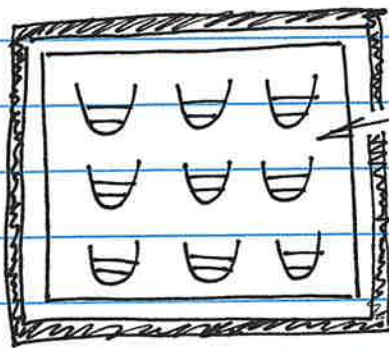


9-1



A thermal reservoir (constant  $T$ )  
can exchange energy between  
members of the ensemble

thermal insulation (no energy in  
or out)

An ensemble of oscillators make up our system

Energies  $E_i = (n_i + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega$

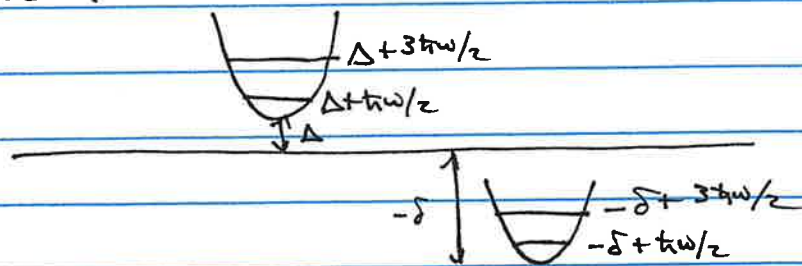
$q_i = \#$  of members of ensemble with  
energy  $E_i$

$$\frac{q_2}{q_1} = f(E_1, E_2)$$

relative populations of states  
depends on energies of states

this function is like  $\rho(\vec{q}, \vec{p})$  classically

Energy is always measured relative to some fixed  
arbitrary value:



If we move the zero bar up or down,  
the relative fraction,  $\frac{q_1}{q_0}$  should not change

$$\therefore \frac{q_2}{q_1} = f(E_1, E_2) = f(E_1 - E_2)$$

The important thing about energies is in the difference  
between two states.

9-2

Let's consider 3 states:

$$\frac{a_3}{a_2} = f(E_2 - E_3)$$

$$\frac{a_2}{a_1} = f(E_1 - E_2)$$

$$\frac{a_3}{a_1} = \frac{a_3}{a_2} \cdot \frac{a_2}{a_1} = \boxed{f(E_1 - E_3) = f(E_2 - E_3) f(E_1 - E_2)}$$

↗ says something about our probability function  $f$

$$f(x+y) = f(x) f(y)$$

↗ one of your homework problems is to prove something about  $f$ . We'll assume it here:

$$\text{If } f(x) = e^{\beta x} \text{ and } f(y) = e^{\beta y}$$

$$e^{\beta(x+y)} = e^{\beta x} e^{\beta y} \quad \checkmark \leftarrow \text{That's what we need!}$$

$$\text{Therefore: } f(E) = e^{\beta E}$$

Returning to our 3 states:

$$e^{\beta(E_1 - E_3)} = e^{\beta(E_1 - E_2)} e^{\beta(E_2 - E_3)} \quad \checkmark$$

$$\frac{a_2}{a_1} = e^{\beta(E_1 - E_2)}$$

So:

$$a_n = C e^{-\beta E_n}$$

likelihood of a state is proportional to an exponential factor of the energy of that state

9-3

Suppose we have a fixed number of states and we want probability information:

$$P_n = \frac{a_n}{\sum_i \text{all states } a_i} = \frac{c e^{-\beta E_n}}{\sum_{i=1} \text{all states } c e^{-\beta E_i}}$$

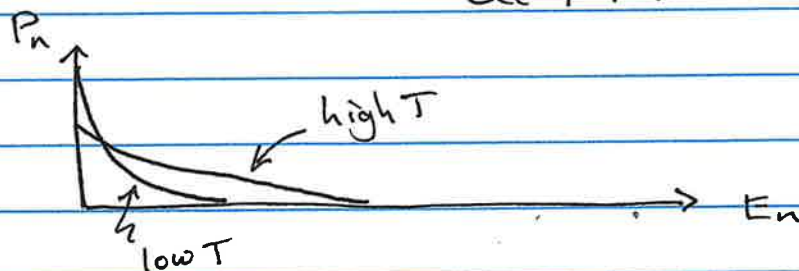
$$= \frac{e^{-\beta E_n}}{\sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}} \leftarrow \text{This denominator is something special called the partition function}$$

$$Q(N, V, \beta) = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$$

$\beta$  can be derived, but for now:  $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$

$$Q(N, V, T) = \sum_i e^{-E_i/k_B T}$$

$$P_n(N, V, T) = \frac{e^{-E_n/k_B T}}{Q(N, V, T)}$$



What can we do with  $Q$ ?

$$\langle E \rangle = \sum_i E_i P_i = \sum_i \frac{E_i e^{-\beta E_i}}{\sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}} = \frac{\sum_i E_i e^{-\beta E_i}}{\sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}}$$

9-4

## Partition Function Tricks

$$Q = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i}$$

$$= \underbrace{\sum_i}_{\text{sum over all states}} e^{\underbrace{-E_i/k_B T}_{\text{energy of that state} / \text{temperature of the ensemble}}}$$

Boltzmann factor:  
How probable is that state

Consider:

$$\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Q} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \beta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Q} \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} (e^{-\beta E_i})$$

$$= \frac{1}{Q} \sum_i -E_i e^{-\beta E_i}$$

$$= - \frac{\sum_i E_i e^{-\beta E_i}}{Q} = - \sum_i E_i \frac{e^{-\beta E_i}}{Q}$$

$$= - \sum_i E_i p_i = - \langle E \rangle$$

If we'd prefer to use  $T$ , there's a chain rule

$$\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial T} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} \frac{\partial \beta}{\partial T} = -\frac{1}{k_B T^2} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial \beta} = -k_B T^2 \frac{\partial f}{\partial T}$$

$$\boxed{\langle E \rangle = +k_B T^2 \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial T} \right)_{N,V}}$$

What is  $Q$ ?

