Physical Chemistry Peter Atkins (Sixth edition)



Program

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Part 1: Equilibrium

3. The First Law: the machinery

Bilingual

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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 8

3. The First Law: the machinery

3.1 State functions

1). Exact and inexact differentials



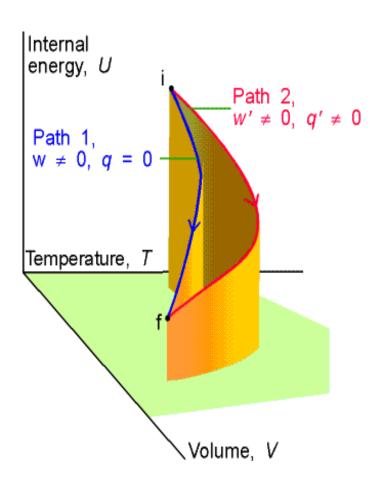
- 2). Changes in internal energy
- **3). Expansion coefficient**

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



1). Exact and inexact differential

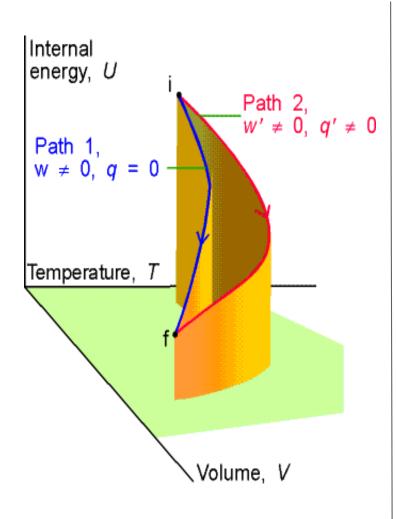


The initial state of the system is i and in this state the internal energy is U_i . Work is done by the system as it expands adiabatically to a state f. In this state the system has an internal energy U_f and the work done on the system as it changes along Path 1 from i to f is *w*. *U* is a property of the state; *w* is a p r o p e r t y o f the path.

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



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' enters the system as heat and the work w' is not the same as w. The work and the heat are path functions.

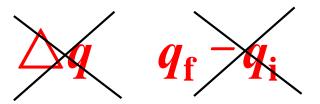
$$q = \int_{i,\text{path}}^{f} \mathbf{d} q$$



1). Exact and inexact differential

 ΔU , 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 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.







Consider a perfect gas inside a cylinder fitted with a piston. Let the initial state be T, V_i and the final state be T, V_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, and ΔU for each process.

Example – Calculating work, heat, and internal energy

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 isothermal change, in general $\Delta U = q + w$.

Example – Calculating work, heat, and internal energy **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 $w = -nRT \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{\mathrm{d} V}{V} = -nRT \ln \frac{V_f}{V}$ so $w = -nRT \ln (V_f/V_i)$, and $q = nRT \ln (V_f/V_i)$.



2). Changes in internal energy

For a closed system of constant composition, U is a func-tion of V and T. When V changes to V + dV at constant T, U changes to

$$\boldsymbol{U}' = \boldsymbol{U} + \left(\partial \boldsymbol{U} / \partial \boldsymbol{V}\right)_T \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{V}$$

When T changes to T+dT at constant V, U changes to

$$U' = U + (\partial U / \partial T)_V dT$$
$$U' = U + (\partial U / \partial V)_T dV + (\partial U / \partial T)_V dT$$
$$U' = (\partial U / \partial V)_T dV + (\partial U / \partial T)_V dT$$



$$dU = (\partial U/\partial V)_T dV + (\partial U/\partial T)_V dT$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} C_V \\ \hline C_V \end{bmatrix}$$
($\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}$), the slope of a plot of U against T at constant V.

$$dU = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T dV + C_V dT$$

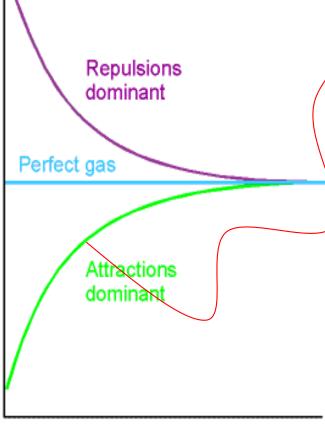
$$\pi_T = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T$$
, the internal pressure, the same dimension as p

$$dU = \pi_T dV + C_V dT$$
In a closed system of constant composition, dU is proportional to dV and dT , the coefficients of proportionality

being the partial derivatives.







