

CHEM-E6100 Fundamentals of chemical thermodynamics

Week 2, Fall 2022



- Thermochemistry, energy of system (Ch. 2)
- 1st law of thermodynamics
- Enthalpy
- Specific heat
- 2nd law of thermodynamics (Ch. 3)
- Entropy (Ch. 3& 4)
- Some practical functions of state (Ch. 5)



Learning outcomes for Week 2

- Be familiar with the concepts of thermochemistry
- Understand the relations of heat, work and internal energy in connection to the 1st law of thermodynamics
- Understand the relations between enthalpy and heat capacity and how they are derived
- Understand the relations between entropy and the 2nd law of thermodynamics



Thermochemistry

- A branch of chemistry that deals with the interrelation of heat with chemical reaction or physical change of state
- Thermochemistry describes and studies the behavior of thermal energy contained/stored by a system in various 'processes' and 'transformations'
- It uses the general principle of conservation of mass in substances and processes
- No matter is generated or destroyed in the chemical reactions



Thermochemistry

- All energy in thermochemistry can be measured at least in principle
- Thus there may be an accounting method for the changes in the energetic state of the entire system
- Calculations of
 - Heat capacity
 - Heat of combustion
 - Heat of formation
 - Enthalpy
 - Entropy
 - Gibbs free energy



Thermochemistry

Background findings in history

 Lavoisier and Laplace's law (1780): The energy change in any transformation is equal and opposite to the energy change of the reverse process

(a) $CH_4(g) + 2O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(l)$ [25 °C, $\Delta H^0 = -890.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$] (b) $CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(l) \rightarrow CH_4(g) + 2O_2(g)$ [25 °C, $\Delta H^0 = +890.3 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$]

- Hess' law (1840): The energy change in any transformation is the same whether the process happens in one or several steps.
 - State functions are not dependent on the path.



Observable examples of Lavoisier and Laplace's law

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{H_2O}(s) \to \mathsf{H_2O}(l) & \text{ meltin} \\ \mathsf{H_2O}(l) \to \mathsf{H_2O}(s) & \text{ freezed} \end{array}$

melting of ice freezing of water

Phase Change Materials (PCM)

- Used for energy storage
- Heating pads

[0 °C, ΔH^0 = +6000.7 J·mol⁻¹] [0 ° C, ΔH^0 = -6000.7 J·mol⁻¹]



Example of heating pad



Observable examples of Lavoisier and Laplace's law

Na(s) + $\frac{1}{2}$ Cl₂(g) \rightarrow NaCl(s) Spontaneous reaction [820 °C, Δ H⁰ = -378.0 kJ·mol⁻¹]

NaCl(s) → Na(s) + $\frac{1}{2}$ Cl₂(g) Electrolysis of NaCl [820 °C, Δ H⁰ = +378.0 kJ-mol⁻¹]





Hess's law



The standard enthalpy of an overall reaction is the sum of the standard enthalpies of the individual reactions that can be used to describe the overall reaction Hess's law

Hess's law



- In general all systems can have energy transfer with its surroundings in two forms only:
 - Heat across two different temperatures or a 'temperature gradient'
 - Mechanical work
- Total energy of a system in thermodynamics is called 'internal energy'; its symbol is U



- ISO 80000-5 definition:
- For a closed thermodynamic system, ∆U = Q + W where Q is amount of heat transferred to the system and W is work done on the system provided that no chemical reactions occur.
 - Energy (E) is a quantity characterizing the ability of a system to do work
 - Heat, amount of heat (Q) is the difference between the increase in the total energy of a physical system and the work done on the system, provided that the amounts of substances within the system are not changed ($Q = \Delta U$ -W).
 - Work $W = \int Pdt$, $P = F \cdot v$ (Power = Force · velocity)



- $\Delta U = Q + W$
- IUPAC sign convention is that energy transferred to a system is always positive, while energy removed from a system is negative



Total energy, work and heat

- The work is positive, if the *surroundings* does work to the system (or raises its energy level)
- The value of work is negative, if the system does work to its surroundings (or releases energy as work).
- The (amount of) heat is positive, if the system *receives* heat (endothermic process) from its surroundings.
- Heat is negative, if system *looses* heat (exothermic process) or thermal energy to its surroundings



- The Internal energy (U) is a state function of a system, its value depends only on the current state of the system and not on processes to reach it
- U is an extensive quantity (depends on system size).
- U=U(P, T, n_i)
- "Heat" and "work" are defined only for processes, they are modes of energy transfer.
- Q and W used to calculate U are path functions.
 - Often, but not always state functions use capital letters and path functions small letters.



