Chemical Thermodynamics at a Glance

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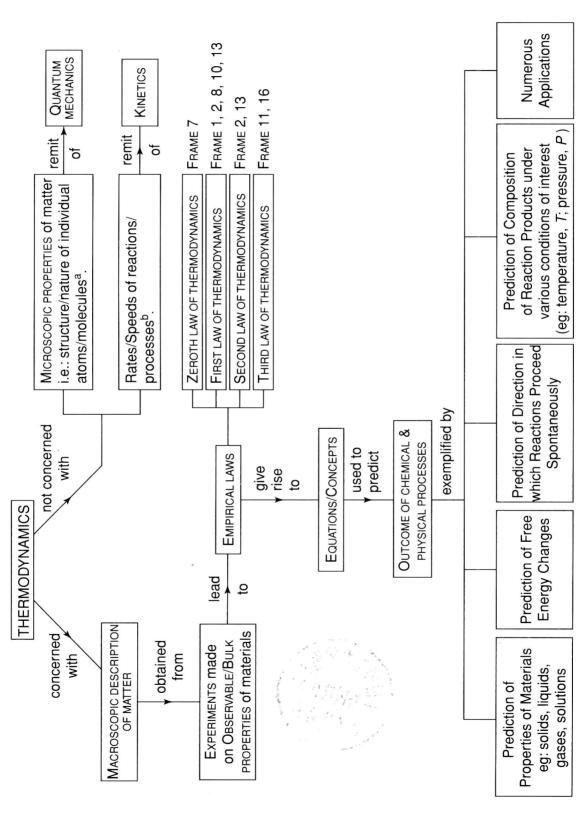
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Frame 7 The evolution, nature and limitations of thermodynamics. See Note 7.1.

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To my colleagues at universities here and abroad who give their friendship and to my numerous students, past and present, who are always a source of delight.

To Sheila Anne Jenkins.

Preface

When Blackwell approached me about writing this book I was pleased to respond. With many decades of experience in teaching thermodynamics and with an understanding of the need to present the underlying mathematics needed in a palatable way, I felt up to the challenge. Armed with the results of Blackwell's own suvey of both UK and American universities' teaching needs in this area the contents seemed pretty self-evident.

Students these days come to university armed with a very varied and often quite novel range of experience and this enforces the need to present difficult subjects like thermodynamics in a logical (but, at the same time, quite thorough) way.

Such is the aim of this text. Thermodynamics and the necessary mathematics are embodied as a series of 54 'Frames' plus an Appendix. These frames are multicrossreferenced which enables the text to be used in a variety of ways:

- as a means of reading up on thermodynamics and using the 'bite-sized' frames as the basis of one hour study periods
 which develop in a logical and progressive manner and cover the necessary thermodynamics for most undergraduate science
 courses.
- as an aide memoire to review course material already received. In this mode one can start reading at any Frame and because
 these are liberally cross-referenced the reader will be directed to different sections of the book according to need;
- as a last minute revision aid for examinations, to review specific parts of the syllabus quickly and easily. The extensive index to the frames provides an immediate location of the relevant Frames needed to highlight a given topic. The division of the material into short sections makes this much easier than ploughing through the standard text. The use of bullet points is intended to further clarify the important points. The overview presented in Frame 54, and the figure printed inside the front cover of the book will also be found useful;
- The book can also be used at the post-graduate level to supplement, refresh and reinforce earlier teaching.

I have tried to contain within the 54 Frames presented, sufficient discussion of the necessary maths, as well as of the relevant thermodynamics suitable for an undergraduate course (such as is provided here at Warwick).

The author has drawn widely on his accumulated knowledge acquired by reading the many texts (too numerous to mention) available in thermodynamics and it is from the authors of such texts that many of the ideas presented have their origins and to whom thanks are due. Also there is a degree of originality built into many of the Frames that attempts to present some of the more difficult material in a new light.

The author, as well as being an acclaimed teacher, is also an active researcher who has recently developed a new approach to thermodynamics (VBT – Volume Based Thermodynamics) published in high impact international journals, which is proving useful as a research tool.

The author has recently reported an entirely new approach for the acquisition of thermochemical data for condensed materials. The author lectures widely in this country and abroad.

I am indebteded to my colleague Dr Joe Lee (University of Manchester) who gave of his time willingly and diligently in order to read the manuscript of this text and make the many useful and improving comments he did. His insightfulness led to many interesting and stimulating phonecalls and I am grateful to him both as a personal friend and as one of my former teachers. Naturally any errors that may remain are totally my responsibility. I also acknowledge the constant help and support given to me by Sheila Anne Jenkins in all of my projects, not least, in the preparation of the manuscript for this book.

