The first law of thermodynamics

Lecture Outline:

- I. The concept of work, expansion and additional (useful) work.
- II. The concept of heat.
- III. Definition of internal energy and its molecular interpretation.
- IV. Different forms of the first law of thermodynamics.
- v. The concept of enthalpy and the necessity of its introduction.
- VI. Internal energy of an ideal gas. Joule's experiment.
- VII. Internal energy end enthalpy of real gases. The Joule–Thomson effect and the Joule–Thomson coefficient.

The system and its surroundings

- System: a part of the 'world', which is of special interest for the examiner, may be surrounded by a 'wall'
- Surroundings: the part of the 'world' outside the system

			Sunoundings
System type	Matter exchange - <i>type of wall</i>	Energy exchange - type of wall	System
Open	Yes - permeable - absence of wall	Yes - diathermic - moving wall	(a) Open
Closed	No - impermeable	Yes - diathermic - moving wall	(b) Closed
Isolated	No - impermeable	No - adiabatic - rigid wall	Mallier Ertergy

Surroundings

Matter

Types of thermodynamic systems

- Based on the spatial distribution of chemical and physical properties:
 - homogeneous (the same at every point, e.g. a glass of water)
 - **inhomogeneous** (continuous change, e.g. the atmosphere)
 - heterogeneous (discontinuous change, e.g., coke with ice)
- Based on the direction-dependence of properties:
 - isotropic (the same in every direction, e.g. glass)
 - **anisotropic** (differences between directions, e.g. lceland spar)
- Based on the number of the phases:
 - monophasic (e.g. a glass of water)
 - multiphasic (water and vapor above it)
- Based on the number of components:
 - one-component (e.g. a glass of water, a grain of table salt)
 - multicomponent (e.g. sugar solution, salty sugar solution)

The properties of the system

- Any property of a thermodynamic systems is either:
 - extensive: dependent on the size of the system, i.e. the amount of substance (e.g. mass, volume)
 - intensive: independent of the size of the system, i.e. the amount of substance (e.g. temperature, pressure).
 - if extensive properties are referenced to unit mass (/g, /kg) or amount of substance (/mol), intensive properties are obtained (e.g. density kg/m³, molar volume dm³/mol).
- Properties can often be measured or calculated on absolute scales (e.g. mass; temperature from 0 K).
- Sometimes only possible to measure on a relative scale referenced to some arbitrary 0 point (e.g. internal energy; water level in a river).

Processes in thermodynamics

- Types of thermodynamic processes (paths) :
 - spontaneous vs. forced/non-spontaneous
 - reversible (always through equilibrium states) vs.
 irreversible (through non-equilibrium states)
 - isothermal (constant temperature, heat exchange with the surroundings is typically necessary) vs.
 adiabatic (no heat exchange possible, walls are adiabatic)
 - isobaric: at constant pressure (wall moved by pressure changes, e.g. a piston)
 - isochoric: at constants volume (the walls of the system are rigid, e.g. autoclave, bomb calorimeter)



Energy is the ability of a system to do work.

- The energy of a system may be changed by work.
 - The energy of the system doing the work decreases.
 - Work done on the system increases the energy.
- The energy of a system may change through <u>heat transfer</u>.
- Between the system and the surroundings
 - heat from surroundings to system (+) or heat from system to surroundings (-): system-centered sign convention!
 - The process in the system may be:
 - endothermic = heat absorption (+) or exothermic = heat evolution (-)

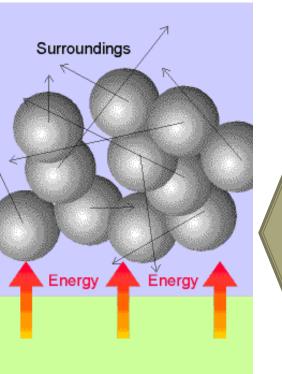
I. The concept of work. Expansion work and additional work.

 Work is always calculated as a product of an intensive and extensive property.

Type f work	dw	Notations	Units
mechanical	Fds	<i>F</i> force ds distance	N m
expansion	$-p_{\rm ex} dV$	p_{ex} external pressure dV change in volume	Pa m ³
surface expansion	$\gamma d\sigma$	γ surface tension ${f d}\sigma$ change in area	N m ⁻¹ m ²
extension	f dI	<i>f</i> tension d/ change in length	N m
electrical	Φdq	Φ electric potential dq change in charge	V C

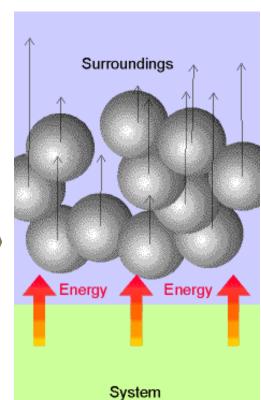
II. The concept of heat.