The partition function is a way of expressing the likelihood of a state in an ensemble of

9-5

$N$  identical particles in volume  $V$ . Once we have the likelihood of all microscopic states, we can predict macroscopic properties (like  $\langle E \rangle$ )

If we have identical, indistinguishable particles

$$Q(N, V, T) = \frac{q(V, T)^N}{N!}$$

$q(V, T)$  is the single particle partition function for states available to that particle

$Q(N, V, T)$  is the partition function for states available to all particles.

What is  $q(V, T)$  for an ideal gas?

$$T = \frac{1}{2} m (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2) \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{one particle} \\ V=0 \end{array}$$

$$H(q, p) = \frac{1}{2m} (p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)$$

$$q(T, V) = \sum_{\text{all states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}} = \iint e^{-\beta H(q, p)} d\vec{q} d\vec{p}$$

$$= \underbrace{\int dx \int dy \int dz}_{L_x L_y L_z} \underbrace{\int dp_x \int dp_y \int dp_z}_{\left( \int dp e^{-\beta p^2/2m} \right)^3} e^{-\frac{\beta}{2m} (p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)}$$

$$V \left( \sqrt{\frac{2\pi m}{\beta}} \right)^3$$

$\leftarrow$  gaussian integral

$$q(T, V) = V (2\pi m k_B T)^{3/2}$$

(10-1)

Last time:

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{all states}} e^{-\beta E_i}$$

$$\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$$

$E_i$  = energy of system state  $i$

$$\langle E \rangle = - \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta} \right) = + k_B T^2 \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial T} \right)_{N, V}$$

A short interlude on sums-of-products & products-of-sums

Consider:

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^2 \sum_{j=0}^1 x^i y^j = \text{sum-of-products}$$

$$= x(1+y) + x^2(1+y)$$

$$= (x+x^2)(1+y)$$

$$= \left( \sum_{i=1}^2 x^i \right) \left( \sum_{j=0}^1 y^j \right) = \text{product-of-sums}$$

What if our system consists of  $N$  identical, distinguishable particles:

$$E_i^{\text{tot}} = E_1^a + E_0^b + E_1^c + E_2^d + \dots$$

$\hat{=}$  total energy in system state  $i$

$\hat{=}$  energy of molecule "a" in state 1

$\hat{=}$  energy of molecule "d" in state 2

$$i = \{ \underset{\text{"a"}}{1}, 0, 1, 2, \dots \} \underset{\text{"d"}}{\quad}$$

$i$  describes the total state of the system

$$Q = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i^{\text{tot}}}$$

10-2

Suppose we visit every molecular state instead

$$Q = \sum_i e^{-\beta E_i^{\text{tot}}} = \sum_j \sum_k \sum_l \dots e^{-\beta(E_j^a + E_k^b + E_l^c + \dots)}$$

all system states =

all states of all molecules

sum in the exponent is a product

$$Q = \sum_j \sum_k \sum_l \dots e^{-\beta E_j^a} e^{-\beta E_k^b} e^{-\beta E_l^c} \dots$$

sum-of-products  
product-of-sums

$$= \sum_j e^{-\beta E_j^a} \sum_k e^{-\beta E_k^b} \sum_l e^{-\beta E_l^c} \dots$$

$$= q_a * q_b * q_c * \dots$$

product of single molecule partition functions

If we have  $N$  distinguishable, but identical molecules:

$$Q = q^N$$

For indistinguishable molecules things are a bit more complicated:

$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_1^a + E_2^b + E_1^c + E_0^d$$

But, we can't tell which molecule is which, so we also have this possibility:

$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_0 + E_1 + E_1 + E_2$$

These are considered the same state from a system-wide point of view.

If we were to compute  $Q$  the same as before we would overcount the system states!

(10-3)

In fact, we overcount by the number of permutations of those  $N$  molecules =  $N!$

$\therefore$  for indistinguishable molecules,

$$Q(N, V, T) = \frac{q(V, T)^N}{N!}$$

$\leftarrow$   $N$  molecules  
 $\leftarrow$  single molecule P.F.  
 $\leftarrow$  correction for overcounting system states.

A 2 molecule example: (each molecule has 2 levels)

<u>a</u>	<u>b</u>	
$E_1$	$E_1$	$\leftarrow$ unique state but 2 permutations of (A,B)
$E_1$	$E_2$	$\leftarrow$ identical system states that we overcount by 2
$E_2$	$E_1$	
$E_2$	$E_2$	$\leftarrow$ unique state, but 2 permutations of (A,B)

There are some subtleties for quantum particles (Fermions & Bosons) particularly at low  $T$ , but we'll revisit this later.

Back to the ideal gas:  $N$  non-interacting indistinguishable particles in volume  $V$ .

