

# **Statistical Physics**

**F. MANDL**

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My aim has been to explain and call the basic laws of statistical physics and to apply them to a wide range of interesting problems. A reader who has mastered this book should have no difficulty with one of the more advanced chapters or with textbook problems. I have tried to give a limited insight to certain subjects, such as the theory of fluctuations, dynamics of reaction phenomena, and quantum theory. These are partly for reasons of time and space, but partly because the author has hardly any special knowledge in these fields. I have tried to give the reader a broad base not directed towards the foundations of statistical physics, but to give the reader a wide range of physical phenomena which are of interest in the study of statistical physics.

The development of statistical physics which I have given is self-contained, but the level of sophistication presupposes some previous acquaintance with the basic theory of gases, with the elementary descriptive ideas of atomic physics, and with the rudiments of quantum mechanics.

This book is intended for an undergraduate course in statistical physics. The laws of statistical mechanics and thermodynamics form one of the most fascinating branches of physics. This book will, I hope, impart some of this fascination to the reader. I have discarded the historical approach of treating thermodynamics and statistical mechanics as separate disciplines in favour of an integrated development. This has some decisive advantages. Firstly, it leads more directly to a deeper understanding since the statistical nature of the thermodynamic laws, which is their true explanation, is put in the forefront from the very beginning. Secondly, this approach emphasizes the atomic nature of matter which makes it more stimulating and, being the mode of thought of most working physicists, is a more useful training. Thirdly, this approach is more economical on time, an important factor in view of the rapid expansion of science.

It is a consequence of this growth in scientific knowledge that an undergraduate physics course can no longer teach the whole of physics. There are many ways of selecting material. I have tried to produce a book which allows maximum flexibility in its use: to enable readers to proceed by the quickest route to a particular topic; to enable teachers to select courses differing in length, difficulty and choice of applications. This flexibility is achieved by means of the flow diagram (on the inside front cover) which shows the logical connections of the chapters. In addition, some sections are marked with a star ★ and some material,

Since the books of the Manchester Physics Series were planned as an integrated course, the series gives a balanced account of those parts of physics which it treats. The level of sophistication varies: '*Properties of Matter*' is for the first year, '*Solid State Physics*' for the third. The other volumes are intermediate, allowing considerable flexibility in use. '*Electromagnetism*', '*Optics*', '*Electronics*' and '*Atomic Physics*' start from first year level and progress to material suitable for second or even third year courses. '*Statistical Physics*' is suitable for second or third year. The books have been written in such a way that each volume is self-contained and can be used independently of the others.

Although the series has been written for undergraduates at an English university, it is equally suitable for American university courses beyond the Freshman year. Each author's preface gives detailed information about the prerequisite material for his volume.

In producing a series such as this, a policy decision must be made about units. After the widest possible consultations we decided, jointly with the authors and the publishers, to adopt SI units interpreted liberally, largely following the recommendations of the International Union of Pure and Applied Physics. Electric and magnetic quantities are expressed in SI units. (Other systems are explained in the volume on electricity and magnetism.) We did not outlaw physical units such as the electron-volt. Nor were we pedantic about factors of 10 (is 0.012 kg preferable to 12 g?), about abbreviations (while s or sec may not be equally acceptable to a computer, they should be to a scientist), and about similarly trivial matters.

Preliminary editions of these books have been tried out at Manchester University and circulated widely to teachers at other universities, so that much feedback has been provided. We are extremely grateful to the many students and colleagues, at Manchester and elsewhere, who through criticisms, suggestions and stimulating discussions helped to improve the presentation and approach of the final version of these books. Our particular thanks go to the authors, for all the work they have done, for the many new ideas they have contributed, and for discussing patiently, and frequently accepting, our many suggestions and requests. We would also like to thank the publishers, John Wiley and Sons, who have been most helpful in every way, including the financing of the preliminary editions.

