# Physical Chemistry 

## Peter Atkins (Sixth edition)



## Part 1: Equilibrium

3. The First Law: the machinery

## Bilingual

## Program

## 3. The First Law: the machinery

In this chapter we begin to unfold some of the power of thermodynamics by showing how to establish relations between different properties of a system. The procedure we use is based on the experimental fact that the internal energy and the enthalpy are state functions, and we derive a number of relations between observables by exploring the mathematical consequences of these f a C t S

## 3．The First Law：the machinery

## 3．1 State functions

1）．Exact and inexact differentials $\square$
2）．Changes in internal energy
3）．Expansion coefficient
3．2 The temperature dependence of the enthalpy
1）．Changes in enthalpy at constant volume
2）．The isothermal compressibility
3）．The Joule－Thomson effect
3．3 The reaction between $C_{v}$ and $C_{p}$

### 3.1 State functions

## 1). Exact and inexact differential



The initial state of the system is $i$ and in this state the internal energy is $U_{\mathrm{i}}$. Work is done by the system as it expands adiabatically to a state f. In this state the system has an internal energy $U_{\mathrm{f}}$ and the work done on the system as it changes along Path 1 from ito f is $w . U$ is a property of the state; $w$ is a $\begin{array}{lllllllllll}\mathbf{p} & \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{o} & \mathbf{p} & \mathbf{e} & \mathbf{r} & \mathbf{t} & \mathbf{y} & \mathbf{o} & \mathbf{f}\end{array}$ the path.

$$
\Delta \boldsymbol{U}=\int_{i}^{f} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{U}
$$

### 3.1 State functions

## 1). Exact and inexact differential



In Path 2, the initial and final states are the same but in which the expansion is not adiabatic. In this path an energy $q^{\prime}$ enters the system as heat and the work $w^{\prime}$ is not the same as $w$. The work and the heat are path functions.

$$
\boldsymbol{q}=\int_{i, \text { path }}^{f} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{q}
$$

### 3.1 State functions

## 1). Exact and inexact differential

$\triangle \boldsymbol{U}$, independent of the path, an exact differential.An exact differential is an infinitesimal quantity which, when integra-ted, gives a result that is independent of the path between the initial and final states.
$q$ or $\boldsymbol{w}$, dependent on the path,an inexact differential. When a system is heated, the total energy transferred as heat is the sum of all individual contributions at each point of the path.


$$
q \quad \begin{array}{lll}
q & \mathrm{~d} q & \mathrm{~d} q
\end{array}
$$

Consider a perfect gas inside a cylinder fitted with a piston. Let the initial state be $T, V_{\mathrm{i}}$ and the final state be $T, V_{\mathrm{f}}$. The change of state can be brought about in many ways, of which the two simplest are following: Path 1 , in which there is free expansion against zero external pressure; Path 2 , in which there is reversible, isothermal expansion. Calculate $w, q, \quad$ and $\Delta U$ for each process.

Method: To find a starting point for a calculation in thermodynamics, it is often a good idea to go back to first principles, and to look for a way of expressing the quantity we are asked to calculate in terms of other quantities that are easier to calculate. Because the internal energy of a perfect gas arises only from the kinetic energy of its molecules, it is independent of volume; therefore, for any
 general $\Delta U=q+w$.

Answer: Since $\Delta U=0$ for both paths and $\Delta U=q+w$. The work of free expansion is zero, in Path 1, $w=0$ and $q=0$;
for Path 2, the work is given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& w=-n R T \int_{V_{\mathrm{i}}}^{V_{\mathrm{f}}} \frac{\mathrm{~d} V}{V}=-n R T \ln \frac{V_{\mathrm{f}}}{V_{\mathrm{i}}} \\
& \text { so } w=-n R T \ln \left(V_{\mathrm{f}} / V_{\mathrm{i}}\right), \text { and } \\
& q=n R T \ln \left(V_{\mathrm{f}} / V_{\mathrm{i}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.1 State functions

## 2). Changes in internal energy

For a closed system of constant composition, $\boldsymbol{U}$ is a func-tion of $\boldsymbol{V}$ and $\boldsymbol{T}$. When $\boldsymbol{V}$ changes to $\boldsymbol{V}+\mathbf{d} \boldsymbol{V}$ at constant $\boldsymbol{T}$,
$\boldsymbol{U}$ changes to

$$
\boldsymbol{U}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{U}+(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{V})_{T} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{V}
$$

When $\boldsymbol{T}$ changes to $\boldsymbol{T}+\mathbf{d} \boldsymbol{T}$ at constant $\boldsymbol{V}, \boldsymbol{U}$ changes to