Total Potential  $V(\vec{q}) = 0$

Kinetic Energy  $T(\vec{p}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\vec{p}_i^2}{2m}$

$H(\vec{q}, \vec{p}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\vec{p}_i^2}{2m} = \frac{1}{2m} (\underbrace{p_{ix}^2 + p_{iy}^2 + p_{iz}^2 + p_{2x}^2 + \dots}_{3N \text{ terms}})$

For 1 particle,

$h(\vec{q}, \vec{p}) = \frac{1}{2m} (p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)$

$q(V, T) = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}}$



10-4

$$q(V, T) = \underbrace{\int_0^{L_x} dq_x \int_0^{L_y} dq_y \int_0^{L_z} dq_z}_V \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp_x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp_y \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp_z e^{-\frac{\beta}{2m}(p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)}$$

$$= V \cdot \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp e^{-\beta p^2 / 2m} \right)^3$$

↗ Gaussian w/  $\sigma^2 = mk_B T$

$$q(V, T) = V (\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2})^3 = V (2\pi mk_B T)^{3/2}$$

One problem  $q(V, T)$  is a normalization factor and must be unitless, so we add a "patch" which is a factor of  $h$  for each  $(q, p)$  pair

$$q(V, T) = V \left( \frac{2\pi mk_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} = V \left( \frac{2\pi m}{\beta h^2} \right)^{3/2}$$

The total system P.F.:

$$Q(N, V, T) = \frac{q(V, T)^N}{N!}$$

$$Q(N, V, T) = \frac{\left( \frac{2\pi m}{\beta h^2} \right)^{3N/2} V^N}{N!}$$

What can we do with this?

$$\langle E \rangle = - \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta} \right)_{N, V} \quad C_V = \left( \frac{\partial \langle E \rangle}{\partial T} \right)_{N, V}$$

$$P = k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right)_{N, T} \quad \mu = -k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial N} \right)_{V, T}$$

(11-1)

Consider what we've

learned so far about the Partition Function:

•  $Q = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}} \leftarrow \text{contains Boltzmann-weighted information about every system state}$

• Many physical (e.g. thermodynamic) properties are derivatives of the partition function:

$$\langle E \rangle = k_B T^2 \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial T} \right) \Rightarrow C_V = \left( \frac{\partial \langle E \rangle}{\partial T} \right)_V$$

$$p = k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right)$$

$$\mu = k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial N} \right)$$

• System Partition functions for identical, indistinguishable particles can be derived from single particle partition functions

$$Q(N, V, T) = \frac{q(V, T)^N}{N!}$$

• For a classical system of non-interacting particles

$$Q(N, V, T) = \frac{1}{N!} \left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3N/2} V^N$$

$\left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3N/2}$  a classical fudge factor to make  $Q$  unitless!

Now, let's consider non-interacting Quantum particles!

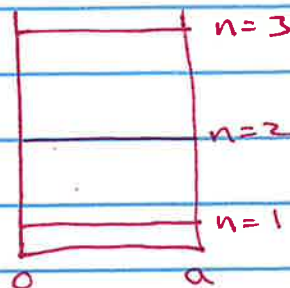
$q(V, T)$  came from  $\sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}} \rightarrow \iint_{\text{phase space}} e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}(q, p)} dq dp$

Integral over phase space was identical to sum over states

(11-2)

Consider a particle in a 1-D box:

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8ma^2} \quad n=1, 2, \dots$$



Or in a 2-D <sup>square</sup> box:

$$E_{n_x n_y} = \frac{h^2}{8ma^2} (n_x^2 + n_y^2)$$

Or in a 3-D cube:

$$E_{n_x n_y n_z} = \frac{h^2}{8ma^2} (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)$$

These energy expressions describe translational energy levels for a particle of mass m in a box of length a on a side.

- What happens when we make the box very large?
- Do the levels get closer in energy or further apart

Road map:

Translational  
energy states  
in small  
box

→

q

→

large box  
limit

$$q_{\text{trans}} = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}} = \sum_{n_x=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n_y=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n_z=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2}{8ma^2} (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2)}$$

Last time we also convinced ourselves that  
sum-of-products == product-of-sums

(11-3)

So:

$$q_{\text{trans}} = \left( \sum_{n_x=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n_x^2}{8ma^2}} \right) \left( \sum_{n_y=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n_y^2}{8ma^2}} \right) \left( \sum_{n_z=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n_z^2}{8ma^2}} \right)$$

All 3 of these factors are identical

$$q_{\text{trans}} = \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n^2}{8ma^2}} \right)^3$$

So how do we do this sum?

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n^2}{8ma^2}} \approx \int_1^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n^2}{8ma^2}} dn \approx \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n^2}{8ma^2}} dn$$

Treating  $n$  as continuous is only a bit dodgy

OK if  $\frac{\beta h^2}{8ma^2}$  is small

- Remember as the box gets larger, the levels get closer and energy of  $n=1$  level gets close to zero!

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2}{8ma^2} n^2} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\alpha n^2} dn = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\alpha}}$$

So:

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-\beta h^2 / 8ma^2 n^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi 8ma^2}{4\beta h^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2}} a$$

↑  
side of box

$$\therefore q_{\text{trans}} = \left( \int_0^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta h^2 n^2}{8ma^2}} \right)^3 \approx \left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} a^3$$

↑  
volume of the box

(11-4)

$$\therefore q_{\text{trans}} = \left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V$$

$$Q(N, V, T) = \frac{q_{\text{trans}}^N}{N!} = \frac{\left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3N/2} V^N}{N!}$$

↗ Same as classical result, this time with no fudge factor.

