

Principles and Modern Applications



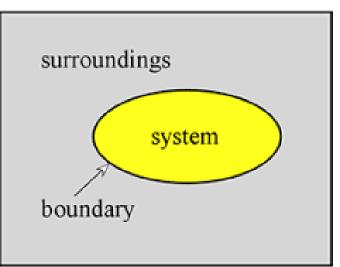
Chapter 7: Thermochemistry

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6-1 Getting Started: Some Terminology

- A system is the part of the universe chosen for study, and it can be as large as all the oceans on Earth or as small as the contents of a beaker.
- The **surroundings** are that part of the universe outside the system with which the system interacts.

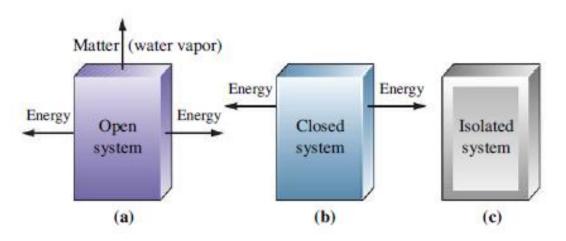


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"The universe"

6-1 Getting Started: Some Terminology

An open system freely exchanges energy and matter with its surroundings. A closed system can exchange energy, but not matter, with its surroundings. An isolated system does not interact with its surroundings.



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6-1 Getting Started: Some Terminology

Thermodynamic Systems



OPEN SYSTEM Heat Transfer

Mass Transfer



CLOSED SYSTEM

Heat Transfer No Mass Transfer ISOLATED SYSTEM No Heat Transfer No Mass Transfer

Terminology

- Energy (E): the capacity to do work or transfer heat
- Work (w): the energy used to move something against a force. A work's magnitude equals the product of the force, F, and the distance, d, that the object moves:

$\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{d}$

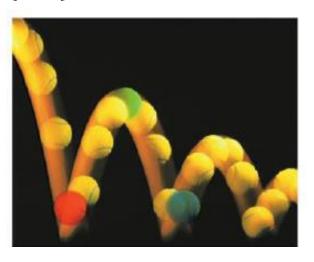
$$[w] = \left(\frac{kg m}{s^2}\right)m = J$$

Energy

 Kinetic Energy: the energy of motion. If a system is actively producing or exerting energy, we call it kinetic energy. An object's kinetic energy (E_k) is described by the following formula:

$$\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{m}\mathbf{v}^2 \ [\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{k}}\] = \mathbf{k}\mathbf{g} \left[\frac{\mathbf{m}}{\mathbf{s}}\right]$$

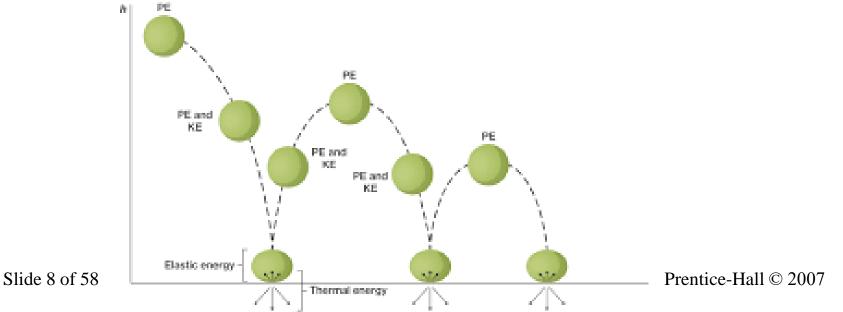
 Potential energy: Energy due to condition, position, or composition. Associated with forces of attraction or repulsion between objects.



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Energy

- Energy can change from potential to kinetic.
- Thermal Energy: Kinetic energy associated with random molecular motion.
 - In general proportional to temperature.
 - An intensive property.



Heat

- Energy transferred between a system and its surroundings as a result of a temperature difference.
- Heat *flows* from hotter to colder.
 - Temperature may change.
 - Phase may change (an isothermal process).
- A process occurring at a constant temperature is said to be *isothermal*.
- It is reasonable to expect that the quantity of heat, q, required to change the temperature of a substance depends on
 - how much the temperature is to be changed
 - the quantity of substance
 - the nature of the substance (type of atoms or molecules)

Units of Heat

Calorie (cal)

- The quantity of heat required to change the temperature of one gram of water by one degree Celsius.
- ♦ Joule (J)
 - SI unit for heat

1 cal = 4.184 J

Heat Capacity

 The quantity of heat required to change the temperature of a system by one degree.