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## Preface

This book is intended for an undergraduate course in statistical physics. The laws of statistical mechanics and thermodynamics form one of the most fascinating branches of physics. This book will, I hope, impart some of this fascination to the reader. I have discarded the historical approach of treating thermodynamics and statistical mechanics as separate disciplines in favour of an integrated development. This has some decisive advantages. Firstly, it leads more directly to a deeper understanding since the statistical nature of the thermodynamic laws, which is their true explanation, is put in the forefront from the very beginning. Secondly, this approach emphasizes the atomic nature of matter which makes it more stimulating and, being the mode of thought of most working physicists, is a more useful training. Thirdly, this approach is more economical on time, an important factor in view of the rapid expansion of science.

It is a consequence of this growth in scientific knowledge that an undergraduate physics course can no longer teach the whole of physics. There are many ways of selecting material. I have tried to produce a book which allows maximum flexibility in its use: to enable readers to proceed by the quickest route to a particular topic; to enable teachers to select courses differing in length, difficulty and choice of applications. This flexibility is achieved by means of the flow diagram (on the inside front cover) which shows the logical connections of the chapters. In addition, some sections are marked with a star ★ and some material,

insufficient to justify a separate section, is printed on a tinted background. Material distinguished in either of these ways may be omitted. It is not needed later except very occasionally in similarly marked parts, where explicit cross-references are always given.

My aim has been to explain critically the basic laws of statistical physics and to apply them to a wide range of interesting problems. A reader who has mastered this book should have no difficulties with one of the more advanced treatises or with tackling quite realistic problems. I have limited myself to systems in equilibrium, omitting irreversible thermodynamics, fluctuation phenomena and transport theory. This was partly for reasons of time and space, but largely because these topics are hardly appropriate for a fairly elementary account. For this reason also, I have not discussed the foundations of statistical physics but have based the theory on some simple intuitively plausible axioms. The ultimate justification of this approach lies in its success.

The development of statistical physics which I have given is self-contained, but the level of sophistication presupposes some previous acquaintance with the kinetic theory of gases, with the elementary descriptive ideas of atomic physics and with the rudiments of quantum theory. Fortunately, very little of the latter is required.

Over the past ten years I have given various undergraduate and post-graduate courses on statistical physics at Manchester University. In its present form, this book developed out of a course given to second-year undergraduates in physics, chemical physics and electronic engineering. This course of 26 lectures, of 50 minutes each, approximately covered the unstarred sections of the book, as well as the material of chapter 5 and of sections 7.5, 7.7, 11.4 and 11.5, omitting all material printed on tinted background. In addition, students were expected to solve about 20 problems. The answers were corrected, returned together with sample solutions, and discussed in class.

The problems and hints for solving them form an important part of the book. Attempting the problems and *then* studying the hints will deepen the reader's understanding and develop his skill and self-confidence in facing new situations. The problems contain much interesting physics which might well have found its way into the main body of the text.

This book was preceded by a preliminary edition which was used in my lecture course and was also distributed fairly widely outside Manchester University. I have received many comments and suggestions for improvements and additions from readers. I also had many stimulating discussions with students and colleagues at Manchester. As a result the original text has been greatly improved. I would like to thank

all these people most warmly; there are too many of them to thank them all by name. However, I would like to express my appreciation for their help to Professor Henry Hall and to Dr. David Sandiford who read the whole manuscript and with whom I discussed difficult and obscure points until—temporarily at least—they seemed clear. Not only was this intellectual pursuit of great benefit to this book, but to me it was one of the joys of writing it.

May, 1970.  
Manchester, England.

F. MANDL

to equalization: i.e. if a hot and a cold body are put into thermal contact, the hot body cools down and the cold body warms up until both bodies are at the same temperature. This equalization is due to a net flow of energy from the hotter to the colder body. Such a flow of energy is called a flow of heat. When this flow of heat ceases, the two bodies are in thermal equilibrium. The basic fact of experience which enables one to compare the temperatures of two bodies by means of a third body is that if two bodies are each in thermal equilibrium with a third body they are also in thermal equilibrium with each other. This statement is sometimes referred to as the zeroth law of thermodynamics. To measure temperature, one can utilize any convenient property of matter which depends on its degree of hotness, such as the electric resistance of a platinum wire, the volume (i.e. length in a glass capillary) of a mass of mercury, the pressure of a given mass of gas contained in a fixed volume. For each of these thermometers one can then define a Celsius (centigrade) scale by calling the temperatures of the ice and steam points\*  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  and interpolating linearly for other temperatures. It turns out that these different temperature scales do not agree exactly (except at the fixed points, of course). They depend on the particular thermometer used. We shall see presently that this arbitrariness is removed by the second law of thermodynamics which enables one to define an *absolute temperature scale*, i.e. one which is independent of the experimental arrangement used for measuring the temperature. The physical meaning of the absolute temperature is revealed by statistical mechanics. It turns out to be a measure of the energy associated with the molecular, macroscopically unobserved, motions of a system.