Last time, we derived  $\langle E \rangle = \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial T} \right) k_B T^2$

$$= \frac{3}{2} N k_B T$$

$$C_V = \frac{3}{2} N k_B = \frac{3R}{2}$$

Today:

$$P = k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right)$$

$$\ln Q = \frac{3N}{2} \ln \left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right) + N \ln V - \ln N!$$

$$\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} = N \cdot \left( \frac{1}{V} \right)$$

$$P = k_B T \left( \frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right) = \frac{k_B T N}{V}$$

$$\therefore PV = N k_B T \quad \leftarrow \text{ideal gas law!}$$

Back to atoms momentarily:

$$\Sigma = \Sigma_{\text{trans}} + \Sigma_{\text{electronic}}$$

Electronic states are organized into levels:

For Hydrogenic atoms:

$$n=1 \Rightarrow 1s$$

$$n=2 \Rightarrow 2s, 2p$$

$$n=3 \Rightarrow 3s, 3p, 3d$$

← all have the same energy

$$E_n = \frac{-m_e Z^2 e^4}{8\epsilon_0 h^2 n^2}$$

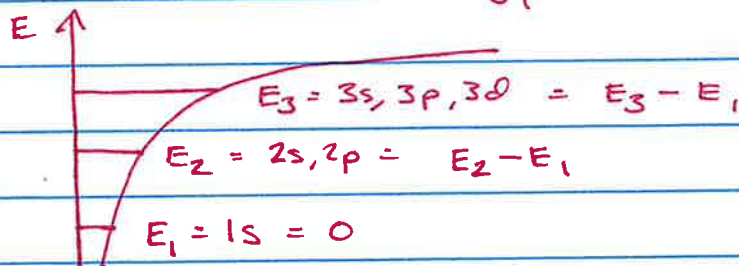
It is most convenient to leave the partition function in level form:

$$q_{\text{elect}} = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}} = \sum_{\text{levels}} g_{\text{level}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{level}}}$$

$E_{\text{level}}$  = energy of that level

$g_{\text{level}}$  = degeneracy of that level

If we set the zero of energy to the ground state:



then:

$$q_{\text{elect}} = g_{e1} e^{-\beta(0)} + g_{e2} e^{-\beta(E_2 - E_1)} + g_{e3} e^{-\beta(E_3 - E_1)} + \dots$$

$$q_{\text{elect}} = \underbrace{g_{e1}}_{\text{normalization}} + \underbrace{g_{e2} e^{-\beta(E_2 - E_1)}}_{\text{Boltzmann factor for } n=1} + \dots$$

(12-2)

Where does g come from?

This is a topic for Quantum Mechanics, but g is related to the # of ways of arranging unpaired electrons in particular excited states:

	Term Symbol	g
H: $(1s)^1$	$2S_{1/2}$	2
He: $(1s^2)$	$1S_0$	1
$(1s^1 2p^1)$	$3S_1$	3

We can ask about how populated an electronic state will be:

$$f_2(T) = \frac{g_2 e^{-\beta(E_2 - E_1)}}{q_{elect}}$$

For Fluorine:

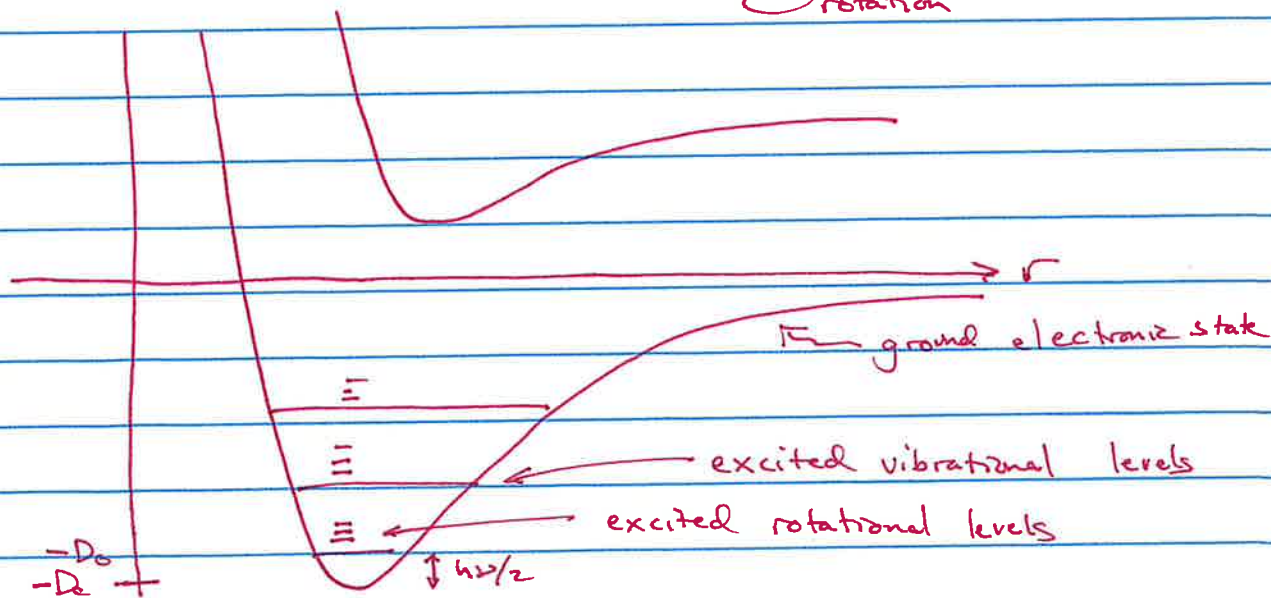
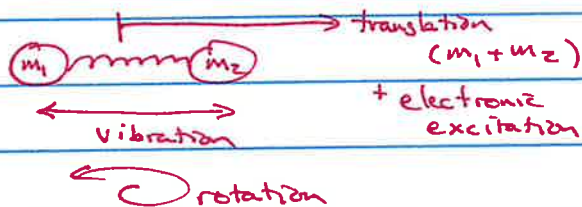
$$f_2(300) = 0.0672$$

