

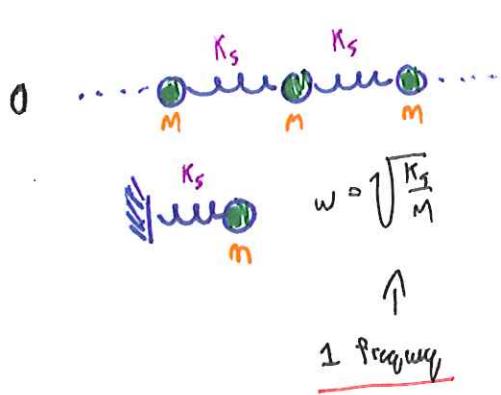
# Physics 410/90 - Solid State Physics

Spring 2015

Monday, Week 5:

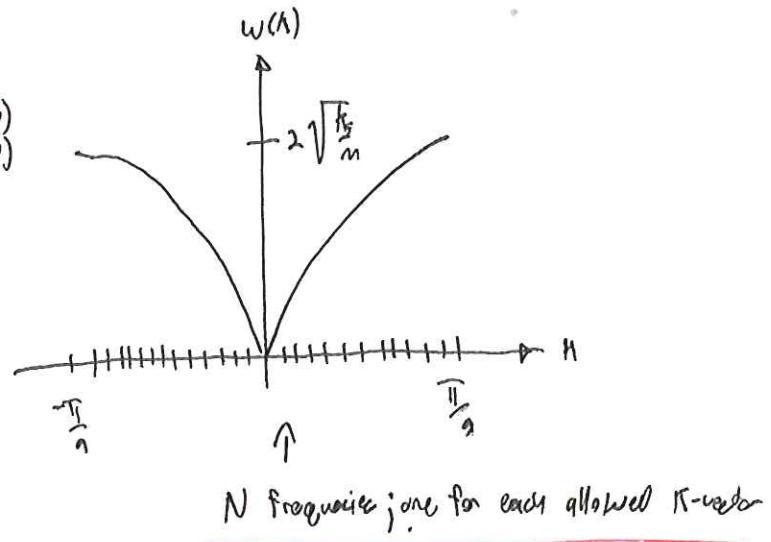
Review:

1D Monatomic



$$(0) \dots (N-1) \dots (N)$$

$\Rightarrow$

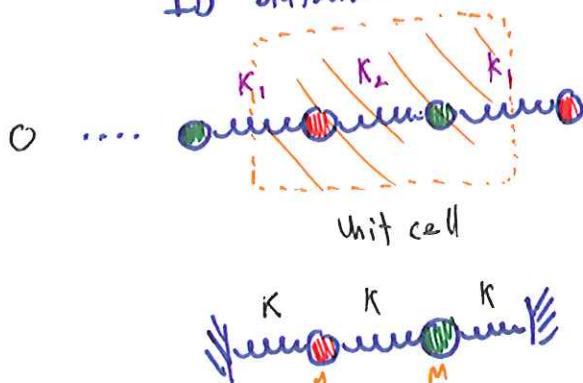


For each mode  $w$  /  $K_m = \frac{2\pi}{L} \cdot n$ , we have  $w(k_m) \propto$  energy:

$$E_n = \hbar w(k_m) (n + \frac{1}{2}) \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

Each excitation by a step up is called a phonon, which is a discrete quantum of vibration.

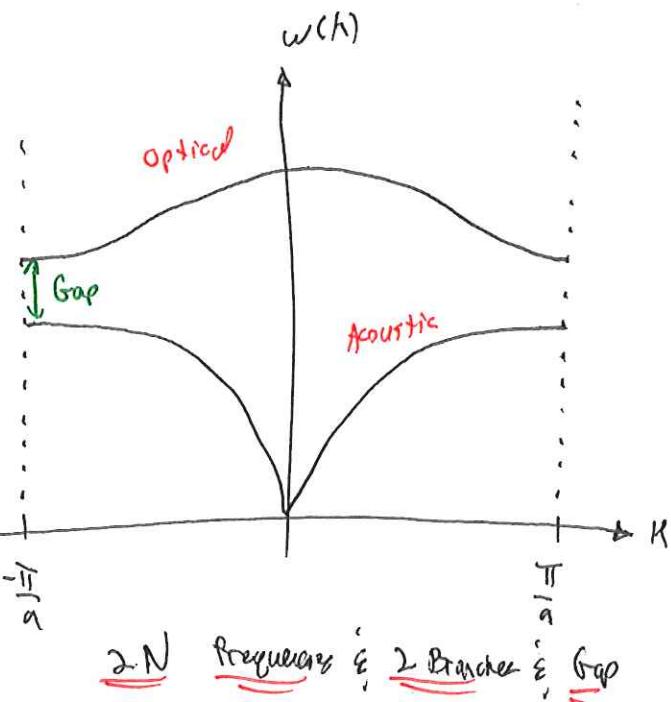
1D Diatomic



$$w = \sqrt{\frac{k_1^2}{m} + \frac{k_2^2}{M}}$$

2 frequencies  
A gap

$$\sqrt{\frac{k_1^2}{m} + \frac{k_2^2}{M}}$$



2N frequencies  $\&$  2 Branches  $\&$  Gaps

①

① The motion of the basis atoms:

The relative amplitudes ( $\vec{q}$  phaser) of a particular  $w(k)$  we obtained by solving the eigenvalue equation we derived earlier. In general, there will be some complex relationship between the two.

