

Thermal Physics
Prof. Debamalya Banerjee
Department of Physics
Indian Institute of Technology-Kharagpur

Lecture-22
Topic-Limitation of Einstein Theory of Specific Heat

Hello and welcome back to another lecture of this NPTEL course on thermal physics. Now this week we have started our discussion on specific heat of solids. Now the last lecture we have discussed about Dulong-Petit law which is an extension of classical equipartition theorems for solid. And they are only the thermal vibration of the atoms has been considered for the prime reason for specific heat.

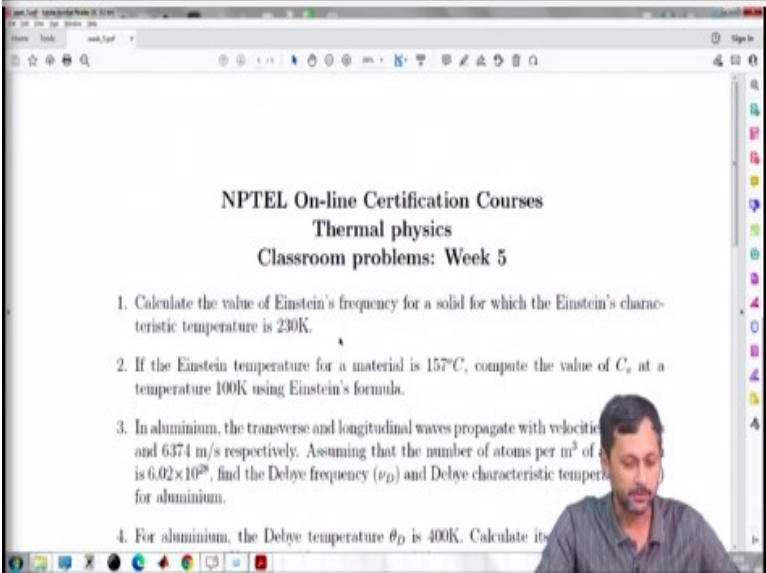
And also it has been assumed in that law that specific heat does not change as a function of temperature. So, whatever we have for a solid system whatever specific heat we measure, for example at room temperature according to Dulong-Petit law that should be valid over the entire measurable temperature range. But definitely that is not the case, experimentalists have already found out that high temperature and low temperature.

Specially at low temperature side there are deviations from Dulong-Petit law, the specific heat decreases from the value at and it is high temperature value. And most importantly it tends to 0 as the temperature goes to 0. So, definitely there was some issue. Then Einstein came up with his theory of specific heat instead of considering only for the thermal vibration in place of the classical equipartition theory, he applied Planck's theory of quantum of energy.

And he has assumed that all the molecules inside a solid they are vibrating with one unique frequency called the Einstein frequency. Now his results as we have seen already, he is adequate in a sense that it can describe the general behavior of the measured specific heat versus temperature very well. So, at high as in when the temperature is high above the Einstein temperature as the characteristics temperature, then it will level off to this $3R$ value per mole of specific heat which is the Dulong-Petit law from the classical equipartition theorem.

And at low temperature it falls off gradually and goes to 0, but then it was found out that the falling off is far too fast as compared to the experimentally measured value. The experimental derivation, so the experimental results shows a kind of T cubed behavior at low temperature regime, whereas Einstein predicted a e to the power minus x when exponentially falling function at low temperature. So, of course there are some issues, now in today's lecture we will be discussing the Debye theory of specific heat.

(Refer Slide Time: 03:26)



NPTEL On-line Certification Courses
Thermal physics
Classroom problems: Week 5

1. Calculate the value of Einstein's frequency for a solid for which the Einstein's characteristic temperature is 230K.
2. If the Einstein temperature for a material is 157°C , compute the value of C_v at a temperature 100K using Einstein's formula.
3. In aluminium, the transverse and longitudinal waves propagate with velocities 3100 m/s and 6374 m/s respectively. Assuming that the number of atoms per m^3 of aluminium is 6.02×10^{28} , find the Debye frequency (ν_D) and Debye characteristic temperature for aluminium.
4. For aluminium, the Debye temperature θ_D is 400K. Calculate its

But before going there we will start with two very simple problems or basically the first two problems of the week 5 problem set. So, the first problem is, calculate the Einstein's frequency for the solid for which the Einstein temperature is 230 Kelvin.

