

THERMAL PHYSICS II

B. Sc. Part II (Hons.) Paper: IV A

University of Calcutta

A course guided by

Dr. P. Mandal

Department of Physics, St. Paul's C. M. College

ermodynamics is a funny subject. The first time you go through it, you don't understand it at all. The second time you go through it, you think you understand it except for one or two points. The third time you go through it, you know you don't understand it, but by that time you are so used to the subject, it doesn't bother you anymore" - **Arnold Sommerfeld**

theory is the more impressive the greater the simplicity of its premises,
the more different kinds of things it relates, and the more extended its area
of applicability. Therefore the deep impression that classical thermodynamics made
on me. It is the only physical theory of universal content which I am convinced
will never be overthrown, within the framework of applicability of its basic
concepts" - **Albert Einstein**

Syllabus

Basic Concepts

Microscopic and macroscopic points of view: thermodynamic variables of a system, State function, exact and inexact differentials

First Law of Thermodynamics

Thermal equilibrium, Zeroth law and the concept of temperature. Thermodynamic equilibrium, internal energy, external work, quasistatic process, first law of thermodynamics applications including magnetic systems, specific heats and their ratio, isothermal and adiabatic changes in perfect and real gases

Syllabus

Second Law of Thermodynamics

Reversible and irreversible processes, indicator diagram. Carnot's cycles-efficiency, Carnot theorem. Kelvin's scale of temperature, relation to perfect gas scale, second law of thermodynamics – different formulations and their equivalence, Clausius inequality, entropy change of entropy in simple reversible and irreversible processes, entropy and disorder, equilibrium and entropy principle, principle of degradation of energy

Syllabus

Thermodynamic Functions

enthalpy, Helmholtz and Gibbs' free energies; Legendre transformations, Maxwell's relations; simple deductions using these relations; thermodynamic equilibrium and free energies

Change of States

equilibrium between phases, triple point: Gibbs' phase rule (statement only) and simple applications. First and higher order phase transitions, Ehrenfest criterion. Clausius-Clapeyron's equation. Joule-Thomson effect

References

Basic Thermodynamics – Evelyn Guha (Narosa)

Heat and Thermodynamics – Dittman & Zeemansky (Tata McGraw Hill)

Thermodynamics – Enrico Fermi (Dover)

Thermal Physics (Heat & Thermodynamics) – A. B. Gupta & H. P. Roy (Books & Allied)

Basic Concepts

What is 'Thermodynamics'?

A branch of physics which deals with the transformation of heat into mechanical work and vice-versa. It describes bulk properties of a system containing large number of atoms and molecules, in terms of some macroscopic variables defining the system

Classical thermodynamics is studied with four fundamental laws which are derived from experimental evidences. It does not enter into the microscopic description like the kinetic mechanism of the constituents of the system

Basic Concepts

What is 'Thermodynamics'?

Statistical thermodynamics considers microscopic interactions between individual particles and their collective motions in terms of classical or of quantum mechanics, to extract average properties of the system. It provides explanation of the laws of thermodynamics

Basic Concepts

What is 'Thermodynamics'?

Zeroth law of thermodynamics introduces the concept of temperature, (probably) the most important parameter in thermodynamics

First law of thermodynamics restates the conservation of energy principle

Second law of thermodynamics is based on an observation that heat can not flow spontaneously from a colder body to a hotter body and thus restricts the complete conversion of heat into work

Third law of thermodynamics is a statistical law of nature regarding entropy and the impossibility of reaching absolute zero temperature

Basic Concepts

Objectives of Thermodynamics

Why will we learn from thermodynamics?

Have you ever thought the following questions?

Why is the air released from a tyre cool?

Why does the pumping cylinder get hot during pumping?

Why does a car's engine get hot when it is running?

Why is the maximum concentration we can get of alcohol is around 95%?

Thermodynamics answers them all

Basic Concepts

Objectives of Thermodynamics

Thermodynamics is the theory of macroscopic phenomena which is developed empirically. It describes the idea of some very important physical parameters of the nature like temperature, entropy, enthalpy *etc.*

We will learn phenomenologically the consequences of heat transfer between a system and its surroundings, the direction of heat flow, the efficiency or the performance of heat engines & refrigerators

Basic Concepts

Objectives of Thermodynamics

Thermodynamics sets limits on physical and biological processes and gives relations between various properties. As we will see, both of these give us an insight into how natural systems work and give us some powerful tools in calculating various quantities.

Thermodynamics is also unique in the world of physics. Mechanics deals with mechanical systems, fluid dynamics deals with fluids, and electromagnetism deals with electrical and magnetic systems. Thermodynamics applies to any macroscopic system: mechanical systems, fluids, electrical and magnetic systems etc.

Basic Concepts

*is the only physical theory of universal content concerning which I am convinced that, within the framework of the applicability of the basic concepts, it will never be overthrown" – **Einstein***

Basic Concepts

Realism: Macroscopic point of view

In classical mechanics, the state of a particle is specified by its instantaneous position

and momentum which is a set of six coordinates (x, y, z, p_x, p_y, p_z)

In quantum mechanics the state is specified by a set of quantum numbers

A macroscopic system contains very large number of particles (typically more than 10^{23})

hence it requires a large number of variables to describe the system

In classical thermodynamics, we study macroscopic properties of a system in terms of

few variables defining the system in equilibrium

Basic Concepts

Microscopic versus macroscopic descriptions

The microscopic description or the microstate of a system is the complete description of the constituent in this system. For example, a system containing N number of particles requires $6N$ coordinates to classically describe the microscopic properties of the system

The structure of the system should be well known, or in some cases assumptions are required for microscopic description of the system

A large number of quantities are required for the description

Parameters describing the microstates of system are generally beyond our sensory perception

The parameters can not be measured directly but these are calculated

Basic Concepts

Microscopic versus macroscopic descriptions

The macroscopic description or the macrostate of a system, in contrast, refers to the macroscopic properties. For example, the same system can be macroscopically described with the help of few parameters like the number of particles in the system (N), pressure (P), volume (V) and the temperature (T) of the system

It does not involve the internal structure of the system and hence macroscopic description does not require an insight at the atomic or molecular level

Only few parameters are required for macroscopic description

Macroscopic parameters are within our sensory perception

Most important to mention, we can measure these parameters directly

Basic Concepts

Microscopic versus macroscopic descriptions

The parameters describing the microstates of a system in equilibrium change with time. However, the macroscopic parameters for a system in equilibrium do not change with time.