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{U}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{U}+(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{T})_{V} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{T} \\
& \boldsymbol{U}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{U}+(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{V})_{T} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{V}+(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{T})_{V} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{T} \\
& \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{U}=(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{V})_{T} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{V}+(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{T})_{V} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{T}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.1 State functions

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{U}=(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{V})_{T} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{V}+\underline{(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{T})_{V}} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{T} \\
\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{V}}
\end{gathered}
$$

$\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{V}$ the slope of a plot of $U$ against $T$ at constant $V$.

$$
\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{U}=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}\right)_{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{V}+\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{V}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{T}
$$

$\pi_{T}=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}\right)_{T}$, the internal pressure, the same dimension as $\boldsymbol{p}$

$$
\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{U}=\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{V}+\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{V}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{T}
$$

In a closed system of constant composition, $\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{U}$ is proportional to $\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{V}$ and $\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{T}$, the coefficients of proportionality being the partial derivatives.

$$
\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{U}=\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{V}+\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{V}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{T}
$$

If $\mathrm{d} U>0$ as the volume of the sample expands isothermal, $\mathrm{d} V>0$, which is the case when there are attractive forces between the particles $\pi_{\mathrm{T}}>0$

When there are no interactions be-tween the molecules, $U$ is indepen-dent of their separation and hence independent of the volume the sample occupies; hence $\pi_{\mathrm{T}}=$ 0 f or a p er f e c t gas.

## 3．1 State functions

3）．Changes in enthalpy at constant pressure

$$
\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{U}=\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{V}+\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{V}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{T}
$$

Dividing both sides of the equation by $\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{T}$ ，it follows that：

$$
\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}=\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{T}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}+\boldsymbol{C}_{V}
$$

The expansion coefficient，$\alpha$ ，is expressed as：

$$
\alpha=\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}
$$

A large value of $\alpha$ means that the volume of the sample responds strongly to changes in temperature

### 3.1 State functions

## 3). expansion coefficient

Introducing the definition of $\alpha$ into the equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \alpha=\frac{1}{V}\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_{p} \\
& \left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}=\boldsymbol{\pi}_{T}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}+\boldsymbol{C}_{V} \\
& \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_{p}=\alpha \pi_{T} V+C_{V}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 3.1 State functions

3). expansion coefficient

$$
\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_{p}=\alpha \pi_{T} V+C_{V}
$$

For a perfect gas, $\pi_{\mathrm{T}}=\mathbf{0}$ :

$$
\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}=\boldsymbol{C}_{V}
$$

The constant-volume heat capacity of a perfect gas is equal to the slope of a plot of internal energy against temperature at constant pressure as well as to the slope at constant volume.

## Example

Derive an expression for the expansion coefficient for a perfect gas by using the expansion coefficient of a gas.
Method: To use the expression of the expansion coefficient of a gas, we simply substitute the expression for $V$ in terms of $T$ obtained from the equation of state for the gas. The pressure is treated as a constant.

Answer: Because $p V=n R T$

$$
\alpha=\frac{1}{V}\left(\frac{\partial(\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{T} / \boldsymbol{p})}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}=\frac{\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{R}}{\boldsymbol{p} V}=\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{T}}
$$

The higher the temperature, the less responsive is its volume to a change in temperature.

## 3．The First Law：the machinery

3．1 State functions
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3．3 The reaction between $C_{V}$ and $C_{p}$

1）．Changes in enthalpy at constant volume
For a closed system of constant composition， $\boldsymbol{H}$ is a function of $\boldsymbol{p}$ and $\boldsymbol{T}$ ，and it follows that

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{H}=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{H}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T} \mathrm{~d} p+\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{H}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{T} \\
\text { and } \quad \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{H}=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{H}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T} \mathrm{~d} p+\frac{-}{\boldsymbol{C}_{p}} \mathrm{~d} T
\end{array}
$$

This expression implies that： $\square$

3．2 The temperature dependence of the enthalpy

$$
\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{H}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{V}=\left(1-\frac{\alpha \boldsymbol{\mu}}{\boldsymbol{k}_{T}}\right) \boldsymbol{C}_{\mathrm{p}}
$$

The isothermal compressibility，$\kappa_{T}$ ，is defined as：

$$
\kappa_{T}=-\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T}
$$

The Joule－Thomson coefficient，$\mu$ ，is defined as：

$$
\mu=\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial p}\right)_{H}
$$

## 2). The isothermal compressibility

$$
\kappa_{T}=-\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T}
$$

The negative sign in the definition of ${ }_{\kappa_{T}}$ ensures that it is positive, because an increase of pressure, implying a posi-tive $\mathbf{d} p$, brings about a reduction of volume, a negative $\mathbf{d} \boldsymbol{V}$. For a perfect gas

$$
\kappa_{T}=-\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial(\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{T} / \boldsymbol{p})}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T}=-\frac{\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{T}}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{p}^{2}}\right)=\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{p}}
$$

It shows that the higher the pressure of the gas, the lower its compressibility.

