

ON THE INTERMEDIATE REPRESENTATION IN THERMODYNAMICS OF IRREVERSIBLE PROCESSES

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The properties of the intermediate representation for thermodynamics of irreversible processes are described. In this representation, m forces X_k and $n-m$ fluxes J_i are chosen as the n independent variables. The symmetry properties, physical meaning and transformational properties of this representation are examined. It is found *i.a.* that the matrix M of phenomenological coefficients is not entirely symmetrical, but consists of four submatrices, two of them being symmetric and two antisymmetric. It is also shown that the transformation of Coleman and Truesdell [5] is a special case of the intermediate representation.

1. Introduction

In phenomenological linear non-equilibrium thermodynamics [1,2], $n(i = 1, \dots, n)$ irreversible processes are described in terms of $2n$ variables: n fluxes J_i and n forces X_i . Of these, only n variables are treated as independent, the remaining n ones being regarded as linear functions of the former. The choice of the n independent variables is rather arbitrary from the formal phenomenological point of view and the most frequent procedure is to write the flows J_i as functions of the forces X_i

$$J_i = \bar{\Sigma}_k L_{ik} X_k, \quad |J\rangle = L|X\rangle; \quad (1.1)$$

$|J\rangle$ denotes a one-column matrix. Sometimes, too, the choice is made the other way round, thus

$$X_k = \bar{\Sigma}_i R_{ki} J_i, \quad |X\rangle = R|J\rangle. \quad (1.2)$$

The elements L_{ik} of the admittance matrix L , and R_{ik} of the resistance matrix R are referred to as the phenomenological coefficients. We shall term the first case the admittance or L -representation and the second — the resistance or R -representation. If no relation exists of the type

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\Sigma}_i a_i J_i &= 0, & \langle a|J\rangle &= 0, \\ \text{or} \quad \bar{\Sigma}_i b_i X_i &= 0, & \langle b|X\rangle &= 0, \end{aligned} \quad (1.3)$$

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(\langle being the transpose of $|>$ i.e. a one-row matrix), with at least one non-zero a_i or b_i i.e. if all the fluxes and all the forces are linearly independent, the matrices L and R are connected, as is seen immediately from (1.1) and (1.2), by the relation

$$L = R^{-1}, \quad R = L^{-1}, \quad (1.4)$$

which gives the direct connection between both representations.

In the case when L and R are singular (i.e. when at least one relation of the form (1.3) exists), it is also possible to find the relations between both representations (see [3]). In this paper we shall restrict ourselves to the case of independent fluxes and forces.

Now, if the J_i are time derivatives of the thermodynamical parameters, and if the forces X_i are chosen in such a manner that

$$\sigma = \sum_{i=1}^n J_i X_i = \langle J|X \rangle, \quad (1.5)$$

σ being the entropy production (and if no relation of the type (3) exists), the well-known Onsager theorem states that

$$L_{ik} = L_{ki}, \quad R_{ik} = R_{ki}; \quad L = L^T, \quad R = R^T. \quad (1.6)$$

The use of the L - or R -representation depends on the physical situation in the case considered. As already mentioned, the L -representation is more commonly used. However, a third case is also possible, namely, we can treat as independent only some, say, m forces and thus $n-m$ fluxes. This case can be written down as follows:

Let us select as independent variables m forces X_k ($k = 1, \dots, m$) and $n-m$ fluxes J_k ($k = m+1, \dots, n$). The remaining fluxes J_i ($i = 1, \dots, m$) and forces X_i ($i = m+1, \dots, n$) will be dealt with as linear functions of the first n ones. Then denoting the independent variables by Y_i and the dependent ones by Z_i ($i = 1, \dots, n$) we can write the phenomenological equations as follows:

$$Z_i = \bar{\Sigma}_k M_{ik} Y_k, \quad |Z\rangle = M|Y\rangle, \quad (1.7)$$

$$\text{with} \quad Z_i = \begin{cases} J_i & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m \\ X_i & \text{for } i = m+1, \dots, n \end{cases}$$

$$Y_i = \begin{cases} X_i & \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m \\ J_i & \text{for } i = m+1, \dots, n \end{cases}$$

$$\text{i.e.,} \quad \begin{aligned} \langle Z| &= || J_1 \dots J_m X_{m+1} \dots X_n || \\ \langle Y| &= || X_1 \dots X_m J_{m+1} \dots J_n ||. \end{aligned}$$