I hope that you may find this text useful and I would be glad to hear from students, worldwide, about their experiences with the text in the hope that any future edition can reflect on these and improve presentation whenever necessary.

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0. Symbols and Notation

Thermodynamics employs quite complicated notation which, at first sight, may give the impression of great difficulty. This can be totally misleading and should not be allowed to discourage beginners. In actual fact the notation is intended to make things *easier* to understand in most cases.

Thus, in this text, several pre-amble frames are first presented which explain areas where experience of teaching has shown students have uncertainties or difficulties. The key is to read these frames carefully and to become familiar with the meaning, not forgetting to employ the extensive cross-referencing between the various frames to supplement your knowledge.

The purpose of the tables below is:

- To give the IUPAC standard notation for symbols which are commonly abbreviated to rather more simple notation in this text
- These abbreviations were consciously made in order that the text did not become cluttered with extended symbols and terminology. To have retained the suggested notation, on the grounds of rigour, would have led to a text that might have appeared to be more complicated than it is. So the form presented is to give, in the table below, details of the IUPAC notation and alongside this give a compendium of symbols used in the text. Cross-reference can then be made at will (see also *Quantities, Units and Symbols in Physical Chemistry*, I. Mills, Blackwell Scientific Publications (latest edition), for the definitive word on this issue).

In most cases the properties refer to one mole of material or one mole of reactant.

Table 0.1 Symbols, terminology and units.

Symbol	Quantity	Usual units	Notes	IUPAC symbol
A	Helmholtz energy	kJ mol−1	A = U - TS	A
A	area of a triangle	m ²	$A = \frac{1}{2}$ (base) (perpendicular	
			height)	Α
a	activity			а
a_{\pm}	mean ionic activity		$a_{\pm} = m_{\pm} \cdot \gamma_{\pm}/m^{\circ}$	a_{\pm}
C_p	heat capacity at constant pressure	$J K^{-1} mol^{-1}$	$C_P = (\partial H/\partial T)_P$	C _{p,m}
Cv	heat capacity at constant volume	J K ^{−1} mol ^{−1}	$C_V = (\partial U/\partial T)_V$	C _{v,m}
[] = c	amount, molar concentration	mol dm ⁻³	used in equilibrium expressions	
$[\]_{0} = c^{0}$	standard molar concentration	mol dm ⁻³	used in equilibrium expressions	
$[H^+] = 10^{-7}$	biochemical standard state	mol dm ⁻³	denoted by prime on symbol	
	1 21 1 21	_3	e.g. ΔG °	$\Delta_{r}G^{\circ}$
ρ	density, mass density	g cm ⁻³	1 602 - 10-19 6	ρ
e	charge on the proton	C kJ mol ^{–1}	$e = 1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$	
EA	electron affinity		$X(g) + e^{-}(g) \rightarrow X^{-}(g)$	
f F	fugacity Faraday constant	Pa C mol ^{–1}	effective pressure of real gases $F = eL = 96,485.3 \text{ C mol}^{-1}$	f F
r G	Gibbs energy (Gibbs free energy)	kJ mol ⁻¹	G = H - TS	· ·
-	activity coefficient	KJ IIIOI	G = H - I S = $a/x = a/m_i$ (species i)	G _m
γ	mean ionic activity coefficient		$\gamma_{\pm}^{(v++v-)} = \gamma_{+}^{v+} \cdot \gamma_{-}^{v-}$	γ
γ± Η	enthalpy	kJ mol ⁻¹	$ \gamma_{\pm} = \gamma_{+} \cdot \gamma_{-} $ $ H = U + PV $	$oldsymbol{\gamma}_{\pm}$
IP	ionisation potential	kJ mol ⁻¹	$M(g) \rightarrow M^+(g) + e$	
Ka	equilibrium constant written in terms	dimensionless	$V(g) \rightarrow V(g) + e$	Ka
∧ d	of activity	diricisioniess		Na
$K_{c/co}$	equilibrium constant written in terms			K _{c/co}
,	of concentration ratios: []/[] _o	dimensionless		
$K_{p/po}$	equilibrium constant written in terms		$\Delta G^o = -RT \ln K_p$	K _{p/po}
	of partial pressure ratios: p/P^o	dimensionless		
$K_{m/mo}$	equilibrium constant written in terms			K _{m/mo}
	of partial pressure ratios: p/P^o	dimensionless		
subscript m	implies molar quantity (m can be omitted			
	since units can indicate molar quantity			
	$(e.g. mol^{-1}))$			e.g. $\Delta_{\text{vap}}H_{\text{m}}$
subscript r	implies reaction (also implies molar)			e.g. $\Delta_r G^0$, $\Delta_r H^0$
μ	chemical potential	$J \text{ mol}^{-1}$	(∂G/∂n _B) _{T, P, nj≠nB}	μ
m	mass	kg		m
m_{\pm}	mean ionic molality	mol kg ⁻¹	$m_{\pm}^{(v++v-)} = m_{+}^{v+} \cdot m_{-}^{v-}$	$m{m}_{\pm}$
m	molarity	mol kg ⁻¹		m
L , N_A	Avogadro constant	mol^{-1}	$= 6.023 \times 10^{23}$	L, N _A
n	amount (of substance)	dimensionless		n

