

CHAPTER

6

CHEMICAL THERMODYNAMICS

Chapter Objectives

- *Fundamentals of thermodynamics : System and surroundings, Extensive and intensive properties, and thermodynamic State functions.*
- *First law of thermodynamics : Concept of work, heat, internal energy and enthalpy, Heat capacity, Molar heat capacity, Hess's law of constant heat summation, Enthalpies of bond dissociation, combustion, formation, neutralization, solution, hydration, fusion, vaporisation and sublimation, Carnot engine.*
- *Second law of thermodynamics : Entropy, Spontaneity of processes, ΔS for universe, ΔG of the system as criteria for spontaneity, Gibb's Helmholtz equation, ΔG (standard Gibb's energy change) and equilibrium constant.*
- *Third law of thermodynamics : Brief introduction.*

STUDY MATERIAL

I. Concept Clarified :

➤ Thermodynamics

The branch of science that deals with the study of quantitative relationship between heat energy (Thermos) and other forms of energy, i.e., work (dynamics) during a physical or chemical transformation is called thermodynamics.

The study of thermodynamics is based on three generalisations which is derived from experiments. These are first, second and third laws of thermodynamics that help us to determine the following :

- Derivation of quantitative relation ship between heat and other forms of energy.
- An idea to predict whether a chemical reaction takes place under the given set of conditions.
- Predict the extent of reaction before the equilibrium is attained.
- To deduce various laws such as law of mass action, distribution law etc.
- Predict the spontaneity of a process.
- Determine the efficiency of various types of engines.

Limitations of Thermodynamics

- It is applicable only to macroscopic systems (i.e., bulk) and not to microscopic systems, i.e., to individual atoms or molecules.
- It does not give any indication of how fast the reaction will proceed.
- Thermodynamic methods provide only a limiting value for the work obtainable from a chemical or physical transformation.
- It deals only with initial and final state of a system but remains silent about the mechanism of the process.

➤ Thermodynamical Equilibrium

A system is said to have obtained a state of thermodynamical equilibrium when it shows no further tendency to change its property with time.

- **Thermal equilibrium** : When the temperature is same throughout the process.
- **Mechanical equilibrium** : It involves no flow of matter with the system or its boundaries.
- **Chemical equilibrium** : If the chemical composition remains constant with changing time.

➤ Fundamentals of Thermodynamics :

Some important terms are used in thermodynamics which are as follows.

- **System** : It is any region of space that is under observation.
- **Surroundings** : The remaining part of the universe outside the system.

➤ **Boundary :**

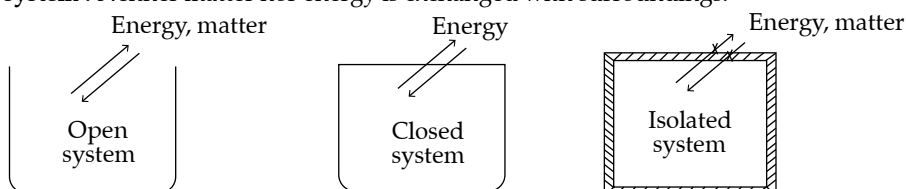
The actual or imaginary wall of layer that separates the system from the surroundings.

There are various types of boundaries :

- (a) **A rigid boundary :** Its boundary and shape are fixed.
 - (b) **An impermeable boundary :** Such boundary does not permit the passage of matter.
 - (c) **Permeable boundary :** Its permits the passage of matter and energy.
 - (d) **An adiabatic boundary :** It does not permit the passage of matter or energy.
Example : A thermos bottle.
 - (e) **A diathermal or diathermic boundary :** A boundary that allows heat to flow through it is called diathermal whereas a boundary which does not allow heat to flow through it is called adiabatic. It means that a diathermal wall is impermeable but not adiabatic.
- Universe :** System + Surroundings = Universe.

➤ **Types of Systems :**

- (i) **Open system :** It can exchange matter as well as energy with surroundings.
- (ii) **Closed system :** Only energy is exchanged with the surroundings but not matter.
- (iii) **Isolated system :** Neither matter nor energy is exchanged with surroundings.



- **Homogeneous system :** Uniform throughout one phase.
- **Heterogeneous systems :** Non-uniform, two or more phases.

➤ **Thermodynamic Properties :**

(i) **Intensive properties :** Properties that are independent of the quantity of matter present in the system, or size of the system.

Examples : Pressure, temperature, density, concentration terms, pH, specific heat, molar heat capacity, molar entropy, molar enthalpy, molar internal energy, boiling point, melting point, etc.

(ii) **Extensive properties :** Properties whose magnitude depends upon the quantity of matter present in the system or the size of the system. Extensive properties are additive.

Examples : Mass, volume, number of moles, internal energy, entropy, Gibb's free energy and heat capacity.

Two important aspects regarding intensive and extensive properties :

(i) The ratio of two extensive properties to always an intensive property.

Example : Density = $\frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Volume}}$

Mass and volume are extensive properties of a system but density is intensive property .

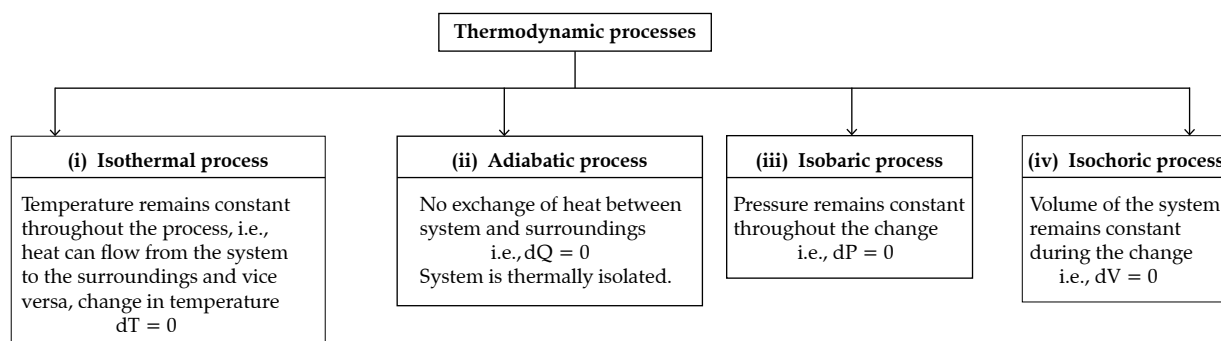
(ii) Extensive property can be converted to intensive property by specifying a system with the quantity of matter.

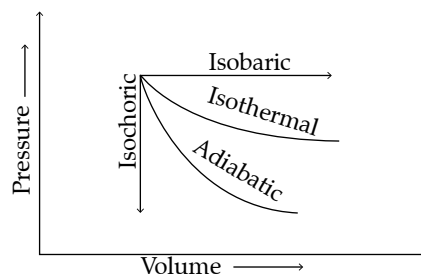
Examples : (a) Molar entropy or entropy per mole

(b) Molar internal energy or internal energy per mole or internal energy per gram.

➤ **Thermodynamic Processes :**

When the system changes from one state into another final state.