- The absolute value of internal energy U in any system is not a measurable quantity
- The internal energy of given state of a system cannot be directly measured
- Internal energy is defined by changes starting from a reference state
- The reference state to determine the internal energy change has no general definition
- BUT usually in thermodynamics, standard state is 298.15 K and 1 bar (100 kPa)



 The internal energy of a system can change only in energy transfer between the system and its surroundings

By definition for closed system $\Delta U=q+w$

- q>0 and w>0, heat and work to system
- q>0 and w<0, heat to system, work out
- q<0 and w>0, heat out from system, work to system
- q<0 and w<0, heat and work out from system
- q=0, adiabatic process



Source: Gaskell, Introduction to the thermodynamics of materials.



1st law of thermodynamics

- The First law of Thermodynamics is a statement of the Principle of Conservation of Energy
 - Energy can neither be created, nor destroyed
 - Energy can be transported or converted from one form to another
 - Chemical and/or physical changes are accompanied by changes in energy
- IUPAC sign convention is that energy transferred to a system is always positive, while energy removed from a system is negative.



1st law of thermodynamics

- The 1st law of thermodynamics is often written $\Delta U=Q-W$
- The change of internal energy ∆U of a closed system is equal to the amount of heat Q supplied to the system, minus the amount of work W done by the system on its surroundings.



1st law of thermodynamics

- Principle of conservation of energy
- Energy can be neither created nor destroyed. It can only change forms / In any process in an isolated system, the total energy remains the same.

 $\Delta U = Q + W$ dU = dQ + dW $\Sigma dU = \Sigma dQ + \Sigma dW = 0$

- U = internal energy
- Q = heat
- W = work



- U = internal energy, sum of all forms of energy of the system
 - Kinetic energy: Sum of motions of particles translational, rotational, vibrational
 - Potential energy: Chemical energy in chemical bonds, nuclear energy in configuration of elementary particles, etc.
- Q = heat
 - When energy of the system changes as a result of temperature differences between the system and its surroundings, the energy has been transferred as <u>heat</u>
- W = work
 - Work is done when an object is moved against an opposing force
 - Mechanical work: Pressure-Volume (-*p*d*V*), elastic, surface
 - Electromagnetic: Charge transfer, electric polarization, magnetic polarization

Conservation of energy



Work of expansion

- In chemical systems the most important form of work is its work of expansion (in volume)
- The other forms of mechanical work have no importance in chemistry or chemical equilibria
- It is carried out (on the Earth) by the ambient atmosphere and its pressure



Source: Gaskell, Introduction to the thermodynamics of materials.



Work of expansion

- The work done in expansion is: $dw=-p_u dV$, where p_u is the external pressure and dV the change in system volume
- In constant volume processes we can always write dw=0 and thus dU=q



Enthalpy

• In a closed isobaric system, the work done by the system in state change $1\rightarrow 2$ is

$$w = \int_{1}^{2} P dV = P \int_{1}^{2} dV = P(V_2 - V_1)$$

- 1st law of thermodynamics gives an equation for the change of the internal energy as $U_2-U_1=q_p-P(V_2-V_1)$
- The change in the heat of the system Δq is $\Delta q = q_2 - q_1 = q_p = (U_2 + PV_2) - (U_1 + PV_1)$
- By definition U+PV is the enthalpy H
- H=U+PV



Enthalpy

- By definition enthalpy is a sum of total energy and term PV or $H \equiv U+PV$
- Enthalpy is composed of state functions U, P and V, and thus is a state function itself
- As the absolute value of U is not known also that of H is not known or measurable by experiment
- Enthalpy is the amount of heat released or absorbed by the system in an <u>isobaric</u> process
- Enthalpy is a function of only two state variables and the size of the system, for example H = H(P,T,n_i)



Enthalpy change in a reaction

- The enthalpy change of a chemical reaction is a difference of the enthalpies of its product(s) and reactant(s)
- For a reaction in a closed system
- aA + bB +..=mM + nN +..
- We always get the change of enthalpy or its <u>heat of reaction</u> from equation
- $\Delta H = \sum v_{product} H_{product} \sum v_{reactant} H_{reactant}$

where H_i are enthalpies of the substances *i* and v_i are their stoichiometric numbers in the chemical reaction above.



