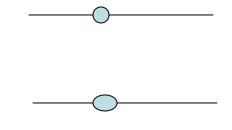
Statistical thermodynamics L1-L3

Lectures 11, 12, 13 of CY101

Need for statistical thermodynamics Microscopic and macroscopic world Distribution of energy - population Principle of equal *a priori* probabilities



Various forms of energies. $\{1,1\}, \{2,0\}, \{0,2\}$ Configuration - instantaneousWeight of a configuration = how many times
the configuration can be reached. n_1, n_2, \dots molecules exist in states with energies $\varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \dots$ N is the total number of molecules
 $\{N,0,0,\dots\}$ and $\{N-2, 2,0,\dots\}$ are configurationsSecond is more likely than the first

Ref. Atkins 7th or 8th edition Alberty, Silbey, Bawendi 4th edition

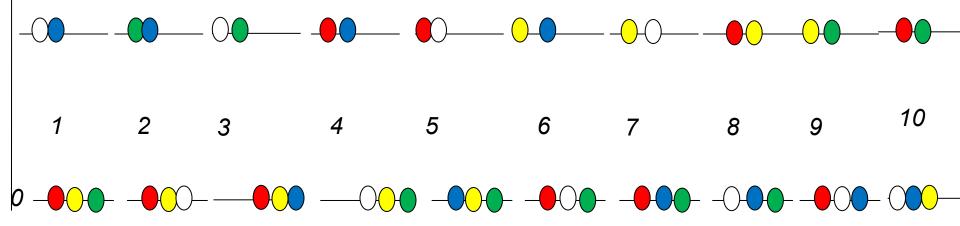
CY101 T. Pradeep

Energy

A configuration {*N*-2,2,0,0,...}

First ball of the higher state can be chosen in N ways, because there are N balls Second ball can be chosen in N-1 ways as there are N-1 balls But we need to avoid A,B from B,A.

Thus total number of distinguishable configurations is, $\frac{1}{2}$ N(N-1)



A configuration {3,2,0,0,..} is chosen in 10 different ways How about a general case of N molecules?

N! ways of selecting balls $n_0!$ for the balls in first level, $n_1!$ for the second, etc.

$$W = \underline{N!}_{n_0!n_1!n_2!...}$$

W is the weight of the configuration.

How many ways a configuration can be achieved.

Better to use natural logarithm

 $\ln W = \ln N!$ $n_0! n_1! n_2!...$ = $\ln N! - \ln(n_0! n_1! n_2!..)$ = $\ln N! - (\ln n_0! + \ln n_1! + \ln n_2!...)$ =ln N! - Σ_i ln n_i! In x!≈ x In x-x Stirling's approximation $\ln W = (N \ln N - N) - \Sigma_i (n_i \ln n_i - n_i) = N \ln N - \Sigma_i n_i \ln n_i$ Which is the dominating configuration having maximum weight?

Generalised approach is to set dW = 0

There are problems as any configuration is not valid.

1. Energy is constant. $\Sigma_i n_i \epsilon_i = E$

2. Constant molecules. $\Sigma_i n_i = N$

Lagrange, method of undetermined multipliers *n*_i A constraint should be multiplied by a constant and then added to the variation equation

Populations in the configuration of greatest weight depends on the energy of the state.

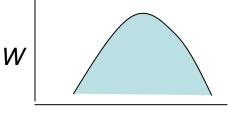
$$\frac{n_{i}}{N} = \frac{e^{-\beta \epsilon_{i}}}{\sum_{i} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{i}}} E$$

