2. ENTHALPY AND SPECIFIC HEAT CAPACITY

In this chapter, definition of enthalpy is discussed for a chemically reacting substance, whose thermodynamic state is defined by the equation

$$
h = h(T, p) \tag{2.1}
$$

at a temperature of T and pressure p. When defining the enthalpy of real gases and real liquid mixtures, the mole amounts of different components have to be taken into account.

Enthalpy according to equation (2.1) is called specific enthalpy, i.e. its dimension is J/mol or J/kg depending on whether considering the mole amount 1 mol or the mass 1 kg. The same notion applies also for thermodynamic quantities, specific volume $v=v(T,p)$, specific internal energy u (J/mol or J/kg), specific entropy s (J/mol K or J/kgK), specific heat capacity at constant pressure c_p (J/mol K or J/kgK) and specific heat capacity in constant volume c_V (J/mol K or J/kgK). Every equation presented after this are exactly the same regardless of choice of molar or mass based specific quantities^{*}).

2.1 Definitions

Specific heat capacity c_p is defined with the equation

$$
c_p \equiv \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial T}\right)_p.
$$
\n(2.2)

Equations (2.1) and (2.2) result in

$$
c_p = c_p(T, p). \tag{2.3}
$$

Specific volume v is similarly dependent on temperature and pressure

$$
v = v(T, p). \tag{2.4}
$$

Equation (2.4) is called the equation of state for a substance. Based on the equation of state, the volumetric thermal expansion coefficient γ can be defined as

^{*)} The connection between a molar based specific quantity g_{mol} (g = u,h,v,s,c_p,c_y,...) and a mass based specific quantity g_{max} is $g_{\text{mol}} = M g_{\text{max}}$, where M is the molar mass of the substance (kg/mol).

$$
\gamma = \frac{1}{v} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right)_p \tag{2.5}
$$

and the isothermal compressibility factor κ _T as

$$
\kappa_{\rm T} \equiv -\frac{1}{\rm v} \left(\frac{\partial \rm v}{\partial \rm p} \right)_{\rm T} . \tag{2.6}
$$

Note that $\gamma = \gamma$ (T,p) and $\kappa_T = \kappa_T(T, p)$.

Example 2.1. The specific molar volume of an ideal gas is

$$
v=\frac{V}{n}\,.
$$

Inserting the ideal gas law $pV=nRT$ to this results in

$$
v = v(T, p) = \frac{RT}{p},
$$

where it can be seen that the specific molar volume of an ideal gas is the same for every gas.

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For an ideal gas, the equation (2.5) results in

$$
\gamma = \frac{1}{v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial T} = \frac{1}{v} \frac{R}{p} = \frac{1}{v} \frac{1}{T} \frac{RT}{p} = \frac{1}{v} \frac{1}{T} v = \frac{1}{T}
$$

and accordingly, for an ideal gas, the equation (2.6) results in

$$
\kappa_{\rm T} = -\frac{1}{\rm v} \frac{\partial \rm v}{\partial \rm p} = -\frac{1}{\rm v} \frac{-\rm RT}{\rm p^2} = \frac{1}{\rm v} \frac{1}{\rm p} \frac{\rm RT}{\rm p} = \frac{1}{\rm p}.
$$

For enthalpy change with respect to pressure, an equation can be derived [2]

$$
\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{T} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{T}} \right)_{\mathbf{p}},\tag{2.7}
$$

which can be written with the volumetric thermal expansion coefficient equation (2.5) as

$$
\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} = \mathbf{v}(1 - \mathbf{T}\gamma) \,. \tag{2.8}
$$

The following applies for the total differential of enthalpy $h=h(T,p)$

$$
dh = \frac{\partial h}{\partial T} dT + \frac{\partial h}{\partial p} dp,
$$

with equations (2.2) and (2.8) this becomes

$$
dh = c_p dT + v(1 - T\gamma)dp.
$$
 (2.9)

Integrating equation (2.9) results in

$$
h(T, p) - h(T_0, p_0) =
$$

= $\int_{T_0}^{T} c_p (T, p_0) dT + \int_{p_0}^{p} v(T, p) (1 - T\gamma(T, p)) dp$ (2.10)

In order to calculate enthalpy changes compared to a known state (T_0, p_0) , the function $c_p(T, p_0)$ has to be known, which is the specific heat capacity as a function of temperature at pressure p_0 , as well as the equation of state (2.4), which results in the volumetric thermal expansion coefficient $\gamma(T,p)$ by applying the equation (2.5).

Example 2.2. For an ideal gas $\gamma(T,p) = 1/T$ and the equation (2.8) results in $(\partial h / \partial p)_T = 0$, meaning that

__

$$
h(T,p) = h(T).
$$

Generally, gases are closer to an ideal gas the lower the pressure p is. For example, air at a pressure of 1 bar can be considered as an ideal gas with reasonable accuracy, but at higher pressures the deviation becomes significant.

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2.2 Reaction enthalpy

Enthalpy change

$$
\Delta H \equiv H(B) - H(A) \tag{2.11}
$$

from state A= $(T, p, n_1, n_2, ..., n_m)$ to state B = $(T, p, n'_1, n'_2, ..., n'_m)$ is called reaction enthalpy, when temperatures and pressures are equal in the initial state (A) and the final state (B).

When the reaction enthalpy $\Delta H < 0$, the reaction is exothermic, and heat is released. If $\Delta H > 0$, the reaction is endothermic, and heat is absorbed. If the reaction takes place in a thermally insulated container, an endothermic reaction lowers the temperature and an exothermic reaction increases it.

Example 2.3. Let's consider the combustion reaction of carbon

$$
C(s) + O2(g) \rightarrow CO2(g).
$$
\n(2.12)

At the initial state of the process A the reactants carbon $C(s)$ and oxygen $O_2(g)$ are not yet reacting. At the final state of the process B carbon and oxygen have reacted and formed carbon dioxide.

