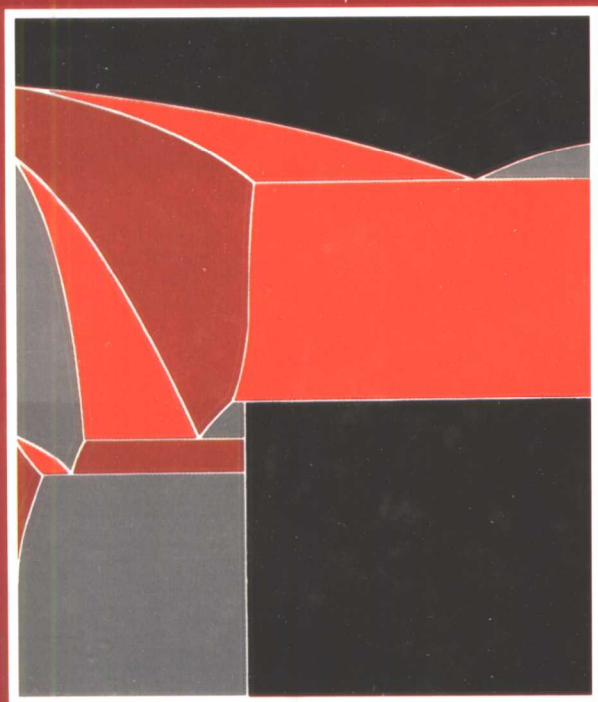


INTRODUCTION TO THE THERMODYNAMICS OF MATERIALS

Fourth Edition



David R. Gaskell

Introduction to the Thermodynamics of Materials

Fourth Edition

David R. Gaskell

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Preface

The fourth edition of this text is different from the third edition in three ways. First, there is an acute emphasis on typographical and mathematical accuracy. Second, a new chapter, Chapter 14, has been added, which presents and discusses equilibria in binary systems in temperature-pressure-composition space. An understanding of the influence of pressure on phase equilibria is particularly necessary given the increase in the number of methods of processing materials systems at low pressures or in a vacuum.

The major improvement, however, is the inclusion of a CD-Rom to supplement the text. This work, which is titled "Examples of the Use of Spreadsheet Software for Making Thermodynamic Calculations" is a document produced by Dr. Arthur Morris, Professor Emeritus of the Department of Metallurgical Engineering at the University of Missouri—Rolla. The document contains descriptions of 22 practical examples of the use of thermodynamic data and typical spreadsheet tools. Most of the examples use the spreadsheet Microsoft® Excel* and others make use of a software package produced by Professor Morris called THERBAL. As Professor Morris states, "The availability of spreadsheet software means that more complex thermodynamics problems can be handled, and simple problems can be treated in depth."

I express my gratitude to Professor Morris for providing this supplement.

David R. Gaskell
Purdue University

A Word on the CD-Rom

The CD contains data and descriptive material for making detailed thermodynamic calculations involving materials processing. The contents of the CD are described in the text file, *CD Introduction.doc*, which you should print and read before trying to use the material on the CD.

There are two Excel workbooks on the disk: *ThermoTables.xls* and *ThermoXmples.xls*. They contain thermodynamic data and examples of their use by Excel to solve problems and examples of a more extended nature than those in the text. The CD also contains a document describing these examples, *XmpleExplanation.doc*, which is in Microsoft® Word* format. You will need Word to view and print this document.