β = 1

kΤ

Boltzmann distribution i is a sum over available states

Temperature gives the most probable populations



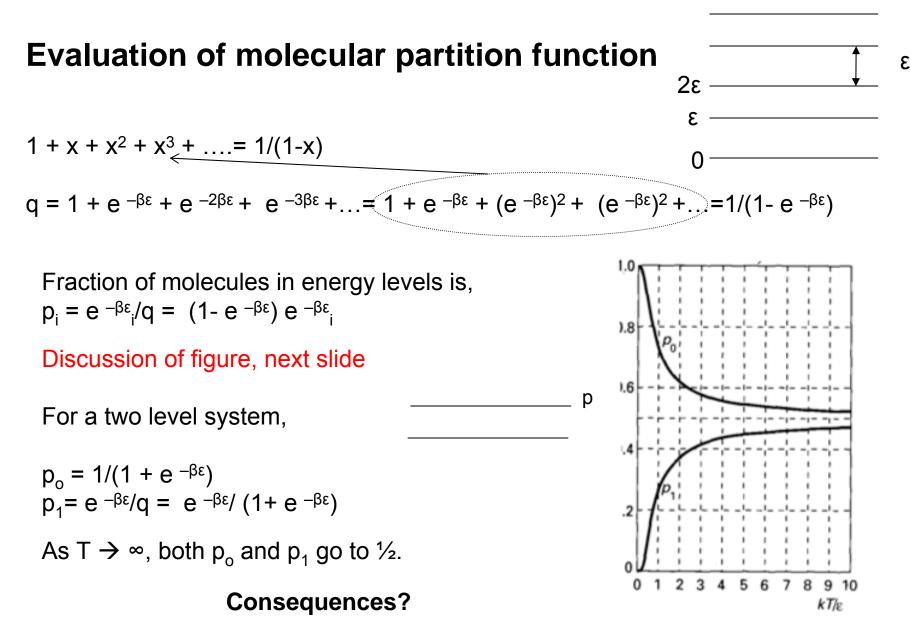
Boltzmann distribution – population,
$$p_i = e_{-\beta\epsilon_i}^{-\beta\epsilon_i}$$

 $q \leftarrow Molecular partition function$

 $q = \sum_{i} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{i}} \qquad \text{There are several ways of looking at i} \\ Another form of q: \qquad q = \sum_{levels i} g_{i} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{i}} \\ \text{How to look at partition functions?} \\ \text{Look at limiting cases} \qquad \qquad \lim_{T \to 0} q = g_{0} \qquad \text{Because, } \epsilon_{0} = 0 \\ \text{For all higher levels } \epsilon \text{ is finite.} \\ e^{-\beta \epsilon} = 1. e^{-x} \text{ is } 0 \text{ when } x \text{ is } \infty. \\ \text{Mhen number of states is finite,} \qquad \qquad \text{All terms will reduce to } 1. \\ e^{-x} \text{ is } 1 \text{ when } x \text{ is } 0 \\ \text{When x is } 0 \\ \text{When x is } 0 \\ \text{How to look at partition functions?} \\ \text{How to look at partition fu$

Partition function is the number of available states.
 Partition function is the number of thermally accessible states.
 How molecules are 'partitioned' into available states.

How to look at thermodynamic properties?



Low temperature		High temperature
Ω		

Approximations: Partition functions are often complex. Analytical expressions cannot be obtained in several cases. Approximations become very useful. For example, partition function for one dimensional motion

$$E_{n} = \frac{n^{2}h^{2}}{8 mX^{2}} \quad n = 1, 2....$$

$$\varepsilon_{n} = (n^{2}-1)\varepsilon \quad \varepsilon = \frac{h^{2}}{8mX^{2}}$$

$$q_{x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-(n^{2}-1)\beta\varepsilon}$$

$$q_{x} = \int_{-1}^{\infty} e^{-(n^{2}-1)\beta\varepsilon} dn \quad \text{energy levels are close, sum becomes an integral}$$
No big difference, if we take the lower limit to 0 and replace n^{2}-1 to n^{2}
$$q_{x} = \frac{1}{\beta\varepsilon} \int_{0}^{1/2} e^{-x^{2}} dx = \frac{1}{\beta\varepsilon} \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\pi}{2}\right]^{1/2} = \frac{2\pi m}{h^{2}\beta} \frac{1}{2} X$$
Substitute, $X^{2} = n^{2}\beta\varepsilon$, $dn = dx/(\beta\varepsilon)^{1/2}$

$$q_{x} = \frac{2\pi m}{h^{2}\beta} \frac{1}{2} X$$

Independent motion in three dimensions

 $\epsilon_{n1n2n3} = \epsilon_{n1}^{(X)} + \epsilon_{n2}^{(Y)} + \epsilon_{n3}^{(Z)}$ Energy is a sum of independent terms

$$q = \sum_{all n} e^{-\beta \epsilon(X)} e^{-\beta \epsilon(Y)} e^{-\beta \epsilon(Z)} e^$$

Question: How many more quantum states will be accessible for ${}^{18}O_2$ compared to ${}^{16}O_2$, if it were to be confined in a box of 1 cm³?