(continued)

 Table 0.1 (continued)

)	total pressure	Pa / bar	$P = \sum p_i = (RT/V) \sum n_i$	P
	1 bar = 100 kPa = 10^5 Pa; 1 mmHg =	1 Torr; 1 atm =	760 Torr = 101325 Pa; $1 \text{ bar} = 10^5$ Pa	
) _i	partial pressure of gas i in mixture	Pa / bar / atm	5, 2m, a 40	p_i
	heat absorbed by thermodynamic system	J (kJ)		g g
	from surroundings		acquisitive convention	•
P	heat absorbed by thermodynamic system	J (kJ)	- Control of the Cont	
	at constant pressure from surroundings			$q_{\scriptscriptstyle P}$
V	heat absorbed by thermodynamic system	J (kJ)		77
*	at constant volume from surroundings	- ()		q_{v}
	gas constant	$\rm J \ K^{-1} \ mol^{-1}$	$= 8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$	R
	entropy	J K ⁻¹ mol ⁻¹	_ 6.51171K 11161	S
	temperature	K		T
)	boiling point	K		,
)	fusion temperature	K		
n	melting point	K		
n ub	sublimation temperature	K		
ub (= <i>E</i>)	•	kJ mol ⁻¹	denoted C in some touther be	
	internal energy volume	m ³	denoted E in some textbooks	U
				V
n	molar volume	m ³		V_m
,	work done by surroundings on system	J (kJ)	uses acquisitive convention	w.
./	work done other than (PV) mechanical	1.71-15	uses acquisitive convention	w'
	work of expansion/compression done by	J (kJ)	e.g. gravitational,	
	surroundings on system	Please and the second	electrical work etc.	
	mole fraction of component i	dimensionless		x_i
f	final value of property X (state function)	units of X		
	following a change	40 - NO.		
	initial value of property X (state function)	units of X		
	before a change			
G^o	standard Gibbs energy of formation			
	per mole	kJ mol ^{−1}		$\Delta_{f}G^{O}$
H°	enthalpy change per mole under			
	standard conditions			$\Delta_{r} H$
$H^{o}(X-Y)$	bond enthalpy or bond dissociation			
	enthalpy for X–Y bond sometimes written as			
	E(X-Y) or $BE(X-Y)$ and (wrongly) described as			
	bond <i>energy</i>			
$_{\rm at}H^{o}$	standard enthalpy of atomisation per mole			
	(compound (s, I, g) \rightarrow atom(g)			
cH°	standard enthalpy of combustion per			
	mole (compound + $O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g) +$			
	$H_2O(I) + etc)$			A.HO
H°	standard enthalpy of formation per mole			Δ _c H ^o Δ _f H ^o
	(elements in standard states → compound)			→ †,
_{us} H ^o	standard enthalpy of fusion per mole			
us''	(solid \rightarrow liquid)			A. 4
{nyd} H O	standard enthalpy of hydration (ion(g) \rightarrow			$\Delta{fus} H$
nyd 🖊	ion(aq))			A , (O
шо				$\Delta_{hyd} { extsf{ extit{H}}}^{oldsymbol{o}}$
$_{mix} H^o$	standard enthalpy of mixing per mole			
110	$(ion(g) \rightarrow ion(aq))$			$\Delta_{mix} \mathcal{H}^{\mathbf{o}}$
.H°	standard enthalpy of reaction per mole			
	(reactants → products)			$\Delta_{r} \mathcal{H}^{O}$
$_{sub}H^{o}$	standard enthalpy of sublimation per mole			200
2.70	$(solid \rightarrow gas)$			$\Delta_{sub} \mathcal{H}^{o}$
ol H°	standard enthalpy of solution per mole			
	(solute → solution)			$\Delta_{sol} \mathcal{H}^{o}$
rs H ^o	standard enthalpy of transition per mole			
	(between phases)			$\Delta_{trs} {\mathcal{H}}^{o}$
$_{dp} H^o$	standard enthalpy of vaporisation per mole			
	$(\text{liquid} \rightarrow \text{gas})$			$\Delta_{\text{van}}H^{0}$
5°	standard entropy of formation per mole			$\Delta_{vap} \mathcal{H}^{o} \ \Delta_{f} \mathcal{S}^{o}$
J	internal energy change per mole sometimes			
	written as ΔE			Δ_{U}
				411
				_ U
	$[\Delta U = w \text{ (adiabatic process, } q = 0); \Delta U = 0 \text{ (isolated system)}; \Delta U = q + w \text{ (open)}$			-0

Table 0.2 Notation used to denote changes in thermodynamic properties.