Dr. Arthur E. Morris
Thermart Software
<http://home.att.net/~thermart>

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Contents

Preface	xiii	
1	Introduction and Definition of Terms	1
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	The Concept of State	1
1.3	Simple Equilibrium	4
1.4	The Equation of State of an Ideal Gas	5
1.5	The Units of Energy and Work	8
1.6	Extensive and Intensive Properties	8
1.7	Phase Diagrams and Thermodynamic Components	9
2	The First Law of Thermodynamics	15
2.1	Introduction	15
2.2	The Relationship between Heat and Work	16
2.3	Internal Energy and the First Law of Thermodynamics	17
2.4	Constant-Volume Processes	21
2.5	Constant-Pressure Processes and the Enthalpy H	21
2.6	Heat Capacity	21
2.7	Reversible Adiabatic Processes	25
2.8	Reversible Isothermal Pressure or Volume Changes of an Ideal Gas	27
2.9	Summary	28
2.10	Numerical Examples Problems	29 34
3	The Second Law of Thermodynamics	37
3.1	Introduction	37
3.2	Spontaneous or Natural Processes	38
3.3	Entropy and the Quantification of Irreversibility	39
3.4	Reversible Processes	40
3.5	An Illustration of Irreversible and Reversible Processes	41
3.6	Entropy and Reversible Heat	43
3.7	The Reversible Isothermal Compression of an Ideal Gas	46
3.8	The Reversible Adiabatic Expansion of an Ideal Gas	47

3.9	Summary Statements	48
3.10	The Properties of Heat Engines	48
3.11	The Thermodynamic Temperature Scale	51
3.12	The Second Law of Thermodynamics	53
3.13	Maximum Work	55
3.14	Entropy and the Criterion for Equilibrium	57
3.15	The Combined Statement of the First and Second Laws of Thermodynamics	58
3.16	Summary	59
3.17	Numerical Examples Problems	61 66
4	The Statistical Interpretation of Entropy	69
4.1	Introduction	69
4.2	Entropy and Disorder on an Atomic Scale	70
4.3	The Concept of Microstate	71
4.4	Determination of the Most Probable Microstate	72
4.5	The Influence of Temperature	76
4.6	Thermal Equilibrium and the Boltzmann Equation	78
4.7	Heat Flow and the Production of Entropy	79
4.8	Configurational Entropy and Thermal Entropy	80
4.9	Summary	83
4.10	Numerical Examples Problems	84 86
5	Auxiliary Functions	87
5.1	Introduction	87
5.2	The Enthalpy H	89
5.3	The Helmholtz Free Energy A	89
5.4	The Gibbs Free Energy G	94
5.5	Summary of the Equations for a Closed System	95
5.6	The Variation of the Composition and Size of the System	96
5.7	The Chemical Potential	97
5.8	Thermodynamic Relations	98
5.9	Maxwell's Equations	99
5.10	The Upstairs-Downstairs-Inside-Out Formula	101
5.11	The Gibbs-Helmholtz Equation	102
5.12	Summary	103
5.13	Example of the Use of the Thermodynamic Relations Problems	104 106
6	Heat Capacity, Enthalpy, Entropy, and the Third Law of Thermodynamics	109
6.1	Introduction	109
6.2	Theoretical Calculation of the Heat Capacity	110
6.3	The Empirical Representation of Heat Capacities	115

6.4	Enthalpy as a Function of Temperature and Composition	116
6.5	The Dependence of Entropy on Temperature and the Third Law of Thermodynamics	125
6.6	Experimental Verification of the Third Law	128
6.7	The Influence of Pressure on Enthalpy and Entropy	134
6.8	Summary	136
6.9	Numerical Examples	137
	Problems	147
7	Phase Equilibrium in a One-Component System	149
7.1	Introduction	149
7.2	The Variation of Gibbs Free Energy with Temperature at Constant Pressure	150
7.3	The Variation of Gibbs Free Energy with Pressure at Constant Temperature	157
7.4	Gibbs Free Energy as a Function of Temperature and Pressure	159
7.5	Equilibrium between the Vapor Phase and a Condensed Phase	160
7.6	Graphical Representation of Phase Equilibria in a One-Component System	162
7.7	Solid-Solid Equilibria	168
7.8	Summary	171
	Numerical Examples	172
	Problems	175
8	The Behavior of Gases	177
8.1	Introduction	177
8.2	The P - V - T Relationships of Gases	177
8.3	Deviations from Ideality and Equations of State for Real Gases	180
8.4	The van der Waals Gas	182
8.5	Other Equations of State for Nonideal Gases	191
8.6	The Thermodynamic Properties of Ideal Gases and Mixtures of Ideal Gases	192
8.7	The Thermodynamic Treatment of Nonideal Gases	198
8.8	Summary	204
8.9	Numerical Examples	206
	Problems	208
9	The Behavior of Solutions	211
9.1	Introduction	211
9.2	Raoult's Law and Henry's Law	211
9.3	The Thermodynamic Activity of a Component in Solution	215