How to get thermodynamics?

All information about the thermodynamic properties of the system is contained in the partition function. Thermal wavefunction.

Total energy

$$E = \sum_{i} n_{i} \varepsilon_{i}$$

$$E = \frac{N}{q} \sum_{i} \varepsilon_{i} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}} \quad Most \text{ probable configuration is dominating.}$$

$$We \text{ use Boltzmann distribution.}$$

$$We \text{ know,} \quad \varepsilon_{i} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}} = -\frac{d}{d\beta} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}}$$

$$E = -\frac{N}{q} \sum_{i} \frac{d}{d\beta} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}} = -\frac{N}{q} \frac{d}{d\beta} \sum_{i} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}} = -\frac{N}{q} \frac{dq}{d\beta}$$

$$U = U(0) + E \quad 1. \quad All \text{ E's are relative}$$

$$E \text{ is the value of U relative to } T = 0.$$

$$U = U(0) \frac{N}{q} \frac{\partial q}{\partial \beta} \int_{v}$$

$$U = U(0) - N \frac{\partial \ln q}{\partial \beta} \int_{v}$$

$$depends \text{ on.}$$

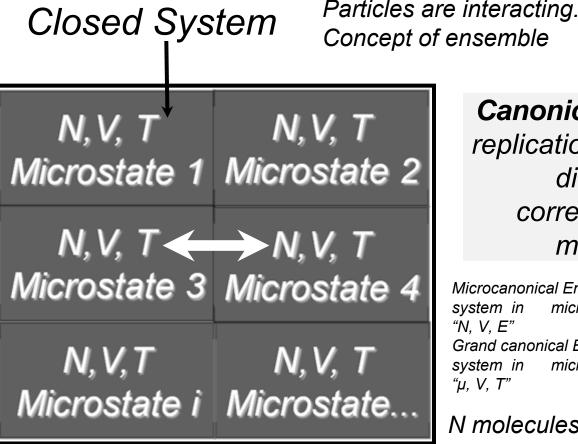
Partition function gives internal energy of the system.

Statistical entropy	Partition function is the number of thermally accessible states.	
S = k In W <	Entropy is the distribution of energy The two must be related	

W is the most probable configuration of the system.

 $\ln W = N \ln N - \Sigma_i n_i \ln n_i$ $N = \Sigma_i n_i$ $S = k \Sigma_i (n_i \ln N - \Sigma_i n_i \ln n_i)$ = $-k \Sigma_i n_i \ln n_i / N$ =- $Nk \Sigma_i p_i \ln p_i$ $p_i = n/N$ $ln p_i = -\beta \varepsilon_i - ln q$ [definition of p_i] S = -Nk(- $\beta \Sigma_i p_i \varepsilon_i - \Sigma_i p_i \ln q$) = -k $\beta [U - U(0)] + Nk \ln q$ We used, $\Sigma_i p_i = 1$ and $N\Sigma_i p_i \varepsilon_i = \Sigma_i Np_i \varepsilon_i = \Sigma_i n_i \varepsilon_i = E$ S = 1/T[U - U(0)] + Nk ln q

Canonical partition function



Canonical Ensemble: Imaginary replication of the closed system in different microstates corresponding to the same macrostate "N, V, T"

Microcanonical Ensemble: Imaginary replication of the isolated system in microstates corresponding to the same macrostate "N, V, E"

Grand canonical Ensemble: Imaginary replication of the isolated system in microstates corresponding to the same macrostate " μ , V, T"

N molecules, \hat{N} imaginary replications Number of members in the state with energy E_i is \hat{n}_i . Total energy of all the replications \dot{E}

Total energy of the isolated ensemble is constant.

Dominating configuration $\{\dot{n}_{0}, \dot{n}_{1}...\}$ has a weight, \acute{W}

$$\hat{N} = \frac{\hat{N}!}{\hat{n}_0! \, \hat{n}_1! \, \hat{n}_2!...}$$

Configuration of greatest weight, with conditions of total energy, *É* and number of members, *N* is called **cannonical distribution**.

$$\frac{\dot{n_i}}{\dot{N}} = \frac{e^{-\beta E_i}}{\sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}} \qquad \qquad Q = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$$

Q is called cannonical partition function. Q is more important than q as the former talks about interacting particles.