Notation	Meaning	Notes
δq, δw	infinitesimally small <i>quantities</i>	'delta' q or w
	of heat added to system or	only defined for process or path
	work done by surroundings	not changes in state functions
	on system	
dX	small <i>change</i> in property X (state function)	'dee' X (e.g. dU)
ΔX	measurable <i>change</i> in property X (state function)	'Delta' X
		N.B. changes: $\delta \ll d < \Delta$
$dX \rightarrow 0$	change in X approaches zero	
dy/dx	differential coefficient of y with respect to x	
dV = 0	no change in volume	isochoric process
dP = 0	no change in pressure	isobaric process
dT = 0	no change in temperature	isochoric process
$\delta q = 0$	no heat enters or leaves system	adiabatic process
∫y.dx	integral of y with respect to x	
\sum	sum of individual values	e.g. $\sum_{i=1}^{3} x_i = x_1 + x_2 + x_3$ e.g. $\prod_{i=1}^{3} x_i = x_1.x_2.x_3$
		i=1
П	product of individual values	e.g. $\prod_{i=1}^{n} x_i = x_1.x_2.x_3$
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	i=1
$\sum \Delta_f X^o$ (Products)	sum of individual $\Delta_f X^o$ values ($X = G$ or H) of	
D	all products of a reaction	
$\sum \Delta_f X^o$ (Reactants)	sum of individual $\Delta_f X^o$ values $(X = G \text{ or } H)$ of	
	all reactants of a reaction	16
N!	= N(N-1)(N-2)(N-3)3.2.1	'factorial N'
		e.g. $6! = 6.5.4.3.2.1 = 720$
0!	factorial zero	= 1
x	modulus of x	i.e. positive value of x (ignores any negative sign)
>	greater than	e.g. 8 > 6
≥	greater than or equal to	
<	less than	e.g. $4 < 7$
≤	less than or equal to	3
±	plus or minus	
_ ≠	not equal to	e.g. 4 ≠ 5
<i>'</i> ≈	approximately equal to	97
ſ	integral of	
$a \pm b \pm c$	means $a + b + c$ (upper signs)	used for shorthand form of equations
01010	and $a - b - c$ (lower signs)	asea for shorthand form of equations
(s) or (c)	solid or crystalline phase	e.g. $H_2O(s) = ice$
(I)	liquid phase	e.g. $H_2O(I) = water$
(g)	gaseous (vapour) phase	e.g. $H_2O(g) = \text{steam}$
0	standard state (superscript)	sometimes written as ^e
	standard state (subscript)	e.g. [] _o standard state concentration
о Л С ⁰	$= \sum C_{\rho}(\text{Reactants}) - \sum C_{\rho}(\text{Products})$	c.g. [10 standard state concentration
ΔC_p^o		
A C0	for a reaction	
$\Delta_f G^o$	standard Gibbs energy of formation per mole	
ΔH°	enthalpy change per mole under standard conditions	
$\Delta H^{0}(X-Y)$	bond enthalpy or bond dissociation enthalpy for X–Y bond sometimes	
	written as $E(X - Y)$ or $BE(X - Y)$ and (wrongly) described as bond <i>energy</i>	

Thermodynamic Changes, Properties and Types of Function

1.1 Thermodynamic System and Surroundings

A thermodynamic system refers to:

the physical process or the chemical reaction at the centre of interest.

The remainder of the universe is designated to be:

the surroundings, although in practice, these can be restricted to those parts of the universe adjacent to the system.

One can define the boundaries of the thermodynamic system in any way one chooses.

Systems can be classified (see Figure 7.3, Frame 7) as follows:

CLOSED SYSTEM – no material is exchanged with the surroundings (e.g. autoclave – a sealed vessel for carrying out high pressure reactions).

OPEN SYSTEM – material is exchanged (e.g. by evaporation) with the surroundings. The system does not have to be OPEN in order to change the amounts of substances present; this can occur by chemical reaction or interphase transfer within a closed system.

ISOLATED SYSTEM – neither material nor energy exchange with the surroundings (e.g. thermos flask).

Processes can be either:

CHEMICAL – involving reaction and chemical change or PHYSICAL – involving physical change (e.g. variation of pressure, P, or phase such as in boiling (liquid \rightarrow vapour).

