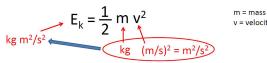
Chapter 7

Thermochemistry

1

The kind of energy associated with velocity is "Kinetic Energy", E_k



We can use this equation to deduce the units for energy

kg m²/s² is called a "Joule" (symbol: J)

SI unit for energy: Joule (J)

3

5

The kind of energy associated with moving against a frictionless force is "Potential Energy", E_n

moving a mass m against Earth's gravity:

$$E_{\rm p} = mgh$$

g = proportionality constant (to calculate gravitational force)

h = height (by which m is moved against gravitational force)

moving a cation and an anion apart:

$$E_p = k_e \frac{Q_+ Q_-}{r}$$

Q₊ = cation charge Q₋ = anion charge

k_e = proportionality constant r = distance between

charges

© Arno Papazyan

Energy

Capacity to move against a force

- can be against a force like gravity, or the force between electrical charges, etc.
- Potential Energy
- can be against the force of inertia when accelerating an object to give it a velocity
- Kinetic Energy

2

Other, traditional units for energy

calorie (cal)

 Amount of heat needed to warm 1 gram of water by 1°C

• 1 cal = 4.184 J

capitalized

Calorie (Cal)

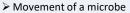
- "food calorie" or "dietary calorie"
- The "Calories" you find on food labels
- 1000 calories (1 kcal)
- 1 Calorie = 4.184 kJ

4

Both kinetic energy and potential energy can belong to "macroscopic" (dust-size and up) as well as "microscopic" (atomic scale) objects

"Mechanical energy"

Energy (kinetic or potential) of a <u>macroscopic</u> movement



> Bouncing on a trampoline

"Thermal energy"

Energy (kinetic or potential) randomly distributed to microscopic objects

Kinetic energy of atoms moving randomly

> Potential energy in stretched and bent bonds



6

Transfer of Energy

Work:

Transfer of mechanical energy

-- by a macroscopic force acting over a distance

Heat:

7

9

Transfer of thermal energy

-- due to a temperature difference ➤ from hot object to cold object

Energy is a state function

A very important aspect of a state function:

<u>Change</u> in a state function depends only on the beginning state and the end state.

-- does **not** depend on the **path** between

© Arno Pa

Law of conservation of energy

The total energy of the universe is constant.

Energy can be converted from one form to another but cannot be created nor destroyed.

Potential Energy ← Kinetic Energy

Mechanical Energy ← Thermal Energy

11

Energy is a **state function**

work and heat are not

State Function:

- a property that does <u>not</u> depend on the system's past
- only depends on the present state
- >It's like your bank account. Its balance is what it is.
- ➤ You might arrive at the same account balance by winning the lottery and then spending it all, or never winning it and never spending the extra money.

8

Height is a state function

So is the gravitational potential energy gained

Energy is a state function

Distance traveled to gain that height is **not**

by climbing that height

> It can be very circuitous, or direct



10

System: part of the universe on which we focus on

<u>Surroundings</u>: everything else in the universe SURROUNDINGS

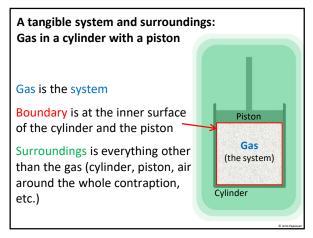


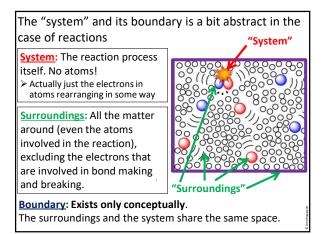
>BOUNDARY

Universe = System + Surroundings

- The total energy of the <u>universe</u> is constant.
- The energy of the system or the surroundings need not be.

12





13

Direction of Heat Flow

Endothermic Process:

• Heat flows into the system.

System **absorbs** heat from the surroundings

➤ in the case of a reaction, the reactants absorb heat

Thermal Energy gained by the system

Thermal Energy **lost** by the **surroundings**

Direction of <u>Heat</u> Flow

Exothermic Process:

• Heat flows out of the system.

System releases heat to the surroundings

in the case of a reaction, the reactants release heat

Thermal Energy **lost** by the **system**

Thermal Energy gained by the surroundings

15

16

14

Concept Practice

Is the freezing of water an endothermic or exothermic process? Explain.

It is exothermic.

We need to remove heat from water to freeze it.