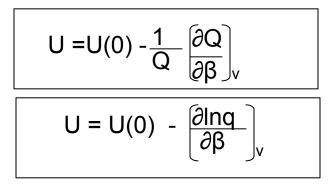
Total energy of the ensemble is E and there are \hat{N} members. Average energy of a member, E is \dot{E}/\hat{N} . Let us calculate U when \hat{N} (and therefore \dot{E}) reaches infinity.

$$U = U(0) + E = U(0) + \dot{E}/\dot{N} \qquad \dot{N} \rightarrow \infty$$

The fraction, \dot{p}_i of members of the ensemble in state i with energy Ei is,

$$\dot{p}_i = \frac{\dot{n}_i}{\dot{N}} = \frac{e^{-\beta E i}}{Q}$$

Internal energy, U = U(0) + E = U(0) + $\Sigma_i \dot{p}_i E_i = U(0) + 1/Q \Sigma_i E_i e^{-\beta E_i}$



Entropy

Weight of a configuration, \acute{W} of the ensemble is the product of the average weight W of each member within the ensemble so that, $\acute{W} = W^{\acute{N}}$

S = k ln W = k ln $\hat{W}^{1/\hat{N}}$ = (k/ \hat{N}) ln \hat{W}

This as in the case of molecular partition function, $S = 1/T[U - U(0)] + k \ln Q$

Molecular partition function and cannonical partition function

When molecules are independent, total energy of state, i is

 $Ei = \varepsilon_i(1) + \varepsilon_i(2) + \varepsilon_i(1) + \dots + \varepsilon_i(N)$

 ε_i (1) is the energy of molecule 1 for the system is in state *i*. Sum is for all the N molecules constituting the state *i*.

$$Q = \sum_{i} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i(1) - \beta \varepsilon_i(2) - \dots - \beta \varepsilon_i(N)}$$

Instead of summing over states of the system, we can sum over all the states, i of the molecules 1, 2, 3....

$$Q = \left(\sum_{i(1)} e^{-\beta \varepsilon}\right) \left(\sum_{i(2)} e^{-\beta \varepsilon}\right) \dots \left(\sum_{i(N)} e^{-\beta \varepsilon}\right)$$
$$q = \sum e^{-\beta \varepsilon i}$$

$$Q = q^N$$

Limitations

This discussion was for molecules which are distinguishable. Every possible state of individual molecule is counted in determining Q. But this is not the case when molecules are alike. In such cases, several states are counted in excess. The correction factor is N!, the number of permutations possible for a N member system to create a state.

 $Q_{distinguisable} = q^N$

$${\cal Q}_{\it indisting {\it ushable}} = q^N/N!$$

 ${\cal Q}_{\it }= rac{1}{N!}q^N$ Single species, ideal gas

What is distinguishable: Similar molecules in the lattice as each one can be assigned a coordinate Indistinguishable: Even when they are similar as in rare gases

Sackur-Tetrode equation

S = 1/T[U - U(0)] k ln Q distinguishable molecules

 $Q = q^N/N!$ indistinguishable molecules

S = 1/T[U - U(0)] + Nk ln q - k ln N!

q =
$$\frac{V_{3}}{3}$$
 = $h \left[\frac{\beta}{2\pi m} \right]^{1/2} = \frac{h}{(2\pi m kT)^{1/2}}$
U = U(0) + 3/2 nRT

Number of molecules is large, $N = nN_A$ as well as Sterling approximation

$$S = 1/T[U - U(0)] + nR ln q - nR ln N + nR$$

S = $3/2nR + nR [ln V/\Lambda^3 - ln nN_A + 1] = nR [ln e^{3/2} + ln V/\Lambda^3 - ln nN_A + ln e]$

 $S = nR ln [e^{5/2}V/nN_{A}^{3}]$

Gas is perfect. V = nRT/p

Equation can be expressed in terms of pressure.