When the initial and final states of the combustion reaction are at the standard state T $= 298.15$ K and $p = 1.0$ bar, the reaction enthalpy becomes

$$
\Delta H = \Delta H^{\circ} = H(B) - H(A) = -393.5 \text{ kJ/mol},
$$

where mole corresponds to the number of gross reactions according to the combustion reaction equation, which in this case is the same as the amount of carbon C(s) or oxygen $O_2(g)$ consumed or carbon dioxide $CO_2(g)$ formed during the reaction in moles. Therefore, the number of these written reactions occurring is equal to one mole, i.e. the Avogadro number 6.023 $\cdot 10^{23}$ ^{*}). The enthalpy at the initial state is H(A) $= H(C(s)) + H(O_2(g))$ and at the final state $H(B) = H(CO_2(g))$. The notation ΔH° means that the reaction enthalpy is defined at the standard state.

Example 2.4. The gross reaction of combustion of propane gas is

 $C_3H_8(g) + 5O_2(g) \rightarrow 3CO_2(g) + 4H_2O(\ell)$

and the stated reaction enthalpy at the standard state is $\Delta H^0(298.15K) = -2220$ kJ/mol. The mole corresponds to the number of gross reactions according to the equation above, which in this case is equal to the amount of combusted propane gas $C_3H_8(g)$ in moles.

^{*}) A mole is equal to the Avogadro number, i.e. 1 mol $\equiv 6.023 \cdot 10^{23}$. It is therefore an abbreviation quantity similar to for example million.

2.3 Enthalpy of formation

The combustion reaction of carbon $C(s) + O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g)$ is an example of a formation reaction for carbon dioxide. Enthalpy of formation of a chemical compound ΔHf° is the enthalpy change between the compound at the standard state and its reference state, where its elements are in a stable form. The enthalpy of formation is dependent on temperature: $\Delta H_f^{\circ}(T)$. The lower index f denotes the word formation. For example, the enthalpy of formation of liquid water at the standard state (table 2.1) at a temperature of 25 °C is $\Delta H_f^O(l;298.15 \text{ K}) = -285.830 \text{ kJ/mol}$ and accordingly, the enthalpy of formation of water vapor at the same temperature is $\Delta Hf^O(g; 298.15 \text{ K}) = -241.826 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (table 2.1 or table 1.1). According to the definition, the enthalpy of formation at the reference state is zero, for example $\Delta H f^{\circ}(O_2(g)) = 0.$

The enthalpy of formation of a compound depicts the total amount of energy absorbed or released to the environment by a process occurring at constant temperature and pressure. If ΔH_f° is positive, energy is required to form the compound.

	ΔH_f° (MJ/kmol)		ΔH_f° (MJ/kmol)
CO ₂ (g)	-393.505	SO ₂ (g)	-296.813
CO(g)	-110.541	SO ₃ (g)	-395.765
$H_2O(g)$	-241.826	NO(g)	90.291
$H_2O(\Lambda)$	-285.830	NO ₂ (g)	33.095
CH ₄ (g)	-74.873	$N_2O(g)$	82.048
$C_2H_6(g)$	-84.684	NH ₃ (g)	-45.940
$C_3H_8(g)$	-103.847	HCN(g)	-135.143
$C_4H_{10}(g)$	-126.148	CaO	-635.089
$H_2S(g)$	-20.502	CaCO ₃ (calcite)	-1206.921
COS(g)	-138.407	Ca(OH) ₂	-986.085

Table 2.1. Enthalpies of formation for a selection of substances [3] at the standard state (p = 100 kPa) at a temperature of T = 298.15 K.

The enthalpy h(T,p) (J/mol) of gases, pure solid substance and pure liquid at the standard state is denoted as $h^{\circ}(T)$ [often in tables as $H^{\circ}(T)$]. Its value at the starting point of an enthalpy scale $(T_0, p_0 = p^0)$ is defined as the value of enthalpy of formation

$$
h^{o}(T_{o}) = h(T_{o}, p_{o}) = \Delta H_{f}^{o}(T_{o}).
$$
\n(2.13)

When using the enthalpy scale agreement 1° presented in section 1.3, a common agreement is that $T_0 = 298.15$ K.

The deeper meaning of equation (2.13) is that by using enthalpies of formation the composing of impossible absolute internal energy and enthalpy scales can be avoided. This is proven in the following example where the reaction enthalpy of the combustion of propane gas is defined with the enthalpies of formation. In other words, the example shows why enthalpies based on the definition (2.13) yield correct values of enthalpies of reaction.

__

Example 2.5. For the reaction

$$
C_3H_8(g) + 5O_2(g) \rightarrow 3CO_2(g) + 4H_2O(\ell)
$$

the reaction enthalpy at the standard state at a temperature of T according to the definition is

$$
\Delta H^{O=}[3\,h^o(CO_2(g))+4\,h^o(H_2O(\ell))]-h^o(C_3H_8(g))+5\,h^o(O_2(g))],
$$

where quantities $h^{\circ}(CO_2(g))$,..., $h^{\circ}(O_2(g))$ depict the enthalpies of the components at the standard state expressed with a physically correct common energy scale. We can assume that such scale exists or that at least in principle such a scale can be composed.