$$f_2(1000) = 0.219$$

$$f_2(2000) = 0.272$$

excited states are usually not significantly populated at room temperature

Back to Diatomics



total mass of diatomic

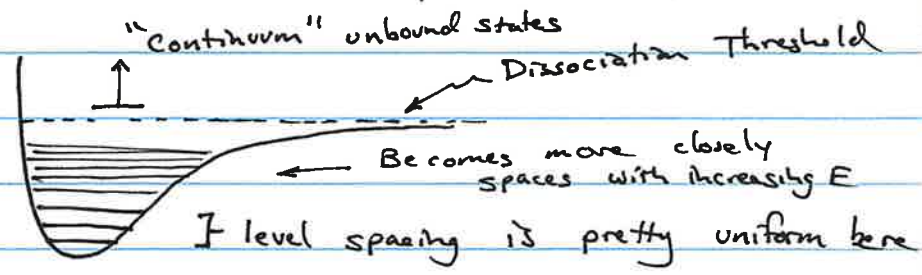
$$q_{trans} = \left( \frac{2\pi (m_1 + m_2) k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V$$

$$q_{elect} = g_{e1} e^{\beta D_e} + g_{e2} e^{-\beta \epsilon_{e2}}$$

zero of energy is above  $D_e$

we usually stop here

Vibrational Motion

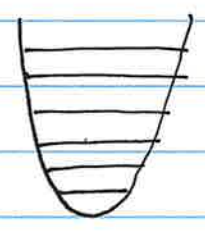


$$E_v \cong (v + \frac{1}{2}) h\nu - h\nu x_e (v + \frac{1}{2})^2$$

← levels of morse oscillator

The Harmonic Model:

$$E_v = (v + \frac{1}{2}) h\nu$$



↑ no maximum level  
 ↓ level spacing is always  $h\nu$

$$v = 0, 1, 2, \dots \infty$$

$$q_{vib} = \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta h\nu (v + \frac{1}{2})}$$

↑ sum over states      ← Boltzmann factor for that state

$$= \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta h\nu / 2} e^{-\beta h\nu v}$$

← first factor does not depend on v

$$= e^{-\beta h\nu / 2} \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta h\nu v}$$

) Let  $X = e^{-\beta h\nu}$

$$= \sqrt{X} \sum_{v=0}^{\infty} X^v$$

← this is a geometric series!

$$q_{vib} = \sqrt{X} \frac{1}{1-X}$$



$$q_{vib} = \frac{e^{-\beta h\nu/2}}{1 - e^{-\beta h\nu}} = \frac{e^{-h\nu/k_B T}}{1 - e^{-h\nu/k_B T}}$$

$\frac{h\nu}{k_B}$  has units of temperature

$$\Theta_{vib} = \frac{h\nu}{k_B}$$

← constant (pointing to  $h\nu$ ) ← property of molecule (pointing to  $h\nu$ )  
 ← constant (pointing to  $k_B$ )

$$q_{vib} = \frac{e^{-\Theta_{vib}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\Theta_{vib}/T}}$$

← functional form is independent of molecular species!

Let's do it classically also:  $H(q, p) = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 q^2$

$$q_{vib} = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}}$$

note the  $\frac{1}{h}$  for units!

$$= \frac{1}{h} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dq \cdot e^{-\beta \left( \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{m\omega^2 q^2}{2} \right)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\beta p^2/2m} dp \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\beta m\omega^2 q^2/2} dq$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\alpha p^2} dp \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\alpha' q^2} dq$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\beta}{2m} \qquad \alpha' = \frac{\beta m\omega^2}{2}$$

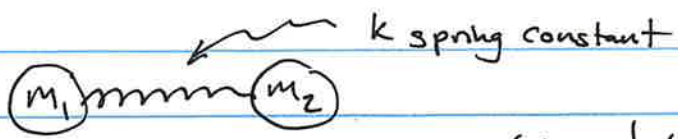
$$q_{vib} = \frac{1}{h} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha'}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \sqrt{\frac{\pi 2m}{\beta}} \sqrt{\frac{\pi 2}{\beta m\omega^2}} = \frac{2\pi}{h} \frac{1}{\beta\omega}$$

$$q_{vib} = \frac{2\pi}{h} \frac{1}{\omega} \frac{1}{\beta}$$
$$= \frac{1}{h\omega} k_B T$$
$$= \frac{k_B}{h\nu} \cdot T$$

$$q_{vib}^{cl} = \frac{T}{\Theta_{vib}}$$

$$q_{vib}^{qm} = \frac{e^{-\Theta_{vib}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\Theta_{vib}/T}}$$



$$V(r) = \frac{1}{2} k (r - r_e)^2$$

$$E = E_{trans} + E_{elect} + E_{vib} + E_{rot}$$

$$q(V,T) = q_{trans}(V,T) \cdot q_{elect}(T) \cdot q_{vib}(T) \cdot q_{rot}(T)$$

$$q_{trans}(V,T) = \left( \frac{2\pi M k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V \quad M = m_1 + m_2$$

$$q_{elect}(T) = g_{e1} e^{-\beta D_e} + g_{e2} e^{-\beta E_{e2}} + \dots$$

$$q_{vib}(T) = \frac{e^{-\Theta_{vib}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\Theta_{vib}/T}} \quad \Theta_{vib} = \frac{h\nu}{k_B} = \frac{h\omega}{k_B} = \frac{h\sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}}{k_B}$$

$$\mu = \text{reduced mass} = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

What about rotations?