Above we considered temperature equilibrium. More generally, let us consider an isolated system. This system may be in a state containing all sorts of pressure differences, temperature gradients, inhomogeneities of density, concentrations, etc. A system in such a state is of course not in equilibrium. It will change with time as such processes as pressure equalization, thermal conduction, diffusion, etc., occur. Left to itself, the system eventually reaches a state in which all these pressure gradients, etc., have disappeared and the system undergoes no further macroscopically observable changes. We call such a state an *equilibrium state*. Of course, this is not static equilibrium. Sufficiently refined experiments will show up the thermal motions, a typical example being Brownian motion. The time that a system requires to reach equilibrium depends

\* The ice point is defined as the temperature at which pure ice coexists in equilibrium with air-saturated water at a pressure of one standard atmosphere. The steam point is the temperature at which pure water and pure steam coexist in equilibrium at a pressure of one standard atmosphere.

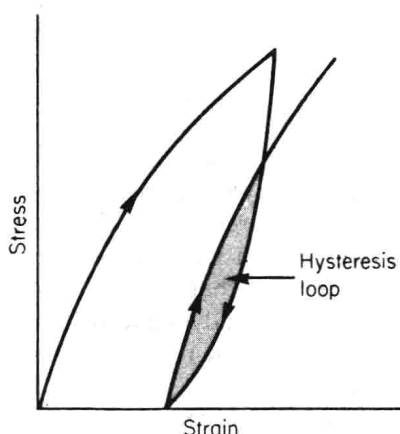


Fig. 1.4. Stress-strain relationship in a solid showing the hysteresis loop.

In general the equation of state of a substance is very complicated. It must be found from experiment and does not allow a simple analytic representation. The perfect (or ideal) gas is an exception. For real gases, at sufficiently low pressures, the pressure and volume of a fixed mass of gas are very nearly related by

$$PV = \text{const.} \quad (1.2)$$

at a given temperature. An equation such as (1.2), relating different states of a system, all at the *same* temperature, is called an *isotherm*. A perfect gas is defined to be a fluid for which the relation (1.2) holds *exactly* for an isotherm, i.e. a perfect gas represents an extrapolation to zero pressure from real gases. We can use this to define a (perfect) gas temperature scale  $T$  by the relation

$$T \propto \lim_{P \rightarrow 0} PV. \quad (1.3)$$

The gas temperature scale is then completely determined if we fix *one* point on it by *definition*. This point is taken as the triple point of water, i.e. the temperature at which ice, water and water vapour coexist in equilibrium. The reason for this choice is that the triple point corresponds to a unique temperature and pressure of the system (see section 8.3). The triple point temperature  $T_{tr}$  was chosen so that the size of the degree on the gas scale equals as nearly as possible the degree Celsius, i.e. according to the best available measurements there should be a



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Flow diagram

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# 1

## CHAPTER

# The first law of thermodynamics

### 1.1 MACROSCOPIC PHYSICS

Statistical physics is devoted to the study of the physical properties of macroscopic systems, i.e. systems consisting of a very large number of atoms or molecules. A piece of copper weighing a few grams or a litre of air at atmospheric pressure and room temperature are examples of macroscopic systems. In general the number of particles in such a system will be of the order of magnitude of Avogadro's number  $N_0 = 6 \times 10^{23}$ . Even if one knows the law of interaction between the particles, the enormousness of Avogadro's number precludes handling a macroscopic system in the way in which one would treat a simple system—say planetary motion according to classical mechanics or the hydrogen molecule according to quantum mechanics. One can never obtain experimentally a complete microscopic\* specification of such a system, i.e. a knowledge of some  $10^{23}$  coordinates. Even if one were given this initial information, one would not be able to solve the equations of motion; some  $10^{23}$  of them!

