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## STATISTICAL MECHANICS

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In analytical mechanics, we apply laws of motion to individual bodies whose motion can easily be observed. For example, if we observe the position & velocity of a body at a given time we can predict its position & velocity after some time. Thus the laws of motion enable us to determine the path of a body in space.

When we have to do with a system containing billions of small bodies moving at random, such as a gas containing a large number of molecules, the methods of analytical mechanics become impossible.

Our first difficulty is that we cannot observe individual molecules. We can observe only the average properties such as temperature, pressure, volume etc of the gas. Even if we succeed in observing individual molecules the collection of enormous data (i.e. a record of position & velocities of millions of molecules) & the application of laws of motion to each molecule will make the method of analytical mechanics an impossible task. Hence we adopt an entirely different approach for studying the behaviour of a thermodynamic system composed of large numbers of individuals such as gas. Instead of

Important:

measuring the individual velocities of molecules we measure their average velocity. In other words we <sup>try</sup> desire to study the average properties of molecules by not their individual effects. The properties such as temperature, pressure, volume, entropy etc indicate the behaviour of molecule as a whole & not the behaviour of a single molecule. Thus the term "temp of gas" indicates some property which is produced by the combined action of all the molecules of the gas. The term "temperature of molecule" has no sense. This type of mechanics which deals with the average effects of large number of individuals is called statistical mechanics. It may be regarded as the collection of laws of mechanics which can be applicable ~~to be~~ applied to thermal equilibrium.

As number of molecules in a gas is very large their motion <sup>is</sup> controlled by chance or by the laws of probability and so the gas tends to acquire that state which is more probable. The gas also tend to acquire that state for which its entropy attains maximum value it is obvious that there must be some relation b/w entropy & probability.

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This important relation was first discovered by Boltzmann. The probability of an event can be measured very approximately by the relation

$$\text{Probability} = \frac{\text{number of favourable events}}{\text{Total number of possible events}}$$

In thermodynamics we use only  $dS$  i.e. the change in entropy. The Boltzmann relation can also be written as

$$S = k \log W$$

This relation can be used to find the distribution of molecules, energy, molecular velocities in a perfect gas.

While dealing with kinetic theory the average translational K.E. of molecules of gas was determined. However the knowledge of average values doesn't tell us how the speeds of individual molecules are distributed above the average value. In some cases the average value might provide sufficient information about the properties of gas such as its temperature. In other cases more information about the distribution of speed may be required.

While designing a commercial passenger aircraft, we must be interested in average

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weight of passengers & their luggage. so as to estimate the lift required for the plane. On the other hand while ordering the suits for a clothing store, we must be interested in the information about distribution of sizes rather an average size of customers. However in case of commercial passenger aircraft, the number of overweight or underweight passenger is of little importance.

In statistical mechanics, we are interested in the distribution of molecular speed & their energies for determining the macroscopic properties of collections of molecules. Maxwell, Gibbs & Boltzmann developed classical formulation in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In the 20<sup>th</sup> century Einstein, Planck, Fermi & others applied most of their classical formulations to system governed by the laws of Quantum mechanics.

## # DISTRIBUTION OF MOLECULES IN A PERFECT GAS:

⇒ Let  $N$  denote the number of molecule in volume  $V$  of a perfect gas. We shall prove that when the gas is in thermodynamic equilibrium its molecules are uniformly distributed throughout the volume of gas and the density of the molecules has the constant value  $\left(\frac{N}{V}\right)$  in any part of the gas.

The ration  $N/V$  is clearly the average value of the density of molecule for the whole gas

Suppose the volume  $V$  is divided into large number of cells having volume  $v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots$  etc which contain  $N_1, N_2, \dots, N_3, \dots$  etc molecules respectively. Let the volume of each cell be made very small but large enough to accomodate a large number of molecules which are nearly point masses. Thus  $N_1, N_2, \dots$  etc can be regarded as large numbers.

It is obvious that  $N_1 + N_2 + N_3 + \dots = N$   
or  $\sum N_i = N$  where  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

as  $N$  is a constant we must have

~~$\sum N_i = 0$~~  so differentials of above eq shows  $\sum N_i = 0$

a) If all the  $N$  molecules are different their possible <sup>no</sup> arrangement is equal to the permutations of  $N$  different objects, each permutation containing all the objects or  ~~$N$  factorial~~  $N!$