It is obvious that this does not affect the form (1.5) of the entropy production

$$\langle Z|Y \rangle = \langle J|X \rangle = \sigma. \quad (1.8)$$

There are many physical situations which require such a choice: in fact, this is the choice made e.g. in the description of thermoelectric or thermomagnetic phenomena, where for various phenomena various J and X are regarded as independent (see, e.g., [2], Ch. 13,

[4], Ch. 17). Now, no formal description of this intermediate, or mixed, or — as we shall call it — M -representation has been proposed as yet. The purpose of this paper is to give such a formal description of the M -representation; as we shall see below, its properties are not trivially related to those of the L -representation, as is the case of the R -representation (in the case of independent fluxes and forces) where, in view of Eqs (1.4) all the properties of the matrix L (as *e.g.* its symmetry properties) are immediately transmitted to the matrix R .

2. Symmetry properties

Let us now search for the relations between the matrix M and the matrices L and R . For this purpose let us first decompose the matrices L, R, M , each into four submatrices, as follows:

$$L = \left\| \begin{array}{c|c} L^{mm} & L^{m\mu} \\ \hline L^{\mu m} & L^{\mu\mu} \end{array} \right\|, \quad R = \left\| \begin{array}{c|c} R^{mm} & R^{m\mu} \\ \hline R^{\mu m} & R^{\mu\mu} \end{array} \right\|, \quad M = \left\| \begin{array}{c|c} M^{mm} & M^{m\mu} \\ \hline M^{\mu m} & M^{\mu\mu} \end{array} \right\|, \quad (2.1)$$

where the elements of the submatrices are

$$\begin{aligned} L^{mm}_{ik} &\equiv L_{ik} & \text{with} & \quad i, k = 1, \dots, m \\ L^{m\mu}_{ik} &= L_{ik} & \text{with} & \quad i = 1, \dots, m; \quad k = m+1, \dots, n; \text{ etc.} \end{aligned}$$

and where μ stands for $n-m$. This decomposition follows from our choice of the independent variables and is rather obvious. (It should be remembered that matrices $L^{m\mu}$ etc. are not, in general, square matrices.)

The three schemes (1.1), (1.2) and (1.7) of phenomenological equations can now be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} |J>^m &= L^{mm} |X>^m + L^{m\mu} |X>^\mu \\ |J>^\mu &= L^{\mu m} |X>^m + L^{\mu\mu} |X>^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (2.2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} |X>^m &= R^{mm} |J>^m + R^{m\mu} |J>^\mu \\ |X>^\mu &= R^{\mu m} |J>^m + R^{\mu\mu} |J>^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} |Z>^m &= M^{mm} |Y>^m + M^{m\mu} |Y>^\mu \\ |Z>^\mu &= M^{\mu m} |Y>^m + M^{\mu\mu} |Y>^\mu \end{aligned} \quad (2.4)$$

with

$$\begin{aligned} |J>^m &= |Z>^m = ||J_1 \dots J_m||^T, \\ |J>^\mu &= |Y>^\mu = ||J_{m+1} \dots J_n||^T, \text{ etc.} \end{aligned}$$

Eqs (2.4) in more clear form are

$$\begin{aligned} |J>^m &= M^{mm} |X>^m + M^{m\mu} |J>^\mu, \\ |X>^\mu &= M^{\mu m} |X>^m + M^{\mu\mu} |J>^\mu. \end{aligned} \quad (2.4a)$$