(Refer Slide Time: 03:44)

Classroom problems: Week 5

1) $\theta_E = 230 \text{ K}$

$$\frac{h\nu_E}{k} = \theta_E \Rightarrow \nu_E = \frac{k\theta_E}{h}$$

$$\text{or } \nu_E = \frac{1.38 \times 10^{-23} \times 230}{6.6 \times 10^{-34}} \text{ Hz} = 4.81 \times 10^{12} \text{ Hz}$$

2) $\theta_E = 157 \text{ K}, T = 100 \text{ K}$

$$x = \frac{\theta_E}{T} = 1.57$$

$$\text{So, } C_v = 3R \frac{x^2 e^x}{(e^x - 1)^2} = 3R \frac{1.57^2 \cdot e^{1.57}}{(e^{1.57} - 1)^2}$$

$$= 3R \cdot (0.817) = 20.6 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

Now this is a very straightforward problem there is nothing tricky about it. We have θ_E is equal to 230 Kelvin, now $h\nu_E$ by k which is equal to θ_E this is a relation for θ_E that is Einstein temperature. And we can slightly rearrange that and write ν_E is equal to $k\theta_E$ by h . Now all we have to do is we have to put these values simply and we have found out the frequency of 4.81×10^{12} Hertz.

Now this is a very high frequency, I mean this is already in the terahertz range. Now this terahertz has frequency although it is very high, it is lower as compared to the optical frequencies typically when we talk about photons and all we talk about this optical electromagnetic wave we talk about the optical frequencies. But anyway, this is a frequency range and these are typical phonon frequencies of vibration in an atomic solid.

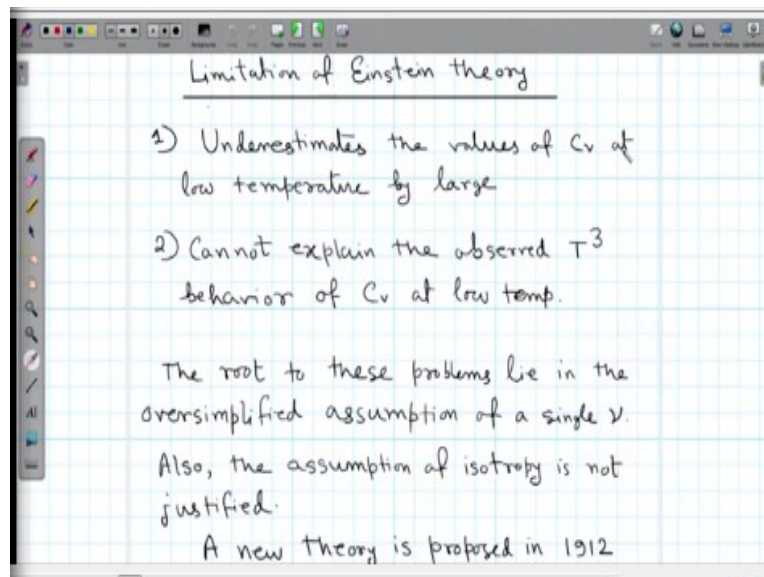
Now, the second problem is the first problem was to give you an idea of what is the typical frequency of vibration we have inside a solid. And the second problem is application of by Einstein's formula, where the Einstein's temperature has been given which is it should be 157 centigrade Kelvin my mistake, it is 157 Kelvin, compute the value of C_v at a temperature of 100 Kelvin using Einstein's formula.

So, the problem is the following with the value of C_v is or value of Einstein temperature is given which is 157 Kelvin and we need to compute the value of C_v at a given temperature. So,

remember the Einstein's formula which is C_v is equal to $3R$ times $x^2 e^{-x}$ divided by $(e^x - 1)^2$. So, all we have to do is we have to compute the value of x . So, x is equal to $\frac{\theta_E}{T}$ which is 157 divided by 100 which is 1.57 . So, next we just need to put this value here, so it will be 1.57^2 times $e^{-1.57}$ divided by $(e^{1.57} - 1)^2$. So, this factors the entire numerical value of this factor is 0.0817 and times $3R$.