- Molecular interpretation of heat q and work w:
 - heat: chaotic motion of molecules (thermal motion)
 - work: ordered motion of molecules.



System

Transferring one into the other is an old technical problem (steam engine!) , which "inspired" the science of thermodynamics .



III. Definition and molecular interpretation of internal energy.

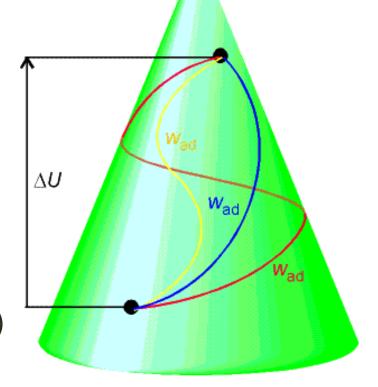
- Thermodynamics requires precise notions of energy:
 - exclude the contributions depending on external forces (kinetic energy of the macroscopic system) or force fields (gravitational, electric)
 - only considers the energy of the system that can be changed by heat and/or work.
- This is the internal energy (U): the sum of kinetic (rotational, vibrational, translational) an internal (i.e. arising from interaction within the system) potential energies.
- [Macroscopic kinetic energy or energy caused by external force fields is not included in the internal energy. For example, the heats of combustion or calories for sugar or milk are the same in a moving train, on the top of a mountain or in a deep mine.]

III. Definition and molecular interpretation of internal energy.

- U is extensive and a state function.
- Its absolute value is unknown, only changes can be determined.

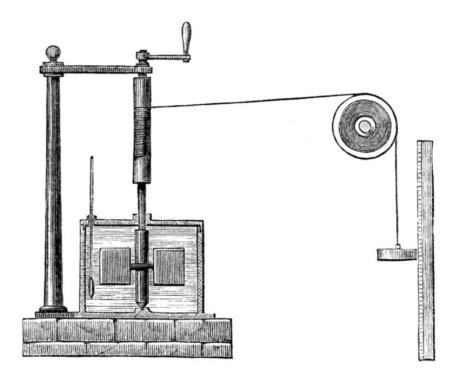


- 1 N m = 1 joule (J)
- 1 cal = 4.184 J



III. Definition and molecular interpretation of internal energy.





James Prescott Joule (1818-1889) English physicist

Joule's device for determining the mechanical work equivalent of heat, 1845

- The internal energy of a closed system remains constant until work or heat changes it.
 - The change in the internal energy of any system can be calculated from the work and heat:
 - $\Delta U = q + w$ (system-centered sing convention).
- The change in internal energy, ΔU, only depends on the initial and final states:
 - $\Delta U = U_{\rm f} U_{\rm i}$ (= state function)
- Conservation of energy:
 - energy does not form from nothing and cannot be destroyed.
- No perpetual motion machine exists.

Non-deducibility: this is general experience without exceptions.^{h2}

- Change in U:
 - work and/or
 - heat transfer
- Work:
 - Work (in general) = force × distance (Nm) dw = -F dz
 - Expansion work = pressure × change in volume (liter×atm)

$$dw = -p_{\rm ex} A dz = -p_{\rm ex} dV$$

- Calculation of work: integration.
- [Describing the expansion work of gases is very helpful in developing the exact formalism of thermodynamics.]

The concept of thermodynamic "path": the conditions under which a process actually occurs.

- The "paths" of isothermal gas expansion [later adiabatic as well]:
 - Expansion into vacuum (free expansion):

 $p_{\rm ex} = 0$, so w = 0.