9.4	The Gibbs-Duhem Equation	216
9.5	The Gibbs Free Energy of Formation of a Solution	218
9.6	The Properties of Raoultian Ideal Solutions	221
9.7	Nonideal Solutions	226
9.8	Application of the Gibbs-Duhem Relation to the Determination of Activity	229
9.9	Regular Solutions	240
9.10	A Statistical Model of Solutions	245
9.11	Subregular Solutions	252
9.12	Summary	254
9.13	Numerical Examples	257
	Problems	259
10	Gibbs Free Energy Composition and Phase Diagrams of Binary Systems	263
10.1	Introduction	263
10.2	Gibbs Free Energy and Thermodynamic Activity	264
10.3	The Gibbs Free Energy of Formation of Regular Solutions	266
10.4	Criteria for Phase Stability in Regular Solutions	268
10.5	Liquid and Solid Standard States	273
10.6	Phase Diagrams, Gibbs Free Energy, and Thermodynamic Activity	283
10.7	The Phase Diagrams of Binary Systems That Exhibit Regular Solution Behavior in the Liquid and Solid States	292
10.8	Summary	298
10.9	Numerical Example	299
	Problems	301
11	Reactions Involving Gases	305
11.1	Introduction	305
11.2	Reaction Equilibrium in a Gas Mixture and the Equilibrium Constant	306
11.3	The Effect of Temperature on the Equilibrium Constant	311
11.4	The Effect of Pressure on the Equilibrium Constant	312
11.5	Reaction Equilibrium as a Compromise between Enthalpy and Entropy	314
11.6	Reaction Equilibrium in the System $\text{SO}_{2(g)}-\text{SO}_{3(g)}-\text{O}_{2(g)}$	316
11.7	Equilibrium in $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{H}_2$ and CO_2-CO Mixtures	321
11.8	Summary	323
11.9	Numerical Examples	324
	Problems	335

12	Reactions Involving Pure Condensed Phases and a Gaseous Phase	337
12.1	Introduction	337
12.2	Reaction Equilibrium in a System Containing Pure Condensed Phases and a Gas Phase	338
12.3	The Variation of the Standard Gibbs Free Energy Change with Temperature	343
12.4	Ellingham Diagrams	346
12.5	The Effect of Phase Transformations	353
12.6	The Oxides of Carbon	358
12.7	Graphical Representation of Equilibria in the System Metal–Carbon–Oxygen	365
12.8	Summary	368
12.9	Numerical Examples Problems	369 380
13	Reaction Equilibria in Systems Containing Components in Condensed Solution	383
13.1	Introduction	383
13.2	The Criteria for Reaction Equilibrium in Systems Containing Components in Condensed Solution	385
13.3	Alternative Standard States	393
13.4	The Gibbs Phase Rule	399
13.5	Binary Systems Containing Compounds	417
13.6	Graphical Representation of Phase Equilibria	429
13.7	The Formation of Oxide Phases of Variable Composition	437
13.8	The Solubility of Gases in Metals	446
13.9	Solutions Containing Several Dilute Solutes	450
13.10	Summary	460
13.11	Numerical Examples Problems	462 470
14	Phase Diagrams for Binary Systems in Pressure-Temperature-Composition Space	475
14.1	Introduction	475
14.2	A Binary System Exhibiting Complete Mutual Solubility of the Components in the Solid and Liquid States	475
14.3	A Binary System Exhibiting Complete Mutual Solubility in the Solid and Liquid States and Showing Minima on the Melting, Boiling, and Sublimation Curves	480
14.4	A Binary System Containing a Eutectic Equilibrium and Having Complete Mutual Solubility in the Liquid	485