So, if I put the value of R the final answer is 20.6 Joules per calorie inverse per mole inverse. So, that is all we can do from Einstein's theory, so basically we have 1 simple formula, 1 simple relation and if we know the value of x we can compute C_v at any temperature. And we can also use this relation to compute the value of ν_E or θ_E whichever is not given to us and vice versa. The next modification to this specific heat of solid was provided by Debye few years 5, 6, 7 years after Einstein I think 1912.

(Refer Slide Time: 07:23)



That is where the Debye theory came in. So, let us quickly once again revisit the limitations of Einstein theory. So, basically it underestimates the value of C_v at low temperature by large. So, whatever value is recorded experimentally according to Einstein's theory the value will be much lesser, so that is the underestimation. And of course it cannot explain the T^3 behavior at low temperature.

So, the primary cause of these two the failure of Einstein theory lies into the oversimplified assumption.

Oversimplified assumption that all the; molecules in the atom vibrate with a simultaneous unique frequency which is definitely not the case. I mean it is a solid and there is a possibility that some part of it the molecules in one part of solid will vibrate with one frequency another part will vibrate with another frequency that possibility cannot be ruled out. Depending on the local environment and depending on the geometry of the there are many other factors actually. So, overall the assumption that all the solid molecules are vibrating simultaneously with same frequency is the vast oversimplification.

(Refer Slide Time: 09:02)

Debye theory of specific heat

- i) The solid has to be treated as a continuous elastic medium. The lattice vibrations are elastic (acoustic) type.
- ii) The vibration cannot be monochromatic but forms a continuous spectrum of frequencies upto a maximum ω_m .

For elastic wave, we have

- i) Longitudinal wave with speed - C_l
- ii) Transverse wave with speed - C_t

So, in 1912 Debye came up with his theory of specific heat which actually addresses some of these problems. So, what Debye proposed is instead of considering discrete point masses, he will treat the solid as an elastic medium. Of course, this also has a downside none of his theories completely perfect. But at least when we are talking about bulk solids, the elastic medium is probably a better approximation.

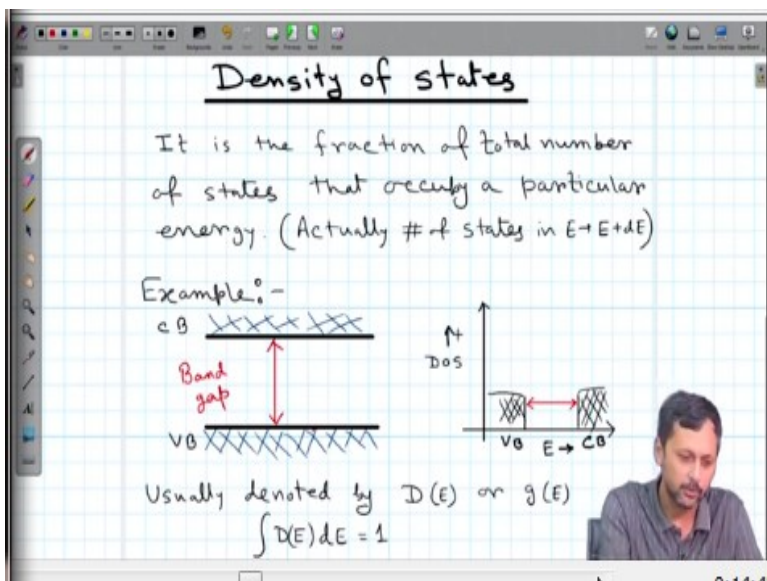
Now, the vibration that is propagating is acoustic type of vibration that means for example the sound wave is propagating through the solid medium. And he has assumed that this vibration is not monochromatic, that means it does not have one frequency but it has a maximum cutoff

frequency. So, his assumption was all the molecules are vibrating with different, different frequencies.

So, basically it is different groups of molecule that constitutes different parts of the solid. So, one group vibrates with one frequency another group vibrates with another frequency. So, different parts have different frequencies and these frequencies are like sound wave that is propagating through a solid medium. And what he has assumed that there is an upper cutoff for this frequency. So, it cannot be above this particular cutoff, which is given by ν_m .