The expression of reaction enthalpy can be written in the following equivalent form

$$
\Delta H^{\circ} = [3\{ h^{\circ}(CO_2(g)) - h^{\circ}(C(s)) - h^{\circ}(O_2(g)) \} + 4\{ h^{\circ}(H_2O(l)) - h^{\circ}(H_2(g)) - 1/2 h^{\circ}(O_2(g)) \}] - [\{ h^{\circ}(C_3H_8(g)) - 3h^{\circ}(C(s)) - 4h^{\circ}(H_2(g)) \} + 5\{ h^{\circ}(O_2(g)) - h^{\circ}(O_2(g)) \}],
$$

since the enthalpy terms $h^{\circ}(C(s))$, $h^{\circ}(O_2(g))$ ja $h^{\circ}(H_2(g))$ of the elements present in the equation balance each other out. On the other hand, the expressions in round brackets in the equation are exactly the same as the enthalpies of formation of the compounds:

$$
\Delta H_f^O(CO_2(g)) = h^o(CO_2(g)) - h^o(C(s)) - h^o(O_2(g))
$$

\n
$$
\Delta H_f^O(H_2O(l)) = h^o(H_2O(l)) - h^o(H_2(g)) - 1/2 h^o(O_2(g))
$$

\n
$$
\Delta H_f^O(C_3H_8(g)) = h^o(C_3H_8(g)) - 3h^o(C(s)) - 4h^o(H_2(g))
$$

\n
$$
\Delta H_f^O(O_2(g)) = h^o(O_2(g)) - h^o(O_2(g)).
$$

When both the reactants and the products are at the standard state at a temperature of T, the equation can be written as

$$
\begin{aligned} \Delta H^o&=3\ \Delta H_f^o(CO_2(g))+4\ \Delta H_f^o(H_2O(I))\cdot \Delta H_f^o(C_3H_8(g))\\ &\quad \cdot 5\ \Delta H_f^o(O_2(g))\end{aligned}
$$

and with enthalpies according to the enthalpy scale agreement 2° (T_o=T) and the definition (2.13), $\Delta H^{\circ} = 3 h^{\circ} [CO_2(g)] + 4 h^{\circ} [H_2O(l)] - h^{\circ} [C_3H_8(g)] - 5 h^{\circ} [O_2(g)],$ which proves the usefulness of the definition (2.13).

__

Was it a pure coincidence that the decomposition done in the example, which was used to form enthalpies of formation in the round brackets, is identical with the reaction equation? No. By decomposing the elements of each compound it can be always shown that the element terms cancel each other since there is an equal amount of moles on both sides of the reaction equation. This is a direct result of the element balance. A reaction equation is one way to represent element balance. When the enthalpies of the elements according to the mole amounts are reduced from the enthalpy terms, they cancel each other when calculating the enthalpy difference between the initial and final states according to the element balance, given that the temperatures are the same. This procedure is therefore universal when calculating the reaction enthalpy.

Example 2.6. Let's calculate the reaction enthalpy of the combustion reaction of propane gas $C_3H_8(g) + 5O_2(g) \rightarrow 3CO_2(g) + 4H_2O(\ell)$ at T=T_o = 298.15 K using the enthalpies of formation:

 $C_3H_8(g; 298.15 \text{ K}), \Delta H_f^{\circ} = -103.8 \text{ kJ/mol}$ O₂(g; 298.15 K), $\Delta H_f^o = 0$ CO₂(g; 298.15 K), ΔH_f° = - 393.5 kJ/mol $H_2O(\ell ; 298.15 \text{ K}), \Delta H_f^{\Omega} = -285.8 \text{ kJ/mol}$ and therefore $\Delta H^{O}(298.15 \text{ K}) = [3(-393.5) + 4(-285.8)] - [1(-103.8) + 5 \cdot 0] =$ $= -2220$ kJ/mol.

When analyzing reactions where the temperatures at the initial and final states are not equal, the enthalpies of the compounds at different temperatures are needed. In this case, the enthalpy difference between reactants and products cannot be calculated as in examples 2.5-2.6 (enthalpy scale agreement 2° , section 1.3) only based on the

enthalpies of formation, even if they are known at different temperatures. In the next section, defining enthalpies according to the enthalpy scale agreement 1° is discussed.

2.4 Enthalpy scale agreement 1^o for a chemically reacting compound

2.4.1 Temperature dependence of enthalpy and specific heat capacity

If the enthalpy of formation and specific heat capacity are known, the enthalpy at the standard state at a given temperature can be written according to equations (2.10) and (2.13) as

$$
h(T, po) = ho(T) = \Delta Hfo(To) + \int_{To}^{T} cpo(T)dT.
$$
 (2.14)

where a notation $c_p(T, p^{\circ}) = c_p^{\circ}(T)$ is used. The equation (2.14) follows the enthalpy agreement 1[°] presented in section 1.3, according to which the starting point of the enthalpy scale is set at a temperature of T_o and at the starting point of the scale $h^{\circ}(T_{o}) = \Delta H_{f}^{\circ}(T_{o})$ o $_0$ / $-\Delta \mathbf{H}_{\text{f}}$ 0 (T_o) = ΔH_{f}^{0} (T_o).

In tables the integral term is often already calculated in the form

$$
h^o(T) - h^o(T_o) \equiv \int_{T_o}^{T} c_p^o(T) dT,
$$

which results in

$$
h^{o}(T) = \Delta H_{f}^{o}(T_{o}) + [h^{o}(T) - h^{o}(T_{o})].
$$
 (2.15)

The term $[h^{\circ}(T)-h^{\circ}(T_0)]$ is called *sensible enthalpy* or *table enthalpy*. In chapter 12, where combustion is discussed, the table enthalpies of important gases related to combustion are presented.