14.5	A Binary System Containing a Peritectic Equilibrium and Having Complete Mutual Solubility in the Liquid State	493
14.6	Phase Equilibrium in a Binary System Containing an Intermediate γ Phase That Melts, Sublimes, and Boils Congruently	501
14.7	Phase Equilibrium in a Binary System Containing an Intermediate γ Phase That Melts and Sublimes Congruently and Boils Incongruently	508
14.8	Phase Equilibrium in a Binary System with a Eutectic and One Component That Exhibits Allotropy	513
14.9	A Binary Eutectic System in Which Both Components Exhibit Allotropy	517
14.10	Phase Equilibrium at Low Pressure: The Cadmium-Zinc System	524
14.11	Phase Equilibrium at High Pressure: The $\text{Na}_2\text{O} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2$ - SiO_2 System	525
14.12	Summary	531
15	Electrochemistry	533
15.1	Introduction	533
15.2	The Relationship between Chemical and Electrical Driving Forces	535
15.3	The Effect of Concentration on EMF	540
15.4	Formation Cells	541
15.5	Concentration Cells	544
15.6	The Temperature Coefficient of the EMF	549
15.7	Heat Effects	551
15.8	The Thermodynamics of Aqueous Solutions	552
15.9	The Gibbs Free Energy of Formation of Ions and Standard Reduction Potentials	555
15.10	Pourbaix Diagrams	564
15.11	Summary	574
15.12	Numerical Examples	576
	Problems	579
Appendices		
A	Selected Thermodynamic and Thermochemical Data	581
B	Exact Differential Equations	589
C	The Generation of Auxiliary Functions as Legendre Transformations	591
Nomenclature		599
Answers		603
Index		615

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION AND DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Thermodynamics is concerned with the behavior of matter, where matter is anything that occupies space, and the matter which is the subject of a thermodynamic analysis is called a *system*. In materials science and engineering the systems to which thermodynamic principles are applied are usually chemical reaction systems. The central aim of applied thermodynamics is the determination of the effect of environment on the state of rest (equilibrium state), of a given system, where environment is generally determined as the pressure exerted on the system and the temperature of the system. The aim of applied thermodynamics is thus the establishment of the relationships which exist between the equilibrium state of existence of a given system and the influences which are brought to bear on the system.

1.2 THE CONCEPT OF STATE

The most important concept in thermodynamics is that of *state*. If it were possible to know the masses, velocities, positions, and all modes of motion of all of the constituent particles in a system, this mass of knowledge would serve to describe the *microscopic state* of the system, which, in turn, would determine all of the properties of the system. In the absence of such detailed knowledge as is required to determine the microscopic state of the system, thermodynamics begins with a consideration of the properties of the system which, when determined, define the *macroscopic state* of the system; i.e., when all of the properties are fixed then the macroscopic state of

the system is fixed. It might seem that, in order to uniquely fix the macroscopic, or thermodynamic, state of a system, an enormous amount of information might be required; i.e., all of the properties of the system might have to be known. In fact, it is found that when the values of a small number of properties are fixed then the values of all of the rest are fixed. Indeed, when a simple system such as a given quantity of a substance of fixed composition is being considered, the fixing of the values of two of the properties fixes the values of all of the rest. Thus only two properties are independent, which, consequently, are called the independent variables, and all of the other properties are dependent variables. The thermodynamic state of the simple system is thus uniquely fixed when the values of the two independent variables are fixed.

In the case of the simple system any two properties could be chosen as the independent variables, and the choice is a matter of convenience. Properties most amenable to control are the pressure P and the temperature T of the system. When P and T are fixed, the state of the simple system is fixed, and all of the other properties have unique values corresponding to this state. Consider the volume V of a fixed quantity of a pure gas as a property, the value of which is dependent on the values of P and T . The relationship between the dependent variable V and the independent variables P and T can be expressed as