Graphical representation of four thermodynamic processes

- (v) **Reversible process** : A process which is carried out infinitesimally slowly in such a way so that it can be reversed by applying the reversible condition and at any time the system and surroundings are in equilibrium.

$$P_{\text{system}} = P_{\text{surr}} \pm dP$$

- (vi) **Irreversible process** : A process which is carried out rapidly in such a way that the successive steps of the direct process cannot be retraced without the help of external agency and no equilibrium exists between system and surrounding.

$$P_{\text{system}} = P_{\text{surr}} \pm \Delta P$$

➤ State Functions or State Variables

The thermodynamic properties whose value is dependent upon the initial and final states of the system and are independent of the path or route.

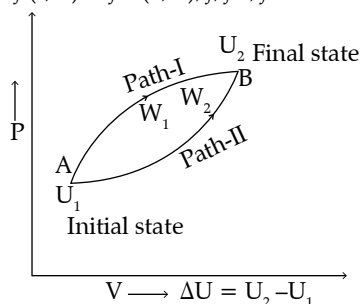
Examples : Internal energy (U), enthalpy (H), pressure (P), temperature (T), Gibb's free energy (G), entropy (S), volume (V), number of moles (*n*).

Path functions : The thermodynamic properties whose value depends upon the path or process of transformation.

Examples : Work and heat.

Internal energy (U) : The total of all possible kinds of energies stored under a given set of conditions is called internal energy. When a system is in thermodynamic equilibrium, the internal energy of that system remains same. Internal energy depends on pressure (P), volume (V) and temperature (T) of the system.

Therefore internal energy $U = f(P, T) = f'(P, T) = f''(V, T)$, f, f', f'' are called functions.



When a system moves from initial state A to final state B, internal energy of that system will be changed. If in A, internal energy is U_1 and in B the internal energy is U_2 , follow through Path - I and Path - II respectively, we can measure the change in internal energy as follows :

By the path - I; $U_2 = U_1 + W_1$ [W_1 = amount of work done in Path - I]

$$\therefore U_2 - U_1 = W_1 \quad \dots\text{(i)}$$

$$\text{By the Path - II, } U_2 - U_1 = W_2 \quad \dots\text{(ii)}$$

[W_2 = amount of work done in Path - II]

Comparing the two equations, we get $W_1 = W_2$, i.e., it is not a path function, it is a state function.

It is the sum of all microscopic forms of energy;

$$U = U_{\text{electronic}} + U_{\text{nuclear}} + U_{\text{chemical}} + U_{\text{potential}} + U_{\text{vibrational}} + U_{\text{rotational}} + \dots$$

Characteristics of Internal Energy :

- (i) It is an extensive property.
- (ii) It is a state function.
- (iii) The exact value of internal energy can not be determined but the change of internal energy can be measured accurately.

➤ **Work, Energy and Heat**

Work : Work is generally expressed as the force multiplied by the distance. If F is the force and is the displacement, work done will be

$$W = F \times dl$$

Mechanical Work :

Mechanical work, $W = F \times dl$

Where F= force, $dl =$ displacement

Again, Pressure (P) = $\frac{\text{Force (F)}}{\text{Area(A)}}$

$\therefore F = PA$

Small work done by the gas

$$\delta W = P \times A \times dl \quad [dl = \text{difference of distance}]$$

$$= PdV \quad A \times dl = dV (\text{difference in volume})$$

Integrating on both sides

$$W = P \int_{V_1}^{V_2} dV = P(V_2 - V_1) = P\Delta V$$

Unit of work done : J (S.I), ergs (C.G.S)

Energy : Energy is the capacity for doing work.

The general expression for the work done is written as

$$W = -P_{\text{ext}} \Delta V$$

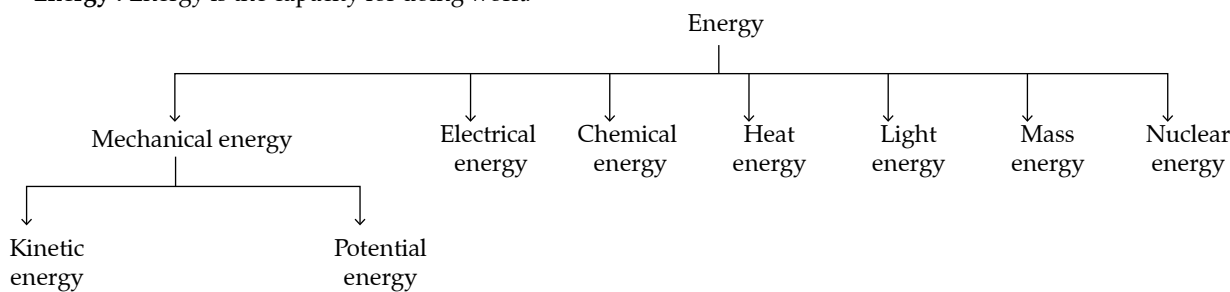
$$= -P_{\text{ext}} (V_2 - V_1)$$

$$= -P_{\text{ext}} (V_f - V_i)$$

[According to SI conversion, if work is done on the system, W is +ve and if work is done by system, W is -ve]

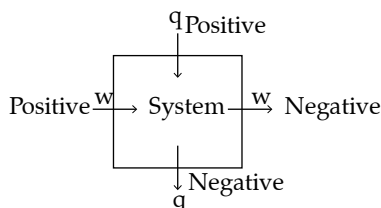
Electrical work = Potential difference \times Charge flown
 $= V \times Q = E \times F$

Gravitational work = Gravitational force \times Height
 $= mg \times h$



Heat (Q) : This type of energy is related with the molecular velocity proportionally, which can transform from one body to another through conduction, convection or radiation.

Sign convention according to IUPAC :



➤ **Enthalpy (H) :** The pressure and volume of a system are thermodynamic variables and product of PV is the energy. The total heat content, i.e., enthalpy of the system is the sum of internal energy plus PV work done.

$\therefore H = U + PV$ (At constant volume $PV = 0$, actually in chemical laboratories, most processes occur at constant pressure.)

Characteristics of enthalpy :

- (i) It is a state function.
- (ii) It is an extensive property.
- (iii) Its exact value can not be determined but enthalpy change can be determined accurately.

Consider a system ;

	Initial conditions	Final conditions
Enthalpy	H_1	H_2
Pressure	P	P
Volume	V_1	V_2
Internal energy	U_1	U_2

$\therefore H_1 = U_1 + PV_1$... (i)
 $H_2 = U_2 + PV_2$... (ii)

Subtracting (i) from (ii) we get

$$H_2 - H_1 = U_2 - U_1 + P(V_2 - V_1)$$

$\Rightarrow \Delta H = \Delta U + P\Delta V$... (iii)

For n moles, ideal gas equation is,

$PV_1 = n_1RT$... (iv)

$PV_2 = n_2RT$... (v)

$$P(V_1 - V_2) = (n_1 - n_2) RT$$

$\Rightarrow P\Delta V = \Delta n_g RT$... (vi)

$\Delta n_g =$ change in number of moles for gases

From equations (iii) & (vi) we get

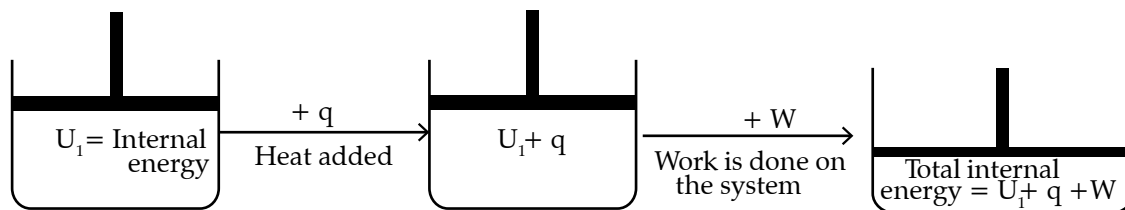
$$\Delta H = \Delta U + \Delta n_g RT$$

➤ First Law of Thermodynamics :

The first law of thermodynamics is the law of conservation of energy. Some of the selected statements are as follows :

- (i) Energy can neither be created nor be destroyed but it can be converted from one form to another.
- (ii) The total energy of the universe remains constant.
- (iii) If some amount of energy is disappeared from a system, equal amount of energy come to the system by means of else where.
- (iv) It is very impossible to construct a perpetual motion that could produce work without applying energy or applying small amount of energy to get greater work.

