

\_\_\_\_\_ Dec. 11 2002: Lecture 33: \_\_\_\_\_

## Equilibrium Conditions for Solid Solutions

Last Time

**Non-Ideal Solution Models**

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

**Regular Solutions**

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

**Spinodal Decomposition**

---

---

---

---

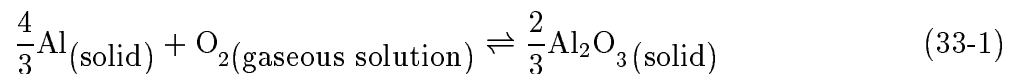
---

---

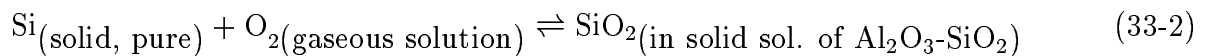
---

## Equilibria for Reactive Solids and Vapors (Oxidation)

Consider a reaction where a solid is reacting with a gaseous component to produce a solid phase, such as the oxidation of aluminum metal to aluminum oxide:



or, for the case of pure silicon embedded to silica dissolved in alumina:

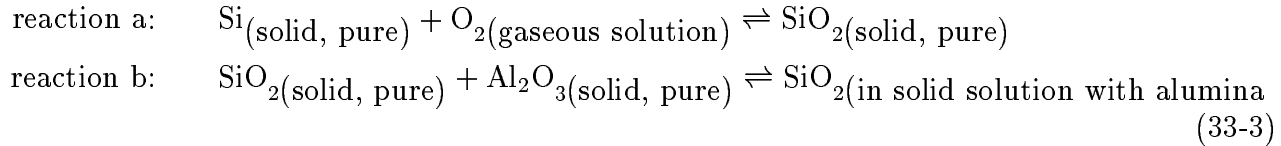


In the most simple cases (e.g., Eq. 33-1), it is assumed that the reactions and products are pure (i.e., the solubility of oxygen is neglected in the solid phases.).

In more realistic cases (e.g., Eq. 33-2), it should be clear that, as well as the free energies of formation, considerations the free energy charges for forming a solution—such as those that have been considered in previous lectures—must also be applied.

In any case, it simplifies to divide a complex reaction into simpler steps.

For example Eq. 33-2, can be broken into two independent reactions:



In this way, free energy changes can be calculated (with respect to some standard state, usually taken as a pure component at a particular temperature).

Reaction (a) in Eq. 33-3 will involve the molar free energies of formation with respect to the pure components. These are usually tabulated in data books (e.g. the JANAF tables, the book by O. Kubaschewski and C.B. Alcock)

Reaction (b) in Eq. 33-3 will involve the free energies of mixing were considered in the construction of phase diagrams. Data is available for many practical systems and ThermoCalc (software) is a method for extrapolating such data from known values and phase diagrams.

## The Standard Approximation

Consider the general case:



Assuming the system is closed, the condition for equilibrium is just:

$$a\mu_A + b\mu_B = c\mu_C + d\mu_D \quad (33-5)$$

which becomes, if reference is made to the pure states

$$\begin{aligned} a(\mu_{A^\circ}(T, P) + RT \log a_A) + b(\mu_{B^\circ}(T, P) + RT \log a_B) \\ = c(\mu_{C^\circ}(T, P) + RT \log a_C) + d(\mu_{D^\circ}(T, P) + RT \log a_D) \end{aligned} \quad (33-6)$$

so the condition for equilibrium becomes

$$\frac{a_C^c a_D^d}{a_A^a a_B^b} = e^{-\frac{\Delta G_{Rxo}}{RT}} \quad (33-7)$$

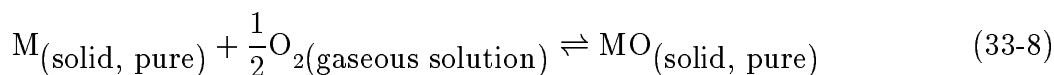
where the activity of a component is  $a_A = \gamma_A X_A$  which is to be determined empirically.

However, there are *standard approximations* in which the solid phases in the reaction can be considered to be pure. In this approximation, and through use the additional thermodynamic approximations for material behavior:

Standard Approximation for Solid Phase Reactions

1. Each component is in equilibrium with its vapor.
2. The vapor is treated as an ideal gas.
3. The molar free energy of the solid phase is relatively insensitive to pressure changes.

Approximate equilibrium conditions can be obtained by practical means. Consider the oxidation (or, the reverse, the reduction) of a pure metal:



The chemical potentials of each component in each solid phase is in equilibrium with the gaseous phase.

$$\mu_M (\text{solid}) = \mu_M (\text{gas}) \quad \text{and} \quad \mu_{MO} (\text{solid}) = \mu_{MO} (\text{gas}) \quad (33-9)$$

Therefore, it is appropriate to consider equilibrium in the gas phase.

Considering an ideal gas mixture

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\Delta G_{Rx}} &= \\ &= \overline{G}_{MO(\text{gas sol})}(P=1, T) - \frac{1}{2}\overline{G}_{O_2(\text{gas sol})}(P=1, T) - \overline{G}_M(\text{gas sol})(P=1, T) \\ &= RT \log \frac{P_M P_{O_2}^{\frac{1}{2}}}{P_{MO}} \end{aligned} \quad (33-10)$$

What is remarkable about Equation 33-10 is that it is true!

$P_M$  for typical metals is  $10^{-8}$ – $10^{-12}$  atm.  $P_{MO}$  for typical oxides is  $10^{-18}$ – $10^{-24}$  atm. Such tiny numbers which would be very, very difficult to measure.

Also  $\overline{G}_{M(\text{gas})}(P=1, T)$  and  $\overline{G}_{MO(\text{gas})}(P=1, T)$  represent molar free energies that are highly unstable with respect to forming a solid or a liquid at sub-solar temperatures.

Expressions for  $\overline{G}_{M(\text{gas})}$  and  $\overline{G}_{MO(\text{gas})}$  can be obtained by integrating the pressures for the gas phase and the condensed phase:

$$\overline{G}_M(\text{gas sol})(P=1, T) + RT \log P_M = \overline{G}_M(\text{solid})(P=1, T) + \int_{P=1}^{P=P_M} V_M(\text{solid}) dP \quad (33-11)$$

For almost every condensed phase the last term in Equation 33-11 is always very small compared to the others, so to very good approximation:

$$\overline{G}_M(\text{gas sol})(P=1, T) + RT \log P_M \cong \overline{G}_M(\text{solid})(P=1, T) \quad (33-12)$$

Putting this into Equation 33-10, the following approximation is obtained:

$$\begin{aligned}
 RT \log P_{\text{O}_2}^{\frac{1}{2}} &= \\
 &= \bar{G}_{\text{MO (solid)}}(P = 1, T) - \frac{1}{2} \bar{G}_{\text{O}_2 \text{ (gas sol)}}(P = 1, T) - \bar{G}_{\text{M (solid)}}(P = 1, T)
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{33-13}$$

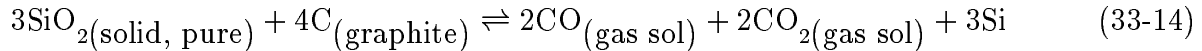
In other words,

To good approximation, the activities of the pure solid reactants or products can be replaced with unity ( $a = 1$ ) and the partial pressures of the gaseous phases can be determined by the equilibrium expression.

## An Example of a Gaseous Reaction with Pure Condensed Phase

Consider the reduction of  $\text{SiO}_2$  to Si by heating it at  $P = 1$  atm. At what temperature will the reduction take place and what will be the pressure of CO (gas) if the reaction takes place at  $740^\circ\text{C}$ ?

The pertinent reaction is



The following reactions are tabulated:

Reaction	$\Delta G_{rx}(T, P = 1\text{atm})(\text{J}/(\text{mole O}_2))$
$\text{Si}(\text{solid}) + \text{O}_2(\text{gas sol}) \rightleftharpoons \text{SiO}_2(\text{solid, pure})$	$-94556 + 174T(700 - 1700^\circ\text{K})$
$2\text{C}(\text{graphite}) + \text{O}_2(\text{gas sol}) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{CO}(\text{gas sol})$	$-223400 - 175.3T(298 - 2500^\circ\text{K})$
$\text{C}(\text{solid}) + \text{O}_2(\text{gas sol}) \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2(\text{gas sol})$	$-394100 - 0.84T(298 - 2000^\circ\text{K})$

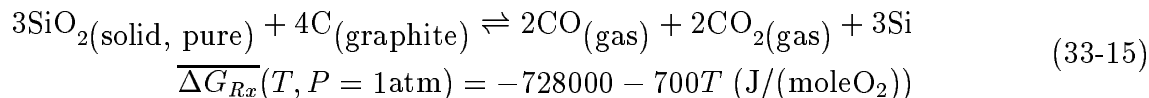
Notice that:

1. The expressions for the molar free energies of reactions take the form:  $\Delta \bar{G} = \Delta \bar{H} - T\Delta \bar{S}$  where  $\Delta \bar{H}$  and  $\Delta \bar{S}$  are treated as independent of  $T$  (This is approximately true if the molar heat capacities are nearly the same.).
2. The appearance of one mole of gas is associated with an entropy production of about  $175 \frac{\text{J}}{^\circ\text{K}}$ .

The reaction of interest can be written as:

$$-3 \times (\text{First Reaction}) + (\text{Second Reaction}) + 2 \times (\text{Third Reaction})$$

or



so that

$$P_{\text{CO}_2}^2 P_{\text{CO}}^2 = e^{\frac{-\overline{\Delta G_{Rx}}}{RT}} \quad (33-16)$$

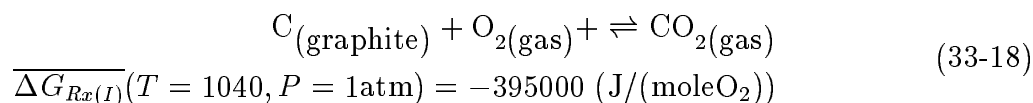
Since  $\overline{\Delta G_{Rx}} < 0$  at all  $T$ , the reaction will favor the products.

The total pressure is given by

$$P_{\text{CO}} + P_{\text{CO}_2} + P_{\text{O}_2} = 1 \quad (33-17)$$

Question: Why is  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  included? Because one can't balance a reaction between carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide without it.

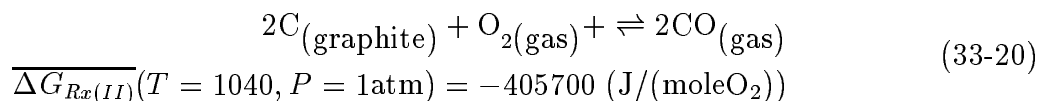
For



So

$$\frac{P_{\text{O}_2(\text{gas})}}{P_{\text{CO}_2(\text{gas})}} = e^{-\frac{395000}{(8.3)(1040)}} = \text{small number} \quad (33-19)$$

for



$$\frac{P_{\text{O}_2(\text{gas})}}{P_{\text{CO}(\text{gas})}^2} = e^{-\frac{405700}{(8.3)(1040)}} = \text{small number} \quad (33-21)$$

We conclude that  $P_{\text{O}_2}$  is small compared to  $P_{\text{CO}}$  and  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$

$$P_{\text{CO}} + P_{\text{CO}_2} \approx 1 \quad (33-22)$$

Therefore:

$$\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2}}{P_{\text{CO}}^2} = e^{-\frac{\Delta G_{\text{Rx}}(I) - \Delta G_{\text{Rx}}(II)}{RT}} = 3.45 \quad (33-23)$$

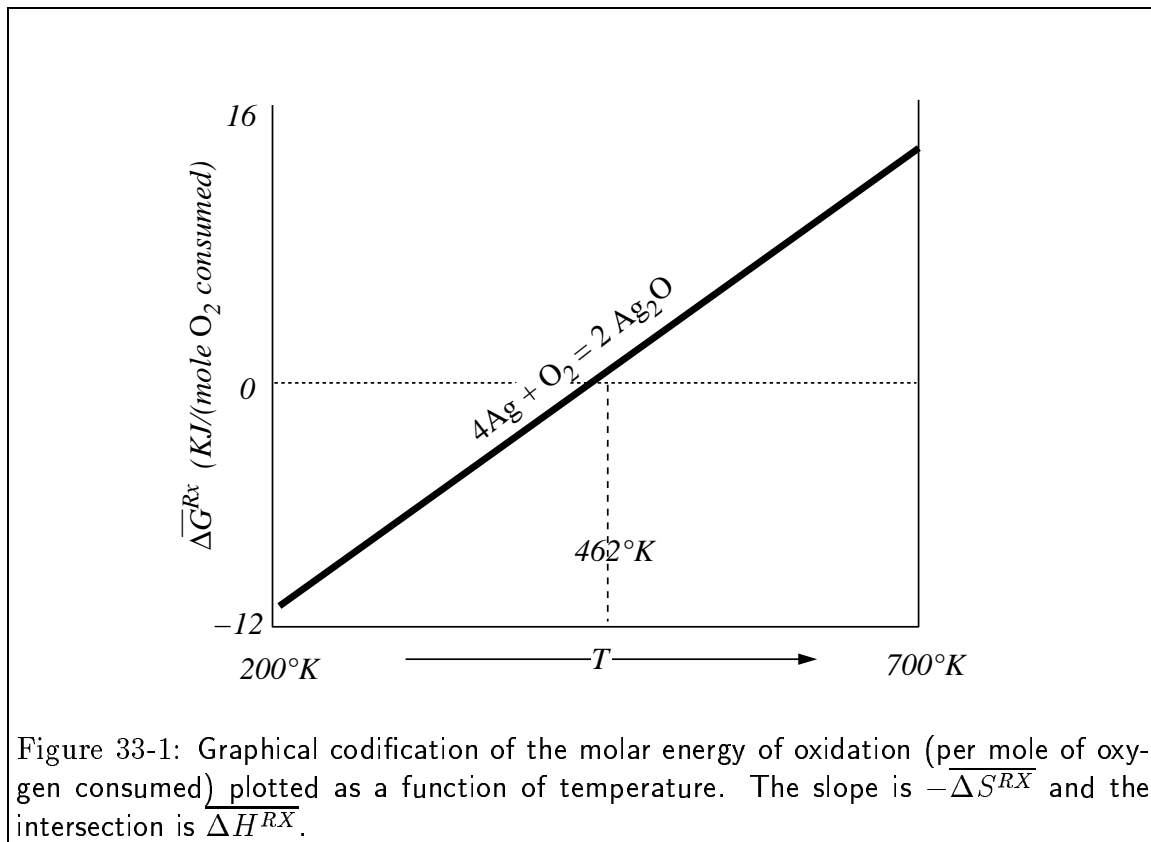
$$\frac{1 - P_{\text{CO}}}{P_{\text{CO}}^2} = 3.45 \implies P_{\text{CO}} = 0.41 \quad (33-24)$$

Question: Will the fraction of CO go up or down with temperature?

## Ellingham Diagrams

Thermodynamic data for the oxidation of a number of common metals can be usefully and graphically codified in an *Ellingham Diagram* (Gaskell, page 272).

For example:



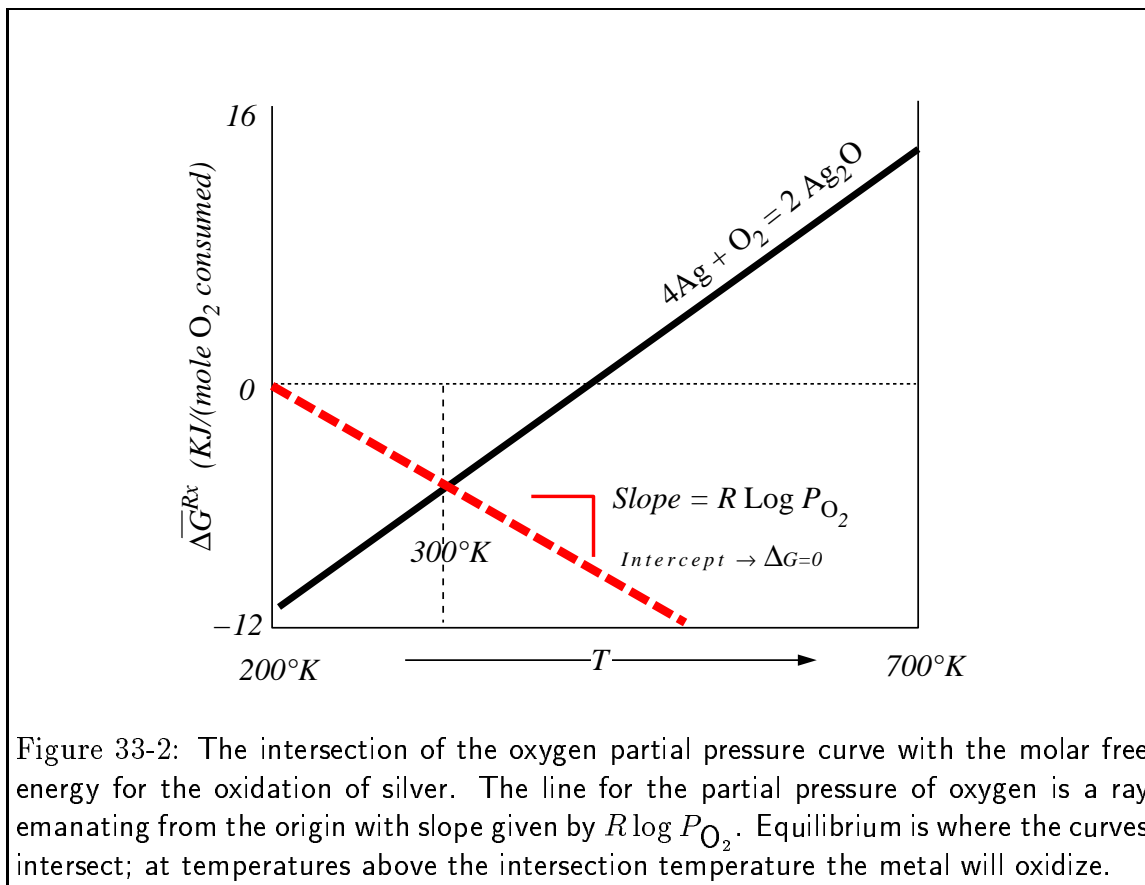
It can be observed at a glance that reaction tends to favor the products below 462K; however, the partial pressure of oxygen must also be considered.

Consider the the equilibrium of this reaction as a function of oxygen partial pressure.

$$\frac{1}{P_{\text{O}_2}} = e^{-\frac{\Delta G_{\text{Rx}}}{RT}} \quad (33-25)$$

$$\Delta G_{\text{Rx}}(T) = RT \log P_{\text{O}_2}$$

This represents the intersection of two lines: one is  $\Delta\bar{G}(T)$  that is plotted and the other is a straight line that emanates from  $\Delta\bar{G}(T = 0) = 0$  with slope given by  $R \log P_{O_2}$ . To determine what  $P_{O_2}$  will Ag *not* oxidize at room temperature.



For the case of Silver, the reaction is very close to equilibrium at standard temperature and pressure. This explains, in part, why silver develops a slight tarnish.

Richardson and Jeffes had the clever idea of adding a handy scales on the outside of the diagram so that the equilibrium partial pressures for hydrogen/water vapor and the equilibrium partial pressures of carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide can be read analogously to the partial pressure of oxygen. The result is a useful graphical compendium of thermodynamic data for many condensed metal/vapor reactions.

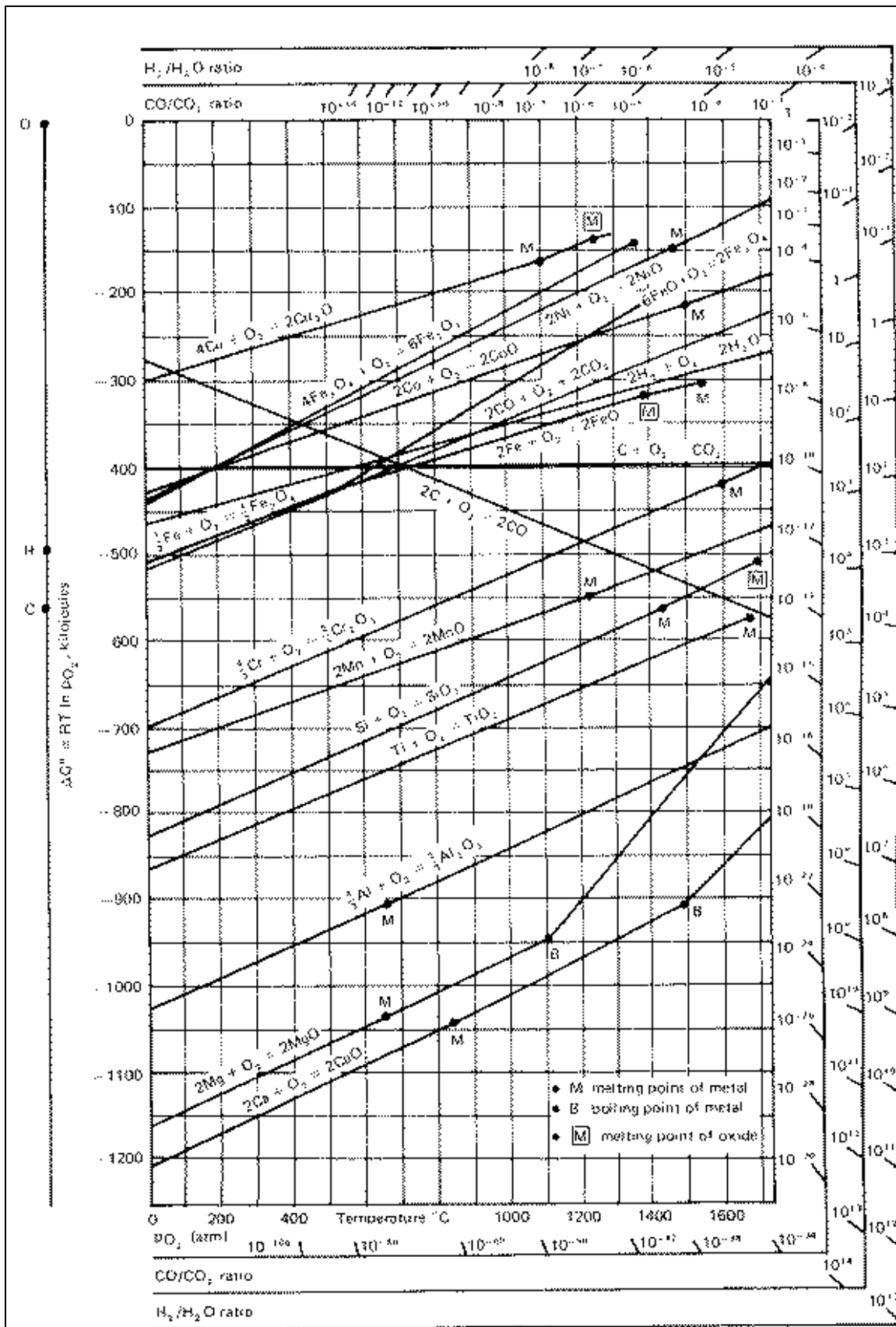


Figure 33-3: A scan of the Ellingham Diagram with the Richardson and Jeffes scale as it appears in Gaskell, page 287.