Thermochemistry

Reading:	Ch 6, sections $1 - 10$	Homework:	Chapter 6: 33, 45, 47*, 49, 57, 59*, 61,
			63, 65, 67*, 69, 73, 75*, 77*, 81, 83, 87

* = 'important' homework question

Forms of Energy and Their Conversion

<u>Discussion</u>: Everyday physical objects, such as a golf ball flying through the air), posses two basic forms of energy – what are they?

1.

2.

'Stunt Fish' Demo and Analogy to a Chemical Systems



When energy is transferred or converted to another form, it must eventually appear as *work* and/or *heat* (think about your car)

<u>Recall</u>: The potential energy (enthalpy, H) possessed by elements and compounds is 'stored' within their chemical bonds.

Breaking a chemical bond requires energy (heat) & Making a chemical bond releases energy (heat)

Each type of chemical bond has it's own enthalpy (stored chemical potential energy, e.g. O-O = 138 kJ/mole). See Appendix and the '*More Chemical Bonding*' note packet for details

Mathematical Version – The First Law of Thermodynamics (see Appendix)

$\Delta \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{q} + \mathbf{w}$

<u>Where</u>: ΔE = change in energy for the system ('dropping the fish')

 \mathbf{q} = heat energy transferred

 \mathbf{w} = work performed (PV work for chemical systems, like for the combustion of gasoline in a car engine)



<u>Where</u>: ΔH = change in 'chemical potential energy' (enthalpy) for the system

 q_p = heat energy transferred to or from the chemical system (at constant pressure – i.e. no PV work)

<u>Note</u>: sign convention – heat energy is given out (+q) when the internal chemical energy (enthalpy) of the chemical system is reduced $(-\Delta H)$. This is what we know as an exothermic process – more on this later.

Exothermic and Endothermic Chemical Processes

<u>Definitions</u>: Before we go any further, it is important to know a few key definitions. <u>Hint</u>: think about the construction of the words themselves to determine their meaning.

<u>Thermochemistry</u>: *Study of the quantity of heat absorbed or evolved during a chemical reaction*

<u>Thermodynamics</u>: *Study of the relationship between heat and the other forms of energy involved in a chemical (or physical) process*



<u>Heat</u>: The energy that flows into or out of a system because of a difference in temperature between the **thermodynamic** system and its surroundings. See slide.



<u>Thermodynamic system (system)</u>: *The substance or mixture of substances under study in which (chemical) change occurs*

<u>Surroundings</u>: Everything in the vicinity of the thermodynamic system. Heat is either lost or gained to or from the surroundings. See slide.

Enthalpies of Reaction

<u>Recall</u>: All chemical reactions either release (exothermic) or absorb (endothermic) heat energy when going from reactants \rightarrow products. As we saw in earlier material, this information can be represented quantitatively with a *thermochemical equation*.

<u>Example</u>: CH₄ (g) + 2 O₂ (g) \rightarrow CO₂ (g) + 2 H₂O (g); Δ H = -890.3 kJ

One mole of $CH_4(g)$ reacts with 2 moles of $O_2(g)$ to produce chemical products and 890.3 kJ of heat.

Questions: How much heat would be evolved if:

- 1. 2 moles of CH₄ (g) were combusted in XS oxygen gas?
- 2. 4 moles of CH_4 (g) were combusted in XS oxygen gas?

Enthalpy is an *extensive* **property** – it depends on the amount of material involved. "*Two logs thrown on the fire produces twice as much heat as one log*"

<u>Change in Enthalpy, ΔH </u>

H

<u>Discussion</u>: What does Δ H really mean, in terms of what's going on with the reactants and products in a chemical reaction?

The change in enthalpy (Δ H) is simply a measure of how much 'chemical potential energy' has been either lost or gained by converting the bonds present in the reactants (H_{reactants}) into the bonds present in the products (H_{products}). Recall that this difference in energy is either lost or gained from the system as heat.

Mathematically

11

$$\Delta \mathbf{H} = (\mathbf{H}_{\text{products}} - \mathbf{H}_{\text{reactants}})$$

Recall also that:

$$-\Delta H = +q$$



11

Since q can be measured experimentally (recall your lab), details pertaining to the enthalpy of the reactants and products involved in a chemical reaction can be determined. This theory underpins all calorimetric investigations

Calorimetry

The amount of heat energy transferred to or from any material or object (thermodynamic system) can be found if its HEAT CAPACITY (C_p), MASS (g) and observed TEMPERATURE CHANGE, ΔT (°C or K), it undergoes are known:

 $\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{p}} \times \mathbf{m} \times \Delta \mathbf{T}$

<u>Where</u>: \mathbf{q} = heat energy transferred to or from the system

 C_p = specific heat capacity of the system – a constant with units of J/g^oC

 $\mathbf{m} = \text{mass of system in grams}$

 ΔT = change in temperature (in K or $^{o}C)$ of the system. Defined at T_{final} - T_{initial}

	Table of Selected Sp	pecific Heat Car	pacities (see	Appendix)
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Substance	Sp. Ht. Cap. (J/g°C)	Substance	Sp. Ht. Cap. (J/g°C)
Water (l)	4.18	Mercury (1)	0.14
Water (s)	2.03	Carbon (s)	0.71
Aluminum	0.89	Silver (s)	0.24
Iron (s)	0.45	Gold (s)	0.13

Since each material has its own specific heat capacity, similar math applies:

Group work

1. How much heat energy is needed to raise the temperature of 25 g water by 15°C?

2. How much heat energy is needed to raise the temperature of 25 g solid iron by 15°C?

3. How much heat energy would be needed to boil a 330 mL glass of water that is initially at room temperature (25 °C)? Density $H_2O(1) = 1.00 \text{ g/mL}$

4. A blacksmith tosses a 'red hot' iron horseshoe weighing 0.569 kg into a 5.0L bucket of water. If the water in the bucket rises in temperature from 10°C to 20°C, what was the original temperature of the horseshoe? Assume heat is only exchanged between the horseshoe and the water and no heat is lost to the surroundings.

Application to Chemical Systems

<u>Recall</u>: In your recent lab, the change in enthalpy $(-\Delta H)$ for the reaction between magnesium and HCl = heat energy (+q) gained by the surrounding solution in the insulated cup.

i.e.
$$-\Delta H_{(reaction)} = +q_{(solution)}$$

<u>Remember</u>: q is measured in ______, the S.I. unit of energy, even though thermodynamic values are typically quoted in ______

Since the solutions used in calorimetry experiments typically contain a relatively low concentration of products:

$$C_{p \text{ (solution)}} \approx C_{p \text{ (water)}} = 4.18 \text{ J/g}^{\circ}\text{C}$$

<u>Worked Example</u>: 33 mL of 1.2 M HCl (aq) is added to 42 mL of a solution containing an excess of NaOH (aq). If a temperature change of $25^{\circ}C \rightarrow 31.8^{\circ}C$ is observed, calculate ΔH for the reaction. Quote your answer in kJ/mole.

Measuring Heats of Reaction (Δ H)



The apparatus most often used for calorimetric measurements is a calorimeter – in your lab this was simply polystyrene coffee cup (see slide).

<u>Calorimeter</u>: "Device used to measure the heat absorbed or evolved during chemical or physical change"

<u>Discussion</u>: Can any container be used as a calorimeter? What is required of a vessel that is to be used as a calorimeter?

Types of calorimeter (see Appendix)



'Coffee cup' calorimeter (solutions)



'Bomb' calorimeter (gasses / solids)

<u>Note</u>: For a bomb calorimeter, the 'math' is slightly different, as the apparatus as a whole absorbs the heat evolved from the reaction. Thus:

 $q_{(solution)} = C_{cal} \Delta T$

<u>Where</u>: C_{cal} is the heat capacity (in J/°C or kJ/°C) of the calorimeter itself

Hess' Law – Theoretical Determination of Heats of Reaction (Δ H)

<u>Overview</u>: We will learn and implement some familiar math to find ΔH for reactions of interest – this is Hess' Law.

<u>Important fact</u>: Enthalpy is an example of a **State Function** (see appendix / slide). This fact makes the math possible.



<u>Enthalpy as a state function</u>: 'It doesn't matter how you get there - it takes the same amount of energy (ΔH) whatever route is taken'

Example: consider the following number lines, which represent enthalpy changes during chemical reaction(s)

1.

2.



In each case ΔH is the same, irrespective of the route taken. This is of use, since we can find an unknown ΔH_{rxn} from established values – this is Hess's law of Heat summation <u>Hess's law of Heat summation</u>: For a chemical equation that can be written as the sum of two or more steps, the enthalpy change for the overall reaction equals the sum of the enthalpy changes for the individual steps



- 1. 2 C (graphite) + 2 O₂ (g) \rightarrow 2 CO₂ (g); Δ H₁ = -787 kJ
- 2. $2 \text{ CO}_2(g) \rightarrow 2 \text{ CO}(g) + \text{ O}_2(g)$; $\Delta \text{H}_2 = +566 \text{ kJ}$



HI.

Since the desired reaction is the sum of reactions 1 and 2, then $\Delta H_{rxn} = \Delta H_1 + \Delta H_2$

+

Manipulating Thermochemical equations

Sometimes just adding known thermochemical equations does not give the desired unknown thermochemical equation. The known thermochemical equations can be 'worked over' by following these rules:

ADD REACTIONS : ADD ΔHs SUBTRACT REACTIONS : SUBTRACT ΔHs MULTIPLY REACTION : MULTIPLY ΔH REVERSE REACTION : MULTIPLY ΔH x (-1) <u>Worked Example</u>: Find ΔH_{rxn} for the following:

$$2 \text{ S}(\text{s}) + 3 \text{ O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2 \text{ SO}_3(\text{g}); \Delta H_{\text{rxn}} = ?$$

Given:

$$S(s) + O_2(g) \rightarrow SO_2(g); \Delta H_1 = -297 \text{ kJ}$$

$$2 \text{ SO}_3(g) \rightarrow 2 \text{ SO}_2(g) + \text{ O}_2(g); \Delta H_2 = +198 \text{ kJ}$$

~Always follow this procedure:

- 1. Arrange the known reaction(s) so reactant(s) and product(s) common to the unknown reaction appear on the 'correct' sides.
- 2. Multiply known reaction(s) so similar amounts of reactants and products, common to the unknown reaction, appear on the 'correct' sides.
- 3. Add known reactions their product should similar to the unknown

<u>Task</u>: Calculate ΔH_{rxn} for:

4 Al (s) + 3 MnO₂ (s)
$$\rightarrow$$
 2 Al₂O₃ (s) + 3 Mn (s); $\Delta H_{rxn} = ?$

Given:

2 Al (s) +
$$3/2 O_2(g) \rightarrow Al_2O_3(s); \Delta H_1 = -1676 \text{ kJ}$$

Mn (s) + O₂ (g)
$$\rightarrow$$
 MnO₂ (s) Δ H₂ = -521 kJ

Standard Heats of Formation (ΔH_f)



<u>Idea / Analogy</u>: Establish a 'spelling bee champion vocabulary' of known enthalpies (standard heats of formation, ΔH_f) from which any 'sentence' (reaction) can be constructed.

<u>Analogy</u>: The following two short 'sentences' (reactions) can be combined to give the required 'longer sentence' (equation):

The cat sat on the mat + The cat sat on the mat

<u>Recall</u>: This is how our previous Hess' Law examples have worked to this point. However, the two small 'sentences' can *only* be combined to make the final *The cat sat on the mat* sentence. This is somewhat limiting, as other new sentences cannot be constructed.

However, having a large vocabulary (knowing lots of words) means virtually ant new sentence can be constructed, for example *Mat sat on the cat!* Standard heats of formation are the chemical equivalent of words in our analogy

Definition of Standard Heats (Enthalpies) of Formation (ΔH_f)

The enthalpy change (kJ/mol) for the formation of one mole of a substance in its standard state (i.e. its physical state at 1.00 atm, 25°C) from its elements in their standard states.

<u>Example</u>: $H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow H_2O(l)$; $\Delta H_f = -285.8 \text{ kJ}$

<u>Discussion</u>: Some heats of formation have zero values. Why is this? See Appendices here & you're text for a full list



Recall that enthalpy is a state function, so the enthalpy change for reactants \rightarrow component elements ($-\Delta H_{f reactants}$) \rightarrow products (ΔH_{f} prducts) can be determined for any reactants \rightarrow products (ΔH_{rxn}) reaction.

 (ΔH_{rxn}) values can be determined from ΔH_f values in any one of two ways – graphically or via the use of a formula

<u>Simple worked example</u>: What is the heat of vaporization, ΔH_{vap} (the energy needed to convert 1 mole of liquid substance to one mole of gaseous substance at its boiling point) for:

 $CS_2(1) \rightarrow CS_2(g); \Delta H_{vap} = ?$

<u>Where</u>: $\Delta H_f CS_2(l) = +87.9 \text{ kJ}$ and $\Delta H_f CS_2(g) = +117 \text{ kJ}$

Graphical method

Formula method

From inspection above, it can be seen that, essentially:

 $\Delta H_{rxn} = -\Delta H_f (reactants) + \Delta H_f (products)$

Taking into account possible multiple reactant / product species and their respective stoichiometic constants, we arrive at:

$\Delta H_{rxn} = \Sigma n \Delta H_{f} \text{ (products)} - \Sigma m \Delta H_{f} \text{ (reactants)}$

<u>Task</u>: calculate the heat of vaporization for water. What is the heat of vaporization for 2 moles of water?

<u>Where</u>: $\Delta H_f H_2O(1) = -285.8 \text{ kJ}$ and $\Delta H_f H_2O(g) = -241.8 \text{ kJ}$

<u>Harder worked example</u>: calculate ΔH_{rxn} for:

 $4 \ \mathrm{NH_3} \ (g) \ + \ 5 \ \mathrm{O_2} \ (g) \ \ \rightarrow \ \ 4 \ \mathrm{NO} \ (g) \ + \ 6 \ \mathrm{H_2O} \ (g)$

$$\label{eq:diven:equation:equation:equation:equation:equation:equation:equation:equation:equation: <math display="block"> \begin{split} \underline{Given}: & \Delta H_f \ NH_3 \ (g) \ = \ -45.9 \ kJ \\ \Delta H_f \ NO \ (g) \ = \ +90.3 \ kJ \\ \Delta H_f \ H_2O \ (g) \ = \ -241.8 \ kJ \end{split}$$

<u>Group Task</u>: calculate ΔH_{rxn} for:

 $2 \ PbS \ (s) \ + \ 3 \ O_2 \ (g) \ \ \rightarrow \ \ 2 \ SO_2 \ (g) \ \ + \ 2 \ PbO \ (s)$

Appendix: The Strength of Covalent Bonds (Bond Enthalpies)

<u>Background</u>: Enthalpy the *energy* (in kJ) required to break one *mole* of a specified type of bond. Units are kJ/mole. For Cl₂:

 $: \dot{Cl} - \dot{Cl}: \rightarrow : \dot{Cl}: + : \dot{Cl}: ; \Delta H = 242 \text{ kJ/mol}$

i.e. it tales 242 kJ of energy to break one mole of Cl-Cl bonds

			Single Bonds						
C	Ν	0	F	Si	Р	S	Cl	Br	I
36 41	4 389	464	569	293	318	339	431	368	297
34	7 293	351	439	289	264	259	330	276	238
	159	201	272		209		201	243?	
		138	184	368	351		205		201
			159	540	490	285	255	197?	
				176	213	226	360	289	
					213	230	331	272	213
						213	251	213	
						2220	243	218	209
								192	180
									151
		Μ	ultiple	Bond	s			_	
=N		418	C=	=C			61	1	
I≡N		946	C≡	≡C			83	7	
<u>—о</u>		590	C=	=O (ir	0=	C = O	803	3	
≡N		891	C=	=O (as	s in H	$_{2}C = C$) 74	5	
) O=0	in O ₂)	498	C≡	≡O		3	107	5	
	$= N$ $\equiv N$ $= 0$ $\equiv N$ $= 0 ($	$=N$ $\equiv N$ $\equiv O$ $\equiv O$ $\equiv O$ (in O ₂)	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Some Average Single- and Multiple-Bond Energies*

*In kilojoules per mole.





TABLE 6.5Standard Enthalpies of Formation, ΔH_{f}^{a} , at 298 K					
Formula	$\Delta H_{\mathrm{f}}^{\mathrm{o}}$ (kJ/mol)	Formula	$\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ (kJ/mol)	Formula	$\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\rm o}$ (kJ/mol)
Bromine Br(g) $Br_2(l)$ HBr(g) <i>Calcium</i> Ca(s) CaO(s) $CaCO_3(s)$ <i>Carban</i>	$ \begin{array}{r} 111.9\\0\\-36.3\\0\\-634.9\\-1207.6\end{array} $	$C_3H_8O(l, isopropanol)$ $C_6H_6(l)$ $C_6H_{12}O_6(s, glucose)$ $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}(s, sucrose)$ <i>Chlorine</i> Cl(g) $Cl_2(g)$ HCl(g) <i>Fluorine</i>	-318.1 49.1 -1273.3 -2226.1 121.3 0 -92.3	Oxygen $O_2(g)$ $O_3(g)$ $H_2O(g)$ $H_2O(l)$ Silver Ag(s) AgCl(s) Sodium $N_1(c)$	$0 \\ 142.7 \\ -241.8 \\ -285.8 \\ 0 \\ -127.0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\$
Current C(s, graphite) C(s, diamond) CO(g) $CO_2(g)$ $CH_4(g)$ $CH_3OH(I)$ $C_2H_2(g)$ $C_2H_2(g)$ $C_2H_4(g)$ $C_2H_6(g)$ $C_2H_5OH(I)$ $C_3H_8(g)$ $C_3H_6O(I, acetone)$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1.88 \\ -110.5 \\ -393.5 \\ -74.6 \\ -238.6 \\ 227.4 \\ 52.4 \\ -84.68 \\ -277.6 \\ -103.85 \\ -248.4 \end{array}$	F(g) F ₂ (g) HF(g) Hydrogen H(g) H ₂ (g) Nitrogen N ₂ (g) NH ₃ (g) NH ₄ NO ₃ (s) NO(g) N ₂ O(g)	$79.38 \\ 0 \\ -273.3 \\ 218.0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -45.9 \\ -365.6 \\ 91.3 \\ 81.6 \\ $	Na(s) Na(g) NaCl(s) NaHCO ₃ (s) NaHCO ₃ (s) Sulfur S ₈ (s, rhombic) S ₈ (s, monoclinic) SO ₂ (g) SO ₃ (g) H ₂ SO ₄ (l)	0 107.5 -411.2 -1130.7 -950.8 0 0.3 -296.8 -395.7 -814.0

The Coffee-Cup Calorimeter





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TABLE 6.4	Specific Heat Capacities of Some Common Substances		
Substance	Specific Heat Capacity, $C_{\rm s} \left({\rm J/g} \cdot {^{\rm o}\rm C} \right)^{*}$		
Elements			
Lead	0.128		
Gold	0.128		
Silver	0.235		
Copper	0.385		
Iron	0.449		
Aluminum	0.903		
Compounds			
Ethanol	2.42		
Water	4.18		
Materials			
Glass (Pyrex)	0.75		
Granite	0.79		
Sand	0.84		

*At 298 K.