Mathematical formulation of the first law of thermodynamics : The internal energy of a system can be increased (i) by supplying heat to the system. (ii) by applying work on the system.



Suppose a gas is enclosed fitted with a weightless, frictionless piston having internal energy U_1 . Now q amount of heat is supplied to the system and the energy is raised to become $U_1 + q$.

If further work ' w ' is done on the system, the internal energy again increases and finally becomes $U_1 + q + W$ which is equal to U_2 , then

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow U_2 &= U_1 + q + W \\ \Rightarrow U_2 - U_1 &= q + W \\ \Rightarrow \Delta U &= q + W \end{aligned}$$

For a small change ;

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow dU &= \delta q + \delta W \\ \Rightarrow dU &= \delta q + PdV \end{aligned}$$

If work is done on surroundings, the above equation becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \delta q &= dU + \delta W \\ \Rightarrow \delta q &= dU + PdV \end{aligned}$$

➤ Work done in isothermal reversible expansion of an Ideal gas :

The small amount of work done δw , when the gas expands through a small volume dV , against the external pressure, P_{ext} is given by

$$\delta W = -P_{\text{ext}} dV \quad \dots (i)$$

As it is a reversible expansion

$$\therefore P_{\text{ext}} = P_{\text{int}} - dP \quad \dots (ii)$$

$$\therefore \delta W = -(P_{\text{int}} - dP) dV$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta W = -P_{\text{int}} dV + dP \times dV$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta W = -P_{\text{int}} dV \quad (\text{As } dP \times dV \text{ is negligible}) \quad \dots (iii)$$

From ideal gas equation, $PV = nRT$

$$\therefore P = \frac{nRT}{V}$$

Total work done can be obtained when the volume expands from V_1 to V_2 .

Hence, we get from equation (i)

$$W = - \int_{V_1}^{V_2} \frac{nRT}{V} dV$$

$$\Rightarrow W = -nRT \int_{V_1}^{V_2} \frac{1}{V} dV$$

$$\Rightarrow W = -nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow W = -2.303 nRT \log \frac{V_2}{V_1} \quad \dots (iv)$$

$$\Rightarrow W = -2.303 PV \log \frac{P_1}{P_2} \quad \dots (v)$$

[At constant temperature $P_1V_1 = P_2V_2$]

➤ Heat Capacity

The amount of heat required to increase the temperature of 1 g of substance by 1 K is called specific heat. The heat input required to increase by 1K, the temperature of one mole of substance is called its molar heat capacity or simply heat capacity. If δq amount of heat is required to increase temperature for one mole of substance, then

$$C = \frac{\delta q}{dT}$$

But δq is path function and its value depends on the actual process followed.

To get precise values of heat capacity we can introduce certain restriction, for example, the restriction is heat capacity at constant pressure and heat capacity at constant volume.

Molar heat capacity at constant volume

From first law of thermodynamics,

$$\begin{aligned} \delta q &= dU + \delta W & \dots (i) \\ \Rightarrow \delta q &= dU + PdV \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\delta q}{dT} &= \frac{dU}{dT} + \frac{PdV}{dT} \\ \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\delta q}{dT}\right)_V &= \left(\frac{dU}{dT}\right)_V + P \cdot 0 \\ \Rightarrow C_v &= \left(\frac{dU}{dT}\right)_V & \dots (i) \end{aligned}$$

Molar heat capacity at constant pressure,

$$\begin{aligned} H &= U + PV \\ \Rightarrow dH &= dU + PdV + VdP \\ \Rightarrow dH &= \delta q + VdP \\ \Rightarrow \left(\frac{dH}{dT}\right) &= \frac{\delta q}{dT} + V\left(\frac{dP}{dT}\right) \\ \Rightarrow \left(\frac{dH}{dT}\right)_P &= \left(\frac{\delta q}{dT}\right)_P + V \cdot 0 \\ \Rightarrow C_P &= \left(\frac{dH}{dT}\right)_P & \dots (ii) \end{aligned}$$

Relation between C_p & C_v
As $U = f(V, T)$

$$\therefore \Delta U = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V \times \Delta T + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T \times \Delta V$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P &= \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T \times \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \\ C_P - C_v &= \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_P - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_P + P\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_V \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P + P\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P - \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_V \\ &= \left[\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T + P\right] \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \end{aligned}$$

For a n -mole of ideal gas, $\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} C_P - C_v &= \left[\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T + P\right] \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \\ \Rightarrow C_P - C_v &= P\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \\ \Rightarrow C_P - C_v &= P \times \frac{R}{P} = R \\ \therefore \boxed{C_P - C_v = R} \end{aligned}$$

➤ **Relation between T, P and V during Adiabatic Reversible Change**

(i) Relation between pressure and volume :

According to 1st law of thermodynamics,

$$\delta q = dU + \delta W \quad \dots (i)$$

For Adiabatic change $\delta q = 0$... (ii)

$$dU = C_v dT \quad \dots (iii)$$

$$\delta W = PdV \quad \dots (iv)$$

From equation (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv) we get

$$C_v dT + PdV = 0 \quad \dots (v)$$

According to ideal gas equation,

$$PV = RT$$

Differentiating both sides we get,

$$PdV + VdP = RdT$$

$$\Rightarrow dT = \frac{PdV + VdP}{R} \quad \dots (vi)$$

From equation (v) and (vi) we get,

$$C_v = \frac{(PdV + VdP)}{R} + PdV = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow C_v PdV + C_v VdP + PRdV = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow PdV(C_v + R) + C_v VdP = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow C_p PdV + C_v VdP = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{C_p PdV}{C_v VP} + \frac{C_v VdP}{C_v VP} &= 0 \\ & \text{[Dividing by } C_v VP] \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma \frac{1}{V} dV + \frac{1}{P} dP = 0 \quad \dots (vii)$$

Integrating both sides,

$$\gamma \int \frac{1}{V} dV + \int \frac{1}{P} dP = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln v^\gamma + \ln P = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln PV^\gamma = \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow PV^\gamma = \text{constant} \quad \dots (viii)$$

This is the equation for adiabatic change.

