

Chapter 9 - Statistical Mechanics

9-1: As in Example 9.1, $g(\epsilon_2) = 8$ and $g(\epsilon_1) = 1$. Then,

$$\frac{n(\epsilon_2)}{n(\epsilon_1)} = \frac{1}{1000} = 4 e^{-(\epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1)/kT} = 4 e^{3\epsilon_1/4kT},$$

where $\epsilon_2 = \epsilon_1/4$. Using $\epsilon_1 = -13.6$ eV, and solving for T ,

$$T = \left(\frac{1}{k}\right) \frac{(3/4)(-\epsilon_1)}{\ln 4000} = \frac{(3/4)(13.6 \text{ eV})}{(8.617 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K})(\ln 4000)} = 1.43 \times 10^4 \text{ K}.$$

9-3: In this situation, the “multiplicity” that is the superscript in the term symbol is not the same as the number of states of a given energy. The number of states is $2\mathbf{L} + 1 = 3$ for a P level and 1 for an S level. The ratio of the numbers of atoms in the states is then

$$(3) \exp\left(-\frac{(2.093 \text{ eV})}{(8.617 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K})(1200 \text{ K})}\right) = 4.86 \times 10^{-9}.$$

9-5: (a) As in Example 9.2, there are $2J + 1$ states with the same rotational energy for a given rotational quantum number J . The $J = 0$ state has 0 energy, and so the populations relative to $J = 0$ are

$$\begin{aligned} & (2J + 1) \exp\left(-\frac{J(J + 1) \hbar^2}{2 I k T}\right) \\ &= (2J + 1) \left[\exp\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2 I k T}\right)\right]^{J(J+1)} \\ &= (2J + 1) \left[\exp\left(-\frac{(1.055 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^2}{2 (4.64 \times 10^{-48} \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2) (1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}) (300 \text{ K})}\right)\right]^{J(J+1)} \\ &= (2J + 1) [0.74864]^{J(J+1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Applying this expression to $J = 0, 1, 2, 3$ and 4 gives, respectively, 1 exactly, 1.68, 0.880, 0.217 and 0.275.

If more precise values for the constants \hbar and k than those given in the endpapers are used, the answers might differ in the third figure. For instance, using $\hbar = 1.0545716 \times 10^{-34}$ J·s gives, for $J = 2, 3$ and 4 the values 0.882, 0.218 and 0.277.

(b) Introduce the dimensionless parameter $x \equiv e^{-\hbar^2/2IkT}$ (in part (a), with $T = 300$ K, $x = 0.74864$). Then, for the populations of the $J = 2$ and $J = 3$ states to be equal,

$$5x^6 = 7x^{12}, \quad x^6 = \frac{5}{7} \quad \text{and} \quad 6 \ln x = \ln \frac{5}{7}.$$

Using $\ln x = -\hbar^2/2IkT$ and $\ln \frac{5}{7} = -\ln \frac{7}{5}$, and solving for T ,

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \frac{6\hbar^2}{2Ik \ln(7/5)} \\ &= \frac{6 (1.055 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^2}{2 (4.64 \times 10^{-48} \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2) (1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}) \ln(1.4)} = 1.55 \times 10^3 \text{ K}. \end{aligned}$$

9-7: The mean speed $\bar{v} = \frac{1}{2}(1.00 \text{ m/s} + 3.00 \text{ m/s}) = 2.00 \text{ m/s}$. The root-mean-square speed is

$$v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}((1.00 \text{ m/s})^2 + (3.00 \text{ m/s})^2)} = 2.24 \text{ m/s}.$$

9-9: For monatomic hydrogen, the kinetic energy is all translational and $\overline{\text{KE}} = (3/2)kT$; solving for T with $\overline{\text{KE}} = -E_1$,

$$T = \frac{2}{3} \left(-\frac{E_1}{k} \right) = \frac{(2/3)(13.6 \text{ eV})}{(8.617 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K})} = 1.05 \times 10^5 \text{ K}.$$

9-11: For these nonrelativistic atoms, the shift in wavelengths will be between $+\lambda(v/c)$ and $-\lambda(v/c)$ and the width of the doppler-broadened line will be $2\lambda(v/c)$. Using the rms speed from $\overline{\text{KE}} = (3/2)kT = (1/2)mv^2$, $v = \sqrt{3kT/m}$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta\lambda &= 2\lambda \frac{\sqrt{3kT/m}}{c} \\ &= 2(656.3 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}) \frac{\sqrt{3(1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K})(500 \text{ K})/(1.6736 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg})}}{(2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})} \\ &= 1.54 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m} = 15.4 \text{ pm}. \end{aligned}$$

9-13: The average value of $\frac{1}{v}$ is

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{v} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{N} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{v} n(v) dv.$$

With $n(v)$ as given in Equation (9.14),

$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle \frac{1}{v} \right\rangle &= \frac{1}{N} 4\pi N \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^{\infty} v e^{-mv^2/2kT} dv \\ &= 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{kT}{m} \right) = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\pi kT}}, \end{aligned}$$

where the improper definite integral given in the problem,

$$\int_0^{\infty} v e^{-av^2} dv = \frac{1}{2a}$$

has been used.