Quantum Mechanically :  $E_J = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} J(J+1) \quad J = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

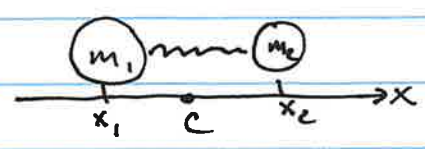
$$g_J = 2J + 1$$

↖ degeneracy of rotational levels

I is a moment of inertia

For diatomics:  $I = m_1 d_1^2 + m_2 d_2^2$

↖ distance from center of mass



$$c = \frac{m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

$$d_1 = x_1 - c \quad d_2 = x_2 - c$$

a bit of algebra

$$\downarrow$$

$$I = \mu r_e^2 \quad (\text{for a diatomic})$$

Partition function:

$$q_{\text{rot}} = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}} = \sum_{\text{levels}} g_{\text{level}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{level}}}$$

$$= \sum_{J=0}^{\infty} g_J e^{-\beta E_J} = \sum_{J=0}^{\infty} (2J+1) e^{-\frac{\beta h^2}{2I} J(J+1)}$$

$\frac{h^2}{2Ik_B}$  has units of temperature, so let's define

$$\Theta_{\text{rot}} = \frac{h^2}{2Ik_B}$$

← contains only constants and fixed properties of the molecule

∴

$$q_{\text{rot}} = \sum_{J=0}^{\infty} (2J+1) e^{-J(J+1) \Theta_{\text{rot}}/T}$$

If  $T \gg \Theta_{\text{rot}}$  the rotational levels are nearly continuous, so:

$$q_{\text{rot}} \approx \int_0^{\infty} (2J+1) e^{-J(J+1) \Theta_{\text{rot}}/T} dJ$$

$$\text{let } X = J(J+1) = J^2 + J$$

$$dX = (2J+1) dJ$$

$$\therefore q_{\text{rot}} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\Theta_{\text{rot}} X/T} dX$$

$$= \frac{-T}{\Theta_{\text{rot}}} \left[ e^{-\Theta_{\text{rot}} X/T} \right]_0^{\infty}$$

$$q_{\text{rot}} = \frac{T}{\Theta_{\text{rot}}}$$

$$q_{\text{rot}}(T) = \frac{2Ik_B T}{h^2} = \frac{8\pi I k_B T}{h^2} = \frac{T}{\Theta_{\text{rot}}}$$

Level Populations

How likely are we to see vibrational level 2 at temperature T?

$$f_2^{vib}(T) = \frac{\text{Boltzmann weight for } v=2}{\text{Sum over all Boltzmann weights}} = \frac{e^{-\beta h\nu \frac{5}{2}}}{q_{vib}}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-5h\nu/2k_B T}}{q_{vib}} = \frac{e^{-5\theta_{vib}/2T} (1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}/T})}{e^{-\theta_{vib}/2T}}$$

$$f_2^{vib}(T) = e^{-2\theta_{vib}/T} (1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}/T})$$

$\frac{1}{2}$  makes  $f_2 = 0$  at  $T=0$        $\frac{1}{2}$  makes  $f_2 = 0$  as  $T \rightarrow \infty$

We can do this for  $v=0$  also.

$$f_0^{vib}(T) = \frac{e^{-\beta h\nu/2}}{q_{vib}} = e^{-\theta_{vib}/2T} \frac{(1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}/T})}{e^{-\theta_{vib}/2T}}$$

$$= (1 - e^{-\theta_{vib}/T}) \leftarrow \text{exponentially dies off as } T \rightarrow \infty$$

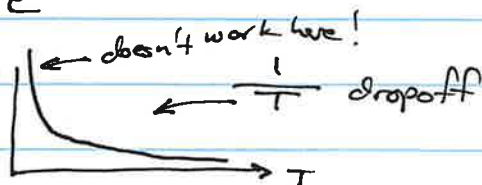
Rotational Populations fraction of molecules in  $J=2$

$$f_J^{rot} = \frac{(2J+1) e^{-\theta_{rot} J(J+1)/T}}{q_{rot}}$$

$\frac{T}{\theta_{rot}}$  when  $T \gg \theta_{rot}$

$$f_J^{rot}(T) = (2J+1) \frac{\theta_{rot}}{T} e^{-\theta_{rot} J(J+1)/T}$$

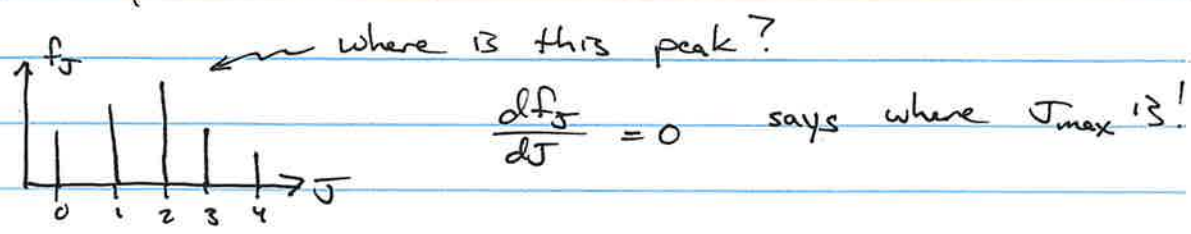
$$f_0^{rot}(T) = \frac{\theta_{rot}}{T} =$$



$$f_2^{\text{rot}}(T) = 5 \frac{\theta_{\text{rot}}}{T} e^{-6\theta_{\text{rot}}/T} \approx 1 \text{ at high } T$$