(ii) Relation between temperature and volume.

$$PV^\gamma = K \quad \dots (i)$$

For 1 mole of ideal gas,

$$PV = RT$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \frac{RT}{V} \quad \dots (ii)$$

From equation (i) and (ii) we get

$$\frac{RT}{V} V^\gamma = K$$

$$\Rightarrow T V^{\gamma-1} = \text{constant}$$

➤ **Calculation of Work Done in Adiabatic Expansion of Ideal Gas :**

From 1st law of thermodynamics,

$$\delta q = dU + \delta W \quad \dots (i)$$

For adiabatic change $\delta q = 0$... (ii)

$$dU = C_v dT \quad \dots (iii)$$

From equation (i), (ii), (iii) we get

$$\delta W = -C_v dT \quad \dots (iv)$$

Integrating the above equations between the temperature T_1 to T_2 , we get

$$W = -C_v \int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT$$

$$\Rightarrow W = -C_v(T_2 - T_1) \quad \dots (v)$$

$$\Rightarrow W = \frac{C_v(\gamma - 1)(T_1 - T_2)}{(\gamma - 1)} \quad [\text{Multiplying and dividing}]$$

$$\Rightarrow W = \frac{C_v \left(\frac{C_p}{C_v} - 1 \right) (T_1 - T_2)}{(\gamma - 1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow W = \frac{C_v \left(\frac{C_p - C_v}{C_v} \right) (T_1 - T_2)}{(\gamma - 1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow W = \frac{R(T_1 - T_2)}{(\gamma - 1)}$$

For n number of moles

$$\therefore W = \frac{nR(T_1 - T_2)}{(\gamma - 1)} \quad \dots (vi)$$

(i) Isochoric process

From 1st law of thermodynamics,

$$\Rightarrow \Delta U = q_v + W [W = PdV \text{ sin isochoric } dV = 0]$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta U = q_v$$

(ii) Isobaric process

$$W = -P_{\text{ext}}(V_2 - V_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta H = q_p$$

(iii) Cyclic process :

Work done = Area enclosed in PV diagram

Case 1 : For clockwise

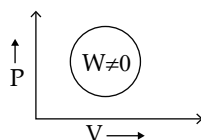
$$W = -ve$$

Case 2 : For anti-clockwise

$$W = +ve$$

In irreversible work done

$$W = P_2(V_2 - V_1) \quad \dots (i)$$



For isothermal process, $P_1V_1 = RT$ $P_2V_2 = RT$

$$V_1 = \frac{RT}{P_1} \quad \dots (ii)$$

$$V_2 = \frac{RT}{P_2} \quad \dots (iii)$$

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\text{irr}} &= P_2 \left(\frac{RT}{P_1} - \frac{RT}{P_2} \right) \\ &= RT \left(1 - \frac{P_2}{P_1} \right) \quad \dots (iv) \end{aligned}$$

Now $W_r - W_{\text{irr}}$

$$= RT \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2} - RT \left(1 - \frac{P_2}{P_1} \right) \quad \dots (v)$$

Reversible process occurs through infinitesimally slowly :

$$\ln \frac{P_1}{P_2} = \frac{P_1 - P_2}{P_2} \quad \dots (vi)$$

From (v) and (vi) we get

$$W_r - W_{\text{irr}} = RT \left(\frac{P_1 - P_2}{P_2} \right) - RT \left(\frac{P_1 - P_2}{P_1} \right)$$

$$= RT (P_1 - P_2) \left(\frac{1}{P_2} - \frac{1}{P_1} \right)$$

$$= RT (P_1 - P_2) \left(\frac{P_1 - P_2}{P_1 P_2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{RT}{P_1 P_2} (P_1 - P_2)^2$$

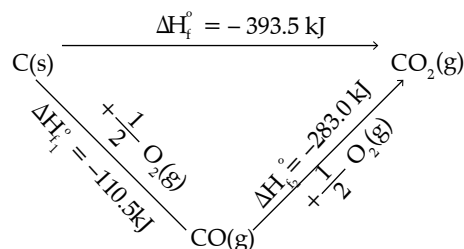
As $\frac{RT}{P_1 P_2} (P_1 - P_2)^2$ positive quantity, so

$$W_r - W_{\text{irr}} = +ve,$$

$$\therefore W_r > W_{\text{irr}}$$

➤ Hess's Law of Constant Heat Summation :

Provided the other condition remaining the same, the heat of reaction will be the same no matter whether the reaction takes place directly or alternatively in a number of steps.

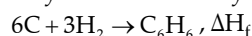


$$\therefore \Delta H_f^\circ = \Delta H_{f_1}^\circ + \Delta H_{f_2}^\circ$$

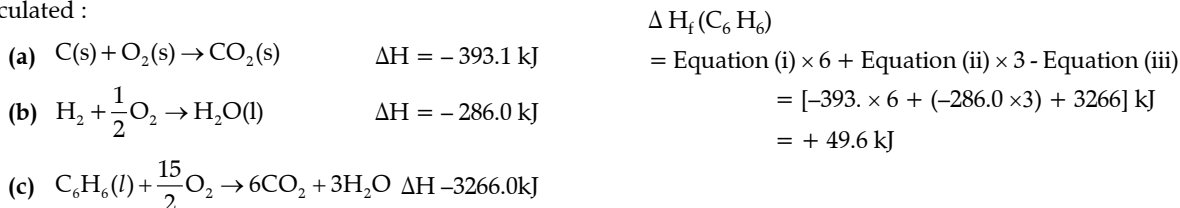
Applications of Hess's law :

(i) Heat of formation of intermediate compounds which are not stable, non-isolable and can't be determined experimentally are determined by applying Hess's law.

Example: Benzene cannot be synthesised directly from its element.



By considering following reactions ΔH_f can be calculated :



(ii) **To determine heat of reaction :** The reactions which are either very fast or occur simultaneously with other reactions and cannot be studied experimentally, by applying Hess's law, heat of reaction of such reactions can be evaluated.

(iii) Heat of transitions can be determined.

(iv) Lattice energy of ionic compounds can be calculated.

➤ Enthalpy of Bond Dissociation :

The amount of energy required to dissociate one mole of bonds between the atoms in a molecule in the gaseous state is called enthalpy of bond dissociation.

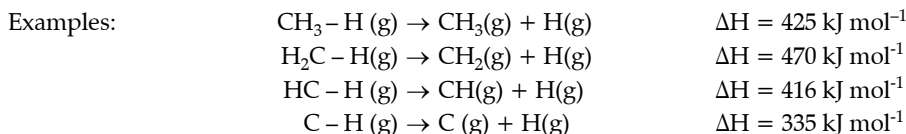


The amount of energy released when a bond is formed between two atoms to form one mole of a compound is called bond enthalpy.



So, from the above two reactions it is evident that bond enthalpy is same as enthalpy of bond dissociation for a diatomic molecule.

In case of polyatomic molecules the average value of enthalpy of bond dissociation is referred to as bond enthalpy.



The variation in breaking of individual C - H bonds is high, that is why we consider the average of those four dissociation enthalpies;

Bond dissociation enthalpy of C - H bond

$$= \frac{425 + 470 + 416 + 335}{4}$$

$$= 411.5 \text{ kJ}$$

Thus, bond enthalpy is defined as the average amount of energy needed to dissociate bond of a given type present in one mole of the gaseous molecules.

➤ **Kirchoff's reaction (Variation of enthalpy of a reaction with temperature) :** When a system changes from a given state to another state both the internal energy and the heat energy would change.

$$\therefore \quad \text{U}_2 - \text{U}_1 = \Delta \text{U} \quad \dots \text{(i)}$$

$$\text{H}_2 - \text{H}_1 = \Delta \text{H} \quad \dots \text{(ii)}$$

The suffixes 2 and 1 denote final and initial states.