In the case of a phase change from phase I to phase II at a temperature of T_{tr} , for example the liquification of a substance, the enthalpy change taking place during the phase change ΔH_{tr} ° has to be added to equation (2.14):

$$
h(T,p^{\circ}) = \Delta H_f^{\circ}(T_o) + \underbrace{\int_{T_o}^{T_{tr}} c_{p,l}^{\circ}(T) dT}_{\substack{\text{temperature rise} \\ \text{of phase I T}_o \to T_{tr}}} + \underbrace{\Delta H_{tr}^{\circ}(T_{tr})}_{\substack{\text{phase change} \\ \text{between phases} \\ \text{I and II}}} + \underbrace{\int_{T_{tr}}^{T} c_{p,l}^{\circ}(T) dT}_{\substack{\text{temperature rise} \\ \text{of phase II T}_{tr} \to T}}_{\substack{\text{inference}}}
$$

Example 2.7. Aluminum oxide $(\alpha - Al_2O_3)$, crystal (delta)) is a heat resistant ceramic substance. Calculate its enthalpy at temperatures of 273.15 K and 1000 K.

__

The reference state of the compound is crystalline aluminum metal Al(cr) and oxygen gas $O_2(g)$. From table 2.2 we can see at a temperature of $T₀ = 298.15K$ (in Janaf tables T_0 is denoted with the symbol T_r)

 $\Delta H^{\circ}(T_{\Omega}) = -1666.487 \text{ kJ/mol}.$

At a temperature of $T_0 = 298.15$ K the specific heat capacity of aluminum oxide is

 $c_p(T_0) = 81.385$ J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹.

The enthalpy of aluminum oxide at a temperature of 273.15 K is according to equation (2.14)

> $h(T=273.15 \text{ K}, p^{\circ}) = -1666.487 + 81.385 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot (273.15 - 298.15)$ $=$ - 1668.522 kJ/mol.

Specific heat capacity c_p is highly dependent on the temperature. For example, for aluminum oxide at a temperature of 600 K it is $c_p = 115.92$ J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹. Therefore, the enthalpy at 1000 K is best defined with a beforehand calculated tabulated integral based on equation (2.15). From the table we can easily see that

 $h^O(1000 \text{ K}) - h^O(T_o) = 80.304 \text{ kJ/mol} (T_o = 298.15 \text{ K})$

and with equation (2.15) the enthalpy is

 $h(T = 1000 \text{ K}, p^{\circ}) = -1666.487 + 80.304 = -1586.183 \text{ kJ/mol}.$

Enthalpy per unit mass is accordingly

 $h(T = 1000 \text{ K}, p^{\circ}) = -1586.183/0.10196 = -15.56 \text{ MJ/kg},$

where $M_{A12O3} = 0.10196$ kg/mol.

Specific heat capacities c_p of gases at different temperatures are presented in table 2.3. For monatomic gases, so called noble gases, the specific heat capacity is independent on the temperature. For example, for argon gas $c_p = 20.786 \text{ J/(molK)}$.

__

In table 2.4 standard enthalpy values $h^o(T)$ of gases at different temperatures based on the equation (2.14) are presented. When calculating the integral expression, the

$\frac{\lambda}{4}H^8(298.15 \text{ K}) = -1666.5 \pm 4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ $\frac{\lambda}{4}U_8H^8 = \{93.3\} \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ $A_{e}H^{\circ}$ (0 K) = [-1653.9 ± 4]
calometric result. Both samples of $4-h1_2$ O ₃ had been obtained by rapid quenching from high temperature, one (2) from combustion of ysalda L _i N'(200.15 K) = 2,2 kcal mol ⁻¹ z3 -o our sobred functions. Tokokam and Kleppa (2) determined A ₂ N° for the two crystalline forms from the difference in their bette of solution in an ostde molt a: 978 K. DTA st h_1^{μ} is calculated from that of $c_1h_1/2$ (1) using h_1^{μ} (978 K) = -2.7:0.4 kcal mol ⁻¹ for the irreversible process 6.4. K, we derive $b_pH^*(298.15 K) = -1.9$ kcal mol ⁻¹ . This confirms the
C_2 is assumed to be 35 larger than that of a -Al 2^0 (1) by comparison with the observed values for ϵ -Al 2^0 (1) and the adopted whise 10^2 (1) and the adopted whise T_{100} and T_{100} and T_{100} and ϵ either (y or y-8 by Lippens and Steggerda (5). DTA data of Alevra et al. (6) showed an endotherm near 750°C subsequent to n+6. This temperature corresponds roughly to processes designated as Marchidan et al. (4) measured enthalpy data (573-1177 K) for a sample designated only as 7A-600 alumina.
mus, we onlt the enthalpy data (4) on the presumption that they are larger than those of our standard state which is anhydrous a- the dehydration of hydroxide samples; however, TGA data indicted that the resulting alumina still retained considerable water at 4.7:0.35 larger than those of $a-M2O3$ (1) and presumably correspond to $6-4.22$ used in L_1 ¹ studies was presumably essentially anhydrous.
Delta-alumina is one of several structurally related, metastable forms. thermally activated at tempertures of 800°-1050°C for the first step (5, e-Alog formed by the two methods. Recent data (B) for e-Alog (B) suggest a similar controversy. Delta-alumina belongs to the "mearly anhydrous", high-temperature classification (B) based on the temperature of 600° to 900°C dehydration. Mixtures of the closely related &- and a-aluminas are also formed by rapid cooling of droplets of molten alumina following their passage through a flame (2). There is some controversy (5) over the X-ray data and unit-cell dimensions of due to their importance in adsorbents and catalysts. Lippens and e forms, their crystal stuctures and conditions of formatton by
is calculated as the temperature at which Δ_r ^G ^o (5+1)=0. Δ_{f} _{US} H ^o is the
т. Yokokawa and O. J. Kleppa, J. Phys. Chem. 68, 3246 (1964); J. Amer. Chem. Soc. 68, 3246 (1964). C. Lippens and J. J. Steggerda in "Physical and Chemical Aspects of Adsorbents and Catalysts,"

Table 2.2. Aluminum oxide (α *- Al₂O₃, crystal (delta)).*
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temperature dependence is taken into account with a power series according to the database of the HSC software. The starting point of the enthalpy scale in table 2.4 is $T_0 = 298.15$ K.