Concept Practice

Classify each process as exothermic or endothermic. Explain. The system is underlined in each example.

- Your hand gets cold when you touch ice.
 "gets cold": "loses heat" ⇒ exothermic
- The ice gets warmer when you touch it.
 "gets warm": "gains heat" ⇒ endothermic
- Water is being heated in a kettle on a stove.
 "being heated": "gains heat" ⇒ endothermic
- Water vapor condenses on a cold pipe. condensing it requires removing heat ⇒ exothermic
- Ice cream melts.

To melt, it needs to absorb heat ⇒ endothermic

17 18

Concept Practice

Hydrogen gas and oxygen gas at room temperature and 1 atm pressure react violently to from water, which is then condensed to liquid water by returning the conditions to the starting temperature and pressure.

- Which is lower in energy?
 a mixture of hydrogen and oxygen gases?
 or water?
- Is this an exothermic or endothermic reaction?
 Explain.

azyan

19

Normally, when we talk about a **reaction** being **exothermic** or **endothermic**, we assume that the reactants we start with and the products we end up with are all **at the same temperature**, typically 25°C.

Even if the temperature can (and does) change during the reaction, we measure the energy released or absorbed when the products are ultimately at the same temperature as the reactants.

© Arno Papa

21

Change* in Internal Energy (ΔE)

There are two ways to change internal energy E:

"heat"
$$= \mathbf{q}$$

"work" = w

$$\Delta E = q + w$$

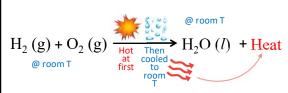
* "Change" (for any quantity, not just E) is represented by the capital Greek letter "delta" (Δ).

It is always "final minus initial":

 $\Delta \mathsf{E} = \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{final}} - \mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{initial}}$

When the quantity **increases**, the "change" is **positive**. When the quantity **decreases**, the "change" is **negative**.

D Arno Papaz



- The formed H-O bonds are lower in energy than the broken H-H and O-O bonds. So, at the same temperature, water is lower in energy than the H₂ and O₂ mixture. But in hot water, the energy lost from the bonds is contained as thermal energy in the produced water molecules.
- The <u>thermal energy is removed as heat</u> when the water condenses. Therefore it is an exothermic process.

20

Internal Energy (E)

The sum of the <u>kinetic</u> and <u>potential</u> energies* of all the particles in the system.

➤ Kinetic Energy:

- Due to the random speeds of all the particles
- ➤ Potential Energy:
 - Gained against the forces they apply on one another
 - Molecules against other molecules, atoms stretching and bending chemical bonds, electron-nucleus attractions

* Doesn't include chemically irrelevant energies such as the gravitational potential energy, the kinetic energy due to the planetary motions (which the system is a part

22

Values of thermodynamic quantities

Thermodynamic quantities consist of two parts:

Number: magnitude (size)

Sign: + or -

- <u>Direction</u> of the <u>flow</u> (for q and w)
- <u>Direction</u> of the <u>change</u> for any "state function"
 - -- Such as internal energy E
 - -- P, V, T, n we saw earlier (also state functions)
 - -- Other quantities derived from state functions

© Amo Papazy

On the signs of thermodynamic quantities

The sign of the change or the flow reflects the system's point of view*

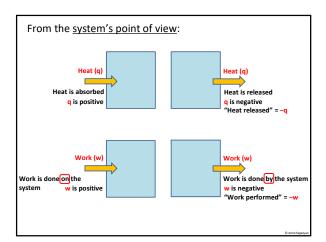
 $\Delta E = -56 \text{ kJ}$ the system **lost** 56 kJ of energy q = 13 kJ the system **gained** 13 kJ of "heat" (more correctly: the system **lost** 13 kJ of "heat" thermal energy) w = -13 kJ the system **lost** 13 kJ of "heat" b = -55 kJ 55 kJ of work done **on** the system (**gained** energy) w = -55 kJ the system **performed** 55 kJ of work (lost energy)

the system gained 15 kJ of energy

*Unless the quantity is specified to be for the surroundings, in which case we are focusing on the surroundings as the relevant "system" at that moment

25

 $\Delta E = 15 \text{ kJ}$



26

28

30

Implications of the +/- sign conventions for q and w

The sign convention implies:

"heat" (q) means "heat absorbed by the system"

- q = "heat absorbed by the system"
- -q = "heat released by the system"

i.e. we report –q when asked "heat released"
[if heat was actually released, q is negative, and "heat released" (–q) would be a positive number]

"work" (w) means "work done on the system"

- w = "work done **on** the system"
- -w = "work done by the system"

i.e. we report –w when asked "work done by the system"

© Arno Papaz

"Work" in chemistry

We defined work as "Transfer of mechanical energy by a macroscopic force acting over a distance".