$$V = V(P, T) \quad (1.1)$$

The mathematical relationship of V to P and T for a system is called an *equation of state* for that system, and in a three-dimensional diagram, the coordinates of which are volume, temperature, and pressure, the points in P - V - T space which represent the equilibrium states of existence of the system lie on a surface. This is shown in Fig. 1.1 for a fixed quantity of a simple gas. Fixing the values of any two of the three variables fixes the value of the third variable. Consider a process which moves the gas from state 1 to state 2. This process causes the volume of the gas to change by

$$\Delta V = V_2 - V_1$$

This process could proceed along an infinite number of paths on the P - V - T surface, two of which, $1 \rightarrow a \rightarrow 2$ and $1 \rightarrow b \rightarrow 2$, are shown in Figure 1.1. Consider the path $1 \rightarrow a \rightarrow 2$. The change in volume is

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta V &= V_2 - V_1 \\ &= (V_a - V_1) + (V_2 - V_a) \end{aligned}$$

where $1 \rightarrow a$ occurs at the constant pressure P_1 and $a \rightarrow 2$ occurs at the constant temperature T_2 :

$$(V_a - V_1) = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_{P_1} dT$$

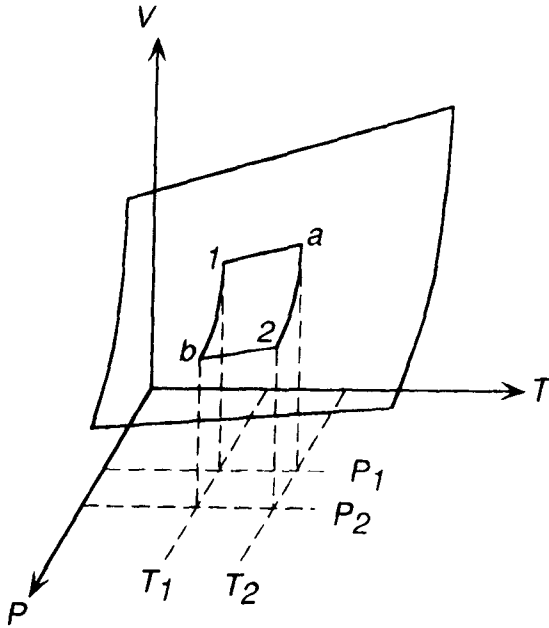


Figure 1.1 The equilibrium states of existence of a fixed quantity of gas in P - V - T space.

and

$$(V_2 - V_a) = \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_{T_2} dP$$

Thus

$$\Delta V = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_{P_1} dT + \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_{T_2} dP \quad (1.2)$$

Similarly for the path $1 \rightarrow b \rightarrow 2$,

$$(V_b - V_1) = \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_{T_1} dP$$

and

$$(V_2 - V_b) = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_{P_2} dT$$

and, hence, again

$$\Delta = \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_{T_1} dP + \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_{P_2} dT \quad (1.3)$$

Eqs. (1.2) and (1.3) are identical and are the physical representations of what is obtained when the complete differential of Eq. (1.1), i.e.,

$$dV = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_T dP + \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P dT \quad (1.4)$$

is integrated between the limits P_2, T_2 and P_1, T_1 .

The change in volume caused by moving the state of the gas from state 1 to state 2 depends only on the volume at state 1 and the volume at state 2 and is independent of the path taken by the gas between the states 1 and 2. This is because the volume of the gas is a *state function* and Eq. (1.4) is an exact differential of the volume V .*

1.3 SIMPLE EQUILIBRIUM

In Figure 1.1 the state of existence of the system (or simply the state of the system) lies on the surface in P - V - T space; i.e., for any values of temperature and pressure the system is at equilibrium only when it has that unique volume which corresponds to the particular values of temperature and pressure. A particularly simple system is illustrated in Figure 1.2. This is a fixed quantity of gas contained in a cylinder by a movable piston. The system is at rest, i.e., is at equilibrium, when

1. The pressure exerted by the gas on the piston equals the pressure exerted by the piston on the gas, and

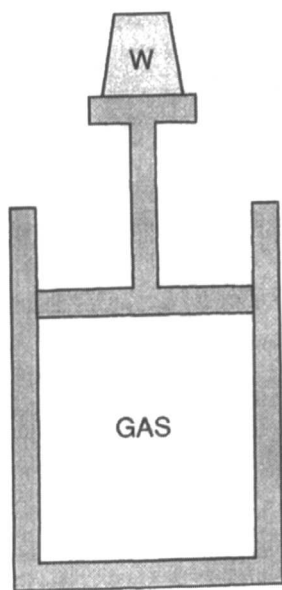


Figure 1.2 A quantity of gas contained in a cylinder by a piston.

