

Thermodynamics-1

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Notes for II Semester

Obtain the expression for the efficiency of Carnot's engine in terms of entropy.

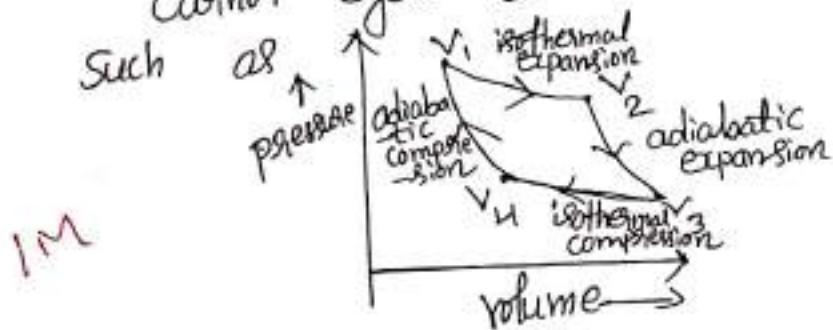
French Engineer Sadi Carnot imagined a hypothetical heat engine which works reversibly in cycles. It consists of a cylinder containing one mole of an ideal gas as the working substance and fitted with weightless, frictionless piston. All sides except the base of the cylinder are perfectly insulated, so that heat can flow to or from the system only through the base.

Further it is supposed that there are two heat reservoirs, one at a higher temp (T_2) [called the source]. & the other at a lower temp (T_1)

If some process is carried out by placing the cylinder in the source or the sink, it can exchange heat with it & hence the temp remains constant.

So that the process is isothermal.
On the other hand, if the cylinder is placed on an insulating material, no heat exchange can take place b/w the system & the surrounding & hence the process is adiabatic.

Carnot cycle consists of four different operations such as



Isothermal Expansion:- The cylinder containing one mole of the ideal gas occupying a volume V_1 is placed in contact with the source. The gas absorbs q_2 Joules of heat from the source at temp. T_2 & expands isothermally & reversibly till its volume has increased V_2 .

$$\Delta S_1 = \frac{q_2}{T_2}$$

Adiabatic Expansion:- the gas is expanded adiabatically & reversibly from a volume V_2 to V_3 . the temp. falls from T_2 to T_1 . Since there is no heat transfer $q=0$

$$\therefore \Delta S_2 = 0$$

1M Isothermal compression:- the gas is isothermally & reversibly compressed from a V_3 to V_4 at temperature T_1 . \therefore Heat q_1 is liberated in this step.

$$\therefore \Delta S_3 = -\frac{q_1}{T_1}$$

Adiabatic compression:- The gas is reversibly and adiabatically compressed from a volume $V_4 \rightarrow V_1$. the temp. of the gas increases from $T_1 \rightarrow T_2$.

There is no heat transfer here

$$\therefore \Delta S_4 = 0$$

The total entropy change for the four steps must be zero since this is a cyclic process of Entropy is a state function.

$$\Delta S_{\text{total}} = \Delta S_1 + \Delta S_2 + \Delta S_3 + \Delta S_4$$

$$= \frac{q_2}{T_2} + 0 - \frac{q_1}{T_1} + 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{q_2}{T_2} = \frac{q_1}{T_1}$$

$$\textcircled{B} \quad \frac{q_1}{q_2} = \frac{T_1}{T_2}$$

Subtracted on both side from 1

$$1 - \frac{q_1}{q_2} = 1 - \frac{T_1}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{q_2 - q_1}{q_2} = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_2}$$

For a cyclic process $\Delta E = 0$

Hence from the 1 Law of thermodynamics.

$$\Delta E = q_{\text{rev}} + w$$

$$0 = q_{\text{rev}} + w$$

[q_{rev} is the heat absorbed reversibly]

$$\frac{q_2 - q_1}{q_2} = -w$$

~~$q_2 - q_1 = -w$~~ Heat converted into work

$$\text{Efficiency } (\eta) = \frac{\text{Heat converted into work}}{\text{Heat absorbed}}$$

$$(\eta) = \frac{-w}{q_2} = \frac{q_{\text{rev}}}{q_2} = \frac{q_2 - q_1}{q_2} = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_2}$$

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

Free energy:- Free energy is a measure of a system's ability to do work.

- * If reactants in a reaction have greater free energy than the products, the energy is released from the reaction which is called exergonic.
- * If reactants in a reaction have lower free energy than the products, the energy is absorbed by the reaction which is called endergonic.

There are two free energy functions.

- 1) Helmholtz free energy (A) @ work function
- 2) Gibbs free energy.

Helmholtz free energy:- [4 marks]

Helmholtz free energy is denoted by "A" & is defined by the equation.

$$A = U - TS \rightarrow ①$$

where $A \rightarrow$ Helmholtz free energy

U - Internal energy

T - Temperature

S - Entropy.

In order to understand the physical significance of work function, consider an isothermal change takes place at temperature " T " then

$$A_1 = U_1 - TS_1 \rightarrow ② \text{ for the initial state}$$

$$A_2 = U_2 - TS_2 \rightarrow ③ \text{ for the final state}$$

where A_1 , U_1 & S_1 are respectively the values of work function, internal energy & entropy of system in

the initial state of A_1 , U_1 & S_1 are the corresponding values in the final state.

∴ Change in the work function "A" is given by

$$A_2 - A_1 = (U_2 - TS_2) - [U_1 - TS_1]$$

$$A_2 - A_1 = U_2 - TS_2 - U_1 + TS_1$$

$$A_2 - A_1 = U_2 - U_1 - T[S_2 - S_1]$$

$$\Delta A = \Delta U - T\Delta S \rightarrow ④$$

According to the definition entropy

$$\Delta S = \frac{Q_{rev}}{T} \rightarrow ⑤$$

According to the 1st Law of Thermodynamics as applied to an isothermal reversible process, we have

$$\Delta U = Q_{rev} - W_{max} \rightarrow ⑥$$

Substituting the values of ΔS & ΔU from eqs. ⑤ & ⑥ in eq. ④, we get

$$\Delta A = (Q_{rev} - W_{max}) - T\left(\frac{Q_{rev}}{T}\right)$$

$$\Delta A = -W_{max}$$

$$\boxed{-\Delta A = W_{max}}$$

Thus decrease in the work function "A" is equal to the maximum work done by the system. For this reason the Helmholtz free energy has been termed as work function.

Gibb's free energy:-

4 Marks.

It is denoted by "G" & is defined by the equation

$$G = H - TS \rightarrow ①$$

Where G - Gibb's free energy

H - Enthalpy (heat content)

T - temp.

S - Entropy

change in Gibb's free energy occurring at constant temperature "T"

$$G_1 = H_1 - TS_1 \rightarrow ② \text{ for the initial state}$$

$$\& G_2 = H_2 - TS_2 \rightarrow ③ \text{ for the final state}$$

$$\therefore G_2 - G_1 = H_2 - TS_2 - (H_1 - TS_1)$$

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

$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \rightarrow ④$$

A/c to definition of entropy

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

$$-T\Delta S = q_{rev} \rightarrow ⑤$$

From definition of enthalpy "H"

$$H = U + PV$$

The change in enthalpy at constant "P"

$$\Delta H = \Delta U + P\Delta V \rightarrow ⑥$$

Substituting the values of $T\Delta S$ & ΔH from equation ⑤ & ⑥ in eqn ④

$$\Delta G = \Delta U + P\Delta V - q_{rev}$$

$$\Delta G = (\Delta U - q_{rev}) + P\Delta V \rightarrow ⑦$$

According to first law of the thermodynamics

$$\Delta U = q_{\text{rev}} - w_{\text{max}}$$

[work done by a system carries negative sign]

$$\Delta U - q_{\text{rev}} = -w_{\text{max}} \rightarrow \textcircled{8}$$

Substituting the values of $\textcircled{8}$ in eq β $\textcircled{7}$

$$\Delta G = -w_{\text{max}} + p\Delta V$$

$$-\Delta G = w_{\text{max}} - p\Delta V \rightarrow \textcircled{9}$$

Here w_{max} is the maximum work that can be obtained from the system is the pressure volume work ($p\Delta V$)

Thus decrease in Gibbs free energy is a measure of the useful work that can be obtained from the system.