Enthalpy change in a reaction

 In general, enthalpy of a heterogeneous system, composed of volumes α is sum of enthalpies of the volumes or

 $\mathbf{H}_{\mathsf{tot}} = \Sigma_{\alpha} \mathbf{H}^{\alpha}$

• This means that total enthalpy of a heterogeneous system is an additive property



- The key variable and tool in thermochemistry is a property of a substance called *heat capacity*
- It is also called *specific heat*(of a system or substance).
- In general it is the derivative of heat content q in reference with temperature
 - C = dq/dT



Source: Gaskell, Introduction to the thermodynamics of materials.



 In practical cases, heat capacity is defined and measured either in constant pressure or constant volume

$$C_p = (dq/dT)_p = dq_p/dT$$
 in constant pressure
 $C_v = (dq/dT)_V = dq_V/dT$ in constant volume

The subscript refers to the constant variable of state



Heat capacity, **C**, is the amount of heat required to change a substance's temperature by a given amount.

 $dU = dQ + dW_{PV} + dW_{non-e}$

- If volume = constant \rightarrow No expansion work possible (dW_{PV}=0)
- Assuming no additional non-expansion work (dW_{non-e}=0)

$$dU = dQ_{V}$$

$$\Delta U = Q_{V}$$

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

 $C_{\rm V}$ is the heat capacity at constant volume of a substance $dU=C_{\rm V}dT$

Heat capacity and enthalpy

Enthalpy, H is defined as

H = U + PV

• If pressure is constant

$$dH = dQ_{p}$$

$$\Delta H = Q_{p}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial T}\right)_{P} = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial T}\right)_{P} = C_{p}$$

 $C_{\rm p}$ is the heat capacity at constant pressure of a substance $dH=C_{\rm p}dT$

Due to the practical importance, Q_p measured by calorimetry can be easily related to ΔH . Enthalpy is often called heat content

- Heat capacity of a substance is a discontinuous property (specific to each substance)
- Its derivative is not continuous (i.e. contains points of discontinuity).
- It is non-negative for all stable substances
 - For ions of aqueous solutions it may be negative, but that feature is result of its definition ('model') and it is not a property of a ('real') substance



$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{p}}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{V}}$ functions

- c_p is larger in value than c_v due to the fact that in constant volume processes the entire heat is consumed in changes of the system temperature
- One can show that

 $c_p - c_V = P(dV/dT)_p$

(derivation: pp 23-24 in Gaskell 5th ed.)

 Heat capacity of a system is a function of pressure, temperature and amounts, but its molar value depends only on pressure and temperature; thus we can write c = c(P,T)



$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{p}}$ and $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{V}}$ functions

- c = c(P,T) and in constant pressure $c_p = c_p(T)$
- The value of c_p at different temperatures is given by Kelley or Maier-Kelley equation.
- Tabulated Kelley equation regression coefficients describe the polynomial series for the specific heat capacity at constant pressure

- $dH = c_p dT$ ($dU = c_V dT$)
- $\Delta H = \int c_p dT$ $(\Delta U = \int c_V dT)$





Calculate the heat of combustion of CO

C(s) + $O_2(g) = CO_2(g)$ $\Delta H_r = -393.5 \text{ kJ}$ C(s) + $\frac{1}{2} O_2(g) = CO(g)$ $\Delta H_r = -110.5 \text{ kJ}$





• Calculate the heat of transition of C(diamond) \rightarrow C(graphite)

C(graphite) + $O_2(g) = CO_2(g)$ $\Delta H_r = -393.5 \text{ kJ}$ C(diamond) + $O_2(g) = CO_2(g)$ $\Delta H_r = -395.4 \text{ kJ}$



Examples

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- Calculate the heat required to heat metallic Lithium from 25 °C to 100 °C
- $C_p = 9.6 + 0.041T + 248117 T^{-2} J/(mol K)$