Many processes involve one or more of the following situations (d denotes a change in the property specified):

ISOTHERMAL = constant temperature (dT = 0);

ISOCHORIC = constant volume (dV = 0);

ISOBARIC = Isopiestic = constant pressure (dP = 0);

ADIABATIC = no flow of heat (q = 0) between system and surroundings;

REVERSIBLE = process in which certain parameters (usually pressure, P or temperature, T) are only minutely (i.e. infinitesimally) different from those of the immediate surroundings. The process must also be close to equilibrium;

Energy can be transferred between the surroundings and the system and is subdivided into:

heat, represented by the symbol, q and work, represented by the symbol, w.

Work can be further subdivided into various categories: mechanical or 'PV' work (Frames 8 and 9), w = -PdV; electrical work, $w_{\text{elec.}}$ (see Equation (8.13), Frame 8); magnetic work, w_{mag} ; gravitational work, w_{grav} (see Equation (8.12), Frame 8); surface work, w_{surf} etc.

1.2 Thermodynamic Changes

A property, X, which *alters its value* from an *initial state* (i) (value of the property X_i) to a *final state* (f) (value of the property X_f) has changed in value by ($X_f - X_i$). If change occurring in X is *small*, we denote this by dX and for *larger* (measurable) changes, by ΔX . Such notation applies predominantly to *state functions* (see section 1.7 below), examples are H (enthalpy), U (internal energy), G (Gibbs energy), etc.

To talk about a *change*, dq, in *heat added* to a thermodynamic system and to try and equate it to $(q_f - q_i)$ does not make any sense since it is impossible to define, or quantify, the *amount of heat possessed* by a body (or contained within it) at any 'snapshot' instant. Therefore q_i and q_f are simply *not definable* for a process in the same way that we can record the temperature, T, at any instant. Hence q is *not* a property of a system but is defined only *during a change* – we can only measure *quantities* of heat *supplied* or *released* during a process. Addition (or release) of an infinitesmally small *amount* of heat is denoted by δq .

Similarly work done, w, by or on a system, (Frames 8 and 9), a quantity of work is either attributable to or transferred during a physical change (e.g. during expansion or contraction); but there is no amount of work possessed by a system at any instant, it is definable only during a process.

Thus q and w are different from most other functions in thermodynamics.

1.3 Thermodynamic Intensive and Extensive Properties

Thermodynamic properties which depend on the *amount (mass) of material present* (e.g. internal energy: *U*; enthalpy: *H*, etc.) are termed EXTENSIVE properties.

For extensive quantities, X (in general):

$$X_{\rm m} = \text{molar } X = \frac{X}{n}$$
(1.1)

X is proportional to n, the above quotient in (1.1) is independent of n and

where n is the amount of material present. Since X is proportional to n, the above quotient in (1.1) is independent of n and therefore X_m is INTENSIVE.

Intensive properties are such that if the material were continuously sub-divided then the property would be *identical for all parts* of the sub-divided material. Such properties are independent of the size (or amount) of sample (e.g. density: ρ ; temperature: T and all molar quantities. Frequently in the text we omit the subscript m from the symbol.

Extensive quantities show an exact proportionality to n, only when intensive quantities, like T and P, remain constant.

1.4 Molar Quantities and the Concept of the Mole

Molar as an adjective does *not* actually mean 'of or for 1 mole'. For a pure substance molar means simply 'divided by amount of substance'. Thus the molar mass of material, M, is the mass of the material, w divided by the amount of material, m:

$$M = \frac{w}{n} \tag{1.2}$$

Since the purpose of this book is presentation of thermodynamics in a form which is easy to assimilate the use of IUPAC (the body recommending chemical notation) notation has *not* been adopted in the text, but *importantly*:

reference to IUPAC notation is provided in the glossary (Frame 0).

Thus use of extended symbols (e.g. $C_{p,m} \Delta_m H$) has usually been avoided. The simpler forms C_p and ΔH being adopted. IUPAC recommend that the *mole* should be replaced by amount of substance. Readers should however be aware of the wide usage of the concept of the mole elsewhere. The term *mole fraction*, x, is a IUPAC acceptable name. The Term *amount fraction* is not recommended.

1.5 Meaning of the Term *Molar* in Relation to Chemical Reactions

Consider the combustion reaction:

$$CH_4(g) + 2O_2(g) \to CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(l)$$
 (1.3)

at 298K and 1 bar (= 100 kPa).