*The properties of exact differential equations are discussed in Appendix B.

2. The temperature of the gas is the same as the temperature of the surroundings (provided that heat can be transported through the wall of the cylinder).

The state of the gas is thus fixed, and equilibrium occurs as a result of the establishment of a balance between the tendency of the external influences acting on the system to cause a change in the system and the tendency of the system to resist change. The fixing of the pressure of the gas at P_1 and temperature at T_1 determines the state of the system and hence fixes the volume at the value V_1 . If, by suitable decrease in the weight placed on the piston, the pressure exerted on the gas is decreased to P_2 , the resulting imbalance between the pressure exerted by the gas and the pressure exerted on the gas causes the piston to move out of the cylinder. This process increases the volume of the gas and hence decreases the pressure which it exerts on the piston until equalization of the pressures is restored. As a result of this process the volume of the gas increases from V_1 to V_2 . Thermodynamically, the isothermal change of pressure from P_1 to P_2 changes the state of the system from state 1 (characterized by P_1, T_1), to state 2 (characterized by P_2, T_1), and the volume, as a dependent variable, changes from the value V_1 to V_2 .

If the pressure exerted by the piston on the gas is maintained constant at P_2 and the temperature of the surroundings is raised from T_1 to T_2 , the consequent temperature gradient across the cylinder wall causes the flow of heat from the surroundings to the gas. The increase in the temperature of the gas at the constant pressure P_2 causes expansion of the gas, which pushes the piston out of the cylinder, and when the gas is uniformly at the temperature T_2 the volume of the gas is V_3 . Again, thermodynamically, the changing of the temperature from T_1 to T_2 at the constant pressure P_2 changes the state of the system from state 2 (P_2, T_1) to state 3 (P_2, T_2), and again, the volume as a dependent variable changes from V_2 in the state 2 to V_3 in the state 3. As volume is a state function, the final volume V_3 is independent of the order in which the above steps are carried out.

1.4 THE EQUATION OF STATE OF AN IDEAL GAS

The pressure-volume relationship of a gas at constant temperature was determined experimentally in 1660 by Robert Boyle, who found that, at constant T ,

$$P \propto \frac{1}{V}$$

which is known as Boyle's law. Similarly, the volume-temperature relationship of a gas at constant pressure was first determined experimentally by Jacques-Alexandre-Cesar Charles in 1787. This relationship, which is known as Charles' law, is, that at constant pressure

$$V \propto T$$

Thus, in Fig. 1.1, which is drawn for a fixed quantity of gas, sections of the P - V - T surface drawn at constant T produce rectangular hyperbolae which asymptotically

approach the P and V axes, and sections of the surface drawn at constant P produce straight lines. These sections are shown in Fig. 1.3a and Fig. 1.3b.

In 1802 Joseph-Louis Gay-Lussac observed that the thermal coefficient of what were called "permanent gases" was a constant. The coefficient of thermal expansion, α , is defined as the fractional increase, with temperature at constant pressure, of the volume of a gas at 0°C ; that is

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{V_0} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P$$

where V_0 is the volume of the gas at 0°C . Gay-Lussac obtained a value of $1/267$ for α , but more refined experimentation by Regnault in 1847 showed α to have the value $1/273$. Later it was found that the accuracy with which Boyle's and Charles' laws describe the behavior of different gases varies from one gas to another and that, generally, gases with lower boiling points obey the laws more closely than do gases with higher boiling points. It was also found that the laws are more closely obeyed by all gases as the pressure of the gas is decreased. It was thus found convenient to invent a hypothetical gas which obeys Boyle's and Charles' laws exactly at all temperatures and pressures. This hypothetical gas is called the *ideal gas*, and it has a value of α of $1/273.15$.