If ΔG is negative, the process will be spontaneous
 ΔG is positive, the process will be non-spontaneous
 $\Delta G = 0$ the process is at equilibrium.

* Variation of free energy with pressure [3 marks]

The free energy is given by the equation

$$G = H - TS \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$\text{But } H = U + PV \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Substituting equation $\textcircled{2}$ in eq β . $\textcircled{1}$ we get

$$G = U + PV - TS \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

complete differentiation of this equation gives

$$dG = dU + pdV + Vdp - TdS - SdT \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

$$\Delta G = nRT \ln\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right) \quad [\because \ln a - \ln b = \ln\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)]$$

$$\Delta G = nRT 2.303 \log\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)$$

$$\Delta G = 2.303nRT \log\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)$$

At standard condition.

$$P_1 = 1 \text{ atm} \quad T = 298 \text{ K} \quad \text{then}$$

$$G - G^\circ = 2.303nRT \log P$$

$$G = G^\circ + 2.303nRT \log P$$

Here G° is the standard free energy.
The above equation is useful in deriving van't Hoff isotherm.

Variation of free energy with temperature [3 marks].

Gibbs free energy is defined by equation.

$$G = H - TS \rightarrow ①$$

from definition of enthalpy

$$H = U + PV \rightarrow ②$$

Substitute eqn. ② in eqn ①

$$G = U + PV - TS \rightarrow ③$$

complete differentiation of this equation gives.

$$dG = dU + pdV + Vdp - TdS - SdT \rightarrow ④$$

From definition of Entropy. $dS = \frac{q}{T} \Rightarrow q = TdS \rightarrow ⑤$

From 1 Law of Thermodynamics.

$$dU = q + w$$

$$q = dU - w \rightarrow ⑥$$

$$w = -pdV \rightarrow ⑦$$

From definition of enthalpy

$$\Delta S = \frac{q}{T} \Rightarrow T\Delta S = q \rightarrow ⑤$$

A/c to I Law of thermodynamics

$$dU = q + w$$

$$q = dU - w \rightarrow ⑥$$

we know that $w = -pdv \rightarrow ⑦$

$$q = dU - (-pdv)$$

$$q = dU + pdv \rightarrow ⑧$$

Substitute equation ⑥ & equation ⑤ in equation ④

$$dq = q + pdv - q - SdT$$

$$dq = pdv - SdT$$

At constant temp., $dT = 0$

$$dq = pdv$$

$$\boxed{\left(\frac{dq}{dp}\right)_T = v}$$

W.K.T $pv = nRT \Rightarrow v = \frac{nRT}{p}$

$$\frac{dq}{dp} = \frac{nRT}{P}$$

$$dq = \frac{nRT}{P} dp$$

$$\therefore \int_{G_1}^{G_2} dq = nRT \int_{P_1}^{P_2} \frac{dp}{P}$$

$$G_2 - G_1 = nRT \left[\ln P \right]_{P_1}^{P_2}$$

$$G_2 - G_1 = nRT \ln P_2 - \ln P_1$$

Substitute eqn. ⑦ in equation ⑥

$$q = dU + pdV \rightarrow ⑧$$

Substitute equation ⑧ & eqn. ⑤ in equation ④

$$dG = q + Vdp - q - SdT$$

$$dG = Vdp - SdT$$

At constant pressure, $dp=0$

$$\boxed{\left(\frac{dG}{dT}\right)_P = -S}$$

Relationship b/w free energy & work function:-

Free energy is defined as $G = H - TS$

where H =enthalpy & T =temperature

S = Entropy

G = free energy

Now Let us consider a system which undergoes a change in free energy of a state from ① to ② at constant temperature

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

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

W.K.T $\Delta H = \Delta U + P\Delta V \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$
substitute eqn. ② in eqn. ①
 $\Delta G = \Delta U + P\Delta V - T\Delta S \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$

But Helmholtz free energy is defined by equation $\Delta A = \Delta U - T\Delta S \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$

Therefore eqn. ③ becomes

$$\boxed{\Delta G = \Delta A + PV}$$

thus it is clear that decrease in free energy ($-\Delta G$) taking place at constant temperature & pressure is maximum work obtained from the system other than of expansion.

The value of ΔH & ΔS for a chemical reaction are $-94.47 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ & -188.9 J K^{-1} respectively. The change in free energy of the reaction at 300K. predict the spontaneity of the reaction.

Solution:-

Given data:

$$2 \quad \Delta H = -94.47 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta S = -188.9 \text{ J K}^{-1} = \frac{188.9 \text{ J}}{1000} @ 188.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kJ K}^{-1}$$

$$T = 300 \text{ K}$$

$$\Delta G = ?$$

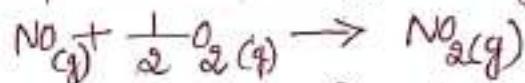
$$\text{we know that } \Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

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

$$\Delta G = -94.47 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} - 300 \text{ K} (-188.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kJ K}^{-1})$$

$$\Delta G = -37.79 \text{ kJ}$$

Since free energy change for the reaction is negative
at 300K. The standard free energy change of the reaction



standard free energies of formation NO(g) & $\text{NO}_2(\text{g})$ are 87 kJ & 52 kJ mol⁻¹.

Solution:-

$$\Delta_f G^\circ = \sum \Delta_f G^\circ (\text{products}) - \sum \Delta_f G^\circ (\text{Reactants})$$

$$\Delta_f G^\circ = \Delta_f G^\circ (\text{NO}_2) - [\Delta_f G^\circ (\text{NO}) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta_f G^\circ (\text{O}_2)]$$

$$\Delta_f G^\circ = 52 - [87 + \frac{1}{2} \times 0]$$

$$\Delta_f G^\circ = \underline{-35 \text{ kJ}}$$

How calculate the standard free energy change for the reaction
 $\text{CO} + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2(g) \rightarrow \text{CO}_2(g), \Delta H^\circ = -270 \text{ kJ}$
 Standard entropies of CO_2 , CO & O_2 are -205 , 190 & $200 \text{ J/degree/mole}$ respectively. Predict whether the reaction is feasible or not.

(spont)

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Solution:-

Given data

$$\Delta H^\circ = -270 \text{ kJ}$$

$$S^\circ(\text{CO}) = 205 \text{ J/degree/mole}$$

$$S^\circ(\text{CO}_2) = 190 \text{ J/degree/mole}$$

$$S^\circ(\text{O}_2) = 200 \text{ J/degree/mole}$$

$$\Delta G^\circ = ?$$

$$\Delta S^\circ = S^\circ_{\text{products}} - S^\circ_{\text{reactants}}$$

$$\Delta S^\circ = S^\circ(\text{CO}_2) - [S^\circ(\text{CO}) + \frac{1}{2}S^\circ(\text{O}_2)]$$

$$\Delta S^\circ = 190 - [190 + \frac{1}{2}200]$$

$$\Delta S^\circ = -85 \text{ J/degree/mole}$$

Apply the relation

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

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

$$\Delta H^\circ = -270 \times 1000 \text{ J} = -270000 \text{ J}$$

$$T = 26 + 273 = 298 \text{ K}$$

$$\Delta S^\circ = -85 \text{ J/degree/mol}$$

$$\Delta G^\circ = -270000 - 298(-85)$$

$$\Delta G^\circ = -244670 \text{ J}$$

$$\boxed{\Delta G^\circ = -244670 \text{ J}}$$

Since ΔG° is negative, hence the reaction is spontaneous.