• Molar heat capacity.

- System is one mole of substance.
- Specific heat capacity, c.
 - System is one gram of substance
- Heat capacity
 - Mass 🛛 specific heat.

 $q = mc\Delta T$

 $q = C\Delta T$

How much heat is required to raise the temperature of 7.35 g of water from 21.0 to 98.0 °C? (Assume the specific heat of water is 4.18 J g⁻¹ °C⁻¹ throughout this temperature range.)

$$q = mc\Delta T$$

q= 7.35 g x 4.18 J g⁻¹ °C⁻¹ x (98.0-21.0) °C
q= 2.36x10³ J

Conservation of Energy

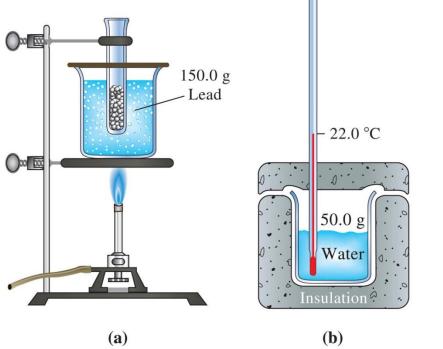
 In interactions between a system and its surroundings the total energy remains *constant energy is neither created nor destroyed*.

 $q_{\text{system}} + q_{\text{surroundings}} = 0$

 Thus, heat gained by a system is lost by its surroundings, and vice versa.

 $q_{system} = -q_{surroundings}$

Determination of Specific Heat



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 $q_{lead} = q_{system}$

 $q_{water} = q_{surroundings}$

$$q_{lead} = -q_{water.}$$

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- 28.8 °C

(c)

Determining the specific heat of lead—Example 7-2 illustrated (a) A 150.0 g sample of lead is heated to the temperature of boiling water (100.0 °C). (b) A 50.0 g sample of water is added to a thermally insulated beaker, and its temperature is found to be 22.0 °C. (c) The hot lead is dumped into the cold water, and the temperature of the final lead–water mixture is 28.8 °C.

Determining Specific Heat from Experimental Data. Use the data presented on the last slide to calculate the specific heat of lead.

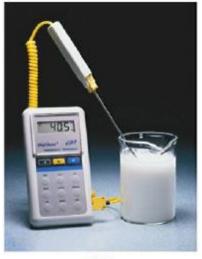
 $q_{lead} = -q_{water}$ $q_{water} = mc\Delta T = (50.0 \text{ g})(4.184 \text{ J/g} \circ \text{C})(28.8 - 22.0) \circ \text{C}$ $q_{water} = 1.4 \times 10^3 \text{ J}$ $q_{lead} = -1.4 \times 10^3 \text{ J} = mc\Delta T = (150.0 \text{ g})(c_{lead})(28.8 - 100.0) \circ \text{C}$ $c_{lead} = 0.13 \text{ Jg}^{-1} \circ \text{C}^{-1}$

7-3 Heats of Reaction and Calorimetry

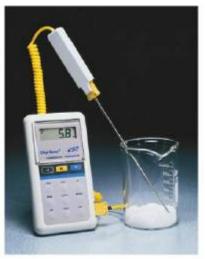
- Chemical energy.
 - Contributes to the internal energy of a system.
- Heat of reaction, q_{rxn} .
 - The quantity of heat exchanged between a system and its surroundings when a chemical reaction occurs within the system, at *constant temperature*.

Heats of Reaction

- Exothermic reactions.
 - Produces heat, $q_{rxn} < 0$.
- Endothermic reactions.
 - Consumes heat, $q_{rxn} > 0$.
- Calorimeter
 - A device for measuring quantities of heat.







