

For classical gas (ideal)  
in  $d$  (space) dimensions,  
would find  $U = \frac{d}{2} N\tau$

or  $\frac{1}{2} N\tau$  per "degree of freedom"

### Equipartition Theorem

in ideal gas, each independent mode of motion that's accessible to an ideal gas molecule (in the sense that the mode is not too costly in energy @  $\tau = k_B T$ ) gives a "degree of freedom" and an energy  $\frac{1}{2} N\tau$

$\Rightarrow$  for  $F$  degrees of freedom

Internal energy  $U = \frac{F}{2} N\tau$

What other degrees of freedom can a gas molecule have?

That depends on the molecule.

"Usual suspects" list

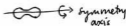
- translation
- rotation
- vibration
- electronic/nuclear spin...

- Any kind of molecule possesses translational d.o.f.  
in  $d=3$  there are precisely 3.
- How many rotational d.o.f. there are depends on the symmetry of the molecule!!
  - \* monatomic: model as sphere  
rotate it any of 3 ways & it looks same  
 $\Rightarrow$  no rotational (rot.) d.o.f.

\* diatomic - suppose




$\Rightarrow$  2 rot. dof.



\* polyatomic with no special symmetry  
 $\Rightarrow$  3 rot. d.o.f.

• Vibrational degrees of freedom?

- depends on how many bonds there are  
(and symmetry considerations...)

e.g. diatomic   
one vib. d.o.f.

We can encode some of this in the  
Specific heat!

$$U = \frac{f}{2} N \tau$$

and at certain temperatures various d.o.f.

come into play. Pick diatomic, say

At lowest  $\tau$ ,  $U = \frac{3}{2} N \tau$  translational.

Then come rot. (like microwave = rot. mode of  $H_2O$ !)

$$U \rightarrow \frac{5}{2} N \tau$$

then vib. (most energetically expensive)

$$U \rightarrow 3 N \tau$$



More quantitatively

$$\begin{aligned} E &= E_{\text{trans}} + E_{\text{int}} \\ &\equiv E_{\vec{n}} + E_{\text{int}} \end{aligned} \quad \begin{array}{l} \uparrow \\ \text{rot, vib, etc...} \end{array}$$

$$\text{Now, } h_{\vec{n}} = \sum_{N,s} e^{-(E_s(n_s) - \mu N)/\tau}$$

Classically, only the zero energy one matters and the next level...

In other words, the probability of occupancy of an orbital being  $> 1$  is vanishingly small & we can neglect it (for classical gas only!)

$$\Rightarrow h_{\vec{n}} = 1 + \sum_{\text{int}} e^{-(E_{\vec{n}} + E_{\text{int}} - \mu)/\tau}$$

↑  
"setting" the zero of the energy at zero  
- recall that no particles means  
no energies (trans. or vib/rot.)

$$\text{i.e. } h_{\vec{n}} = 1 + e^{\mu/\tau} e^{-E_{\vec{n}}/\tau} \underbrace{\sum_{\text{int}} e^{-E_{\text{int}}/\tau}}_{\equiv Z_{\text{int}}}$$

$$\text{i.e. } h_{\vec{n}} = 1 + e^{\mu/\tau} e^{-E_{\vec{n}}/\tau} \cdot Z_{\text{int}} = 1 + \lambda Z_{\text{int}} e^{-E_{\vec{n}}/\tau}$$

Probability of occupying the orbital  $\pi$ ?

$$f(\epsilon_\pi) = \frac{\lambda Z_{int} e^{-\epsilon_\pi/\tau}}{1 + \underbrace{\lambda Z_{int} e^{-\epsilon_\pi/\tau}}_{\text{small in Classical regime}}}$$

Gibbs factor  
partition fn

For the monatomic gas we had

$$f(\epsilon_\pi) = \lambda e^{-\epsilon_\pi/\tau}$$

so effectively  $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda Z_{int}$  for internal d.o.f.

In particular, since  $\lambda_{monatomic} = \frac{n}{n_a(\tau)}$ ,

for {system with internal d.o.f.}

$$\lambda Z_{int} = \frac{n}{n_a(\tau)}$$

$$\uparrow$$

$$e^{\mu/\tau}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\mu = \tau [\log(n/n_a(\tau)) - \log Z_{int}]}$$

Now recall that

$$\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{\tau, V} = \mu$$

(Partially) integrating w.r.t.  $N$  gives  $F = \int_0^N \mu dN'$

$$\text{i.e. } \boxed{F = F_{monatomic} - N\tau \log Z_{int}}$$

Then, since

$$\sigma = - \left( \frac{\partial F}{\partial \tau} \right)_V,$$

$$\sigma = \sigma_{\text{monatomic}} + N \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} (\tau \log Z_{\text{int}})_V.$$

KK gives example of spin states.

