

Thermodynamics And Kinetics Of Materials

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Lecture 25

Ideal and Real Solutions

Dalton's laws of partial pressure

$$p_k = X_k P \quad P - \text{Total pressure}$$
$$P = \sum_{k=1}^c p_k = \sum_{k=1}^c X_k P = P \sum_{k=1}^c X_k = P$$
$$d\bar{G}_k = d\mu_k = -\bar{S}_k dT + \bar{V}_k dP$$
$$dG = -SdT + VdP = \bar{V}_k dP$$

(∵ mixing process is isothermal)

The third part means I want to start with again as I finished. So, we had ideal gas mixture we start with ideal gas mixture and we see that p_k there is a partial pressure of component k partial pressure of component k equals to x_k times p where x_k is the mole fraction of component k . Now, p is summation of p_k k equal to 1 to c if you have c components which is summation $x_k p$ and as you can see that p summation $x_k p$ is the total pressure which is constant. So, you see p equal to p . So, it is a consistent definition in the partial. So, this is a consistent definition partial pressure equal to p .

So, mole fraction is your total pressure. Now, as you know dG equals to minus SdT plus VdP again this relation works for extensive property works for also the partial molar

property as we have already told. So, dg_k is equal to $d\mu_k$. dg_k is what the g_k is the partial molar free energy. So, $d\mu_k$ is the partial molar free energy.

So, $d\mu_k$ means differential of g_k the change or $d\mu_k$ the d of μ_k that is the differential of the chemical potential of component k . So, chemical potential is nothing, but the partial molar free energy of component k in the mixture which is equal to $-\bar{s}_k$ minus \bar{s}_k is the partial molar entropy of component k times dt plus $\bar{v}_k dp$ which is the partial molar volume of component k times dp . Now, we are basically telling the temperature is fixed let us assume that the mixing process is isothermal. Let us assume the mixing process is isothermal. We are telling mixing process occurs at a given temperature and the total pressure is p , but we are basically telling the total pressure is p and, but p is not constant, but the temperature is constant or temperature the mixing process is isothermal.

So, as a result dt will go to dt equal to 0 dt equal to 0. So, this is becoming equal to. So, $-\bar{s}_k dt$. So, this one goes to 0. So, you still have $\bar{v}_k dp$.

The image shows a handwritten derivation on a blackboard for an ideal gas. The steps are as follows:

- Ideal Gas**
- $$V = n \frac{RT}{P} = \frac{RT}{P} \sum_{k=1}^c n_k$$
- $$\bar{V}_k = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial n_k} \right)_{T, P, n_{j \neq k}} = \frac{RT}{P} \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial n_k} \right)_{n_{j \neq k}} = \frac{RT}{P}$$
- $$\int_{\mu_k^0}^{\mu_k} d\mu_k = \bar{V}_k dP$$
- $$\mu_k - \mu_k^0 = \int_P^{P_k} \bar{V}_k dP$$
- $$= RT \ln \frac{P_k}{P}$$

Additional notes in the image include $\sqrt{\frac{RT}{P}} dP$ and $RT \int \frac{dP}{P}$.

So, \bar{v}_k equals to $\bar{v}_k dp$. Now, \bar{v} the total volume v equals to $n RT$ by p because it is an ideal gas right it is an ideal gas. So, which is RT by p summation k equal to 1 to c n_k . Now, v equals to RT by p n and that is summation n_k and \bar{v}_k equals to $\frac{dV}{dn_k}$ which is nothing, but $\frac{dV}{dn_k}$ keeping p n_j not equal to k and now if

you look at that. So, it is basically $v_k \bar{v}$ is v is what $R T$ by p times n .

So, $\frac{dn}{n}$ $\frac{dn_k}{n_k}$. So, basically this is basically $\frac{dn}{n}$ $\frac{dn_k}{n_k}$ right where now here what does this mean it means that only k is in k component the mole number of k component k is varying and n_j for all other components the mole number is fixed. So, and t . So, basically t is fixed say p is fixed then this becomes equals to nothing, but $\frac{dn}{n}$ $\frac{dn_k}{n_k}$ is nothing, but 1. So, this becomes nothing, but $R T$ by p right.

So, $v_k \bar{v}$ is $R T$ by p . Now, since $d\mu_k$ equals to $v_k \bar{v} dp$ you can write $d\mu_k$ if I integrate. So, if I integrate $d\mu_k$ if I integrate $d\mu_k$ and I tell that this is pure component. So, if I tell that this is μ_k that is the solution and this is the μ_k^0 that is component k in the pure form then $\mu_k - \mu_k^0$ is equals to $p - p_k$. See p is the total pressure right and that was when it was μ_k^0 right that was the pressure that right when it is not mixed then the pressure was p when it became mixed then it became partial pressure p_k right component k only exerts partial pressure because component k has a mole fraction and mole fraction then partial pressure again becomes total pressure.

So, this is equals to $v_k \bar{v} dp$. So, this becomes $R T \ln$. So, if you do this what is $v_k \bar{v}$ $v_k \bar{v}$ is $R T$ by $p dp$. So, $R T$ by p . So, integral $R T$ by $p dp$ you can take $R T$ out and then because dp by p which is basically $R T$ integral dp by p .

So, this becomes $R T \ln p$ because p is fixed isothermal. So, if I do that. So, this is $R T \ln p$ plus some integration constant right some integration constant k_1 or k_i . Now this $R T \ln p$, but you do not require this integration constant if you have the limits right. So, p when μ_k^0 was there when μ_k^0 was there that is in the pure state you had the pressure right that was the correspondence when it is μ_k now in the mixture your pressure is p_k right.

$$\Delta \mu_k = \Delta \bar{G}_k = RT \ln X_k$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = R \ln X_k$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k} = \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k} = 0$$

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

$$\Delta \bar{S}_k = - \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = - \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = - R \ln X_k$$

So, p_k is the partial pressure of component k so this becomes $RT \ln p_k$ by p right. So, $\mu_k - \mu_k^0$ becomes $RT \ln p_k$ by p . Now p_k is $x_k p$. So, $\Delta \mu_k$ which is $\mu_k - \mu_k^0$ or which is equal to $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ which is relative partial molar free energy or this is relative change in chemical potential you can call it due to mixing of component k due to mixing which is $\mu_k - \mu_k^0$ which is equal to $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ is nothing, but $RT \ln x_k$ because p_k by p p_k by this implies p_k by p equal to x_k mole fraction of component k . So, $\Delta \mu_k$ which is $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ is $RT \ln x_k$.

Now you see $\frac{\partial \mu_k}{\partial T}$ $\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T}$ at p, n_k is nothing, but $\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T}$ right that is this one right. So, same thing which is now it is like $\frac{\partial RT \ln x_k}{\partial T}$. So, basically if that is so this becomes $R \ln x_k$ right this becomes because n_k is fixed right. So, this becomes $R \ln x_k$ see. So, from $\Delta \mu_k$ I got the derivative with respect to temperature which is nothing, but $R \ln x_k$.

$$\Delta \mu_k = RT \ln X_k$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = R \ln X_k$$

$$\Delta \bar{S}_k = - \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = - \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k}$$

$$= - R \ln X_k$$

$$0 < X_k < 1 \quad > 0$$

Now $\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k}$ now is nothing, but as you can see there is no P term. So, basically so with respect to P the variation in the partial molar free energy or variation the chemical the change in chemical potential due to mixing is equal to 0 right because $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ is $RT \ln X_k$ or $\Delta \mu_k$ is $RT \ln X_k$. So, with respect to P if I take a partial derivative then with respect to P there is no term. So, this becomes equal to 0. So, you have these two terms and what you know $\Delta \bar{S}_k$ if you look at this equation $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ goes to $\Delta \bar{G}_k$.

So, basically $\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = - \Delta \bar{S}_k$ right $\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = - \Delta \bar{S}_k$. So, basically you can if you can write the same thing. So, $\Delta \bar{S}_k$ equals to minus $\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k}$. So, this means that this relation also follows $\Delta \bar{S}_k$ equals to minus of the negative of the partial derivative of the relative partial molar Gibbs free energy right the negative of the partial derivative of relative of the relative partial molar Gibbs free energy with respect to temperature right. So, this relation follows right because $\Delta \bar{S}_k$ equals to minus $\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k}$ right.

So, this is what exactly we are writing here. So, this is P and we are writing n_k . Now if that is so then this becomes minus of. So, this $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ and $\Delta \mu_k$ is the same. So, this becomes equals to minus because this we know as since we know that this guy equal to $R \ln X_k$.

So, now, here this is only a negative sign that is missing. So, this is a negative sign and the same thing that is this comes in. So, this becomes minus $R \ln x_k$. Actually this becomes minus $R \ln x_k$. So, if you see this, this is actually quite interesting because see x_k is mole fraction.

So, x_k has to be. So, if you see that what did you get we got $\Delta \mu_k$ which is $R T \ln x_k$ and then $\Delta \mu_k$ at constant pressure and n_k equals to $R \ln x_k$. Then Δs_k bar equals to minus of $\Delta \mu_k$ right from the definition right because $\Delta \mu_k$ is nothing, but minus Δg_k bar right Δt at constant pressure and n_k which is equals to minus right because $\Delta \mu_k$ is $R \ln x_k$. So, this is minus of $R \ln x_k$. Now, see x_k the maximum value can be 1. Now, if it is 1 then $R \ln 1$ becomes Δs_k becomes 0 Δs_k bar becomes 0 right, but x_k is not really 1 if you have multi component.

So, if you have multi components s_k is always less than 1. So, $\ln x_k$ when x_k is less than 1 x_k is between 0 and 1. So, basically x_k is between 0 and 1 then $\ln x_k$ is negative R and there is a minus sign here. So, R is positive $R \ln x_k$ is negative R is positive and then there is a minus sign. So, this has to be greater than 0 right.