Or actually sometimes it is better to write it as ν_D just to correlate this strongly with Debye. So, I will just call it ν_D for the rest of the discussion. Now for elastic wave, we know that another property of an elastic medium is there are two types of waves one is longitudinal wave, one is the transverse wave and it is not necessary that both these waves will have the same speed. Actually it is most of the time in a solid we have longitudinal vibration and a transverse vibration moving with different speeds. So, Debye assume that there is a longitudinal wave with speed C_l and transverse wave with speed C_t at l and t stands for longitudinal and transverse respectively.

(Refer Slide Time: 11:44)



Now, one important assumption has been the vibration is not monochromatic, so different parts will have different vibration frequency. So, whenever that concept comes into the picture, I think it is important that we understand what is the meaning of density of state. In very soon I will just

correlate this density of state with this vibration frequency. So, one possible definition of density of state, which is a term which probably we are already familiar from your solid state physics lecture.

It is actually the fraction of total number of states that occupy a particular energy. So, actually it is not 1 number of states at a given energy but typically it is defined as the number of state for example, between E to $E + dE$, right. So, the example of one example that I always prefer for density of state is say if this is the band gap. We have the valence band, we have the conduction band and this part is band gap.

So, forget about defect states, let us assume that it is a pure semiconductor system I am just deviating slightly, to solid state physics now. So, for this we have electrons occupying these valence band energy levels and electrons occupying this conduction band energy levels and nothing in between. Now if I try to represent this as energy versus density of state plot, we have something like this.

So, we have one set of density of state that is for the valence band, one set of density of state that is for the conduction band and this is the band gap in between, here. So, this is a representative diagram. Once again I am just drawing two steps here for the valence band and the conduction band and there are numerous theories available for which predicts the shape of this valence band and conduction band density of states the shape of this curve.

I am not going into this; I am just trying to give you a concept. So, whenever there is no state, the density of state is actually zero, whenever there is an above this particular energy the number of state increases and all of a sudden the density of state becomes nonzero. Similarly below this particular energy here, the density of state becomes nonzero once again. So, this axis is energy axis, this axis is density of state that is basically the number of states for a given energy range.

Now usually density of state is denoted by $D(E)$ or $g(E)$ and the usual definition is when it is integrated over all possible energy values $D(E) \times dE$ is gives you the integration of dE gives you 1. So, that is because we have assumed that $D(E)$ and $g(E)$ they are fraction of total energy

states. Now why it is important in Debye theory, because see in Einstein theory it was all monochromatic. In Einstein's theory it was and please remembers that there is a strong connection in between energy and frequency.

So, when Einstein said that all vibrations are monochromatic that basically means that all atoms are vibrating with equal energy. When Debye says atoms are vibrating with different energies but there is a different frequencies but there is an upper cutoff frequency. So, that means the density of state above this cutoff frequency will be 0 and below this cutoff frequency all frequencies in between will have some given number of states. So, that is why the concept of density of state is important.

(Refer Slide Time: 16:07)

From the concept of phase space, the number of independent modes for longitudinal type in range $\nu \rightarrow \nu + d\nu$ within a volume V is

$$X_L = \frac{4\pi \nu^2 d\nu}{c_L^3} V \left(\text{diagram of longitudinal wave} \right)$$

For transverse wave, there are two possible polarization and we have

$$X_t = 2 \cdot \frac{4\pi \nu^2 d\nu}{c_t^3} V \left(\text{diagram of transverse wave} \right)$$

So, the total number of independent modes in $\nu \rightarrow \nu + d\nu$

Now I am not going into the details of statistical mechanical treatment of the system here, but there is something called phase space which can be defined. Once again I just do not want to complicate it as of now. So, according to the theory of phase space, the number of independent modes for a given wave that elastic wave that travels with the speed C is given by, so what we are concerned about?

We are concerned about number of modes that is present in the energy frequency range of ν to $\nu + d\nu$. And that is equivalent of saying that it is the number of states that is present in the energy E to $E + dE$. Of course there should be some factor conversion factor mostly the h , h

being the Planck's constant. So, these are semi classical semi quantum type of treatment although we are taking the classical picture of acoustic wave propagating.

