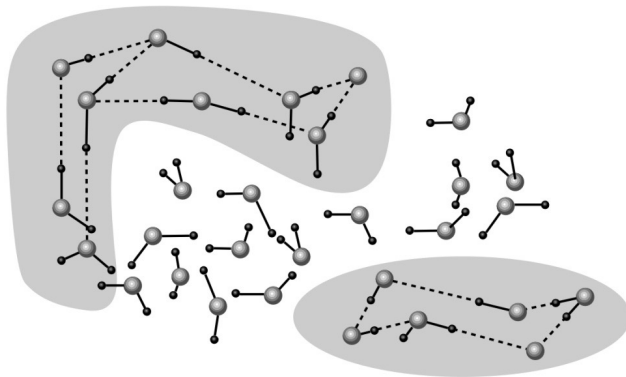
# The liquid state

- Liquids have stable volume but no stable shape
- **Short range dynamic order**
- **Isotropic**: the physical properties have no directional dependence
- Physical quantities to describe the liquid state:

density (mass per volume)  $\left[ \frac{kg}{m^3} \text{ or } \frac{g}{cm^3} \right]$

viscosity (resistance against flow)  $[Pa \cdot s]$

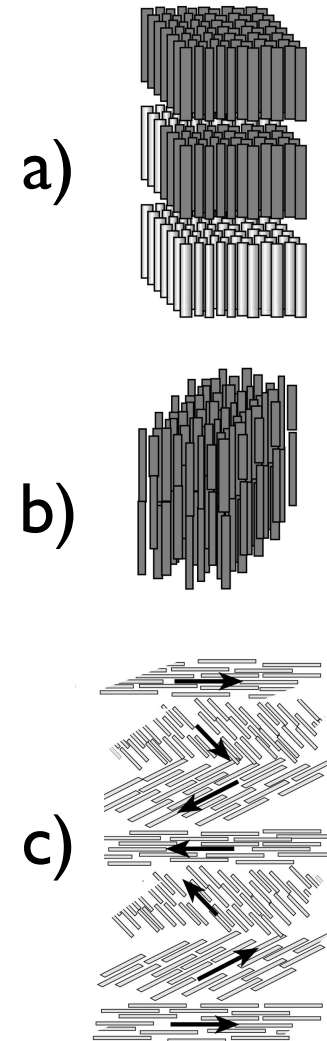
surface tension (energy required to increase interface)  $\left[ \frac{J}{m^2} = \frac{N}{m} \right]$



# Liquid crystals

- **Mesomorphic state**: anisotropic liquids (directional dependence)
- The molecules are **ordered**: 1) translational order 2) orientational order

- Types:
- a) smectic (translational + orientational order)
  - b) nematic ( only orientational order)
  - c) cholesteric (twisted nematic)



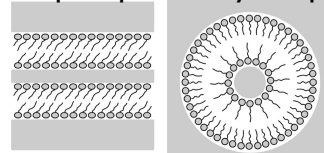
**Thermotropic liquid crystals:**  
the order depends on temperature.

**Lyotropic liquid crystals:**  
the order depends on the concentration of molecules

contact thermography



phospholipids are lyotropic



# Solid state

Has both stable volume and shape



## CHRISTALLINE MATERIALS

- Long range spatial order
- **anisotropic**: the physical properties are direction dependent
- A lattice structure whose basic unit is the **unit cell**. Depending on the type of interactions, it can be an *atomic, ionic, metallic, or molecular lattice*. The crystalline order usually extends only over microscopic distances (microcrystalline material).
- i.e.: majority of metals, NaCl, CaSO<sub>4</sub>, sugar, etc...

## AMORPHOUS MATERIALS

- Short range spatial order
- **isotropic**: the physical properties are direction independent
- i.e.: glass



*Obsidian: volcanic glass (amorphous)*

# Comparing the properties of states

State		Order of particles	Movement of particles	Shape	Volume	Examples
<b>1) Solid</b>	<i>Crystalline</i>	Long range spatial order	Only vibrational motion around the lattice points	Has its own shape	Constant	Metals, ice, quartz
	<i>Amorphous</i>	Short range spatial order	Free sliding and flow are possible	Has its own shape	Constant	Glas, metallic glass
<b>2) Liquid crystal</b>	<i>smectic</i>	Long range dynamic order	Lateral diffusion	Takes the shape of the container	Constant	Phospholipid
	<i>nematic</i>					
	<i>cholesteric</i>					
<b>3) Liquid</b>		Short range dynamic order	articles roll over each other, flow	Takes the shape of the container	Constant	Water, alcohol, oil
<b>4) Gas</b>		Disordered, particles separated from each other	Free, straight-line motion with frequent collisions	Takes the shape of the container	Variable (fills the space)	Air, oxygen, carbon dioxide