In classical thermodynamics we will study a system in equilibrium

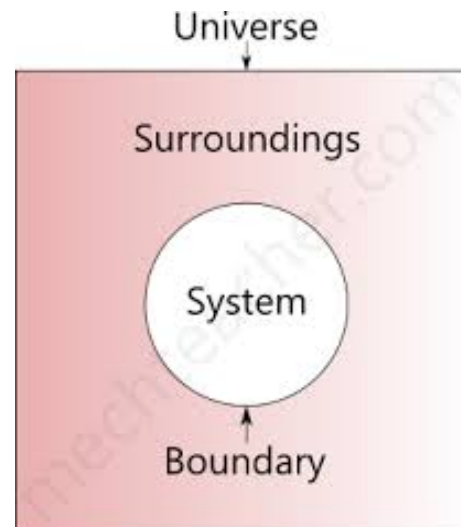
Basic Concepts

Definition of terminologies

System: A thermodynamic system is the content of a macroscopic volume in space which is considered for the study

Surroundings: It is separated by its walls from the rest part of the universe, called surroundings. Practically, 'surroundings' is the immediate neighbourhood of the system

Universe: System + Surroundings



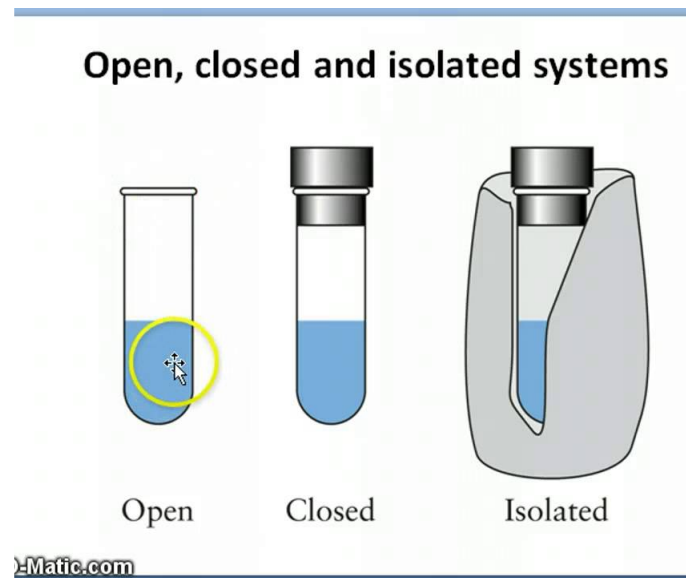
Basic Concepts

Definition of terminologies

Open System: Exchange of matter & energy between the system and the surroundings

Closed System: No exchange of matter but exchange of energy

Isolated System: No exchange of matter & energy between the system and the surroundings



Basic Concepts

Definition of terminologies

State of a system: The state of a system in thermodynamics is specified by a set of macroscopic parameters, called the thermodynamic coordinates which depend on the system. For a system composed of a chemically defined homogeneous fluid, temperature, pressure (P) & volume (V) can be chosen as suitable thermodynamic coordinates and hence a set of these three coordinates (P, V, T) defines the thermodynamic state of the system.

Basic Concepts

Definition of terminologies

For a stretched wire, tension in the wire (F), length of the wire (L) & temperature (T) can be chosen as thermodynamic coordinates and hence its state can be specified by the set (F, L, T)

For a surface film of liquid, surface tension of the liquid (S), surface area (A) & temperature (T) are the thermodynamic coordinates and state of the film is described by (S, A, T)

Basic Concepts

Definition of terminologies

Equation of state: In equilibrium, there exists a relation between the thermodynamic coordinates of a system and it is called the equation of state for the system

Equation of state of a system composed of a chemically defined homogeneous fluid is given by

$f(P, V, T) = 0$ [$PV = RT$: equation of state for an ideal gas]

For the stretched wire the equation of state is given by $f(F, L, T) = 0$

For the surface film, the equation of state is given by $f(S, A, T) = 0$

Basic Concepts

Definition of terminologies

Equation of state makes one of the thermodynamic coordinates of the system dependent on others, i.e. one coordinate can be extracted using the equation of state if other coordinates are known

Basic Concepts

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

In classical thermodynamics we study a system in equilibrium

Thermodynamic equilibrium is an axiomatic concept – involves internal state of a system

thermodynamic system or a relation between several systems connected by permeable walls

In thermodynamic equilibrium, there are no net macroscopic flow of matter or energy, either

within a system or between systems. Thus no macroscopic change occurs within the system

and the state of the system does not change

Basic Concepts

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

An unbalanced potential anywhere within the system, or between the systems lead

change of state of the system under study

Systems in mutual thermodynamic equilibrium are simultaneously in mutual ther

mechanical, and chemical equilibria

Basic Concepts

Hydrodynamic Equilibrium

Mechanical Equilibrium:

An unbalanced force within a system, or between a system and its surroundings exists due to

variation of pressure or elastic stress

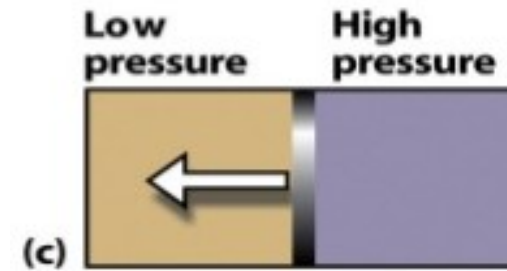
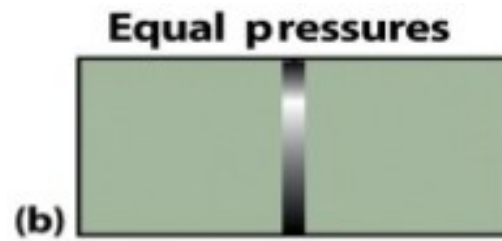
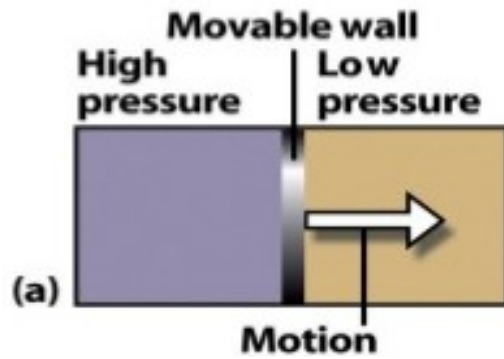
that results expansion or contraction, turbulence, eddies within the system under study

When such flow of mechanical energy ceases, the system is in mechanical equilibrium

Basic Concepts

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

Mechanical Equilibrium:



Basic Concepts

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

Thermal Equilibrium:

If a temperature difference exists within a system, or between a system and its surroundings,

separated by a diathermic wall, there will be exchange of heat between them and the state of

the system will change – heat exchange continues until the temperature gradient vanishes.