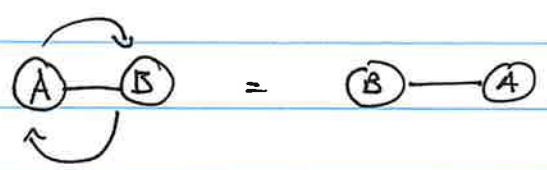
So the J=2 level is more populated at some temperatures than the lower energy J=0 level.

Degeneracy causes this.

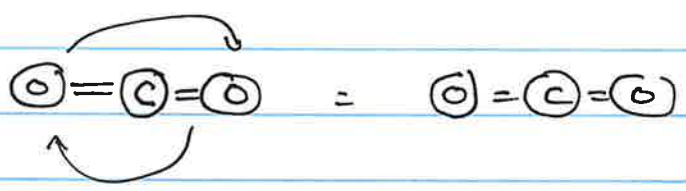


$$J_{\text{max}} = \sqrt{\frac{T}{2\theta_{\text{rot}}}} - \frac{1}{2} \leftarrow \text{increases with } \sqrt{T}$$

Symmetry



still distinguishable from original configuration



indistinguishable from original

for  $\text{CO}_2$ , twice per rotation, we end up in an indistinguishable configuration, so we need to adjust the rotational partition function to account for this:

$$q_{\text{rot}} = \frac{T}{\sigma \theta_{\text{rot}}}$$

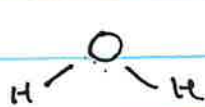
$\sigma$  symmetry number = number of indistinguishable orientations of the rotation

- $\text{N}_2 : \sigma = 2$
- $\text{HCl} : \sigma = 1$

Polyatomics

O=C=O 3 atoms = 9 degrees of freedom

linear molecules → 3 translations  
2 rotations  
4 vibrational modes



3 atoms = 9 degrees of freedom

nonlinear molecules → 3 translations  
3 rotations  
3 vibrational modes

$q = q_{trans} + q_{elect} + q_{vib} + q_{rot}$

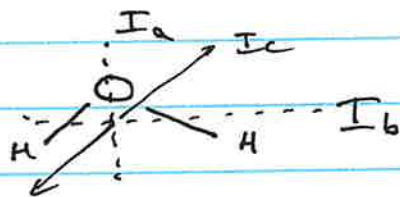
$= \left( \frac{2\pi M k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V \left( g_1 e^{\beta \epsilon_1} + g_2 e^{\beta (\epsilon_2 - \epsilon_1)} + \dots \right) \left( \prod_{j=1}^{N_{vib}} q_{vib}^j(T) \right) \left( ? \right)$

$q_{rot}$  for linear molecules is easy:

$I = \sum_i m_i d_i^2$        $\epsilon_J = \frac{h^2}{2I} J(J+1)$

$q_{rot} = \frac{1}{\sigma \Theta_{rot}}$       with  $\Theta_{rot} = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I k_B}$

for water



$I_a \neq I_b \neq I_c$

$\vec{I}$  is the moment of inertia tensor

$I_{xx} = \sum_i m_i (y_i - y_{cm})^2 + (z_i - z_{cm})^2$

$I_{yy} = \sum_i m_i ((x_i - x_{cm})^2 + (z_i - z_{cm})^2)$

$I_{zz} = \sum_i m_i ((x_i - x_{cm})^2 + (y_i - y_{cm})^2)$

off-diagonals:  $I_{xy} = I_{yx} = \sum_i m_i (x_i - x_{cm})(y_i - y_{cm})$

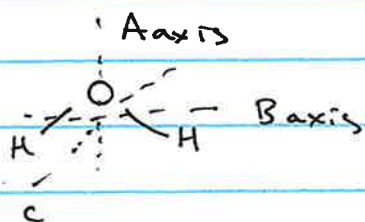
$\vec{I}$  can be diagonalized

(14-2)

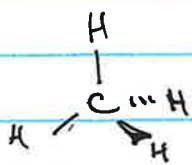
$$\vec{H} = \begin{pmatrix} I_{xx} & I_{xy} & I_{xz} \\ I_{yx} & I_{yy} & I_{yz} \\ I_{zx} & I_{zy} & I_{zz} \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{diagonalization}} \begin{pmatrix} I_A & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I_B & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & I_C \end{pmatrix}$$

All rigid objects have 3 principal axes of rotation each with its own moment of inertia. They can sometimes be hard to identify, or can be degenerate:

$$\begin{array}{c} \uparrow \text{B axis} \\ 0 = C = 0 \rightarrow \text{A axis} \\ \downarrow \text{c axis} \end{array} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} I_A = 0 \\ I_B = I_C \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{linear rotors} \\ \text{have one} \\ \text{moment} = 0 \\ \text{All diatomics} \end{array}$$

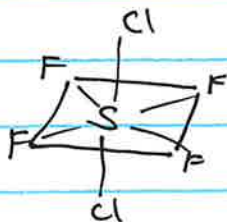


$I_A \neq I_B \neq I_C$   
This is called an asymmetric top



(e.g.  $\text{CH}_4$ ,  $\text{SF}_6$ )