Molar enthalpy of combustion of methane gas, $\Delta_c H^o(CH_4, g)$

If the amount of methane gas combusted is $n(CH_4)$ and the enthalpy change on combustion is ΔH , then the molar enthalpy of combustion is given by:

$$\Delta_{\rm m} H = \Delta_{\rm c} H^{o}({\rm CH_4,\,g}) = \frac{\Delta H}{[n({\rm CH_4,\,g})\,{\rm combusted}]} = \frac{\Delta H}{[-\Delta n_{\rm CH4}]} = \Delta H \tag{1.4}$$

where Δn_{CH4} is the change in the amount of methane (since methane decreases, this quantity will be negative (= -1 mol). Thus $-\Delta n_{\text{CH4}}$ is then positive.

On the other hand where there is no intention to focus on any one particular species we treat things differently:

1.5.1 Molar enthalpy (change) of the reaction (1.3)

The molar enthalpy change of the reaction is calculated using the equation:

$$\Delta_{\rm m}H = \frac{\Delta H}{\Delta \xi} \tag{1.5}$$

where $\Delta \xi$ (delta xi) is the change in the extent of the reaction.

The reaction (1.3) above is a statement of the stoichiometry, and reports the *stoichiometric* numbers, v, which take values:

$$v_{\text{CH4}} = -1; \quad v_{\text{O}_2} = -2; \quad v_{\text{CO}_2} = +1; \quad v_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = +2;$$
 (1.6)

recorded as: positive (+) for products, and negative (-) for reactants.

Suppose that we undertake combustion of 16 g (i.e. 1 mol) methane gas at a particular temperature, T and pressure, P and determine, calorimetrically, the change in enthalpy, ΔH (in units of J or kJ). We define:

$$\Delta n_{\text{CH}_4} = \{ [\text{amount of CH}_4 \text{ in products}] - [\text{amount of CH}_4 \text{ in reactants}] \}$$

$$= (0 - 1) \text{ mol} = -1 \text{ mol}$$
(1.7)

similarly:

$$\Delta n_{\rm O_2} = (0-2) = -2 \,\text{mol}; \Delta n_{\rm CO_2} = (1-0) = +1 \,\text{mol}; \Delta n_{\rm H_2O} = +2 \,\text{mol}$$
 (1.8)

[In equations (1.7)–(1.8) a negative sign signifies overall *loss* (of reactant); a positive sign signifies an overall *gain* (of product)]. The extent of our experimental reaction, $\Delta \xi$ (the same for all species involved) can be calculated using:

$$\Delta \xi = \Delta n_{\text{CH4}} / v_{\text{CH4}} = \frac{(-1)}{(-1)} = 1 \,\text{mol}$$
 (1.9)

similarly:

$$\Delta \xi = \Delta n_{\text{O}_2} / v_{\text{O}_2} = \frac{(-2)}{(-2)} = 1 \text{ mol}; \\ \Delta \xi = \Delta n_{\text{CO}_2} / v_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{(+1)}{(+1)} = 1 \text{ mol}; \\ \Delta \xi = \Delta n_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} / v_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = \frac{(+2)}{(+2)} = 1 \text{ mol}$$
 (1.10)

thus:

if we combust 1 mol of methane this will correspond to 1 mole of reaction (or, $\Delta \xi$ is 1 mol).

Now $\Delta_m H$, the *molar* enthalpy change of the combustion reaction, is given as:

$$\Delta_{\rm m}H = \frac{\Delta H}{\Delta \xi} = \Delta H \tag{1.11}$$

BUT if the chemical equation (1.3) given is multiplied through by a factor of $\frac{1}{2}$ to give:

$$^{1}/_{2}CH_{4}(g) + O_{2}(g) \rightarrow ^{1}/_{2}CO_{2}(g) + H_{2}O(1)$$
 (1.12)

then:

$$\Delta \xi = \frac{\Delta n_{\text{CH}_4}}{v_{\text{CH}_4}} = (-1)/(-1/2) = 2 \,\text{mol}$$
 (1.13)

and:

$$\Delta_{\rm m}H = \frac{\Delta H}{\Delta \xi} = \frac{\Delta H}{(2)} = \frac{1}{2}\Delta H \tag{1.14}$$

i.e. $\Delta_m H$ for reaction (1.12) corresponds to half $\Delta_m H$ for the reaction (1.3).

From the above it can be seen that a chemical equation gives a connection between $\Delta \xi$ and the various Δn .

These conclusions are used in application of Hess's Law (Frame 11, section 11.8).

The same principles above apply: to a physical process when represented as a chemical equation, for example:

$$Br_2(1) \to Br_2(g); 298 \text{ K}, 100 \text{ kPa}$$
 (1.15)

and to any extensive function of state (e.g. ΔU , ΔH , ΔS , ΔG etc.).