Equation (i) differentiating with respect to temperature at constant volume and equation (ii) differentiating with respect to temperature at constant pressure we get,

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \text{U}}{\partial \text{T}}\right)_{\text{V}} = \left(\frac{\partial \text{U}_2}{\partial \text{T}}\right)_{\text{V}} - \left(\frac{\partial \text{U}_1}{\partial \text{T}}\right)_{\text{V}} = \text{C}_{\text{V}_2} - \text{C}_{\text{V}_1} = \Delta \text{C}_{\text{V}} \quad \dots \text{(iii)}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \text{H}}{\partial \text{T}}\right)_{\text{P}} = \left(\frac{\partial \text{H}_2}{\partial \text{T}}\right)_{\text{P}} - \left(\frac{\partial \text{H}_1}{\partial \text{T}}\right)_{\text{P}} = \text{C}_{\text{P}_2} - \text{C}_{\text{P}_1} = \Delta \text{C}_{\text{P}} \quad \dots \text{(iv)}$$

Or, $\int \partial \Delta \text{U} = \int \Delta \text{C}_{\text{V}} d\text{T}$

and $\int \partial \Delta \text{H} = \int \Delta \text{C}_{\text{P}} d\text{T}$

Integrating between the limit TK an 0K we get;

$$\Delta \text{U}_{\text{T}} = \Delta \text{U}_0 + \int_0^{\text{T}} \Delta \text{C}_{\text{V}} d\text{T} \quad \dots \text{(v)}$$

$$\Delta H_T = \Delta H_o + \int_0^T \Delta C_p dT \quad \dots \text{(vi)}$$

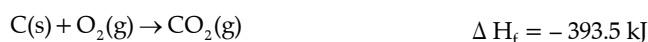
Equations (v) and (vi) are called Kirchoff's equations.

Lavoisier Laplace law : When a same reaction is reversed, heat of formation is equal to the heat of absorption in the reaction.



➤ Different Types of Enthalpies of Reactions :

- (1) **Enthalpy of combustion :** The change in enthalpy when one mole of substance is completely burnt or oxidized in oxygen. It is denoted by ΔH_c . ΔH_c is always negative as it is exothermic reaction.
- (2) **Enthalpy of formation :** The change of enthalpy when one mole of the substance is formed from its element under given conditions. It is denoted by ΔH_f . It is negative for exothermic reaction and positive for endothermic reaction.

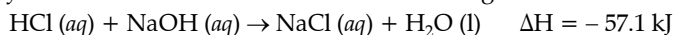


Standard enthalpy of formation : The change in enthalpy when one mole of a substance is formed from its constituent standard states (at 298 K and 1 atm pressure). It is denoted as ΔH_f° .

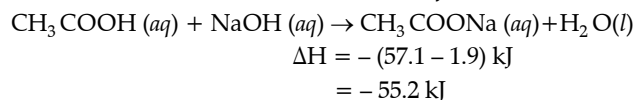
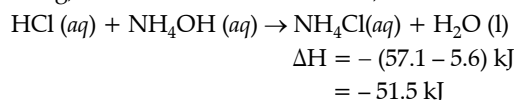
During determination of standard enthalpies, the following points are to be followed :

- (i) If an element has two or more allotropes, during calculation of enthalpy of formation that allotrope is to be considered which is very stable at 298 K and 1 atm pressure.
- (ii) Under standard conditions, the enthalpy of any element (stable allotrope) is taken as zero. [ΔH_f° (graphite) = 0 but ΔH_f° (diamond) \neq 0]
- (3) **Enthalpy of neutralization :** The enthalpy of neutralization of an acid by a base is the change of enthalpy when one gram equivalent of acid is neutralized by one gram equivalent base in a dilute solution.

- The enthalpy of neutralization is maximum when a strong base is neutralized by a strong acid.

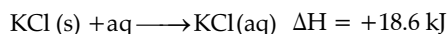


- If the acid is strong, base is weak or acid is weak, base is strong. The evolved enthalpy is less than 57.1 kJ.



A part of heat produced in the above two cases during the combination of H^+ ions and OH^- ions, OH^- ions are used up for complete dissociation of weak base (NH_4OH) or weak acid (CH_3COOH), i.e., enthalpy of ionisation.

- (4) **Enthalpy of solution :** It is the change in enthalpy when mole of a substance is dissolved in large amount of water so that further dilution does not produce any more heat change.



- (5) **Enthalpy of hydration :** It is the change in enthalpy when one mole of the anhydrous salt combines with the specific number of moles of water so as to get a hydrated salt.



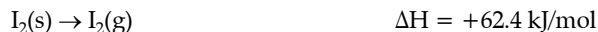
- (6) **Enthalpy of fusion :** It is the change in enthalpy of the melting point when one mole of a solid is completely converted into liquid state.



- (7) **Enthalpy of vaporisation :** It is the change in enthalpy at its boiling point when one mole of a liquid is completely converted into its vapour.



- (8) **Enthalpy of sublimation :** It is the change in enthalpy when one mole of a solid is completely converted into its vapour at its sublimation temperature.



(9) **Enthalpy of phase transition** : It is the change of enthalpy when one mole of one allotropic form changes into another allotropic form.

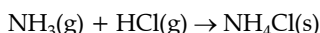


➤ **Limitations of First Law of Thermodynamics**

- (i) The first law cannot explain the feasibility of the process in the direction of change.
- (ii) The first law is unable to give any information about the extent to which the change takes place. All other forms of energy can be converted into another form but heat energy cannot be completely converted into mechanical energy.

Spontaneous process : The process which can take place by itself or after proper initiation.

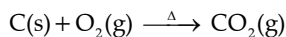
(i) Process which occurs itself



(ii) Salt dissolves in water.

(iii) Process which occurs after initiation.

Coal on ignition keeps on burning.



Non-spontaneous process : The process which neither takes place itself nor by proper initiation.

Examples: (i) Flow of water upstream.

(ii) Flow of heat from cold to hot body.

Driving force for a spontaneous process : Overall tendency for a process to be spontaneous when it has

- (i) tendency for minimum energy (E).
- (ii) tendency for maximum randomness.

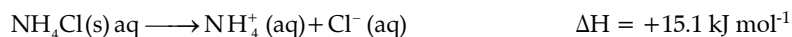
The resultant of the two tendencies which gives over all tendency for a process to take place is known as driving force.

Some examples of spontaneous process are :

(i) **Evaporation of water** : $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l}) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$ $\Delta H = +44 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

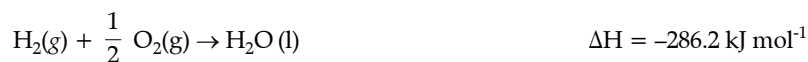
Energy opposes but randomness favours.

(ii) **Dissolution of NH_4Cl in water** :



(Here $R > E$)

(iii) **Formation of H_2O**



(Here $E > R$)

(iv) **Formation of CO_2**



(E, R both favours)

➤ **Carnot Engine**

When one mole of an ideal gas is filled with a weightless frictionless piston, it is called Carnot engine.