$I_A = I_B = I_C$   
This is called a spherical top



$I_A \neq I_B = I_C$   
This is called a symmetric rotor

$\text{NH}_3$ ,  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_6$  ("oblate"),  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$



(14-3)

Spherical Tops:  $q_{rot} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sigma} \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_{rot}} \right)^{3/2}$

Symmetric Tops:  $q_{rot} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\sigma}} \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_{rot,A}} \right) \left( \frac{T}{\Theta_{rot,B}} \right)^{1/2}$

Asymmetric Tops:  $q_{rot} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\sigma}} \left( \frac{T^3}{\Theta_{rot,A} \Theta_{rot,B} \Theta_{rot,C}} \right)^{1/2}$

Linear Rotor:  $q_{rot} = \frac{T}{\sigma \Theta_{rot}}$

Multiple Vibrational Modes:



$$E_{vib} = E_{\text{symm. stretch}} + E_{\text{asymm stretch}} + E_{\text{bend}}$$

$$= (v_{ss} + \frac{1}{2}) h \nu_{ss} + (v_{as} + \frac{1}{2}) h \nu_{as} + (v_b + \frac{1}{2}) h \nu_b$$

$$q_{vib} = \sum_{\text{states}} e^{-\beta E_{\text{state}}}$$

$$= \sum_{v_{ss}=0}^{\infty} \sum_{v_{as}=0}^{\infty} \sum_{v_b=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta [h \nu_{ss} (v_{ss} + \frac{1}{2}) + h \nu_{as} (v_{as} + \frac{1}{2}) + h \nu_b (v_b + \frac{1}{2})]}$$

$$= \left( \sum_{v_{ss}=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta h \nu_{ss} (v_{ss} + \frac{1}{2})} \right) \left( \sum_{v_{as}=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta h \nu_{as} (v_{as} + \frac{1}{2})} \right) \left( \sum_{v_b=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta h \nu_b (v_b + \frac{1}{2})} \right)$$

$$= q_{vib}^{ss} \times q_{vib}^{as} \times q_{vib}^{bend}$$

$$q_{vib} = \prod_{j=1}^{N_{vib}} \frac{e^{-\Theta_{vib,j}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\Theta_{vib,j}/T}}$$

$$\Theta_{vib,j} = \frac{h \nu_j}{k_B}$$

For  $q$  is product of modes

(14-4)

Equipartition

$$q_{\text{trans}} = \left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} V$$

$$\langle E_{\text{trans}} \rangle = k_B T^2 \left( \frac{\partial \ln q_{\text{trans}}}{\partial T} \right) = \frac{k_B T^2 V \left( \frac{3}{2} \right) \left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2} \right)^{3/2}}{q_{\text{trans}}}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} k_B T$$

$$q_{\text{rot}} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sigma} \left( \frac{T^3}{\Theta_A \Theta_B \Theta_C} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\langle E_{\text{rot}} \rangle = k_B T^2 \left( \frac{\partial \ln q_{\text{rot}}}{\partial T} \right) = \frac{k_B T^2}{q_{\text{rot}}} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sigma} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{T^3}{\Theta_A \Theta_B \Theta_C} \right)^{-1/2} \frac{3T^2}{\Theta_A \Theta_B \Theta_C}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2} k_B T$$

$$q_{\text{vib}} = \frac{e^{-\Theta_{\text{vib}}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\Theta_{\text{vib}}/T}} \quad \leftarrow \text{for each mode}$$

$$\langle E_{\text{vib}} \rangle = k_B \left( \frac{\Theta_{\text{vib}}}{2} + \Theta_{\text{vib}} \frac{e^{-\Theta_{\text{vib}}/2T}}{1 - e^{-\Theta_{\text{vib}}/T}} \right)$$

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \langle E_{\text{vib}} \rangle \approx k_B T \quad \text{for each vibrational mode}$$

$$\langle E_{\text{tot}} \rangle = \underbrace{\frac{3}{2} k_B T}_{\text{trans}} + \underbrace{\frac{3}{2} k_B T}_{\text{rot}} + \underbrace{N_{\text{vib}} k_B T}_{\text{vib}}$$

A simple theorem that explains this:

(14-5)

$$\langle \mathcal{E} \rangle = \frac{\sum_{\text{all states}} \mathcal{E}_n e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n}}{\sum_{\text{all states}} e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}_n}} \approx \frac{\int_0^{\infty} \mathcal{E}(n) e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}(n)} dn}{\int_0^{\infty} e^{-\beta \mathcal{E}(n)} dn}$$

If  $\mathcal{E}(n) \sim cn^2$  where  $c > 0$   
(that is if the energy rises parabolically)

$$\langle \mathcal{E} \rangle = \frac{\int_0^{\infty} cn^2 e^{-\beta cn^2} dn}{\int_0^{\infty} e^{-\beta cn^2} dn} = \frac{c}{4\beta c} \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{4\beta c}}$$

$$= \frac{k_B T}{2}$$

$\therefore$  for each degree of freedom which has energy rising like  $n^2$ , the average energy should be approximately  $\frac{k_B T}{2}$

$$E_{\text{trans}} = \frac{h^2}{8ma^2} (n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{2m} (p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)$$

3 d.o.f. in both QM and classical treatments

$$E_{\text{rot}} = \frac{h^2}{2I} J(J+1) \sim cJ^2$$

Harmonic oscillator has 2 :  $E = \frac{1}{2m} p^2 + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 q^2$   
= 2 quadratic terms!