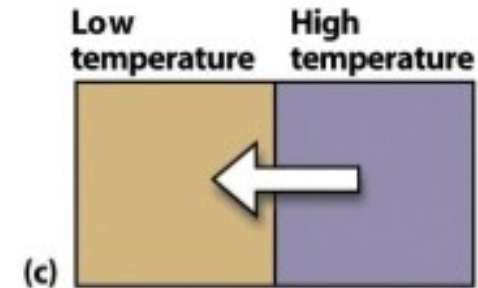
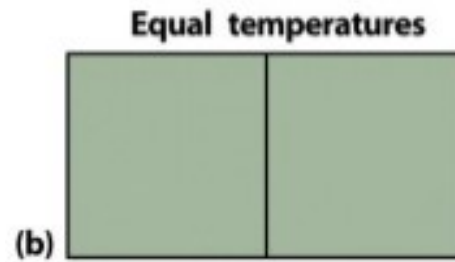
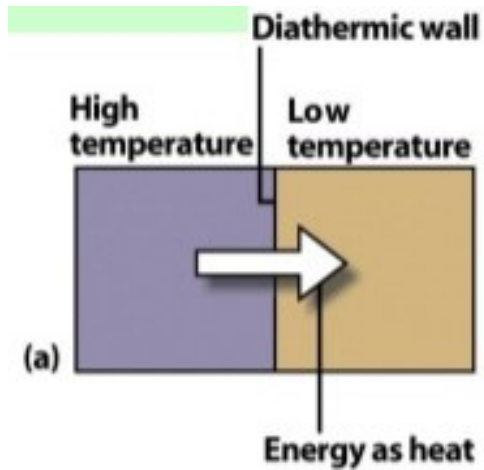
Condition for thermal equilibrium of a system is that the temperature is uniform throughout

the system (or between the system and its surroundings)

Basic Concepts

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

Thermal Equilibrium:



Basic Concepts

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

Chemical Equilibrium:

The chemical composition of a system may change due to variation of the chemical potential within the system or between the system and its surroundings

For a system in chemical equilibrium, the chemical potential must be uniform

Consider two systems separated by a perforated wall. The systems contain same element of different concentrations – diffusion through the wall from the system having higher concentration to the system with smaller concentration. The diffusion continues until the systems achieve same concentration

Thermodynamic Processes

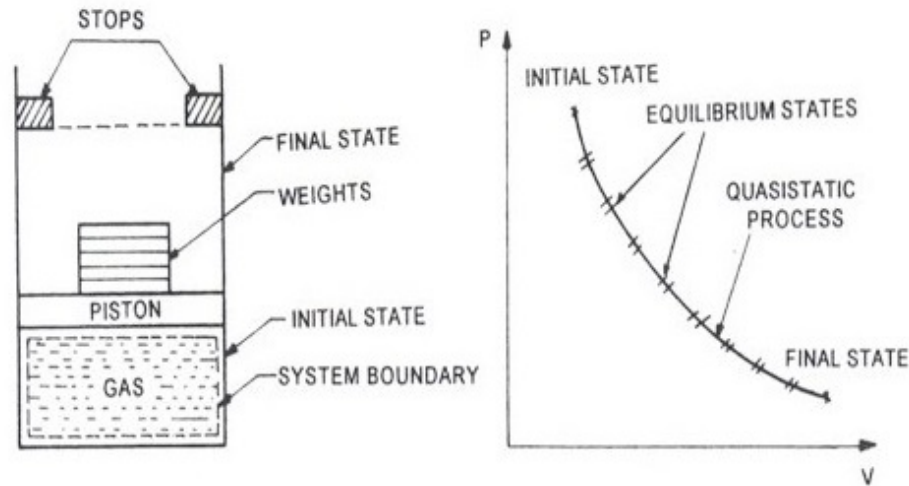
Quasi-static process:

Happens 'infinitely slowly' such that the system remains 'infinitesimally close' to equilibrium state at all times

No real process is quasi-static, such process approximated by performing them very slowly

The process proceeds slow enough to allow the system to adjust itself internally so

macroscopic properties in one part of the system do not change any faster than its rest part



Thermodynamic Processes

Reversible process:

An infinitesimal change in the conditions of the surroundings leads to a 'reversal' of the process. The system is very close to equilibrium and infinitesimal changes can restore the system and the surroundings to the original state.

Any reversible process is necessarily a quasi-static one

During a reversible process, the system is in thermodynamic equilibrium with the surroundings throughout the entire process.

Since it would take an infinite amount of time for the reversible process to finish, perfect reversible processes are impossible.

Thermodynamic Processes

Irreversible process is quasi-static but the reverse not necessarily true

Quasi-static processes are those processes in which a system is taken from one state to another through an infinitesimal number of steps (slowly) such that there is always an equilibrium maintained between the system and its surroundings. For a process which is not quasi-static, it would give the system an infinite number of pathways to return to its initial state and thus make the process irreversible. Hence, an irreversible process must be quasi-static.

Thermodynamic Processes

However, if a process is quasi-static, it doesn't mean that the process is reversible. For example, during the compression of a gas present in cylinder using a piston such that there is friction between the cylinder and piston, in this case there will be generation of dissipation which will make the process irreversible even though it is performed quasi-statically.

Thermodynamic Processes

Irreversible process:

A thermodynamic process which is not reversible, is called an irreversible process

A change in the thermodynamic state of a system and all of its surroundings cannot be precisely restored to its initial state by infinitesimal changes in some properties of the system

A system that undergoes an irreversible process may still be capable of returning to its initial state; however, the impossibility occurs in restoring the environment to its own initial conditions

All natural processes are irreversible

Thermodynamic Processes

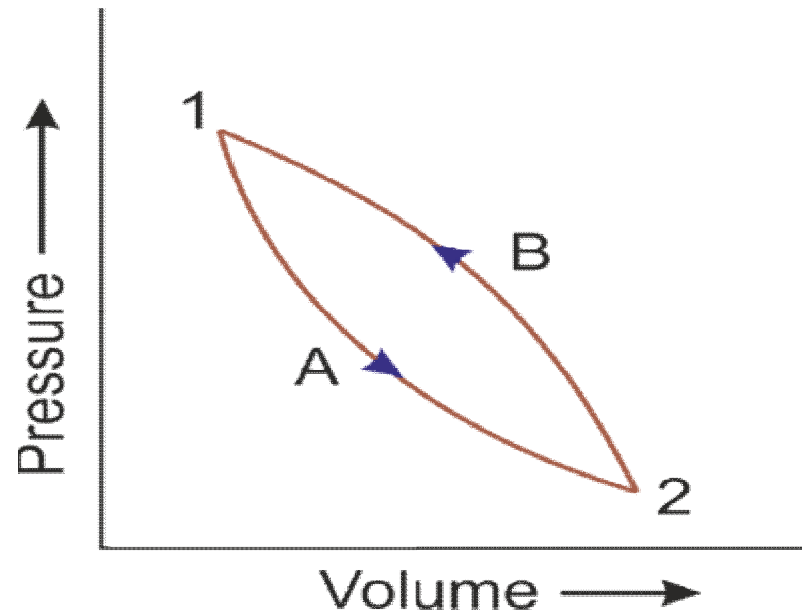
Cyclic process:

If the final state of a system in a thermodynamic process is same as its initial state

process is called cyclic

The observable which are state functions, do not change in the cyclic process

However, the observable which are path functions, undergo a net change in cyclic process



Thermodynamic Processes

Isothermal process:

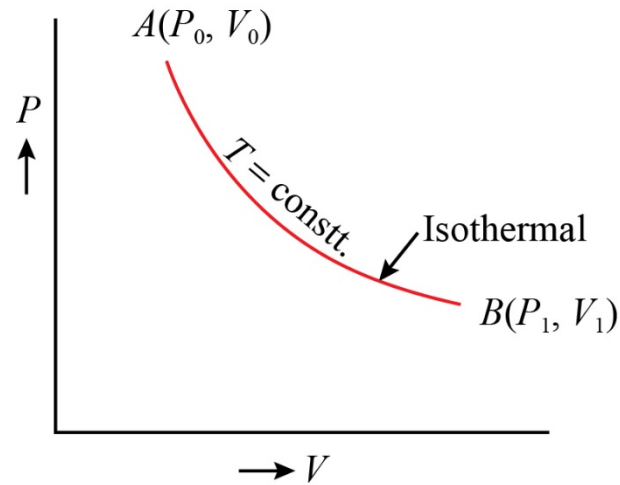
A thermodynamic process which takes place at constant temperature

Melting of ice or freezing of water, evaporation of water etc. are isothermal processes

An isothermal process for an ideal gas is governed by Boyle's law and described by

equation of state $PV = \text{constant}$. $P - V$ relation is called an isotherm – rectangular hyper

or an ideal gas. Internal energy of an ideal gas remains constant in isothermal process



($P-V$ Diagram)

Thermodynamic Processes

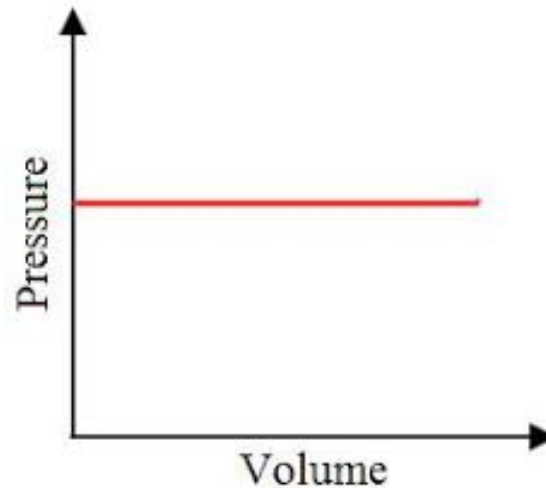
isobaric process:

A thermodynamic process which takes place at constant pressure

Heating of water in open air occurs under the atmospheric pressure and hence it can be regarded as an isobaric process

An ideal gas under the isobaric process follows Charles's law & corresponding equation of state is $V/T = \text{constant}$. The P – V relation in this process is called an isobar – straight line

in ideal gas



Thermodynamic Processes

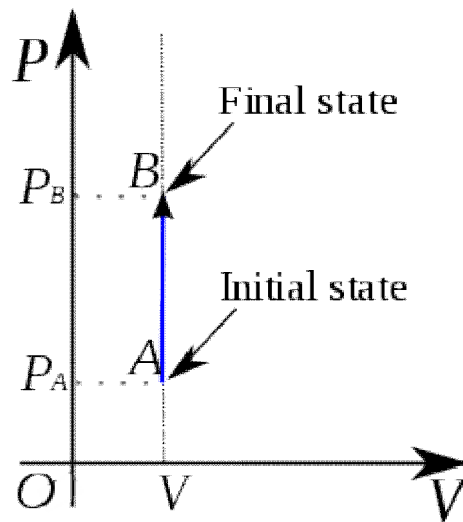
Isochoric process:

A thermodynamic process which takes place at constant volume

Heating of gas in sealed metal container—pressure, temperature increases at constant volume

An ideal gas under the isochoric process follows the equation of state: $P/T = \text{constant}$. P

relation in this process is called an isochor which is a straight line for an ideal gas

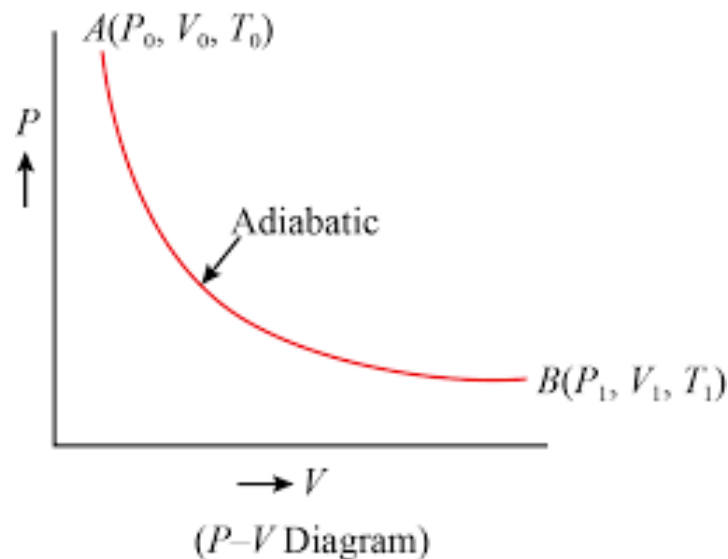


Thermodynamic Processes

Adiabatic process:

No exchange of heat between the system and the surroundings in this process

The equation of state of an ideal gas under an adiabatic process is described by $PV^\gamma = \text{constant}$, where γ is the ratio of the specific heat at constant pressure & the specific heat at constant volume ($\gamma = C_p/C_v$)



Thermodynamic Functions

Macroscopic observables like heat, work done, internal energy, entropy etc. are the functions of thermodynamic coordinates

Observables change as the state of a system changes

For some of these observable the change depends on the final and initial states only, while for other observable the change not only depends on the initial and final states but also on the process through which the state of the system has changed

The observable have been classified accordingly into two categories:

- 1) State functions
- 2) Path functions

Thermodynamic Functions

State functions:

Thermodynamic functions, the change of which depends only on the final and initial state of the system and not on the path or the process, are called state functions

Examples: Internal energy, Entropy, Enthalpy etc.

In a cyclic thermodynamic process, there is no change in these observables

Thermodynamic Functions

Path functions:

Thermodynamic functions, the change of which depends not only on the final and initial states of the system but also on thermodynamic process through which the system is taken from the initial to the final state, are called path functions

Examples: Heat exchange, Work done etc.

In a cyclic thermodynamic process, there is net change in these observables

Intensive & Extensive Properties

Intensive Property:

A bulk property which means it is a physical property of a system that does not depend on the system size or the amount of material in the system

Examples: temperature, pressure, concentration, density, specific heat, refractive index, surface tension, viscosity, elasticity, chemical potential, electrical resistivity or conductivity, thermal conductivity, magnetic field, polarization, magnetization etc.

Intensive & Extensive Properties

Extensive Property:

An extensive property is additive for independent, non-interacting subsystems. The property is dependent on the amount of material in the system

Examples: mass, length, area, volume, energy, entropy, particle number, number of moles, magnetic moment, electric charge etc.

Intensive & Extensive Properties

The ratio of two extensive properties of the same object or system is scale-invariant, and therefore an intensive property

For example, the ratio of the extensive properties mass and volume, the density, is an intensive property

Intensive & Extensive Properties

Thermodynamic Systems

Intensive Coordinates

Extensive Coordinates

Mathematical Preliminaries

Consider three variables x, y, z such that $f(x, y, z) = 0$

$$x = f(y, z) \Rightarrow dx = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z dy + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y dz \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$y = f(x, z) \Rightarrow dy = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x dz \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$z = f(x, y) \Rightarrow dz = \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y dx + \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y}\right)_x dy$$

From eq. (1) & (2)

$$\begin{aligned} dx &= \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left[\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x dz \right] + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y dz \\ &= \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left[\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y \right] dz \dots \dots \dots (3) \end{aligned}$$

Mathematical Preliminaries

$$dx = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left[\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y \right] dz \dots \dots (3)$$

Since $f(x, y, z) = 0$, only two variables are independent – let's take x & z as independent

Choose $dz = 0 \Rightarrow dx = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx \Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z}$$



Reciprocal Relation

Mathematical Preliminaries

$$dx = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left[\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y \right] dz \dots \dots (3)$$

Choose $dx = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y \right] = 0$$
$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x = - \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y = - \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y = -1 \quad \leftarrow \text{Cyclic Relation}$$

Mathematical Preliminaries

Exact and inexact differentials:

$$dz = M dx + N dy$$

dz is said to be exact if $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Example: } dz &= 2xy dx + x^2 dy \\ M &= 2xy \quad N = x^2 \\ \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 2x \end{aligned}$$

dz is said to be inexact if $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \neq \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Example: } dz &= 2x^2y^3 dx + 3x^3y^2 dy \\ M &= 2x^2y^3 \quad N = 3x^3y^2 \\ \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} &\neq \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} \end{aligned}$$

Mathematical Preliminaries

Exact and inexact differentials:

dz is an exact differential $\int_{z_1}^{z_2} dz = z_2 - z_1 \Rightarrow \oint dz = 0$

In thermodynamics, the state functions like the internal energy does not change in a cyclic process.

The change of these functions can be expressed as exact differential and usually denoted with

symbol dz (e.g. dU , dS , dH etc.)

Path functions like work done or heat-exchange are inexact differential and usually denoted with

symbol $\vec{d}z$ (e.g. $\vec{d}Q$, $\vec{d}W$ etc.)

Mathematical Preliminaries

The equation of state for a system of chemically defined homogeneous fluid: $f(P, V, T) = 0$

⇒ Reciprocal and cyclic relations are satisfied by P, V, T

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_T = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P}\right)_T}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_T \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_V = -1$$

$$f(P, V, T) = 0 \Rightarrow P = f(V, T) \quad \Rightarrow dP = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_T dV + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_P dT$$

$$V = f(P, T) \quad \Rightarrow dV = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P}\right)_T dP + \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P dT$$

$$T = f(P, V) \quad \Rightarrow dT = \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_V dP + \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_P dV$$

Mathematical Preliminaries

Some definitions:

. Thermal coefficient of volume expansion at constant pressure: $\beta_P = \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P$

. Pressure coefficient of volume expansion at constant temperature: $K_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_T$

. Isothermal compressibility or Isothermal Bulk modulus: $\beta_T = 1/K_T = -V \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V} \right)_T$

Mathematical Preliminaries

Problem:

fluid system –

$$f(p, V, T) = 0 \Rightarrow V = f(P, T)$$

$$\Rightarrow dV = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_T dP + \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P dT$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dV}{V} = \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_T dP + \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P dT$$

$$\Rightarrow d(\ln V) = -K_T dP + \beta_P dT$$

$$\beta_P = \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_P$$

$$K_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_T$$

Mathematical Preliminaries

$$d(\ln V) = -K_T dP + \beta_P dT$$

$\ln V$ is exact differential $\Rightarrow -\left(\frac{\partial K_T}{\partial T}\right)_P = \left(\frac{\partial \beta_P}{\partial P}\right)_T$

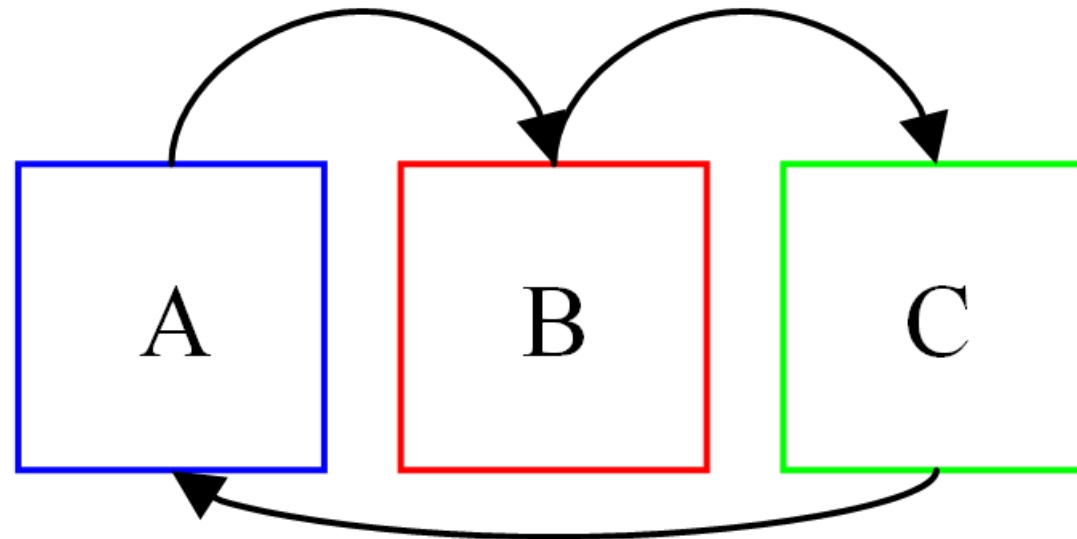
$$\frac{\beta_P}{K_T} = -\frac{\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P}{\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P}\right)_T} = -\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_T = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V$$

$$\beta_P = \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P$$

$$K_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P}\right)_T$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial V}\right)_T \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_V = -$$

Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics



If two systems are in thermal equilibrium individually with a third system, they will remain in thermal equilibrium with each other

Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics

System A is in thermal equilibrium with B

$$\Rightarrow \phi_1(P_A, V_A, P_B, V_B) = 0$$

$$P_B = f_1(P_A, V_A, V_B) \dots \dots (1)$$

System B is in thermal equilibrium with C

$$\Rightarrow \phi_2(P_B, V_B, P_C, V_C) = 0$$

$$P_B = f_2(P_C, V_C, V_B) \dots \dots (2)$$

Compare (1) & (2)

$$f_1(P_A, V_A, V_B) = f_2(P_C, V_C, V_B) \dots \dots (3)$$

Both laws imply System A is in thermal equilibrium with C

$$\Rightarrow \phi_3(P_A, V_A, P_C, V_C) = 0$$

$$f_1'(P_A, V_A) = f_2'(P_C, V_C) \dots \dots (4)$$

Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics

compare (3) & (4)

$$f(P_A, V_A) = f(P_C, V_C)$$

System A and system B are individually in thermal equilibrium with system C, zeroth law implies that system A and system B are in mutual thermal equilibrium

$$f(P_A, V_A) = f(P_B, V_B)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(P_A, V_A) = f(P_B, V_B) = f(P_C, V_C)$$

Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics

Thus for every system there exists a function of its state variables such that the numerical value of this function is the same for all systems in thermal equilibrium with each other.

The common value θ of these functions is called the empirical temperature.

Temperature may be defined as a function of state of a system such that it takes the same value for all systems in thermal equilibrium with one another.

Work

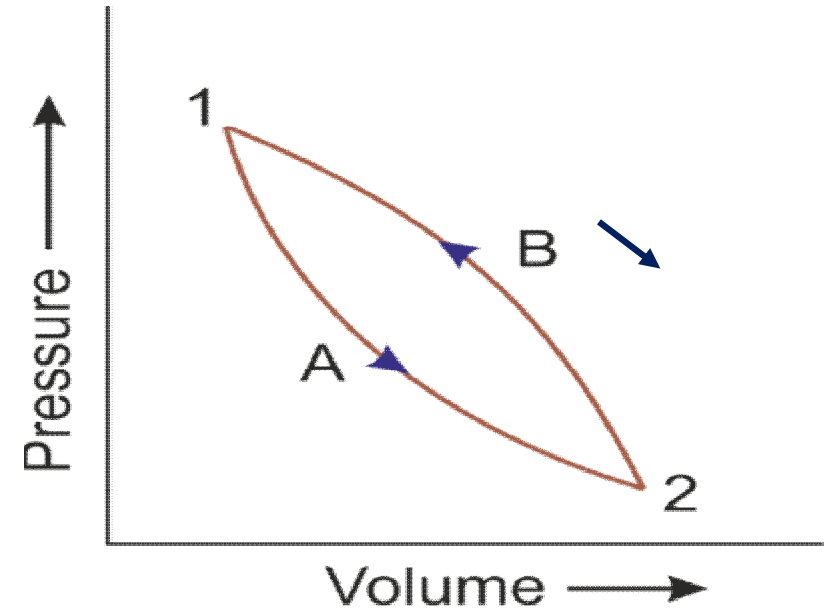
Work done is path dependent – an inexact differential:

$$\int_1^2 \delta W \neq \int_1^2 \delta W$$

Path A

Path B

$$\oint \delta W \neq 0$$



Adiabatic Work done is same for all paths

Work

Work done δW is positive when the work is done by the system: expansion of gas, contraction of wire, contraction of area of surface film etc.

Work done δW is negative when the work is done on the system: compression of gas, stretching of wire, extension of area of surface film etc.

Work

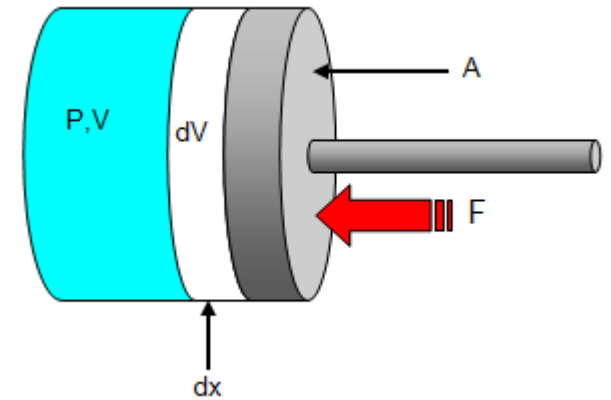
Work done for a simple compressible system:

Force exerted on the piston: $F = p\alpha$

Work done by the system: $\delta W = F \cdot dx = p \alpha dx = p dV$

$$\Delta W = \int_i^f \delta W = \int_i^f p dV$$

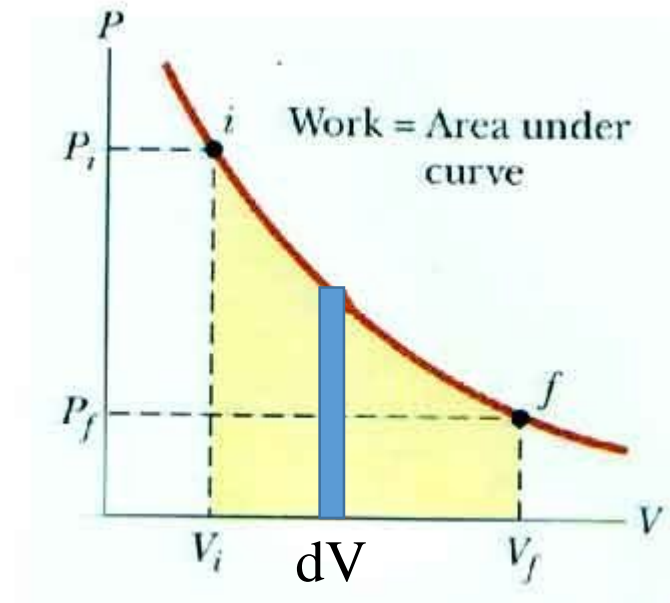
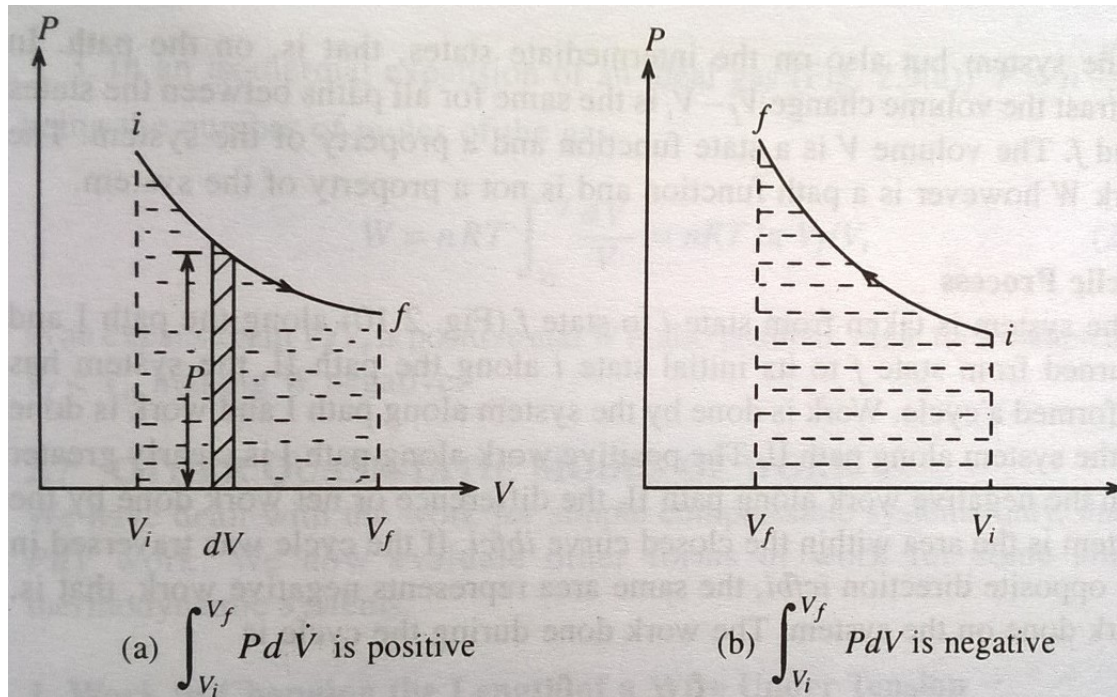
ΔW is +ve for $V_f > V_i$ and -ve for $V_f < V_i$



Work

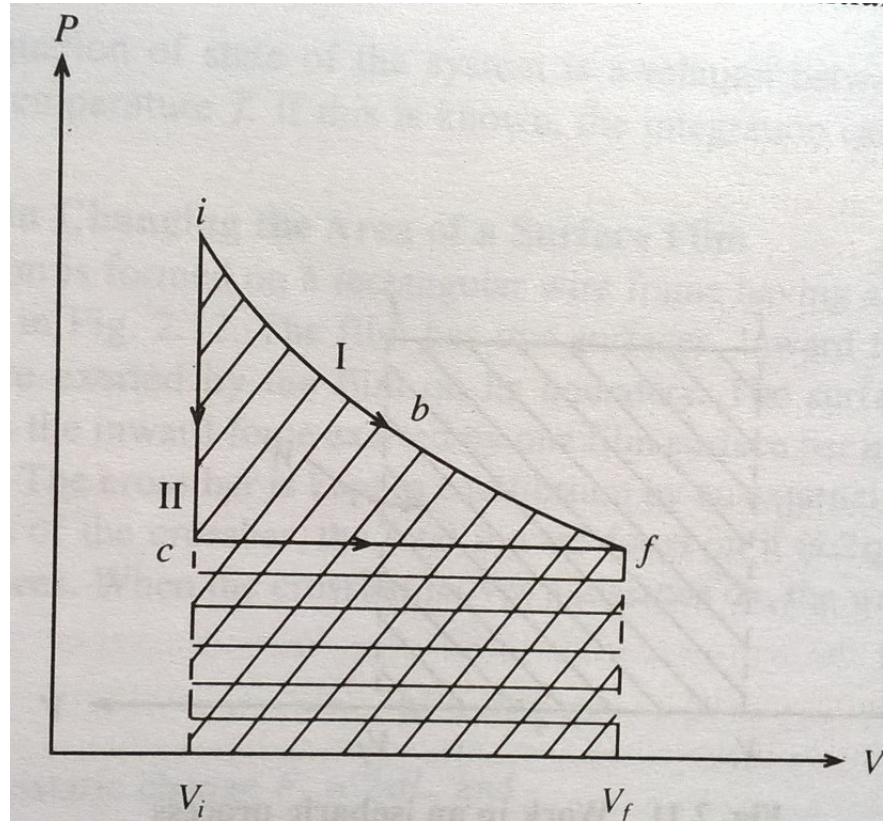
Work done and P-V diagram:

$$\Delta W = \int_i^f p dV = \text{area under the curve in p-V diagram}$$



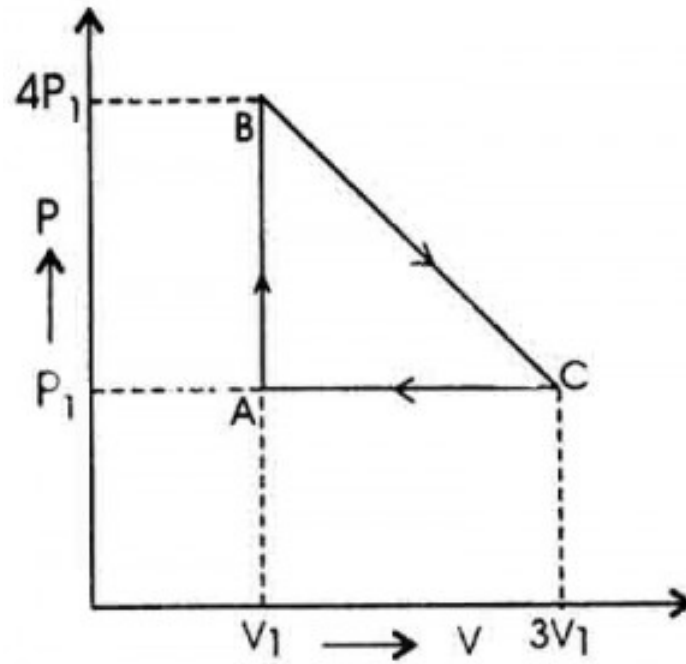
Work

Work done is path dependent:



Work

Problem:



Work

Work done in isothermal expansion of ideal gas:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta W &= \int_{V_i}^{V_f} p dV = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{RT}{V} dV \\ &= RT \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{1}{V} dV \\ &= RT \ln \left(\frac{V_f}{V_i} \right)\end{aligned}$$

Work

Work done in isobaric process of ideal gas:

$$\Delta W = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} p dV = p \int_{V_i}^{V_f} dV = p(V_f - V_i)$$

Work done in isochoric process of ideal gas: $dW = p dV = 0$

Work

Work done in adiabatic process of ideal gas:

$$\Delta W = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} p dV = c \int_{V_i}^{V_f} V^{-\gamma} dV$$

$$pV^\gamma = c \text{ (constant)}$$

$$= \frac{c}{1-\gamma} (V_f^{1-\gamma} - V_i^{1-\gamma})$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-\gamma} (cV_f^{-\gamma}V_f - cV_i^{-\gamma}V_i)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-\gamma} (cV_f^{-\gamma}V_f - cV_i^{-\gamma}V_i) = -\frac{R}{\gamma-1} (p_fV_f - p_iV_i) = \frac{R}{\gamma-1} (T_i - T_f)$$

Work

Work done in isothermal increase of pressure in solid:

$$\Delta W = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} p dV$$

$$= - \int_{p_i}^{p_f} p K_T V dp$$

$$\approx -K_T V \int_{p_i}^{p_f} p dp = \frac{1}{2} K_T V (p_i^2 - p_f^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V &= V(p, T) \\ \Rightarrow dV &= \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} \right)_T dp + \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_p dT \end{aligned}$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} \right)_T dp$$

$$= -K_T V dp$$

$$\because K_T = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial p} \right)_T$$

Work

Work done in isothermal increase of tension in wire:

$$\Delta W = - \int_{L_i}^{L_f} F dL$$

$$= - \int_{F_i}^{F_f} F \frac{L}{YA} dF$$

$$\approx - \frac{L}{YA} \int_{F_i}^{F_f} F dF = \frac{L}{2YA} (F_i^2 - F_f^2)$$

$$L = L(F, T)$$

$$\Rightarrow dL = \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial F} \right)_T dF + \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial T} \right)_F dT$$

$$= \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial F} \right)_T dF$$

$$= \frac{L}{YA} dF$$

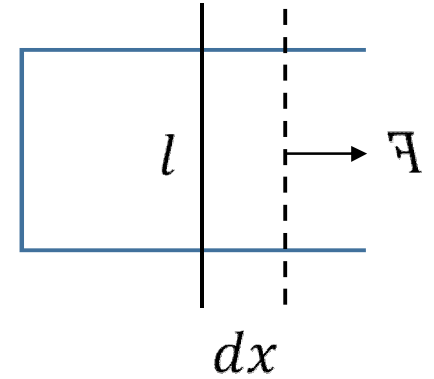
$$\therefore Y = \frac{L}{A} \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial L} \right)_T$$

Work

Work done in changing the area of a surface film:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta W &= -F dx \\ &= -\gamma l dx = -\gamma dA\end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta W = - \int_{A_i}^{A_f} \gamma dA$$



Work done in charging an electric cell:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta W &= -\mathcal{E} dq \\ &= -\mathcal{E} i dt\end{aligned}$$

Work

Work done to magnetize a material:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta W &= -BdM \\ &= -\mu HdM\end{aligned}$$

Work done polarizing a dielectric material:

$$\delta W = -EdP$$

Work

System	Intensive Coordinate ('Force')	Extensive Coordinate ('Displacement')	Work done (δW)
Hydrostatic system (p, V, T)	p	dV	$p dV$
Stretched wire (F, L, T)	F	dL	$-F dL$
Surface film (γ, A, T)	γ	dA	$-\gamma dA$
Electrochemical cell (\mathcal{E}, q, T)	\mathcal{E}	dq	$-\mathcal{E} dq$
Magnetic system (H, M, T)	H	dM	$-\mu H dM$
Dielectric system (E, P, T)	E	dP	$-E dP$