The existence of a finite coefficient of thermal expansion sets a limit on the thermal contraction of the ideal gas; that is, as α equals $1/273.15$ then the fractional decrease in the volume of the gas, per degree decrease in temperature, is $1/273.15$ of the volume at 0°C . Thus, at -273.15°C the volume of the gas is zero, and hence the limit of temperature decrease, -273.15°C , is the absolute zero of temperature. This defines an absolute scale of temperature, called the *ideal gas temperature scale*, which is related to the arbitrary celsius scale by the equation

$$T(\text{degrees absolute}) = T(\text{degrees celsius}) + 273.15$$

combination of Boyle's law

$$P_0 V(T, P_0) = P V(T, P)$$

and Charles' law

$$\frac{V(P_0, T_0)}{T_0} = \frac{V(P_0, T)}{T}$$

where

$$P_0 = \text{standard pressure (1 atm)}$$

$$T_0 = \text{standard temperature (273.15 degrees absolute)}$$

$$V(T, P) = \text{volume at temperature } T \text{ and pressure } P$$

gives

$$\frac{PV}{T} = \frac{P_0 V_0}{T_0} = \text{constant} \quad (1.5)$$

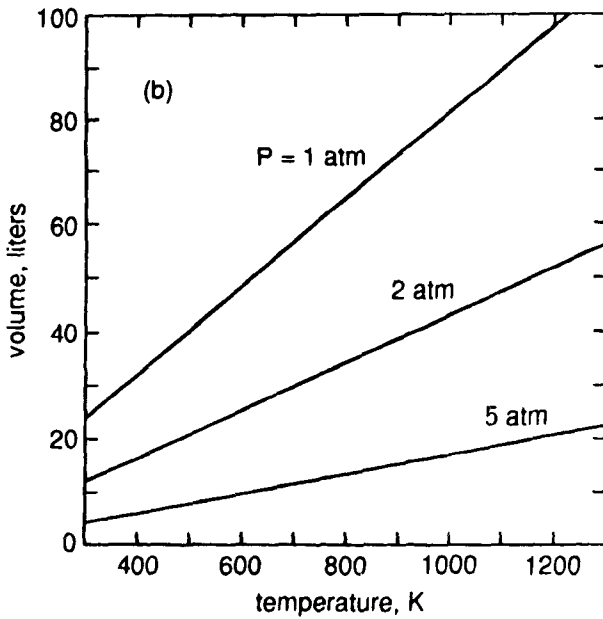
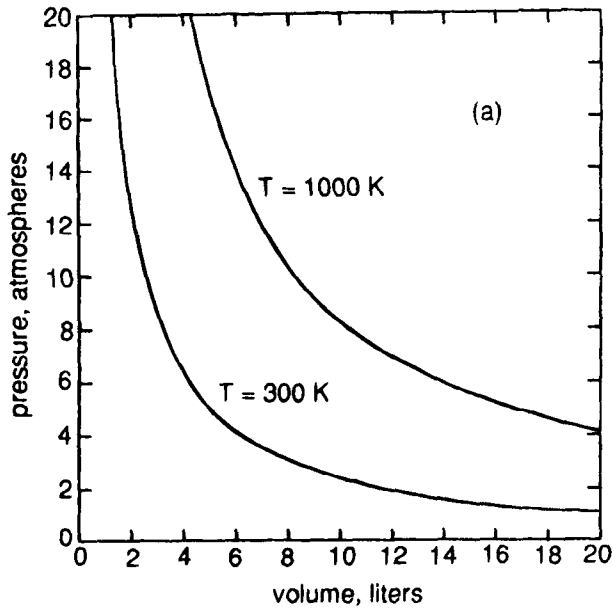


Figure 1.3 (a) The variations, with pressure, of the volume of 1 mole of ideal gas at 300 and 1000 K. (b) The variations, with temperature, of the volume of 1 mole of ideal gas at 1, 2, and 5 atm.