In spite of the enormous complexity of macroscopic bodies when viewed from an atomistic viewpoint, one knows from everyday experience

\* 'Microscopic' is here used in contrast to 'macroscopic'. It means a complete atomistic specification. It has, of course, nothing to do with an optical microscope.

as well as from precision experiments that macroscopic bodies obey quite definite laws. Thus when a hot and a cold body are put into thermal contact temperature equalization occurs; water at standard atmospheric pressure always boils at the same temperature (by definition called  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$ ); the pressure exerted by a dilute gas on a containing wall is given by the ideal gas laws. These examples illustrate that the laws of macroscopic bodies are quite different from those of mechanics or electromagnetic theory. They do not afford a complete microscopic description of a system (e.g. the position of each molecule of a gas at each instant of time). They provide certain macroscopic observable quantities, such as pressure or temperature. These represent averages over microscopic properties. Thus the macroscopic laws are of a statistical nature. But because of the enormous number of particles involved, the fluctuations which are an essential feature of a statistical theory turn out to be extremely small. In practice they can only be observed under very special conditions. In general they will be utterly negligible, and the statistical laws will in practice lead to statements of complete certainty.

To illustrate these ideas consider the pressure exerted by a gas on the walls of a containing vessel. We measure the pressure by means of a gauge attached to the vessel. We can think of this gauge as a freely movable piston to which a variable force  $F$  is applied, for example by means of a spring (Fig. 1.1). When the piston is at rest in equilibrium the force  $F$  balances the pressure  $P$  of the gas:  $P = F/A$  where  $A$  is the area of the piston.

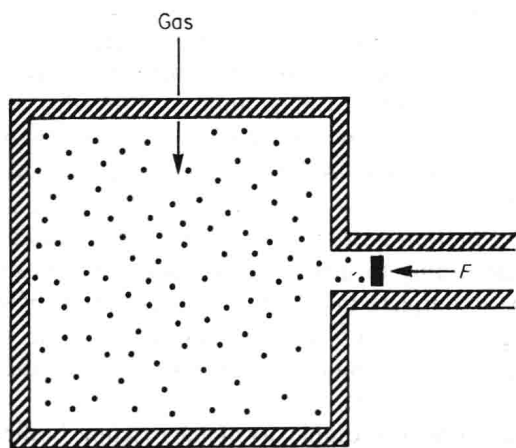


Fig. 1.1. Gas exerting pressure on movable piston, balanced by external applied force  $F$ .

In contrast to this macroscopic determination of pressure consider how the pressure actually comes about.\* According to the kinetic theory the molecules of the gas are undergoing elastic collisions with the walls. The pressure due to these collisions is certainly not a strictly constant time-independent quantity. On the contrary the instantaneous force acting on the piston is a rapidly fluctuating quantity. By the pressure of the gas we mean the average of this fluctuating force over a time interval sufficiently long for many collisions to have occurred in this time. We may then use the steady-state velocity distribution of the molecules to calculate the momentum transfer per unit area per unit time from the molecules to the wall, i.e. the pressure. The applied force  $F$  acting on the piston can of course only approximately balance these irregular impulses due to molecular collisions. On average the piston is at rest but it will perform small irregular vibrations about its equilibrium position as a consequence of the individual molecular collisions. These small irregular movements are known as Brownian motion (Flowers and Mendoza,<sup>21</sup> section 4.4.2). In the case of our piston, and generally, these minute movements are totally unobservable. It is only with very small macroscopic bodies (such as tiny particles suspended in a liquid) or very sensitive apparatus (such as the very delicate suspension of a galvanometer—see section 7.9.1) that Brownian motion can be observed. It represents one of the ultimate limitations on the accuracy of measurements that can be achieved.