For  $k \rightarrow 0$  we have

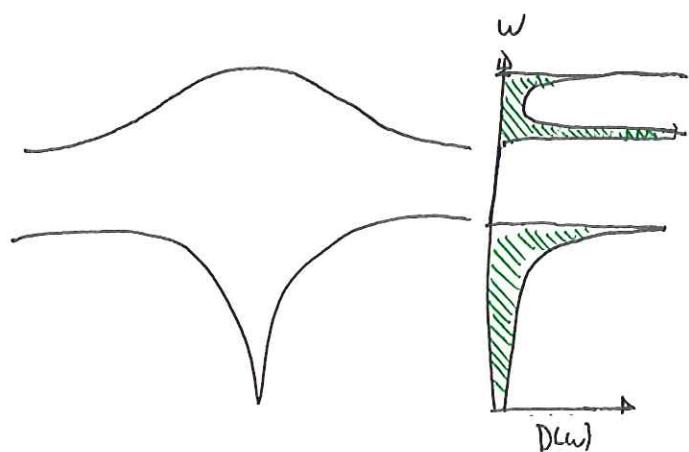
$$\begin{pmatrix} A_x \\ A_y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} & \text{Acoustic} \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} & \text{Optical} \end{cases}$$



② In the diatomic basis case, the basis already has two distinct allowable frequencies  $\vec{q}$ , each one spreads into its own branch or band.

$$\sqrt{\frac{3k}{m}} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \diagup \\ \diagdown \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \parallel \\ \parallel \\ \parallel \end{array}$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \diagup \\ \diagdown \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \parallel \\ \parallel \\ \parallel \\ \parallel \end{array}$$



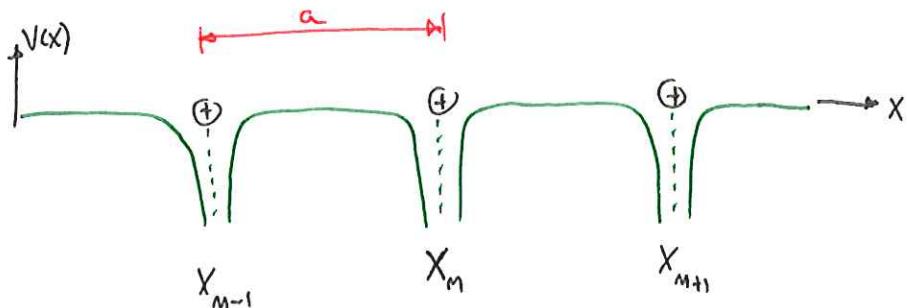
②

So far we've looked at X-rays, neutrons, & vibrational waves in crystals.  
Here are some similarities:

- Bragg reflections at the BC edges; standing waves.

Since the behavior of waves in periodic environments is similar, let's get a preview of electronic waves:

### The Tight-Binding Chain:



Consider an electron in this periodic potential:

$$V(x) = \sum_j V(x - x_j)$$

with Hamiltonian,

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \sum_j V(x - x_j)$$

$\xi$  Variational trial function

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_n \phi_n |m\rangle \quad \text{where } |m\rangle \text{ are ground state orbitals for} \\ \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x - x_m)$$

$\xi$  we assume

$$\langle n | m \rangle = \delta_{n,m}$$

$$\xi \quad \left( \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x - x_m) \right) |m\rangle = E_{\text{atomic}} |m\rangle$$

We derive the variational Schrödinger Eq. the following way:

$$H|\psi\rangle = E|\psi\rangle$$

$$\sum_i \langle i | H | \psi \rangle = E \sum_m \phi_m | m \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle n | \left( \sum_{i,m} | i \rangle \langle i | H | m \rangle \right) \phi_m &= E \sum_{i,m} | i \rangle \underbrace{\langle i | m \rangle}_{S_{im}} \phi_m \\ &= E \sum_i | i \rangle \phi_i \end{aligned}$$

Recall,

$$\begin{pmatrix} H_{11} & H_{12} \\ H_{21} & H_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \end{pmatrix} = E \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sum_{i,m} \underbrace{\langle n | i \rangle}_{S_{ni}} \langle i | H | m \rangle \phi_m = E \sum_i \underbrace{\langle n | i \rangle}_{S_{ni}} \phi_i$$

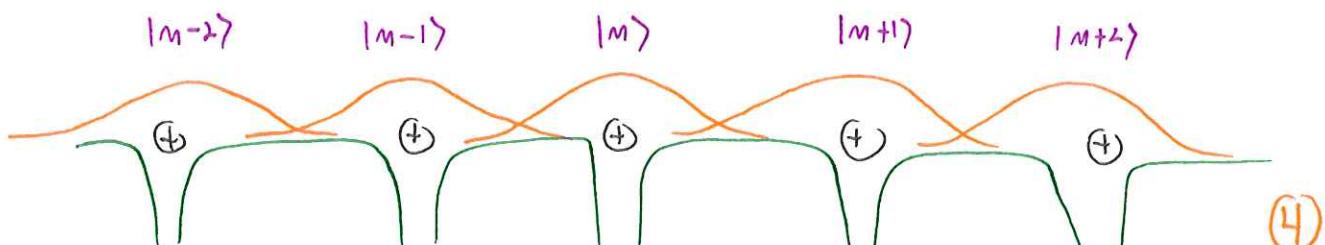
$$\boxed{\sum_m \langle n | H | m \rangle \phi_m = E \phi_n} \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{\sum_m H_{n,m} \phi_m = E \phi_n} \quad (1)$$

Now, the matrix elements are:

$$H|m\rangle = \left( \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x-x_m) \right) |m\rangle + \sum_{j \neq m} V(x-x_j) |m\rangle$$

$$\langle n | H | m \rangle = E_{\text{atomic}} |m\rangle + \sum_{j \neq m} V(x-x_j) |m\rangle$$

$$\langle n | H | m \rangle = E_{\text{atomic}} \langle n | m \rangle + \sum_{j \neq m} \langle n | V(x-x_j) | m \rangle$$



So integrals  $\langle n | V(x-x_j) | m \rangle$  are negligible if  $n > m+1$   
 $n < m-1$

$$\sum_{j \neq m} \langle n | V(x-x_j) | m \rangle = \begin{cases} V_0 & n=m \\ -t & n=m \pm 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$H_{n,m} = (E_{\text{atomic}} + V_0) S_{n,m} - t (S_{n+1,m} + S_{n-1,m})$$