We are calculating or basically we are using the concept of quantum phase space here. And for longitudinal modes, the number of states between energy level ν and $\nu + d\nu$ is given by $4\pi \nu^2 d\nu C l^3$ multiplied by V , that is the please remember $X L$ is not exactly the density of state, this quantity here is the density of state and we multiply this with V , V being the volume of the whole space. So, whatever solid we are considering it has a volume V .

So, $X L$ is here and this is for the longitudinal wave, now what is longitudinal wave? Longitudinal wave is let us say this black arrow is the direction of wave propagation and this red dot here represents a molecule or 1 atom in this path of propagation and the vibration of this is along the path, red mark arrow here indicates the vibration, so this is longitudinal. And longitudinal wave can have one mode only that is along the direction of propagation, the vibration along the direction of propagation.

Now for transverse waves exact same expression, but we have to have a factor of 2, why because for simple reason the transverse wave can have 2 independent modes of vibration. One is let us say just for sake of simplicity if I call this z this direction of propagation is z , then I have 1 x -axis and 1 y -axis arbitrarily chosen, the only criteria is they have to be perpendicular to each other. So, that is how you choose x and y , no other criteria, but now there has to be 2 independent modes of a transverse wave, so that is why a factor of 2 is coming here. Now the total number of independent modes in range ν to $\nu + d\nu$ in a volume V .

(Refer Slide Time: 19:25)

[Density of state (DOF)]

$$g(\nu) d\nu = X_L + X_T = 4\pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right) \nu^2 d\nu$$

Integrating over all frequencies, the number should be $3N_A$

So,
$$\int_0^{\nu_D} g(\nu) d\nu = 3N_A$$

or
$$\int_0^{\nu_D} \underbrace{4\pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right)}_{\text{independent of } \nu} \nu^2 d\nu = 3N_A$$

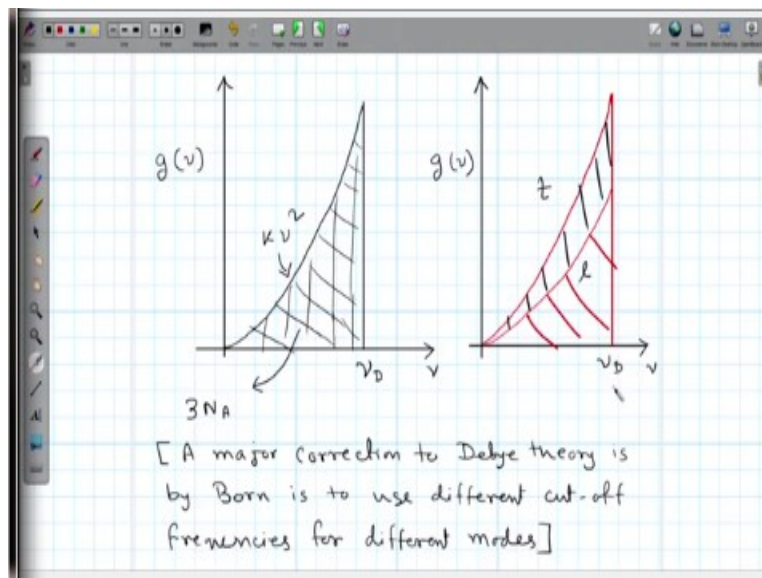
Which is once again the density of state multiplied by V actually, it is not exactly density of state, which is X_L plus X_T is equal to $4\pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right) \nu^2 d\nu$, so, basically just adding this one and this one, nothing else. So, only thing that we have not discussed what is the origin of this particular expression? And let me tell you once again this comes from the mind Maxwell's Boltzmann statistics.

So, this is the elemental volume in phase space and all, so we are not going into the details here. Now integrating this $g(\nu) d\nu$ over all possible frequencies starting from 0 to ν_D , what is the Debye cutoff frequency should actually give you $3N_A$, why? For a molar solid N_A is the number of molecules and each molecule can be considered as 3 independent linear harmonic oscillators. There is actually a small correction, in the last class I talked about energy per density in while deriving Einstein's theory.

I said something like energy per degrees of freedom, no; it is actually not true it is energy per independent vibrator. So, the number of independent vibrator is $3N_A$. So, there is a correction, I have corrected it in the notes, please have a look. So, it is 0 to ν_D , if I integrate it from 0 to ν_D , $g(\nu) d\nu$ will give you $3N_A$ and when I substitute for $g(\nu)$ simply by putting this expression over here, so I get this 0 to ν_D $4\pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right) \nu^2 d\nu$. Now this quantity over here is independent of frequency.