Expansion at constant p_{ex} pressure:

 $p_{\rm ex}$ = constant, so the integration is simple:

$$w = -p_{\mathrm{ex}} \int_{V_i}^{V_f} dV = -p_{\mathrm{ex}} (V_f - V_i) = -p_{\mathrm{ex}} \Delta V$$

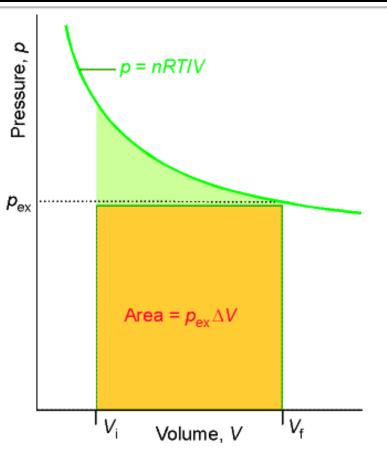
 Both paths are irreversible, they do not proceed through equilibrium states.

The concept of thermodynamic **"path"**: the conditions under which a process actually occurs.

- The "paths" of isothermal gas expansion [later adiabatic as well]:
 - Expansion against continuously equilibrated pressure,
 - reversible: always in equilibrium, an infinitesimal deviation reverses the changes

The value of p_{ex} changes continuously, always equal to the internal pressure $p \Rightarrow$ more complicated integration. Isothermal expansion, pressure p is from the law pV = nRT (p = nRT/V) and can be substituted into the formula. The expansion is isothermal, T = const., which simplifies things: $w = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} pdV = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{nRT}{V} dV = -nRT \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{dV}{V} = -nRT \ln\left(\frac{V_f}{V_i}\right)$

- Gives the maximum work that can be obtained from the system.
- Indicator diagram:
 - against vacuum
 - against constant p_{ex} pressure
 isothermal reversible path
- [Note: If the volume is constant, no work is done!]



$$w = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} p dV = -\int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{nRT}{V} dV = -nRT \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{dV}{V} = -nRT \ln\left(\frac{V_f}{V_i}\right)$$

Heat (heat transaction, heat transfer):

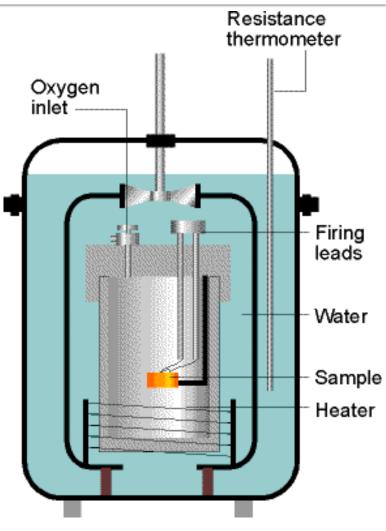
(for simplicity, exclude any work, expansion, electric, etc.)
 Heat q (absorption or evolution) at constant volume (isochoric process) is equal to the change in internal energy, U, of the system:

 $dU = dq_V$ (where subscript *V* means constant volume)

- The task is simple and clear: q must be measured at constant V.
- Method: calorimetry.
- Device: bomb calorimeter.

Bomb calorimeter:

- steel vessel with constant volume,
- adiabatically insulated (no heat exchange with the surroundings),
- the sample burns in a few second after ignition in a large excess of oxygen.
- Temperature increase ΔT is measured, the heat capacity of the calorimeter C is determined separately (using a sample with known heat of combustion):



- **Heat capacity** (C_V and C_p) is/are very important! Heat capacity C measures how the internal energy U
- changes in response to an increase in temperature.
- Its value depends on the identity of the substance and the experimental conditions:
 - V and
 - p.
 - Two cases: either V or p is constant.
 - If V is constant, then heat capacity at constant volume is defined as the partial derivative of U with respect to T:

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

Partial derivative (here): the effect of a single variable on the observed property – with keeping the other variables constant.] 19

- Different "versions" of heat capacity at constant volume:
 - C_V : heat capacity (for a given object); extensive
 - $C_{V,m}$: molar heat capacity (for n = 1 mol); intensive
 - c_v: specific heat (for 1 kg); intensive

- Heat capacity for ideal gases:
 - monatomic gases: as $U_{\rm m} = U_{\rm m}(0) + 3/2 RT$, so $C_{V,m} = (\partial U_{\rm m} / \partial T)_{\rm v} = 3/2 R = [12.47 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}]$

diatomic gases:

$$C_{V,m} = 5/2 R = [20.785 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}]$$

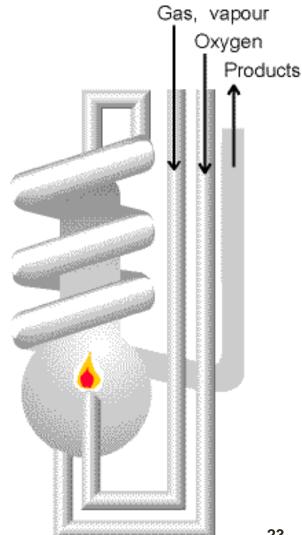
• nonlinear multiatomic gases: $C_{Vm} = 6/2 R = 3R = [24.94 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}]$

Enthalpy, *H*: state function for the description of processes at <u>constant pressure</u> v.

