

# Chem 401—Physical Chemistry

## Chapter 5 Homework Solutions

98 INSTRUCTOR'S SOLUTIONS MANUAL

Therefore, plot  $1/\rho$  against  $w$  and extrapolate the tangent to  $w = 100$  to obtain  $V_B/M_B$ . For the actual procedure, draw up the following table

$w$	5	10	15	20
$\rho/(\text{g cm}^{-3})$	1.051	1.107	1.167	1.230
$1/(\rho/\text{g cm}^{-3})$	0.951	0.903	0.857	0.813

The values of  $1/\rho$  are plotted against  $w$  in Figure 5.2.

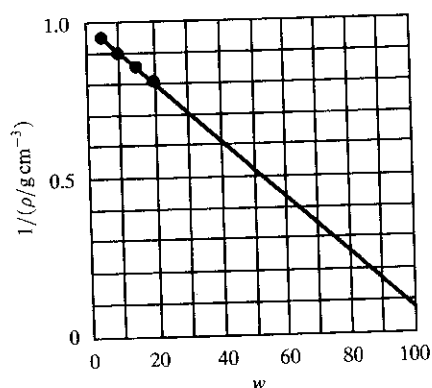


Figure 5.2

Four tangents are drawn to the curve at the four values of  $w$ . As the curve is a straight line to within the precision of the data, all four tangents are coincident and all four intercepts are equal at  $0.075 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ cm}^3$ . Thus

$$V(\text{CuSO}_4) = 0.075 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ cm}^3 \times 159.6 \text{ g mol}^{-1} = \boxed{12.0 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}}$$

P5.6

$$\Delta T = \frac{RT_f^{*2} x_B}{\Delta_{\text{fus}} H} \quad [5.36], \quad x_B \approx \frac{n_B}{n(\text{CH}_3\text{COOH})} = \frac{n_B M(\text{CH}_3\text{COOH})}{1000 \text{ g}}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \Delta T = \frac{n_B M R T_f^{*2}}{\Delta_{\text{fus}} H \times 1000 \text{ g}} = \frac{b_B M R T_f^{*2}}{\Delta_{\text{fus}} H} \quad [b_B: \text{molality of solution}]$$

$$= b_B \times \left( \frac{(0.06005 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}) \times (8.314 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}) \times (290 \text{ K})^2}{11.4 \times 10^3 \text{ J mol}^{-1}} \right)$$

$$= 3.68 \text{ K} \times b_B / (\text{mol kg}^{-1})$$

Giving for  $b_B$ , the apparent molality,

$$b_B = \nu b_B^0 = \frac{\Delta T}{3.68 \text{ K}} \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$$

where  $b_B^0$  is the actual molality and  $\nu$  may be interpreted as the number of ions in solution per one formula unit of KCl. The apparent molar mass of KCl can be determined from the apparent molality by the relation

$$M_B(\text{apparent}) = \frac{b_B^0}{b_B} \times M_B^0 = \frac{1}{\nu} \times M_B^0 = \frac{1}{\nu} \times (74.56 \text{ g mol}^{-1})$$

where  $M_B^0$  is the actual molar mass of KCl.

We can draw up the following table from the data.

$b_B^0/(\text{mol kg}^{-1})$	0.015	0.037	0.077	0.295	0.602
$\Delta T/K$	0.115	0.295	0.470	1.381	2.67
$b_B/(\text{mol kg}^{-1})$	0.0312	0.0802	0.128	0.375	0.726
$\nu = b_B/b_B^0$	2.1	2.2	1.7	1.3	1.2
$M_B(\text{app})/(\text{g mol}^{-1})$	26	34	44	57	62

A possible explanation is that the dissociation of KCl into ions is complete at the lower concentrations but incomplete at the higher concentrations. Values of  $\nu$  greater than 2 are hard to explain, but they could be a result of the approximations involved in obtaining equation 5.36.

See the original reference for further information about the interpretation of the data.

**P5.8**

- (a) On a Raoult's law basis,  $a = p/p^*$ ,  $a = \gamma x$ , and  $\gamma = p/xp^*$ . On a Henry's law basis,  $a = p/K$ , and  $\gamma = p/xK$ . The vapor pressures of the pure components are given in the table of data and are:  $p_1^* = 47.12 \text{ kPa}$ ,  $p_A^* = 37.38 \text{ kPa}$ .
- (b) The Henry's law constants are determined by plotting the data and extrapolating the low concentration data to  $x = 1$ . The data are plotted in Figure 5.3.  $K_A$  and  $K_I$  are estimated as graphical tangents at  $x_I = 1$  and  $x_I = 0$ , respectively. The values obtained are:  $K_A = 60.0 \text{ kPa}$  and  $K_I = 62.0 \text{ kPa}$

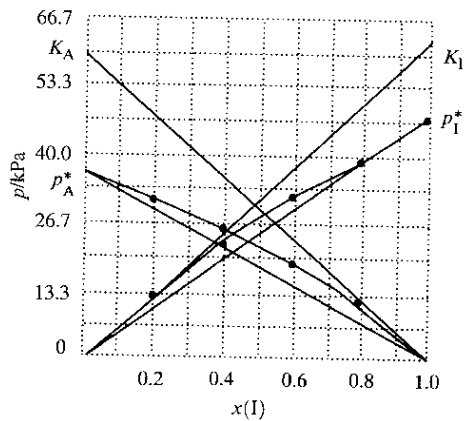


Figure 5.3

Then draw up the following table based on the values of the partial pressures obtained from the plots at the values of  $x_I$  given in the figure.

$x_I$	0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0
$p_I/\text{kPa}$	0	12.3	22.0	30.7	38.7	$47.12^\ddagger$
$p_A/\text{kPa}$	$37.38^\dagger$	30.7	24.7	18.0	10.7	0
$\gamma_I(\mathbf{R})$	—	1.30	1.17	1.09	1.03	$1.000[p_I/x_I p_I^*]$
$\gamma_A(\mathbf{R})$	1.000	1.03	1.10	1.20	1.43	$— [p_A/x_A p_A^*]$
$\gamma_I(\mathbf{H})$	1.000	0.990	0.887	0.824	0.780	$0.760[p_I/x_I K_I^*]$

$^\dagger$ The value of  $p_A^*$ ;  $^\ddagger$ the value of  $p_I^*$ .

**Question.** In this problem both I and A were treated as solvents, but only I as a solute. Extend the table by including a row for  $\gamma_A(\mathbf{H})$ .

**P5.10** The partial molar volume of cyclohexane is

$$V_c = \left( \frac{\partial V}{\partial n_c} \right)_{p,T,n_2}$$

A similar expression holds for  $V_p$ .  $V_c$  can be evaluated graphically by plotting  $V$  against  $n_c$  and finding the slope at the desired point. In a similar manner,  $V_p$  can be evaluated by plotting  $V$  against  $n_p$ . To find  $V_c$ ,  $V$  is needed at a variety of  $n_c$  while holding  $n_p$  constant, say at 1.0000 mol; likewise to find  $V_p$ ,  $V$  is needed at a variety of  $n_p$  while holding  $n_c$  constant. The mole fraction in this system is

$$x_c = \frac{n_c}{n_c + n_p} \quad \text{so } n_c = \frac{x_c n_p}{1 - x_c}$$

From  $n_c$  and  $n_p$ , the mass of the sample can be calculated, and the volume can be calculated from

$$V = \frac{m}{\rho} = \frac{n_c M_c + n_p M_p}{\rho}$$

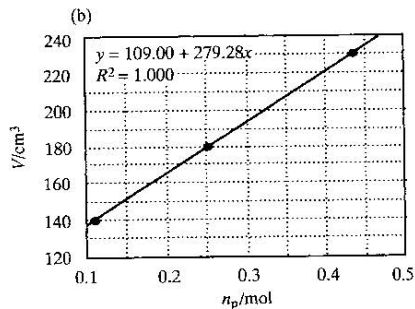
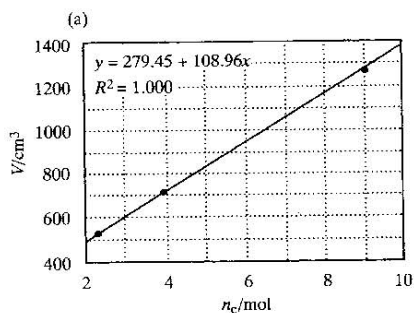


Figure 5.4

The following table is drawn up

$n_c/\text{mol}(n_p = 1)$	$V/\text{cm}^3$	$x_c$	$\rho/\text{g cm}^{-3}$	$n_p/\text{mol}(n_c = 1)$	$V/\text{cm}^3$
2.295	529.4	0.6965	0.7661	0.4358	230.7
3.970	712.2	0.7988	0.7674	0.2519	179.4
9.040	1264	0.9004	0.7697	0.1106	139.9

These values are plotted in Figures 5.4(a) and (b).

These plots show no curvature, so in this case, perhaps due to the limited number of data points, the molar volumes are independent of the mole numbers and are

$$V_c = 109.0 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad V_p = 279.3 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

**P5.12** The activity of a solvent is

$$a_A = \frac{p_A}{p_A^*} = x_A \gamma_A$$

so the activity coefficient is

$$\gamma_A = \frac{p_A}{x_A p_A^*} = \frac{y_A p}{x_A p_A^*}$$

where the last equality applies Dalton's law of partial pressures to the vapor phase.

Substituting the data, the following table of results is obtained.

$p/\text{kPa}$	$x_T$	$y_T$	$\gamma_T$	$\gamma_E$
23.40	0.000	0.000		
21.75	0.129	0.065	0.418	0.998
20.25	0.228	0.145	0.490	1.031
18.75	0.353	0.285	0.576	1.023
18.15	0.511	0.535	0.723	0.920
20.25	0.700	0.805	0.885	0.725
22.50	0.810	0.915	0.966	0.497
26.30	1.000	1.000		

**P5.14**  $S = S_0 e^{\tau/T}$  may be written in the form  $\ln S = \ln S_0 + (\tau/T)$ , which indicates that a plot of  $\ln S$  against  $1/T$  should be linear with slope  $\tau$  and intercept  $\ln S_0$ . Linear regression analysis gives  $\tau = 165 \text{ K}$ , standard deviation = 2 K

$$\ln(S_0/\text{mol dm}^{-3}) = 2.990, \text{ standard deviation} = 0.007; S_0 = e^{2.990} \text{ mol dm}^{-3} = 19.89 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$$

$$R = 0.99978$$

The linear regression explains 99.98 percent of the variation.

At this composition

$$V_E = 56.0 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}, \quad V_W = 17.5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ [Fig.5.1 of the text].}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } n_E = \frac{100 \text{ cm}^3}{(56.0 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}) + (2.557) \times (17.5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1})} = 0.993 \text{ mol,}$$

$$n_W = (2.557) \times (0.993 \text{ mol}) = 2.54 \text{ mol.}$$

The fact that these amounts correspond to a mixture containing 50 per cent by mass of both components is easily checked as follows:

$$m_E = n_E M_E = (0.993 \text{ mol}) \times (46.07 \text{ g mol}^{-1}) = 45.7 \text{ g ethanol,}$$

$$m_W = n_W M_W = (2.54 \text{ mol}) \times (18.02 \text{ g mol}^{-1}) = 45.7 \text{ g water.}$$

At 20°C the densities of ethanol and water are,

$$\rho_E = 0.789 \text{ g cm}^{-3}, \quad \rho_W = 0.997 \text{ g cm}^{-3}. \text{ Hence,}$$

$$V_E = \frac{m_E}{\rho_E} = \frac{45.7 \text{ g}}{0.789 \text{ g cm}^{-3}} = \boxed{57.9 \text{ cm}^3} \text{ of ethanol,}$$

$$V_W = \frac{m_W}{\rho_W} = \frac{45.7 \text{ g}}{0.997 \text{ g cm}^{-3}} = \boxed{45.8 \text{ cm}^3} \text{ of water.}$$

The change in volume upon adding a small amount of ethanol can be approximated by

$$\Delta V = \int dV \approx \int V_E dn_E \approx V_E \Delta n_E$$

where we have assumed that both  $V_E$  and  $V_W$  are constant over this small range of  $n_E$ . Hence

$$\Delta V \approx (56.0 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}) \times \left( \frac{(1.00 \text{ cm}^3) \times (0.789 \text{ g cm}^{-3})}{(46.07 \text{ g mol}^{-1})} \right) = \boxed{+0.96 \text{ cm}^3}.$$

**P5.7**

$$b_B = \frac{\Delta T}{K_f} = \frac{0.0703 \text{ K}}{1.86 \text{ K}/(\text{mol kg}^{-1})} = 0.0378 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}.$$

Since the solution molality is nominally  $0.0096 \text{ mol kg}^{-1}$  in  $\text{Th}(\text{NO}_3)_4$ , each formula unit supplies  $\frac{0.0378}{0.0096} \approx \boxed{4 \text{ ions}}$ . (More careful data, as described in the original reference gives  $\nu \approx 5$  to 6.)

**P5.9**

The data are plotted in Figure 5.3. The regions where the vapor pressure curves show approximate straight lines are denoted R for Raoult and H for Henry. A and B denote acetic acid and benzene respectively.

As in Problem 5.8, we need to form  $\gamma_A = \frac{p_A}{x_A p_A^*}$  and  $\gamma_B = \frac{p_B}{x_B p_B^*}$  for the Raoult's law activity coefficients

and  $\gamma_B = \frac{p_B}{x_B K}$  for the activity coefficient of benzene on a Henry's law basis, with  $K$  determined by extrapolation. We use  $p_A^* = 7.3 \text{ kPa}$ ,  $p_B^* = 35.2 \text{ kPa}$ , and  $K_B^* = 80.0 \text{ kPa}$  to draw up the following table.

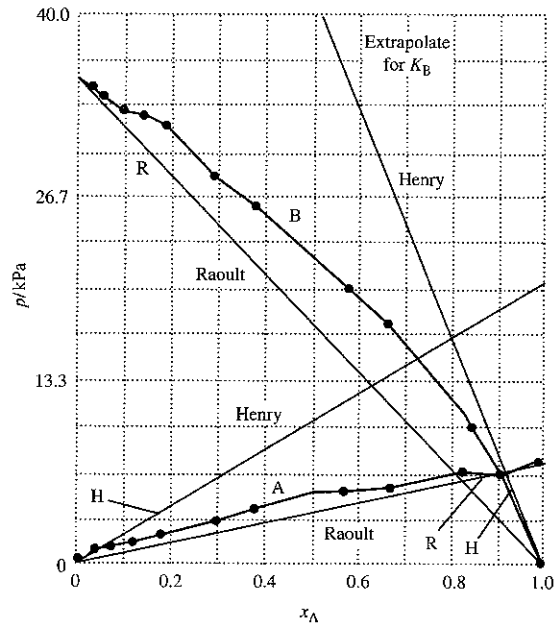


Figure 5.3

$x_A$	0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0
$p_A/\text{kPa}$	0	2.7	4.0	5.1	6.7	7.3
$p_B/\text{kPa}$	35.2	30.4	25.3	20.0	12.4	0
$a_A(\text{R})$	0	0.36	0.55	0.69	0.91	$1.00[p_A/p_A^*]$
$a_B(\text{R})$	1.00	0.86	0.72	0.57	0.35	$0[p_B/p_B^*]$
$\gamma_A(\text{R})$	—	1.82	1.36	1.15	1.14	$1.00[p_A/x_A p_A^*]$
$\gamma_B(\text{R})$	1.00	1.08	1.20	1.42	1.76	$-[p_B/x_B p_B^*]$
$a_B(\text{H})$	0.44	0.38	0.32	0.25	0.16	$0[p_B/K_B]$
$\gamma_B(\text{H})$	0.44	0.48	0.53	0.63	0.78	$1.00[p_B/x_B K_B]$

$G^E$  is defined as [Section 5.4]

$$G^E = \Delta_{\text{mix}} G(\text{actual}) - \Delta_{\text{mix}} G(\text{ideal}) = nRT(x_A \ln a_A + x_B \ln a_B) - nRT(x_A \ln x_A + x_B \ln x_B)$$

and, with  $a = \gamma x$ ,

$$G^E = nRT(x_A \ln \gamma_A + x_B \ln \gamma_B).$$

For  $n = 1$ , we can draw up the following table from the information above and  $RT = 2.69 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ .

$x_A$	0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1.0
$x_A \ln \gamma_A$	0	0.12	0.12	0.08	0.10	0
$x_B \ln \gamma_B$	0	0.06	0.11	0.14	0.11	0
$G^E/(\text{kJ mol}^{-1})$	0	0.48	0.62	0.59	0.56	0

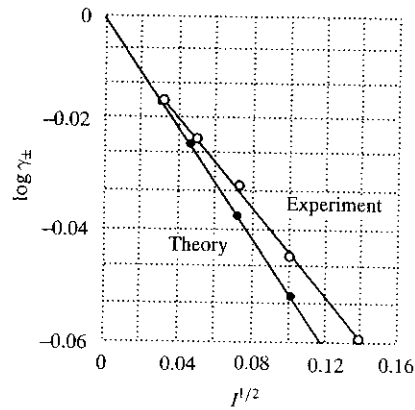


Figure 5.5

## Solutions to theoretical problems

**P5.18**  $x_A d\mu_A + x_B d\mu_B = 0$  [5.12, Gibbs–Duhem equation]

Therefore, after dividing through by  $dx_A$

$$x_A \left( \frac{\partial \mu_A}{\partial x_A} \right)_{p,T} + x_B \left( \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial x_A} \right)_{p,T} = 0$$

or, since  $dx_B = -dx_A$ , as  $x_A + x_B = 1$

$$x_A \left( \frac{\partial \mu_A}{\partial x_A} \right)_{p,T} - x_B \left( \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial x_B} \right)_{p,T} = 0$$

$$\text{or, } \left( \frac{\partial \mu_A}{\partial \ln x_A} \right)_{p,T} = \left( \frac{\partial \mu_B}{\partial \ln x_B} \right)_{p,T} \left[ d \ln x = \frac{dx}{x} \right]$$

$$\text{Then, since } \mu = \mu^\ominus + RT \ln \frac{f}{p^\ominus}, \left( \frac{\partial \ln f_A}{\partial \ln x_A} \right)_{p,T} = \left( \frac{\partial \ln f_B}{\partial \ln x_B} \right)_{p,T}$$

$$\text{On replacing } f \text{ by } p, \left( \frac{\partial \ln p_A}{\partial \ln x_A} \right)_{p,T} = \left( \frac{\partial \ln p_B}{\partial \ln x_B} \right)_{p,T}$$

If A satisfies Raoult's law, we can write  $p_A = x_A p_A^*$ , which implies that

$$\left( \frac{\partial \ln p_A}{\partial \ln x_A} \right)_{p,T} = \frac{\partial \ln x_A}{\partial \ln x_A} + \frac{\partial \ln p_A^*}{\partial \ln x_A} = 1 + 0$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \left( \frac{\partial \ln p_B}{\partial \ln x_B} \right)_{p,T} = 1$$

which is satisfied if  $p_B = x_B p_B$  (by integration, or inspection). Hence, if A satisfies Raoult's law, so does B.