So, this has to be greater than 0. So, this is what you can always check ok. What you are deriving does it make sense? Yes, the entropy of mixing the partial. So, the partial molar the change in partial molar entropy due to mixing the change in partial molar entropy of component k due to mixing has to be greater than 0 right has to be greater than 0 and this is what we are proving because we are getting minus $R \ln x_k$ right for the this ideal gas mixture.

Ideal solution - Ideal gas mixture

$$\Delta S_{m, \text{mix}} = -R \sum_{i=1}^c X_i \ln X_i$$

$$\Delta G_{m, \text{mix}} = RT \sum_{i=1}^c X_i \ln X_i$$

$$\Delta H_{m, \text{mix}} = 0$$

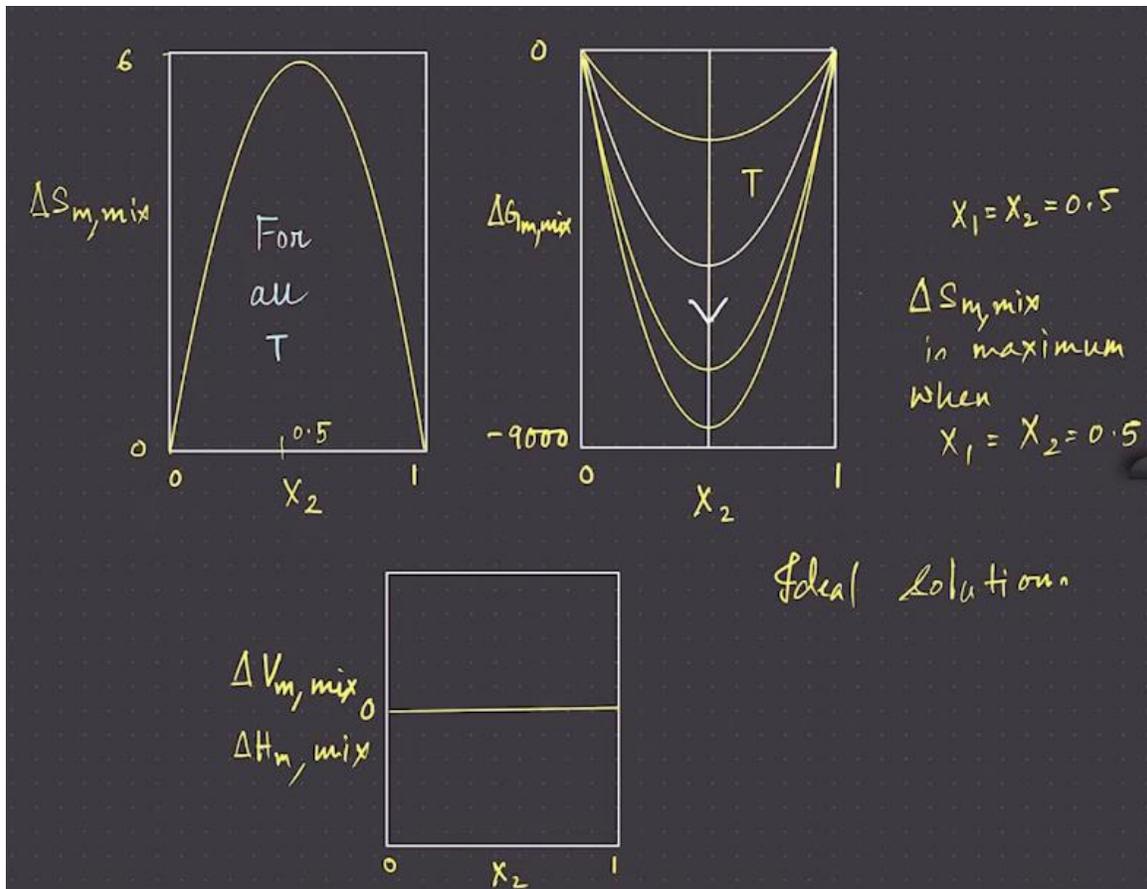
$$\Delta G_m = \Delta H_m - T \Delta S_m$$

$$\Delta V_{m, \text{mix}} = 0$$

$$\Delta U_{m, \text{mix}} = 0$$

$$\Delta F_{m, \text{mix}} = RT \sum_{i=1}^c X_i \ln X_i$$

So, that is fine. Now, if you see Δv_k which is nothing, but $\Delta \bar{v}_k$ right $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ $\Delta \bar{p}_k$ is \bar{v}_k right. So, $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ $\Delta \bar{p}_k$ is \bar{v}_k right. So, $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ $\Delta \bar{p}_k$ is \bar{v}_k right. So, that is what I have written here which is $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ same as because $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ and these are the same at T and P and we have already seen that this is equal to 0. So, if you see that for ideal gas mixture the change in partial molar volume of component k due to mixing is 0 right. Now, we also know $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ or $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ is $\Delta \bar{h}_k$ which is the partial molar enthalpy $\Delta \bar{h}_k$ is partial molar enthalpy of component k due to mixing and the change in partial molar enthalpy of or relative partial molar enthalpy of component k due to mixing minus $T \Delta \bar{s}_k$ which is again relative partial molar entropy of component k due to mixing.



And now, you have Δg_k which is $\Delta \mu_k$ which is $RT \ln x_k$ right this is $RT \ln x_k$ which is Δh_k bar minus t minus t and this is Δs_k bar is minus $R \ln x_k$ right we have shown that. So, minus and minus is going plus and you have t . So, this becomes plus $RT \ln x_k$ and here also $RT \ln x_k$. So, Δh_k bar which is the partial the relative partial molar enthalpy or change in partial molar enthalpy of component k due to mixing is equal to 0 right. So, Δh_k bar you can also prove it this way that Δh_k bar is $\Delta \mu_k$ plus $t \Delta s_k$ which is $\Delta \mu_k$ minus $t \Delta \mu_k / t$ you get the same expression 0.

So, Δh_k bar that is the partial the change in partial molar enthalpy due to mixing is 0 right. Now, as you can see here. So, $\Delta \mu_k$ also can be written as $t \Delta \mu_k / t$ is this is this possible yes because this is $R \ln x_k$. So, this becomes equals to $RT \ln x_k$. Now, you can use this term here and you will get the same relation Δh_k bar is equal to 0 ok.

For Ideal Gas

$$\bar{V}_k = \frac{RT}{P}$$

$$\text{Real Gas: } \alpha_k = \bar{V}_k - \frac{RT}{P}$$

$$\Delta \mu_k = \int_P^{P_k} \bar{V}_k dP$$

$$= \int_P^{P_k} \left(\alpha_k + \frac{RT}{P} \right) dP$$

So, Δh_k equal to 0. So, let us get back. So, let us get back I am sorry for this disturbance that has happened some applications in my computer suddenly popped up and created some issue I am really really apologizing for this. So, as you can see here what we got is $\Delta \mu_k$. So, if you look at that we started with this $\Delta \mu_k$ or Δg_k which is nothing, but Δg_k which is nothing, but relative partial molar gives free energy or just free energy of component k due to mixing. Now, from $\Delta \mu_k$ once I know $\Delta \mu_k$ I can know $\Delta \mu_k$ at fixed p and n k and then I can know Δs_k and that is what I got minus $R \ln x_k$ and I have proved that it has to be minus $R \ln x_k$ such that the Δs_k has to be greater than 0 it is the partial molar and change in partial molar entropy due to mixing of component k.

$$\Delta \bar{V}_k = \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k} = \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \bar{G}_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k} = 0$$

$$\Delta \mu_k = \Delta \bar{G}_k = \Delta \bar{H}_k - T \Delta \bar{S}_k$$

$$RT \ln X_k = \Delta \bar{H}_k - T (-R \ln X_k)$$

$$= \Delta \bar{H}_k + RT \ln X_k$$

$$\therefore \Delta \bar{H}_k = 0$$

$$\Delta \bar{H}_k = \Delta \mu_k + T \Delta \bar{S}_k$$

$$= \Delta \mu_k - T \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k}$$

And then $\Delta \bar{V}_k$ we got 0 $\Delta \bar{H}_k$ also we got 0 for the ideal gas mixture. So, now, since $\Delta \bar{H}_k$ is 0 in 0. So, u_k basically h equals to u plus $p v$ plus $p v$. So, you can write $\Delta \bar{H}_k$ equals to $\Delta \bar{u}_k$ plus $p \Delta \bar{v}_k$ p is the overall pressure.

So, this becomes. So, therefore, $\Delta \bar{u}_k$ $\Delta \bar{u}_k$ equals to $\Delta \bar{H}_k$ minus $p \Delta \bar{v}_k$ which is equal to 0 right and $\Delta \bar{f}_k$ that is a relative. So, this is the relative partial molar Helmholtz free energy. Helmholtz free energy of component k due to mixing which is $\Delta \bar{u}_k$ which is 0 minus $t \Delta \bar{s}_k$ and then $\Delta \bar{s}_k$ is minus $R \ln X_k$. So, minus $R \ln X_k$ into minus t because $R t \ln X_k$ which is same as $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ or $\Delta \bar{a}_k$.

$$\Delta \bar{\mu}_k = T \left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = RT \ln X_k$$

$$\therefore \Delta \bar{H}_k = 0$$

$$\Delta \bar{U}_k = \Delta \bar{H}_k - P \Delta \bar{V}_k = 0$$

$$\Delta \bar{F}_k = \Delta \bar{U}_k - T \Delta \bar{S}_k$$

Relative partial molar Helmholtz free energy of component k

$$= RT \ln X_k = \Delta \bar{a}_k = \Delta \mu_k$$

$H = U + PV$
 $\Delta \bar{H}_k = \Delta \bar{U}_k + P \Delta \bar{V}_k$

So, this is Δg_k bar or $\Delta \mu_k$. So, the advantage of this approach is that you see it is an ideal gas mixture. So, it is like an ideal solution. So, in this ideal solution or ideal mixture where there is no interaction once you get $\Delta \mu_k$ bar once you get $\Delta \mu_k$ bar as $RT \ln X_k$ as $RT \ln X_k$ how did you get $RT \ln X_k$ from the Dalton's law of partial pressure right. You used the integration and you got $\Delta \mu_k$ right which is μ_k minus μ_k^0 which came out to be $RT \ln X_k$ you got all the other properties all the other properties that you cannot measure directly. So, you cannot measure directly Δh or Δh_k bar or Δg_k bar even Δv_k bar measuring these in this directly is very difficult right these partial molar properties.