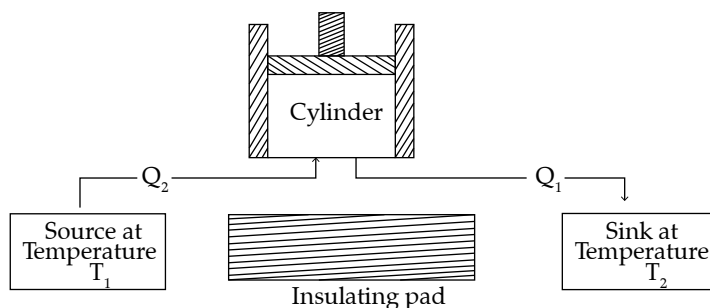


Fig : Carnot Engine

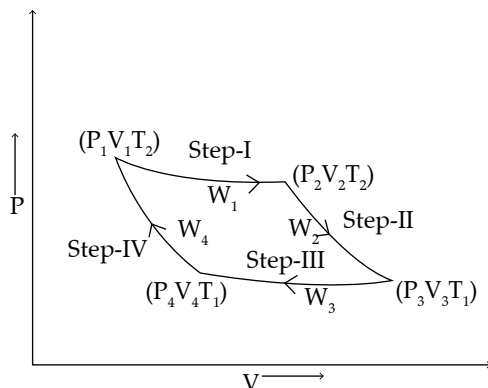
Source : It is a big temperature bath and acts at a fixed temperature T_2 . Heat engine draws heat for the work of expansion but temperature suffers no change.

Sink : It is a lower temperature bath. The heat is rejected by the engine to it, it also suffers no change in temperature. It is kept at T_1 K.

There are four steps in a Carnot engine and all steps are reversible. In them two are isothermal and two are adiabatic. The four steps are :

- (1) Isothermal reversible expansion.
- (2) Adiabatic reversible expansion.
- (3) Isothermal reversible compression.
- (4) Adiabatic reversible compression.

The Carnot engine can be understood by considering the given P-V diagram.



Step - 1

$$W_1 = -RT_2 \times 2.303 \log \frac{V_2}{V_1} = Q_2 = \text{heat absorbed} \quad \dots \text{(i)}$$

Step - 2

$$W_2 = -C_v(T_1 - T_2) \quad \dots \text{(ii)}$$

Step - 3

$$W_3 = -RT_1 \times 2.303 \log \frac{V_4}{V_3} \\ = Q_1 = \text{heat released} \quad \dots \text{(iii)}$$

Step - 4

$$W_4 = -C_v(T_2 - T_1) \\ = -W_2 \quad \dots \text{(iv)}$$

\therefore Total work done (W)

$$= W_1 + W_2 + W_3 + W_4 \\ = -2.303 RT_2 \log \frac{V_2}{V_1} - 2.303 RT_1 \log \frac{V_4}{V_3} \quad \dots \text{(v)}$$

Step - 2 and Step - 4 are adiabatic

$$\therefore T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1} = T_1 V_3^{\gamma-1} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left(\frac{V_3}{V_2} \right)^{\gamma-1} \quad \dots \text{(vi)}$$

Again

$$T_1 V_4^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_1^{\gamma-1} \\ \Rightarrow \left(\frac{V_4}{V_1} \right)^{\gamma-1} = \frac{T_2}{T_1} \quad \dots \text{(vii)}$$

Comparing (vi) & (vii) equation we get

$$\frac{V_3}{V_2} = \frac{V_4}{V_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{V_3}{V_4} \quad \dots \text{(viii)}$$

from equation (v) and (viii) we get

$$W = -2.303 RT_2 \log \frac{V_2}{V_1} + 2.303 RT_1 \log \frac{V_2}{V_1} \\ = -2.303 (T_2 - T_1) RT \log \frac{V_2}{V_1} \quad \dots \text{(ix)}$$

Efficiency of engine :

$$\text{Efficiency of engine } (\eta) = \frac{\text{Work done}}{\text{Heat absorbed}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta = \frac{-2.303(T_2 - T_1)R \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}}{-2.303 RT_2 \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \eta = 1 - \frac{T_1}{T_2}$$

Case - 1 T_2 is always greater than T_1 . Therefore η is always less than 1.

Case - 2 If $T_1 = 0$ K

$$\eta = 1$$

However, 0 K cannot be achieved. So efficiency of an engine is always less than one.

➤ **Second Law of Thermodynamics :**

Second Law of Thermodynamics can be defined in a number of ways as follows :

- (i) "All spontaneous processes (or naturally occurring processes) are thermodynamically irreversible."
- (ii) "Without the help of an external agency, a spontaneous process cannot be reversed". For example, heat cannot by itself flow from a colder to hotter region.
- (iii) "The complete conversion of heat into work is impossible without leaving some effect elsewhere".
- (iv) "All spontaneous processes are accompanied by a net increase of entropy".
- (v) "The entropy of the universe is continuously increasing".

➤ **Entropy :** Entropy is a thermodynamic state quantity which measures the disorderness or randomness of a system (E_n – Energy, trope – change). It is denoted by 'S'.

Entropy change : It is defined as integral of all terms involving heat exchanged (Eq) reversibly divided by absolute temperature (T).

$$\therefore dS = \frac{Sq_{rev}}{T}$$

Calculating of change in entropy :

From Carnot theorem, we get,

$$\text{Efficiency} \quad (\eta) = \frac{W}{Q_2} = \frac{Q_2 - Q_1}{Q_2} = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{Q_2 - Q_1}{Q_2} = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{Q_1}{Q_2} = \frac{T_1}{T_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{Q_2}{T_2} = \frac{Q_1}{T_1} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\text{Heat absorbed at } T_2}{T_2} - \frac{\text{Heat released at } T_2}{T_2} = 0$$

In reversible process heat released = – heat absorbed

$$\therefore \frac{\text{Heat absorbed at } T_2}{T_2} + \frac{\text{Heat released at } T_2}{T_2} = 0$$

Therefore, in any reversible process heat absorbed in different steps divided by state temperature, the summation of these quantities will be zero. If T is small and absorbed heat is δq amount the ratio of these two quantities will be $\frac{\delta q}{T}$ which is expressed mathematically $\oint \frac{\delta q}{T} = 0$. This ratio $\frac{\delta q}{T}$ in reversible process is called entropy.

$$\therefore \text{Entropy } dS = \frac{\delta q_{rev}}{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow dS = \frac{du + (-\delta q)}{T} \quad [\text{From 1}^{st} \text{ law of Thermodynamics}]$$

$$\Rightarrow dS = \frac{nC_v dT + PdV}{T}$$

$$\Rightarrow dS = \frac{nC_v dT}{T} + \frac{nRT}{VT} dV \quad \left[\because P = \frac{nRT}{V} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow dS = \frac{nC_v dT}{T} + \frac{nR}{V} dV$$

Integrating the above equation with appropriate limits, we get

$$\Delta S_{sys} = nC_v \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + nR \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S_{sys} = nC_v \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + nR \ln \frac{P_1 T_2}{P_2 T_1} \quad \left[\because \frac{P_1 V_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{T_2} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S_{sys} = nC_v \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + nR \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2} + nR \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S_{sys} = (C_v + R)n \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + nR \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S_{sys} = nC_p \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + nR \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

Entropy change for an isothermal process :

$$\Delta U = 0$$

$$\therefore \Delta S_{sys} = nR \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

The entropy of mixing of ideal gases is given as;
 $\Delta S_m = -n_1 R \ln N_1 + n_2 R \ln N_2 + \dots$

N_1, N_2 are mole fractions of gases and n_1, n_2 are the number of moles of two gases.