30.10.2022



2nd law of thermodynamics

- First law of thermodynamics identifies allowed changes in a system
- Second law identifies spontaneous changes among the allowed changes by introducing the state function Entropy, S
- The entropy of a system and its surroundings increases in the course of a spontaneous change, ΔS_{total} >0
- For an open system

$$dS + dS_{sur} \ge 0$$

(= for reversible equilibrium process, > for non-reversible process)

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2nd law of thermodynamics Semantics

- Heat cannot be extracted from a body and turned entirely into work
- Every system left to itself will, on the average, change toward a condition of maximum probability
- You can't shovel manure into the rear end of a horse and expect to get hay out of its mouth





- The entropy of a system, S, is an • extensive state property which is given by Boltzmann's equation as:
- $S = k_B \ln W$
 - k_B = Boltzmann's constant
 - W (or Ω) is the multiplicity of the system ~ the number of possible equivalent microstates in a macrostate
- S can loosely be said to be a ٠ measure of the disorder of a system.



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Factors that tend to increase the entropy of a system.

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2nd law of thermodynamics

- The 2nd law of thermodynamics defines a new state function called entropy S
- It is a property of a substance we cannot measure directly
- The need for this definition is the question: how much work a system can generate in a change of state when its properties change in a process $1\rightarrow 2$?
- Together with the 1st law it give the 'rule' how the thermodynamic description of a substance is given in the phase transformations as well as in chemical reactions.



- Entropy is often characterized in textbooks using the Carnot cycle, which analyses the features of heat engines; it is not illustrative for chemical processes and reactions
- Entropy S has the following properties in any change or process of an isolated system
- $\delta S = 0$ equilibrium of a system
- $\delta S > 0$ a spontaneous adiabatic change of the system
- $\delta S < 0$ a forced adiabatic change of the system





any internal exchange

The general principle of conservation of energy and the behavior of entropy in the minimum point of total energy (the state of equilibrium)



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• The change of entropy is connected with the thermal energy (δq) of a system in very slow ('quasistatic') transformations or processes described as

 $dS = \delta q/T \text{ or } \delta q = TdS$

 When the work of expansion made by the system is PdV, we get from the 1st law of thermodynamics

dU = TdS - PdV



 We can thus write the internal energy as U=U(S,V) and its total differential with entropy and volume as state variables is of the general form

 $dU = (\partial U / \partial S)_V dS + (\partial U / \partial V)_S dV$

- A comparison of the above equations we get the relations:
- System temperature $T = (\partial U / \partial S)_V$
- System pressure $P = -(\partial U/\partial V)_S$



Entropy change in reactions

- The change of entropy in chemical reactions is obtained analogically with enthalpy and it follows the common principles of calculating changes of state functions.
- It is difference between entropies of products and reactants as given in the following equation:

$$\Delta S = \sum v_{product} S_{product} - \sum v_{reactant} S_{reactant}$$

• In heterogeneous systems entropy is thus an additive property

$$\mathbf{S}_{tot} = \Sigma_{\alpha} \mathbf{S}_{\alpha}$$



Statistical interpretation of entropy

- The 2nd law of classical thermodynamics and its physical meaning is difficult to understand, even if we can see that entropy is a well defined state function of a system in a similar way as its internal (or total) energy
- The validity of entropy and justification of 2nd law is the fact that perpetual motion machine has not been invented
- Invention of quantum mechanics brought some light in it.



Statistical interpretation of entropy Chapter 4 in Gaskell

- Entropy is in qualitative sense the measure of disorder of the system
- The more equally its particles are mixed, the higher its entropy
- In a liquid, the disorder is higher than in a solid (i.e. crystalline) phase.





Microstates of a system

- Assuming a particle system of four energy levels ε_0 , ε_1 , ε_2 , and ε_3 having an energy difference of u.
- Particle energy on level 0 is 0, and on level 3 it is $3 \times u$.
- The key question is how the particles (A, B and C) can be divided between the levels and maintain the system total energy E, for example E = 3×u?