But you can estimate them once you know the change in the change in chemical potential of component k due to mixing right. Once I know that for this ideal mixture or for this ideal gas mixture or this ideal solution ok there where there is no interaction in atoms I could actually get all this indirectly measurable quantities right. So, that is the idea. So, if you now look at this it is a very interesting thing here that you get Δs_k bar for this ideal mixing this ideal mixing with Δs_k bar equals to minus $R \ln X_k$. Now, Δs_{mix} is nothing, but as you know any property any property z this is extensive property z equals to $n_k z_k$ bar ok.

And summation over k equals to 1 to r where r is the number of components ok small r or 1 to c you can call it 1 to c where c is the number of components. Now, if you see

$\Delta \bar{s}_{mix} = -R \ln X_k$ which is $\sum_{k=1}^c n_k \Delta \bar{s}_k$ right which is $\sum_{k=1}^c n_k (-R \ln X_k)$. Now, $\sum_{k=1}^c n_k$ is n right $\sum_{k=1}^c n_k (-R \ln X_k)$. So, now, this is your ΔS_{mix} right this is the total change in entropy right this is the total or extensive this is an extensive parameter right ΔS_{mix} is an extensive parameter because it is the total change in entropy or and it depends on the extent of the system right that is the total mole number of the system n . Now, if I tell $\Delta S_{m, mix}$ that is the molar this is the molar entropy is a molar.

$$\Delta \bar{s}_k = -R \ln X_k$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^c n_k = n$$

$$\Delta S_{mix} = \sum_{k=1}^c n_k \Delta \bar{s}_k = -R \sum_{k=1}^c n_k \ln X_k$$

$$X_k = \frac{n_k}{n}$$

$$\Delta S_{m, mix} = \frac{\Delta S_{mix}}{n} = -R \sum_{k=1}^c X_k \ln X_k$$

$$= -R \sum_{i=1}^c X_i \ln X_i$$

Extensive
 Molar entropy of mixing
 $\frac{n_k}{n} = X_k$

So, let us define this as molar entropy of mixing it is not partial molar right it is overall right, but it is a molar per mole entropy of mixing per mole we can also write that $\Delta \bar{s}_{mix}$ which is ΔS_{mix} that is the extensive property by n , n is the total number of moles which is basically $\sum_{k=1}^c n_k$ by n is nothing, but X_k . So, you have $\sum_{k=1}^c X_k \ln X_k$ or since k is of the as you know these are repeated indices k is operating coming twice. So, repeated indices we can use any repeated index right you can make it k or i i does not matter. So, instead of k equal to 1 to c or k equal to 1 to c let us call it c still just call it c and this there also c ok.

$$\begin{aligned}
 S &= k_B \ln \Omega && \text{Boltzmann's law} \\
 &= k_B \ln \frac{N!}{N_A! N_B!} \\
 n! &= n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \\
 \ln n! &= \ln n + \ln(n-1) + \dots + \ln 3 + \ln 2 + \ln 1 \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \ln i \\
 \sum_{i=1}^n \ln i &= \int_1^n \ln x \, dx = && \text{Let } z = \ln x \\
 &&& dz = \frac{1}{x} dx \\
 \text{When } n \text{ is large} &&& \text{Integration by parts} \\
 &&& \ln x \int_1^n dx - \int_1^n \left\{ \frac{d \ln x}{dx} \int dx \right\} dx
 \end{aligned}$$

So, that you do not get confused any time. So, this is the number of c c is the number of components. So, basically you get minus r i equal to 1 to c x i ln x i. Now, if you remember when you looked at this statistical interpretation of and made a connection right use this Boltzmann's hypothesis or Boltzmann's law. One statistical mechanical interpretation of entropy and there we wrote k b ln omega, omega is the number of configurations and we looked at a binary solution k b ln n factorial by n a factorial n b factorial. Then we looked at starlings approximation I do not want to go into through this in detail I think in the lecture of week 4 or 5 I think 5 you will get all of these right.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \int \ln x \, dx \\
 &= \int \ln x \, dx - \int \left(\frac{d \ln x}{dx} \int dx \right) dx \\
 &= x \ln x - \int dx \\
 \therefore \int_1^n \ln x \, dx &= \left[x \ln x - x \right]_1^n = n \ln n - n \\
 & \quad - \ln 1 + 1 \\
 &= n \ln n - n + 1
 \end{aligned}$$

We the statistical mechanical when we looked at the limits of statistical thermodynamics right and then we looked at the starlings approximation and then we went on doing this calculation and then we found that we got into the same random mixing or this number of configurations for this binary lie of a and b or binary solution right. So, binary solution of a and b the components gave me $n \ln x$ equal to r and we got minus $r \times \ln x$ a plus $x \ln x$ b then I generalized it and it becomes a is equals to minus r i equal to 1 to k minus r . So, I can again I can write here equal to 1 to $c \times i \ln x$ i. So, this what I want to say here is that this guy that we obtain here for this for mixing from molecular interpretation right. We are considering number of molecules right in any molecules of a and b molecules of b and in looking at this mole fraction of a mole fraction of b, but we are looking we start from Boltzmann's hypothesis we come to this right from the statistical mechanical version.

If n is very large,

$$n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(n!) &= n \ln n - n + 1 \\ &\approx n \ln n - n \quad \because \quad -n + 1 \\ &\quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \approx -n \end{aligned}$$

$$\ln(n!) = n \ln n - n$$

— Stirling's approximation

But you can see here you can see here that we got the same expression for this ideal gas mixture or ideal mixing where there is no interaction. If we do not consider interaction between atoms what I get is the ΔH_m mix is 0 right because ΔH_k bar is 0 therefore the sum of ΔH_k bar sum of ΔH_k bar at the overall ΔH peaks has to be equal to 0 because ΔH_k bar for each for any component k the partial molar enthalpy of due to mixing is 0 when you have no interactions between the atoms right. So, that is what we assume that it is an ideal mixing. So, ideal mixing means no interaction between the atoms each component acts as if it is occupying the entire volume right.

$$S = k_B \ln \Omega$$

$$= -k_B N (X_A \ln X_A + X_B \ln X_B)$$

\ddagger $N = \text{Avogadro number}$

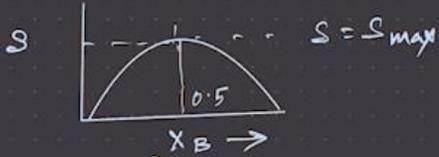
$$N k_B = R$$

$$S = -R (X_A \ln X_A + X_B \ln X_B)$$

$S > 0$

$$S = -R \sum_{i=1}^c X_i \ln X_i$$

Also $S = S_{\max}$ when $X_A = X_B = \frac{1}{2}$



So, that is the idea and as for ideal mixing. So, if you look at that the entropy of mixing that the molar entropy of mixing comes out to be minus $r x_i \ln x_i$ and from the statistical mechanical interpretation of entropy and looking at the configuration entropy. If we look at the configuration entropy of several components right where the number of components is c we get back the same expression minus $r x_i \ln x_i$ right. So, you can see that there is a very nice connect here ok. So, you can see an exactly same connect here. So, basically ideal solution you get from whatever approach you want whether it is the molecular approach or whether it is or statistical mechanical approach like approach with particles using interaction, but remember in ideal solution no interaction between particles that is what we assumed here ok and we got back minus $r x_i \ln x_i$ and we get the same expression here.

So, this is the Δs_m mix like molar entropy of mixing. Now, if you look at the molar free energy of mixing this becomes $r t x_i \ln x_i$ because $\Delta h_g \text{ mix}$ is $\Delta h_m \text{ mix}$ minus t times $\Delta s_m \text{ mix}$. So, therefore, there is a t and minus is there. So, minus and minus it becomes plus. So, this comes because of this because Δg_m the idea is Δg_m because Δh_m minus $t \Delta s_m$. Now, if you see that for mixing ideal mixing for ideal mixing when there is no interaction between particles this guy is 0 right as a result this is 0 and this is minus $r x_i \ln x_i$ and then there is a t and there is a minus sign.

So, this becomes $\sum_i r_i \ln x_i$. Obviously, you can see from here that at any temperature it has to be negative right. So, ideal for an ideal solution right and if you look at that ΔH_{mix} is 0 ΔV_{mix} is 0 ΔF_{mix} is same as ΔG_{mix} it is what the this is the Helmholtz free energy of mixing and if you look at the ΔU_{mix} which is the internal energy of mixing again it becomes 0 because there is no interaction between the particles between the constituents. Now, ΔS_{mix} as for all T it is independent of temperature because it is minus $\sum_i r_i \ln x_i$ it is basically minus $\sum_i r_i \ln x_i$ right minus $\sum_i r_i \ln x_i$ and basically it has a maximum value at 0.5 for a binary system right when x_1 equals to x_2 x_1 equals to x_2 equal to 0.5.

So then ΔS_{mix} the maximum we get the maximum. So, is maximum when x_1 equals to x_2 0.5 you can easily show that I have shown that before right and if you plot it then you can see the ΔS_{mix} for all temperature because ΔS_{mix} is having minus $\sum_i r_i \ln x_i$ it is independent of temperature. So, you can see that this has this nice curve and you see if you look at binary solution the maximum value is for x_1 equal to x_2 equal to 0.5 and that comes out to be very near 6.