Except for electrical work involved in electrochemistry, "work" in chemistry involves **volume change against a pressure** (equivalent to moving a distance against a force).

When a system's volume expands, it does so against an external pressure.

> The system performs work

 $\mathbf{W} = -\mathbf{P} \Delta \mathbf{V}$ makes work
negative when the against an external pressure
system expands (ΔV is +)

Practice

27

Which of the following performs more work?

- a) A gas expanding against a pressure of 2 atm from 1.0 L to 4.0 L.
- b) A gas expanding against a pressure of 3 atm from 1.0 L to 3.0 L.
 - a) $w = -P\Delta V = -(2 \text{ atm})(4.0L 1.0L) = -6 \text{ L-atm}$ work performed = -w = -(-6) = 6 L-atm
 - b) $w = -P\Delta V = -(3 \text{ atm})(3.0L 1.0L) = -6 \text{ L-atm}$ work performed = -w = -(-6) = 6 L-atm

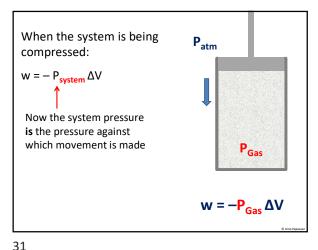
They perform the same amount of work

 $\mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{P}\Delta\mathbf{V}$ Pressure against which movement is made

Not necessarily the pressure of the system!

When the system is expanding: $\mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{P}_{\text{external}}\Delta\mathbf{V}$ $\mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{P}_{\text{atm}}\Delta\mathbf{V}$

29



Practice

Water can exist as gas or liquid at 100°C and 1 atm (both numbers are exact). Under these conditions, 157 L of steam is condensed into liquid water. We can ignore the volume of liquid water. Calculate the work involved. Was work performed by the system or on the system?

Liquid water volume ≈0 All the steam volume is lost. The system volume decreased. $W = -P\Delta V = -(1 \text{ atm})(0 \text{ L} - 157 \text{ L}) = 157 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm}$ w is positive

work was performed on the system

Practice

Zinc is more active than $H_2(g)$, and replaces H^+ (aq) from an acid solution. What is the work involved when 1.0 mol Zn(s) reacts with HCI(aq) and produce hydrogen gas at standard temperature and pressure? Was work performed by the reacting substances or on them? Volume of solids and liquids can be neglected. Hydrogen gas can be regarded as an ideal gas.

$$Zn(s) + 2 HCl(aq) \longrightarrow ZnCl_2(aq) + H_2(g)$$

- Only the volume of hydrogen gas will be considered.
- 1 mol of Zn produces 1 mol of H₂(g) according to the reaction equation.
- 1 mol of ideal gas occupies 22.42 L volume

 $W = -P\Delta V = -(1 \text{ atm})(22.42 \text{ L} - 0 \text{ L}) = -22.42 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm}$

w is negative; therefore work was performed by the system

Enthalpy: A more convenient kind of energy

- We would like to be able to measure energy changes quickly and conveniently.
- Measuring heat is easier than measuring work.
- Change in internal energy **E** involves both.
- If we define a different kind of energy content whose change didn't involve work, it would be pretty convenient.

33

35

34

Enthaln

32

Enthalpy

Enthalpy (H) is a composite energy defined as:

H = E + PV

We can interpret it as:

Internal energy of the system plus the work required to make room for it (to create its volume starting from zero) against a pressure (such as the atmospheric pressure against which the volume would have to be created).

Change in Enthalpy, ∆H

Enthaln

Ironically, Enthalpy's inclusion of the work required to create the system's volume makes ΔH immune to the work involved in processes.

