Two Ways to derive Ideal Gas Law

Method 1. spliting the system [1][2][3]

Method 1 circumvents the abstrat concept of phase space, deriving the ideal gas law from a more direct approach.

Basic Settings:

system: ideal gas, isolated from its environment.

properties: constant N (number of particles).

constant V (volume)

constant E (internal energy)

(in equilibrium, a microcanonical ensemble)

Derivation Process:

Suppose that the total number of microscopic states of the entire system is SI, which is a function of N, E and V.

SL(N, E, V) $dSl = \frac{\partial SL}{\partial N}dN + \frac{\partial SL}{\partial E}dE + \frac{\partial SL}{\partial V}dV$. Randomly split the system into 2 subsystems, namely, subsystem 1 and subsystem 2. The number of particles, the internal energy and the volume of these two subsystems

are: N1, N2; E1, E2; V1, V2.

Correspondingly, the number of microscopic states of these two subsystems are: $\Omega_1(N_1,E_1,V_1)$, $\Omega_2(N_2,E_2,V_2)$

Because of the conservation of the entire system,

we have: $N = N_1 + N_2$

E= E, + E2

V= V1 + 1/2

Os for Ω , Ω_1 , Ω_2 , since in the system of ideal gas, the position of each particle is completely independent from the position and momentum of other particles, we have: $\Omega \propto V^N$ $\Omega_1 \propto V^{N_1}$ $\Omega_2 \propto V^{N_2}$

(There is no solid boundary between the two subsystems. Therefore, all particles can move in the space of the entire system)

Obviously:

Ω(N, E, V) = Ω1 (N, E1, V1) · Ω2 (N2, E2, V2)

Suppose that the two subsystems have energy exchange, yet without any exchange of particles or any change in volume.

$$\frac{dE_1}{dt} \neq 0 \quad \frac{dE_2}{dt} \neq 0 \quad \frac{dV_1}{dt} = 0 \quad \frac{dV_2}{dt} = 0 \quad \frac{dN_1}{dt} = 0 \quad \frac{dN_2}{dt} = 0.$$

Apparently, $\frac{dE_1}{dt} = -\frac{dE_2}{dt}$, $\frac{dE_1}{dE_2} = -1$ (total energy is conserved)

Due to the principle of equal a priori probabilities, in equlibrium, Si should reach its maximum value:

 $\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial E_1} = \Omega_2 \frac{\partial \Omega_1}{\partial E_1} + \Omega_1 \frac{\partial \Omega_2}{\partial E_2} \cdot \frac{\partial E_2}{\partial E_1} = 0$ (Ω reach its extrema)

Sinse OE2 = -1,

$$\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{3\sqrt{1}} = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{3\sqrt{3}} = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{1} = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{3\sqrt{3}} = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{1} = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{3\sqrt{3}} = \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2\sqrt{3}} =$$

Therefore, when the entire system is in equilibrium,

page 2

arbitarily dividing it into two subsystems and bobing into them can have the above-mentioned result.

Let's switch into a macroscopic (thermodynamic) perspective. When the system is in equilibrium, all parts of it share the same temperature, T.

Consider a basic thermodynamic equation:

$$\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial E}\right)_{V} = \frac{1}{T} \quad (V \text{ is constant})$$

Therefore, when the entire ideal gas system is in equilibrium, the two subsystem must share the same temperature,

namely: $T_1 = T_2$ $\frac{1}{T_1} = \frac{1}{T_2}$ $(T_1, T_2 \text{ refer to the temperature of subsystem 1}) <math>(\frac{\partial S_1}{\partial E_1})_{V_1, N_1} = (\frac{\partial S_2}{\partial E_2})_{V_2, N_2}$ and subsystem 2)

$$\frac{1}{T_i} = \left(\frac{\partial S_i}{\partial E_i}\right)_{V_i, N_i} \propto \frac{\partial (\ln \Omega_i)}{\partial E_i} \quad (i=1, 2)$$

Let
$$d = \frac{\partial (\ln \Omega_i)}{\partial E_i}$$
 (i=1,2)

For dimensionalization purpose, define ke as a constant whose unit is energy (temperature), namely, J. K-1(SI).