If you multiply you can easily see 8.314.67 I think and you will get very close to 6 and if you look at now ΔG_{mix} it is 0 it is negative for all temperatures right for all apart from T equal to 0 T equal to 0. Obviously, T equal to 0 kelvin this will be $\sum_i r_i \ln x_i$ summation over all i is all over all components. So, if T equal to 0 then ΔG_{mix} equal to 0 otherwise it is negative right and it goes to negative and as a function of temperature. So, temperature is increasing this way downward temperature increases downward temperature increases this way. So, this is at a lower temperature this is at a have even higher temperature higher temperature higher temperature the higher the temperature the more negativities right.

But remember ΔH_{mix} or ΔV_{mix} these are all 0 and if it is 0 then you can just draw it using a horizon. So, there is no variation over the entire composition range there is no variation with temperature it is all 0. So, you can draw it by using a horizontal line about the y axis value of 0 right. So, ΔV_{mix} or ΔH_{mix} has the same. So, if you look at ΔH_{mix} it also has the same nature this is for ideal solutions that is solutions with no interactions between particles ok.

So, now, this is for ideal gas right v_k bar equals to $R T$ by P . Now, in real gas v_k bar is not equal to $R T$ by P it is that there is a difference which is called α_k there is a difference α_k which is v_k bar minus $R T$ by P . Now, if you look at $\Delta \mu_k$ and you integrate you get v_k bar dP which is nothing, but α_k plus right because if I take this side then this is α_k plus $R T$ by P dP . So, this is α_k dP from P to P_k

because P is for P is when P is when there is no mixing right there is no mixing right. So, P is for the pure component and P_k is the partial pressure after mixing right in the real solution. So, $\Delta \mu_k$ comes out to $\mu_k - \mu_k^{\text{naught}}$ which is equals to we can write $R T \ln f_k$ by P where f_k is the fugacity we call it fugacity of component k ok.

So, this is called fugacity of component k ok. So, now you have P to $P_k \alpha_k d P$ plus $R T \ln P_k$ by P . So, which is $R T \ln f_k$ by P into P by P_k which is basically. So, if you just do a little bit of algebraic manipulation if you do a little bit of algebraic manipulation you get this term you get this term which is $R T \ln f_k$ by P_k equals to P to $P_k \alpha_k d P$. Now $\ln f_k$ by P_k that means basically comes equal to. So, if you have this $\Delta \mu_k$ you have this term and you have $R T \ln P_k$ by P .

Now you are telling that this guy is the same as this guy and that is why you can write this term ok. You can do a little bit of algebraic manipulation to show. So, basically $R T \ln f_k$ by P is this integral plus $R T \ln P_k$ by P now I am taking it on the other side. So, it becomes $R T \ln f_k$ by P minus $R T \ln P_k$ by P which is $R T \ln f_k$ by P into P by P_k which becomes $R T \ln f_k$ by P_k right which is equal to integral $\alpha_k d P$. Now, if you see $\ln f_k$ by P_k equals to 1 by $R T$ integral $\alpha_k d P$ from P P again is for the no mixing case right and P_k is becomes the partial pressure after mixing this is P is before mixing right total pressure right when each component has a pressure of P right.

$$= \int_P^{P_k} \alpha_k dP + RT \ln \frac{P_k}{P}$$

$$\Delta \mu_k = \mu_k - \mu_k^0 = RT \ln \frac{f_k}{P} \quad \text{Fugacity of component } k$$

$$= \int_P^{P_k} \alpha_k dP + RT \ln \frac{P_k}{P}$$

$$RT \ln \frac{f_k}{P} - \frac{P}{P_k} = \int_P^{P_k} \alpha_k dP$$

$$RT \ln \left(\frac{f_k}{P_k} \right) = \int_P^{P_k} \alpha_k dP$$

So, because this is before mixing and this is each component now exerts a partial pressure P_k . Now, f_k now becomes P_k times exponential 1 by RT P to P_k α_k dP . Now, α_k tends to 0 when α_k tends to 0 say for example, when real solution behaves ideally then α_k tends to 0 if that is so if α_k tends to 0 then this term tends to 0 and so overall $x P$ to the power 0 is 1 . So, f_k tends to P_k right f_k the fugacity tends to the fugacity of component k now basically becomes equal to the partial pressure of component k right.

$$\ln \frac{f_k}{P_k} = \frac{1}{RT} \int_P^{P_k} \alpha_k dP$$

$$f_k = P_k \exp \left[\frac{1}{RT} \int_P^{P_k} \alpha_k dP \right]$$

$$\alpha_k \rightarrow 0, \quad f_k \rightarrow P_k$$

f_k - fugacity of component k

So, f_k is as I told you is a fugacity of component k. Now, as I as you know from the definition of activity of component k that $\Delta \mu_k$ which is μ_k minus μ_k^0 equals to $\Delta \mu_k$ which is $RT \ln a_k$ which is $RT \ln \frac{f_k}{P}$ right and therefore, the relation between activity and fugacity is given by a_k equals to $\frac{f_k}{P}$ right. Now, P is the pressure in the reference state right for component k right that is the that is the pressure all components will have right will experience. So, that is the pressure in the reference state right when there is no mixing now a_k equals to $\frac{f_k}{P}$ right and fugacity is generally remember activities are more generalized term right activity for any type of solution we can use, but fugacity is specially for gas mixture because we bring in pressure here in the definition right. So, as I told you $\Delta \mu_k$ is $RT \ln a_k$ and you know that del now if I do for this generalized form this is a generalized solution right we are not approximating any ideality we are not approximating anything. So, we are telling a_k we deal with a_k we tell γ_k is not equal to 1 right in the ideal case a_k equals to x_k is not it.

$$\mu_k - \mu_k^0 = \Delta\mu_k = RT \ln a_k = RT \ln \frac{f_k}{P}$$

$$a_k = \frac{f_k}{P}$$

P is the pressure in the reference state for component k

Fugacity - Gas mixture

So, a_k equals to x_k that means γ_k that is the activity coefficient is equal to 1 correct that is the ideal case this is the ideal case ideal solution. But in general you have $\frac{\partial \Delta\mu_k}{\partial t}$ which is $RT \ln a_k$ plus $RT \frac{\partial \ln a_k}{\partial t}$ and or you can write this way because $\Delta\mu_k$ $\frac{\partial \mu_k}{\partial t}$ right this is $RT \ln a_k$ plus $RT \frac{\partial \ln a_k}{\partial t}$ because I do not know how a_k changes with temperature right. So, I am $\frac{\partial \Delta\mu_k}{\partial p}$ is $RT \frac{\partial \ln a_k}{\partial p}$ at t and k . So, fixed is t and k . So, these terms are additional terms that you are seeing right this becomes equal to 0 right this becomes equal to 0 and here it becomes $RT \ln x$ because a equals to x .

$$\bar{\Delta G}_k = \Delta \mu_k = RT \ln a_k$$

$$\begin{cases} a_k = x_k \\ \gamma_k = 1 \end{cases} \text{ Ideal solution}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = R \ln a_k + RT \left(\frac{\partial \ln a_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k} = RT \left(\frac{\partial \ln a_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k}$$

So, it becomes $RT \ln x_k$ in general. So, $\frac{\partial \mu_k}{\partial T}$ because $RT \ln x_k$ when it is an ideal solution, but now it is $RT \ln a_k + RT \left(\frac{\partial \ln a_k}{\partial T} \right)$. So, this term becomes very very important this term becomes important this term also becomes important. Now you have again if you know activity of one component you can get the activity of other component how again using the Gist-Wen integration that we have done previously in the in the seventh week. So, you have $x_1 d \mu_1 + x_2 d \mu_2 = 0$. Now $d \mu_1$ if I do which is equals to minus of right $d \mu_1$ is if I do it is minus of because $d \mu_1$ equals to x_2 by x_1 minus of x_2 by $x_1 d \mu_2$.

Now $d \mu_2$ dx_2 if I do. So, $d \mu_2$ dx_2 if I do you get because this is $d \mu_1$. So, and so this becomes x_2 equal to 0 right x_2 equal to 0 is the pure component right x_2 equal to 0 means is pure x_1 right. So, basically there x_1 equal to 1 x_2 equal to 0 means x_1 equal to 1 right to x_2 x_2 is where you have some contribution of component 2 right which is and then there is x_2 by $x_1 d \mu_2$.

$$X_1 d\Delta\mu_1 + X_2 d\Delta\mu_2 = 0$$

$$\Delta\mu_1 = - \int_{X_2=0}^{X_2} \frac{X_2}{X_1} \frac{d\Delta\mu_2}{dX_2} dX_2$$

$$\ln a_1 = - \int_{X_2=0}^{X_2} \frac{X_2}{X_1} \frac{d \ln a_2}{dX_2} dX_2$$

$$\text{As } a_2 \rightarrow 0$$

$$\ln a_2 \rightarrow -\infty$$

So, this becomes $d\Delta\mu_2 = \frac{dX_2}{X_2}$ right. So, this is $\frac{dX_2}{X_2}$. So, $\frac{dX_2}{X_2}$ I am taking the limit. So, basically if I take $\frac{dX_2}{X_2}$ here the limit is this X_2 equal to 0 which is the pure solvent or pure component 1 and to some value X_2 ok that is added. So, if you have that $\Delta\mu_1$ is nothing, but so if I look at this you have $\Delta\mu_1$. So, if you see $\Delta\mu_1$ equals to $RT \ln a_1$ right.