Now we know what (1) looks like. We use the trial solution for  $\phi_n$  that is periodic:

$$\phi_n = \frac{e^{-ikna}}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Then the Schrödinger Equation says:

$$(E_{\text{atomic}} + V_0) \frac{e^{-ikna}}{\sqrt{N}} - t \left( \frac{e^{i k(n+1)a}}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{e^{-i k(n-1)a}}{\sqrt{N}} \right) = E \frac{e^{-ikna}}{\sqrt{N}}$$

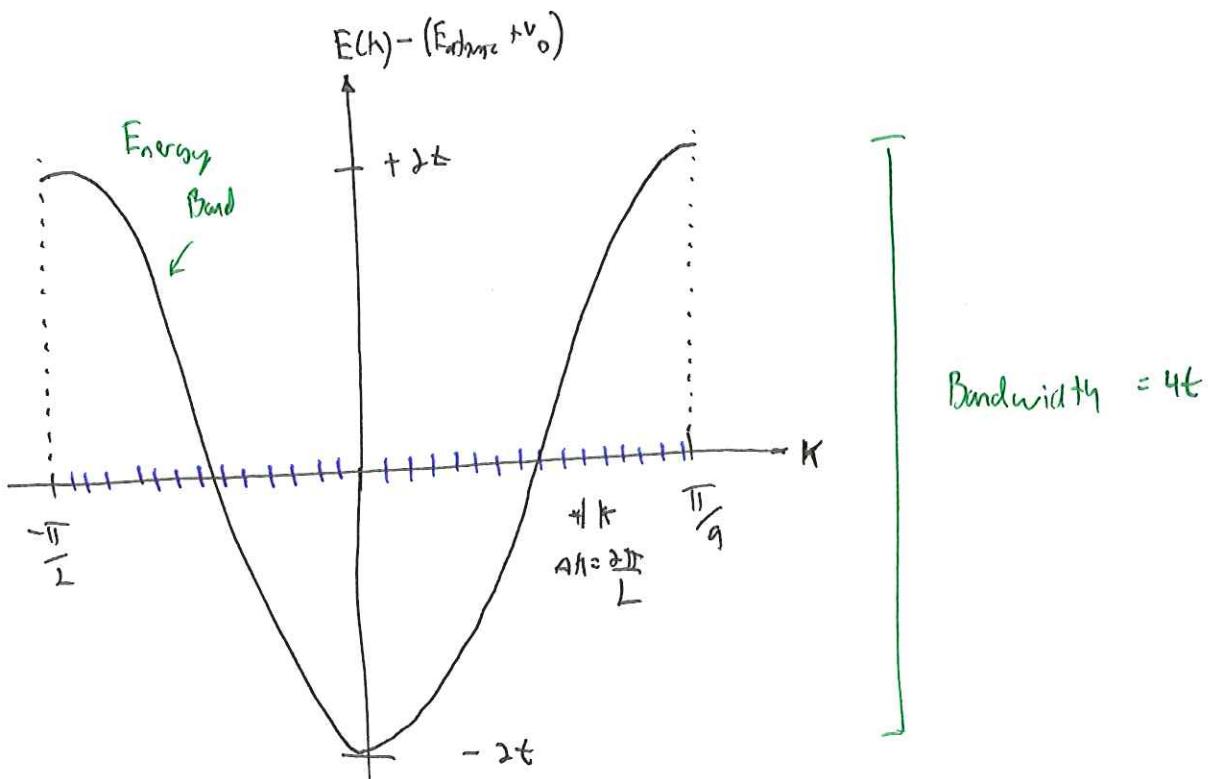
$$(E_{\text{atomic}} + V_0) - t (e^{-ikna} + e^{ikna}) = E$$

or

$$E(k) = (E_{\text{atomic}} + V_0) - 2t \cos(ka)$$

Recall the monatomic chain gave

$$\omega^2 = \frac{2\pi}{m} (1 - \cos(ka))$$

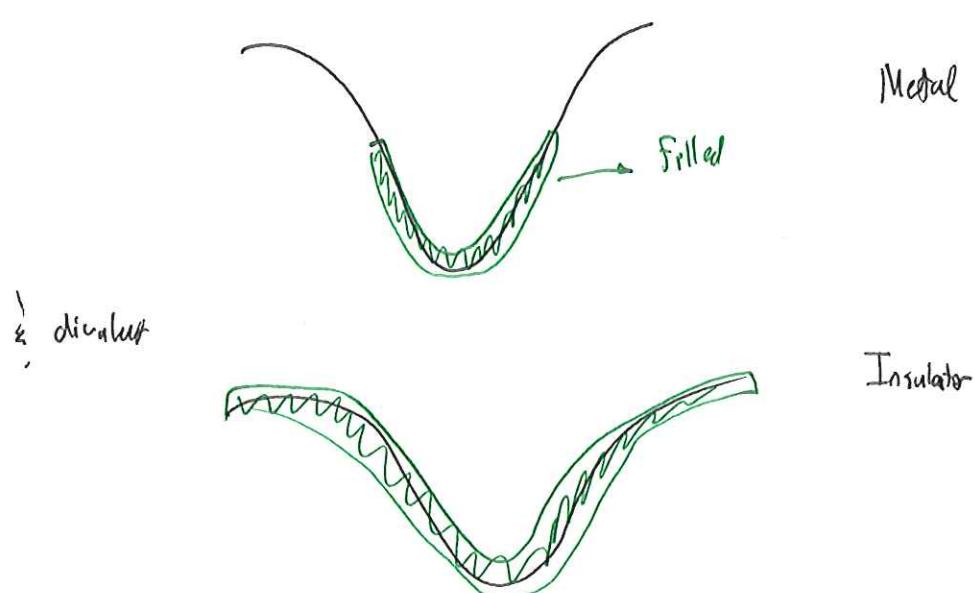


$$E(k+g_n) = E(k)$$

The bandwidth  $4t$  increases as the atoms become closer together.