~~Derivation~~

Derive Gibb's - Helmholtz equation:-

~~HM~~ we know that \textcircled{a} The Gibb's free energy defined by the equation $G = H - TS \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$

\textcircled{b} Enthalpy is defined by the equation

$$H = U + PV \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Substitute the value of H from $\textcircled{2}$ in eqn. $\textcircled{1}$:

$$G = U + PV - TS \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

complete differentiation of eqn. $\textcircled{3}$ is given by

$$dG = dU + PDV + VDP - TdS - SdT \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

From 1st Law of T.D.

$$dU = dq + w \rightarrow \textcircled{5}$$

$$\text{But } w = -PDV \rightarrow \textcircled{6}$$

Substitute eqn. $\textcircled{6}$ in eqn $\textcircled{5}$

$$dU = dq - PDV$$

$$\text{From } \textcircled{5} \quad dq = dU + PDV \rightarrow \textcircled{7}$$

from Entropy definition

$$ds = \frac{dq}{T}$$

$$\therefore dq = Tds \rightarrow \textcircled{8}$$

Compare eqn. $\textcircled{8}$ & eqn. $\textcircled{7}$

$$Tds = dU + PDV \rightarrow \textcircled{9}$$

Substitute values Tds from $\textcircled{9}$ in eqn $\textcircled{4}$

$$dG = dU + PDV + VDP - Tds - SdT$$

$$dG = VDP - SdT \rightarrow \textcircled{10}$$

At constant pressure

$$dG = -SdT \rightarrow \textcircled{11} \rightarrow$$

∴ therefore equation ① is also written as

$$\left(\frac{dG}{dT}\right)_P = -S \rightarrow ②$$

∴ therefore for the initial state of the system.

$$\left(\frac{dG_1}{dT}\right)_P = -S_1 \rightarrow ③$$

for the final state of the system

$$\left(\frac{dG_2}{dT}\right)_P = -S_2 \rightarrow ④$$

∴ change in Gibb's free energy at constant pressure.

$$\left(\frac{dG_2}{dT}\right)_P - \left(\frac{dG_1}{dT}\right)_P = -S_2 - S_1$$

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

$$\left(\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT}\right)_P = -\Delta S \rightarrow ⑤$$

Multiply negative sign on both sides.

$$\Delta S = \left[-\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P \rightarrow ⑥$$

$$w.k.t. \quad \Delta G = \Delta H - T \Delta S \rightarrow ⑦$$

Substitute value of ΔS from eqn ⑥ in eqn ⑦

$$\boxed{\Delta G = \Delta H + T \left(-\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right)_P}$$

The above equation is called Gibb's Helmholtz equation

i) The free energy change involved in a process is -300kJ and -1200J at 300K. calculate the change in enthalpy of the process at 306K.

Solution:-

$$\Delta G_1 = -1235 \text{ J at } T_1 = 300 \text{ K}$$

$$6 \quad \Delta G_2 = -1200 \text{ J at } T_2 = 310 \text{ K}$$

$$\Delta H = ?$$

using Gibbs-Helmholtz equation.

$$\Delta G = \Delta H + T \left(\frac{\partial(\Delta G)}{\partial T} \right)_P$$

$$\text{where } \left(\frac{\partial(\Delta G)}{\partial T} \right)_P = \frac{\Delta G_2 - \Delta G_1}{T_2 - T_1}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial(\Delta G)}{\partial T} \right)_P = \frac{-1200 - (-1235)}{310 - 300}$$

$$= \frac{35}{10}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial(\Delta G)}{\partial T} \right)_P = 3.5 \text{ J K}^{-1}$$

The free energy change at 306K can be taken as the average values of free energy at 300K & 310K

$$\therefore \Delta G(\text{at } 306 \text{ K}) = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{g_2 + g_1}{T_2 - T_1} \right] = \frac{g_2 + g_1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-1200 + (-1235)}{310 - 300} \right] = \frac{-1200 + (-1235)}{2}$$

$$= -1217.5 \text{ J}$$

$$\Delta G = \frac{-2435}{2}$$

$$\Delta G = -1217.5 \text{ J}$$

$$\Delta G = -1.217 \text{ kJ}$$

Gibbs-Helmholtz equation can be written as

$$\Delta H = \Delta G - T \left[\frac{\partial (\Delta G)}{\partial T} \right]_P$$

Substituting values

$$\Delta H = -0.1217 - 306 \times 3.5$$

$$\Delta H = 1071.18 \text{ KJ}$$

$$\Delta H = -1217.7 - 1306.8 [3.5 / 1000]$$

$$\Delta H = -1217.5 - 306 \times 3.5$$

$$\Delta H = -2288.5 \text{ J}$$

$$\Delta H = -2.288 \text{ KJ}$$

* Applications of Gibbs-Helmholtz equation:-

- * Gibbs-Helmholtz equation is useful in calculating ΔH when ΔG is known at two different temperatures.
- * Gibbs-Helmholtz equation is used in deriving Van't Hoff reaction isotherm.

* Dervive Van't Hoff reaction isotherm

Consider a general reversible reaction.

- Let us assume a reaction involving four gases A, B, C & D



In this reaction amounts of A & B are decreasing, C & D are increasing. Free energy of A & B are decreasing while these C & D are increasing.

Free energy of substance A per mole at T is given as follows

$$G_A = G_A^{\circ} + RT \ln P_A$$

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Where P_A is the pressure of A

G_A° is the free energy at standard condition

Similarly the free energy of B, C & D are as follows

$$G_B = G_B^{\circ} + RT \ln P_B$$

$$G_C = G_C^{\circ} + RT \ln P_C$$

$$G_D = G_D^{\circ} + RT \ln P_D$$

The free energies of the reaction

$$\Delta G = G_P - G_R$$

$$\Delta G = (G_C + G_D) - (G_A + G_B)$$

$$\Delta G = G_C^{\circ} + RT \ln P_C + G_D^{\circ} + RT \ln P_D - [G_A^{\circ} + RT \ln P_A + G_B^{\circ} + RT \ln P_B]$$

$$= G_C^{\circ} + RT \ln P_C + G_D^{\circ} + RT \ln P_D - G_A^{\circ} - RT \ln P_A - G_B^{\circ} - RT \ln P_B$$

$$= G_C^{\circ} + G_D^{\circ} - G_A^{\circ} - G_B^{\circ} + RT \ln P_C + RT \ln P_D - RT \ln P_A - RT \ln P_B$$

$$= \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln P_C + RT \ln P_D - RT \ln P_A - RT \ln P_B$$

$$= \Delta G^{\circ} + RT [\ln P_C + \ln P_D - (\ln P_A + \ln P_B)]$$

$$= \Delta G^{\circ} + RT [\ln P_C + \ln P_D - (\ln P_A + \ln P_B)]$$

$$= \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln \left[\frac{P_C \cdot P_D}{P_A \cdot P_B} \right]$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln \left[\frac{P_C \cdot P_D}{P_A \cdot P_B} \right] = \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln \left(\frac{P_C}{P_A} \cdot \frac{P_D}{P_B} \right)$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln \left[\frac{P_C \cdot P_D}{P_A \cdot P_B} \right] \rightarrow ① \Rightarrow \Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln \left[\left(\frac{P_C}{P_A} \right)^a \cdot \left(\frac{P_D}{P_B} \right)^b \right]$$

If the system is at equilibrium

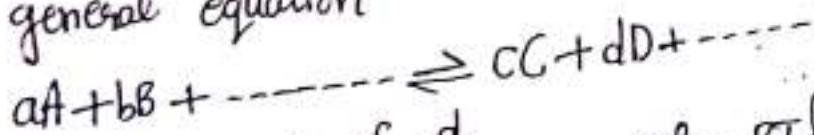
$$\Delta G = 0$$

$$0 = \Delta G^{\circ} + RT \ln \frac{P_C \times P_D}{P_A \times P_B}$$

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$$\Delta G^{\circ} = -RT \ln \frac{P_C \times P_D}{P_A \times P_B}$$

For general equation



$$\Delta G_1^{\circ} = -RT \ln \frac{P_C^c \cdot P_D^d}{P_A^a \cdot P_B^b} \Rightarrow \Delta G_1^{\circ} = -RT \ln K_p$$

$$\Delta G_1^{\circ} = -2.303 RT \log \left[\frac{P_C^c \cdot P_D^d}{P_A^a \cdot P_B^b} \right]$$

$$\boxed{\Delta G_1^{\circ} = -2.303 RT \log K_p}$$

$$\text{where } K_p = \frac{P_C^c \cdot P_D^d}{P_A^a \cdot P_B^b}$$

The above equation is called Van't Hoff reaction Isotherm.