When  $N_1$  molecules of the cell having volume  $V$ , are made identical, let the number of different permutations be now ' $x$ ' be if the  $N_1$  molecules be again different we can make  $N_1!$  different permutations out of each of the  $x$  permutations thus

$$(x) (N_1!) = N!$$

$$x = \frac{N!}{N_1!}$$

which shows that by making  $N_1$  molecules of cell 1 exactly similar the number of different permutations  $N!$  is reduced to  $\frac{N!}{N_1!}$

b) (It follows that if all the gas molecules are identical) in the cell containing  $N_1, N_2, N_3, \dots$  etc molecules, the number of different permutations or (microscopic state) will be reduced from  $N!$  to  $\frac{N!}{(N_1!)(N_2!)(N_3!) \dots}$

Important: As the molecules of ideal gas are

supposed to be identical. The number of microscopic states is given by

$$X = \frac{N!}{(N_1!)(N_2!)(N_3!) \dots}$$

## # STATISTICAL DISTRIBUTIONS & MEANS VALUES:

→ Suppose a highway engineer wants to collect information about the distribution of speed of vehicles in a certain section of the road for the purpose of improving the road.

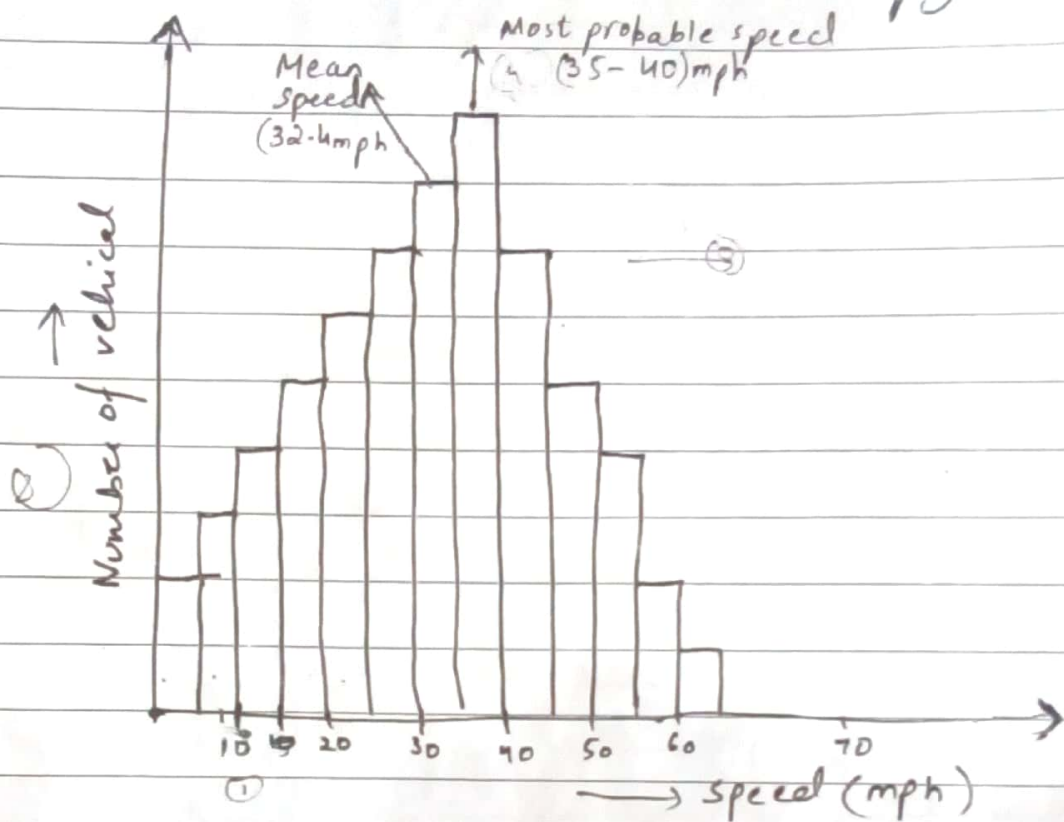
A simple determination of average speed of vehicles cannot provide useful data for the purpose.

The best way to have useful data is to sort out the speeds into groups or intervals of 5 mph each, eg speeds between zero & five km/hrs, between 5 & 10 mph, etc.

We then count the number of vehicles possessing the speeds in the sorted interval.

finally we construct a plot between  
Important: the intervals (along horizontal)

and the number of vehicles possessing speed in the sorted intervals along the vertical as shown in the figure



### Statistical distribution of speeds of vehicles

As shown in fig.

Such a statistical distribution of speed is called histogram.

In the histogram, each rectangle has a width equal to size of speed interval i.e. 5 mph & its height equal to the vehicles possessing speed in that interval or simply the number of observations or relative frequency of values in that interval.

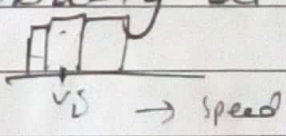


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The sum of heights of all rectangles gives the total number of vehicles in overall survey.