There are still  $N$  allowed  $k$ -states of width  $\Delta k = \frac{2\pi}{L}$ , but 2 electrons

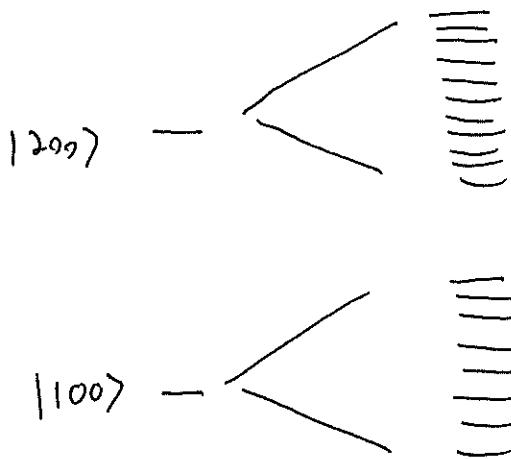
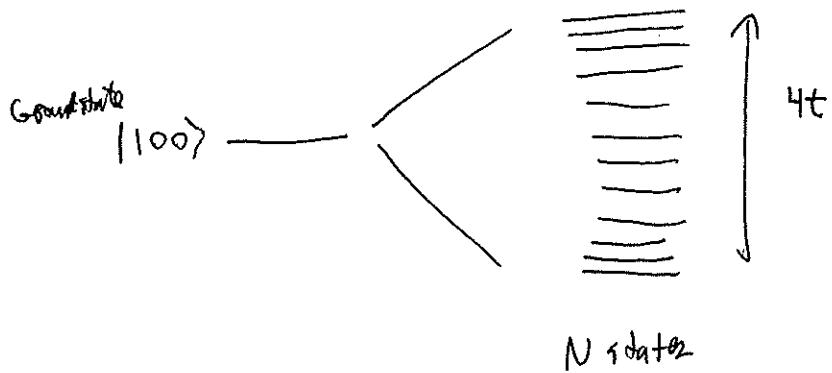
are allowed per  $k$ -state. Thus if monovalent:



Note a free electron can have any energy

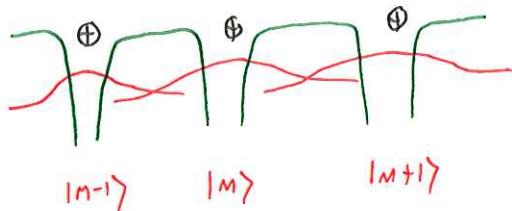
$$E = \frac{h^2 k^2}{2m}$$

but here the electron can have min & max energy. Also the single atomic orbital splits into N levels i



Physics 4110/510 - Solid State Physics  
 Spring 2015  
Wednesday, Week 5

Review:



$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^N \phi_n |n\rangle$$

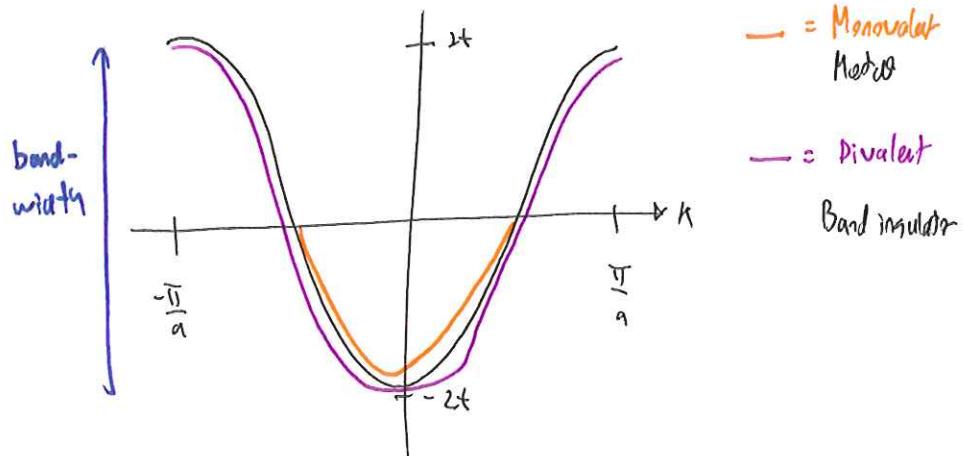
$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \sum_{j=1}^N V(x-x_j)$$

$$\sum_n \langle n | H | n \rangle \phi_n = E \phi_n \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \ddots & & \\ -t & E_0 - t & & \\ & -t & E_0 - t & \\ & & -t & E_0 - t \\ \ddots & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \phi_N \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\phi_n = \frac{e^{-ikna}}{\sqrt{N}} \Rightarrow (E_{atomic} + V_0) - t (e^{-ika} + e^{ika}) = E$$

$$E(k) = (E_{atomic} + V_0) - 2t \cos(ka)$$

↓      ↘  
 narrow overlap      measured overlap  
 of  $\langle n | \phi_m \rangle$  if all  
 $|M\rangle$  w/ all  
 other  $V(x-x_j)$ 's      potentials  $V(x-x_j)$   
 except the  $M^{\text{th}}$ .