Note that
$$\left\langle \frac{1}{v} \right\rangle = 2 \frac{1}{\langle v \rangle},$$

where the notation $\bar{v} = \langle v \rangle$ has been used.

9-15: See Figure 9.5. The curves are not normalized, in that when α is adjusted to give the same areas under the curves, the curves will intersect at a finite energy. A fermion gas will exert the greatest pressure because the Fermi distribution has a larger proportion of high-energy particles than the other distributions (note that the *proportion* of high-energy particles is larger). A boson gas will exert the least pressure because the Bose distribution has a larger proportion of low-energy particles than the others.

9-17: NOTE: For convenience in this problem, the quantity $g(\lambda)$ is used as well as $g(\nu)$, even though they are different functions, with different arguments and, as will be seen, different functional forms.

The condition that $g(\lambda)$ must satisfy is

$$g(\nu) d\nu = g(\lambda) d\lambda, \quad \text{so} \quad g(\lambda) = g(\nu) \frac{d\nu}{d\lambda}.$$

The quantity $\frac{d\nu}{d\lambda}$ is negative, so it is convenient and conventional to use instead

$$g(\lambda) = g(\nu) \left| \frac{d\nu}{d\lambda} \right| = g(\nu) \frac{c}{\lambda^2} = \frac{8\pi L^3 \nu^2}{c^2 \lambda^2} = \frac{8\pi L^3}{\lambda^4},$$

where Equation (9.34) has been used for $g(\nu)$.

The number of waves between 9.5 mm and 10.5 mm is then

$$g(\lambda) \Delta\lambda = \frac{8\pi (1 \text{ m})^3}{(10 \text{ mm})^4} (1.00 \text{ mm}) = 2.5 \times 10^6.$$

(It should be noted that integrating $g(\lambda) d\lambda$ between the frequencies and including the variation of $g(\lambda)$ with λ , instead of using $g(\lambda) = g(\bar{\lambda})$, as was done above, gives the same answer to the given precision.)

Similarly, the number of waves between 99.5 mm and 100.5 mm is 2.5×10^2 , lower by a factor of 10^4 .

9-19: The percentage difference is the percentage difference in the fourth powers of the Kelvin temperatures; specifically,

$$\frac{\sigma T_1^4 - \sigma T_2^4}{\sigma T_1^4} = \frac{T_1^4 - T_2^4}{T_1^4} = 1 - \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1}\right)^4 = 1 - \left(\frac{307 \text{ K}}{308 \text{ K}}\right)^4 = 0.013 = 1.3\%.$$

For temperature variations this small, the fractional variation may be approximated by

$$\frac{\Delta(T^4)}{T^4} = \frac{3T^3 \Delta T}{T^4} = 3 \frac{\Delta T}{T} = 3 \frac{1 \text{ K}}{308 \text{ K}} = 0.013$$

to the given precision.

9-21: See Example 9.7. Lowering the Kelvin temperature by a given fraction will lower the radiation by a factor equal to the fourth power of the ratio of the temperatures. Using 1.4 kW/m^2 as the rate at which the sun's energy arrives at the surface of the earth,

$$(1.4 \text{ kW/m}^2) (0.90)^4 = 0.92 \text{ kW/m}^2.$$

9-23: To radiate at twice the rate, the fourth power of the Kelvin temperature would need to double. The new temperature would be

$$((400 + 273) \text{ K}) 2^{1/4} = 800 \text{ K},$$

which is 527°C .