Microstates of a system

 $\begin{array}{c} ABC \\ \varepsilon_{3} \\ \varepsilon_{2} \\ \varepsilon_{1} \\ \varepsilon_{0} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{2}} \left(b \right) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{1}} \left(b \right) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{1}} \left(b \right) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{1}} \left(c \right) \xrightarrow{\epsilon_{1}} \left($

- (a) put all on level 1 and thus $E=3\times 1u = 3\times u$
- (b) one particle on level 3 and the other two on 0, with E = $2 \times 0u + 1 \times 3u$
- (c) one on levels 2, 1 and 0, respectively, with E =1 × 0u + 1 × 1u + 1 × 2u
- The number of all different configurations of A,B, and C, they are *microstates* of the macrostate



- The macroscopic state of a system is defined by its independent state variables and its 'appearance' is the internal energy U
- When a number of system's particles increases, the number of its microstates increases (e.g. 1 mol = 6.023 × 10²³ atoms or molecules) is a lot
- The number of microstate in a situation with n particles and n_0 locating on level ϵ_0 and the highest level is ϵ_r with n_r particles is in general

 $\Omega = n! / (n_0!n_1!...n_r!) = n! / \Pi_{i=0..r} n_i!$



- In case of the previous example, possibilities for distributions a-c are thus
- $\Omega(a) = 3!/(3!0!0!) = 1$
- $\Omega(b) = 3!/(2!1!0!) = 3$
- $\Omega(c) = 3!/(1!1!1!) = 6$
- Total energy of the system is now:
- **U** = constant = $n_0 \varepsilon_0 + n_1 \varepsilon_1 + ... + n_r \varepsilon_r = \sum_{i=1..r} n_i \varepsilon_i$



 Total number of particles in the system is constant n and thus we can write

 $n = n_0 + n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_r = \sum_{i=1\dots r} n_i$

- Internal equilibrium of the system according to 1st law of thermodynamics is valid for the changes of microstates
 - $\delta U = \Sigma_i \varepsilon_i \delta n_i = 0$ and $\delta n = \Sigma_i \delta n_i = 0$.
- If distribution function Ω has maximum in this point,
 δ(In Ω) = 0 and further

•
$$\delta \ln \Omega = -\Sigma_i (\delta n_i \ln n_i) = 0.$$



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- The point of maximum can be solved and it is
- $n_i = n \times \exp(-\beta \times \varepsilon_i)/P$,
- where *P* is called partition function and β is defined by equation
- $\Sigma \exp(-\beta \times \varepsilon_i) = e^{-\beta \varepsilon_0} + e^{-\beta \varepsilon_1} + \dots$,
- where $\beta = 1/(kT)$ and $k = R/N_0$; the factor k is Boltzmann constant and N_0 Avogardo's constant.
- This means that the most probable state of equilibrium is such where the particles have the lowest energy.



Boltzmann equation

- Total energy of a system is
- $U = \sum_{i=1..r} n_i \varepsilon_i$
- and the n_i of the equilibrium point results in
 - $U = \sum_{i=1..r} n_i \varepsilon_i = \sum_i (n/P) \times \varepsilon_i \times exp(-\varepsilon_i/kT)$ or
 - UP/n = $\Sigma_i \epsilon_i \times \exp(-\epsilon_i/kT)$.
- Because particle reorganisation to their equilibrium configurations requires energy transfer, it causes changes in internal energy in isochoric and isothermic systems.



Boltzmann equation

- Thus it is valid as P is only P=P(T,ε):
- $\delta \ln \Omega = \delta U/kT = \delta S/k$
- Integral of above equation is known as Boltzmann equation
- $S = k \ln \Omega$
- where Ω is the maximum number of possible configurations in the system.
- Boltzmann's constant (k) times Avogadro's number (N₀) equals the gas constant (R).



Boltzmann equation

- Boltzmann equation S = k In Ω is the quantitative relationship between the entropy of a system and its "degree of mixed-up-ness".
- The latter, given by Ω, is the number of ways in which the energy of the system can be distributed among the particles.
 - The most probable state of the system is that in which Ω has a maximum value, consistent with the fixed values of U, V, and n.
 - Hence the equilibrium state of the system is that in which S is a maximum, consistent with the fixed values of U, V, and n.