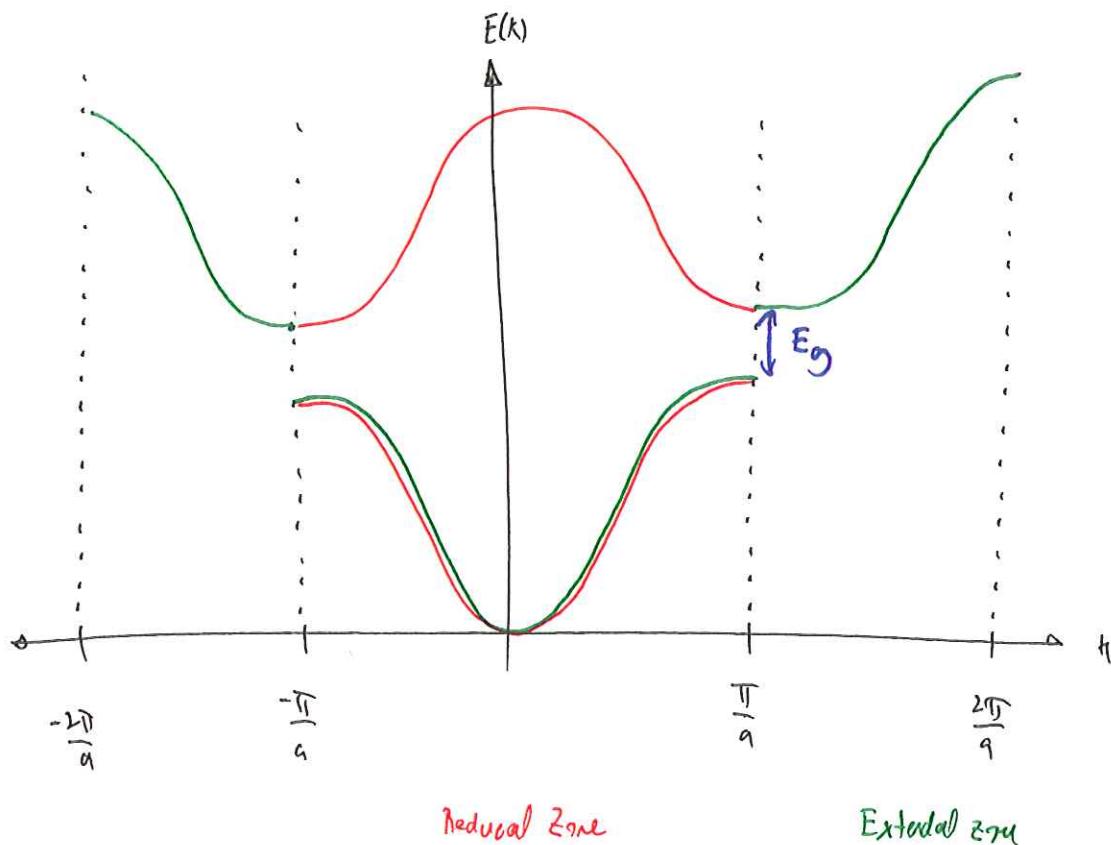


The band width  $4t$  grows as the lattice spacing decreases.

— = Monovalent Metal

— = Divalent Band insulator

Much like the diatomic chain gave a frequency gap, if our basis, in this case a single atom, has more than one energy level (frequency), then we'll get a second band  $\epsilon$ , there will be a band gap at the BZ edges:



Effective Mass: The energy of a free electron is  $E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$

In the crystal, the electron has min & max energy. If we Taylor expand our tight-binding  $E(k)$  at min:

$$E(k) = E_0 + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 E}{dk^2} \right|_{k=0} \cdot k^2$$

Then

$$\frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 E}{dk^2} \right|_{k=0} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*}$$

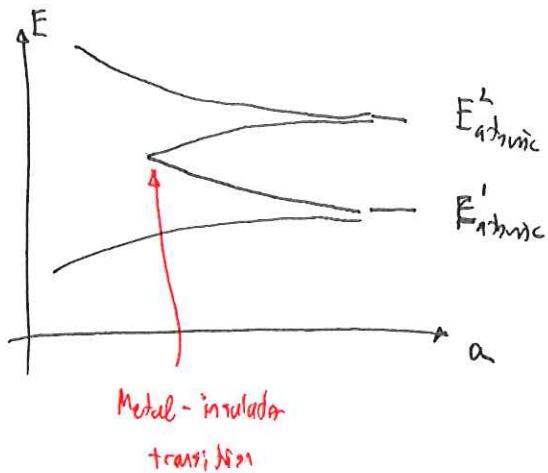
$$m^* = \frac{\hbar^2}{\left. \frac{d^2 E}{dk^2} \right|_{k=0}}$$

Effective Mass

Here

$$m^* = \frac{\hbar^2}{2t a^2}$$

Compressing a solid, reducing the lattice constant increases the band width, which in the case of multiple bands can lead to the metal-insulator transition:



So electron waves behave similarly to X-rays, neutrons, & phonons in periodic environment. we'll return to electron again later & cover the topic in greater detail. For now, let's return to thermal properties of solids.

### Thermal Properties of Solids:

- How much energy is stored in phonons at a temperature T?
- If we add energy  $\Delta U$  to solid what is  $\Delta T$ ?
- If we heat up a crystal, why doesn't it expand or contract?
- How do phonons transport energy across a thermal gradient?

### Heat Capacity:

$$C = 3Nk_B \quad [\text{Dulong-Petit}] \\ = 3nR$$

C/R per mole	Material	C/R
	Al	2.91
	Cu	2.94
	Au	3.95
	Ag	2.99
	C-diamond	0.735

Boltzmann promoted model,

quadratic  
6 degrees of freedom,

$$U = 6 \times \frac{1}{2} k_B \cdot T \cdot N$$

$$= 3 k_B T N$$

$$\frac{dU}{dT} = 3 k_B N$$

But, this doesn't work at low T (or for diamond @ room T). Einstein modeled the solid as a bunch of harmonic oscillators w/ freq.  $\omega$ . In 1D:

$$\text{anomalous} \Rightarrow \underbrace{\omega_0}_{{\omega = \sqrt{k/m}}} \quad \underbrace{\omega_0}_{{\omega = \sqrt{k/m}}} \quad \underbrace{\omega_0}_{{\omega = \sqrt{k/m}}}$$

$$E_n = \hbar\omega(n + \frac{1}{2}) \quad \text{for each oscillator.}$$

Thus for a <sup>single</sup> 1D oscillator:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{1D} &= \sum_{n \geq 0} e^{-\beta \hbar \omega (n + \frac{1}{2})} \quad \text{where } \beta \equiv \frac{1}{k_B T} \\ &= e^{-\beta \hbar \omega / 2} \sum_{n \geq 0} (e^{-\beta \hbar \omega})^n \\ &= \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar \omega / 2}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}} \quad \text{used } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad x \leq 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega / 2} (1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega})} \\ &= \frac{1}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega / 2} - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2 \sinh(\beta \hbar \omega / 2)} \end{aligned}$$