The average or mean value of speed  $\bar{v}$  can be computed from the statistical distribution of figure as shown before.

→ let us label the speed interval as  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, r$  values

let  $v_i$  be the representative value of the speed in each interval, probably at the center of each interval. 

→ let us assume that each speed interval has the same width  $\delta V$  (for simplicity) defined as  $\delta V = v_2 - v_1 = v_3 - v_2 = \dots$  and the height

~~at~~  $n_i(v_i)$  representing the number of vehicles (or observations).

for the interval corresponding to the representing speed  $v_i$  obviously.

• Total number of observations (or total number of vehicles) is given by

$$N = n_1(v_1) + n_2(v_2) + n_3(v_3) + \dots$$

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^r n_i(v_i) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

The average or mean speed ~~speed~~ is defined as

$$\bar{v} = \frac{n_1(v_1) \times v_1 + n_2(v_2) \times v_2 + n_3(v_3) \times v_3 + \dots}{n_1(v_1) + n_2(v_2) + n_3(v_3) + \dots}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^r \frac{v_i n_i(v_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^r n_i(v_i)} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^r n_i(v_i) = n$$

This eq (2) is identical with that use for calculating the center of mass of a system of particles

$$R_{cm} = \frac{m_1 r_1 + m_2 r_2 + m_3 r_3 + \dots}{m_1 + m_2 + m_3 + \dots}$$

$$\text{--- (3) } \quad \frac{\sum m_i r_i}{\sum m_i} \quad \text{--- (3) } \quad \frac{v = \frac{v}{1}}{1}$$

$$= \sum \frac{m_i v_i}{M}$$

Thus the center of mass of particles in a system can be regarded as a sort of average location for the particle in the system. We can also define relative frequency or probability of any value  $v_i$  of any interval of width  $\delta$

$$f(v_i) = \frac{n_i(v_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^r n_i(v_i)}$$

$$= \frac{n_i(v_i)}{N} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

~~no. of favourable cases~~  
total no. of possible cases

combining  $\sum_{i=1}^n v_i f(v_i)$  — (5)

for example if number of observations

(Cars) vehicles having speed in speed interval (0-5) is 23 & total number of cars is 1205. We have

$$n_i(v_i) = n_i(5) = 23$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^r n_i(v_i) = 1205$$

$$f(v_i) = \frac{n_i(v_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^r n_i(v_i)} = \frac{23}{1205} = 0.019 = 1.9\%$$

Problem: find the mean value of the speed for the distribution given in the following data taking value of speed at the middle of each speed interval

No of intervals	Speed Interval (km/hr)	Number of cars in different speed intervals
1	0-5	23
2	5-10	41
3	10-15	54
4	15-20	95
5	20-25	123
6	25-30	142
7	30-35	177
8	35-40	186
9	40-45	170

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10	45 - 50	120
11	50 - 55	50
12	55 - 60	15
13	60 - 65	7

$\sum n_i (V_i) = 1205$

Average speed:

$$\bar{v} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^r n_i (v_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^r n_i (v_i)}$$

~~$V_1 = \frac{0+5}{2}$~~

$$\bar{v} = \frac{n_1(v_1) \times v_1 + n_2(v_2) \times v_2 + n_3(v_3) \times v_3 + \dots}{n_1(v_1) + n_2(v_2) + n_3(v_3) + \dots}$$

$$= \frac{n_1(v_1) \times v_1 + n_2(v_2) \times v_2 + n_3(v_3) \times v_3 + \dots}{n_1(v_1) + n_2(v_2) + n_3(v_3) + \dots}$$

$$V_1 = \frac{0+5}{2} = 2.5 \quad V_9$$

$$V_2 = \frac{5+10}{2} = 7.5 \quad V_{10}$$

$$V_3 = \frac{10+15}{2} = 12.5 \quad V_{11}$$

$$V_4 \quad V_{12}$$

$$V_5 \quad V_{13}$$

$$V_6$$

$$V_7$$

important:  $V_8$

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$$\bar{v} = (23)(2.5) + (41)(7.5) + \dots$$

1205

$$\bar{v} = 32.2 \text{ mph}$$

### MEAN FREE PATH:

The molecule of ideal gas travelling through gas collides with other molecules in its path and makes random motion.

The average distance travelled by molecules between collision is called mean free path and denoted by " $\lambda$ ".

The mean free path depend upon the following

#### ① Mean free path and density:-

→ The mean free path travelled by molecules is inversely proportional to the number of molecules per unit volume ( $N/V$ ) or density of molecules.

It is due to the fact that there will be more collisions when density of molecules is larger which gives smaller mean free path.