 $\Delta H = \Delta E + \Delta (PV)$

 $\Delta H = \Delta E + P \Delta V$ @ constant P (it acts as just a constant)

Since $\Delta E = q + w$, and $w = -P\Delta V$, we have

 $\Delta H = q + w - w = q$

36

 $\Delta H = q$ @const. P

We can use **q** at constant P to measure Δ**H**

Change in Enthalpy, ΔH

Enthalp

- Enthalpy is derived from state functions (E, P, V)
- · Therefore it is a state function
- Change in its value (ΔH) is determined by the initial and final state only
- Therefore, in the case of a reaction, ΔH is determined by the enthalpy of the reactants and products only

$$\Delta H = H_{\text{products}} - H_{\text{reactants}}$$

37

Enthalp

Thermochemical reaction equations

$$C_3H_8(g) + 5O_2(g) \rightarrow 3CO_2(g) + 4H_2O(I)$$
 $\Delta H = -2221 \text{ kJ}$ implied 1

The thermochemical equation above indicates:

When **1 mol** of C₃H₈(g) combusts with **5 mol** O₂(g), enthalpy change (or **heat**, at constant P) is **-2221 kJ**

39

nthalpy

Measuring Heat: Calorimetry

- Heat flows from the hot material to the cold one
- The material gaining heat gets warmer
- The material losing heat gets colder
- Given time, the two materials (or objects)
 equilibrate at the same, final temperature T_{final}

Enthalpy

Thermochemical reaction equations

The reaction equation with a matching ΔH

For example:

$$C_3H_8(g) + 5O_2(g) \rightarrow 3CO_2(g) + 4H_2O(I)$$
 $\Delta H = -2221 \text{ kJ}$ implied 1

In a thermochemical equation, the coefficients are more than for stoichiometric mole ratios.

The coefficients are also the actual moles of substances corresponding to the ΔH listed with the reaction.

38

Practice

Enthalp

Consider, again, the combustion of propane, C_3H_8 :

$$C_3H_8(g) + 5O_2(g) \rightarrow 3CO_2(g) + 4H_2O(I)$$
 $\Delta H = -2221 \text{ kJ}$

Calculate ΔH in which 5.00 g of propane is burned in excess oxygen at constant pressure.

We apply stoichiometry to ΔH just as we would apply to moles of product

5.00 g
$$C_3H_8 \times \frac{1 \text{ mol } C_3H_8}{44.0 \text{ g } C_3H_8} \times \frac{-2221 \text{ kJ}}{1 \text{ mol } C_3H_8} = -252 \text{ kJ}$$

40

Calorimetr

We measure heat by measuring temperature changes:

$$\Delta T = T_{final} - T_{initial}$$
 units of ΔT : °C

Kelvins (K) would be equivalent. Why?

But every material needs a different amount of heat to warm up by 1°C, even if they have the same mass.

But the amount of heat also depends on the amount and kind of material we have.

© Amo Pag

41

42

Amount of heat needed to change the temperature of an object (or a material) by one degree is called "heat capacity": C

$$q = C \Delta T$$
 units of C: J/°C or cal/°C etc.

The "heat capacity" defined above is the **total** heat capacity of an object.

• Takes into account kind and amount of material

It refers to a whole object, or a whole sample. We don't need to know the object's mass as long as we know its total "heat capacity".

43

How much heat is needed to warm up the world's oceans by 0.50°C?

Given: The (total) heat capacity of the oceans is 1.386 x 10²⁴ cal/°C

q = C
$$\Delta$$
T = (1.386 x 10²⁴ cal/°C) (0.50 °C) = 6.9 x 10²³ cal

44

For a specific material, the amount of heat needed to warm 1 gram of it by 1°C is a characteristic property specific to that material, and is called "specific heat capacity", or "specific heat": c

$$q = m c \Delta T$$
 units of c: J / °C·g or cal/ °C·g etc.

Beware:

Confusingly, in many places, just "heat capacity" is used to mean "specific heat capacity". Watch the context!

Heat capacity and specific heat capacity for a given material

For a specific material, the total "heat capacity" C and "specific heat capacity" s are simply related: $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{c}$



q needed to increase T of entire object (with mass m) by 1°C

 $= C = m \cdot c$ q needed to increase T of 1 gram by 1°C = c

46

45

Measuring heat for a single material

For a specific material:

It makes sense to use specific heat capacity c instead of total heat capacity C

- We just look up its specific heat capacity c
- Weighing the material (to get m) is much easier than measuring its total heat capacity.

$$q = m c \Delta T$$

Measuring heat for a complex object made of many materials

For a complex object:

It makes sense to use the total "heat capacity" C

• perform one experiment to determine its heat capacity \mathbf{C} , and use that with ΔT forever after!

$$q = C \Delta I$$

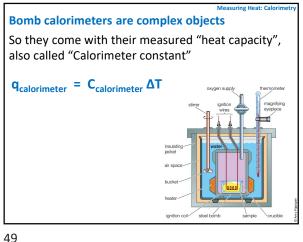
$$? ? ? ?$$

$$m_A c_A + m_B c_B + m_C c_C +$$



It's hard to find the mass and specific heat capacity of each and every component of a complex object! For example, your phone!