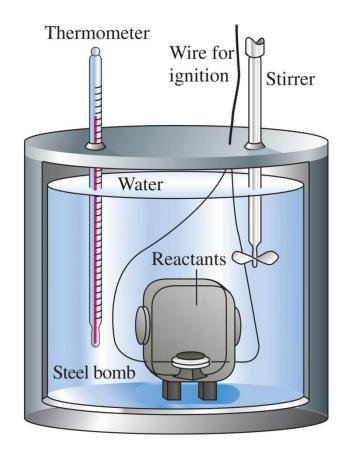
Bomb Calorimeter

 $q_{rxn} = -q_{cal}$

$$q_{cal} = q_{bomb} + q_{water} + q_{wires} + \dots$$

Define the heat capacity of the calorimeter:

$$q_{cal} = \sum_{_{all \, i}} m_i c_i \Delta T = C \Delta T$$



Using Bomb Calorimetry Data to Determine a Heat of Reaction. The combustion of 1.010 g sucrose, in a bomb calorimeter, causes the temperature to rise from 24.92 to 28.33°C. The heat capacity of the calorimeter assembly is 4.90 kJ/°C. What is the heat of combustion of sucrose, expressed in kJ/mol $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$?

Calculate q_{calorimeter}:

$$q_{cal} = C\Delta T = (4.90 \text{ kJ/}^{\circ}\text{C})(28.33-24.92)^{\circ}\text{C} = (4.90)(3.41) \text{ kJ}$$

= 16.7 kJ

Calculate q_{rxn} :

$$q_{rxn} = -q_{cal} = -16.7 \text{ kJ}$$
 per 1.010 g

Calculate q_{rxn} in the required units:

$$q_{rxn} = -q_{cal} = -\frac{16.7 \text{ kJ}}{1.010 \text{ g}} = -16.5 \text{ kJ/g}$$

$$q_{rxn} = -16.5 \text{ kJ/g} \frac{343.3 \text{ g}}{1.00 \text{ mol}}$$

$$= -5.65 \times 10^3 \text{ kJ/mol}$$
 (a)

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Coffee Cup Calorimeter

• A simple calorimeter.

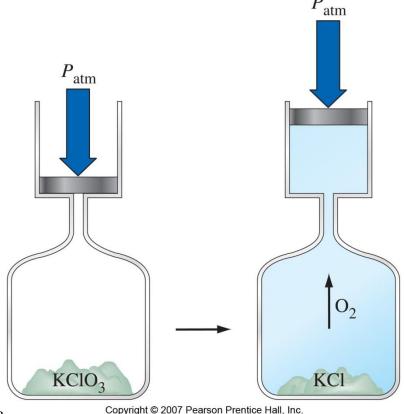
- Well insulated and therefore *isolated*.
- Measure temperature change.

$$q_{rxn} = -q_{cal}$$



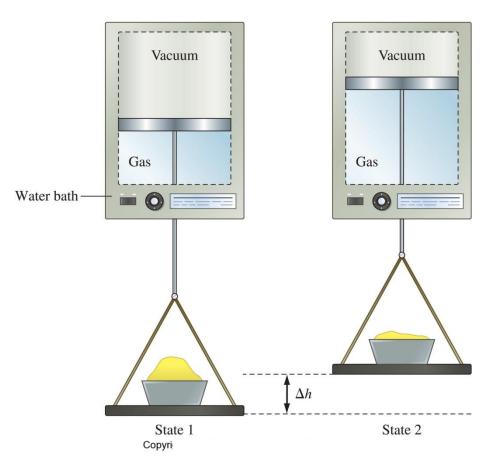
7-4 Work

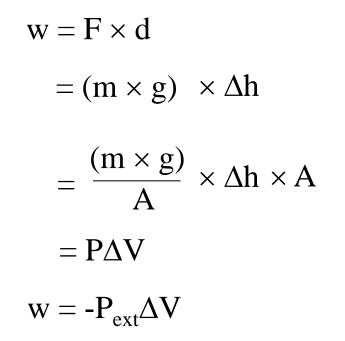
- Heat effects generally accompany chemical reactions. In some reactions, work is also involved-that is, the system may do work on its surroundings or vice versa.
- Work involved in the expansion or compression of gases is called pressurevolume work.



Pressure Volume Work

work (w) = force ($M \times g$) × distance (Δh) = $-M \times g \times \Delta h$





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Calculating Pressure-Volume Work. Suppose the gas in the previous figure is 0.100 mol He at 298 K and the each mass in the figure corresponds to an external pressure of 1.20 atm. How much work, in Joules, is associated with its expansion at constant pressure.