So, it is the characteristics of the solid, V is the volume C_l and C_t their characteristics of the solid and can be measured irrespective of course we assume that if there is a transverse wave this transverse wave will be of whatever frequency the transverse wave will have the same velocity. Similarly for a longitudinal wave whatever may be the frequency of this vibration the wave velocity will be the same which is once again some oversimplification to some extent. But these are material properties nonetheless. And at present we considered them to be independent of ν . So, what we can do is, we can simply take this out and compute this $\nu^2 d\nu$ from 0 to ν_D .

(Refer Slide Time: 22:29)



So, we will just give me a second. So, before we do that, let me quickly focus on this expression here. So, you see here $\nu^2 g(\nu)$ the density of state, it is actually density of state multiplied by the total volume, but that is okay, it is just a constant multiplication is actually a function of ν^2 . So, $g(\nu)$ is proportional to ν^2 .

So, just to give you a representative idea of how Debye theory looks like, you see, if I plot $g(\nu)$ as a function of ν , it is something like this, there is a constant times ν^2 . And the total area under this curve is actually $3N_A$. Now this curve has 2 contributions one for this area is the contribution for the longitudinal wave and this is the contribution for the transverse wave.

So, this one is a combination of a longitudinal and transverse component, which I am just trying to show you graphically. Now later on we will see that or we will discuss that Debye theory is also not complete of course no theory is complete. And so the major correction has been to Debye theory is the Born approximation, which says the same cutoff frequency for longitudinal and transverse vibration is probably not right. So, we will come back to that later.

(Refer Slide Time: 24:42)

Evaluating the integral, we have

$$\frac{4}{3} \pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right) \nu_D^3 = 3 N_A$$

or $\nu_D^3 = \frac{9 N_A}{4 \pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right)}$

Average energy per oscillator

$$\bar{E} = \frac{h\nu}{e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} - 1}$$

total energy $E = \int_0^\infty \bar{E} g(\nu) d\nu$

So, now from here, what do we do? We just compute the integration and we get ν_D so four third πV , this expression times ν_D cubed is equal to $3N_A$. And just writing this will give me an expression for ν_D cubed, what is ν_D , ν_D cubed is equal to $9N_A$ divided by $4\pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right)$. So, this actually gives you a way of measuring the Debye cutoff frequency experimentally, all we have to do is we have to measure c_l and c_t for a given solid.

Once we know that, we can always put this in this formula and compute the cutoff frequency for any given solid. So, once again the average energy per oscillator, please remember in the last lecture by mistake I have mentioned that average energy per degree of freedom which is not the case, average energy per oscillator is \bar{E} is equal to $h\nu$ divided by $e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} - 1$. So, once again the total energy E is equal to 0 to infinity in this case it will not be infinity.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:12)

Evaluating the integral, we have

$$\frac{4}{3} \pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right) \nu_D^3 = 3 N_A$$

or $\nu_D^3 = \frac{9 N_A}{4 \pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right)}$

Average energy per oscillator

$$\bar{E} = \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$$

total energy $E = \int_0^{\nu_D} \bar{E} g(\nu) d\nu$

Because there is a cutoff frequency which I think I did I have already done that. So, this is just by mistake, it should be ν_D . So, this is ν_D total energy is given by E is equal to 0 to ν_D $\bar{E} g(\nu) d\nu$.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:36)

$$E = 4 \pi V \left(\frac{1}{c_l^3} + \frac{2}{c_t^3} \right) \int_0^{\nu_D} \frac{h\nu^3}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} d\nu$$

$$= \frac{9 N_A}{\nu_m^3} \int_0^{\nu_D} \frac{h\nu^3}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} d\nu$$

$$C_V = \left(\frac{dE}{dT} \right)_V = \frac{9 N_A}{\nu_m^3} \int_0^{\nu_D} \frac{h^2 \nu^4 e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}}}{kT^2 (e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} - 1)^2} d\nu$$

Let $x = \frac{h\nu}{kT}$, $x_D = \frac{h\nu_D}{kT}$

Also, we write $N_A k_B = R$

Now this integration has to be computed. So, there is a constant factor over here in $G(\nu)$ and then we are left with this integration. Now this actually we do not have to keep it in this kind of long format, what we can do is we can simply use this relation over here. And we can reduce it to once again small mistake it should be D .