48



For any material, or object: $q = C \Delta T$ q > 0means q < 0 $\Delta T < 0 =$ $q = m c \Delta T$ If the "surroundings" gets warmer, then $\boldsymbol{q}_{\text{surroundings}}$ is positive q_{system} is negative (with equal magnitude) because $q_{\text{system}} = -q_{\text{surroundings}}$

- A calorimeter provides "surroundings" for the "system" we want to study
- Measuring the ΔT of the "surroundings" and using the known heat capacity of the surroundings, we can measure the heat for the "system"
- The "system" can be a piece of material we want to measure the specific heat of
- Or it can be a reaction we want to measure the "heat of reaction" of

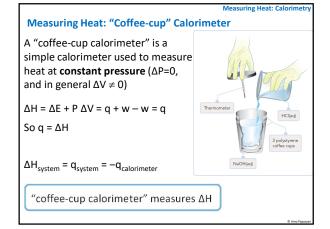
$$q_{system} = -q_{calorimeter}$$

51

Measuring Heat: Bomb Calorimeter A "bomb calorimeter" is used to measure heat at constant volume ($\Delta V=0$) $W = -P \Delta V = 0$ $\Delta E = q + y = q$ So $\mathbf{q} = \Delta \mathbf{E} \longleftarrow \Delta \mathbf{E}_{\text{system}}$ $\Delta E_{system} = q_{system} = -q_{calorimeter}$ "bomb calorimeter" measures ΔE

52

50



Practice 0.453 g iron reacts with 27 g of solution containing excess HCl according to the following equation $Fe(s) + 2 HCI(aq) \rightarrow FeCI_2(aq) + H_2(g)$ in a coffee-cup calorimeter. The temperature of the reactants was 25.0°C before the reaction, and rises to 31.4°C after the reaction. The specific heat capacity of the solution is 4.18 J/(g °C). What is ΔH (in kJ) for the reaction as written above? Reaction = system solution = surroundings $(\Delta H_{rxn} \text{ for } 0.453 \text{ g Fe}) = q_{rxn}$ Coefficient of Fe is 1, so we calculate ΔH for 1 mol Fe $\Delta T = 31.4 \text{ °C} - 25.0 \text{ °C} = 6.4 \text{ °C}$ $q_{rxn} = -q_{sol'n} = -m c \Delta T = -(27 g) [4.18 J/(g °C)] (6.4 °C) = -722 J$ $\Delta H = 1 \text{ mol Fe} \times \frac{55.85 \text{ g Fe}}{1 \text{ mol Fe}} \times \frac{-722 \text{ J}}{0.453 \text{ g Fe}} \times \frac{1 \text{ kJ}}{10^3 \text{ J}} = -89 \text{ kJ}$

Measuring Heat: Calorimetr

ΔH normally refers to products being at the same T as the reactants we started with, typically 25°C.

Then how come we measure ΔT in a calorimeter? Clearly a change in temperature!

The "system" is the reaction (i.e. the electrons that rearrange, but have no heat capacity themselves)

Everything else, including the atoms that underwent the reaction, form the "surroundings". We can measure their ΔT to calculate the q for the reaction.

Measuring ΔT relative to 25°C actually gives the q corresponding to the reaction happening at 25°C!

55

56

Hess's Law

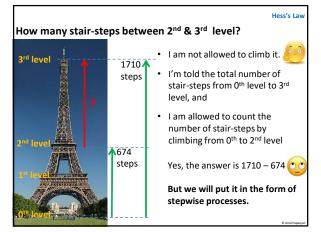
less's Law

Sometimes it is useful to create a roundabout path for a net reaction. Because:

- We may know the ΔH for the many individual steps, but not the net reaction. By adding up the steps with known ΔH values, we can get the ΔH for the net reaction.
- We may know the ΔH for the net reaction, but by representing with a clever set of steps, we can calculate the ΔH for one of those steps without doing the experiment, if we know the ΔH for all the other steps.

57

59



In going from a particular set of reactants to a particular set

of products, the change in enthalpy is the same whether

Because enthalpy is a state function

the reaction takes place in one step or in a series of steps.