* This is useful in calculating ΔG_1° for reaction.

- At 2000K, the standard state free energy change (ΔG°) for the reaction $N_2 + O_2 \rightleftharpoons 2NO$ is given by
 $\Delta G_1^{\circ} = q_{2000K} - 10.46 T J$. Calculate K_p for the reaction at 2000K ($R = 8.314 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$)

Solution:- W.K.T $\Delta G_1^{\circ} = -RT \ln K_p$

$$\Delta G_1^{\circ} = -2.303 RT \log K_p$$

$$\log K_p = \frac{\Delta G_1^{\circ}}{2.303 \times R \times T}$$

$$\log K_p = - \left[\frac{920118 - 10.416 \times 2000 \text{ J mol}^{-1}}{(2.303)(8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}) (2000 \text{ K})} \right]$$

$$= - \left[\frac{12,407,600}{18,622,800} \right]$$

$$\log K_p = -12,407,600$$

$$K_p = \textcircled{2} \quad \Delta_f^{\circ} H = -RT \ln K_p$$

$$\Delta_f^{\circ} G = -2.303 RT \log K_p$$

$$(920118 - 10.416 \times 2000) = -[2.303 \times 8.314 \times 2000 \log K_p]$$

$$(920118 - 20,820) = -38,294.284 \log K_p$$

$$71,128 = -38,294.284 \log K_p$$

$$\log K_p = \frac{-71,128}{38,294.284}$$

$$\log K_p = -1.8574$$

$$K_p = \text{antilog}(-1.8574) = 0.01389$$

$$K_p = 1.39 \times 10^{-2} \text{ atm}$$

2) The value of K_p for the water gas reaction
 $\text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2$, is 1.06×10^5 at 25°C calculate
 the standard state free energy change $\Delta_f^{\circ} G$ of the reaction
 at 25°C [$R = 8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$]

Solution:-

$$K_p = 1.06 \times 10^5$$

$$T = 25 + 273 = 298 \text{ K}$$

$$\Delta_f^{\circ} G = ?$$

$$\Delta_f^{\circ} G = -RT \ln K_p$$

$$\Delta_f^{\circ} G = -2.303 RT \log K_p$$

$$\Delta_f^{\circ} G = -2.303 \times 8.314 \times 298 \log(1.06 \times 10^5)$$

$$\Delta_f^{\circ} G = -28,673.633$$

e Van't Hoff reaction isochore

11 Marks

From Gibbs Helmholtz equation

$$\Delta G = \Delta H + T \left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P \rightarrow ①$$

"

$$\Delta H = \Delta G - T \left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P \rightarrow ②$$

equation ② is divided by T^2 on both sides

$$\frac{\Delta H}{T^2} = \frac{\Delta G}{T^2} = T \left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P$$

$$\frac{\Delta H}{T^2} = \frac{\Delta G - T \left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P}{T^2} \rightarrow ③$$

$$\frac{\Delta H}{T^2} = \frac{\Delta G}{T^2} - \left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P$$

w.k.t

$$\left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P = \frac{T \cdot \frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} - \Delta G}{T^2} \quad (1)$$

$$\left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P = \frac{T \frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} - \Delta G}{T^2} \rightarrow ④$$

Multiply negative sign on both sides of
equation ④

$$-\left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P = \frac{\Delta G - T \frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT}}{T^2} \rightarrow ⑤$$

Comparing equation ③ & ⑤

$$\frac{\Delta H}{T^2} = -\left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P \rightarrow ⑥$$

$$\frac{d\left(\frac{\Delta G}{T}\right)}{dT} = \frac{\Delta H}{T^2}$$

equation (6) is multiplied with negative sign

$$\frac{d\left(\frac{\Delta G}{T}\right)}{dT} = -\frac{\Delta H}{T^2}$$

At standard condition

$$\frac{d\left(\frac{\Delta G^\circ}{T}\right)}{dT} = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{T^2} \rightarrow (7)$$

$$R \cdot K_T \cdot \Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K_P \quad [\text{van't Hoff reaction relation}]$$

Substitute the value of ΔG° from eq(6)

$$\frac{d\left(-\frac{RT \ln K_P}{T}\right)}{dT} = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{T^2}$$

$$\frac{d(-R \ln K_P)}{dT} = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{T^2}$$

$$\frac{d(-R \ln K_P)}{dT} = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{T^2}$$

$$d(R \ln K_P) = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{T^2} dT$$

Integrate on both side

$$\int_{K_1}^{K_2} d(R \ln K_P) = \Delta H^\circ \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \frac{1}{T^2} dT$$

$$R \left[\ln K_p \right]_{K_1}^{K_2} = \Delta H^\circ \left[-\frac{1}{T} \right]_{T_1}^{T_2}$$

$$\left[\ln K_p \right]_{K_1}^{K_2} = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{R} \left[-\frac{1}{T^2} + \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right] \right]$$

13) $\ln [K_2 - K_1] = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{R} \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right]$

$$\ln \left[\frac{K_2}{K_1} \right] = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]$$

$$\boxed{\log \left[\frac{K_2}{K_1} \right] = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{2.303 R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]}$$

This is known as Vant Hoff reaction isochore.

- i) The equilibrium constant K_p , for the reaction $H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons H_2S(g)$ is 9.21 atm at $945^\circ C$ & 9.21 atm $1065^\circ C$ calculate the heat of reaction.

Solution:-
 $K_2 = 9.21 \text{ atm}$ at $T_1 = 945 + 273 = 1218 \text{ K}$
 $K_1 = 9.21 \text{ atm}$ at $T_2 = 1065 + 273 = 1338 \text{ K}$

$$\Delta H = ?$$

we know that,

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

$$\log \left[\frac{9.21}{9.21} \right] = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303 \times 8.314} \left[\frac{1338 - 1218}{1338 \times 1218} \right]$$

$$\log (0.4559) = \frac{\Delta H}{19.147} \left[7.3633 \times 10^{-5} \right]$$

$$-0.34113 = \frac{\Delta H}{19.147} \times 7.3633 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\Delta H = \frac{-0.3H13}{7.3633 \times 10^{-5}} \times 19.1H7$$

$$\Delta H = -88705.117J$$

$$\boxed{\Delta H = -88.705 \text{ kJ}}$$

2) The equilibrium constant K_p for the reaction

$N_2 + 3H_2 \rightleftharpoons 2NH_3$ is $1.6H \times 10^4 \text{ atm}$ at 100°C what will be the equilibrium constant at 500°C if the heat of reaction in this temperature range is -105185.8 J ?

Solution:-

$$K_1 = 1.6H \times 10^4 \text{ atm} \text{ at } T_1 = 100^\circ\text{C} + 273 = 673 \text{ K}$$

$$14 \quad K_2 = ? \text{ at } T_2 = 500 + 273 = 773 \text{ K}$$

$$\Delta H = -105185.8 \text{ J}$$

$$\text{w.k.t} \quad \log\left(\frac{K_2}{K_1}\right) = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]$$

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

$$\log K_2 = \log K_1 + \frac{\Delta H}{2.303R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]$$

$$\log K_2 = \log(1.6H \times 10^4) + \left[\frac{-105185}{2.303 \times 8.314} \right] \left[\frac{773 - 673}{773 \times 673} \right]$$

$$\log K_2 = (-3.7851) - (5.493509) \cdot (1.9222 \times 10^{-4})$$

$$\log K_2 = -3.7851 - 1.0559$$

$$\log K_2 = -4.84107$$

$$K_2 = \text{antilog}(-4.84107) = 1.441 \times 10^{-5} \text{ atm}$$

$$K_2 = 0.1441 \times 10^{-4} \text{ atm}$$

Clausius-Clapeyron Equation

H Marks

Consider a liquid in equilibrium with its vapour at temp. T & pressure p .