The isothermal compressibility of water at $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 1 atm is $4.94 \times 10^{-6} \mathbf{~ a t m}^{-1}$. What change of volume occurs when a sample of volume $50 \mathrm{~cm}^{3}$ is subjected to an additional 1000 atm at constant temperature?

Method: for an infinitesimal change of pressure at constant temperature, from the definition of $k_{\mathrm{T}}$, the volume changes:

$$
\kappa_{T}=-\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T} \quad \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{V}=-\kappa_{T} \boldsymbol{V} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{p}
$$

Answer: Integrate both sides:

$$
\int_{V_{\mathrm{i}}}^{V_{\mathrm{f}}} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{V}=-\int_{p_{\mathrm{i}}}^{p_{\mathrm{f}}} \boldsymbol{k}_{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{V} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{p}
$$

Suppose that $k_{T}$, and $V$ are approximately constant over the range of pressures of interest:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\int_{V_{\mathrm{i}}}^{V_{\mathrm{f}}} \mathrm{~d} V=-\int_{p_{\mathrm{i}}}^{p_{\mathrm{f}}} \boldsymbol{k}_{T} V \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{p} \\
\Delta V=-\boldsymbol{k}_{T} V \int_{p_{\mathrm{i}}}^{p_{\mathrm{f}}} \mathrm{~d} p=-\boldsymbol{k}_{T} V \Delta p \\
\Delta V=-\left(\mathbf{4} .94 \times \mathbf{1 0}^{-6} \mathbf{a t m}^{-1}\right) \times\left(50 \mathbf{c m}^{3}\right) \times(\mathbf{1 0 0 0} \mathbf{a t m}) \\
=-\mathbf{0 . 2 5} \mathbf{c m}^{3}
\end{gathered}
$$

3). The Joule -Thomson effect


The thermodynamic basis of Joule-Thomson expansion.

## Adiabatic expansion, Constant $H$ :

 let a gas expand through a porous barrier from one constant pressure to another, and monitored the difference of $\boldsymbol{T}$ that arose from the expansion. The process was adiabatic. It was observed a lower $T$ on the low-pressure side, the difference in $T$ being proportional to the $p$ difference maintained. This cooling by adiabatic expansion is now called the Joule-Thomson effect.
### 3.2 The temperature dependence of the enthalpy

3). The Joule -Thomson effect


The thermodynamic basis of Joule-Thomson expansion.

Because all changes to the gas occur adiabatically: $q=0$.

The gas on the left is compressed isothermally and the work done:

$$
w_{\mathrm{L}}=-p_{\mathrm{i}}\left(0-V_{\mathrm{i}}\right)=\boldsymbol{p}_{\mathrm{i}} V_{\mathrm{i}}
$$

The work done in right:

$$
w_{\mathrm{R}}=-p_{\mathrm{f}}\left(V_{\mathrm{f}}-0\right)=-p_{\mathrm{f}} V_{\mathrm{f}}
$$

The total work done:

$$
w=w_{\mathrm{L}}+w_{\mathrm{R}}=p_{\mathrm{i}} V_{\mathrm{i}}-p_{\mathrm{f}} V_{\mathrm{f}}
$$

3). The Joule -Thomson effect

Since $q=0$, then $U=w+q=w$. the change of $\boldsymbol{U}$ of the gas as it moves from one side of the throttle to the other is:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U_{\mathrm{f}}-U_{\mathrm{i}}=w=p_{\mathrm{i}} V_{\mathrm{i}}-p_{\mathrm{f}} V_{\mathrm{f}} \\
& U_{\mathrm{f}}+p_{\mathrm{f}} V_{\mathrm{f}}=U_{\mathrm{i}}+p_{\mathrm{i}} V_{\mathrm{i}} \\
& H_{\mathrm{f}}=H_{\mathrm{i}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The expansion occurs without change of enthalpy: an isenthalpic process.


The thermodynamic basis of Joule-Thomson expansion.


## 3). The Joule -Thomson effect

The property is the ratio of the $T$ change to the change of $p, \Delta T / \Delta p$. Adding the constraint of constant enthalpy and taking the limit of small $\Delta p$ implies the quantity measured is $(\mathrm{d} T / \mathrm{d} p)_{\mathrm{H}}$, which is the Joule-Thomson coefficient, $\mu$. And $\mu$ is the ratio of the change in temperature to the change in pressure when a gas expands under adiabatic conditions.

$$
\mu=(\partial T / \partial p)_{H}
$$

For measurement, the isothermal Joule-Thomson coefficient, $\mu_{T}$, is used:

$$
\boldsymbol{\mu}_{T}=(\partial \boldsymbol{H} / \partial \boldsymbol{p})_{T}=-\boldsymbol{C}_{p} \boldsymbol{\mu}
$$

3). The Joule -Thomson effect: for real gases


Pressure, $p$
The sign of the JouleThomson coefficient, $\mu$

For a perfect gas, $\mu=0$. But Real gases have nonzero $\mu$ and, depending on the identity of the gas, $p$ and $T$,the relative magnitudes of the attractive and repulsive intermolecular forces, the sign of the coefficient may be
 or negative.