The expectation value of the energy is:

recall  $Z = \sum e^{-\beta E_i}$

$$\langle E \rangle = -\frac{1}{Z_{1D}} \frac{\partial Z_{1D}}{\partial \beta}$$

$$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial \beta} = \sum -E_i e^{-\beta E_i} \\ = -Z \cdot \langle E \rangle$$

$$= -\frac{1}{Z_{1D}} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1 - \cosh(\beta \hbar \omega / 2)}{\sinh(\beta \hbar \omega / 2)^2} \cdot \frac{\hbar \omega}{2}$$

$$= \frac{\hbar \omega}{2} \frac{\cosh(-)}{\sinh(-)}$$

$$= \frac{\hbar \omega}{2} \coth\left(\frac{\beta \hbar \omega}{2}\right)$$

$$= \hbar \omega \left( n_B(\beta \hbar \omega) + \frac{1}{2} \right) \quad \text{where } n_B(\beta \hbar \omega) = \frac{1}{e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1}$$

given  $\langle E \rangle = \hbar \omega (n_B + \frac{1}{2})$  ✓

The heat capacity for a single oscillator is:

$$C = \frac{\partial \langle E \rangle}{\partial T} = k_B (\beta \hbar \omega)^2 \frac{e^{\beta \hbar \omega}}{(e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1)^2}$$

In 3D,

$$Z_{3D} = \sum_{n_x, n_y, n_z} e^{-\beta \hbar \omega [(n_x + \frac{1}{2}) + (n_y + \frac{1}{2}) + (n_z + \frac{1}{2})]}$$

$$= \sum_{n_x} e^{-\beta \hbar \omega (n_x + \frac{1}{2})} \cdot \sum_{n_y} (-) \cdot \sum_{n_z} (-)$$

$$= (Z_{1D})^3$$

$\omega$  is only fitting parameter ↑

$$\langle E_{3D} \rangle = 3 \langle E_{1D} \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow C = 3N k_B (\beta \hbar \omega)^2 \frac{e^{\beta \hbar \omega}}{(e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1)^2}$$

Einstein  
Heat Capacity  
for Oscillators

(5)

In the limit  $k_B T \gg \hbar\omega$ ,  $\beta \rightarrow 0$

$$C = 3Nk_B \left(\beta \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B}\right)^2 \frac{(1 + \beta \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B} + \dots)}{\left(1 + \beta \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B} + \dots - 1\right)^2}$$

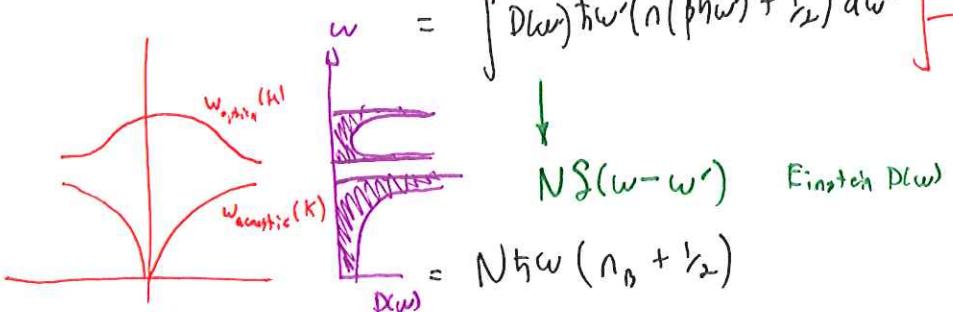
$$\approx 3Nk_B (1 + \beta \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B})$$

$$= 3Nk_B \quad \square$$

which is the Dulong-Petit Law. ★ Show PPT of C(T).

Recall our previous enumeration of modes:

$$\begin{aligned} U_{\text{tot}} &= \sum_k \hbar\omega(k) \left( n(\beta \hbar\omega(k)) + \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{L}{2\pi} \int d\omega \hbar\omega(\omega) \left( n(\omega) + \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{Na}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{2\pi}{a} \hbar\omega \left( n(\beta \hbar\omega) + \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &= N \cdot \hbar\omega \left( n_B + \frac{1}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$



$U_{\text{tot}}$  for a single polarization with the dispersion  $D(\omega)$ , which will depend on the branch  $\ell$ , the real total energy is

$$U = \sum_{\text{polarizations}} U_{\text{tot}}^{\text{polarization}} \cdot 3D \text{ diatomic}$$

$$U = 3(U_{\text{optical}} + U_{\text{acoustic}})$$

In general, Einstein's calculation is good for most  $T$ , especially for small  $\omega$ :

$$k_B T > \hbar\omega$$

When  $k_B T \ll \hbar\omega$ , the Einstein calc. deviates significantly from experiment.

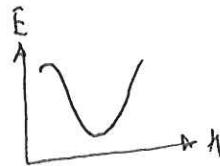
Namely, at low  $T$ ,

$$C(T) \propto T^3. \quad \star \text{Show PPT}$$

Physics 410/510 - Solid State Physics  
 Spring 2015  
Friday, Week 5:

Review:

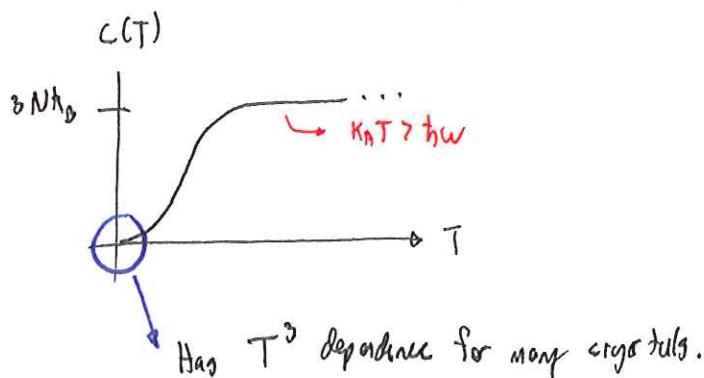
$$\text{Effective Mass: } m^* = \frac{\hbar^2}{\partial^2 E / \partial k^2}$$



Heat Capacity:  $C \rightarrow 3Nk_B$  @ higher T

Einstein:  $C(T) = 3Nk_B \left( \frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B T} \right)^2 \frac{e^{\frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B T}}}{(e^{\frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B T}} - 1)^2}$  [3D]

$\sqrt{\text{vib}} \propto 3N$



In the Einstein calculation,  $\omega$  is a fit parameter.