9-25: From Equation (9.41), with unit emissivity for the hole in the wall,

$$P = \sigma T^4 = (5.670 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/(m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4)) (973 \text{ K})^4 (10 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2) = 51 \text{ W}.$$

9-27: Using Equation (9.41) for the radiated power per unit area, the area of the blackbody (assuming unit emissivity) is

$$A = \frac{P}{R} = \frac{P}{e \sigma T^4} = \frac{(1.00 \times 10^3 \text{ W})}{(1) (5.670 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}/(\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4)) ((500 + 273) \text{ K})^4} \\ = 4.94 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^2 = 494 \text{ cm}^2.$$

The radius of a sphere with this surface area is found from $A = 4\pi r^2$, or

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{A}{4\pi}} = \sqrt{\frac{494 \text{ cm}^2}{4\pi}} = 6.27 \text{ cm}.$$

9-29: Equation (9.38) is not integrable in terms of elementary functions; however, approximating $g(\nu)$ by $g(\bar{\nu})$, where $\bar{\nu}$ is the average frequency in the wavelength interval ($\bar{\nu}$ will be approximated by $c/\bar{\lambda}$), is valid. Before using Equation (9.38), it is convenient to note that because the proportion of the radiation in this wavelength interval is desired, division by $u = \int u(\nu) d\nu$ gives the fraction

$$\frac{\Delta u}{u} = 15 \left(\frac{h\nu}{\pi kT} \right)^4 \frac{(\Delta\nu/\nu)}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}.$$

The quantity $\Delta\nu/\nu$ is approximated by $\Delta\lambda/\lambda$ (suppressing the minus sign). The dimensionless quantity $h\nu/kT$ that appears in the above expression is evaluated at the average frequency, in terms of the average wavelength, as outlined above, so that

$$\frac{h\bar{\nu}}{kT} = \frac{hc}{kT\bar{\lambda}} = \frac{(1.240 \times 10^{-6} \text{ eV} \cdot \text{m})}{(8.617 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K}) (6000 \text{ K})(580 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m})} = 4.135,$$

keeping extra significant figures. The result is

$$\frac{\Delta u}{u} = 15 \left(\frac{4.135}{\pi} \right)^4 \frac{(20 \text{ nm})/(580 \text{ nm})}{\exp(4.135) - 1} = 0.025 = 2.5\%.$$

To do the integral numerically, an example of a sequence of Maple commands that reproduce the above result, and allows similar calculations for arbitrary ranges of wavelengths and temperatures, is:

```
>u:=x^3/(exp(y*x)-1);
>y:=1.24E-6/8.167E-5/6E3;
>x1:=1/590E-9; x2:=1/570E-9;
>evalf(int(u,x=x1..x2))/int(u,x=0..infinity);
```

9-31: From the Wien displacement law (Equation (9.40)), the surface temperature of Sirius is

$$T = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}\cdot\text{K}}{290 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}} = 1.0 \times 10^4 \text{ K}.$$

9-33: From the Wien displacement law (Equation (9.40)), the surface temperature of the cloud is

$$T = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}\cdot\text{K}}{10 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}} = 2.9 \times 10^2 \text{ K}$$

(the form of the answer indicates that this result is valid to no more than two significant figures).

Assuming unit emissivity, the radiation rate is

$$R = \sigma T^4 = \frac{P}{A} = \frac{P}{\pi D^2},$$

where D is the cloud's diameter. Solving for D using the given power and the temperature found above,

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{P}{\pi \sigma T^4}} = 8.9 \times 10^{11} \text{ m},$$

roughly but slightly larger than the distance from the sun to Jupiter.

9-35: The total energy (denoted by uppercase U) is related to the energy density by $U = V u$, where V is the volume. In terms of the temperature,

$$U = V u = V a T^4 = V \frac{4\sigma}{c} T^4.$$

The specific heat at constant volume is then

$$\begin{aligned} c_V &= \frac{\partial U}{\partial T} = \frac{16\sigma}{c} T^3 V \\ &= \frac{16 (5.670 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}/(\text{m}^2\cdot\text{K}^4))}{(2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})} (1000 \text{ K})^3 (1.00 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3) \\ &= 3.03 \times 10^{-12} \text{ J/K}. \end{aligned}$$

9-37: At $T = 0$, all states with energy less than the Fermi energy ϵ_F are occupied, and all states with energy above the Fermi energy are empty. For $0 \leq \epsilon \leq \epsilon_F$, the electron energy distribution, given in Equation (9.58), is proportional to $\sqrt{\epsilon}$. The median energy is that energy for which there are as many occupied states below the median as there are above. The median energy ϵ_M is then the energy such that

$$\int_0^{\epsilon_M} \sqrt{\epsilon} d\epsilon = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\epsilon_F} \sqrt{\epsilon} d\epsilon.$$

Evaluating the integrals,

$$\frac{2}{3} (\epsilon_M)^{3/2} = \frac{1}{3} (\epsilon_F)^{3/2}, \quad \text{or} \quad \epsilon_M = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2/3} \epsilon_F = 0.630 \epsilon_F.$$

9-39: (a) The average energy at $T = 0$, from Equation (9.59), is $(3/5) \epsilon_F = 3.31$ eV.