$$X_1 d\Delta\mu_1 + X_2 d\Delta\mu_2 = 0$$

$$\Delta\mu_1 = - \int_{X_2=0}^{X_2} \frac{X_2}{X_1} \frac{d\Delta\mu_2}{dX_2} dX_2$$

$$X_1 d\Delta\mu_1 + X_2 d\Delta\mu_2 = 0$$

$$\ln a_1 = - \int_{X_2=0}^{X_2} \frac{X_2}{X_1} \frac{d \ln a_2}{dX_2} dX_2$$

$$d\Delta\mu_1 = RT d \ln a_1$$

$$d\Delta\mu_2 = RT d \ln a_2 \quad \text{As } a_2 \rightarrow 0$$

$$\ln a_2 \rightarrow -\infty$$

So, delta mu 1 is so there should be an so if you look at that delta mu 1. So, if you look at that you have $x_1 d\Delta\mu_1 + x_2 d\Delta\mu_2 = 0$ and $d\Delta\mu_1$ equals to see if you look at this $d\Delta\mu_1$ is $RT d \ln a_1$ right and $d\Delta\mu_2$ equals to $RT d \ln a_2$. Now if you do this so you have $x_1 RT d \ln a_1 + x_2 RT d \ln a_2 = 0$ RT cannot be 0 because T is not equal to 0. So, RT you can remove. So, what you get back is the same integration.

$$a_k = \gamma_k X_k$$

$$\Delta \bar{G}_k = \Delta \mu_k = RT \ln \gamma_k X_k$$

$$= \underbrace{RT \ln \gamma_k}_{\substack{\text{Departure} \\ \text{from} \\ \text{ideality}}} + \underbrace{RT \ln X_k}_{\text{Ideality}}$$

So, you have get here $\ln a_1$ and you get x_2 to x_1 $\ln a_2$ x_2 . So, if I know the activity of 2 I basically can get the activity of 1 right and again x_2 goes from x_2 equal to 0 that is the pure x_1 means pure 1 your component 1 to the mixture composition which is the x_2 ok. So, as a_2 tends to 0 say for example, as a_2 tends to 0 $\ln a_2$. So, $\ln a_2$ will tend to see if a_2 tends to 0 then $\ln a_2$ will tend to minus infinity correct. Now as you know that a_k goes to $\gamma_k x_k$ and $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ equals to $RT \ln \gamma_k x_k$. Now you have $RT \ln x_k$ right you already know $\Delta \bar{g}_k$ equals to $RT \ln x_k$ for ideal solution.

$$\Delta \bar{G}_k = \overset{\text{Deviation from ideality}}{\Delta \bar{G}_k^{xs}} + \Delta \bar{G}_k^{id}$$

or,

$$\Delta \mu_k = \Delta \mu_k^{xs} + \Delta \mu_k^{id}$$

$$= RT \ln \gamma_k + RT \ln X_k$$

Say $\gamma_k > 1$

Apparent concentration of 'k'
 $>$ Actual concentration of 'k'
 X_k
Positive deviation

So, $RT \ln \gamma_k$ denotes the departure from ideality right because $RT \ln X_k$ is already for the ideal solution $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ equals to $RT \ln X_k$ you have defined for ideal solution where there is no interaction in particles. So, this $RT \ln \gamma_k$ defines the departure from ideality. Though now you can define this as 2 parts one is the ideal contribution and another is the excess over ideal right which is like the deviation from idealities. So, this is called $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ excess which basically I call it as deviation from ideality ok.

When $\gamma_k < 1$

$$a_k = \gamma_k x_k$$

$$\Delta \bar{G}_k^{xs} = \Delta \bar{\mu}_k^{xs} = RT \ln \gamma_k < 0$$

Apparent concentration of 'k'

< Actual concentration of 'k'

Negative deviation from ideality

So, basically you can write this also as the same way. So, instead of $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ I am using here $\Delta \bar{\mu}_k$ if I use $\Delta \bar{\mu}_k$ there is a $\Delta \bar{\mu}_k$ excess which is deviation from ideality and then there is a $\Delta \bar{\mu}_k$ excesses with the ideal or ideal solution. And $\Delta \bar{\mu}_k$ is nothing, but there $RT \ln x_k$ right this one is this and this is $RT \ln \gamma_k$, but I do not know γ_k . Now if I tell γ_k is greater than 1 now if you look at that if γ_k is greater than 1 then this is a positive contribution right if it is a $RT \ln \gamma_k$ is positive right. So, basically we can tell the apparent concentration of component k the apparent concentration of component k is greater than the actual concentration of component k that is x_k right.

Apparent concentration has to be greater than. So, if γ_k is greater than 1 the apparent concentration of component k that is say you can think of a k which is $\gamma_k x_k$ and γ_k is greater than 1. So, obviously apparent concentration of component k is greater than the actual concentration of component k and that gives a positive deviation. So, γ_k greater than 1 basically gives a positive deviation from ideality and γ_k less than 1. Now if you see $\Delta \bar{G}_k$ excess which $\Delta \bar{\mu}_k$ excess or $\Delta \bar{\mu}_k$ excess is basically $RT \ln \gamma_k$.

Now γ_k is less than 1. So, $RT \ln \gamma_k$ is less than 0. So, that this part becomes negative. So, the apparent concentration of k is less than the actual

concentration of k correct because right if you have this. So, γ_k is less than 1 sorry γ_k is less than 1 remember γ_k is less than 1.

So, $RT \ln \gamma_k$. So, $\ln RT \ln \gamma_k$ is less than 0 or it becomes negative. So, $RT \ln \gamma_k$ is negative. So, it adds to the total ΔG which is $\Delta G_k^{\text{total}}$ which is $\Delta G_k^{\text{excess}}$ plus $\Delta G_k^{\text{ideal}}$ which is $RT \ln x_k$ right. So, $RT \ln x_k$ and there is a negative term. So, it comes out. So, basically what does it mean the $\gamma_k x_k$ or the apparent concentration a_k is ultimately $\gamma_k x_k$ right.

Now γ_k is less than 1. So, a_k basically now that you can immediately see the apparent concentration of k now is less than the actual concentration of k . So, basically you have a component k in the solution if there is a deviation from ideality that means there is a positive or negative γ_k when it is not positive or negative you have a γ_k which can be greater than 1 or less than 1. If you have a γ_k less than 1 then $\ln \gamma_k$ is less than 0 right $\ln \gamma_k$ is less than 0 $RT \ln \gamma_k$ is less than 0 because R is positive right R is positive T is positive. So, $\ln \gamma_k$ is less than 0 means γ_k has to be less than 1 γ_k does not have to be negative γ_k is not negative γ_k is less than 1.

So, γ_k is less than 1. So, a_k equals to say $0.9 x_k$. So, that means, the apparent concentration or the activity of component k in the solution is less than the actual concentration of k which is x_k . So, that gives me negative deviation from ideality ok. So, ideality means a_k equals to x_k if a_k equals to $0.9 x_k$ then it is a or γ_k can be some expression which is a function of temperature composition pressure right.

So, we will come to that we will come to this different real solutions ok. So, what I am trying to say here is that depending on the value of the coefficient because remember this $RT \ln \gamma_k$ is what gives you that this is the excess part $RT \ln \gamma_k$. Now, if γ_k is greater than 1 this is positive. So, there is a positive deviation from ideality. So, this is your ideality and there is a if this is positive $RT \ln \gamma_k$ is greater than 0 if it is greater than 0 then this adds to this.

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} = R \ln \gamma_k + RT \left(\frac{\partial \ln \gamma_k}{\partial T} \right)_{P, n_k} + R \ln X_k$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k} = RT \left(\frac{\partial \ln \gamma_k}{\partial P} \right)_{T, n_k}$$

So, $\Delta \mu_k$ for the real solution has a positive deviation from ideality ok. There is a positive deviation from ideality and here it is a negative when γ_k is less than 1 then you have a negative deviation from ideality ok. So, now, you can write down this there is this $R \ln \gamma_k$ you can have this $\ln \ln \gamma_k \frac{\partial}{\partial T}$ right because now see γ_k can be a function of temperature γ_k can be a function of pressure right γ_k can be a function of pressure. So, if you look at this partial derivatives by the way this is if I do this then this is not correct this has to be this has to be $\frac{\partial \Delta \mu_k}{\partial T}$ which is $RT \frac{\partial \ln \gamma_k}{\partial T}$ at fixed temperature and n_k ok. So, another thing if you have this is again gives to him relation right this is gives to him. You can write this way $T \Delta \mu_k$ is $RT \ln \gamma_k$ plus $RT \ln X_k$ right because the other part what about.

So, you have this right $d \ln \gamma_k$ right you have $\Delta \mu_k$ is $RT \ln \gamma_k$. So, $\Delta \mu_k$ is nothing, but $RT \ln \gamma_k$ or $RT \ln \gamma_k X_k$ or here it will be $RT \ln \gamma_1$. So, you are taking a binary solution this is $\gamma_1 X_1$ and this is this is equal to this guy only this guy this guy is equal to that and this guy is equals to $RT \ln \gamma_2 X_2$. Now, you do a chain rule. So, $d \Delta \mu_1$ is $RT d \ln \gamma_k$ plus $RT d \ln X_k$. So, now, you have $X_1 RT d \ln \gamma_1$ plus $d \ln X_1$ plus $X_2 RT$ because X_1 is there already right this is gives to him.

Gibbs Duhem

$$X_1 d \Delta \mu_1 + X_2 d \Delta \mu_2 = 0$$

$$\frac{RT \ln(\gamma_1 X_1)}{RT \ln(\gamma_2 X_2)}$$

$$d \Delta \mu_k = RT d \ln \gamma_k + RT d \ln X_k$$

$$X_1 RT (d \ln \gamma_1 + d \ln X_1) + X_2 RT (d \ln \gamma_2 + d \ln X_2) = 0$$

$$X_1 d \ln X_1 + X_2 d \ln X_2$$

$$= dX_1 + dX_2 \quad \because X_1 + X_2 = 1$$

$$= 0 \quad dX_1 = -dX_2$$

$$\therefore X_1 d \ln \gamma_1 + X_2 d \ln \gamma_2 = 0$$

So, x_1 times RT times $d \ln \gamma_1$ plus $d \ln x_1$ plus x_2 times RT plus $d \ln \gamma_2$ plus $d \ln x_2$ right because this is $RT \ln \gamma_2 x_2$ right. So, $x_2 RT d \ln \gamma_2 d \ln x_2$ and there is $d \ln \gamma_1$ plus $d \ln x_1$ this is $d \ln \gamma_2$ plus $d \ln x_2$ equal to 0. Now, $x_1 d \ln x_1$ so RT RT you can cancel out RT and RT you can cancel out because it is equal to 0 RT is a constant. Now, $x_1 d \ln x_1$ plus $x_2 d \ln x_2$ is nothing, but $d \ln x_1$ is x_1 by $x_1 d x_1$ plus x_2 by $x_2 d x_2$ which is $d x_1$ plus $d x_2$ which has to be equal to 0 because x_1 plus x_2 equal to 1 and $d x_1$ equal to minus $d x_2$ right since therefore this is equal to 0.