The failure is at low-T, where it fails to predict  $T^3$  behavior.

Debye Model:

$$U = \sum_k \hbar\omega(k) (n(\rho\hbar\omega(k)) + \frac{1}{2})$$

$$= \left( \frac{L}{2\pi} \right)^3 \int dk \hbar\omega(k) (n(\omega(k)) + \frac{1}{2})$$

$$= \int D(\omega) \hbar\omega (n(\omega) + \frac{1}{2}) d\omega$$

Debye improved on Einstein's calculation by allowing the oscillators to couple, so that there will be a distribution of frequencies.

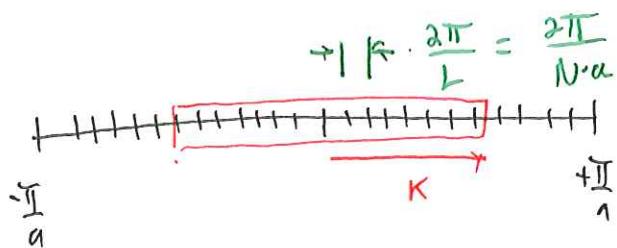
\* Show PPT

So the energy in a polarization (transverse longitudinal) is:

$$U = \int D(\omega) \hbar \omega (\eta_0(\beta \hbar \omega) + b_2) d\omega \quad [\text{Per Polarization}]$$

Debye modelled the  $D(\omega)$  differently:

Recall in 1D:

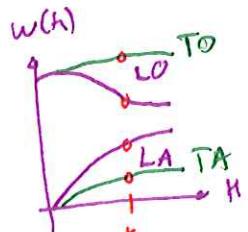


One way to get  $D(\omega)$  is to consider # states in a 1D sphere (line) of radius  $K$ :

$$N_{SK} = \left( \frac{L}{2\pi} \right) \cdot 2K$$

Length of specimen

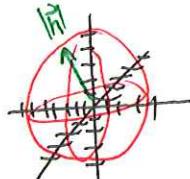
so density of states in  $\omega$ -space:



$$D(\omega) = \boxed{\frac{dN}{d\omega} = 2 \cdot \left( \frac{L}{2\pi} \right) \frac{dk}{d\omega} = 2 \cdot \left( \frac{L}{2\pi} \right) \frac{1}{|dw/dk|}} \quad \square$$

In 3D: The density of states in  $k$ -space is  $\left( \frac{L}{2\pi} \right)^3 = \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3}$  Volume of specimen  
For each polarization & each branch.

$$\sum N(\leq |k|) = \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{4\pi}{3} k^3$$



$$D(\omega) = \boxed{\frac{dN}{dk} = \frac{4\pi V}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot k^2 \cdot \frac{dk}{dw}}$$

radius of sphere.

For each polarization assuming  $dw/dk$  constant over sphere.  
 $w(k) = w(\omega)$  (2)

Also, recall that

$$\sum_k \rightarrow \int \left(\frac{L}{2\pi}\right) dk$$

constant  $w(\vec{k})$  because we want  
# states between  $w(\vec{k})$  &  $w(\vec{k}) + dw$  which  
is  $\equiv D(w)dw$

$$D(w) = \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{dS_w}{|\vec{\nabla}_k w(\vec{k})|}$$

so now,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\vec{k}} &\rightarrow \int \left(\frac{L}{2\pi}\right)^3 dk \\ &= \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \int d\vec{k} \\ &\quad \text{Surface element of constant } w(\vec{k}) \\ &= \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \int dS_w \stackrel{\text{tw}}{=} \int \int \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{dS_w}{|\vec{\nabla}_k w(\vec{k})|} dw \\ &\quad \text{in } \vec{k}\text{-space} \\ &= \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot 4\pi \int k^2 dk \quad [\text{spherical}] \\ &= \int D(w) dw \\ &\quad \downarrow \\ &\quad \frac{4\pi}{(2\pi)^3} V k^2 \frac{1}{(dw/dk)} \quad \text{as before} \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Polye used a simple form of  $w(k)$ : (Assumed spherically symmetric)

$$\begin{aligned} w(k) &= V_{\text{sound}} \cdot k \\ &= V_s \cdot k \\ \therefore D(w) &= \frac{4\pi \cdot V}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{k^2}{V_s} = \frac{4\pi \cdot V}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \frac{(w/V_s)^2}{V_s} \end{aligned}$$

so with 3 polarisations,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle E \rangle = U &= 3 \cdot \frac{4\pi V}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{w}{V_s}\right)^2 \frac{1}{V_s} \hbar w (\eta_B(\beta \hbar w) + l_2) dw \\ &= \int N \left[ \frac{12\pi}{(2\pi)^3 \cdot V_s^3} \right] w^2 \cdot \hbar w (\eta_B(\beta \hbar w) + l_2) dw \\ &= \int N \cdot \frac{9 w^3}{w_B^3} \hbar w (\eta_B(\beta \hbar w) + l_2) dw \quad \text{Polye-frequence} \quad ③ \end{aligned}$$

$$w_p^3 = 6\pi^3 \cdot n \cdot V_s^3$$

$$= \frac{qN\hbar}{w_0^3} \left[ \int_0^\infty \frac{w^3}{e^{\beta\hbar w} - 1} dw + \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{2} w^3 dw \right]$$