(b) Setting $(3/2) kT = (3/5) \epsilon_F$ and solving for T ,

$$T = \frac{2 \epsilon_F}{5 k} = \frac{2}{5} \frac{5.51 \text{ eV}}{8.617 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K}} = 2.56 \times 10^4 \text{ K}.$$

(c) The speed in terms of the kinetic energy is

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2 \text{KE}}{m}} = \sqrt{\frac{6 \epsilon_F}{5 m}} = \sqrt{\frac{6 (5.51 \text{ eV}) (1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/eV})}{5 (9.1095 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})}} = 1.08 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}.$$

9-41: The denominator is not well-defined at $T = 0$, but the expression in Equation (9.29) may be evaluated by taking the limit as $T \rightarrow 0^+$. If $\epsilon > \epsilon_F$, the argument of the exponent is positive for positive T , and as $T \rightarrow 0^+$ the exponent becomes unboundedly large and $f_{FD}(\epsilon) \rightarrow 0$. If $\epsilon < \epsilon_F$, the argument of the exponent is always negative and the exponent goes to zero as $T \rightarrow 0^+$, so the denominator approaches 1 and $f_{FD} \rightarrow 1$. The interpretation of these results is that in the limit $T \rightarrow 0^+$, states with $\epsilon > \epsilon_F$ are unoccupied and states with $\epsilon < \epsilon_F$ are fully occupied.

9-43: Using Equation (9.29),

$$f_1 = f_{FD}(\epsilon_F + \Delta\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{\Delta\epsilon/kT} + 1}, \quad \text{and}$$

$$f_2 = f_{FD}(\epsilon_F - \Delta\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{-\Delta\epsilon/kT} + 1}.$$

From these expressions,

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 + f_2 &= \frac{1}{e^{\Delta\epsilon/kT} + 1} + \frac{1}{e^{-\Delta\epsilon/kT} + 1} \\ &= \frac{1}{e^{\Delta\epsilon/kT} + 1} + \frac{e^{\Delta\epsilon/kT}}{e^{\Delta\epsilon/kT} + 1} \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

9-45: In using Equation (9.56) to find the Fermi energy, the proper values for N/V , the number of free electrons per unit volume, and m^* , the effective electron mass, must be used. From Table 7.4, zinc in its ground state has two electrons in the 4s subshell and completely filled K , L and M shells. Thus, there are two free electrons per atom. The number of atoms per unit volume is the ratio of the mass density ρ_{Zn} to the mass per atom m_{Zn} . Combining in Equation (9.56),

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_F &= \frac{h^2}{2m^*} \left(\frac{3(2)\rho_{Zn}}{8\pi m_{Zn}} \right)^{2/3} \\ &= \left(\frac{(6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^2}{2(0.85)(9.1095 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})} \right) \left(\frac{3(2)(7.13 \times 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3)}{8\pi(65.4 \text{ u})(1.66054 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg/u})} \right)^{2/3} \\ &= 1.78 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} = 11 \text{ eV} \end{aligned}$$

to two significant figures.

9-47: At $T = 0$, the electron distribution $n(\epsilon)$ as given in Equation (9.58) reduces to

$$n(\epsilon) = \frac{3N}{2} (\epsilon_F)^{-3/2} \sqrt{\epsilon},$$

as explained in the derivation of Equation (9.59) and in Problem 9-41.

At $\epsilon = (\epsilon_F)/2$,

$$n\left(\frac{\epsilon_F}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{\sqrt{8}} \frac{N}{\epsilon_F}.$$

The number of atoms is the mass divided by the mass per atom,

$$N = \frac{(1.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg})}{(63.55 \text{ u})(1.66054 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg/u})} = 9.48 \times 10^{21},$$

with the atomic mass of copper from the front endpapers and $\epsilon_F = 7.04 \text{ eV}$ is from Table 9.2 or Problem 9-40. The number of states per electronvolt is

$$n\left(\frac{\epsilon_F}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{\sqrt{8}} \frac{9.48 \times 10^{21}}{7.04 \text{ eV}} = 1.43 \times 10^{21} \text{ states/eV},$$

and the distribution may certainly be considered to be continuous.