The standard state of gases is defined according to the ideal gas state. Since the enthalpy of an ideal gas is not dependent on the pressure or the composition of the gas mixture, tabulated values of h° (H° in Janaf tables) correspond to values of enthalpy of ideal gases at any pressure other than the standard pressure p^o . The enthalpy of an ideal gas is also not dependent on the mole amounts in the mixture and therefore values of h° can be used for the components of an ideal gas mixture.

These enthalpies are very convenient in calculations since they include the energy changes associated with reactions.

Table 2.3. Specific heat capacities cp of gases.

T	T							$J/(mol*K)$							
с	K	CH ₄	C2H6	C3H8	C4H10	H ₂	$_{\rm CO}$	N2	Ar	O ₂	CO ₂	H2S	H2O	\cos	NH ₃
25	298.15	34.96	52.39	73.46	98.25	28.88	29.11	29.11	20.78	29.15	37.46	34.17	33.56	41.71	35.54
26.85	300	35.07	52.87	74.19	98.83	28.88	29.11	29.11	20.78	29.17	37.53	34.19	33.57	41.79	35.60
76.85	350	38.10	63.85	90.77	113.34	29.03	29.22	29.15	20.78	29.75	39.40	34.86	33.92	43.75	37.27
126.85	400	41.09	72.17	103.17	126.15	29.13	29.39	29.25	20.78	30.30	41.14	35.60	34.31	45.53	38.93
176.85	450	44.03	78.91	113.10	137.82	29.20	29.61	29.41	20.78	30.81	42.77	36.39	34.76	47.14	40.57
226.85	500	46.91	84.65	121.44	148.63	29.26	29.88	29.62	20.78	31.29	44.28	37.23	35.25	48.60	42.18
276.85	550	49.72	89.70	128.72	158.75	29.31	30.17	29.87	20.78	31.75	45.68	38.09	35.77	49.92	43.76
326.85	600	52.47	94.27	135.24	168.29	29.36	30.49	30.15	20.78	32.17	46.98	38.97	36.32	51.11	45.32
376.85	650	55.14	98.46	141.19	177.29	29.41	30.82	30.45	20.78	32.57	48.19	39.87	36.90	52.18	46.84
426.85	700	57.72	102.37	146.69	185.80	29.48	31.16	30.76	20.78	32.95	49.31	40.76	37.49	53.14	48.33
476.85	750	60.23	106.04	151.84	193.85	29.56	31.50	31.08	20.78	33.30	50.34	41.64	38.11	54.00	49.78
526.85	800	62.64	109.52	156.69	201.46	29.65	31.85	31.40	20.78	33.63	51.29	42.50	38.73	54.77	51.19
576.85	850	64.97	112.83	161.29	208.64	29.76	32.18	31.72	20.78	33.94	52.17	43.35	39.36	55.47	52.57
626.85	900	67.20	115.99	165.67	215.40	29.89	32.51	32.04	20.78	34.22	52.97	44.17	40.00	56.09	53.90
676.85	950	69.34	119.02	169.84	221.75	30.04	32.83	32.35	20.78	34.50	53.71	44.97	40.64	56.65	55.19
726.85	1000	71.38	121.93	173.84	227.69	30.20	33.13	32.65	20.78	34.75	54.38	45.73	41.27	57.14	56.44
776.85	1050	73.33	124.72	177.67	233.24	30.37	33.42	32.94	20.78	34.99	55.00	46.46	41.90	57.59	57.65
826.85	1100	75.18	127.41	181.34	238.39	30.56	33.69	33.21	20.78	35.21	55.56	47.16	42.53	58.00	58.81
876.85	1150	76.94	129.99	184.86	243.14	30.76	33.94	33.48	20.78	35.42	56.08	47.82	43.14	58.36	59.93
926.85	1200	78.61	132.48	188.24	247.50	30.96	34.18	33.72	20.78	35.62	56.54	48.45	43.75	58.69	61.01
976.85	1250	80.18	134.87	191.48	251.46	31.18	34.40	33.95	20.78	35.80	56.97	49.05	44.34	58.99	62.04
1026.85	1300	81.66	137.17	194.60	255.04	31.40	34.61	34.17	20.78	35.98	57.35	49.61	44.92	59.26	63.03
1076.85	1350	83.06	139.38	197.58	258.23	31.62	34.79	34.37	20.78	36.15	57.70	50.13	45.48	59.51	63.98
1126.85	1400	84.36	141.51	200.43	261.04	31.85	34.97	34.55	20.78	36.30	58.02	50.62	46.03	59.74	64.89

Example 2.8. The combustion reaction of methane is

 $CH_4(g) + 2O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(g)$

and its reaction enthalpy can be determined directly from table 2.4. Let's calculate its value at $T₀ = 298.15$ K according to table 2.4:

$$
\Delta H^{\circ} = h^{\circ} [CO_2] + 2h^{\circ} [H_2O] - h^{\circ} [CH_4] - 2h^{\circ} [O_2]
$$