We have:
$$(\frac{\partial S_i}{\partial E_i})_{vi.N_i} = k_8 \frac{\partial (\ln \Omega_i)}{\partial E_i}$$
 (i=1,2)

Integrate it with respect to E, we have:

$$S = k_{e} \ln S$$
, and $x = \frac{1}{k_{e}.T}$

By supposing that the two subsystems only have energy exchange, we derive this:

$$\frac{\partial (\ln \Omega_i)}{\partial E_i} = \alpha = \frac{1}{k_B T} \quad (i=1, 2)$$

Similarly, we can define parameters B and Pas:

$$\frac{\partial (\ln \Omega i)}{\partial N i} = \beta. \quad \frac{\partial (\ln \Omega i)}{\partial V i} = \gamma^{\varrho} \quad (i=1,2)$$

with
$$d\Omega = \frac{\partial N}{\partial N}dN + \frac{\partial E}{\partial N}dE + \frac{\partial V}{\partial N}dV$$
.

So: d(Ins)= 2dE+BdN+YdY

Refer to thermodynamic equation in open systems: dE=TdS-PdV+NdN. (reversible process. no non-volume work)

(where
$$N = (\frac{\partial E}{\partial N})s, v$$
, chemical potential)

$$dS = \frac{1}{T}dE + \frac{P}{T}dV - \frac{N}{T}dN$$

Applying this to the ideal gas system where E and N remain constant,

$$dS = \frac{P}{T}dV$$
 $k_B d(\ln \Omega) = \frac{P}{T}dV$

$$\frac{P}{k_BT} = \frac{d(\ln \Omega)}{dV} = \frac{d(\ln V^N)}{dV} = \frac{Nd\ln V}{dV} = \frac{N}{V}$$
(\$\Omega \omega V^N, let the scale factor be 1)

Therefore, the conclusion is reached.

(n: amount of substance, mol 3 NA: Avogadio's Constant

page 4

Method 2. phase space and ensemble theory [4][5][6]

Method 2 employs ensemble theory to derive ideal gas law. The very first step is to find partition function, Then, we can use partition function to derive a series of thermodynamic properties, which ultimately lead to ideal gas law.

Basic Settings: (classical mechanics) system: ideal gas, connected to a heat bath.

properties: constant N (number of particles)

constant V (volume)

constant T (temperature)
(in equilibrium, a canonical ensemble)

Derivation Process:

First and foremost, the Hamiltonian of the system is:

 $H = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{P_i^2}{2m}$ (ideal gas, the interaction between m: the mass of each particle particles is negligible)

(Note: Ignoring the interaction between particles is completely for the sake of calculation convenience.

No multi-particle system can reach thermal equilibrium without the interaction between particles.)

Therefore, the partition function is:

$$Z = \frac{1}{N! h^{3N}} \int_{\Omega} e^{\left(\beta \sum_{i=1}^{3N} \frac{p_i^2}{2m}\right)} d^{3N} d^{3N} \beta = \frac{1}{k_0 T}$$

It is the part of phase space the microscopie states of this system occupy. Page 5

Since p and q are independent variables, the integral can be separated:

$$Z = \frac{1}{N! h^{3N}} \int_{\Omega} dq^{3N} \int_{\Omega} e^{\left(\beta \sum_{i=1}^{3N} \frac{P_i^2}{2M}\right)} dp^{3} = \frac{1}{N!} \left(\frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2}\right)^{\frac{3N}{2}} V^{N}.$$

(explanation:
$$\int_{\mathcal{R}} dq^{3N} = V^N$$
 $\int_{\mathcal{R}} e^{\left(\beta \sum_{i=1}^{3N} \frac{P_i^2}{2m}\right)} dp^2 = (2\pi m k_B T)^{\frac{3}{2}N}$)

The partition function is the very key to solve this problem. After obtaining it, let's look into the process where we use I to get a series of thermodynamic properties.