Some 'auxiliary' functions

- In the practical equilibrium calculations, only a limited set of thermodynamic state functions are used
- The key tools are combinations of the functions given above.
- The properties of substances which can be measured experimentally are (only) enthalpies, in particular their changes, as well as the changes of two 'auxiliary functions', Gibbs and Helmholtz energies



Helmholtz energy

 Helmholtz (free) energy is defined as sum of system internal energy U and the term -T×S

 $\mathbf{A} \equiv \mathbf{U} - \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{S}$

- Helmholtz energy is equal to the maximum amount of work that the system can perform in an isochoric thermodynamic process (constant volume)
- The Helmholtz free energy minimum provides a criterion for equilibrium in a system at constant temperature and constant volume
- A is a state function A = A(P,T,n_i) and total Helmholtz energy of the system is the sum of its volumes' A functions



Gibbs energy

- An analogous variable with Helmholtz energy is the system's Gibbs (free) energy
- It is defined as sum of system enthalpy H and the term -T×S as

 $\mathbf{G} \equiv \mathbf{H} - \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{S}$

- Gibbs energy is the sum of state functions, it is also a state function G = G(P,T,n_k) and total Gibbs energy of a system is the sum of its volumes' G functions
- Gibbs energy has a specific role almost in all technical applications of chemical thermodynamics because it controls isobaric processes which is characteristic to most industrial reactors and reactions



Gibbs and Helmholtz energy

- Gibbs (G) and Helmholtz energy (A) are sometimes connected to the term "free energies"
- The change in Helmholtz energy, ∆A, gives the maximum amount of work a system can do at isothermal conditions
- The change in Gibbs energy, ∆G, gives the maximum amount of nonexpansion work a system can do at constant P and T



Energy functions and spontaneous processes

- From 2nd law of thermodynamics, where dS ≥ dQ/T for reversible processes (equilibrium) and spontaneous process, one can derive that
- dG_{T,P}=0 at equilibrium and dG_{T,P}<0 for spontaneous processes (constant T and P)
- dA_{T,V}=0 at equilibrium and dA_{T,V}<0 for spontaneous processes (constant T and V)
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 - dU_{S,V}=0 (constant S and V) and dH_{S,P}=0 (constant S and P) for equilibrium but not practical conditions for studying processes



Spontaneous process and equilibrium, Gibbs energy



Spontaneous process and equilibrium, Helmholtz energy



Gibbs and Helmholtz energy

• For a reaction

 $H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2} O_2(g) \Rightarrow H_2O(I)$

 $\Delta G_r = -237$ kJ per mol H₂O at 25 ° C and 1 bar Up to 237 kJ mol⁻¹ of 'chemical energy' can be converted into electrical energy



Gibbs energy and electrochemical cells



Zinc electrode (anode): $Zn(s) \rightarrow Zn^{2+}(aq) + 2 e^{-}$ Copper electrode (cathode): $Cu^{2+}(aq) + 2 e^{-} \rightarrow Cu(s)$ Total reaction: $Zn(s) + Cu^{2+}(aq) \rightarrow Zn^{2+}(aq) + Cu(s)$

Gibbs energy and electrochemical cells

$$W_{max} = W_{electrical} = -nFE_{cell}$$

 $\Delta G = -nFE_{cell}$

n: number of moles of electrons transferred in the reaction

F: Faraday's constant, 96485 C/mol e⁻

E_{cell}: Cell potential, given in volt

Zinc electrode (anode): $Zn(s) \rightarrow Zn^{2+}(aq) + 2 e^{-}$ E = + 0.762 VCopper electrode (cathode): $Cu^{2+}(aq) + 2 e^{-} \rightarrow Cu(s)$ E = +0.340 V**Total reaction:**

 $Zn(s) + Cu^{2+}(aq) \rightarrow Zn^{2+}(aq) + Cu(s) \qquad \qquad \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{cell}} = +1.102 \text{ V}$

$$\Delta G_1^\circ$$
 = -nFE° _{cell} - (2)*(96485 C/mol)*1.102 V = -212.6 kJ mol⁻

Direct Gibbs energy measurements are often performed with electrochemical cells

Summary

- 1^{st} law of thermodynamics $\Delta U = Q W$
- 2nd law of thermodynamics, the sum of entropies of the interacting thermodynamic systems increases
- Enthalpy, $H \equiv U + PV$
- Entropy, $dS = \delta q/T$ and dU = TdS PdV
- Statistical approach of Boltzmann equation links entropy and randomness S = k In Ω
- Gibbs energy, $G \equiv H T \times S$