= - 393.51 + 2 \cdot (-241.83) - (-74.87) - 2 \cdot 0

CO ₂	hiil	dioksidi	-393.51	-393.44	-391.51	-389.45	-387.28	-385.03	-382.72	-380.35	-377.93	-375.46	-372.96	-370.41	-367.84	-365.23	-362.58	-359.91	-357.22	-354.49	-351.74	-348.97	-346.17	-343.35	-340.51	-337.65	-334.78	-331.88
S	hiil	monoksidi	-110.54	-110.49	-109.02	-107.55	-106.08	-104.59	-103.08	-101.57	-100.04	-98.50	-96.94	-95.37	-93.78	-92.19	-90.57	-88.95	-87.31	-85.66	-84.00	-82.33	-80.64	-78.94	-77.24	-75.52	-73.79	-72.05
$\ddot{\mathbb{L}}$	View		0.00	0.05	1.51	2.96	4.42 5.88		7.34	8.81	10.27	11.74	13.22 14.70		16.19	17.68					20.69 22.21 23.73 25.26	26.81	28.36	29.92	31.50	33.08	34.67	36.28
CH ₃ OH	metanoli		-201.87	-201.79	199.50	-197.02	-194.34	-191.47	-188.40	-185.14	-181.71	-178.11	-174.34	-170.42	-166.37	-162.18	-157.87	-153.45	-148.94	-144.33	-139.65	134.90	-130.09	-125.24	-120.36	115.45	-110.53	-105.61
C4H10	2-metyyli-	propaani	-134.73	-134.55	-129.69	-124.82	-119.96	-115.10	-110.23	-105.37	-100.51	-95.64	-90.78	-85.91	-81.05	-76.19	-71.32	-66.46	-61.60	-56.73	-51.87	-47.01	-42.14	-37.28	-32.42	-27.55	-22.69	-17.83
C4H10	iso-	butaani	-134.61	-134.43	-129.17	-123.24	-116.68	-109.55	-101.86	-93.65	-84.96	-75.81	-66.24	-56.27	-45.94	-35.27	-24.29	-13.03	-1.52	10.20	22.12	34.21	46.42	58.75	71.15	83.59	96.06	108.52
C4H ₁₀	n-butaani		-126.15	-125.97	-120.70	-114.80	-108.30	-101.22	-93.60	-85.46	-76.83	-67.74	-58.22	-48.30	-38.01	-27.38	-16.44	-5.21	6.27	17.98	29.88	41.94	54.15	66.45	78.84	91.28	103.73	116.17
C_3H_8	propeeni		-103.85	-103.71	-99.72	-95.19	-90.18	-84.73	-78.86	-72.60	-65.97	-58.99	-51.69	-44.07	-36.16	-27.98	-19.55	-10.87	-1.98	7.12	16.41	25.87	35.48	45.23	55.10	65.07	75.13	85.26
C ₃ H ₈	propaani			-103.93 -103.79																						.26		74.06 83.88
C_2H_6	etaani		-84.68	-84.59	-81.77	-78.63	-75.16	-71.40	-67.35	-63.02	-58.44	-53.61	-48.54	43.25	-37.74	-32.04	-26.16	-20.10	-13.87	-7.50	-0.99	5.64	12.39	19.24	26.18	33.20	40.28	47.41
CH ₄	metaani		-74.87	-74.81	-72.97	-70.98	-68.85	-66.58	-64.16	-61.61	-58.93	-56.11	-53.17	-50.10	-46.92	-43.62	-40.22	-36.70	-33.09	-29.38	-25.58	-21.69	-17.71	-13.66	-9.53	-5.34	-1.08	3.25
	$\boldsymbol{\times}$		298.15	300		350 400	450	500	550	600		650		7500	850	900	950	1000	1050	1100	1150	1200	1250	1300	1350	1400	1450	1500

Table 2.4. Values of standard enthalpy $h^o(T)$ (kJ/mol) for different gases. Source: *HSC.*

SO ₃ rikki-		trioksidi															
SO ₂ rikki-		dioksidi	-296.81 -296.74														
NO ₂ typpi-		dioksid															
NO _{typpi}		nonoksic															
NH ₃	Immoni-	akki															
HCN vety-		syanidi															
COS karbonyyli-		sulfidi															
H ₂ O vesi				-241.83 -241.77			$\begin{array}{l} 85\, \text{\scriptsize{5}}\, \text{\scriptsize{6}}\, \text{\scriptsize{7}}\, \text{\scriptsize{7}}\, \text{\scriptsize{8}}\, \text{\scriptsize{7}}\, \text{\scriptsize{8}}\, \text{\scriptsize{9}}\, \text{\scriptsize{8}}\, \text{\scriptsize{9}}\, \text{\scriptsize{1}}\, \text{\scriptsize{1}}$										
H ₂ S rikkivety				-20.50 -20.44			$28998998888898888887588588885274$										
λr	mopre																
O ₂ happi																	
N ₂ typpi							$885571458837148838384838383838383838$										
				298.15 300													

Table 2.4 (continued).

 $= -802.30$ kJ/mol,

which is equal to the so-called heat of combustion for methane gas.

Example 2.9. Calculate the reaction enthalpy of the combustion reaction of propane gas

__

$$
\underbrace{C_3H_8(g)+5O_2(g)}_{A} \rightarrow \underbrace{3CO_2(g)+4H_2O(g)}_{B}
$$
\n(2.17)

at a temperature of 450 K using the average specific heat capacity values at a temperature range of 298.15-400 K and compare the result with the value calculated using table 2.4. First, let's calculate the enthalpies of different compounds with enthalpies of formation and average specific heat capacities (table 2.3)

C3Hg(g),
$$
h^{\circ} = \Delta H^{\circ}f(T_0) + \overline{c}^{\circ}_{p}(T - T_0) = -105.8 + 93.2 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot (450 - 298.15)
$$

\n= -91.65 kJ/mol
\nCO2(g), $h^{\circ} = -393.5 + 40.2 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot (450 - 298.15) = -387.05 \text{ kJ/mol}$
\nO2(g), $h^{\circ} = 0 + 30.0 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot (450 - 298.15) = + 4.55 \text{ kJ/mol}$
\nH2O(g), $h^{\circ} = -241.8 + 34.2 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot (450 - 298.15) = -236.61 \text{ kJ/mol}$
\n $\Delta H^{\circ} = H(B) - H(A) =$
\n $\left\{ 3h^{\circ} [CO_{2}(g)] + 4h^{\circ} [H_{2}O(g)] \right\} - \left\{ h^{\circ} [C_{3}H_{8}(g)] + 5h^{\circ} [O_{2}(g)] \right\}$
\n $\Delta H^{\circ} = \left\{ 3 \cdot (-387.05) + 4 \cdot (-236.61) \right\} - \left\{ (-91.65) + 5 \cdot 4.55 \right\} \text{ kJ/mol}$
\n= -2012 kJ/mol.