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

If dU > 0 as the volume of the sample expands isothermal, dV > 0, which is the case when there are attractive forces between the particles $\pi_T > 0$

When there are no interactions be-tween the molecules, U is independent of their separation and hence independent of the volume the sample occupies; hence $\pi_T =$ 0 f o r a p e r f e c t

Volume, V

gas.



3). Changes in enthalpy at constant pressure $dU = \pi_T dV + C_V dT$

Dividing both sides of the equation by d*T*, it follows that:

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

The expansion coefficient, α , is expressed as:

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

A large value of α means that the volume of the sample responds strongly to changes in temperature



3). expansion coefficient

Introducing the definition of α into the equation:

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

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

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



3). expansion coefficient

$$\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_p = \alpha \pi_T V + C_V$$

For a perfect gas, $\pi_T = 0$:

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

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 pV = nRT

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

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

- 1). Exact and inexact differentials
- 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



1). Changes in enthalpy at constant volume

For a closed system of constant composition, H is a function of p and T, and it follows that

$$\mathbf{d}H = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}\right)_T \mathbf{d}p + \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_p \mathbf{d}T$$

and
$$\mathbf{d}H = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial p}\right)_T \mathbf{d}p + \overline{C}_p \mathbf{d}T$$

This expression implies that:



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

The isothermal compressibility, κ_T , is defined as:

$$\kappa_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} \right)_T$$

The Joule-Thomson coefficient, μ , is defined as:

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

2). The isothermal compressibility $\kappa_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} \right)_T$

The negative sign in the definition of κ_T ensures that it is positive, because an increase of pressure, implying a posi-tive dp, brings about a reduction of volume, a negative dV. For a perfect gas

$$\kappa_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial \left(nRT / p \right)}{\partial p} \right)_T = -\frac{nRT}{V} \left(\frac{1}{p^2} \right) = \frac{1}{p}$$

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

Example- Using the isothermal compressibility

The isothermal compressibility of water at 20° and 1 atm is 4.94×10^{-6} atm⁻¹. What change of volume occurs when a sample of volume 50 cm³ is subjected to an additional 1000 atm at constant temperature?

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

$$\kappa_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} \right)_T \qquad \mathrm{d} V = -\kappa_T V \mathrm{d} p$$



Answer: Integrate both sides:

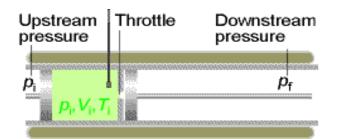
$$\int_{V_{i}}^{V_{f}} \mathrm{d}V = -\int_{p_{i}}^{p_{f}} k_{T}V \,\mathrm{d}p$$

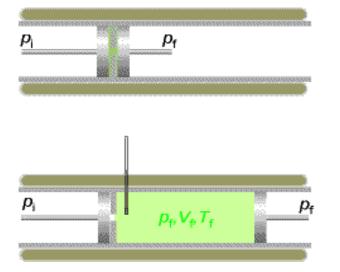
Suppose that k_T , and V are approximately constant over the range of pressures of interest:

$$\int_{V_{i}}^{V_{f}} \mathrm{d}V = -\int_{p_{i}}^{p_{f}} k_{T} V \mathrm{d}p$$
$$\Delta V = -k_{T} V \int_{p_{i}}^{p_{f}} \mathrm{d}p = -k_{T} V \Delta p$$

 $\Delta V = -(4.94 \times 10^{-6} \text{ atm}^{-1}) \times (50 \text{ cm}^3) \times (1000 \text{ atm})$ = -0.25 cm³

3). The Joule - Thomson effect

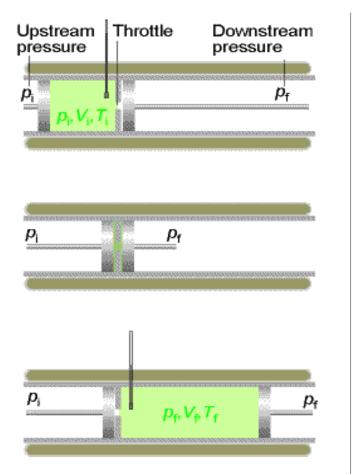




The thermodynamic basis of Joule-Thomson expansion. Adiabatic expansion, Constant H:

let a gas expand through a porous barrier from one constant pressure to another, and monitored the difference of 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). The Joule - Thomson effect

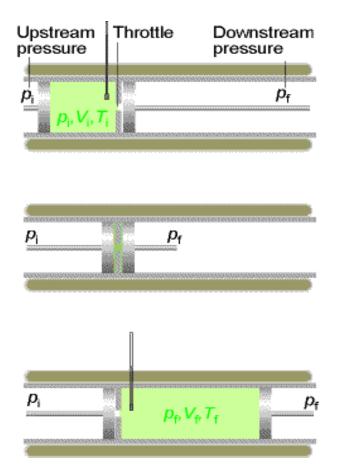


The thermodynamic basis of Joule - Thomson expansion. Because all changes to the gas occur adiabatically: q = 0.

The gas on the left is compressed isothermally and the work done: $w_{\rm L} = -p_{\rm i}(0-V_{\rm i}) = p_{\rm i}V_{\rm i}$

The work done in right: $w_{\mathbf{R}} = -p_{\mathbf{f}}(V_{\mathbf{f}} - 0) = -p_{\mathbf{f}}V_{\mathbf{f}}$ The total work done: $w = w_{\mathbf{L}} + w_{\mathbf{R}} = p_{\mathbf{i}}V_{\mathbf{i}} - p_{\mathbf{f}}V_{\mathbf{f}}$

3). The Joule - Thomson effect



The thermodynamic basis of Joule - Thomson expansion. Since q = 0, then U = w + q = w. the change of *U* of the gas as it moves from one side of the throttle to the other is:

 $U_{f} - U_{i} = w = p_{i}V_{i} - p_{f}V_{f}$ $U_{f} + p_{f}V_{f} = U_{i} + p_{i}V_{i}$ $H_{f} = H_{i}$

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



3). The Joule - Thomson effect

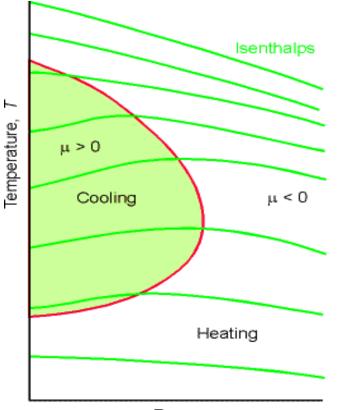
The property is the ratio of the *T* change to the change of p, $\Delta T/\Delta p$. Adding the constraint of constant enthalpy and taking the limit of small Δp implies the quantity measured is $(dT/dp)_{\rm H}$, which is the **Joule-Thomson coefficient**, μ . And μ is the ratio of the change in temperature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

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

For measurement, the isothermal Joule-Thomson coefficient, μ_T , is used:

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

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

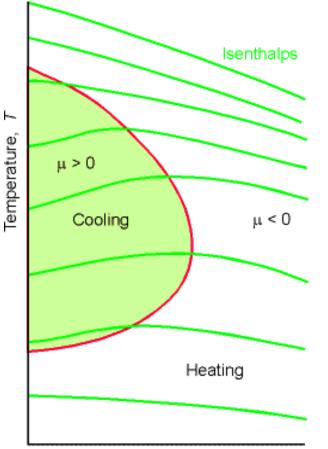


Pressure, p

The sign of the Joule-Thomson coefficient, μ For a perfect gas, $\mu = 0$. But Real gases have nonzero μ 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 e i t h e r p o s i t i v e or negative.