Implications: Higher molar mass – higher entropy Expansion of gas leads to grater entropy. $\Delta S = nR \ln aV_f - nR \ln aV_i = nR \ln V_f/V_i$ Same as classical. *a is a collection of terms* Relations for various thermodynamic quantities

$$U - U(0) = -\left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta}\right)_V \quad S = \frac{U - U(0)}{T} + k \ln Q$$

Substitute $Q = q^N$ or $q^N/N!$ as in the case may be.

U and S relate to other functions.

1. Helmholtz function

A = U - TS which means A(0) = U(0)

A - A(0) = -kTInQ

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{A} = \mathsf{U}\text{-}\mathsf{T}\mathsf{S}\\ \mathsf{d}\mathsf{A} = \mathsf{d}\mathsf{U}\text{-}\mathsf{T}\mathsf{d}\mathsf{S}\text{-}\mathsf{S}\mathsf{d}\mathsf{T}\\ \mathsf{d}\mathsf{U} = \mathsf{T}\mathsf{d}\mathsf{S} - \mathsf{p}\mathsf{d}\mathsf{V} + \Sigma\;\mu_{i}\,\mathsf{d}\mathsf{n}_{i}\\ \mathsf{d}\mathsf{A} = \mathsf{-}\mathsf{S}\mathsf{d}\mathsf{T} - \mathsf{p}\mathsf{d}\mathsf{V} + \Sigma\;\mu_{i}\,\mathsf{d}\mathsf{n}_{i}\\ \mathsf{p} = -(\partial\mathsf{A}\!/\;\partial\mathsf{V})_{\mathsf{T},\mathsf{n}i} \end{array}$

2. Pressure $p = -(\partial A / \partial V)_T \longrightarrow p = kT \left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right)_T$

Valid for all substances.

This is a relation between p, V, T amount of substance. An equation of state.

Equation of state for independent particles:

 $p = kT (\partial \ln Q/\partial V)_{T} = kT (\partial \ln (q^{N}/N!)/\partial V)_{T} = NkT/q (\partial q/\partial V)_{T} (1)$

= $(NkT\Lambda^{3}/V) (1/\Lambda^{3}) = NkT/V = nRT/V$ (2)

For (1) we have used, $Q = q^N/N!$ For (2) $(\partial q/\partial V)_T = (\partial (V/\Lambda^3)/\partial V)_T = 1/\Lambda^3$ and NkT = $nN_AkT = nRT$

3. Enthalpy

$$\overset{\mathsf{H}=\mathsf{U}+\mathsf{pV}}{H-H(0)} = -\left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta}\right)_{v} + kTV \left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V}\right)_{T}$$

$$U - U(0) = \frac{3}{2}nRT$$
$$pV = nRT$$
$$H - H(0) = \frac{5}{2}nRT$$

4. Gibbs free energy

$$G = H - TS = A + pV = A + nRT$$
$$G - G(0) = -kT \ln Q + kTV \left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V}\right)_{T}$$

$$G - G(0) = -kT\ln Q + nRT$$

$$Q = q^{N/N!} \quad \ln Q = N \ln q - \ln N! = N \ln q - (N \ln N - N)$$

$$G - G(0) = -NkT \ln q + kT \ln N! + nRT$$

$$= -nRT \ln q + kT(N \ln N - N) + nRT$$

$$= -nRT \ln \left(\frac{q}{N}\right)$$

Gibbs free energy is proportional to the logarithm of the average number of thermally accessible states.

 $N = nN_A$

We can also define a molar partition function, $q_m = q/n$

$$G - G(0) = -nRT \ln\left(\frac{q_m}{N_A}\right)$$

Molecular partition function

$$\varepsilon_i = \varepsilon_i^{T} + \varepsilon_i^{R} + \varepsilon_i^{V} + \varepsilon_i^{E}$$

$$q = \sum_{i} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}} = \sum_{i \text{ (all states)}} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}^{T} - \beta \varepsilon_{i}^{R} - \beta \varepsilon_{i}^{V} - \beta \varepsilon_{i}^{R}}$$

$$= (\Sigma_{i} e^{-\beta \epsilon i T}) (\Sigma_{i} e^{-\beta \epsilon i R}) (\Sigma_{i} e^{-\beta \epsilon i V}) (\Sigma_{i} e^{-\beta \epsilon i E}) = q^{T} q^{R} q^{V} q^{E}$$
Trans Rot Vib Elec