The same calculation using values in table 2.4

$$
\Delta H^{\circ} = [3 \cdot (-387.42) + 4 \cdot (-236.64)] - [(-90.62) + 5 \cdot 4.56] = -2041 \text{ kJ/mol}.
$$

The result calculated with table 2.4 is naturally more accurate since its enthalpies have been calculated with consideration to the temperature dependence of specific heat capacity.

__

Table 2.4 is excellent when calculating for example gas reactors. The enthalpies of gases entering and exiting the reactor at given temperatures can be found directly in table 2.4 and the power of heat absorbed or emitted by the reactor can be calculated with the difference in the enthalpy streams.

Example 2.10. Calculate the heat released in reaction (2.17) when propane gas and oxygen enter the reactor at a temperature of 350K and the products carbon dioxide and water vapor exit it at a temperature of 450K. From table 2.4 we get that

__

 $\Delta H^{\circ} = [3(-387.42) + 4 \cdot (-236.64)] - [(-100.90) + 5 \cdot 1.53] =$ - 2015.57 kJ/mol

which means that the power of heat released is 2016 kW when 1 mol/s of propane gas is combusted.

__

Example 2.11. Table 2.4 is also very convenient when analyzing for example flue gas losses. In an example presented later in chapter 12 the composition of flue gases for a certain light fuel oil has been calculated with an air factor of 1.15 per one kilogram of fuel:

> O2 15.6 mol/kg fuel Ar 5.3 mol/kg fuel N_2 451.3 mol/kg fuel $CO₂$ 71.5 mol/kg fuel H2O 67.8 mol/kg fuel

If the flue gases exit the boiler at a temperature of 450 K, how much additional power would be gained if the flue gases were cooled to 350 K, when the amount of oil combusted is 0.2 kg/s? Additional energy gained per one kilogram of oil combusted is

__

$$
\Delta H^{\circ} = \sum_{i} n_{i} [h_{i} (450 \text{K}) - h_{i} (350 \text{K})]
$$

= 15.6(4.56 - 1.53) + 451.3(4.44 - 1.51)
+ 71.5[-387.42 - (-391.53)]
+ 67.8[-236.64 - (-240.08)]
+ 5.3(3.16 - 1.08)
= 1.908 \cdot 10³ kJ/kg fuel

and therefore, the additional power is

$$
\phi = 0.2 \text{ kg/s} \cdot 1.908 \cdot 10^3 \text{ kJ/kg} = 382 \text{ kW}.
$$

Example 2.12. Flue gas loss means the enthalpy stream along with flue gases compared to a situation where the flue gases would exit at the standard state temperature of 25 °C. In the previous example the flue gas losses when the flue gases exit at a temperature of 350 K can be calculated using table 2.4 with:

$$
\Delta H^{\circ} = \sum_{i} n_{i} \left[h_{i}^{\circ} (350K) - h_{i}^{\circ} (298.15K) \right]
$$

= 15.6(1.53 - 0) + 451.3(1.51 - 0)
+ 71.5[(-391.53) - (-393.52)]
+ 67.8[(-240.08) - (-241.83)]
+ 5.3(1.08 - 0) = 972.0 kJ/kg fuel.

The flue gas losses are $\phi = 0.2 \cdot 972.0 = 194.4 \text{ kW}$. These examples are further discussed in chapter 4 and calculations based on tabulated enthalpies and heating values of fuels are also presented.

__

2.4.2 Pressure dependence of enthalpy and specific heat capacity

Generally, the specific heat capacity of a compound is also dependent on pressure: c_p $= c_p(T,p)$. According to equation (2.8)

$$
\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{p}} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{T} \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{T}},\tag{2.18}
$$

differentiating the definition of specific heat capacity

$$
c_p=\frac{\partial h}{\partial T}
$$

with respect to pressure and taking into account equation (2.18) results in

$$
\frac{\partial c_p}{\partial p} = \frac{\partial}{\partial p} \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial T} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial p} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \left(v - T \frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right) = \frac{\partial v}{\partial T} - \frac{\partial v}{\partial T} - T \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial T^2}.
$$

The pressure dependence of specific heat capacity is therefore

$$
\frac{\partial c_p}{\partial p} = -T \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial T^2}
$$
 (2.19)

where $v = v(T,p)$ is molar specific volume (m³/mol).

Example 2.13. According to the ideal gas law

$$
\frac{V}{N} = v(T, p) = RT/p,
$$
\n(2.20)

where $R = 8.314$ J/(mol K). Therefore,

$$
\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{T}^2} = 0
$$

and for an ideal gas

$$
c_p(T,p) = c_p(T). \tag{2.21}
$$

For a real gas $\partial^2 v / \partial T^2 \neq 0$ and therefore c_p is also a function of pressure. A gas acts like an ideal gas the further the gas is from the critical point and therefore, the specific heat capacity is only dependent on temperature. In flue gas calculations, the gases can be considered as ideal gases.