So, $x_1 d \ln \gamma_1$ plus $x_2 d \ln \gamma_2$ we can show using gives to m to be equal to 0 right. So, basically we can tell that if I know γ_1 I can get γ_2 again by the gives to m integration right. See $\ln \gamma_1$ I can get now $\ln \gamma_2$ if I want to do that x_2 equal to 0 again is a pure solvent right x_2 equal to 0 is the pure solvent or pure component 1 and x_1 is the composition so any composition in the mixture. So, we can again use the same gives to m integration. Now, I will just come to a very interesting point here which is called dilute solutions right dilute solutions.

DILUTE SOLUTIONS

Raoult's law for solvent

'1' - solvent

'2', '3', ... 'c' - solutes

$$\lim_{x_1 \rightarrow 1} a_1 = x_1 \quad (\text{Raoult's law})$$

Any component $a_i = x_i$

So, for example, here are these different laws that you can get Raoult's law. So, this is Raoult's law for solvent ok for dilute solutions if I have a solvent 1 say I have a multi component system where 1 is solvent ok which because the amount and 2, 3, C all of these are solvents. Now, if x_1 tends to 1 that means the solvent is very very large compared to 2, 3 and all the other solvents. So, that solute concentration is very small.

So, x_1 tends to 1. So, then Raoult's law states A_1 that is the activity of 1 is equal to x_1 . That means when x_1 tends to 1 it becomes pure solvent for a pure solvent the activity of 1 is the same as the if it becomes a pure solvent 1 the activity is equal to mole fraction right that is what Raoult's law tells. Actually for any component if that component is large enough right compared to the other components right for any component A_i equal to x_i is basically Raoult's law right. So, for any component we can write and if A_i equal to x_i we are basically telling that for the other. So, A_i equal to x_i is basically an ideal right it is an ideal definition.

Henry's law for solute '2' - solute
 $X_2 \rightarrow 0$
 \Rightarrow Dilute solution

$$\lim_{X_2 \rightarrow 0} a_2 = \gamma_2^0 X_2 = K_H X_2$$

γ_2^0 is independent of concentration
and is called Henry's Law Constant
(applicable in dilute range)

γ_2^0 : depends on both solute and solvent

So, Raoult's law is basically for ideal solutions and again in the limit x_1 tends to 1 A_1 goes to x_1 . Now, there is some other very interesting law that comes in which is called now this is the thing. So, when I talk about dilute solutions Raoult's law is for ideal solution. Raoult's law is more about ideal solutions.

Raoult's law

Ratio of partial vapour pressure of each component to its vapour pressure as a pure liquid/solid solvent is approximately

$$p_i = X_i p_i^0$$

It is not really dilute solution. Dilute solution means γ_k equals to x_k because γ_k equal to 1 right. So, for any component right we can write, but if you see even it follows for dilute solutions because if x_1 tends to 1 when 1 is solvent then basically γ_1 will become equal to x_1 . So, basically if you have more solute for example, if you have more solute there is a deviation from Raoult's law, but as soon as the amount of solute decreases it becomes so dilute that the solvent is like pure solvent then again you come go back get back the Raoult's law that is correct, but for Henry's law is for solute. So, when x_2 tends to 0 so this is for solute. So, x_2 tends to 0 is the dilute solution limit. So, this is called x_2 , x_2 is your solute say 2 is your solute, 2 is solute and x_2 tends to 0 is called dilute solution limit or dilute solution.

Mixture of two liquids or two solids
A and B

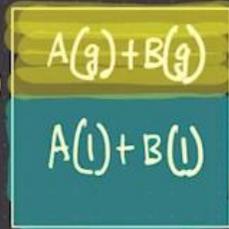
Use * for pure substance

$$\mu_A^* = \mu_A^0 + RT \ln p_A^* \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Solution of A+B

$$\mu_A = \mu_A^0 + RT \ln p_A \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_A^0 &= \mu_A^* - RT \ln p_A^* \quad (\text{pure A}) \\ &= \mu_A - RT \ln p_A \quad (\text{A+B soln.}) \end{aligned}$$



μ_A^0
- standard chemical potential of A in vapour phase
 $\mu_A(g) = \mu_A(l)$

When you define dilute solution we are telling that the concentration of solute tends to 0. Now, in such a case γ_2 can be written as $\gamma_2^0 \times x_2$ or sometimes it is also called $k_H x_2$ or this is the Henry's law coefficient and γ_2^0 is independent of concentration, γ_2^0 is independent of concentration and is called Henry's law first and it depends however γ_2^0 depends on both the solute and the solvent. So Raoult's law can also be written this way when you look at this gas dissolved in vapor the gas dissolved in a liquid solution or a solid solution or basically if you have a solvent which is a liquid or a solid and then you have a gas that is dissolving in this liquid or solid then we can write that the ratio of partial pressure partial vapor pressure of each component to its vapor pressure as a pure liquid solid solvent is approximately 1. So basically P_i is 1 so basically what we are telling is this is the vapor pressure of component i when it is a pure solvent or pure solvent. So basically i pure solvent then there is a partial vapor pressure which is in there is a vapor pressure of component i for a pure solvent which is stated as P_i^0 this vapor pressure this vapor is in equilibrium with the solvent when i is a pure solvent. So when pure then again we are using this superscript of 0 and then we are telling now the partial vapor pressure when these components are mixed is equal to again proportional equal to mole fraction of component i times the vapor pressure exerted by component the vapor of component i when i is a pure solvent.

$$\mu_A = \mu_A^* + RT \ln \frac{p_A}{p_A^*}$$

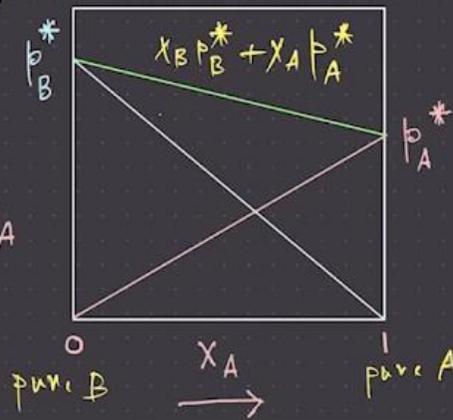
p_A^* → vapour pressure of pure liquid A

p_A → partial vapour pressure of component A

$$P = (1 - X_A) p_B^* + X_A p_A^*$$

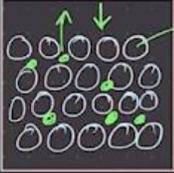
$$p_A = X_A p_A^*$$

$$\mu_A = \mu_A^* + RT \ln X_A$$



So you have a solvent if you have a solvent if you have a solvent then there is always a gas phase. So if you have a solvent right there then there is always so you have solved component i and this is component i in gas phase and this is in the liquid phase. Now in the pure form the vapor pressure exerted by i in the gaseous state is P_0^i . However when you have a mixture of different components then basically you have again i is there but then there are other components and here also i is there in the liquid phase but what we are telling now this is P_i and that is equals to now what is the relation between P_i and P_0^i naught that is related to the mole fraction of component i that is what Raoult's law steps right that is what Raoult's law steps. So this is another alternate definition of Raoult's law. So if you look at this you have say for example, instead of two liquids or two solids like a L b L or a S b S we could have written.

• Solute



Solvent

Rate of vaporization
 $= k X_A$

Rate of condensation
 $= k' p_A$

$k' p_A = k X_A$ at equilibrium

$p_A = \frac{k}{k'} X_A$

So there are two solids a and b or two liquids a and b and they are mixed and you have this here a liquid plus b liquid and also for a liquid there is a gas and for b liquid there is a b gas. So basically there is a vapor vapor so this a this is a vapor this is b vapor and if you look at that you can use star for pure substance. So if it can have been only a there is no b there is no b then μ_a^* that is in the pure state equals to μ_a^0 that is some standard state plus $RT \ln P^*$ and the solution of a and b again μ_a equals to μ_a^0 see now this is what we are trying to distinguish. So star is for pure substance but a is 0 is some standard state some standard state where this standard state can be some very small amount of b or whichever we want to. So μ_a^0 is a standard state μ_a^* is that of the pure substance so there is a chemical potential of component a when a is completely pure and this is again related to P^* which is the vapor pressure of component a the of the vapor pressure exerted by the vapor that is in equilibrium with the pure liquid a.