58

Hess's Lav

Hess's Law allows us to obtain ΔH of processes otherwise inaccessible to us

- The process or reaction may be difficult or impossible to conduct experimentally
- Or we might simply lack the information at the moment
- By cleverly constructing a series of stepwise processes, we can solve for the unknown ΔH.
- It can also be applied to any other state function, such as ΔE

less's La

Applying Hess's Law

- We look for each reactant and the product in the net reaction.
- We reverse any step that has the substance on the "wrong" side.
- If the substance has a coefficient in the step different from that in the net reaction, we multiply the step by an appropriate factor to make them the same.
- We add the steps, along with their ΔH values.
- Any substances that don't appear in the net formula will appear on both sides and cancel.

61

less's Law

Note that:

• If a reaction is reversed, the sign of ΔH is also reversed.

$$A + B \rightarrow C$$
 $\Delta H = X kJ$
 $C \rightarrow A + B$ $\Delta H = -X kJ$

- The magnitude of ΔH is directly proportional to the quantities of reactants and products in a reaction.
- If the coefficients in a reaction are multiplied by a factor, the value of ΔH is multiplied by the same factor.

$$A + B \rightarrow C$$
 $\Delta H = X kJ$
 $2A + 2B \rightarrow 2C$ $\Delta H = 2X kJ$

62

0.

Example

Hess's Law

Consider the following data:

Rxn. 1:
$$NH_3(g) \longrightarrow \frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}H_2(g)$$
 $\Delta H = 46 \text{ kJ}$
Rxn. 2: $2 H_2(g) + O_2(g) \longrightarrow 2 H_2O(g)$ $\Delta H = -484 \text{ kJ}$

and calculate ΔH for the reaction

Net rxn:
$$2 N_2(g) + 6 H_2O(g) \longrightarrow 3 O_2(g) + 4 NH_3(g)$$

 N_2 needs to be on the left (but is on the right in rxn 1) Reverse rxn. 1 (also puts NH_3 on the right side; good) H_2O needs to be on the left (but is on the right in rxn 2) Reverse rxn. 2 (also puts O_2 on the right side; good)

$${}_{2}^{\prime}N_{2}(g) + {}_{2}^{3}\!\!\!/_{2}H_{2}(g) \longrightarrow NH_{3}(g)$$
 $\Delta H = -46 \text{ kJ}$
 $2H_{2}O(g) \longrightarrow 2H_{2}(g) + O_{2}(g)$ $\Delta H = +484 \text{ kJ}$

63

Example (cont.)

$${}^{1/2}N_{2}(g) + {}^{3/2}H_{2}(g) \rightarrow NH_{3}(g)$$
 $\Delta H = -46 \text{ kJ}$]
 ${}^{2}H_{2}O(g) \rightarrow 2H_{2}(g) + O_{2}(g)$ $\Delta H = +484 \text{ kJ}$]

$$2 \text{ N}_2(g) + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}(g) \rightarrow 3 \text{ O}_2(g) + 4 \text{ NH}_3(g)$$
 (net reaction)

We have a coefficient of $\frac{1}{2}$ for $N_2(g)$, but we need it to be 2 We have a coefficient of 2 for $H_2O(g)$, but we need it to be 6

4 x ½ gives 2 for N₂(g)

 3×2 gives 6 for H_2O (g)

4 x [
$$\frac{1}{2}$$
N₂(g) + $\frac{3}{2}$ H₂(g) \rightarrow NH₃(g) Δ H = -46 kJ]

3 x [2H₂O(g) → 2H₂(g) + O₂(g)
$$\Delta H = +484 \text{ kJ}$$
]

64

Example (cont.)

ess's Law

Adding up the properly rearranged reaction equations:

$$2 N_2(g) + 6 H_2(g) \rightarrow 4 NH_3(g)$$
 $\Delta H = -184 kJ$
 $6 H_2O(g) \rightarrow 6 H_2(g) + 3 O_2(g)$ $\Delta H = +1452 kJ$

$$2 \text{ N}_2(g) + 6 \text{ H}_2O(g) \rightarrow 3 \text{ O}_2(g) + 4 \text{ NH}_3(g)$$
 $\triangle H$

ΔH = +1268 kJ

Repeat for all substances in the net reaction.

not, keep the current sign.

one step, skip that substance.