__

Similarly, the specific volume of solids and liquids is often approximately linearly dependent on temperature T. Therefore, according to equation (2.19) , c_p is only a function of temperature with high accuracy. An important exception is for example water and water vapor at high temperatures and pressures. At high pressures water vapor deviates significantly from an ideal gas. The deviation is greater the closer to the critical point the vapor is. This is also true in general for other liquids and gases near the critical point.

__

Example 2.14.

Water vapor:
$$
c_p
$$
 (573.15 K, 1.0 bar) = 2.010 $\frac{kJ}{kg K}$ = 36.18 $\frac{J}{mol K}$,

water vapor:
$$
c_p
$$
 (573.15 K, 75 bar) = 4.686 $\frac{kJ}{kg K}$ = 84.35 $\frac{J}{mol K}$,

water:
$$
c_p
$$
 (573.15 K, 100 bar) = 5.692 $\frac{kJ}{kg K}$ = 102.46 $\frac{J}{mol K}$,

water:
$$
c_p
$$
 (573.15 K, 190 bar) = 5.350 $\frac{kJ}{kg K}$ = 96.30 $\frac{J}{mol K}$.

__

__

Example 2.15. For solid substances approximately

$$
\gamma = \frac{1}{v} \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T} \right) = 10^{-5} ... 2.0 \cdot 10^{-4} \,\text{K}^{-1},\tag{2.22}
$$

and therefore, at room temperature $T = 298.15$ K the pressure dependence of enthalpy

__

$$
\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial p}\right)_{T} = v(1 - T\gamma) = (0.9970...0.9404)v.
$$
\n(2.23)

Example 2.16. For an ideal gas

$$
\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{p}}\right)_{\mathbf{T}} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{T}\frac{\mathbf{R}}{\mathbf{p}} = 0,
$$

which means that enthalpy is only dependent on temperature:

$$
h(T,p) = h(T). \tag{2.24}
$$

For non-ideal gases the specific enthalpy is a function of temperature and pressure. In addition, generally speaking the state and state functions of the components of a mixture are also dependent on the mole amounts of the components n_1, \ldots, n_m .

__

If the enthalpy of formation $\Delta H f^{\circ}(T_0)$, specific heat capacity $c_p(T,p)$ and specific volume $v(T,p)$ at the standard state are known, the enthalpy of a compound can be calculated at any temperature T_1 and pressure p_1

$$
h(T_1, p_1) = \Delta H_f^o(T_o) + \int_{T_0}^{T_1} \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial T}\right)_{p=p^o} dT + \int_{p^o}^{p_1} \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial p}\right)_{T=T_1} dp
$$
 (2.25)

i.e. with the definition T $c_p = \frac{\partial h}{\partial T}$ $=\frac{\partial h}{\partial n}$ and equation (2.18)

$$
h(T_1, p_1) = \Delta H_f^o(T_o) + \int_{T_0}^{T_1} c_p(T, p_o) dT + \int_{p_0}^{p_1} v(T_1, p) - T_1 \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T}\right)_{T=T_1} dp
$$
 (2.26)

2.5 Enthalpy at the absolute zero

When the enthalpy value is defined with equation (2.13) at a temperature of T_0 , the enthalpy of a compound or an element at the absolute zero can be calculated with equation (2.16). This enthalpy is noted as $h^{\circ}(0)$ [H^{\oure}](0) in tables]. By taking into consideration the definition (2.13), i.e. h^o(T_o) = $\Delta Hf^{\circ}(T_o)$, according to equation (2.16) we get

$$
h^{\circ}(0) - h^{\circ}(T_{o}) = \int_{T_{o}}^{T_{tr}} c_{p} dT + \Delta H^{\circ} tr(T_{tr}) + \int_{T_{tr}}^{0} c_{p} dT.
$$
 (2.27)

If a gas is analyzed, another phase change term, the crystallization of liquid and the enthalpy change associated with it, has to be added to equation (2.27). If a solid substance is analyzed, phase change terms are not necessarily present. However, a phase change in solid substances is possible between different crystal structures.

Values of $[h^{\circ}(0) - h^{\circ}(T_0)]$ are already calculated for different compounds in table books of chemical thermodynamics, as well as values of $[h^{\circ}(T) - h^{\circ}(T_0)]$ at certain temperature increments. For example, a table of values for aluminum oxide is presented below.

__

Example 2.17. Aluminum is produced from aluminum oxide (Al2O3) by heating it up to its melting point and performing an electrolysis. Calculate the amount of energy required to heat up aluminum oxide from 500 K to a temperature of 2500 K. Liquification occurs at a temperature of 2327 K, which has an endothermic heat of melting of 111.086 kJ/mol. From table 2.5 we can directly read $(T_0 = T_r = 298.15 \text{ K})$

 $h^{\circ}(T = 500 \text{ K})$ - $h^{\circ}(T_0) = 19.145 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (crystal, alpha (corundum))

 $h^{\circ}(T = 2500 \text{ K}) - h^{\circ}(T_{o}) = 399.143 \text{ kJ/mol}$, (liquid)

and therefore, the required amount of energy is

 $h^{\circ}(T = 2500 \text{ K}) - h^{\circ}(500 \text{ K}) = 399.143 - 19.145 = 379.998 \text{ kJ/mol}.$

As seen from the table below, this amount of energy also includes the amount of heat required by the liquification of aluminum oxide, i.e. the heat of melting at a temperature of 2327K.

__

Table 2.5. Thermodynamic properties of aluminum oxide Al2O3(cr, l) [1].

Aluminum Oxide $(A1_20_3)$

$\mathbf{A1}_2\mathbf{0}_3$ (cr,1)

$$
dh = \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial T}\right)_p dT + \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial p}\right)_T dp
$$

$$
\Delta H = \int_{298.15}^{350} c_p dT = 38.27 \cdot (350 - 298.15) = 1.984 \text{kJ/mol}
$$