(Refer Slide Time: 27:05)

$$E = 4\pi V \left(\frac{1}{c^3} + \frac{2}{c^3} \right) \int_0^{\nu_D} \frac{h\nu^3}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} d\nu$$

$$= \frac{9 N_A}{\nu_D^3} \int_0^{\nu_D} \frac{h\nu^3}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} d\nu$$

$$C_V = \left(\frac{dE}{dT} \right)_V = \frac{9 N_A}{\nu_D^3} \int_0^{\nu_D} \frac{h^2 \nu^4 e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}}}{kT^2 (e^{\frac{h\nu}{kT}} - 1)^2} d\nu$$

$$\text{Let } x = \frac{h\nu}{kT}, \quad x_D = \frac{h\nu_D}{kT}$$

We can reduce it to $9 N_A$ by ν_D^3 sorry it should be D once again, so times this integration. Now this is for the total energy E here, for C_V it will be dE/dT at constant volume and the volume term is already included here. So, we can take this as constant, please remember that the volume is included in ν_D here, so this is constant. So, the integration or the differentiation will be whatever inside this integration symbol that is the integrand which are functions of temperature.

This $k_B T$ is a function of temperature e to the power $h\nu$ way $k_B T$ minus 1 is a function of temperature. So, finally once we compute the differentiation, so it should be 0 to ν_D h^2 square ν to the power 4 e to the power $h\nu$ by $k_B T$ divided by this $k_B T$ square and this quantity. Once again we write just like in Einstein case, we write x is equal to $h\nu$ by $k_B T$ and we also define x_D which is $h\nu_D$ by $k_B T$. Also there is a trick here what we can do is we can write there is a $N_A k_B$, so we also have to write $N_A k_B$ is equal to R and right.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:53)

$$C_v = \frac{9R}{x_D^3} \int_0^{x_D} \frac{x^4 e^x}{(e^x - 1)^2} dx$$

Evaluating the definite integral

$$C_v = 3R \left[\frac{12}{x_D^3} \int_0^{x_D} \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx - \frac{3x_D}{e^{x_D} - 1} \right]$$

$$= 3R D(x_D) \leftarrow \text{Debye function}$$

$$= 3R D\left(\frac{\theta_D}{T}\right); x_D = \frac{h\nu_D}{kT} = \frac{\theta_D}{T}$$

$\theta_D \rightarrow$ is called the Debye temperature
(characteristics of the solid)

So, what we can do is I think there is a mistake I will just correct this, I think this k should go here something like this because otherwise this relation will not make sense, anyway I can check that. So, it will be 3 by R this is a correction here it will be x_D^3 by R x_D^3 cubed from 0 to x_D x to the power 4 e to the power x divided by e to the power x minus 1 whole square dx . Now, so we have a definite integral in hand.

Now this a definite integral can be evaluated by parts. So, what do we have here? We can do this integration by parts taking $3R$ out, what we have finally is this one 12 by x_D^3 cubed integration 0 to x_D x cubed e to the power x minus 1 dx minus $3x_D$ divided by e to the power x_D minus 1 . Now this function over here, so, we have just taken $3R$ out, so that we can compare it with the Dulong-Petit law or Einstein's law for example.

And we can write this as $3R D$ of x_D , where D is a Debye function, also there is a way of writing this x_D as θ_D by T where θ_D is equal to θ_D by T , this is the relation here. So, D is called the Debye function and θ_D is called the Debye temperature which once again is a characteristics of a solid, but unlike Einstein temperature which actually well, or Einstein frequency which is one unique frequency for all the oscillators.

Debye temperature or Debye frequency marks the upper cutoff of phonon vibration. So, we will talk about the low temperature and high temperature limit from here in the next lecture. So, at

present we have found out that there is an expression for C_v in terms of this Debye function. And next what we need to do is, we need to explore the low temperature and high temperature behavior which we will do in the next lecture and compare it with the experimentally determined values, thank you.