Now, solving (22) with respect to $|Z\rangle$ (i.e., $|J>^m$, $|X>^\mu$), we have

$$\begin{aligned} |J>^m &= [L^{mm} - L^{m\mu}(L^{\mu\mu})^{-1}L^{\mu m}]|X>^m + L^{m\mu}(L^{\mu\mu})^{-1}|J>^\mu, \\ |X>^m &= -(L^{\mu\mu})^{-1}L^{\mu m}|X>^m + (L^{\mu\mu})^{-1}|J>^\mu, \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

and similarly from (2.3)

$$\begin{aligned} |J>^m &= (R^{mm})^{-1}|X>^m - (R^{mm})^{-1}R^{m\mu}|J>^\mu, \\ |X>^\mu &= R^{\mu m}(R^{mm})^{-1}|X>^m + [R^{\mu\mu} - R^{\mu m}(R^{mm})^{-1}R^{m\mu}]|J>^\mu. \end{aligned} \quad (2.6)$$

Comparing (2.5), (2.6) and (2.4a) we obtain the required relations between M and L, R

$$\begin{aligned} M^{mm} &= L^{mm} - L^{m\mu}(L^{\mu\mu})^{-1}L^{\mu m} = (R^{mm})^{-1}, \\ M^{m\mu} &= L^{m\mu}(L^{\mu\mu})^{-1} = -(R^{mm})^{-1}R^{m\mu}, \\ M^{\mu m} &= -(L^{\mu\mu})^{-1}L^{\mu m} = R^{\mu m}(R^{mm})^{-1}, \\ M^{\mu\mu} &= (L^{\mu\mu})^{-1} = R^{\mu\mu} - R^{\mu m}(R^{mm})^{-1}R^{m\mu}. \end{aligned} \quad (2.7)$$

The symmetry properties (1.6) of matrix L yield for its submatrices

$$\begin{aligned} L^{mm} &= (L^{mm})^T, \quad L^{m\mu} = (L^{\mu m})^T, \quad L^{\mu\mu} = (L^{\mu\mu})^T, \\ (L^{mm})^{-1} &= [(L^{mm})^{-1}]^T, \quad (L^{\mu\mu})^{-1} = [(L^{\mu\mu})^{-1}]^T, \end{aligned} \quad (2.8)$$

and similarly for submatrices R . Eqs (2.7) and (2.8) give the following symmetry properties for the matrix M :

$$\begin{aligned} M^{mm} &= (M^{mm})^T, \quad M^{\mu\mu} = (M^{\mu\mu})^T, \\ M^{m\mu} &= -(M^{\mu m})^T, \end{aligned} \quad (2.9)$$

i.e. the whole matrix M is, despite the matrices L and R , not symmetric. It consists of two symmetric square submatrices (of orders $m \times m$, $(n-m) \times (n-m)$, respectively) and of two mutually antisymmetric rectangular matrices (of orders $m \times (n-m)$, $(n-m) \times m$, respectively).

For an illustration, let us consider the simplest case of two independent processes. We have, in turn,

$$\sigma = J_1 X_1 + J_2 X_2, \quad (2.10)$$

$$\begin{aligned} J_1 &= L_{11} X_1 + L_{12} X_2, \\ J_2 &= L_{12} X_1 + L_{22} X_2, \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= R_{11} J_1 + R_{12} J_2, \\ X_2 &= R_{12} J_1 + R_{22} J_2, \end{aligned} \quad (2.12)$$

where the symmetry relations $L_{12} = L_{21}$, $R_{12} = R_{21}$, were used. In the M -representation the phenomenological equations are

$$\begin{aligned} J_1 &= M_{11} X_1 + M_{12} J_2, \\ J_2 &= M_{21} X_1 + M_{22} J_2, \end{aligned} \quad (2.13)$$

and we easily find from the above that

$$\begin{aligned} M_{11} &= \frac{L_{11}}{1-L_{12}R_{12}} = L_{11} - \frac{L_{12}^2}{L_{22}} = \frac{1}{R_{11}}, \\ M_{12} &= \frac{L_{12}R_{22}}{1-L_{12}R_{12}} = \frac{L_{12}}{L_{22}} = -\frac{R_{12}}{R_{11}}, \\ M_{21} &= \frac{L_{11}R_{12}}{1-L_{12}R_{12}} = -\frac{L_{12}}{L_{22}} = \frac{R_{12}}{R_{11}}, \\ M_{22} &= \frac{R_{22}}{1-L_{12}R_{12}} = \frac{1}{L_{22}} = R_{22} - \frac{R_{12}^2}{R_{11}}, \end{aligned} \quad (2.14)$$

and thus $M_{12} = -M_{21}$, and the phenomenological equations can be written

$$\begin{aligned} J_1 &= M_{11}X_{11} + M_{12}J_2, \\ X_2 &= -M_{12}X_1 + M_{22}J_2. \end{aligned} \quad (2.15)$$