- ΔH: heat transfer at constant pressure assuming no additional work.
- Definition: H = U + pV
- (In addition to U, it also contains the expansion work necessarily accompanying the chemical reaction.)
- state function: $\Delta H = H_f H_i$
- extensive (molar enthalpy H_m is intensive!)
- no absolute value known, arbitrary scale.
- [Important: ΔH also means heat at constant pressure, whereas ΔU means heat at constant volume.]

Determining <u>changes</u> in enthalpy: • in I, s phase, ΔV is typically small, so $H_m \approx U_m$.

- in gas phase: flame calorimeter (gas+O₂)
 - spiral tube at constant pressure,
 - adiabatic (insulated),
 - continuous gas + O₂ inflow,
 - continuous burning,
 - continuous product outflow.



- Temperature dependence of enthalpy: slope of the function H = f(T) = heat capacity at constant pressure; C_p .
- "Versions" of C_p similarly to C_v :
 - C_p: heat capacity (for a given object) extensive
 - $C_{p,m}$: molar heat capacity (for n = 1 mol) intensive
 - c_p: specific heat (for 1 kg) intensive

• From the C_p heat capacity, the *H* enthalpy of a given system can be calculated for different temperatures:

$$H(T_2) = H(T_1) + \int_{T_1}^{T_2} C_{\rho} dT$$

 In practice, the temperature-dependence of the enthalpy of a (chemical) reaction is more important. This can be calculated from the appropriate weighted sum of the heat capacities of the substances participating in the reactions:

$$\Delta_r H(T_2) = \Delta_r H(T_1) + \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \Delta_r C_{p,m} dT$$

In thermochemistry, this is called **Kirchhoff's law**.

Connection between the two heat capacities

- For an ideal gas (only important for gases anyway):
 - difference of the two heat capacities: $C_p C_V = nR$, for 1 mol of gas: $C_{p.m} - C_{V.m} = R$
 - ratio: $C_{p,m}/C_{V,m} = \gamma$ [heat capacity ratio].
 - Reversible **adiabatic** expansion of an ideal gas pV' = constant

Work	ideal gas	real gas
On the atmosphere	yes	yes
On internal bonds	no	yes

VI. Internal energy of the ideal gas. Joule's experiment.

- If $V \to V + dV$ (at constant *T*), then $U \to U$ ', in a general notation: $U' = U + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_{T} dV$
- If *T* increases to *T* +*dT* (at constant *V*), then [similarly]: $U' = U + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_{U} dT$
- Assume that the change in *V* and *T* is infinitesimal:

$$U' = U + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_T dV + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_V dT$$

exact differential:

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

VI. Internal energy of the ideal gas. Joule's experiment.

The two partial derivatives have physical meaning:

- $(\partial U/\partial V)_T = \pi_T$, a **internal pressure** (change in U with V).
- $(\partial U/\partial T)_V = C_V$, a molar heat capacity at constant volume. $dU = \pi_T dV + C_V dT$

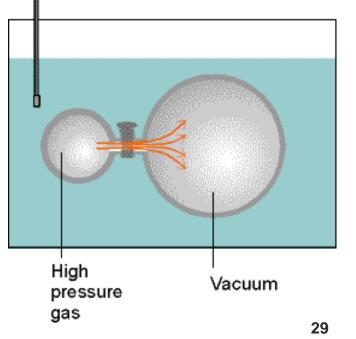
Equation for *dU*:

- > C_V is always positive.
- > π_{T} is expected to be different for ideal and real gases. In the latter, the attractive and repulsive forces between particles result in some internal pressure, whereas it is zero for an ideal gas.

VI. Internal energy of the ideal gas. Joule's experiment.

- Joule's experiment: how does U depend on the volume?
- <u>Isotherm</u> expansion of gas against vacuum: Joule did not experience any change in temperature.
- Conclusion: *U* does not depend on volume, so $(\partial U/\partial V)_T = \pi_T = 0$ (true for an ideal gas).
- The experience was imprecise, but the errors were small, so the conclusion was correct.