Consider a system in which liquid & its vapour are in equilibrium at temp. T & pressure p .



is

Let the temp. of the system is changed from T to $T + dT$ and pressure from p to $p + dp$ at equilibrium. dT & dp are infinitesimal changes in temp. & pressure respectively.

$$\text{we know that } dG = Vdp - SdT \rightarrow ①$$

$$\text{For evaporation of liquid, } dG_1 = V_1 dp - S_1 dT \rightarrow ②$$

$$\text{For condensation of gases } dG_2 = V_2 dp - S_2 dT \rightarrow ③$$

When liquid & vapours are in equilibrium

$$dG_{(l)} = dG_{(v)}$$

From equation ① & ②

$$V_1 dp - S_1 dT = V_2 dp - S_2 dT$$

$$(V_1 - V_2) dp = (S_1 - S_2) dT$$

$$\frac{dp}{dT} = \frac{S_1 - S_2}{V_1 - V_2}$$

$$④ \frac{dp}{dT} = \frac{\Delta S_{(\text{vap})}}{\Delta V_{(\text{vap})}} \rightarrow ④$$

where ΔS - change in Entropy
 ΔV - change in volume

But At equilibrium $dG = 0$

$$\therefore \Delta G_{(\text{vap})} = \Delta H_{(\text{vap})} - T \Delta S_{(\text{vap})}$$

$$0 = \Delta H_{(vap)} - T \Delta S_{(vap)}$$

$$\Delta H_{(vap)} = T \Delta S_{(vap)}$$

$$\Delta S_{(vap)} = \frac{\Delta H_{(vap)}}{T} \rightarrow ⑤$$

Substituting the value of $\Delta S_{(vap)}$ in ④

$$\frac{dp}{dT} = \frac{\Delta H_{(vap)}}{-T \cdot \Delta V} \rightarrow ⑥$$

Equation ⑥ is called Clapeyron equation.

Clapeyron equation ⑥ can be apply to vapourisation & sublimation equilibrium in which one of the two phases is gaseous.

$$\Delta V_{(vap)} = V_{(g)} - V_{(l)} \rightarrow ⑦$$

We know that, the volume of the liquid is very small compared to volume of the gas. hence $V_{(l)}$ can be neglected in comparison to $V_{(g)}$

∴ eqn. ⑦ becomes

$$\Delta V_{(vap)} = V_{(g)} \rightarrow ⑧$$

$$\text{But } PV = RT \Rightarrow V = \frac{RT}{P}$$

$$\Delta V_{(vap)} = V_g = \frac{RT}{P} \rightarrow ⑨$$

Substitute equation ⑨ in equation ⑥

$$\frac{dp}{dT} = \frac{\Delta H_{(vap)}}{T \cdot \frac{RT}{P}}$$

$$\frac{dp}{dT} = \frac{\Delta H \cdot P}{R T^2} \rightarrow ⑩$$

Simplifying eqn. ⑩

$$\frac{dp}{P} = \frac{\Delta H}{R} \frac{dT}{T^2} \rightarrow ⑪$$

Integrating equation (11) b/w limits P_1 & P_2 and T_1 & T_2

$$\int_{P_1}^{P_2} \frac{dp}{P} = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \frac{dt}{T^2}$$

$$[\ln P]_{P_1}^{P_2} = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left[-\frac{1}{T} \right]_{T_1}^{T_2}$$

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$$\ln P_2 - \ln P_1 = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left[-\frac{1}{T_2} - \left(-\frac{1}{T_1} \right) \right]$$

$$\ln \left[\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right] = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right]$$

$$2.303 \log \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right) = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]$$

$$\boxed{\log \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right) = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{2.303 R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]} \rightarrow 12$$

The equation (12) is called clausius-clapeyron equation.

- 1) The normal boiling point of water is 100°C . If vapour pressure at 80°C is 0.4672 atm . calculate the Enthalpy of vaporisation per mole of water

$$T_1 = 100^\circ\text{C} = 100 + 273 = 373 \text{ K}$$

$$P_1 = 1 \text{ atm}$$

$$T_2 = 80^\circ\text{C} = 80 + 273 = 353 \text{ K}$$

$$P_2 = 0.4672 \text{ atm}$$

$$\Delta H_{\text{vap}} = ?$$

We know that

$$\log\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right) = \frac{\Delta H_V}{2.303R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 \times T_2} \right]$$

$$\log\left(\frac{0.1672}{1}\right) = \frac{\Delta H_V}{2.303 \times 8.314} \left[\frac{353 - 373}{353 \times 373} \right]$$

$$-0.3305 = \frac{\Delta H_V}{2.303 \times 8.314} \left[\frac{-20}{353 \times 373} \right]$$

$$-0.3305 = \frac{\Delta H_V}{19.1117} \left[-1.5189 \times 10^{-11} \right]$$

∴

$$\Delta H_V = \frac{0.3305 \times 19.1117}{1.5189 \times 10^{-11}}$$

$$\Delta H_V = 311.662 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta H_V = 311.662 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- 2) Water boils at 373K at one atmospheric pressure. At what temperature will it boil when atmospheric pressure becomes 528 mm of Hg at some space station.

Latent heat of $H_2O = 2.48 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$, $R = 8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$

Solution:-

$$T_1 = 373 \text{ K}$$

$$P_1 = 1 \text{ atm} = 760 \text{ mm} \Rightarrow 1 \text{ millimetre of}$$

$$P_2 = 528 \text{ mm}$$

Mercury is
a manometric
unit of
pressure.

$$T_2 = ?$$

$$\Delta H_V = 2.48 \text{ kJ g}^{-1}$$

$$= 2.48 \times 18 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$= 44.64 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$= 44.64 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$R = 8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

We know - that

$$\log\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right) = \frac{\Delta H_v}{2303R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]$$

$$\log\left(\frac{521}{760}\right) = \frac{H_{1\text{CH}_2}}{2303 \times 8.314} \left[\frac{T_2 - 373}{373 T_2} \right]$$

$$-0.1582 = 2143.4 \times \left[\frac{T_2 - 373}{373 T_2} \right]$$

$$-50.0 T_2 = 2143.4 T_2 - 799488.2$$

$$2202.4 T_2 = 799488.2$$

$$T_2 = 363\text{K}$$

- 3) Water boils at 100°C at a pressure of 1 atm. Calculate the vapour pressure of water at 90°C . The heat of vaporisation of water is 9.80 kcal/mol

$$T_1 = 100 + 273 = 373\text{K}$$

$$P_1 = 1 \text{ atm}$$

$$T_2 = 90 + 273 = 363\text{K}$$

$$P_2 = ?$$

$$\Delta H_v = 9.80 \text{ kcal/mol}$$

$$= 9.80 \times 1000 \text{ Cal/mol}$$

$$\Delta H_v = 9800 \text{ Cal/mol}$$

$$R = 1.987 \text{ cal deg}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\text{W.K.T} \quad \log\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right) = \frac{\Delta H_v}{2303R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right]$$

$$\log\left(\frac{P_2}{1}\right) = \frac{9800}{2303 \times 1.987} \left[\frac{363 - 373}{373 \times 363} \right]$$

$$\log P_2 - \log(1) = -2141.57 \times 7.385 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\log P_2 = -0.15816$$

$$P_2 = \text{antilog}(-0.15816) \Rightarrow P_2 = 0.698 \text{ atm}$$

$$R = 8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

$$R = 1.987 \text{ cal deg}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

Nernst Heat Theorem:-

This theorem Explain the variation of enthalpy & free energy change of a system with decrease of temperature.

A/C to Gibbs-Helmholtz equation.

$$\Delta G = \Delta H + T \left(\frac{\partial \Delta G}{\partial T} \right)_P \rightarrow 0$$

From this equation, it is evident that at the absolute zero i.e. when $T=0$, $\Delta G = \Delta H$.