3. Physical meaning of the M -matrix

It is easy to see from the relations (2.7) that the submatrix M^{mm} partakes of the physical character of the admittance (conductivity) matrix, the submatrix $M^{\mu\mu}$ — of that of the resistance matrix whereas submatrices $M^{m\mu}$ and $M^{\mu m}$ have no definite physical character, as being the products of factors of the resistance and admittance type.

Let us examine more precisely the meaning of the components of the M -matrix, especially of the diagonal ones. First let us take up once more the example at the end of the preceding section.

Let us remark that both the coefficient L_{11} and the coefficient $M_{11} = L_{11} - \frac{L_{12}^2}{L_{22}}$ have the meaning of a conductivity in process 1, though in different conditions: L_{11} gives the value of the conductivity (of the process 1) in the absence of the field of process 2 (*i.e.* when $X_2 = 0$) while M_{11} gives that value in the absence of the flow of process 2 ($J_2 = 0$)

$$L_{11} = \left(\frac{J_1}{X_1} \right)_{X_2=0}, \quad M_{11} = \left(\frac{J_1}{X_1} \right)_{J_2=0}. \quad (3.1)$$

Similarly, R_{22} and M_{22} determine two resistivities of the process 2 in two different conditions

$$R_{22} = \left(\frac{X_2}{J_2} \right)_{J_1=0}, \quad M_{22} = \left(\frac{X_2}{J_2} \right)_{X_1=0}. \quad (3.2)$$

The above interpretation can be easily extended to the case of many simultaneous processes: both L_{ii} and M_{ii}^{mm} determine the conductivities of the process i ; or: both R_{ii} and $M_{ii}^{\mu\mu}$ determine the resistivities of the process i , respective of conditions imposed on the system. L_{ii} is the conductivity of the process i in the absence of all the forces except X_i ; M_{ii}^{mm} — in the absence of the $m-1$ forces $X_{j \neq i}$ and of the μ (remaining) flows. R_{ii} is the

resistance of the process i in the absence of all flows except J_i and $M_{ii}^{\mu\mu}$ — in the absence of the $(\mu-1)$ flows $J_{j \neq 1}$ and the m remaining forces

$$\begin{aligned} L_{ii} &= \left(\frac{J_i}{X_i} \right)_{X_j=0} & (i, j = 1, \dots, n; i \neq j) \\ M_{ii}^{mm} &= \left(\frac{J_i}{X_i} \right)_{X_j=0, J_k=0} & (i, j = 1, \dots, m; i \neq j; k = m+1, \dots, n) \\ M_{ii}^{\mu\mu} &= \left(\frac{X_i}{J_i} \right)_{J_j=0, X_k=0} & (i, j = m+1, \dots, n; i \neq j; k = 1, \dots, m) \quad (3.3) \\ R_{ii} &= \left(\frac{X_i}{J_i} \right)_{J_j=0} & (i, j = 1, \dots, n; i \neq j). \end{aligned}$$

In a similar manner we can interpret the cross-coefficients M_{ij} for $i \neq j$. Namely, M_{ij}^{mmm} determines the magnitude of the flow J_i given rise to by the unit force X_j , in the absence of the other forces and flows, respectively (see below, Formulas (3.4)), while L_{ij} determines the same effect in the absence of all forces except X_j . $M_{ij}^{\mu\mu}$ determines the magnitude of the flow J_i arising from the unit flow J_j , in the absence of the other forces and flows, according to the indices m and μ . $M_{ij}^{\mu\mu}$ determines the magnitude of the force (field) X_i due to the unit force X_j , and finally $M_{ij}^{\mu\mu}$ — the same, as caused by the unit flow J_j , in the absence of the respective other forces and flows, while R_{ij} also determines the last effect, although when all other forces can differ from zero but all flows except J_j are zero