Thermometer

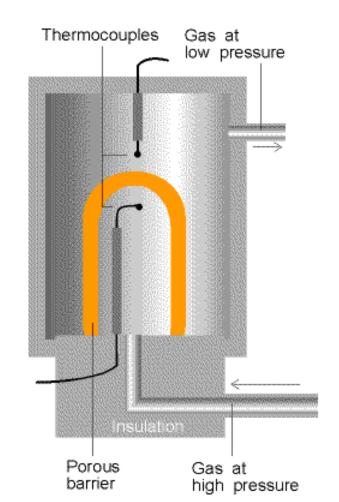


VII. Internal energy and enthalpy of real gases. The Joule-Thomson effect

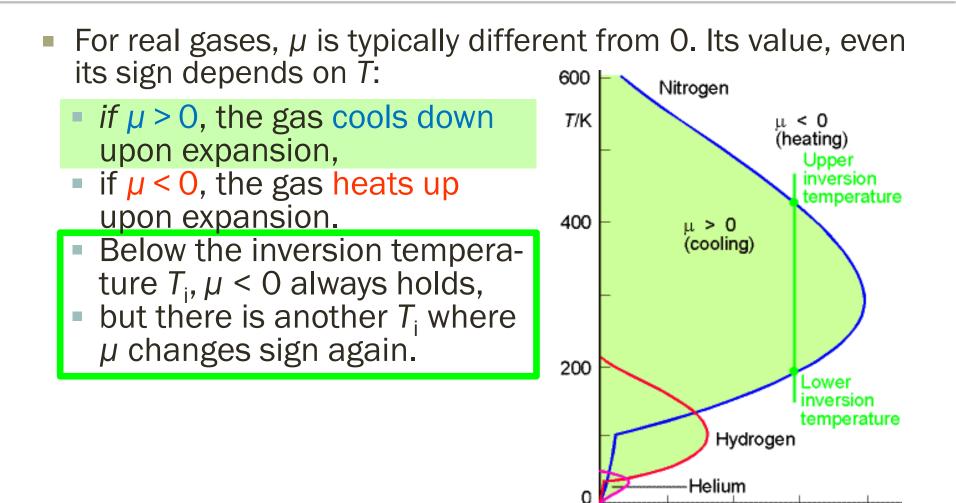
- Expansion of a gas through a barrier (porous wall): cools down during expansion (conditions are **insulated**, i.e. **adiabatic**). This is called the Joule-Thomson effect.
- Characterization: adiabatic
 Joule-Thomson coefficient (µ):

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

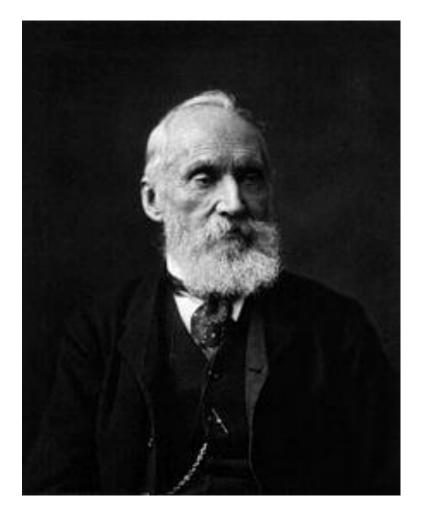
 it measures the temperature change in response to a pressure change.
 This has major practical importance.

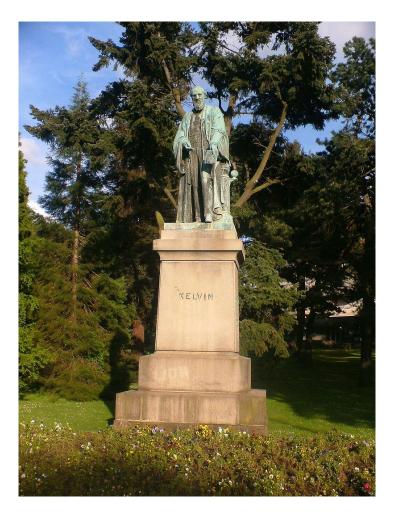


VII. Internal energy and enthalpy of real gases. The Joule-Thomson effect



p/atm





William Thomson (1824-1907) Irish mathematician, physicist

statue of Lord Kelvin Belfast, botanical garden