1. Translational

$$\boldsymbol{q}^{T} = \frac{V}{\Lambda^{3}} \quad \Lambda = h \left(\frac{\beta}{2\pi m}\right)^{1/2} = \frac{h}{\left(2\pi m kT\right)^{1/2}}$$

2. Rotational

$$q^{R} = \Sigma_{J}(2J+1)e^{-\beta h c B J(J+1)}$$

For linear rotors (A-B),

$$q^{R} = \frac{kT}{hcB} = \frac{T}{\Theta_{R}} \quad \text{Characteristic rotational temperature} \\ q^{R} = \frac{kT}{2 \ hcB} = \frac{T}{2 \ \Theta_{R}} \quad \text{Linear, symmetric molecules} \\ A-A, counting states twice} \\ CH = CH \\ q^{R} = \frac{kT}{\sigma \ hcB} \quad \sigma \text{ Symmetry number}$$

$$q^{R} = \int_{0}^{\infty} (2J+1)e^{-\beta hc B J(J+1)} dJ$$

We can simplify

$$\begin{aligned} d/dJ \left[e^{aJ(J+1)} \right] &= d/dJ \left[aJ(J+1) \right] e^{aJ(J+1)} = a(2J+1)e^{aJ(J+1)} \\ q^{R} &= (1/\beta hcB) \int_{0}^{\infty} d/dJ \left[e^{-\beta hcBJ(J+1)} \right] dJ \\ q^{R} &= - (1/\beta hcB) \left[e^{-\beta hcBJ(J+1)} \right]_{0}^{\infty} = 1/\beta hcB \\ &= kT/hcB \end{aligned}$$

3. Vibrational

$$E_v = \left(v + \frac{1}{2}\right)hc\widetilde{v}$$

$$q^{v} = \sum_{v} e^{-\beta v h c \, \tilde{v}} = \sum_{v} (e^{-\beta h c \, \tilde{v}})^{v} = 1/(1 - e^{-\beta h c \, \tilde{v}})$$

$$q^{v} = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta h c v}}$$

4. Electronic

$$q^E = g_{ground} = 1$$

 $NO \rightarrow ...\pi^{1}$ Gives ${}^{2}\Pi_{1/2}$ and ${}^{2}\Pi_{3/2}$ Each state is doubly degenerate Gap is small between these two

$$q^{E} = \sum_{levels} g^{E} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_{i}} = 2 + 2e^{-\beta \varepsilon}$$

Leads to occupancy in all the states.

Overall partition function

$$q = g^{E} \left(\frac{V}{\Lambda^{3}} \right) \left(\frac{T}{\sigma \Theta_{R}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}}} \right)$$
$$q = g^{E} \left(\frac{V}{\Lambda^{3}} \right) \left(\frac{T}{\sigma \Theta_{R}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{1 - e^{-T/\Theta_{v}}} \right)$$

Using statistical theromodynamics

Mean energies

Mean energy for each mode, M

.

$$\langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\mathrm{M}} \rangle = -\frac{1}{q^{\mathrm{M}}} \left(\frac{\partial q^{\mathrm{M}}}{\partial \beta} \right)_{\mathrm{V}}$$

Rest of the material in this file is as in Atkins.

$$\langle \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^{\mathrm{M}} \rangle = -\frac{1}{q^{\mathrm{M}}} \left(\frac{\partial q^{\mathrm{M}}}{\partial \beta} \right)_{\mathrm{V}}$$

(a) The mean translational energy One-dimensional system of length X, for which $q^T = X/\Lambda$, with $\Lambda = h(\beta/2\pi m)^{1/2}$. Λ is a constant times $\beta^{1/2}$

$$\langle \varepsilon^{\mathrm{T}} \rangle = -\frac{\Lambda}{X} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \frac{X}{\Lambda} \right)_{V} = -\beta^{1/2} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} \left(\frac{1}{\beta^{1/2}} \right) = \frac{1}{2\beta} = \frac{1}{2} kT$$