$$M_{ij}^{mm} = \left(\frac{J_i}{X_j} \right)_{X_k=0, J_l=0} \quad (i, j, k = 1, \dots, m; j \neq k; l = m+1, \dots, n) \quad (3.4a)$$

$$M_{ij}^{m\mu} = \left(\frac{J_i}{J_j} \right)_{X_k=0, J_l=0} \quad (i, k = 1, \dots, m; j, l = m+1, \dots, n; j \neq l) \quad (3.4b)$$

$$M_{ij}^{\mu m} = \left(\frac{X_i}{X_j} \right)_{J_k=0, X_l=0} \quad (j, k = m+1, \dots, n; j, l = 1, \dots, m; j \neq l) \quad (3.4c)$$

$$M_{ij}^{\mu\mu} = \left(\frac{X_i}{J_j} \right)_{J_k=0, X_l=0} \quad (i, j, k = m+1, \dots, n; j \neq k; l = 1, \dots, m) \quad (3.4d)$$

$$L_{ij} = \left(\frac{J_i}{X_j} \right)_{X_k=0} \quad (i, j, k = 1, \dots, n; j \neq k) \quad (3.4e)$$

$$R_{ij} = \left(\frac{X_i}{J_j} \right)_{J_k=0} \quad (i, j, k = 1, \dots, n; j \neq k). \quad (3.4f)$$

For example, from Eqs (2.13) we have

$$M_{12} = \left(\frac{J_1}{J_2} \right)_{X_1=0}, \quad M_{21} = \left(\frac{X_2}{X_1} \right)_{J_2=0}. \quad (3.5)$$

The symmetry relations (2.9) yield also that

$$\left(\frac{J_i}{X_j}\right)_{X_{k \neq j}=0, J_l=0} = \left(\frac{J_j}{X_i}\right)_{X_{k \neq j}=0, J_l=0} \quad (i, j, k = 1, \dots, m; i \neq j; l = m+1, \dots, n) \quad (3.6a)$$

$$\left(\frac{X_i}{J_j}\right)_{J_{k \neq j}=0, X_l=0} = \left(\frac{X_j}{J_i}\right)_{J_{k \neq j}=0, X_l=0} \quad (i, j, k = m+1, \dots, n; i \neq j; l = 1, \dots, m) \quad (3.6b)$$

and

$$\left(\frac{J_i}{J_j}\right)_{J_{k \neq j}=0, X_l=0} = - \left(\frac{X_j}{X_i}\right)_{X_{l \neq j}=0, J_k=0} \quad (i, l = 1, \dots, m; j, k = m+1, \dots, n). \quad (3.6c)$$

This last relation expresses the fact that some of the coupled cross-effects are interrelated not by the simple symmetry relations, but by the antisymmetric ones. For example, from (3.5) and (2.14) we have

$$\left(\frac{J_1}{J_2}\right)_{X_1=0} = - \left(\frac{X_2}{X_1}\right)_{J_2=0} \quad (n = 2). \quad (3.7)$$

4. Transformation properties

We can distinguish here two different kinds of linear transformations of flows and forces. First, we can consider what we term homogeneous transformations, written as follows:

$$|J^*> = a|J>, \quad |X^*> = b|X>, \quad (4.1)$$

with at least one element of the matrix a and b different from zero. The new (transformed) flows J_i^* now are linear functions of the old flows J_i and the new forces X_i^* are linear functions of the old forces X_i .

The second kind of linear transformation can be referred to as inhomogeneous and can be written in terms of our variables Y_i, Z_i as follows:

$$|Y^*> = a|Y>, \quad |Z^*> = b|Z>. \quad (4.2)$$

In this case, obviously, the new flows J_i^* are linear functions of both the old flows J_i and the old forces X_i , and similarly the new forces X_i^* .

It is easily proved that in order to preserve the invariance of entropy production,

$$\sigma = \langle J|X \rangle = \langle J^*|X^* \rangle,$$

or

$$\sigma = \langle Z|Y \rangle = \langle Z^*|Y^* \rangle, \quad (4.3)$$

in either case, (4.1) and (4.2), the following relation has to be fulfilled:

$$b = (a^{-1})^T \quad (4.4)$$

(if a^{-1} exists).