Pure liquid/solid $X_A = 1$

$$\therefore p^* = \frac{k}{k'}$$

$$P_A = X_A P_A^*$$

Thus,

$$P_A = X_A P_A^*$$

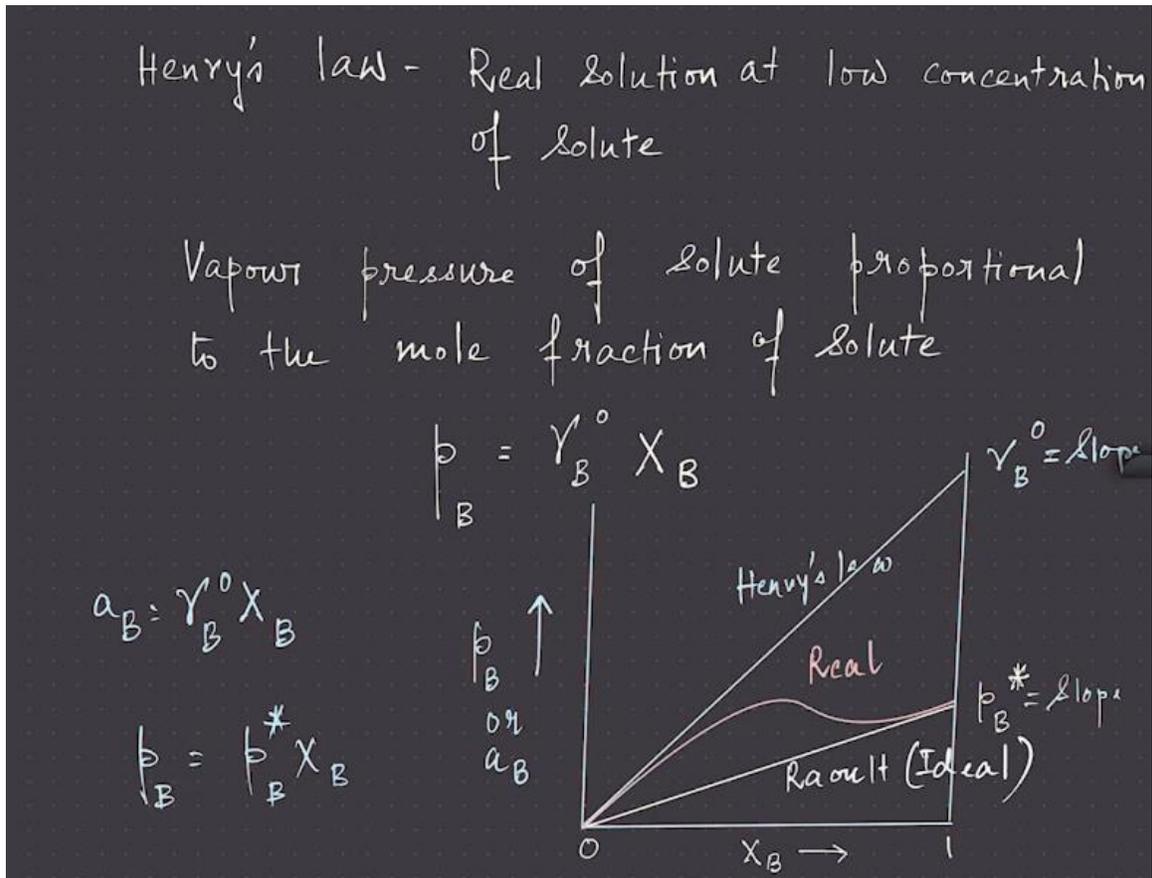
Solute and solvent both obey

Raoult's law when solution is ideal

That is the \ln that is $RT \ln P_A^*$. Now if you have solution of a and b then it is μ_a and this is P_A which is the partial pressure partial vapor pressure of component a when you have a solution of a and b. Again you can write now if you but the μ_a^0 is standard now if you look at that you can equate μ_a^0 in these two equations let this be equation 1 let this be equation 2 if I have 1 and 2 now I have μ_a^0 which is from 1 it is $\mu_a^* - RT \ln P_A^*$ and which is equal to $\mu_a - RT \ln P_A$. Now in this case I am considering a plus b solution and in this case I am considering pure a okay I am considering pure a right here I am considering pure a. Now if you see this is both μ_a^0 so I can equate this so what I get μ_a now you see μ_a^0 is eliminated and now you get μ_a^* which is again the pure form the chemical potential of a in the pure form and which is equal to μ_a which is the chemical potential of a in this mixture plus $RT \ln P_A$ by P_A^* and P_A^* is that of pure liquid a okay the vapor pressure of the vapor phase which is in equilibrium with the pure liquid a and this is the partial vapor pressure of component a that is in equilibrium with the liquid solution okay. So in that case you have P_A by P_A^* and P_A by P_A^* basically you can write this as $\mu_a^* + RT \ln X_A$ and so P_A equals to $X_A P_A^*$ right we can write P_A by P_A^* is nothing but X_A so μ_a equals to $\mu_a^* + RT \ln X_A$ and if you look at that this is P_A^* which is for now this is X_A equal to 1 that is pure a this is pure a right so this is pure and this is pure so there you have P_B^* right so if you have pure b you have P_B^* you have P_A^* here and this is the X_A how it is changing so as you can see you have if you look at

this pure a it starts from 0 it starts from 0 and moves to P a star again if you look at P b star so it is pure b and this is if it is so basically pure b means X_b equal to 1 and here X_b equal to 0 so it starts from here and then goes down and comes here now the total pressure is coming around this line because it is $X_a P_b + X_b P_b^*$ so this is basically the line of $X_b P_b^*$ plus $X_a P_a^*$ or we can also write it as $1 - X_a P_b^*$ plus $X_a P_a^*$ so P is equal to that right so basically you have a P that is changing P_a or P_b that is changing according to this equation okay so this is for an ideal setting okay now think of this why is this Raoult's law what is the physical meaning what's the molecular interpretation again every time we look at that right so we have this blue colored or blue bordered solvent molecules here as you can see and you have this green solutes here some green solutes some solute here now if you have rate of evaporation which is basically proportional to the mole fraction of component a now and rate of condensation is proportional to the partial pressure of component a now if you see $K' P_a$ so if you see at the steady state or at equilibrium these rates are equal right $K X_a$ equals to $K' P_a$ right rate of evaporation so solvent can vaporize solvent can also condense because there is always if you have a solvent in a liquid state it's in the liquid state it is also there this is like a in liquid state then there is also a in the gas state right which is a the gas state which is in equilibrium right so there is a liquid vapor equilibrium that's what I am considering so if I consider liquid vapor equilibrium that means that it in that equilibrium rate of the creation of the solvent from liquid to vapor is equal to rate of condensation of the solvent molecules from vapor phase to the liquid phase okay so $K X_a$ equals to $K' P_a$ or P_a equals to $K X_a$ now pure liquid or solid if you think of pure liquid or solid X_a equal to 1 so P^* so basically if it is pure liquid or solid P^* is $K X_a$ right because if you remember Raoult's law P_a equals to $X_a P_a^*$ right $X_a P_a^*$ so basically P^* equals to $K X_a$ thus P_a equals to $X_a P_a^*$ so solvent and solute both if both obey Raoult's law then the solution is called ideal okay Henry's law basically does not care about ideality it is for a real solution part with a very low concentration of solid right very low concentration of solid now in that case the vapor pressure of the solute okay vapor pressure of the solute is P_b right when X_b equals to 0 see P_b okay this is the this is this is called this is Henry's law now if you see Henry's law very carefully you can see this line is drawn at X_b tends to 0 see this is the tangent that I have drawn to this curve this is a real solution so there is a deviation from Raoult's but is what that P_b equals to $X_b P_b^*$ right or P_a equals to write P_b so if you have 0 to P_b^* 0 to 1 so this is basically X_b the slope is basically P_b^* right so 0 to X_b so the slope here so P_b^* is the slope for Raoult's law but here the slope is so this is the slope for Henry's law right so Henry's law is for a real solution with very low concentration of solute now if you have higher concentration of solute then there is obviously deviation as you can see here from the red line so so this part this is where I draw the tangent and that is giving me the Henry's law and Raoult's law is basically telling me P_b P_b so this is P_b is the partial pressure of P

so basically P_B equals to $X_B P_B^*$ P_B goes to P_B^* P_B equals to $P_B^* X_B$ and X_B is the x-axis right X_B is the x-axis P_B is the y-axis and P_B^* is the slope right P_B^* is the slope other way Henry's law for a real solution but at dilute concentrations of solute okay so basically you can call some solutions which are called ideal dilute solutions okay



Ideal dilute solutions where solvent obeys Raoult's law while solute obeys Henry's law okay so look at this mixture of acetone and chloroform okay and you have this so basically chloroform is denoted by C chloroform is denoted by C and acetone is denoted by A so this is a mixture or a solution at 35 degrees Celsius at 35 degrees Celsius now if I look at that there is a P_C okay that is the partial pressure of component C as a function of composition right you can see the composition of chloroform is increasing from 0 to 1 as a result and there is a also a corresponding increase in the partial pressure of component C from 4.