Unit of Entropy : $\text{JK}^{-1}(\text{SI})$

Characteristics of Entropy :

- (i) Entropy is a state function.
- (ii) Entropy is an extensive property.
- (iii) The exact value of entropy can be determined from third law of thermodynamics.

ΔS and Spontaneity :

- (i) For a spontaneous process :

$$\Delta S_{\text{total}} = \Delta S_{\text{system}} + \Delta S_{\text{surroundings}} > 0$$

Here ΔS_{total} is also called $\Delta S_{\text{universe}}$

- (ii) At equilibrium $\Delta S = 0$ (for an isolated system.)
- (iii) $\Delta S < 0$; direct process non-spontaneous and reverse process spontaneous.

➤ **Gibb's Free Energy**

Heat energy cannot be converted completely into other energy or cannot be converted completely into work. By fraction of it which cannot be converted into useful work is termed as unavailable energy. This unavailable energy affects the internal energy of the system. In every system internal energy as well as PV work is always present. The summation of these two energies is enthalpy (H), i.e., $H = U + PV$. Some of its part of total energy is released as free energy which is denoted as G and other part remains as unavailable energy. Unavailable energy is the product of temperature and entropy of the system, i.e., unavailable energy = TS

$$\therefore \text{Total energy of system} = \text{Free energy} + \text{Unavailable energy}$$

$$\therefore H = G + TS$$

$$\Rightarrow G = H - TS \quad \dots (i)$$

Suppose a system passes from the initial to the final state at constant temperature then,

For initial state of the system equation (i) becomes

$$G_1 = H_1 - TS_1 \quad \dots (ii)$$

and for final state

$$G_2 = H_2 - TS_2 \quad \dots (iii)$$

\therefore Change in free energy,

$$G_2 - G_1 = (H_2 - H_1) - T(S_2 - S_1)$$

\Rightarrow

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \quad \dots (iv)$$

Equation (iv) is known as Gibb's equation.

Gibb's free energy change and spontaneity :

ΔH	$T\Delta S$	Conditions	ΔG
-ve (favourable)	+ve (favourable)	(any)	-ve spontaneous
-ve (favourable)	-ve (unfavourable)	$ \Delta H > T\Delta S $	-ve spontaneous
-ve (unfavourable)	+ve (unfavourable)	$ T\Delta S > \Delta H $	-ve spontaneous

Criteria for spontaneity for a process :

ΔH (Enthalpy)	ΔS (Entropy)	ΔG (Gibb's energy)	Remarks
$\Delta H < 0$	$\Delta S > 0$	$\Delta G < 0$	Spontaneous
$\Delta H > 0$	$\Delta S < 0$	$\Delta G > 0$	Non-spontaneous
$\Delta H > 0$	$\Delta S > 0$	$\Delta G < 0$ at high temperature $\Delta G > 0$ at low temperature	Spontaneous at high temperature Non-spontaneous at low temperature
$\Delta H < 0$	$\Delta S < 0$	$\Delta G < 0$ at low temperature $\Delta G > 0$ at high temperature	Spontaneous at low temperature Non-spontaneous at high temperature

➤ **Gibb's Helmholtz equation :**

Gibb's free energy function G is defined by the equation.

$$G = H - TS \quad \dots (i)$$

Differentiating equation(i) we get

$$dG = dH - TdS - SdT \quad \dots (ii)$$

$$\Rightarrow dG = (dH + PdV) + VdP - TdS - SdT \quad [As H = U + PV]$$

$$\Rightarrow dG = \delta q + VdP - \delta q - SdT$$

$$\Rightarrow dG = +VdP - SdT$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial T} \right)_P = -S \quad \dots (iii)$$

At two different temperatures, if the free energy are G_1, G_2 and entropy are S_1, S_2 then

$$\left(\frac{\partial G_1}{\partial T} \right)_P = -S_1 \quad \dots (iv)$$

and $\left(\frac{\partial G_2}{\partial T} \right)_P = -S_2 \quad \dots (v)$

From (iv) and (v) we get

$$\therefore S_2 - S_1 = - \left[\left(\frac{\partial G_2}{\partial T} \right)_P - \left(\frac{\partial G_1}{\partial T} \right)_P \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S = - \left(\frac{\partial \Delta G}{\partial T} \right)_P \quad \dots (vi)$$

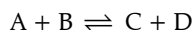
But $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$

$$\therefore \text{But } \Delta G = \Delta H - T \left(\frac{\partial \Delta G}{\partial T} \right)_P \quad \dots (vii)$$

This equation (vii) is known as Gibb's Helmholtz equation.

➤ **Relation between standard free energy change (ΔG°) and equilibrium constant :**

Consider a general reaction,



The free energy change and standard free energy change related with each other by the following equation :

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + RT \ln Q \quad \dots (i)$$

Where, ΔG = Gibb's energy change

ΔG° = difference in standard Gibb's energies of formation of the products and reactants which are in standard states.

$$Q = \text{Reaction quotient} = \frac{[C][D]}{[A][B]} \quad \dots (ii)$$

R = Universal gas constant
= $8.314 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$

At equilibrium $\Delta G=0$ and $Q=K_{eq}$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \Delta G^\circ + RT \ln K_{eq} \quad \dots (iii)$$

$$\Delta G^\circ = -2.303 RT \log K_{eq}$$

This equation (iii) is known as van't Hoff reaction isotherm. If ΔG° of the reaction is known, K_{eq} can be calculated by the above equation. The above equation (iii) can be written as

$$K_{eq} = e^{\frac{-\Delta G^\circ}{RT}} \quad \dots (iv)$$

$$\Rightarrow K_{eq} = 10^{-\Delta G^\circ / 2.303RT} \quad \dots (v)$$

➤ **Relation between free energy charge and electrical work done in a cell :**

Electrical work done by a cell is the decrease of free energy of the cell.

\therefore Electrical work done = Decrease in free energy

$\therefore \Delta G = \text{Electrical work done.} \quad \dots (i)$

Electrical work done = Electrical energy produced

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \text{Quantity of electricity flowing} \times \text{EMF} \\
 &= nFE_{\text{cell}} \quad \dots \text{(ii)}
 \end{aligned}$$

[As n number of moles of electrons get transferred, the quantity of electricity flowing = nF]

From equation (i) and (ii) we get,

$$-\Delta G = nFE_{\text{cell}} \quad \dots \text{(iii)}$$

\therefore Standard cell potential E_{cell}° is given as;

$$\Delta G^{\circ} = -nFE_{\text{cell}}^{\circ} \quad \dots \text{(iv)}$$

Thus, knowing E_{cell}° , ΔG° can be calculated by using above equation.