For the simplicity of expression, ">"is used instead of integrals.

$$Z = \sum_{i}^{\beta \epsilon_{i}}$$
, $E = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i}^{\beta \epsilon_{i}} \epsilon_{i}$, is represents all microscopic states. $\epsilon_{i} e^{\beta \epsilon_{i}} = \frac{\partial(e^{\beta \epsilon_{i}})}{\partial\beta}$, ofter finding this,

$$E = \frac{1}{X} \ge \frac{\partial(e^{\beta \epsilon_i})}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial \xi e^{\beta \epsilon_i}}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial \beta} = \frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial$$

Recall: dE=TdS-PdV (reversible process, no non-volume work, the number of particles is conserved)

$$\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_{S,N} = -P$$
 (pressure)

$$\frac{\partial (e^{\beta \epsilon_i})}{\partial V} = \frac{\partial (e^{\beta \epsilon_i})}{\partial \beta} \cdot \frac{\partial V}{\partial V} + \frac{\partial (e^{\beta \epsilon_i})}{\partial \epsilon_i} \cdot \frac{\partial V}{\partial \epsilon_i} = \beta e^{\beta \epsilon_i} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \epsilon_i}$$

$$P = \frac{-1}{Z} \sum_{k} \frac{1}{B} \cdot \frac{\partial(Q^{B}Ei)}{\partial V} = \frac{-1}{Z^{B}} \frac{\partial(\frac{\Sigma}{Z}Q^{BEi})}{\partial V} = \frac{-1}{B} \cdot \frac{1}{Z^{B}} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial V}$$

$$P = \frac{-1}{B} \frac{2\ln Z}{\partial V}$$

$$(3(dE + pdV) = \beta(d(\frac{3\ln Z}{\partial B}) - \frac{1}{B} \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial V}) + \frac{1}{B} \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial V} dV$$

$$= \beta d(\frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B}) - \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial V} dV$$
When other variables remain constant,
$$d \ln Z = \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B} dB + \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial V} dV$$

$$d(\beta \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B}) = \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B} dB + \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial V} dV$$

$$d(\beta \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B}) = \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B} dB + \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial V} dV$$

$$Recall: dE = T dS - P dV, dS = \frac{dE + P dV}{T}$$

$$B = \frac{-1}{k_{B}T} \frac{-1}{k_{B}T} (dE + p dV) = \frac{-1}{k_{B}} dS = d(\beta \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B} - \ln Z)$$

$$So, S = k_{B} (\ln Z - \beta \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B})$$

$$-TS = -k_{B}T \ln Z + \frac{3(\ln Z)}{\partial B} = -k_{B}T \ln Z + (-E)$$

$$E - TS = F = -k_{B}T \ln Z. \quad F \text{ is Helmholtz Free Energy}$$

$$F = -k_{B}T \ln Z = \frac{1}{B}$$

$$Recall: Z = \frac{1}{M!} (\frac{2\pi (m k_{B}T)}{h^{2}})^{\frac{3}{2}N} V^{N}.$$

page 7

$$|nZ = -|nN! + \frac{3}{2}N \ln(\frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2}) + N \ln V$$

$$P = \frac{-1}{\beta} \frac{\partial (\ln z)}{\partial V} = k_B T \frac{\partial (\ln z)}{\partial V} = k_B T \cdot N \cdot \frac{1}{V}$$
(The first two terms of $\ln Z$ is independent to V)
$$PV = N k_B T. \qquad ideal \ gas \ law$$
Or, we can take another approach:
$$dF = -SdT - PdV \qquad P = -\left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial V}\right)_{T,N}.$$

$$F = \frac{\ln Z}{\beta} = -\frac{1}{\beta} \ln N! + \frac{3N}{2\beta} \ln\left(\frac{2\pi m k_B T}{k^2}\right) + \frac{N}{\beta} \ln V$$

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial V} = \frac{N}{\beta} \cdot \frac{1}{V} \qquad P = \frac{-N}{\beta} \cdot \frac{1}{V} = N k_B T \cdot \frac{1}{V}$$

$$PV = N k_B T \qquad ideal \ gas \ law.$$

Reference Materials:

[1][4] Thermodynamics and Statistical Physics (5th Edition).
Zhicheng Wang, Higher Education Press, page 257-265

[2] Statistical Physics (5th Edition). Lev. Davidovich. Landau. Higher Education Press

[3][6]. Thermodynamics of Materials. - Lecture Notes.

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[5]. Computer Simulation of Materials — Technical Notes.

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