Thus ΔG & ΔH approach each other as temp approaches zero.

Statement of Nernst's heat theorem:-

Nernst heat theorem states that "At 273.10 kelvin, ΔG & ΔH not only become equal but also approaches each other gradually at temperature close to absolute zero."

This theorem is mathematically expressed as.

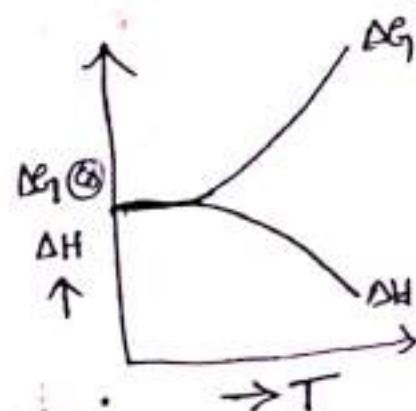
$$\lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} = \lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \frac{d(\Delta H)}{dT} = 0 \rightarrow 0$$

This means that Nernst observed that as the temp. is lowered towards absolute zero, the value of $\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT}$ decreases and then approaches zero asymptotically.

Graphically represented by

$$\text{Further } \left[\frac{d(\Delta G)}{dT} \right]_P = -\Delta S \rightarrow ②$$

$$\left(\frac{d(\Delta H)}{dT} \right)_P = \Delta C_P \rightarrow ③$$



from equations ①, ② & ③, as $T \rightarrow 0$

$$\Delta S = 0 \text{ & } \Delta G_p = 0$$

i.e. as the temper is lowered towards absolute zero, the entropy change of the reaction & difference in the heat capacities of products & reactants also tends to be zero.

- ⇒ Nernst heat theorem is applicable only to pure crystalline solids as no gas exists at absolute zero
- and is not applicable to liquids.

Third law of thermodynamics

Third law of thermodynamics states that "the entropy of all perfectly crystalline solids is zero at the absolute zero temperature."

Residual entropy :- [Residual entropy conclude that entropies of substance are not zero at 0K]

Absolute entropy of substance can be calculated from (i) III law of thermodynamics & (ii) statistical methods.

* The entropy possessed by a substance even at absolute zero is known as residual entropy

$$S = k \ln W$$

S = statistical entropy
W = Number of possible arrangement of atoms, molecules & ions in a crystal
[thermodynamic probability]

k = Boltzmann constant.

In many cases the above two method give same values of entropy.

In few cases like H_2 , CO , NO etc absolute values of entropy calculated from statistical method gives higher value.

The difference b/w entropy calculated from statistical method & using III law of T.D is called residual entropy.

Residual entropy in hydrogen is due to ~~existence~~
of ortho & para hydrogen.

In CO & NO, in the solid state, the arrangement can be like CO & OC, NO & ON due to these different possibilities residual entropy is observed.

Residual entropy of CO:

A sample of CO contains N molecules. Each molecule of CO can have two orientations.

CO ↔ OC
Let there be N molecules in one mole of the substance.
Therefore N molecules can have 2^N orientations
i.e. $w = 2^N$

The residual entropy can be calculated as $S = k \ln w$

$$S = k \ln w$$

$$S = 2.303 k \log w$$

$$S = 2.303 k \log(2)^N$$

$$S = 2.303 (k \cdot N) \log(2)$$

$$S = 2.303 R \log 2$$

$$S = 2.303 \times 8.314 \times \log(2)$$

$$S = 2.303 \times 8.314 \times 0.693$$

$$S = 5.762 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

$$S = k \ln 2^N$$

$$S = k \cdot N \ln(2)$$

$$S = R \ln(2)$$

$$S = 8.314 \ln(2)$$

$$S = 8.314 \times 0.693$$

$$S = 5.762 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

$$R = k \cdot N$$

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

chemical potential @ partial molar free energy

* The most important partial molar property in physical chemistry is the partial molar free energy, designated as chemical potential & represented as.

$$\left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_i} \right)_{T, P, n_1, \dots, n_j} = \bar{e}_i = \mu_i$$

* Magnitude of an extensive property like G, H, E etc depends on temperature pressure & also on the number of moles of different components in case of an open system.

If n_1 & n_2 are the number of moles of two components in an open system.

$$G = f(P, T, n_1, n_2, \dots)$$

dG corresponds to a small change in all variables of the system is given by

$$dG = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_1, n_2} dT + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_1, n_2} dP + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_1} \right)_{T, P, n_2} dn_1 + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_2} \right)_{T, P, n_1} dn_2 + \dots$$

At constant pressure & temperature

$$dG = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_1} \right)_{T, P, n_2} dn_1 + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_2} \right)_{T, P, n_1} dn_2$$

$$dG = \mu_1 dn_1 + \mu_2 dn_2$$

$$\text{where } \mu_1 = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_1} \right)_{P, T, n_2}$$

$$\mu_2 = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_2} \right)_{P, T, n_1}$$

μ_1 & μ_2 are called partial molar free energy or chemical potential.

Adsorption.

- * Adsorption is a surface phenomenon.
- * The solid surface is able to attract the molecules of gas or liquid & accumulates them on its surface. This adsorption is defined as:
 - * The process of adhering (accumulation) of the molecules of gas or liquid on the surface of solid is known as adsorption.
- * Examples:
 - i) A small amount of finely powdered charcoal is added to the solution of blue ink. Intensity of blue colour decreases. Molecules of dye (ink) holds on the surface of activated charcoal, hence colour decreases.
 - ii) A small quantity of finely powdered nickel is added to hydrogen gas in a vessel. The pressure of H_2 gas decreases. i.e. the gas molecules are held on the solid surface. Hence pressure of gas decreases.
 - iii) A small quantity of silica gel is placed in humid chamber, water molecules are held on silica gel & there is a decrease in concentration of H_2O .

Adsorbent:- The solid which absorbs the molecules of gas or liquid, here the solid is called adsorbent.

Adsorbate:- The substance (gas or liquid) which absorbs on the solid. The substance is called adsorbate.

Absorption:- Absorption is the penetration of gas @ liquid molecules into the interior of the solid, the molecules are spread throughout the solid & its concentration is uniform.

Ex:- * sponge soaked in water
* absorption hydrogen chloride in water.

Difference b/w adsorption & absorption

Adsorption

- * Accumulation of the molecules of gas @ liquid on the surface of solid
- * Concentration of adsorbed molecules is high on surface
- * Magnitude of adsorption depends on T, P & concn. & surface area
- * Heat is released

Absorption

- * Molecules penetrate into interior of solid
- * Adsorbed molecules uniformly distributed through out the solid by capillary forces.
- * Magnitude does not depend on T, P & concn.
- * Heat may be released @ absorbed.

Mechanism of adsorption:-

- * Mechanism of adsorption can be explained as,
In terms of chemical bonding. The atoms of solid in the interior part are different from atoms of the same solid on its surface.
- * In the interior part each atom is bounded to other atom and all the valencies are satisfied. But on the surface of solid the situation is different that is at the surface atoms are not bounded to any

other atoms. and this leads to unsatisfied valence due to this reason the surface of solid can hold the atoms of gases & liquids.

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Types of adsorption:- * There are two types of adsorp-

Types of adsorptions are classified on the basis of force by which the molecules of adsorbate are held to the surface of adsorbent.

1) physisorption or physical adsorption

* physisorption @ physical adsorption occurs when the molecules of a gas are held on the surface of a solid by weak van der waals force.

* physical adsorption depends on the surface area of solid & nature of gas. nature of gas means readily adsorbed & it is reversible. Increase in pressure increases physical adsorption.

* The adsorbed molecules can be desorbed by decreasing pressure. physical adsorption is favored at low temp.

* the adsorbed molecule of gas can be desorbed by increasing temp.

* The enthalpy (heat liberated) in physical adsorption is low & it is of the order of $\Delta H = -20 \text{ kJ}$ to $\Delta H = -40 \text{ kJ}$.