1.6 Types of Thermodynamic Function: Path Dependent Function, q and w

Path dependent changes result when heat or work are involved. Suppose we have a gas having a volume V_i which we heat up from T_i to T_f and then expand it (at a fixed temperature T_f) from the intial volume V_i to a volume, V_f . The heat supplied to the gas, q_1 and the work done, w_1 , by the gas in expanding against external pressure will be different from the case where the gas is first expanded at fixed T_i from a volume V_i to V_f , doing work of expansion, w_2 and is then heated (q_2) from T_i to T_f ending up in the same final state (V_f, T_f) (Figure 1.1). It is easy to see that q_1 and q_2 are different from one another (i.e. they depend on the precise path followed). In the first case one is heating a volume, V_i , of gas whilst in the second case one is heating a (larger) volume, V_f of gas, both from T_i to T_f , and heat required (an extensive property) must be such that $q_2 > q_1$. Similarly for the work of expansion: w_1 expands the gas at the higher temperature T_f , and hence $w_2 < w_1$.

We shall discuss adoption of a convention for the *sign* for work of expansion – (Frames 7, 9, 14 and 15) and use it when we discuss in more detail the gas expansion processes (Frame 9). Also (FIRST LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS – see Frames 2, 8) the internal energy change, ΔU for the *overall process* in Figure 1.1 (i.e. gas at V_i and $T_i \rightarrow gas$ at V_f and T_f) (being a state function) is identical for both paths between the SAME initial and final states (and so is *route independent*).

Here energy is neither created nor destroyed but merely converted from one form to another (i.e. heat and work, $w \rightarrow$ internal energy). Hence for the specific processes in Figure 1.1:

$$q_1 + w_1 = q_2 + w_2 = \Delta U_1 = \Delta U_2 = \Delta U$$

although: $q_1 \neq q_2$ and $w_1 \neq w_2$ (1.16)

The First Law (equation 1.16) is subject to the constraint that we are not allowed to change the internal energy, ΔU , by adding or removing material. Equation (1.16) applies to a closed (but not necessarily unreactive) system.

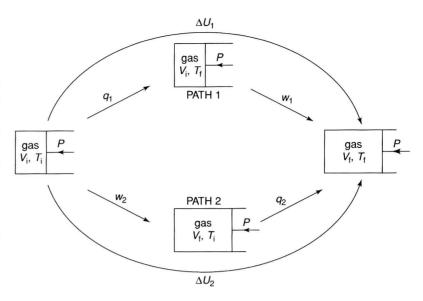


Figure 1.1 Comparison of path dependent functions (q and w) and path independent change (ΔU) during the expansion of a gas from (V_i , T_i) to (V_i , T_i) via two different states (V_i , T_i) (path 1) and (V_i , T_i) (path 2). V and T represent the volume and temperature of the gas. q and w represent the heat absorbed by the gas and the work done by the gas on the surroundings in expanding against the external pressure, P. w_1 and w_2 are both negative (using the convention discussed in Frame 7) since work of expansion is expended by the gas and lost from the (gas) system.

1.7 State Functions, X

Properties that are *path independent* depend only on the conditions at the start and at the end stages of the change are referred to as *state functions*.

These are often denoted by *capitalised* (upper case) symbols (examples are:

Gibbs energy, G (Frames 13 and 18); Enthalpy, H (Frames 13, 18 and 19); Entropy, S (Frames 11, 13, 15 and 19); Internal Energy, U (Frames 1, 8 and 10); Volume, V; Pressure, P; Temperature, T ... etc.);

for a state function X, ΔX depends only on the difference between the final value, X_f and the initial value of the property, X_i for the process:

Since $\int_{X_i}^{X_f} dX$, the integral of the change in X(=dX) can be written (Frame 2) as $[X_f - X_i]$ then ΔX can be equated to an integral:

$$\Delta X = [X_f - X_i] = \int_{X_i}^{X_f} dX \tag{1.17}$$

 ΔX is then the same whatever route or path is selected to achieve the change and hence is path independent.

Expanding equation (1.16), in more detail:

$$\Delta U_1 = q_1 + w_1 = q_2 + w_2 = \Delta U_2 = \Delta U = [U_f - U_i] = \int_{U_i}^{U_f} dU$$
(1.18)