No T-dependence...

will ignore.

$$x = \beta\hbar w$$

$$\frac{dx}{\beta\hbar} = dw$$

$$= \frac{qN\hbar}{w_0^3} \left( \frac{1}{\beta\hbar} \right)^4 \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{e^{x-1}} dx$$

$$= qN \frac{(k_B T)^4}{(w_0 \hbar)^3} \cdot \frac{\pi^4}{15}$$

Similar to Planck's Quantum Energy of photons

$$\text{where } w = cK$$

$\therefore$  use  $2x$  for 2 polarizations of photons  
or  $3x$  "  $3$  " photons

$$C = \frac{2\langle E \rangle}{kT}$$

$$= N k_B \left( \frac{k_B T}{w_0 \hbar} \right)^3 \cdot \frac{12\pi^4}{5} = N k_B \left( \frac{T}{T_{Debye}} \right)^3 \cdot \frac{12\pi^4}{5}$$

$$\propto T^3$$

↓  
Get  $T^3$  law

But now,  $C \rightarrow 0 @ T \rightarrow 0 !!!$

Higher  $T_D$  materials deviate  
from Dulong-Petit Law at

$$T < T_D.$$

$$T_D \equiv \frac{\hbar w_0}{k_B}$$

[Debye  
Temperature]

$T_D (K)$	Material
1850	C (diamond)
625	Si
315	Cu
215	Ag
88	Pb

To fix  $T^3$  problem at high  $T$ , Debye introduced cut-off frequency denoted by  
# of modes in 3D of  $N$  atoms:

$$\begin{aligned} 3N &= 3 \int_0^{w_{\text{cutoff}}} D(\omega) d\omega \\ &\approx 3 \cdot \frac{4\pi \cdot V}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{1}{V_s^3} \int_0^{w_{\text{cutoff}}} \omega^2 d\omega \\ &= (\dots) \frac{1}{3} w_{\text{cutoff}}^3 \\ &= \frac{3}{6\pi^2 n V_s^3} N w_{\text{cutoff}}^3 \\ &= 3N \cdot \frac{w_{\text{cutoff}}^3}{6\pi^2 n V_s^3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{w_{\text{cutoff}}^3 = w_0^3 = 6\pi n V_s^3}$$

Then

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{qN\hbar}{w_0^3} \int_0^{w_0} \frac{\omega^3}{e^{\beta\hbar\omega} - 1} d\omega + \text{T-Independent term}$$

$$C = \frac{2TE}{2T} = \frac{qN\hbar^2}{6\pi n V_s^3} \frac{1}{k_B T^2} \int_0^{w_0} \frac{\omega^4 e^{\beta\hbar\omega}}{(e^{\beta\hbar\omega} - 1)^2} d\omega$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\downarrow x = \beta\hbar\omega \\ &\quad x_0 = \beta\hbar\omega_0 = \frac{\hbar\omega_0}{k_B T} \\ &= qNk_B \left( \frac{T}{T_0} \right)^3 \int_0^{x_0} \frac{x^4 e^x}{(e^x - 1)^2} dx \end{aligned}$$

\* Show PVT of C

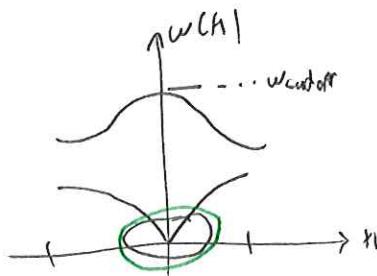
Now depend on Temperature!!

(5)

Remarks:

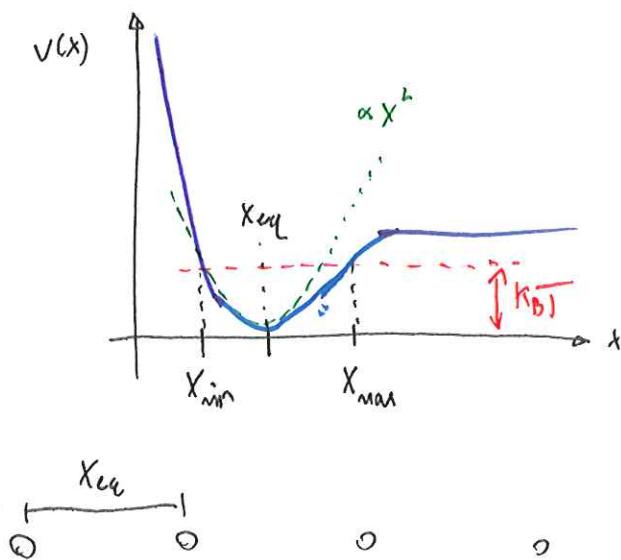
- $T^3$  behavior occurs when  $T \ll T_b$ :

- Here  $\omega \ll \omega_0 = \omega_{\text{cutoff}}$ , which is where acoustic phonon live & the Debye approximation holds,  $\omega = V_s \cdot k$ :



- For Modulus,  $C = \sqrt{T} + \alpha T^3$

Thermal Expansion:



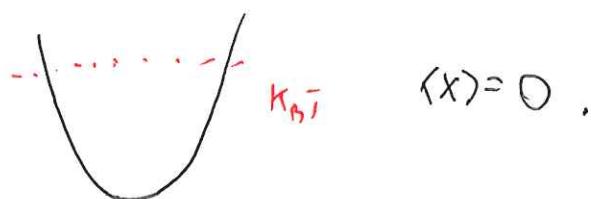
$$V(x_{\min}) = V(x_{\max}) = k_B T$$

$$|x_{\max} - x_{\text{eq}}| > |x_{\min} - x_{\text{eq}}|$$

so  $\langle x \rangle > x_{\text{eq}}$  because of asymmetric potential.

&  $\langle x \rangle$  will increase for higher T's

If only  $\frac{1}{2} k x^2$



$$\langle x \rangle = 0$$