With spin angular momentum  $J$ ,

there are  $2J+1$  possible configurations

$$(j_z = -J, -J+1, \dots, +J-1, +J)$$

and pretending that all these have same energy

$$\text{gives } Z_{\text{int}} = \sum_{\text{int}} e^{-E_{\text{int}}/\tau}$$

$$\equiv \sum_J (1) = 2J+1$$

$$\text{Then } F_{\text{int}} = -N\tau \log(2J+1)$$

and

$$\sigma_{\text{int}} = N \log(2J+1)$$

can be measured experimentally?

$$\boxed{C_p}$$

We had  $C_v = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial \tau}\right)_v$

or equivalently

$$C_v = \tau \left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \tau}\right)_v$$

(see this using  $du = \tau d\sigma - p dV$ )

What if we did not find it convenient to hold  $V$  fixed, but rather  $p$  fixed?

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{C_p \equiv \tau \left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \tau}\right)_p}$$

Now use  $\tau d\sigma - p dV = du$

$$\Rightarrow \tau \left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \tau}\right)_p = p \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \tau}\right)_p + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial \tau}\right)_p$$

Recall  $u = \frac{F}{2} N \tau$ , indep. of  $p$ ,  
for ideal gas

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial \tau}\right)_p = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial \tau}\right)_v \equiv C_v$$

Also,  $pV = N\tau$  so  $\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \tau}\right)_p = \frac{N}{p}$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{C_p = N + C_v}$$

ideal gas

$$C_p = \frac{F}{2} N + N$$

d.o.f. "active" @  $\tau$ .

Experimental  
Use of

$$C_p \equiv \tau \left( \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial \tau} \right)_p$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma(\tau) - \sigma(\tau_0) = \int_{\tau_0}^{\tau} d\tau' \left\{ \frac{C_p(\tau')}{\tau'} \right\} \Big|_{p=\text{constant}}$$

this can be integrated numerically  
by measuring in the lab !!

Common things to do, with a classical ideal gas-

- 1) Keep  $\tau$  constant, expand  $V$ , reversibly  
isothermal
- 2) Keep  $\sigma$  constant, expand  $V$ , reversibly  
isentropic/  
(adiabatic)
- 3) Expand into vacuum, suddenly (irreversibly)

①  $\tau = \text{const}$ ,  $V \uparrow$  ( $N = \text{const. too}$ )

In this case, find pressure from  $pV = N\tau$

Reservoir keeps  $\tau$  constant

so if  $V_2 = 2V_1$

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{2} P_1$$

Entropy?

Sackur-Tetrode:  $\sigma = N \log \left( \frac{m_0(\tau)}{n} \right) + \frac{5}{2} N$   
 $\uparrow$  for monatomic

Here,  $\tau = \text{const.}$  so  $\frac{m_0(\tau)}{N} = \text{const}$

$$\& \sigma = N \log V + \text{const} \quad (\text{isothermal})$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_2 - \sigma_1 = N \log(V_2) - N \log(V_1) = N \log \left( \frac{V_2}{V_1} \right) = N \log 2$$

②  $\sigma = \text{const.}, V \uparrow$  ( $N = \text{const. too}$ )

In full, Sackur-Tetrode says for MONATOMIC gas:-

$$\sigma = N \log \left( \frac{n_Q(\tau)}{h} \right) + \frac{5N}{2} \quad \text{where } n_Q(\tau) = \left( \frac{M \tau}{2\pi h^2} \right)^{3/2}$$

i.e.  $\sigma(\tau, V) = N \log \left( \tau^{3/2} V \right) + \text{constant}$   
 $h = N/V$

So if  $\sigma = \text{constant}$  during reversible process then

$$\tau^{3/2} V = \text{const}$$

Using  $pV = N\tau$ , find

$$\tau^{5/2} p^{-1} = \text{const}$$

and/or

$$p^{3/2} V^{5/2} = \text{const.}$$

So if  $V_2 = 2V_1$ ,

$$\tau_1^{3/2} V_1 = \tau_2^{3/2} V_2$$

$$\left( \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2} \right)^{3/2} = \frac{V_2}{V_1} \Rightarrow \tau_2 = 2^{-2/3} \tau_1 \approx 0.63 \tau_1$$

$$\Rightarrow U_2 - U_1 = \frac{3}{2} N(\tau_2 - \tau_1) < 0$$

Also if  $V_2 = 2V_1$ ,

$$p_1^{3/2} V_1^{5/2} = p_2^{3/2} V_2^{5/2}$$

$$\therefore \left( \frac{p_1}{p_2} \right)^{3/2} = \left( \frac{V_1}{V_2} \right)^{5/2} \text{ i.e. } p_2 = 2^{-5/3} p_1 \approx 0.31 p_1$$

## 3) Sudden Expansion into vacuum

e.g.  
 $V_2 = 2V_1$



↑  
remove suddenly

- No work done — no pressure for the "boundary" layer to push against
- No heat flow — sudden approximation (adiabatic)

$$\Rightarrow \Delta U = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta T = 0$$

But — what about entropy?

We had from (1)  $\sigma_2 - \sigma_1 = N \log\left(\frac{V_2}{V_1}\right) = N \log 2$

Extra entropy  $\because$  molecules have more available states

$\because$  box is bigger