9-49: Using the approximation $f(\epsilon) = A e^{-\epsilon/kT}$, and a factor of 4 instead of 8 in Equation (9.47), Equation (9.57) becomes

$$n(\epsilon) d\epsilon = g(\epsilon) f(\epsilon) d\epsilon = A 4\sqrt{2} \pi \frac{V m^{3/2}}{h^3} \sqrt{\epsilon} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon.$$

Integrating over all energies,

$$N = \int_0^{\infty} n(\epsilon) d\epsilon = A 4\sqrt{2} \pi \frac{V m^{3/2}}{h^3} \int_0^{\infty} \sqrt{\epsilon} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon.$$

The integral is that given in the problem with $x = \epsilon$ and $a = kT$,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \sqrt{\epsilon} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon = \frac{\sqrt{\pi kT}}{2(1/kT)} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi (kT)^3}}{2}, \quad \text{so that}$$

$$N = A 4\sqrt{2} \pi \frac{V m^{3/2}}{h^3} \frac{\sqrt{\pi (kT)^3}}{2} = A \frac{V}{h^3} (2\pi m kT)^{3/2}.$$

Solving for A ,

$$A = \frac{N}{V} h^3 (2\pi m kT)^{-3/2}.$$

Using the given numerical values,

$$A = \left(\frac{6.022 \times 10^{26} \text{ kmol}^{-1}}{22.4 \text{ kg/kmol}} (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^3 \times \right. \\ \left. [2\pi (4.00 \text{ u}) (1.66054 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg/u}) (1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}) (293 \text{ K})]^{-3/2} \right) \\ = 3.56 \times 10^{-6},$$

which is much less than one. In the above calculation, care must be taken in evaluating A ; in SI units, the exponent of h^3 is greater than 100, and will cause difficulty if tried on some standard calculators. A possible method of evaluation is to find the last term first, multiply by h and then multiply by h^2 .

9-51: See Problem 9-49. Here, the original factor of 8 must be retained, with the result that

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \frac{N}{V} h^3 (2\pi m_e kT)^{-3/2} \\ = \left((1/2) (8.48 \times 10^{28} \text{ m}^{-3}) (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^3 \times \right. \\ \left. [2\pi (9.1095 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}) (1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}) (293 \text{ K})]^{-3/2} \right) \\ = 3.50 \times 10^3,$$

which is much greater than one, and so the Fermi-Dirac distribution cannot be approximated by a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution. (See the above note for Problem 9-49 regarding the difficulties involved in using h^3 numerically.)

9-53: The number density (N_{atom}/V) for either gas is the ratio of the total mass and the mass of a single atom, divided by the volume (assumed spherical);

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{N}{V} &= \frac{M_{\text{star}}}{m_C} \frac{1}{(4\pi/3) R_{\text{star}}^3} \\ &= \frac{(2.0 \times 10^{30} \text{ kg}) / 2}{(12 \text{ u}) (1.66054 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg/u})} \frac{1}{(4\pi/3) ((0.010) \times 7.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m})^3} \\ &= 3.49 \times 10^{34} \text{ atoms/m}^3.\end{aligned}$$

(a) The Fermi energy of the carbon nucleus gas is found with the above value of (N_{atom}/V), with, of course, one nucleus per atom;

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_F &= \frac{h^2}{2m_C} \left(\frac{3}{8\pi} \frac{N_{\text{atom}}}{V} \right)^{2/3} \\ &= \frac{(6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^2}{2(12 \text{ u})(1.66054 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg/u})} \left(\frac{3}{8\pi} (3.49 \times 10^{34} \text{ nuclei/m}^3) \right)^{2/3} \\ &= 2.85 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} = 1.78 \text{ eV}.\end{aligned}$$

Because there are six electrons per carbon atom, the Fermi energy of the electron gas is found with 6 times the above value of (N_{atom}/V);

$$\begin{aligned}\epsilon_F &= \frac{h^2}{2m_e} \left(\frac{3}{8\pi} \frac{6N_{\text{atom}}}{V} \right)^{2/3} \\ &= \frac{(6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})^2}{2(9.1095 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})} \left(\frac{18}{8\pi} (3.49 \times 10^{34} \text{ nuclei/m}^3) \right)^{2/3} \\ &= 2.06 \times 10^{-14} \text{ J} = 129 \text{ keV}\end{aligned}$$

(use of less precise values for the constants, or roundoff in intermediate calculations, may lead to a result that differs in the last significant figure).

(b) For either gas, $kT = (8.617 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/K}) (10^7 \text{ K}) = 862 \text{ eV}$. The gas of nuclei is nondegenerate, and the gas of electrons will be mostly degenerate (the factor $kT/\epsilon_F \approx 10^{-2}$, and there will be a small fraction of the electrons above the Fermi energy).