Ideal dilute solutions

- Solvent obeys Raoult's law
- Solute obeys Henry's law

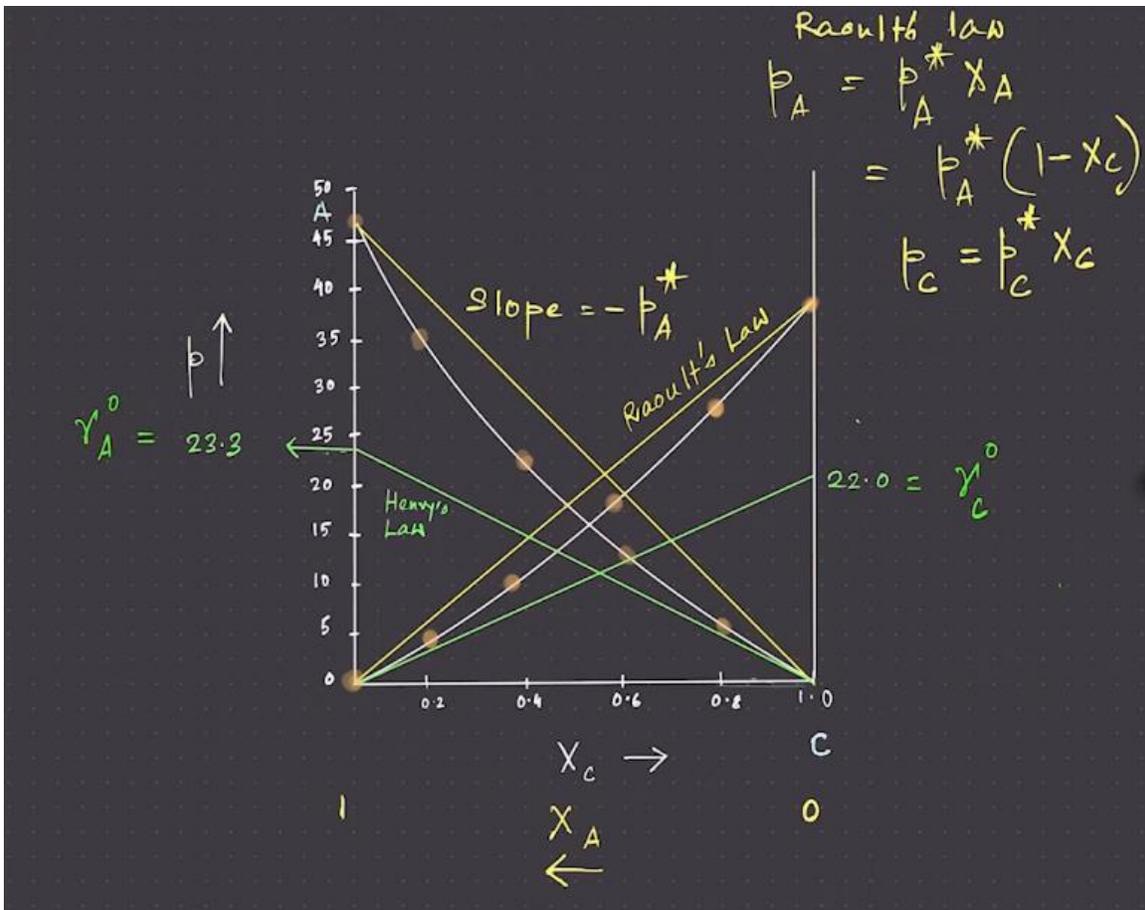
See the table

Mixture of acetone (CH_3COCH_3) (A) and chloroform (CHCl_3) (C) at

35°C

X_C	0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1
p_C (kPa)	0	4.7	11	18.9	26.7	36.4
p_A (kPa)	46.3	33.3	23.3	12.3	4.9	0

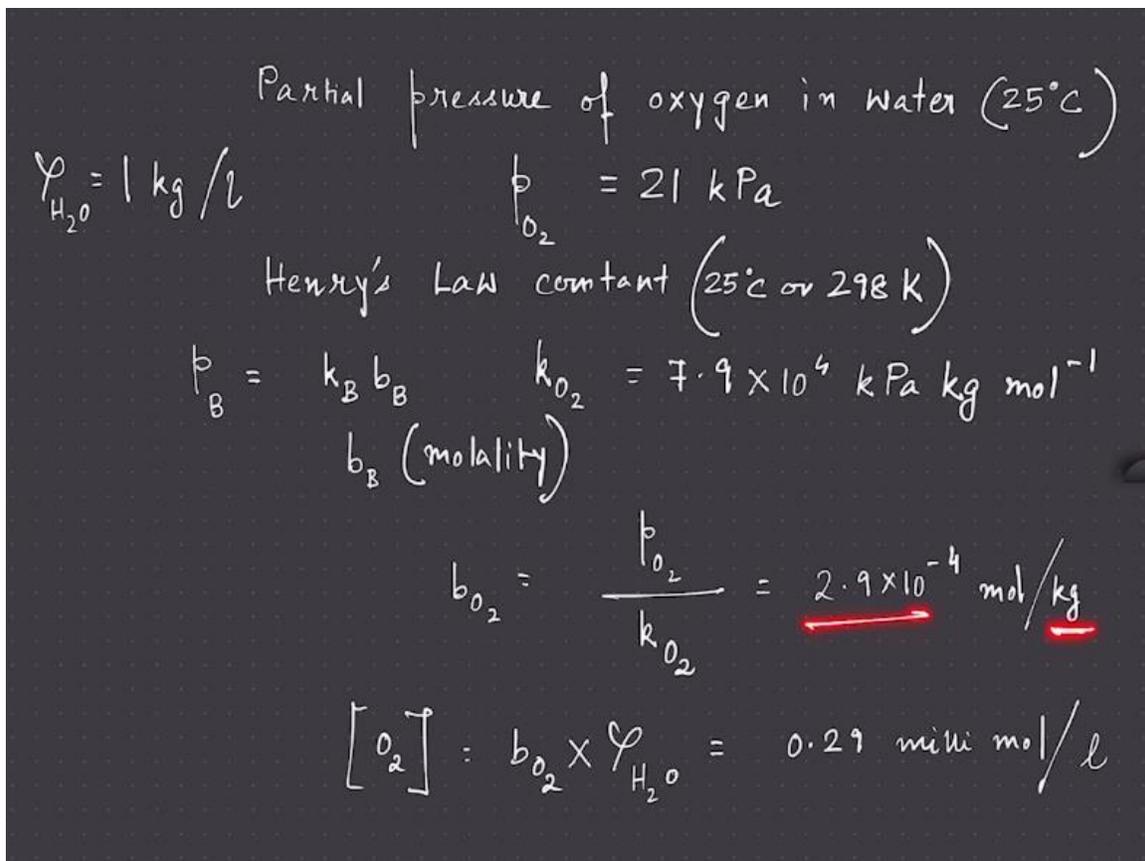
7 11 18.9 and all this and again as the solute that the concentration of C increases there is P A that changes from 46.3 then 33 and then it goes to 0 when X equal to 1 right so it falls right that is falls right is acetone so acetone initially when X equal to 0 that means it is pure acetone the vapor pressure was 46.



3 pure acetone vapor pressure 46.3 then it became 33.3 when you have 0.2 chloroform or 0.8 acetone this is 0.6 acetone this is 0.4 acetone and 0.2 acetone and 0 acetone then basically the partial pressure goes to 0 if you look at this these are your experimental data points these are your experimental data points for this is component C. component C increases from 0 to 1 right so this is for component C right these are the points for corresponding component C and these are the grains corresponding to component A right this is the point called corresponding to component A so this is for pure A and this is for pure C right so pure C now if you look at that you can see that the Raoult's law basically tells that the partial pressure of this component say for example partial pressure of component C because $X_t X_c$ times P star right so basically P equals to P star X_c when I tell you P_c is P_c star so P_c star is where P_c star is somewhere here right so basically Raoult's law basically gives me the yellow lines right that's the yellow line similarly I can write if I look at Raoult's law for so for component C or component A I can write P_a star X_a P_a or equal to P_a star to 1 minus X_c right so you can see that there is a minus P_a star slope right so this has a slope of slope is minus P_a star and P_a star is here P_a star is here right the slope is minus P_a star and P_c so I can also write P_c so these are all Raoult's law Raoult's law I am drawing using that's why I am using yellow pen right Raoult's law and P_c because P_c star C right so now but Henry's law look at Henry's law Henry's law is

drawn at the concentration of the solute which is negligible right so if we look at C the concentration of solute means A

A equal to 1 here and A equal to 0 here right if I look at X_A X_A increases this way now if you look at that when X_C is basically very small that is where you have to draw the tangent right that green tangent so the green tangent basically gives me a partial pressure value of that the activity that's γ_2 value so that is basically γ so let us look at this line the green line is basically here or here say so this is basically equal to $\gamma_{C=0}$ right so this is the constant and this is basically $\gamma_{A=0}$ right because when I am looking at A as the solvent then basically when basic A as the solute the limit of A so C is the solvent A is a solute then we have to draw the tangent at C equal to 1 right so at C equal to 1 so this gives me the $\gamma_{A=0}$ so this is basically called this is the these are the constants from Henry's law so this is something that is often used in liquid solutions in liquid solutions or solid solutions and we look at that but remember the data points show deviation from ideality the data points show deviation from ideality right so the data points here are showing so if you look at this white curve it is deviated right it is either showing a positive it is showing a deviation from ideality it can be positive deviation here it is it may be a negative deviation from ideality right here it is showing a negative deviation from ideality so that's the idea so partial pressure of oxygen in water for example is 21 kPa and Henry's law constant say for example is given by 7.9×10^4 kPa kg per mole and P_B equals to $k_B B$ where B is the molality of B or so basically B here is O_2 so B equal to you can take B equal to O_2 then B_{O_2} is P_{O_2} by k_{O_2} where k_{O_2} is already given Henry's law constant that is how much of oxygen is dissolving in water so we can basically see it is 2.



9 10 power 4 moles per kg so the concentration of O2 we can write we can see that it is millimoles 0.29 millimoles per liter okay so basically what I am trying to say is that say for example this is one example of dissolution of oxygen in water and you have very little amount of oxygen right millimoles 0.29 millimoles of oxygen in water okay per liter and so basically you can apply right the the the the the Henry's law but here we are using so the Henry's law can be written also in terms of molality so here this is the molality of solute B okay molality means per kg right per kg so B B yeah so B O2 for example is these many moles per kg of the solvent right per kg of the solvent, solvent here is what okay so there is another property which is called collective property or colligative properties right these are called colligative properties colligative means it does not depend on the nature of the particle but it only depends on the collection of particles colligative comes from this spot collection because of the solvent because of solute dissolving the solution right say for example sodium chloride dissolving in water you have now two moles of means if one mole of water you consider and you have one mole of sodium chloride you have added to say one liter of water say let us consider one liter of water and you have added one mole of sodium chloride one mole of sodium chloride means two one mole of Na plus one mole of chloride ions one mole of those two moles of Na plus ions and chloride ions and these are the particles we do not care about whether it is sodium ions or chloride ions but we only care about the collection of these particles that are added to water okay and they are dissolving in water so in that

case what generally happens is if you look at the phase diagram of water this is pure water phase diagram right which has say at one bar pressure it has a zero degree Celsius as the freezing point or the melting point and 100 degrees Celsius is the boiling point so we will continue this discussion of colligative properties in the next week in the next week and we will go into how to define quasi-chemical models for real solutions okay