The phenomenological equations in the L - and M -representation are written in both cases in the form

$$|J^*> = L^*|X^*>, \quad |Z^*> = M^*|Y^*>, \quad (4.5)$$

and we shall search for the properties of the transformed phenomenological matrix M .

Let us first examine the first case (4.1). We could indeed find the relations between the matrices M and M^* and derive from these the symmetry properties of the transformed matrix M^* , but in this case the simpler way is the following:

It can be easily proved (see e.g. [2]) that the transformed matrix L^* has the same symmetry properties as the matrix L . Since the transformed matrix M^* is connected with the transformed matrix L^* by the same relations as the matrix M with the matrix L i.e. by Eqs (2.7), and since the submatrices of L^* have the properties (2.8), the matrix M^* has the same symmetry properties as the matrix M . We can thus formulate the following theorem:

A linear homogeneous transformations of flows and forces, such that the entropy production remains unchanged, does not affect the symmetry properties of any of the phenomenological matrices, L , R , or M .

Let us now examine the second case (4.2). From (4.2), (4.5) and (4.4) we have

$$M^* = bMb^T = (a^{-1})^T M (a^{-1}), \quad (4.6)$$

but this relation does not provide any information about the symmetry properties of M^* . Indeed, we have

$$(M^*)^T = bM^T b^T \quad (4.7)$$

and, because $M^T \neq \pm M$, we know only that $(M^*)^T \neq M^*$. We now divide the matrices a , b , M^* into submatrices, according to the subdivision of the matrix M (see (2.1)). It is readily verified that the submatrices of M^* are given by

$$\begin{aligned} M^{*mm} &= (b^{mm} M^{mm} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu m})(b^{mm})^T + (b^{mm} M^{m\mu} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu\mu})(b^{\mu\mu})^T \\ M^{*m\mu} &= (b^{mm} M^{mm} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu m})(b^{\mu\mu})^T + (b^{m\mu} M^{m\mu} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu\mu})(b^{\mu\mu})^T, \\ M^{*\mu m} &= (b^{\mu m} M^{mm} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu m})(b^{mm})^T + (b^{\mu m} M^{m\mu} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu\mu})(b^{\mu\mu})^T, \\ M^{*\mu\mu} &= (b^{\mu m} M^{mm} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu m})(b^{\mu\mu})^T + (b^{\mu m} M^{m\mu} + b^{\mu\mu} M^{\mu\mu})(b^{\mu\mu})^T. \end{aligned} \quad (4.8)$$

Eqs (4.8) show that the submatrices of M^* do not possess the same symmetry properties as the submatrices of M , so that the matrix M^* as a whole has no symmetry at all. The same result is obtained for the matrices L^* and R^* (we do not write explicitly the corresponding formulas as they are rather complicated in this case). We can now formulate the following (second) theorem:

A linear homogeneous transformation of the variables Y , Z (i.e. inhomogeneous with respect to the flows J and forces X), such that the entropy production remains unchanged, destroys completely the symmetry properties of all phenomenological matrices, L , R , and M .

It is easy to see that the above theorem can be extended: *The linear transformation inhomogeneous in both Y , Z , and J , X , also leads in general to asymmetrical transformed matrices L^* , R^* and M^* ,*

Let us mention that a few years ago Coleman and Truesdell [5] proposed a special linear inhomogeneous transformation of flows and forces (somewhat later generalized by Nettleton [6]), which yielded an asymmetrical transformed matrix L^* . This transformation was

$$|J^*> = |J> + W|X>, \quad |X^*> = |X>, \quad (4.9)$$

with

$$W = -W^T. \quad (4.10)$$

It is readily proved that (4.9) with the condition (4.10) leads to

$$L^* = \pm L^{*T} \quad (L = L^T). \quad (4.11)$$

Thus (4.9) represents a special case of the above theorem.

Let us remark that our transformation (4.2) does not mix the independent and dependent variables, contrary to the transformation (4.9).

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