Add the ΔH values obtained from steps to get ΔH for the desired reaction.

A practical approach to applying Hess's Law in simpler cases: One at a time, find each substance in the desired reaction in one of the proposed steps. If the the substance occurs in more than

If the substance occurs on the wrong side of the step (it's a reactant in the step while the net reaction needs it to be a

product, or vice versa), reverse the sign of the ΔH for that step. If

Multiply the step's ΔH by a factor that would make the coefficient

of the substance considered equal to its coefficient in the net

reaction: (coeff. in net rxn)/(coeff. in the step rxn)

66

Hess's La

We can break any reaction into standard steps

Every substance is made of elements.

A "formation reaction" can be defined for every substance, going from elements to the substance.

Also the reverse reaction

We now break down the reaction into those steps:

- Each reactant decomposes to its elements
 reversed formation reactions
- The elements combine to form the products
 Formation reactions

67

less's Lav

For the idea to be useful, we need access to extensive tables that give data on most chemicals. So we need to use the Standard Enthalpy of Formation, ΔH_f° , that goes with an unambiguously defined "formation reaction" using elements at their "standard states".

$$\Delta H_f^{\circ \leftarrow --- \text{"standard"}}$$

We will look at the proper definition of "formation reaction", and "standard state" after we apply the concept first.

69

less's Law

Using ΔH_t° values to calculate ΔH° for a reaction Here is the more familiar setup for Hess's Law, in case the

previous slide was too unfamiliar.

6 NO(g) + 4 NH₃(g)
$$\rightarrow$$
 5 N₂(g) + 6 H₂O(l)

$N_2(g) \rightarrow N_2(g)$	$\Delta H^* = \Delta H_{f,N_2(g)} \times 5$
$H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \longrightarrow H_2O(1)$	$\Delta H^{\circ} = \Delta H_{f,H_{2}O(g)}^{\circ} \times 6$
$NO(g) \longrightarrow \frac{1}{2}O_2 + N_2(g)$	$\Delta H^{\circ} = -\Delta H_{f,NO(g)}^{\circ} \times 6$
$NH_3(g) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}N_2 + \frac{3}{2}H_2(g)$	$\Delta H^{\circ} = -\Delta H_{f,NH_3(g)}^{\circ} \times 4$

6 NO(g) + 4 NH₃(g)
$$\rightarrow$$
 5 N₂(g) + 6 H₂O(l) ΔH°_{TXIR} (Add up the ΔH° for the steps)

$$\Delta H_{rxn}^{\circ} = 5\Delta H_{f}^{\circ},_{N_{2}(g)} + 6\Delta H_{f}^{\circ},_{H_{2}O(I)} - 6\Delta H_{f}^{\circ},_{NO(g)} - 4\Delta H_{f}^{\circ},_{NH_{3}(g)}$$

For example:

Formation reaction of water

$$H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2} O_2(g) \rightarrow H_2O(I)$$
 $\Delta H = -286 \text{ kJ}$

Used as a step if H₂O(I) is one of the **products** in the reaction considered > Because it appears as the product

Reverse of the formation reaction of water

$$H_2O(I) \rightarrow H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \quad \Delta H = 286 \text{ kJ}$$

Used as a step if H₂O(I) is one of the **reactants** in the reaction considered ➤ Because it appears as the reactant

68

Using ΔH_f values to calculate ΔH for a reaction

ness s Law

The reaction $6 \text{ NO(g)} + 4 \text{ NH}_3(\text{g}) \rightarrow 5 \text{ N}_2(\text{g}) + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O(I)}$ Can be split up into a bunch of <u>formation reactions</u>:

- In the normal, <u>forward direction for products</u>
- In the reverse direction for reactants

 $\Delta H_{rxn}^{\circ} = 5\Delta H_{f,N_2(g)}^{\circ} + 6\Delta H_{f,H_2O(I)}^{\circ} - 6\Delta H_{f,NO(g)}^{\circ} - 4\Delta H_{f,NH_3(g)}^{\circ}$

70

 $\Delta H_{rxn}^{\circ} = 5\Delta H_{f,N_2(g)}^{\circ} + 6\Delta H_{f,H_2O(l)}^{\circ} - 6\Delta H_{f,NO(g)}^{\circ} - 4\Delta H_{f,NH_3(g)}^{\circ}$

Factor out the negative sign:

 $\Delta H_{rxn}^{\circ} = \underbrace{[5\Delta H_{f,N_2(g)}^{\circ} + 6\Delta H_{f,H_2O(I)}^{\circ}]}_{\text{Sum of }\Delta H_{f}^{\circ} \text{ values}} - \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 6\Delta H_{f,NO(g)}^{\circ} + 4\Delta H_{f,NH_3(g)}^{\circ} \\ \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Sum of }\Delta H_{f}^{\circ} \text{ values}}$ $= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \text{Sum of }\Delta H_{f}^{\circ} \text{ values} \\ \text{multiplied by coefficients}; \\ \text{for products} \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{for reactionts}}$

for products — multiplied by coefficients; for reactants

72

The general formula to find ΔH°_{rxn} from enthalpies of formation:

$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{rxn} = \sum_{p} n_{p} \Delta H^{\circ}_{f}(products) - \sum_{p} n_{r} \Delta H^{\circ}_{f}(reactants)$$

means "summation"

n_n: coefficient of each product n,: coefficient of each reactant

73

What exactly is a "formation reaction"?

- The only reactants are elements
- The only product is the substance formed
- The coefficient of the product is an implied 1

 ΔH of the formation reaction is ΔH_f for the substance formed

75

Standard states of elements:

The form in which they exist at 1 bar and 25°C

- $H_2(g)$, $N_2(g)$, $O_2(g)$, $Cl_2(g)$, $F_2(g)$, $Br_2(l)$, $I_2(s)$, Hg(l)
- Most stable solid crystal for solid elements, but we usually simply write (s); the rest is implied.
- When we write C(s), it's understood that it's C(graphite) and not C(diamond)!

Practice

Calculate ΔH° for the following reaction:

$$2 \text{ Na}(s) + 2 \text{ H}_2\text{O}(I) \longrightarrow 2 \text{ NaOH}(aq) + \text{H}_2(g)$$

Given the following information:

 ΔH_f° (kJ/mol)

Na(s) $H_2O(I)$ -286-470

NaOH(aq) $H_2(g)$

 $\Delta H^{\circ} = [(2)\Delta H_{f,NaOH(aq)}^{\circ} + (1)\Delta H_{f,H_{2}(g)}^{\circ}] - [(2)\Delta H_{f,Na(s)}^{\circ} + (2)\Delta H_{f,H_{2}O(l)}^{\circ}]$ = -368 kJ

74

The elements on the reactant side of a "formation reaction" must be in their standard state.

For example:

Oxygen exists as a diatomic gas in its standard state, not as individual atoms.

 $C(graphite) + 2O(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g)$ Not a formation reaction

Bromine exists as Br₂ molecules in the liquid (not gas) state under the conditions of the standard state.

 $Na(s) + \frac{1}{2}Br_2(g) \rightarrow NaBr(s)$ Not a formation reaction

76

 $C(s) + O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g)$

Formation reaction

 $CO(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g)$

Not a formation reaction

Not an element

 $\frac{1}{8} S_8(s) + O_2(g) \rightarrow SO_2(g)$

Formation reaction

 $S_8(s) + 8 O_2(g) \rightarrow 8 SO_2(g)$

Not a formation reaction Coefficient of product > 1

$$O_2(g) + O(g) \rightarrow O_3(g)$$

Not a formation reaction

Element not in its standard state

78

77

 ΔH_f° for an element (in its standard state) is zero

$$C(graphite) \rightarrow C(graphite) \Delta H_f^{\circ} = 0$$

$$O_2(g) \longrightarrow O_2(g)$$
 $\Delta H_f^\circ = 0$

However, ΔH_f° of an element in a <u>non-standard state</u> would not be zero

$$\frac{1}{2} O_2(g) \longrightarrow O(g)$$
 $\Delta H_f^{\circ} = 248 \text{ kJ}$

$$\frac{1}{2}I_2(s) \rightarrow I(g)$$
 $\Delta H_f^{\circ} = 60.2 \text{ kJ}$

$$\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\circ} = 60.2 \, \rm k.$$

A note about the proper use of units

 ΔH in a thermochemical equation should have a unit of energy, rather than energy/mol

- · When written next to a reaction
- When called "enthalpy of reaction"

It is proper to use energy/mol only when ΔH is listed as "Enthalpy of formation of XYZ"

$$H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow H_2O(l) \quad \Delta H = -286 \text{ kJ}$$

but

80

Enthalpy of formation of $H_2O(l) = \Delta H_f = -286 \text{ kJ/mol}$