In Frame 9 we consider the expansion of an ideal gas along an isotherm (or constant temperature curve for which dT = 0) from (P_i, V_i) to (P_f, V_f) . Whilst the state functions P and V show *identical* changes in the two expansion processes considered $(dP = P_f - P_i)$; $dV = (V_f - V_i)$ the work done in the two cases is entirely different. Two routes (paths) are considered:

expansion proceeds infinitely slowly (= reversibly), the external pressure never more than dP(i.e. a very small increment) less than the internal gas pressure at any point in time. The work performed by the gas is the maximum possible $w = w_{\text{max}} = -nRT \ln(V_{\text{f}}/V_{\text{i}})$ (sign convention explained in Frame 7);

expansion proceeds *irreversibly* and *not* as a succession of equilibrium positions. This expansion is akin to a situation where a gas confined inside a cylinder, under pressure, P_i at volume V_i is suddenly exposed to the external (constant) atmospheric pressure, $P_f = P_{\text{atm}}$. Gas flows out from the cylinder until the final volume is V_f and pressure is P_f . The work done (Frame 9), $w = -P_f \Delta V = -P_f (V_f - V_i)$ is only a fraction of that performed in the process above yet the initial and final states of the gas are identical. This illustrates, again, that w is a path dependent function.

2. Integration in Thermodynamics

Some of the examples which are related to thermodynamics provided later in this Frame are meant to provide a first exposure to these thermodynamic functions. Such functions will be explained later in greater detail. The intention in introducing them so early is to show how the integration process impinges on the derivation of a number of key equations. The reader should endeavour to follow the logic used although he/she may not appreciate fully, until later, the underlying thermodynamic context.

2.1 Standard Integrals: Integration of Sums of Functions

Four common integrals encountered in thermodynamics (and their results) are shown below:

$$\int_{x_i}^{x_f} dx = [x]_{x_i}^{x_f} = [x_f - x_i]$$
 (2.1)

$$\int_{x_{i}}^{x_{f}} x. dx = \left[\frac{x^{2}}{2} \right]_{x_{i}}^{x_{f}} = \frac{1}{2} [x_{f}^{2} - x_{i}^{2}]$$
(2.2)

$$\int_{x_{i}}^{x_{f}} x^{n} dx = \left[\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)} \right]_{x_{i}}^{x_{f}} = \frac{\left[x_{f}^{n+1} - x_{i}^{n+1} \right]}{(n+1)} \qquad (n \neq -1)$$
 (2.3)

$$\int_{x_{i}}^{x_{f}} \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx = [\ln x]_{x_{i}}^{x_{f}} = [\ln x_{f} - \ln x_{i}] = \ln \left(\frac{x_{f}}{x_{i}}\right)$$
(2.4)

The integrals shown above are called:

• *Definite integrals* – because they have limits imposed. Thus for example:

$$I_{\text{definite}} = \int_{1}^{4} x. dx = \left[\frac{x^{2}}{2}\right]_{1}^{4} = \frac{1}{2}[(4)^{2} - (1)^{2}] = \frac{15}{2}$$
 (2.5)

as opposed to:

• *Indefinite integrals* – which have no limits specified. On integration of indefinite integrals a constant c has to be included. Thus for example:

$$I_{\text{indefinite}} = \int x . dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + c \tag{2.6}$$

now:

$$I_{\text{indefinite}} \text{ (when } x = 4) = (8 + c) \tag{2.7}$$

and:

$$I_{\text{indefinite}} \text{ (when } x = 1) = (\frac{1}{2} + c) \tag{2.8}$$

$$I_{\text{definite}} (2.5) = [I_{\text{indefinite}} (\text{when } x = 4) - I_{\text{indefinite}} (\text{when } x = 1)] = [(8 + c) - (\frac{1}{2} + c)] = 15/2$$
 (2.9)

where we see that the constant, c cancels out when we evaluate the integral as in equation (2.9).

The integral of the sum of two or more functions can be written as the sum of two or more separate integrals, thus:

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$
(2.10)

(for notation see Frame 3, section 3.1).

Constants (= c) can be taken outside the integral sign as mere multiples and are then unaffected by the subsequent integration taking place, thus:

$$\int c. f(x).dx = c \int f(x).dx$$
 (2.11)

2.2 Area Underneath a Curve can be Obtained by Integration

Figure 2.1 displays the function (line): y = 3x, underneath which function, (i.e. between the limits x = 0 (origin) and x = 4) lies the shaded triangle. The base of the triangle, b = 4 units. The height, h, of this triangle is 12 units. The area of a triangle is given by $\frac{1}{2}(base)$ (perpendicular height) = $\frac{1}{2}bh = 24$ units². This corresponds to the area between the line (curve) y = 3x and the abscissa (y = 0), otherwise known as the x-axis. This area, A, can be expressed as an integral:

$$A = \int_{0}^{4} y dx = \int_{0}^{4} 3x . dx = 3 \int_{0}^{4} x . dx = 3 \left[\frac{1}{2} x^{2} \right]_{0}^{4} = 3 \left[\frac{1}{2} (16) - 0 \right] = \frac{1}{2} (48) = 24 \text{ units}^{2}$$
 (2.12)

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