For a molecule free to move in three dimensions:

$$\langle \varepsilon^{\mathrm{T}} \rangle = \frac{3}{2}kT$$

Classical equiparition theorem

1. Mean energy of each quadratic contribution to the energy is 1/2kT

2. Mean energy is independent of the size of the container

3. Consistent with the thermodynamic result that the internal energy of a perfect gas is independent of its volume

(b) The mean rotational energy

When the temperature is low $(T < \Theta_R)$, we get:

$$q^{\mathrm{R}} = 1 + 3\mathrm{e}^{-2\beta hcB} + 5\mathrm{e}^{-6\beta hcB} + \cdots$$

Hence

$$\langle \varepsilon^{\mathrm{R}} \rangle = \frac{hcB(6\mathrm{e}^{-2\beta hcB} + 30\mathrm{e}^{-6\beta hcB} + \cdots)}{1 + 3\mathrm{e}^{-2\beta hcB} + 5\mathrm{e}^{-6\beta hcB} + \cdots}$$

At high temperature $(T \gg \theta_R)$, q^R is given by $q^R = T/2\theta_R$

$$\langle \varepsilon^{\mathrm{R}} \rangle = -\frac{1}{q^{\mathrm{R}}} \frac{\mathrm{d}q^{\mathrm{R}}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} = -\sigma hc\beta B \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} \frac{1}{\sigma hc\beta B} = \frac{1}{\beta} = kT$$

(q^R is independent of V, so the partical derivatives have been replaced by complete derivatives).

The high-Temperature result is also in agreement with the equipartition theorem, for the classical expression for the energy of a linear rotor is $E_{\rm K} = 1/2I\omega_{\rm a}^2 + 1/2I\omega_{\rm b}^2 = 2 \times \frac{1}{2} \, {\rm kT} = {\rm kT}$

(c) The mean vibrational energy

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}q^{\mathrm{V}}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}}} \right) = -\frac{h c \tilde{v} \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}}}{(1 - \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}})^2}$$

-

and hence from

$$\langle \varepsilon^{\mathrm{V}} \rangle = -\frac{1}{q^{\mathrm{V}}} \frac{\mathrm{d}q^{\mathrm{V}}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} = -(1 - \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}}) \left\{ \frac{h c \tilde{v} \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}}}{(1 - \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}})^2} \right\} = \frac{h c \tilde{v} \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}}}{1 - \mathrm{e}^{-\beta h c \tilde{v}}}$$

$$\langle \varepsilon^{\mathrm{V}} \rangle = \frac{hc\tilde{\mathrm{V}}}{\mathrm{e}^{\beta hc\tilde{\mathrm{V}}} - 1}$$

At high temperatures, when $T \gg \theta_v$, or $\beta hcv \ll 1$, the exponential function can be expanded ($e^x = 1 + x + ...$) and all but the leading terms are discarded.

$$\langle \varepsilon^{\mathrm{V}} \rangle = \frac{hc\tilde{v}}{(1 + \beta hc\tilde{v} + \cdots) - 1} \approx \frac{1}{\beta} = kT$$

This result is in agreement with the value predicted by the classical equipartition theorem, because the energy of a one – dimensional oscillator is $E = 1/2mv_x^2 + 1/2kx^2$ and the mean energy of each quadratic term is 1/2kT.

Heat capacities

The constant-volume heat capacity is defined as $C_v = (\partial U/\partial T)v$. The derivative with respect to T is converted into a derivative with respect to β by using:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}T} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\beta}{\mathrm{d}T}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} = -\frac{1}{kT^2}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\beta} = -k\beta^2\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\beta}$$

$$C_V = -k\beta^2 \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial \beta}\right)_V$$

Because the internal energy of a perfect gas is a sum of contributions, the heat capacity is also a sum of contribution from each mode. The contribution of mode M is,

$$C_V^{\rm M} = N \left(\frac{\partial \langle \varepsilon^{\rm M} \rangle}{\partial T} \right)_V = -Nk\beta^2 \left(\frac{\partial \langle \varepsilon^{\rm M} \rangle}{\partial \beta} \right)_V$$

The individual contributions

The temperature is always high enough (provided the gas is above its condensation temperature) for the mean translational energy to be 3/2 kT, the equipartition value. Therefore, the molar constantvolume heat capacity is:

