Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-THERMODYNAMIC TERMS
- · Sub topics:-
 - The System and the Surroundings
 - · Types of the System
 - · State of the System
 - · State Functions
 - · Adiabatic System

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Thermodynamics

- The branch of science which deals with the quantitative relationship between heat and other forms of energies is called thermodynamics
- · For example,
 - Chemical energy stored by molecules can be released as heat during chemical reactions when a fuel like methane, cooking gas or coal burns in air.
 - · The chemical energy used to do mechanical work when a fuel burns in an engine
 - The chemical energy used to provide electrical energy through a galvanic cell like dry cell.
- The study of these energy transformations forms the subject matter of thermodynamics

The System and the Surroundings

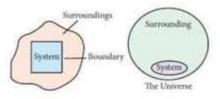
- The part of universe in which observations are made or which is under investigation is called system
- Surroundings is the part of universe other than system. The surroundings include everything other than the system.
- System and the surroundings together constitute the universe.
- The universe = The system + The surroundings

Continue...

The System and the Surroundings

- For example, if we are studying the reaction between two substances A and B kept in a beaker, the beaker containing the reaction mixture is the system and the room where the beaker is kept is the surroundings
- System and surroundings are separated by a boundary.
- This boundary may be real or imaginary.





Types of the System

Open System

- There is exchange of energy and matter between system and surroundings.
- For example, the presence of reactants in an open beaker.
- · Here the boundary is an imaginary

Closed System

- There is no exchange of matter, but exchange of energy is possible between system and the surroundings.
- For example, the presence of reactants in a closed vessel made of conducting material.

 Isolated System
- There is no exchange of energy and matter between the system and the surroundings
- For example, the presence of reactants in a thermos flask or any other closed insulated vessel

Continue... Types of the System







(b) Closed System



(c) Isolated System



aoucepan with lid Closed system



Isolated system

The State of the System

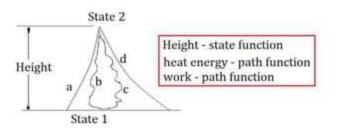
- The state of a thermodynamic system is described by its measurable or macroscopic (bulk) properties.
- We can describe the state of a gas by quoting its pressure (p), volume (V), temperature (T), amount (n) etc.

State of System

It is the condition of system which is described in terms of certain measurable properties such as temperature(T), pressure(P), volume(V) etc. of the system.

State Functions

- The macroscopic properties whose values depend only on the state of the system(initial and final) and not on how it is reached are called state functions.
- For example, P, T, V, Internal energy, Enthalpy, Entropy



 Path functions depend on the path taken to reach one state from another.

Adiabatic System

- The system which will not allow exchange of heat between the system and surroundings through its boundary but energy of the system may change by work.
- Adiabatic process is a process in which there is no transfer of heat between the system and surroundings.
- · aThe wall reparating the prestamendable rocess.
- Rurappedingstastcalled the adiabatic wall to exchange heat with surroundings

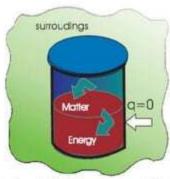


Fig. An adiabatic system which does not permit the transfer of heat through its boundary.

Adiabatic System	Isolated System
It has no exchange of energy and matter with the surrounding environment	It has no transfer of energy and matter through its boundaries .
It has a surrounding environment	It doesn't have a surrounding environment
It does not gain or loss energy but internal energy can be changed due to work done by the system	Energy is conserved
Internal energy can be changed	Internal energy can not be changed

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Internal Energy (U)
 - · Mathematical statement of the first law of thermodynamics

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Internal Energy (U)

- Total energy of the system is called internal energy of the system.
- It is the sum of kinetic(translational, vibrational and rotational) potential, chemical, electrical, mechanical energies etc.
- · Internal energy is a state function-depends on initial and final states of the system
- Absolute value of U can not be determined.
- Change in internal energy (ΔU) is determined.
 ΔU = U₂-U₁
- It may change, when
 - heat passes into or out of the system,
 - work is done on or by the system,
 - matter enters or leaves the system.

Ways of Changing Internal Energy

Work: Consider an adiabatic system

- Initial state of the system = A and its temperature = T_A.
- Internal energy of the system in state A = U_A.
- · We can change the state of the system in two different ways.

One way: By mechanical work (1 kJ):- by rotating a set of small paddles

- Final State =B state and its temperature=T_B.
- if T_B > T_A and the change in temperature, ΔT = T_B-T_A.
- The internal energy of the system in state B = U_B and
- The change in internal energy, ΔU = U_B U_A = W_{ad}.

Ways of Changing Internal Energy Work

- Second way: We now do an equal amount (i.e., 1kJ) electrical work with the help of an immersion rod and note down the temperature change.
- We find that the change in temperature is same as in the earlier case, T_B-T_A
- The change in internal energy, ΔU = U_B U_A = W_{ad}.
- Therefore, internal energy, U, of the system is a state function.
- J. P. Joule showed that a given amount of work done on the system, no matter how
 it was done (irrespective of path) produced the same change of state, as measured
 by the change in the temperature of the system. By conventions:-
- Work done on the system = positive work (+W) internal energy of system increases.
- Work done by the system = negative work (-W) internal energy of the system decreases.

Continue... Ways of Changing Internal Energy

Heat(q):

- If system and surroundings are at different temperatures, internal energy of the system is changed by transfer of heat through thermally conducting walls
- If temperature of System = T_A and Temperature of surroundings = T_B
- T_B < T_A heat is transferred from system to surroundings till T_B=T_A
- T_B > T_A heat is transferred from surroundings to system till T_B=T_A
- In this case change in internal energy, ΔU= q, when no work is done at constant volume.



Fig. A system which allows heat transfer through its boundary.

Continue... Ways of Changing Internal Energy

Heat(q):

- By conventions
- The q is positive (+q)= heat is transferred from the surroundings to the system and the internal energy of the system increases and
- q is negative (-q) = heat is transferred from system to the surroundings resulting in decrease of the internal energy of the system..

Mathematical statement of the first law of thermodynamics

Initial State
$$+q$$
 $+w$ Final State $U_1 + q$ $U_2 + w$ $U_2 = U_1 + q + w$

- ∆U = U₂ U₁ = q + w
- ΔU = q + w mathematical statement of the first law of thermodynamics,
- which states that The energy of an isolated system is constant.
- It is commonly stated as the law of conservation of energy i.e., energy can neither be created nor be destroyed.

Continue...

Mathematical statement of the first law of thermodynamics

- q and w are path functions but q +w = ΔU will depend only on initial and final state therefore (q + w) is state function
- It will be independent of the way the change is carried out.
 - If there is no transfer of energy as heat or as work (isolated system) i.e., if w = 0 and q = 0, then $\Delta U = 0$.

Problem 6.1

Express the change in internal energy of a system when

(i) No heat is absorbed by the system from the surroundings, but work (w) is done on the system. What type of wall does the system have?

Solution: $\Delta U = W_{ad}$, wall is adiabatic

(ii) No work is done on the system, but q amount of heat is taken out from the system and given to the surroundings. What type of wall does the system have?

Solution: $\Delta U = -q$, thermally conducting walls

(iii) w amount of work is done by the system and q amount of heat is supplied to the system. What type of system would it be?

Solution:- $\Delta U = q - w$, closed system.

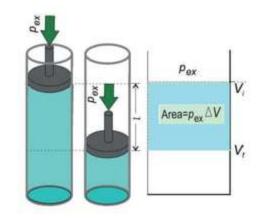
Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Pressure-Volume Work
 - Reversible and Irreversible process

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Pressure-Volume Work

- A cylinder contains one mole of an ideal gas fitted with a frictionless piston.
- Initial volume the gas is V_i and pressure of the gas inside is p.
- p_{ex}= external pressure , p_{ex} > p
- piston is moved inward till p_{ex}= p
- Final volume = V_t.
- During this compression, piston moves a distance,
 I and is cross-sectional area of the piston is A



Pressure-Volume Work

then, volume change =
$$I \times A = \Delta V = (V_f - V_i)$$

$$pressure = \frac{force}{area}$$

Therefore, force on the piston = p_{ex} . A

If w is the work done on the system by movement of the piston then

$$w = force x distance = p_{ex} . A . I$$

$$W = p_{ex} \cdot (V_t - V_t) = -p_{ex} \Delta V$$

 $W = - p\Delta V$

- The negative sign of this expression is required to obtain conventional sign for w, which will be positive.
- compression work is done on the system.
- (V_r-V_r) will be negative and negative multiplied by negative will be positive.
- This formula is also applicable for expansion work which is done by the
- system so it will be negative.
- In expansion $(V_f V_i)$ will be positive

Reversible process

- A process or change is said to be reversible, if a change is brought out in such a
 way that the process could, at any moment, be reversed by an infinitesimal
 (इनफ़िनि टेसिमल extremely small)change.
- A reversible process proceeds infinitely slowly by a series of equilibrium states such that system and the surroundings are always in near equilibrium with each other.

Irreversible processes

- Processes other than reversible processes are known as irreversible processes.
- All natural processes are irreversible.

Differences between Reversible and Irreversible process

Reversible process	Irreversible process	
The process is carried out infinitesimally slowly.	It is carried out rapidly	
At any stage, the equilibrium is not disturbed	Equilibrium may exit only after the completion of the process.	
It takes infinite time for completion.		
Work obtained in this process is maximum		
It is an imaginary process.	It is a natural process	

Continue...

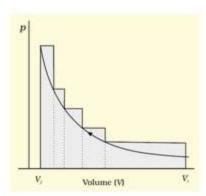
Pressure-Volume Work

 If the compression of gas is carried out in number of finite steps, work done on the gas will be summed over all the steps and will be equal to Σ

 $p\Delta V$

Fig:-

- pV-plot when pressure is not constant and changes in finite steps during compression from initial volume, V_ito final volume, V_f
- Work done on the gas is represented by the shaded area.



Continue.

Pressure-Volume Work in Reversible

- If the compression of gas is carried out in infinite steps through reversible process, at each stage of compression, the volume decreases by an infinitesimal amount, dV.
- In this case, the work done on the gas is calculated by the following relation

$$w = -\int_{V}^{V_f} p_{ex} dV$$

- $w = -\int\limits_{V_i}^{V_f} p_{ex} dV$ Here, p_{ex} at each stage is equal to $(p_{in} + dp)$ in case of compression.
 - In an expansion process, p_{ex} = (p_{in}-dp).

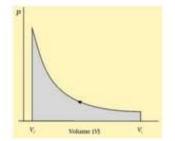
$$\mathbf{w}_{rev} = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} p_{ex} dV = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} (p_{tot} \pm dp) dV$$

$$p_{\text{ex}} = f_{\text{ex}}$$
Since $dp \times dV$ is very small we can write
$$w_{\text{rev}} = -\int_{0}^{v_{f}} p_{\text{in}} dV = -\int_{0}^{v_{f}} p \ dV$$

Continue...

Pressure-Volume Work in Reversible

$$\mathbf{w}_{rev} = -\int_{V}^{V_f} p \, dV$$



process

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{nRT}{V}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{rev} = -\int\limits_{V_{t}}^{V_{f}} nRT \frac{dV}{V} = -nRT \ln \frac{V_{f}}{V_{t}}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{rev} = -2.303 \; nRT \log \frac{V_{f}}{V_{t}}$$

Fig. pV-plot when pressure is not constant and changes in infinite steps (reversible conditions) during compression from initial volume, V.to final volume, V.

 Work done on the gas is represented by the shaded area.

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - · Free expansion
 - Problem 6.2, 6.3, 6.4

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Free expansion:

- Expansion of a gas in vacuum (p_{er} = 0) is called free expansion.
- No work is done during free expansion of an ideal gas whether the process is reversible or irreversible.

$$w = -p_{ex} \Delta V$$
 if $p_{ex} = 0$ $w = 0$

mathematical statement of the first law of thermodynamics $\Delta U = q + w$

$$\Delta U = q - p_{ex} \Delta V$$

If a process is carried out at constant volume ($\Delta V = 0$), then

$$\Delta U = q_{\nu}$$

Change in internal energy is the heat supplied at constant volume.

Isothermal and free expansion of an ideal gas

- For isothermal (T = constant) expansion of an ideal gas into vacuum; w = 0 since $p_{er} = 0$.
- Also, Joule determined experimentally that q = 0; therefore, ΔU

$$\Delta U = q + \bar{w}$$
 can be expressed for isothermal irreversible and reversible changes as

follows:
$$q = -w = p_{ex}(V_f - V_t)$$

- For isothermal irreversible chanc
- 2. For isothermal reversible change $q = -w = nRT \ln \frac{V_f}{V_c} = 2.303 \ nRT \log \frac{V_f}{V_c}$

$$\Delta U = W_{ad}$$

3. For adiabatic change, q = 0

Problem 6.2

Two litres of an ideal gas at a pressure of 10 atm expands isothermally at 25 °C into a vacuum until its total volume is 10 litres. How much heat is absorbed and how much work is done in the expansion?

Solution

For isothermal process
$$q = -w = p_{ex}(V_f - V_i)$$

$$w = -p_{ex}(V_f V_i) = 0(10 - 2) = 0(8) = 0$$
 No work is done; no heat is absorbed.

Problem 6.3

Consider the same expansion, but this time against a constant external pressure of 1 atm.

Solution

We have $q = -w = p_{ex}(8) = 8$ litre-atm

Problem 6.4

Consider the expansion given in problem 6.2, for 1 mol of an ideal gas conducted reversibly.

Solutic
$$q = -w = 2.303 \, nRT \log \frac{V_f}{V_t}$$

=
$$2.303 \times 1 \times 0.0821 \times 298 \log \frac{10}{2}$$

= $2.303 \times 1 \times 0.0821 \times 298 \times 0.6990 = 39.38 \text{ L atm}$

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Enthalpy
 - Relation between \(\Delta U \) And \(\Delta H \)

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Enthalpy, H

- The heat absorbed at constant volume is equal to change in the Internal Energy i.e.,
 ΔU = q_v
- But most of chemical reactions are carried out not at constant volume, but in flasks or test tubes under constant atmospheric pressure.
- Another thermodynamic function, the enthalpy H [Greek word enthalpien, to warm or heat content] as: H = U + pV
- Enthalpy is the sum of internal energy and product of pressure-volume.
- · Enthalpy is a state function-depends on initial and final states of the system
- Absolute value of H can not be determined.
- Change in enthalpy (ΔH) is determined. ΔH = H₂-H₁

Continue...

Enthalpy, H

mathematical statement of the first law of thermodynamics $\Delta U = q + w$, $w = -p\Delta V$ At constant pressure, $\Delta U = q_p - p\Delta V$,

where q_p is heat absorbed by the system and $-p\Delta V$ = expansion work done by the system.

Internal energy
$$U_1$$
 U_2

Volume
$$V_1$$
 V_2

Change in internal energy
$$U_2-U_1=q_0-p(V_2-V_1)$$

On rearranging,
$$q_p = (U_2 + pV_2) - (U_1 + pV_1)$$

From
$$H = U + pV$$
 $H_2 = U_2 + pV_2$

$$H_1=U_1+pV_1$$

$$q_p = H_2 - H_1 = \Delta H$$

- For finite changes at constant pressure the equation H = U + pV can be written as
- ΔH = ΔU + ΔpV Since p is constant, we can write
- ΔH = ΔU + pΔV
- $\Delta H = q_p$, heat absorbed by the system at constant pressure
- \(\Delta H \) is negative for exothermic reactions which evolve heat during the reaction and
- \(\Delta H \) is positive for endothermic reactions which absorb heat from the surroundings.
- At constant volume (ΔV = 0), ΔU = q_V

•
$$\Delta H = \Delta U + p \Delta V$$
 $\Delta H = q_p = \Delta U = q_V$

 The difference between ΔH and ΔU is not usually significant for systems consisting of only solids and / or liquids. Solids and liquids do not suffer any significant volume changes upon heating.

Relation between ΔH and ΔU for the system having Gases

- · Let us consider a reaction involving gases.
- If V_A = total volume of the gaseous reactants, V_B = total volume of the gaseous products,
- n_A = No. of moles of gaseous reactants, and n_B = No. of moles of gaseous products,
- At constant T and P, $pV_A = n_A RT$ and $pV_B = n_B RT$
- Thus, $pV_B pV_A = n_BRT n_ART$ $p(V_B V_A) = (n_B n_A) F$ or $p \Delta V = \Delta n_BRT$ Δn_g refers to the number of moles of gaseous products minus the number of moles of gaseous reactants.

$$\Delta H = \Delta U + p \Delta V$$

Problem 6.5

If water vapour is assumed to be a perfect gas, molar enthalpy change for vapourisation of 1 mol of water at 1bar and 100°C is 41kJ mol⁻¹. Calculate the internal energy change, when 1 mol of water is vapourised at 1 bar pressure and 100°C.

T =

Solution

 $\Delta U = 37.904 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

The change
$$H_2O(l) \to H_2O(g)$$

$$\Delta H = \Delta U + \Delta n_g RT$$
 or $\Delta U = \Delta H - \Delta n_g RT$,
$$\Delta H = 41 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \quad \Delta n_g = 1 \qquad R = 8.3 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1} = 8.3 \text{ x } 10^{-3} \text{ kJK}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1}$$

$$100^{\circ}\text{C} = 373 \text{ K}$$

$$\Delta U = 41 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} - 1 \text{ x } 8.3 \text{ x } 10^{-3} \text{kJK}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1} \text{ x } 373 \text{ K} = 41 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} - 3.096 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Extensive and Intensive Properties
 - Measurement Of \(\Delta U \) And \(\Delta H \)

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Extensive and Intensive Properties

- An extensive property is a property whose value depends on the quantity or size
 of matter present in the system.
 - For example, mass, volume, internal energy, enthalpy, heat capacity, etc. are extensive properties.
- Those properties which do not depend on the quantity or size of matter present are known as intensive properties.
 - For example temperature, density, pressure, molar heat capacity etc. are intensive properties.

Extensive and Intensive Properties

- considering a gas enclosed in a container of volume V and at temperature T.
- Let us make a partition such that volume is halved, each part now has one half of the original volume, V/2, but the temperature will still remain the same i.e., T.
- It is clear that volume is an extensive property and temperature is an intensive property.

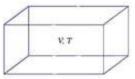


Fig. A gas at volume V and temperature T

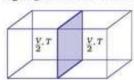


Fig.Partition, each part having half the volume of the gas

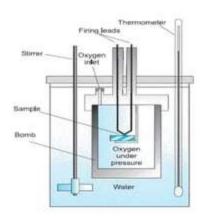
MEASUREMENT OF ΔU AND ΔH :

CALORIMETRY:-

- Experimental technique used to measure energy changes associated with chemical or physical processes is called calorimetry
- A calorimeter is a device used to measure the amount of heat changed in a chemical or physical process by measuring temperature changes.
- Measurements are made under two different conditions:
 - i) at constant volume, q_V
 - ii) at constant pressure, q_p

AU Measurements

- For chemical reactions, heat absorbed at constant volume, is measured in a bomb calorimeter.
- Here, a steel vessel (the bomb) is immersed in a water bath. The whole device is called calorimeter.
- The steel vessel is immersed in water bath to ensure that no heat is lost to the surroundings.
- A combustible substance is burnt in pure dioxygen supplied in the steel bomb



Continue... <u>AU Measurements</u>

- Heat evolved during the reaction is transferred to the water around the bomb and its temperature is monitored.
- Since the bomb calorimeter is sealed, its volume does not change i.e., the energy changes associated with reactions are measured at constant volume.
- Under these conditions, no work is done as the reaction is carried out at constant volume in the bomb calorimeter
- Temperature change of the calorimeter produced by the completed reaction is then converted to $q_{\scriptscriptstyle V}$

AH Measurements

- Heat absorbed or evolved, q_p at constant pressure is also called the heat of reaction or enthalpy of reaction, Δ,H.
- In an exothermic reaction, heat is evolved, and system loses heat to the surroundings. Therefore, q_p will be negative and Δ,H will also be negative.
- Similarly in an endothermic reaction, heat is absorbed, q_p is positive and Δ_pH will be positive.

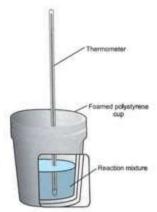


Fig. Calorimeter for measuring heat changes at constant pressure (atmospheric pressure).

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Standard Enthalpy of Reactions
 - Enthalpy Changes during Phase Transformations
 - Standard Enthalpy of Formation

Enthalpy Change, ΔH Of A Reaction – Reaction Enthalpy

 The enthalpy change accompanying a reaction is called the reaction enthalpy (Δ,H) or Enthalpy of a Reaction.

Standard Enthalpy of Reactions, A,He

- The standard enthalpy of reaction is the enthalpy change for a reaction when all the participating substances are in their standard states.
- The standard state of a substance at a specified temperature is its pure form at 1 bar. For example, the standard state of liquid ethanol at 298 K is pure liquid ethanol at 1 bar; standard state of solid iron at 500 K is pure iron at 1 bar. Usually data are taken at 298 K.
- Standard conditions are denoted by adding the superscript Θ to the symbol ΔH, e.g., ΔH^Θ

Enthalpy Changes during Phase Transformations

Standard enthalpy of fusion

- The enthalpy change that accompanies melting of one mole of a solid substance in standard state is called standard enthalpy of fusion or molar enthalpy of fusion, Δ_{tus}H^Θ.
- Melting of a sol H₂O(s) → H₂O(l); Δ_{flas}H[⊕] = 6.00 kJ mol⁻¹ sion are positive

Standard enthalpy of vaporization

Amount of heat required to vaporize one mole of a liquid at constant temperature
and under standard pressure (1bar) is called its standard enthalpy of vaporization
or molar enthalp H_aO(I) → H_aO(g); A_{math} = +40.79 kJ moI⁻¹

Continue... Enthalpy Changes during Phase Transformations

Standard enthalpy of sublimation

- Sublimation is direct conversion of a solid into its vapour.
- Δ_{sub}H^Θ is the change in enthalpy when one mole of a solid substance sublimes at a constant temperature and under standard pressure (1bar).
- Solid CO₂ or 'dry ice' sublimes at 195K with Δ_{sub}H^Θ=25.2 kJ mol⁻¹;
- Naphthalene sublimes slowly and for this Δ_{sub}H^Θ = 73.0 kJ mol⁻¹
- The magnitude of the enthalpy change depends on the strength of the intermolecular interactions in the substance undergoing the phase transformations.

Problem 6.7

A swimmer coming out from a pool is covered with a film of water weighing about 18g. How much heat must be supplied to evaporate this water at 298 K? Calculate the internal energy of vaporisation at 298K. $\Delta_{\text{vap}}H^{\Theta}$ for water at 298K= 44.01kJ mol⁻¹

Solution:- process of evaporation
$$H_2O(l) \rightarrow H_2O(g)$$
 18 g of water = 1 mole of water Heat supplied to evaporate18g water at 298 K = n × $\Delta_{vap}H^\Theta$ = (1 mol) × (44.01 kJ mol⁻¹) = 44.01 kJ

$$\Delta H = \Delta U + \Delta n_g RT$$

or $\Delta U = \Delta H - \Delta n_g RT$,

 $\Delta U = 41.53 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

$$\Delta H = 44.01 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$
 $\Delta n_a = 1$ $R = 8.314 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1} = 8.314 \text{ x } 10^{-3} \text{kJK}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1}$

$$\Delta U = 44.01 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} - 1 \times 8.314 \times 10^{-3} \text{kJK}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1} \times 298 \text{ K} = 44.01 \text{kJ mol}^{-1} - 2.48 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Standard Enthalpy of Formation

- The standard enthalpy change for the formation of one mole of a compound from its elements in their most stable states of aggregation (also known as reference states) is called Standard Molar Enthalpy of Formation. Its symbol is Δ,H^Θ
- The reference state of an element is its most stable state of aggregation at 25°C and 1 bar pressure.
- For example, the reference state of dihydrogen is H₂ gas and those of dioxygen, carbon and sulphur are O₂ gas, C_{graphite} and S_{rhombic} respectively.

Standard Enthalpy of Formation

$$H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow H_2O(1); \quad \Delta_r H^{\otimes} = -285.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

C (graphite, s) +
$$2H_2(g) \rightarrow CH_4(g)$$
: $\Delta_e H^{\odot} = -74.81 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

2C (graphite, s)+3H₂ (g)+
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
O₂(g) \rightarrow C₂H₅OH(1); $\Delta_f H^{\circ} = -277.7$ kJ mol⁻¹

standard molar enthalpy of formation, Δ_iH⁰, is just a special case of Δ_iH⁰,
 where one mole of a compound is formed from its constituent elements.

$$CaO(s) + CO_0(g) \rightarrow CaCo_0(s); \Delta_sH^{\circ} = -178.3kJ \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

 It is not an enthalpy of formation of calcium carbonate, since calcium carbonate has been formed from other compounds, and not from its constituent elements.

Continue... Standard Enthalpy of Formation

- for the reaction given below, enthalpy change is not standard enthalpy of formation, $\Delta_i H^{\Theta}$ for HBr(a) $H_a(g) + Br_a(l) \rightarrow 2HBr(g); \Delta_L H^{\otimes} = -72.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
- Here two moles, instead of one mole of the product is formed from the elements, i.e., .

$$\Delta_r H^0 = 2\Delta_r H^0$$

 $\begin{array}{l} \Delta_r H^0 = 2\Delta_t H^0 \\ \bullet \ \ \text{expressic} \ _{1/2} H_2(g) + 1/2 \mathrm{Br}_2(1) \to \mathrm{HBr}(g); \quad \Delta_f H^0 = -36.4 \ \mathrm{kJ \ mol^{-1}} \end{array}$

Continue... Standard Enthalpy of Formation

- By convention, standard enthalpy for formation, Δ_tH^Θ, of an element in reference state, i.e., its most stable state of aggregation is taken as zero.
- · How much heat is required to decompose calcium carbonate?

$$CaCO_3(s) \rightarrow CaO(s) + CO_2(g); \Delta_r H^o = ?$$

 $\Delta_r H^o = \sum a_r \Delta_r H^o \text{(products)} - \sum b_r \Delta_r H^o \text{(reactants)}$

$$\Delta_j H^o = \Delta_j H^o [CaO(s)] + \Delta_j H^o [CO_2(g)] - \Delta_j H^o [CaCO_3(s)]$$

=1 (-635.1 kJ mol⁻¹) + 1(-393.5 kJ mol⁻¹) -1(-1206.9 kJ mol⁻¹)

decomposition of CaCO₃(s) is an endothermic process

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Thermochemical Equations
 - Hess's Law of Constant Heat Summation

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Thermochemical Equations

- A balanced chemical equation together with the value of its Δ,H is called a thermochemical equation.
- We specify the physical state (along with allotropic state) of the substance in an equation.

$$C_2H_5OH(l) + 3O_2(g) \rightarrow 2CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(l): \Delta_rH^{\circ} = -1367 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- The above equation describes the combustion of liquid ethanol at constant temperature and pressure.
- The negative sign of enthalpy change indicates that this is an exothermic reaction.

remember the following conventions regarding thermochemical equations.

- The coefficients in a balanced thermochemical equation refer to the number of moles (never molecules) of reactants and products involved in the reaction.
- The numerical value of Δ,H^Θ refers to the number of moles of substances specified by an equation. Standard enthalpy change Δ,H^Θ will have units as kJ
 - The unit for Δ,H^a is kJ mol⁻¹, which means per mole of reaction.
 - Once we balance the chemical equation in a particular way, this
 defines the mole of reaction.

Fe₂O₃(s)+3H₂(g)
$$\rightarrow$$
 2Fe(s)+3H₂O(l),
 $\Delta_j H^{\oplus}$ (H₂O,l) = -285.83 kJ mol⁻¹; $\Delta_j H^{\oplus}$ (Fe₂O₃,s) = -824.2 kJ mol⁻¹;
 $\Delta_j H^{\oplus}$ (Fe, s) = 0 and $\Delta_j H^{\oplus}$ (H₂, g) = 0 as per convention
 $\Delta_j H^{\oplus} = \sum a_i \Delta_j H^{\oplus}$ (products) $-\sum b_i \Delta_j H^{\oplus}$ (reactants)

$$\Delta_{p}H_{1}^{\oplus} = 3x\Delta_{p}H^{\oplus} (H_{2}O.1) + 2 \times \Delta_{p}H^{\oplus} (Fe, s) - [1 \times \Delta_{p}H^{\oplus} (Fe_{2}O_{3}, s) + 3 \times \Delta_{p}H^{\oplus} (H_{2}, g)]$$

Then, $\Delta_{p}H_{1}^{\oplus} = 3(-285.83 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}) + 0 - [1(-824.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}) + 0]$

$$\frac{1}{2}$$
Fe₂O₃(s) + $\frac{3}{2}$ H₂(g) \rightarrow Fe(s) + $\frac{3}{2}$ H₂O(l)

then this amount of reaction would be one mole of reaction and ΔH° would be

$$\Delta_r H_2^{\oplus} = \frac{3}{2} (-285.83 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}) - \frac{1}{2} (-824.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1})$$

=
$$(-428.7 + 412.1)$$
 kJ mol⁻¹ = -16.6 kJ mol⁻¹ = $\frac{1}{2} \Delta_{\nu} H_{1}^{\circ}$

$$-(-426.7 + 412.1) \text{ KO MOI}^{-1} = -16.6 \text{ KO MOI}^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \Delta_{p} H_{1}^{-1}$$

It shows that enthalpy is an extensive quantity.

 When a chemical equation is reversed, the value of Δ,H^e is reversed in sign. For example

$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \rightarrow 2NH_3(g);$$

 $\Delta_r H^{\oplus} = -91.8 \text{ kJ. mol}^{-1}$
 $2NH_3(g) \rightarrow N_2(g) + 3H_2(g);$
 $\Delta_r H^{\oplus} = +91.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

Hess's Law of Constant Heat Summation

- Enthalpy is a state function
- Enthalpy change for a reaction is the same whether it occurs in one step or in a series
 of steps.
- Statement:
 - If a reaction takes place in several steps then its standard reaction enthalpy is the sum of the standard enthalpies of the intermediate reactions into which the overall reaction m

 AH
 B
 ne temperature.



Continue... Hess's Law of Constant Heat Summation

C (graphite,s) + O₂ (g)
$$\rightarrow$$
 CO₂ (g); $\Delta_r H^0 = -393.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (t)

CO (g) +
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 O₂ (g) \rightarrow CO₂ (g) $\Delta_r H^c = -283.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (tt)

$$C(graphite, s) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow CO(g); \quad \Delta_r H^{\oplus} = ?$$

reverse equation (ii)
$$CO_2(g) \rightarrow CO(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g)$$
; $\Delta_r H^0 = +283.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (iii)

 $C(graphite, s) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow CO(g)$;

for which
$$\Delta H^0 = (-393.5 + 283.0) = -110.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Standard Enthalpy of Combustion
 - Enthalpy of Atomization
 - Bond Enthalpy

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Standard Enthalpy of Combustion (symbol: $\Delta_c H^{\Theta}$)

- Combustion reactions are exothermic in nature.
- Standard enthalpy of combustion is defined as the enthalpy change per mole (or per unit amount) of a substance, when it undergoes combustion and all the reactants and products being in their standard states at the specified temperature.
- Cooking and in autindors contains mostly (C H) $C_4H_{10}(g) + \frac{13}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow 4CO_2(g) + 5H_2O(1); \ \Delta_CH^{\oplus} = -2658.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

$${\rm C_6H_{12}O_6(g)+6O_2(g)+6H_2O(1);\ \Delta_cH^{\oplus}=-2802.0\ kJ\ mol^{-1}}$$

Problem 6.9

The combustion of one mole of benzene takes place at 298 K and 1 atm. After combustion, $CO_2(g)$ and $H_2O(I)$ are produced and 3267.0 kJ of heat is liberated. Calculate the standard enthalpy of formation, $\Delta_t H^0$ of benzene.

Standard enthalpies of formation of $CO_2(g)$ and $H_2O(l)$ are -393.5 kJ mol⁻¹ and -285.83 kJ mol⁻¹ respectively.

Solution

The formation reaction of benzene is given by :

$$6C(graphite) + 3H_2(g) \rightarrow C_6H_6(l)$$
 $\Delta_fH^{\theta} = ? \dots (i)$

Continue.. Solution of Problem 6.9

The enthalpy of combustion of 1 mol of benzene is

$$C_6H_6(l) + \frac{15}{2}O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(l); \ \Delta_cH^{\theta} = -3267kJmol^{-1} \dots \dots \dots (ii)$$

The enthalpy of formation of 1 mol of CO₂(g):

$$C(graphite) + O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g); \quad \Delta_f H^{\theta} = -393.5 \text{ kJmol}^{-1} \dots \dots \dots \dots (iii)$$

The enthalpy of formation of 1 mol of H2O(I) is :

$$H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow H_2O(l); \Delta_f H^{\theta} = -285.83 \text{ kJmol}^{-1} \dots \dots (iv)$$

Using equation (ii), (iii) and (iv) we have to bring the following equation (i)

$$6C(graphite) + 3H_2(g) \rightarrow C_6H_6(I)$$
 $\Delta_fH^{\theta} = ?(i)$

So multiply equation (iii) by 6 and (iv) by 3 and reverse equation (ii)

Continue.. Solution of Problem 6.9

$$6C(graphite) + 6O_2(g) \rightarrow 6CO_2(g); \qquad \Delta_r H^\theta = 6 \times (-393.5 \) = -2361 \ kJmol^{-1} \\ \qquad \dots \dots \dots (v)$$

$$3H_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow 3H_2O(l); \qquad \Delta_r H^{\theta} = 3 \times (-285.83) = -857.49 \text{ kJmol}^{-1} \qquad \dots \dots \dots (vi)$$

$$6CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(1) \rightarrow C_6H_6(1) + \frac{15}{2}O_2$$
; $\Delta_rH^{\theta} = +3267 \text{ kJmol}^{-1} \dots \dots (vii)$

Now add equation (v), (vi) and (vii)

$$6C(graphite) + 6O_2(g) + 3H_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}O_2(g) + 6CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(l)$$

$$6C(graphite) + 3H_{*}(g) \rightarrow C_{*}H_{*}(I) : \Delta_{*}H^{\theta} = 48.51 \text{ klmol}^{-}$$

$$_{2}^{2}$$
6C(graphite) + 3H₂(g) → C₆H₆(l) ; Δ₁H^θ = 48.51 kJmol⁻¹

Continue.. Solution of Problem 6.9

Alternate method

$$\Delta H^{\circ} = \sum a_i \Delta_i H^{\circ} \text{(products)} - \sum b_i \Delta_i H^{\circ} \text{(reactants)}$$

The enthalpy of combustion of 1 mol of benzene is

$$C_6H_6(l) + \frac{15}{2}O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(l); \ \Delta_cH^{\Theta} = -3267kJmol^{-1}$$

Given $\Delta_l H^{\Theta} CO_2(g) = -393.5 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ and $\Delta_l H^{\Theta} H_2O(l) = -285.83 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, $\Delta_l H^{\Theta}$

$$O_2(g) = 0$$

$$\Delta_{r}H^{\Theta} = 6 \times \Delta_{f}H^{\Theta}(CO_{2}) + 3 \times \Delta_{f}H^{\Theta}(H_{2}O) - [\Delta_{f}H^{\Theta}(C_{6}H_{6}) + \frac{15}{2} \times \Delta_{f}H^{\Theta}(O_{2})]$$
$$-3267 = 6 \times (-393.5) + 3 \times (-285.83) - [\Delta_{f}H^{\Theta}(C_{6}H_{6}) + 0]$$

$$-3267 = -2361 + (-857.49) - [\Delta_f H^{\Theta}(C_6 H_6) + 0]$$

$$\Delta_f H^{\Theta}(C_6 H_6) = -3218.49 + 3267 = 48.51 \text{k Jmol}^{-1}$$

Enthalpy of Atomization (symbol: $\Delta_a H^{\oplus}$)

 It is the enthalpy change on breaking one mole of bonds completely to obtain atoms in the gas phase.

$$H_2(g) \rightarrow 2H(g): \Delta_0 H^0 = 435.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- In case of diatomic molecules, like dihydrogen, the enthalpy of atomization is also the bond dissociation enthalpy.
- Other examples

$$CH_4(g) \rightarrow C(g) + 4H(g); \Delta_e H^{\oplus} = 1665 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

 $Na(s) \rightarrow Na(g)$; $\Delta_o H^o = 108.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

In this case, the enthalpy of atomization is same as the enthalpy of sublimation

- (i) Bond dissociation enthalpy
- (ii) Mean bond enthalpy
- (i) Bond dissociation enthalpy
- For diatomic molecules the bond dissociation enthalpy is the change in enthalpy when one mole of covalent bonds of a gaseous covalent compound is broken to form products in the gas phase.

$$H_2(g) \rightarrow 2H(g)$$
; $\Delta_{H-H}H^{\oplus} = 435.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $Cl_2(g) \rightarrow 2Cl(g)$; $\Delta_{Cl-Cl}H^{\oplus} = 242 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $O_2(g) \rightarrow 2O(g)$; $\Delta_{OlO}H^{\oplus} = 428 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

it is the same as the enthalpy of atomization

(ii) Mean bond enthalpy

- · Used for Polyatomic Molecules
- In methane, all the four C H bonds are identical in bond length and energy.
 However, the energies required to break the individual C H bonds in each

$$CH_4(g) \rightarrow CH_3(g)+H(g); \Delta_{bend} H^{\oplus} = +427 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

 $CH_3(g) \rightarrow CH_2(g)+H(g); \Delta_{bend} H^{\oplus} = +439 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $CH_2(g) \rightarrow CH(g)+H(g); \Delta_{bend} H^{\oplus} = +452 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $CH(g) \rightarrow C(g)+H(g); \Delta_{bend} H^{\oplus} = +347 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

Therefore, $CH_4(g) \rightarrow C(g)+4H(g)$; $\Delta_a H^0 = 1665 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

$$\Delta_{c-H}H^{\oplus} = \frac{1}{4} (\Delta_a H^{\oplus}) = \frac{1}{4} (1665 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}) = 416 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

The standard enthalpy of reaction, ΔH° is related to bond enthalptes of the reactants and products in gas phase reactions

$$\Delta_r H^{\oplus} = \sum \text{bond enthalpies}_{products} - \sum \text{bond enthalpies}_{products}$$

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Lattice Enthalpy
 - Born-Haber Cycle
 - Enthalpy of Solution
 - Enthalpy of Dilution

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Lattice Enthalpy

 The lattice enthalpy of an ionic compound is the enthalpy change which occurs when one mole of an ionic compound dissociates into its ions in gaseous state.

$$Na^+Cl^-(s) \rightarrow Na^+(g) + Cl^-(g); \quad \Delta_{lum_0}H^0 = +788 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

 Since it is impossible to determine lattice enthalpies directly by experiment, we use an indirect method where we construct an enthalpy diagram called a Born-Haber Cycle

Born Haber Cycle for Sodium Chloride

Na(s) +1/2 Cl2(g)
$$\xrightarrow{\Delta_{\rho}H^{\circ}}$$
 NaCl(s)

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \Delta_{ood}H^{\circ} & & \downarrow \\ & \downarrow 1/2 \Delta_{bord}H^{\circ} \\ & & \downarrow \Delta_{ood}H^{\circ} \\ & & \downarrow \Delta_{ood}H^{\circ$$

The importance of the cycle is that, the sum of the enthalpy changes round a cycle is zero.

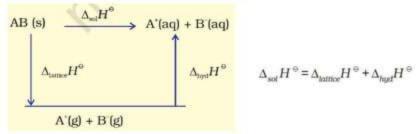
$$\Delta_{aub}H^{\oplus} = 108.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$
 $\Delta_{c}H^{\oplus} = 496 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $\frac{1}{2}\Delta_{bord}H^{\oplus} = 121 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $\Delta_{cg}H^{\oplus} = -348.6 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $\Delta_{cH}^{\oplus} = -411.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $\Delta_{cH}^{\oplus} = -411.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 $\Delta_{cg}H^{\oplus} = -411.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

$$\Delta_{\text{hince}}H^0 = 108.4 + 496 + 121 + (-348.6) + 411.2 = +788kJ$$
for NoClin - NoClin + Chin - A $H^0 = +788kJ$

for NaCl(s)
$$\rightarrow$$
 Na*(g) + Cl*(g) $\Delta_{kimos}H^0 = + 788kJ$

Enthalpy of Solution (symbol : Δ_{sol}H^a)

- Enthalpy of solution of a substance is the enthalpy change when one mole of it dissolves in a specified amount of solvent.
- The enthalpy of solution at infinite dilution is the enthalpy change observed on dissolving the substance in an infinite amount of solvent when the interactions between the ions (or solute molecules) are negligible.



Continue... Enthalpy of Solution (symbol : $\Delta_{sol}H^{e}$)

- For most of the ionic compounds, Δ_{sol}H^Θ is positive and the dissolution process is endothermic.
- Therefore the solubility of most salts in water increases with rise of temperature.
- If the lattice enthalpy is very high, the dissolution of the compound may not take place at all.

Enthalpy of Dilution

- It is the heat change when additional solvent is added to the solution.
- The enthalpy of dilution of a solution is dependent on the original concentration of the solution and the amount of solvent added.
- Enthalpy change for dissolving one mole of gaseous hydrogen chloride in
 10 mol of water (1 HCl(g) + 10 aq. → HCl.10 aq. ΔH = -69,01 kJ / mol
 (S-1) HCl(g) + 25 aq. → HCl.25 aq. ΔH = -72,03 kJ / mol

- The values of enthalpy of solution depend on amount of solvent.
- Enthalpy of solution approaches a limiting value, i.e, the value in infinitely dilute solution(S-3)

Continue... Enthalpy of Dilution

(S-1) HCl(g) + 25 aq. \rightarrow HCl.25 aq. $\Delta H = -72.03 \text{ kJ} / \text{mol}$

(S-2) $HCl(g) + 40 \text{ aq.} \rightarrow HCl.40 \text{ aq.} \Delta H = -72.79 \text{ kJ} / \text{mol}$

Subtract equation S-1 from the equation S-2 we ohtain-HCl.25 ag. + 15 ag. → HCl.40 ag.

$$\Delta H = [-72.79 - (-72.03)] \text{ kJ / mol} = -0.76 \text{ kJ / mol}$$

This value (-0.76kJ/mol) of ΔH is enthalpy of dilution.

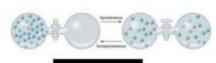
Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Spontaneous Process
 - Criterion for Spontaneity-Driving force for spontaneous process
 - Entropy

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Spontaneous Process

- A spontaneous process is one that occurs on its own or once started proceeds, without the external input of energy.
- It cannot be reversed on its own. It is unidirectional
- All natural processes are spontaneous.
- For example,
 - a gas expanding to fill the available volume,
 - burning carbon in dioxygen giving carbon dioxide
 - Rolling of ball downhill
 - Rusting of iron
 - Freezing of water at temperatures below 0°C
 - · Melting of ice











Criterion for Spontaneity-Driving force for spontaneous

Decrease in Enthalpy

- · Spontaneous physical process
 - · flow of water down hill
 - · fall of a stone on to the ground
- there is a net decrease in potential energy in the direction of

$$\frac{1}{2}$$
N₂(g) + $\frac{3}{2}$ H₂(g) = NH₃(g); $\Delta_r H^0 = -46.1$ kJ mol⁻¹

$$\frac{1}{2} \ \mathrm{H_2}(g) + \frac{1}{2} \, \mathrm{Cl_2}(g) = \mathrm{HC1}(g) \; ; \quad \Delta_r H^\circ = -92.32 \ \mathrm{kJ \ mol^{-1}}$$

$$H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2} O_2(g) \rightarrow H_2O(l)$$
: $\Delta_r H^0 = -285.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

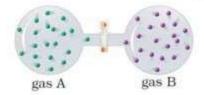
- Exothermic chemical reactions are spontaneous because decrease in energy has taken place
- Driving force for a spontaneous process is 'decrease in energy (enthalpy)' i.e. - ΔH

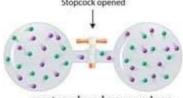
Criterion for Spontaneity-Driving force for spontaneous process

- · Prowedaraine the torowing reactions:
 - The reaction between solid barium hydroxide octahydrate and solid ammonium thiocyanate is endothermic and spontaneous.
 - While most acid-base reactions are exothermic, the reaction of baking soda with vinegar is endothermic.
 - · Dissolution of Common salt into water is endothermic and spontaneous
- These reactions though endothermic (ΔH is positive), are spontaneous.
- Therefore, it is concluded that decrease in enthalpy may be a contributory factor for spontaneity, but it is not true for all cases.

Criterion for Spontaneity-Driving force for spontaneous process Another criteria

- examine such a case in which ΔH = 0 i.e., there is no change in enthalpy, but still
 the process is spontaneous.
- Consider diffusion of two gases into each other in a closed container which is isolated from the surroundings





system has become less predictable or more chaotic.

Criterion for Spontaneity-Driving force for spontaneous process

· We may now formulate another postulate:

Another criteria

- in an isolated system, there is always a tendency for the systems' energy to become more disordered or chaotic and this could be a criterion for spontaneous change!
- To express this disorder of system, another thermodynamic term is used which is called Entropy

Entropy (S)

- Entropy is a measure of the degree of randomness or disorder in the system.
- The greater the disorder in an isolated system, the higher is the entropy.
- Qualitatively, Order of entropy :-Solid(lowest entropy) < Liquid < gas (highest entropy)
- Entropy is a state function and ΔS is independent of path.
- Whenever heat is added to the system, it increases molecular motions causing increased randomness in the system.
- A system at higher temperature has greater randomness in it than one at lower temperature.
- Heat added to a system at lower temperature causes greater randomness than when the same quantity of heat is added to it at higher temperature.
- This suggests that the entropy change is inversely proportional to the temperature.

Continue... Entropy (S)

ΔS is related with q and T for a reversible reaction as

$$\Delta S = \frac{q_{rev}}{T}$$

- The total entropy change (ΔS_{total}) for the system and surroundings of a spontaneous process is given by $\Delta S_{\text{total}} = \Delta S_{\text{surroun}} + \Delta S_{\text{surr}} > 0$
- When a system is in equilibrium, the entropy is maximum, and the change in entropy,
 \(\Delta S = 0 \).
- Entropy for a spontaneous process increases till it reaches maximum and at equilibrium the change in entropy is zero.
- Since entropy is a state proper $\Delta S_{\rm sys} = \frac{q_{\rm sys,rev}}{T}$ culate the change in entropy of a reversible process by

Entropy (S)

- Both for reversible and irreversible expansion for an ideal gas, under isothermal conditions,
 ΔU = 0, but ΔS_{total} i.e., ΔS_{sys} + ΔS_{syrr} is not zero for irreversible process.
- Thus, ΔU does not discriminate between reversible and irreversible process, whereas ΔS does.

- ΔS_{total} > 0 Process is spontaneous
- ΔS_{total} < 0 Process is Non-spontaneous
- ΔS_{total} = 0 System is in equilibrium
- Conclusion:-neither decrease in enthalpy nor increase in entropy of the system alone can determine the direction of spontaneous change for closed and open systems

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Gibbs Energy
 - Gibbs Energy and Spontaneity
 - Effect of Temperature on Spontaneity of Reactions

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Gibbs Energy or Gibbs Function, G

- G = H TS Gibbs function, G is an extensive property and a state function.
- Its absolute value also can not be determined.

$$\Delta G_{sys} = \Delta H_{sys} - T \Delta S_{sys} - S_{sys} \Delta T$$

be written as

At constant temperature. $\Delta T = 0$ $\therefore \Delta G_{sys} = \Delta H_{sys} - T\Delta S_{sys}$

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$
 Gibbs equation

△G has units of energy i.e J

- ΔH is the enthalpy change of a reaction, TΔS is the energy which is not available to do useful work.
- So ∆G is the net energy available to do useful work and is thus a measure of the 'free

energy'.

For this reason, it is also known as the free energy of the reaction.

Gibbs Energy and Spontaneity

We know,
$$\Delta S_{total} = \Delta S_{sim} + \Delta S_{sur}$$

- If the system is in thermal equilibrium with the surrounding, then the temperature of the surrounding is same as that of the system.
- Also, increase in enthalpy of the surrounding is equal to decrease in the enthalpy of the system.

• Therefore, entrop
$$\Delta S_{\text{supr}} = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{supr}}}{T} = -\frac{\Delta H_{\text{supr}}}{T}$$
 $\Delta S_{\text{total}} = \Delta S_{\text{sys}} + \left(-\frac{\Delta H_{\text{sups}}}{T}\right)$

Rearranging the above equation: $T\Delta S_{total} = T\Delta S_{sys} - \Delta H_{sys}$

$$-T\Delta S_{total} = \Delta H_{sys} - T\Delta S_{sys} = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

We know,
$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$
 $-T\Delta S_{new} = \Delta G$

Continue... Gibbs Energy and Spontaneity

$$-T\Delta S_{cotof} = \Delta G$$

•
$$\Delta S_{total} > 0$$
 Process is spontaneous $\Delta G < 0$ (Negative)

- $\Delta S_{total} < 0$ Process is Non-spontaneous $\Delta G > 0$ (Positive)
- $\Delta S_{total} = 0$ System is in equilibrium $\Delta G = 0$ (Equilibrium)

Effect of Temperature on Spontaneity of Reactions

$\Delta_r H^0$	$\Delta_r S^{\circ}$	$\Delta_r G^{\oplus}$	Description
-	*	- (at all T)	Reaction spontaneous at all temperatures
-	-	- (at low T)	Reaction spontaneous at low temperature
-	-	+ (at high T)	Reaction non-spontaneous at high temperature
+	+	+ (at low T)	Reaction non-spontaneous at low temperature
+	+	- (at high T)	Reaction spontaneous at high temperature
+	-	+ (at all T)	Reaction non-spontaneous at all temperatures

Class XI Chemistry Unit 6 THERMODYNAMICS

- Topic:-
 - Second Law of Thermodynamics
 - Third Law of Thermodynamics
 - Gibbs Energy Change And Equilibrium

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

Entropy and Second Law of Thermodynamics

- Entropy is the loss of energy available to do work.
- Another form of the second law of thermodynamics states that the total entropy of a system either increases or remains constant; it never decreases.
- Entropy is zero in a reversible process; it increases in an irreversible process.
- Entropy of any isolated system always increases.
- In exothermic reactions heat released by the reaction increases the disorder of the surroundings and overall entropy change is positive which makes the reaction spontaneous.

Absolute Entropy and Third Law of Thermodynamics

- The entropy of any pure crystalline substance approaches zero as the temperature approaches absolute zero. This is called third law of thermodynamics.
- The importance of the third law is that absolute values of entropy of pure substance can be determined.

GIBBS ENERGY CHANGE AND EQUILIBRIUM

- Reversible chemical reaction is the reaction which can proceed in either direction simultaneously that is reactants convert into products and products convert in to reactants at the same rate, so that a dynamic equilibrium is set up.
- This means that the reactions in both the directions should proceed with a decrease in free energy, which seems impossible.
- · It is possible only if at equilibrium the free energy of the system is minimum.
- So, the criterion for equilibrium

$$A + B \rightleftharpoons C + D$$
; is $\Delta_r G = 0$

Continue... GIBBS ENERGY CHANGE AND

- Gibbs energy thange for a eaction in which all reactants and products are in standard state, is known as Standard Gibbs energy change Δ,G^Θ
- It is related to the equilibrium constant of the reaction as follows:

$$\Delta_r G = \Delta_r G^{\Theta} + RT \ln K$$
 at equilibrium $\Delta_r G = 0$ so, $\Delta_r G^{\Theta} = -RT \ln K$ or $\Delta_r G^{\Theta} = -2.303 RT \log K$ where $K =$ equilibrium constant
$$\Delta_r G^{\Theta} = \Delta_r H^{\Theta} - T \Delta_r S^{\Theta} = -2.303 RT \log K$$

- For strongly endothermic reactions, the Δ,H^Θ large and positive, value of K << 1 and the
 reaction is unlikely to form much product.
- In case of exothermic reactions, Δ,H^Θ large and negative, and Δ,G^Θ large and negative, K
 >> 1 hence can go to near completion.

Problem 6.12

Calculate $\Delta_r G^{\Theta}$ for conversion of oxygen to ozone, 3/2 $O_{\text{\tiny 2}}(g) \to O_{\text{\tiny 3}}(g)$ at 298

Solution

We know $\Delta_r G^{\Theta} = -2.303 \text{ R} T \log K_0 \text{ and } R = 8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1}$

Therefore,
$$\Delta_r G^{\Theta} = -2.303$$
 (8.314 J K⁻¹mol⁻¹)× (298 K) (log 2.47 × 10⁻²⁹)

=
$$163000 \text{ J mol}^{-1}$$
 = 163 k J mol^{-1}

K. if K for this conversion is 2.47×10^{-29} .

Problem 6.13

Find out the value of equilibrium constant for the following reaction at 298 K.

$$2NH_3(g) + CO_2(g) \rightleftharpoons NH_2CONH_2(aq) + H_2O(1)$$

Standard Gibbs energy change, $\Delta_{\!_{f}}\!G^{\scriptscriptstyle O}$ at the given temperature is –13.6 k J mol $^{\!-1}$.

Solution

$$\Delta_r G^{\Theta} = -2.303 RT \log K$$

$$\log K = -\frac{\Delta_r G^{\Theta}}{2.303 \text{ RT}} = -\frac{-13.6 \times 10^3 \text{Jmol}^{-1}}{2.303 \times 8.314 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1} \times 298 \text{ K}} = 2.38$$

$$K = antilog 2.38 = 2.4 \times 10^{2}$$

<u>How to</u> <u>Solve log</u> and antilog

By Vijay Kumar Sethi

LOGARITHM TABLES

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ANTI LOGARITHM TABLES

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LOGARITHM TABLES

 $\log \frac{n}{m} = \log n - \log m$ $\log(n \times m) = \log n + \log m$ $\log x^n = n \log x$

log 2467= 3.3909 +0.0012=3.3921 log 382.4 = 2.5821 + 0.0005=2.5826

log 55.2 = 1.7419

log 2.03=0.3075

 $\log 0.02453 = \log(2.453 \times 10^{-2}) = \log 2.453 + \log 10^{-2}$

 $= \log 2.453 + (-2) \log 10$

= 0.3897 - 2 = -1.6103

 $\log 0.2 = \log (2 \times 10^{-1}) = \log 2 + (-1)\log 10 = 0.3010 - 1 = -0.699$

= (0.3892 + 0.0005) - 2(1.0000)

log 5 = log 5.000 = 0.6990

Anti-log table

		1	2	3		5	. 6	7		9	Mass difference								
		100	111						000		3.	2	3	4	2		2		,
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15	1413	1426	1419	1412	1426	1429	1402	1435	1439	1442			1	1	2	2	2	1	3
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47	1479	1483	1496	3489	1485	1496	1500	1365	1301	1510		71.	3.3	3.	2	2	2 2	3	- 3
316	1214	1507	1521	1524	1228	1531	1333	1226	1342	1543.		.1	1.	1	2	2	2	3	3
19	1549	1552	1556	1568	1563	1567	1570	1124	1379	1581	*	1	1	1.	2	2	2		
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00	3981	3990	3999	4009	-401K	4927	40%	4046	4055	4064	1	2	1	Ä	1				- 1

antilog $5.2345 = 1.716 \times 10^5$ antilog $15.5933 = 3.92 \times 10^{15}$ antilog 15 =antilog 15.000=1.000× 1015 antilog(-4.42) = ?-4.42 = -4.00 - 0.42+1 $-4.42 = -5.00 + 0.58 = \overline{5}$. 58 $antilog(-4.42) = antilog(\overline{5}.58)$ $= 3.802 \times 10^{-5}$