A positive sign implies that dT is negative when dp is negative, in which case the gas cools on expansion. A negative sign implies heating process.

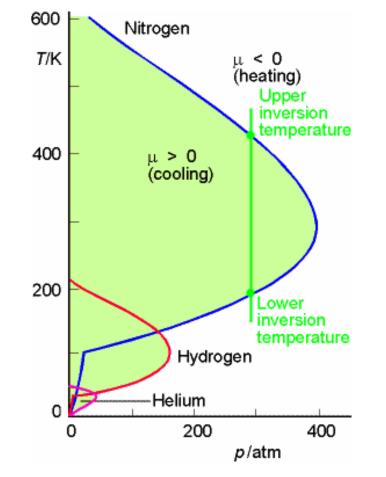
3). The Joule - Thomson effect: for real gases



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.

Pressure, p

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



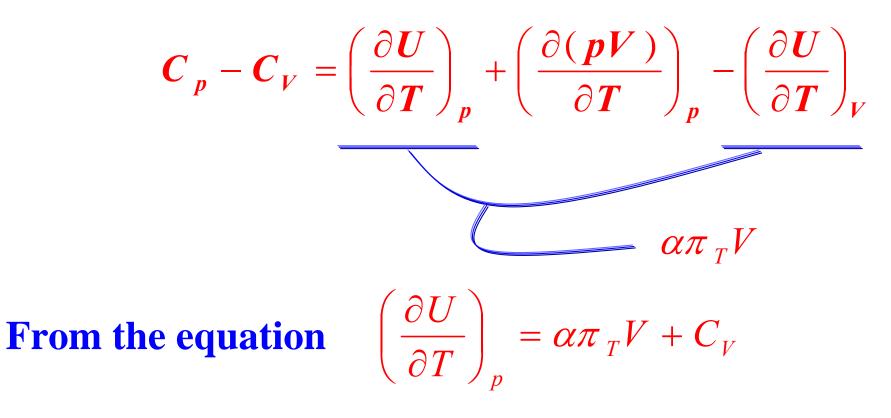
The sign of the Joule-Thomson coefficient, μ

Gases that show a heating effect $(\mu < 0)$ at one **T** show a cooling effect $(\mu > 0)$ when the **T** is below their upper inversion temperature, T_{I} . A gas typically has two inversion temperatures, one at high temperature and the other at low.



We know that
$$C_p - C_V = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_p - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V$$

To introduce H=U+pV





$$C_p - C_V = \alpha \ pV + \alpha \ \pi_T V = \alpha \ (p + \pi_T)V$$

Since
$$\pi_T = T\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T}\right)_V - p$$

$$C_p - C_V = \alpha \ T \ V \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial T}\right)_V$$

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{p}-\boldsymbol{C}_{V}=\frac{\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{2}\boldsymbol{T}\boldsymbol{V}}{\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{T}}$$



For a perfect gas

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{T}$$
 and $\kappa_T = \frac{1}{p}$

$$C_p - C_V = \frac{\alpha^2 TV}{\kappa_T} = nR$$

$$\boldsymbol{C}_{p,m} - \boldsymbol{C}_{V,m} = \boldsymbol{R}$$



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

1). Internal pressure, π_T

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

For a perfect gas: $\pi_T = 0$.

3) Isothermal compressibility, κ_T

$$\kappa_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} \right)_T$$

For a perfect gas: $\kappa_T = \frac{1}{p}$

2). Expansion coefficient, α

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

For a perfect gas: $\alpha = \frac{1}{T}$

4). Joule-Thomson coefficient, μ

$$\boldsymbol{u} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{T}}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}} \end{array} \right)_{\boldsymbol{H}}$$

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
- 7. Simple mixtures
- 8. Phase diagrams
- 9. Chemical equilibrium
- **10. Electrochemistry**