➤ Effect of Temperature : van't Hoff equation :

From van't Hoff equation we get;

$$\Delta G^{\circ} = -RT \ln K \quad \dots \text{(i)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln K = -\frac{\Delta G^{\circ}}{RT}$$

Differentiating w.r.t to T, we get

$$\frac{\partial \ln K}{\partial T} = -\frac{1}{R} \left(\frac{\partial \Delta G^{\circ} / T}{\partial T} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \ln K}{\partial T} = -\frac{1}{R} \times \left(\frac{\partial \Delta H^{\circ}}{\partial T^2} \right) \quad \text{[by Gibb's Helmholtz equation]}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \ln K}{\partial T} = -\frac{\Delta H}{RT^2} \quad \dots \text{(ii) [} \because \Delta H \text{ does not vary with pressure; } \Delta H^{\circ} = \Delta H \text{]}$$

This equation (ii) is known as van't Hoff equation.

Integrating equation (ii) we get

$$\ln K = -\frac{\Delta H}{RT} + \text{constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln K = -\frac{\Delta H}{2.303 RT} + \text{constant} \quad \dots \text{(iii)}$$

when $T = T_1$; $K = K_1$

and when $T = T_2$; $K = K_2$

Therefore, from equation (iii) we get;

$$\log \frac{K_2}{K_1} = -\frac{\Delta H}{2.303 R} \left(\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right)$$

➤ Third Law of Thermodynamics :

This is also known as Nernst heat theorem.

"The entropy of a pure and perfectly crystalline substance at the absolute zero temperature is zero".

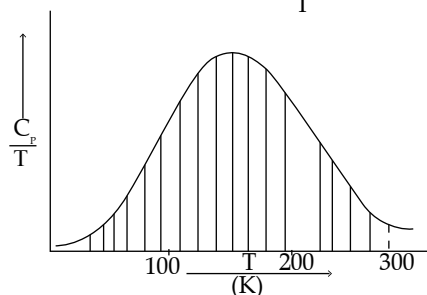
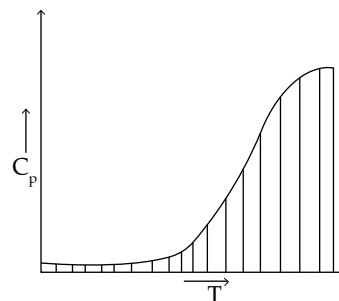
For a solid of entropy at 0 K is S_0 and at T K is S then,

$$S - S_0 = \int_0^T \frac{C_p dT}{T}$$

According to third law $S_0 = 0$ at 0K

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore S &= \int_0^T \frac{C_p dT}{T} \\
 &= \int_0^T C_p d \ln T = C_p \ln T \\
 &= 2.303 C_p \log T
 \end{aligned}$$

Entropy 'S' can be calculated from the shaded area. Crystals of CO, N_2O , NO and H_2O do not have zero entropy even at absolute temperature.



II. Important points :

- (1) Mathematical statement of first law of thermodynamics is $dU = \delta q + \delta W$
- (2) Sign convention used in chemical thermodynamics;
 - (a) Work done by the system (expansion) -ve
 - (b) Work done on the system (compression) +ve
 - (c) Heat gain by the system +ve
 - (d) Heat loss by the system -ve

$$\text{Work done } W = -P_{\text{ext}} dV$$

- (3) Work done under different thermodynamic conditions;

- (a) For irreversible process

$$W_{\text{irr}} = -P_{\text{ext}} [V_f - V_i]$$

- (b) For isothermal reversible system for n mole of gas;

$$W_r = -2.303 nRT \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

$$= -2.303 nRT \log \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

$$= -2.303 PV \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

- (c) Work done in irreversible adiabatic processes for n mole of gas;

$$\Delta U = W = nC_v \Delta T$$

$$W = \frac{nr}{(\gamma - 1)} (T_2 - T_1)$$

- (4) • Heat capacity =

$$\frac{\delta V}{dT} \begin{cases} \rightarrow C_v = \left(\frac{dU}{dT} \right)_v \\ \rightarrow C_p = \left(\frac{dH}{dT} \right)_p \end{cases}$$

- $C_p - C_v = R$ (gas constant)
- Relation between P, V, T for adiabatic process

$$(i) PV^{\gamma-1} = \text{Constant}$$

$$(ii) T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1}$$

$$\text{Value of } \gamma = \frac{C_p}{C_v} \text{ for}$$

- (a) Monoatomic = 1.66
- (b) Diatomic = 1.4
- (c) Polyatomic = 1.3

$$(5) C_v \text{ for the mixture } C_v = \frac{n_1 C_{v_1} + n_2 C_{v_2}}{n_1 + n_2}$$

$$\gamma \text{ for the mixture } \frac{n_1 + n_2}{\gamma - 1} = \frac{n_1}{\gamma_1 - 1} + \frac{n_2}{\gamma_2 - 1}$$

- (6) Kirchoff's equation

$$\frac{\Delta U_2 - \Delta U_1}{T_2 - T_1} = \Delta C_v \quad \frac{\Delta U_2 - \Delta U_1}{T_2 - T_1} = \Delta C_p$$

$$(7) T_i = \frac{2a}{Rb}$$

[T_i = inversion temperature a, b = van der Waal's constant]

$$(8) \Delta H = \sum \Delta H (\text{Product}) - \sum \Delta H (\text{Reactant})$$

If $\Delta H_p > \Delta H_r$, $\Delta H = +ve$, endothermic

If $\Delta H_p < \Delta H_r$, $\Delta H = -ve$, exothermic

$$(9) \Delta S = \frac{\delta q_{\text{rev}}}{T}$$

$$\Delta S_{\text{vap}} = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{T_b}$$

$$\Delta S = S_f - S_i \quad S_f = \text{Entropy of final state}$$

$$S_i = \text{Entropy of initial state}$$

If $\Delta S = +ve$, randomness increases

$\Delta S = -ve$, randomness decreases

- (10) For spontaneous process;

$$\Delta S_{\text{sys}} + \Delta S_{\text{surr}} > 0$$

- (11) Entropy change for n moles of an ideal gas during reversible expansion.

$$\Delta S = nC_p \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + nR \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

$$\Delta S = nC_v \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + nR \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

For isothermal reversible process;

$$\Delta S = 2.303nR \log \frac{V_2}{V_1} = 2.303nR \log \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

For isobaric process;

$$\Delta S = nC_p \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

For isochoric process;

$$\Delta S = nC_v \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

- (12) Entropy of mixing ΔS_{mx}

$$= -n_i R \sum X_i \ln x_i$$

Where n_i = total number of moles of gas

x_i = mole fraction of i th gas

$$(13) \text{Thermodynamic efficiency } (\eta) = \frac{W}{Q_2} = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_2}$$

- (14) Heat of neutralisation of strong acid and strong base = $-57.6 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

- (15) Gibb's free energy

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

$$\Delta G = -W = 2.303 RT \log \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^\circ + 2.303 RT \log Q$$

At equilibrium $\Delta G^\circ + 2.303 RT \log K$

(16) Clausius-Clapeyron equation (integrated form)

$$\ln \frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{\Delta H_v}{R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]$$

P_1, P_2 are vapour pressures of a liquid at temperatures T_1 and T_2 .

(17) Residual entropy can be calculated from 3rd law of thermodynamics

$$S_R = k \ln w$$

w = Thermodynamic probability

k = Boltzmann constant

$kN = R$ (Universal gas constant)

(18) Debye equation $C_v = aT^3$

a = Constant for a substance, from this equation C_v can be calculated at absolute zero temperature using the extrapolate technique.