There are two approaches to the study of macroscopic physics. Historically the oldest approach, developed mainly in the first half of the 19th century by such men as Carnot, Clausius, William Thomson (the later Lord Kelvin), Robert Mayer and Joule, is that of classical thermodynamics. This is based on a small number of basic principles—the laws of thermodynamics—which are deductions from and generalizations of a large body of experiments on macroscopic systems. They are phenomenological laws, justified by their success in describing macroscopic phenomena. They are not derived from a microscopic picture but avoid all atomic concepts and operate exclusively with macroscopic variables, such as pressure, volume, temperature, describing the properties of systems in terms of these. Of course, the avoidance of atomic concepts severely limits the information that thermodynamics can provide about a system. In particular, the equation of state (e.g. for an ideal gas:  $PV = RT$ ) which relates the macroscopic variables and which distinguishes one system from another must be derived from experiment. But there are many situations where a microscopic description is not

\* For a detailed derivation of the pressure of a perfect gas from kinetic theory, see Flowers and Mendoza,<sup>21</sup> section 5.1.2, R. Becker,<sup>5</sup> section 24, or Present,<sup>11</sup> Chapter 2.

necessary or not practicable and where thermodynamics proves its power to make far-reaching deductions of great generality.\*

The second approach to macroscopic physics is that of statistical mechanics. This starts from the atomic constitution of matter and endeavours to derive the laws of macroscopic bodies from the atomic properties. This line of approach originated in Maxwell's kinetic theory of gases which led to the profound works of Boltzmann and of Gibbs. There are two aspects to statistical mechanics. One aim is to *derive* the thermodynamic laws of macroscopic bodies from the laws governing their atomic behaviour. This is a fascinating but very difficult field. Nowadays one has a fairly general understanding of the underlying physics but most physicists working in the field would probably agree that no real proofs exist. In this book we shall not consider these aspects of statistical mechanics and shall only give arguments which make the thermodynamic laws plausible from the microscopic viewpoint.

The second objective of statistical mechanics is to derive the properties of a macroscopic system—for example, its equation of state—from its microscopic properties. Essentially this is done by averaging over unobservable microscopic coordinates leaving only macroscopic coordinates such as the volume of a body, as well as other macroscopic variables, such as temperature or specific heat, which have no counterpart in mechanics and which represent averages over unobservable microscopic coordinates.

This division of macroscopic physics into thermodynamics and statistical mechanics is largely of historical origin. We shall not follow this development. Instead we shall emphasize the unity of the subject, showing how the two aspects illuminate each other, and we shall use whichever is more appropriate.

## 1.2 SOME THERMAL CONCEPTS

Some of the variables which were introduced in the last section to describe a macroscopic system, such as its volume or pressure, have a direct meaning in terms of mechanical concepts, e.g. one can measure the pressure of gas in a container by means of a mercury manometer. However, some of the concepts are quite foreign to mechanics. Of these the one most basic to the whole of statistical thermodynamics is that of temperature. Originally temperature is related to the sensations of 'hot' and 'cold'. The most remarkable feature of temperature is its tendency

\* For a superb if not easy account of classical thermodynamics, showing its aesthetic appeal, logical structure and power, see the book by Pippard.<sup>2</sup>



to equalization: i.e. if a hot and a cold body are put into thermal contact, the hot body cools down and the cold body warms up until both bodies are at the same temperature. This equalization is due to a net flow of energy from the hotter to the colder body. Such a flow of energy is called a flow of heat. When this flow of heat ceases, the two bodies are in thermal equilibrium. The basic fact of experience which enables one to compare the temperatures of two bodies by means of a third body is that if two bodies are each in thermal equilibrium with a third body they are also in thermal equilibrium with each other. This statement is sometimes referred to as the zeroth law of thermodynamics. To measure temperature, one can utilize any convenient property of matter which depends on its degree of hotness, such as the electric resistance of a platinum wire, the volume (i.e. length in a glass capillary) of a mass of mercury, the pressure of a given mass of gas contained in a fixed volume. For each of these thermometers one can then define a Celsius (centigrade) scale by calling the temperatures of the ice and steam points\*  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$  and interpolating linearly for other temperatures. It turns out that these different temperature scales do not agree exactly (except at the fixed points, of course). They depend on the particular thermometer used. We shall see presently that this arbitrariness is removed by the second law of thermodynamics which enables one to define an *absolute temperature scale*, i.e. one which is independent of the experimental arrangement used for measuring the temperature. The physical meaning of the absolute temperature is revealed by statistical mechanics. It turns out to be a measure of the energy associated with the molecular, macroscopically unobserved, motions of a system.

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