* the adsorption is multilayer.

2) Chemisorption or chemical adsorption:-

* chemical adsorption takes place through chemical bond formed b/w adsorbate molecules & the surface of adsorbent.

* chemical adsorption takes place at higher temp.

* chemical adsorption results in breaking of bonds & formation of new bonds.

The enthalpies of chemisorption are high [$\Delta H = -200$ to -100 kJ]

* The adsorbed molecules are tightly held. It is difficult to desorb them by raising temp.

* In this adsorption single layer adsorption takes place.

Difference b/w physisorption & chemisorption. [3 marks question]

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Physisorption
① physical adsorption

Chemisorption ② chemical adsorption

- 1) Physical adsorption is a very fast process
- 2) Adsorbate molecules are held to surface by weak van der waals forces.
- 3) Adsorption is multilayer
- 4) Enthalpy of adsorption is low [$\Delta H = -20$ to -10 kJ]
- 5) Reversible
[adsorbate molecules are removed]
- 6) Depends on nature of gas,
Easily liquifiable gases are readily adsorbed

Chemical adsorption is a slow process.

Adsorbate molecules are held to surface by strong chemical bonds.

Adsorption is single layer.

4) Enthalpy of adsorption is high [$\Delta H = -200$ to -100 kJ]

5) Not reversible
[adsorbate molecules are not removed]

6) Much more specific than physical adsorption.

Factors influencing adsorption: - Solids (adsorbent) have a tendency to adsorb gases due to unshared valencies on their surface. The imp factors that influence adsorption of gases on solid are the following.

\rightarrow 1) Surface area of adsorbent:-

The capacity of adsorption of a solid depends on the state of subdivision of the solid. A more finely divided solid has a large surface area, hence finely divided solids can adsorb more quantities of substance and also solids with pores can have large surface & they are also good adsorbents.

\rightarrow 2) Nature of adsorbate & adsorbent:-

Physical adsorption is general phenomenon & does not depend on nature of adsorbate & adsorbent. But chemical adsorption is specific & it depends on nature of both adsorbent & adsorbate.

for eg:- Ni, pt, Fe adsorbs only H_2 but not g
silicagel adsorbs only moisture.
tungsten adsorbs only oxygen(g)

3) Temperature:-

Physical adsorption occurs rapidly at low temp & decreases with increasing temp.

Both physical adsorption & chemical adsorption are takes place with the liberation of heat \Rightarrow exothermic process. This shows that with increase in T , adsorption decreases.

4) Pressure:- For both physical adsorption & chemical adsorption the amount of gas adsorbed at a given temp increases initially with increase in pressure & becomes const at high pressure.

Adsorption Isotherm:-

An adsorption isotherm is graphical representation or mathematical expression which relates the amount of gas adsorbed by the solid (adsorbent) and the equilibrium pressure at constant temperature.

There are 2 types of isotherms

i) Freundlich Isotherm * Freundlich isotherm is empirical.

If 'x' is the mass of the gas adsorbed on a mass 'm' of the solid (adsorbent) at a pressure 'p' of the adsorbate (gas) at constant temperature.

[@] Freundlich isotherm gives the relationship b/w mass of gas (x), mass of solid (m) and pressure "p" of the gas (adsorbate) at constant temperature].

This isotherm is mathematically represented as

$$\frac{x}{m} = k \cdot p^n \rightarrow ①$$

where x - mass of gas (adsorbate)

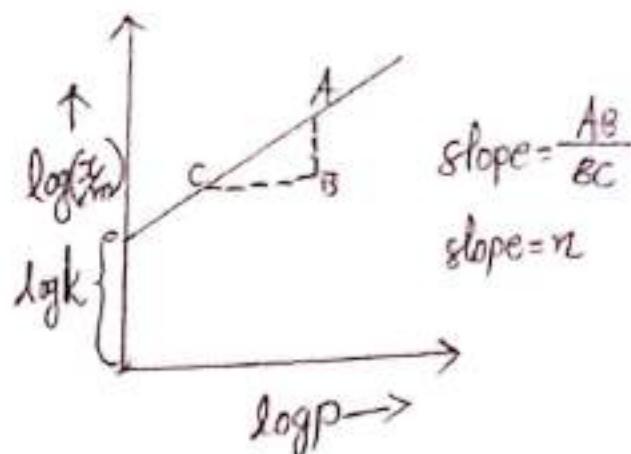
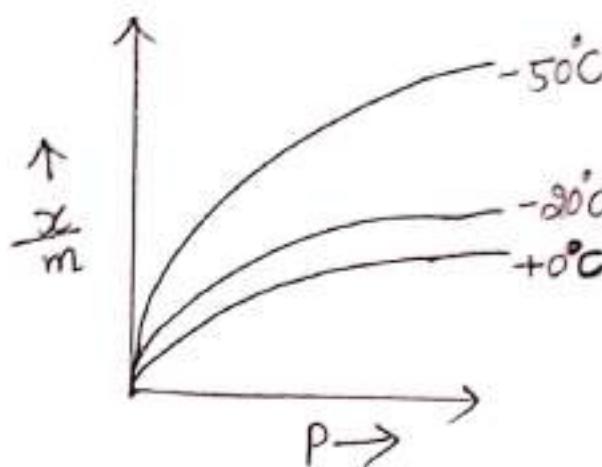
m - mass of solid (adsorbent)

p - pressure of gas

k & n are constant, depends on nature of adsorbent & adsorbate and the temperature.

on taking log on both side of equation ① we get

$$\log\left(\frac{x}{m}\right) = \log k + n \log p \rightarrow ②$$



Equation ② is of the form $y = mx + c$, gives a straight line, if the values of $\log \frac{x}{m}$ vs $\log p$. a straight line is obtained. The slope of this line gives the value of 'n', the intercept of the line is equal to $\log k$. From this we come to know that the values of constants n & k can be evaluated.

2) Langmuir adsorption isotherm
 Following are the postulates of Langmuir's adsorption isotherm.

- 1) only one molecule of a gas (adsorbate) can adsorb at each site of solid (adsorbent)
- 2) There is no interaction b/w the adjacent adsorbed molecules.
- 3) The adsorbed gas molecules continuously evaporate from the surface of solid & pass into gas phase after sometime an equilibrium is established b/w condensing & evaporating gas molecules. The equilibrium is dynamic in nature. [Rate of adsorption is equal to rate of desorption]

Deduce Langmuir adsorption isotherm

Derivation

If ' θ ' is the fraction of the surface covered by the molecules, the $(1-\theta)$ is the fraction of the surface not covered by molecules.

Rate of adsorption depends on

i) pressure of the gas - P

ii) surface uncovered [number of sites not covered by molecules $\rightarrow 1-\theta$].

\therefore Rate of adsorption $\propto P(1-\theta)$

$$\text{Rate of adsorption} = K_a P(1-\theta) \rightarrow ①$$

where $K_a \rightarrow$ rate constant for adsorption process

\therefore Rate of desorption $\propto \theta$

$$\text{Rate of desorption} = K_d \theta$$

where $K_d \rightarrow$ rate constant for desorption process.

At equilibrium

Rate of adsorption = Rate of desorption

$$K_a P(1-\theta) = K_d \theta$$

$$K_a P - K_d P \theta = K_d \theta$$

$$K_a P = K_d \theta + K_d P \theta$$

$$K_a P = [K_d + K_d P] \theta$$

$$\theta = \frac{K_a P}{K_d + K_a P} \rightarrow ③$$

\div equil. ③ by K_d only on right side

$$\theta = \frac{\left(\frac{K_a}{K_d}\right) P}{\left(\frac{K_d}{K_d}\right) + \left(\frac{K_a}{K_d}\right) P}$$

$$\Theta = \frac{bp}{1+bp}$$

where $\frac{K_a}{K_d}$ is equal to 'b' and
'b' is called adsorption co-efficient.