A positive sign implies that $\mathrm{d} T$ is negative when $d p$ is negative, in which case the gas cools on expansion. A negative sign implies heating process.


Pressure，$p$

Inside the boundary，$\mu>0$ and outside it is negative．The $T$ corresponding to the boundary at a given $p$ is the inversion $T$ of the gas at that $p$ ．Reduction of $p$ under adiabatic conditions moves the system along one of the isenthalps．The inversion $T$ curve runs through the points of the isenthalps where their slopes change from negative to positive．

### 3.2 The temperature dependence of the enthalpy

## 3). The Joule -Thomson effect: for real gases



Gases that show a heating effect ( $\mu<0$ ) at one $\boldsymbol{T}$ show a cooling effect ( $\mu>0$ ) when the $\boldsymbol{T}$ is below their upper inversion temperature, $\boldsymbol{T}_{\mathrm{I}}$. A gas typically has two inversion temperatures, one at high temperature and the other at low.
The sign of the Joule-Thomson coefficient, $\mu$

3．3 The reaction between $C_{V}$ and $C_{p}$

We know that

$$
\boldsymbol{C}_{p}-\boldsymbol{C}_{V}=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{H}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}-\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{V}
$$

To introduce $H=U+p V$

$$
C_{p}-C_{V}=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}+\left(\frac{\partial(p \boldsymbol{p})}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}-\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{V}
$$

From the equation $\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_{p}=\alpha \pi_{T} V+C_{V}$

## 3．3 The reaction between $C_{V}$ and $C_{p}$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\frac{\partial(p V)}{\partial T}\right)_{p}=p\left(\frac{\partial(V)}{\partial T}\right)_{p}=\alpha p V \\
C_{p}-C_{V}=\alpha p V+\alpha \pi_{T} V=\alpha\left(p+\pi_{T}\right) V \\
\text { Since } \pi_{T}=\boldsymbol{T}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{V}-p \\
C_{p}-C_{V}=\alpha T V\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T}\right)_{p}
\end{gathered}
$$

## 3．3 The reaction between $C_{V}$ and $C_{p}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C_{p}-C_{V}=\alpha T V\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T}\right)_{V}\left\{\begin{array}{r}
\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{\boldsymbol{T}} \\
=-\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T} \\
\boldsymbol{\alpha}
\end{array}=\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}\right. \\
& C_{p}-C_{V}=\frac{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{2} \boldsymbol{T V}}{\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{T}}
\end{aligned}
$$

3．3 The reaction between $C_{V}$ and $C_{p}$
For a perfect gas

$$
\begin{gathered}
\alpha=\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{T}} \quad \text { and } \quad \boldsymbol{\kappa}_{T}=\frac{1}{p} \\
C_{p}-C_{V}=\frac{\alpha^{2} \boldsymbol{T V}}{\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{T}}=n \boldsymbol{R} \\
C_{p, m}-C_{V, m}=\boldsymbol{R}
\end{gathered}
$$

## A summary

$$
\mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{U}=\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{T}} \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{V}+\boldsymbol{C}_{V} \mathrm{~d} \boldsymbol{T}
$$

1). Internal pressure, $\pi_{T}$

$$
\boldsymbol{\pi}_{T}=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{U}}{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}\right)_{T}
$$

For a perfect gas: $\pi_{T}=0$.
3) Isothermal compressibility, $\kappa_{T}$

$$
\kappa_{T}=-\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{T}
$$

For a perfect gas: $\quad \kappa_{T}=\frac{1}{p}$
2). Expansion coefficient, $\alpha$
$\alpha=\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{V}}\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{V}}{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}\right)_{p}$
For a perfect gas: $\quad \alpha=\frac{1}{T}$
4). Joule-Thomson coefficient, $\mu$

$$
\mu=\left(\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}\right)_{H}
$$

For a perfect gas: $\mu=0$

## Part 1: Equilibrium

1. The properties of gases
2. The First Law: the concepts
3. The First Law: the machinery
4. The Second Law: the concepts
5. The Second Law: the machinery
6. Physical transformations of pure substances
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8. Phase diagrams
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10. Electrochemistry