This equation is called Langmuir Isotherm.

case-1: At low pressure: $bp \ll 1$ hence bp in denominator is neglected in equation (H)

$$\Theta = bp$$

means, fraction of total sites (Θ) covered is directly proportional to pressure of the gas & follows first order kinetic.

case-2: At high pressure.

$$bp \gg 1$$

∴ In denominator, $1 + bp \approx bp$

$$\Theta = \frac{bp}{bp} = 1$$

$$\Theta = P^0$$

This follows zero order kinetics.

BET Multilayer theory :- [AM]

[Brunauer, Emmet & Teller]

BET theory assuming multilayer adsorption they derived the equation

$$\frac{P}{V(P_0 - P)} = \frac{1}{V_m C} + \frac{C-1}{V_m C} \left(\frac{P}{P_0} \right)$$

where V - volume of the adsorbed gas at pressure 'P'

V_m - volume of the gas when surface is completely covered.

b - Standard pressure

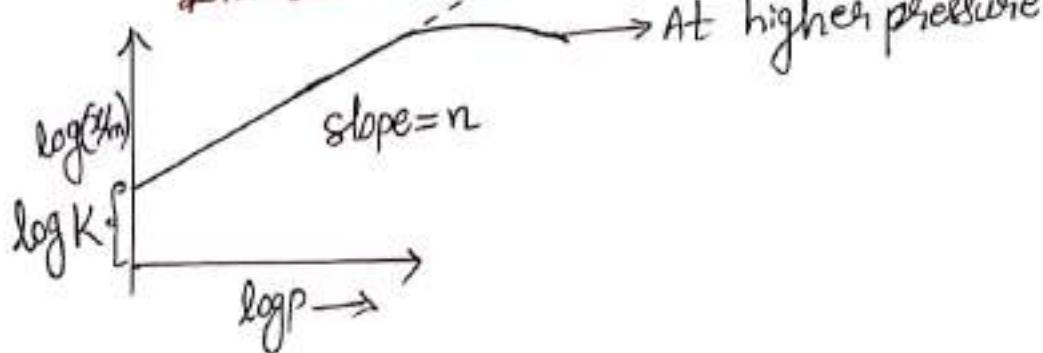
c - constant depends on nature of gas

P - pressure

Industrial applications of adsorption

- 1) Animal charcoal is used in sugar industry to adsorb colouring matter from cane sugar solution.
- 2) Silicagel (SiO_2) can be used as an adsorbent to remove moisture.
- 3) Activated charcoal is used in purification of air which is used in gas mask to adsorb toxic gases.
- 4) In softening hard water, zeolite adsorbs Ca^{2+} & Mg^{2+} ions present in hard water.
- 5) In Dewar flasks activated charcoal is placed b/w the walls of the flask, to adsorb the gas b/w annular space & preserves vacuum.
- 6) The solid catalysts adsorbs the gaseous reactants on its surface and increases concn of reactants on the surface of the catalyst & increases rate of reaction.

Limitation of Freundlich adsorption isotherm.



It is clear from the above figure that at higher pressure, $\log(\frac{x}{x_m})$ is not linearly dependent on $\log p$. as there is a slight deviation from linearity. Therefore Freundlich adsorption is not applicable at high pressure. This is the limitation of Freundlich's adsorption isotherm.

①

Date _____
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Using thermodynamic parameters explain why adsorption process is spontaneous.

Ans:- Adsorption is always an exothermic process i.e., heat of adsorption (ΔH) will have negative sign. Also adsorption is accompanied by decrease in entropy of the system (ΔS is negative). Since ΔS & ΔH are both negative, it means negative value of ΔH must be very high, in order to make ΔG_f negative according to $\Delta G_f = \Delta H - T\Delta S$, for adsorption process to spontaneous, ΔG_f (free energy change) must be negative.

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2)

Using the signs of ΔH & ΔS , predict the spontaneity of a process.

Ans: we have $\Delta G_f = \Delta H - T\Delta S \rightarrow ①$

For a reaction to be spontaneous, ΔG_f should be negative i.e., $\Delta G_f = \Delta H - T\Delta S < 0 \rightarrow ②$

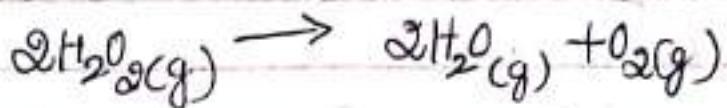
This means that $\Delta H < 0$ & $\Delta S > 0$ will favour a change in reaction.

According to equation ① ② ③, the sign of ΔG_f depends on sign & magnitude of ΔH &

(2)

ΔS . Let us consider different cases.

- 1) when $\Delta H < 0$ & $\Delta S > 0$: Reactions with these change can be carried out any temp^r since ΔG will be negative.
e.g:-

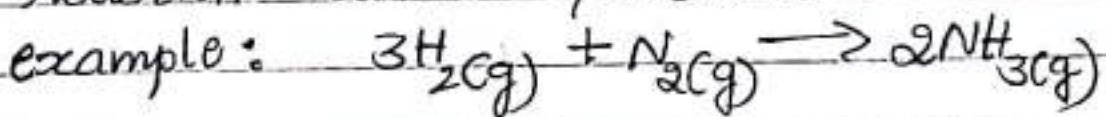


$$\text{At } 298\text{K, } \Delta H = -211.29 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$T\Delta S = 39.33 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\& \Delta G = -250.62 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- 2) when $\Delta H < 0$ & $\Delta S < 0$: when $\Delta S < 0$, $-T\Delta S > 0$.
 \therefore Reaction will be spontaneous only when $|T\Delta S| < |\Delta H|$ because in this case ΔG will be negative. \therefore Reaction must be strongly exothermic. However at very high temperature $-T\Delta S$ will be greater than ΔH & (therefore $\Delta G > 0$) therefore reaction cannot proceed.



$$\text{At } 298\text{K } \Delta H = -92.22 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$-T\Delta S = -59.23 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta G = -32.99 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

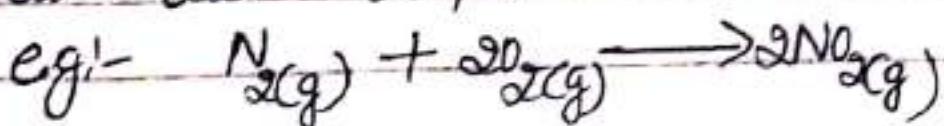
(3)

- 3) when $\Delta H > 0$ & $\Delta S > 0$: In this case, reaction will proceed only if $T\Delta S > \Delta H$
 i.e. temp_r of the reaction should be high enough such that $T\Delta S$ exceeds ΔH . However the reaction will not proceed at lower temp_r when $T\Delta S < \Delta H$
- e.g. $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{NH}_2(\text{g})$

$$\text{at } 298\text{K} \quad \Delta H = 57.90 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}, \\ T\Delta S = 52.40 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \\ \Delta G = 4.80 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

Hence for a spontaneous react, ΔG should be negative, the composition of $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{NH}_2(\text{g})$ will not be spontaneous at 298K, However at higher temp_r $T\Delta S$ becomes larger than ΔH which makes ΔG negative & thus makes react spontaneous.

- 4) when $\Delta H > 0$ & $\Delta S < 0$: Both the factors make ΔG more & more positive & therefore react will be non-spontaneous at all temp_r.



$$\text{At } 298\text{K} \quad \Delta H = 66.36 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \\ T\Delta S = -36.29 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \\ \Delta G = 102.65 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

(H)

Imp using the signs of ΔH & ΔS , predict the Spontaneity of a process.

Enthalpy (ΔH)	Entropy (ΔS)	Free energy change $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$	Conclusion
Negative (exothermic)	positive	Negative	Spontaneous change.
Negative (exothermic)	Negative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> → Negative - at low temp^r → positive - at higher temp^r. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spontaneous Non-spontaneous
positive (endothermic)	positive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> positive at low temp^r. negative at higher temp^r. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Non-spontaneous spontaneous
positive (endothermic)	negative	positive	Forbidden in forward direction.