Assume an ideal gas and calculate the volume change:

$$V_i = nRT/P$$

- $= (0.100 \text{ mol})(0.08201 \text{ L atm mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1})(298\text{K})/(2.40 \text{ atm})$
- = 1.02 L

$$\Delta V = 2.04 \text{ L} - 1.02 \text{ L} = 1.02 \text{ L}$$

$$V_{\rm f} = 2.04 \ {\rm L}$$

Calculate the work done by the system:

w = $-P\Delta V$ = $-(1.20 \text{ atm})(1.02 \text{ L})(\frac{-101 \text{ J}}{1 \text{ L atm}})$ = $-1.24 \times 10^2 \text{ J}$

Hint: If you use-101 J1 L atmget Joules directly.

A negative value signifies that work is done ON the surroundings

Where did the conversion factor come from?

Compare two versions of the gas constant and calculate.

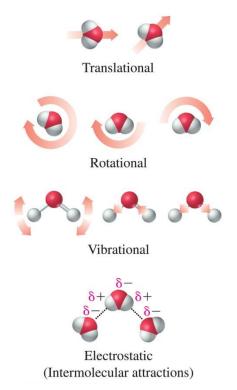
8.3145 J/mol K \equiv 0.082057 L atm/mol K

 $1 \equiv 101.33 \text{ J/L}$ atm

7-5 The First Law of Thermodynamics

♦ Internal Energy, U.

• Total energy (potential and kinetic) in a system.



- •Translational kinetic energy.
- •Molecular rotation.
- •Bond vibration.
- •Intermolecular attractions.
- •Chemical bonds.
- •Electrons.

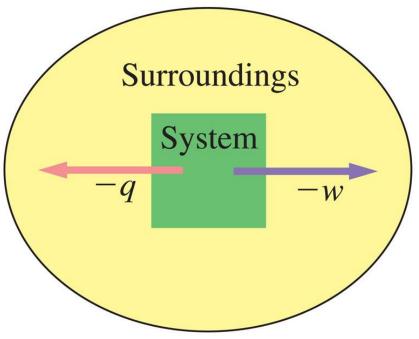
First Law of Thermodynamics

- A system contains *only* internal energy.
 - A system does not contain heat or work.
 - These only occur during a *change* in the system.

 $\Delta U = q + w$

Law of Conservation of Energy
The energy of an isolated system is constant

First Law of Thermodynamics



Any energy *leaving* the system carries a *negative* sign.

Any energy *entering* the system carries a *positive* sign.

Surroundings

System

+q

$$\Delta U = q + w$$

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+w

Functions of State

 Any property that has a unique value for a specified state of a system is said to be a State Function.

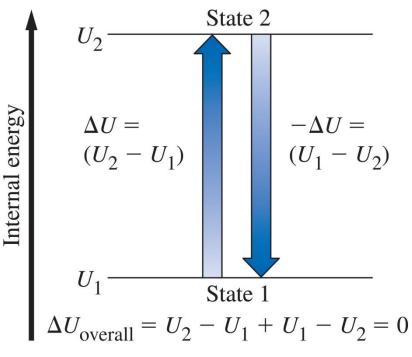
- Water at 293.15 K and 1.00 atm is in a specified state.
- d = 0.99820 g/mL
- This density is a unique function of the state.
- It does not matter *how* the state was established.

Functions of State

• U is a function of state.

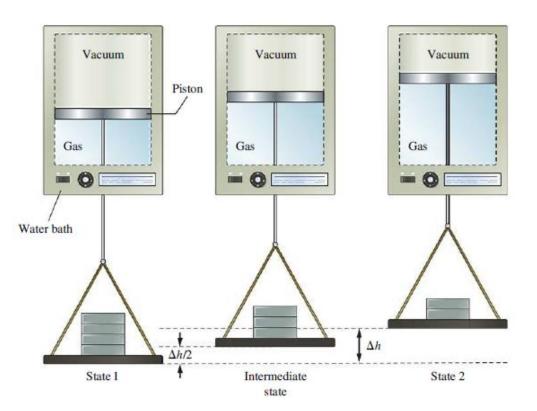
- Not easily measured.
- ΔU has a unique value between two states.

• Is easily measured.



Path Dependent Functions

- Changes in heat and work are not functions of state.
 - Remember example 7-5, w = -1.24 × 10² J in a one step expansion of gas:
 - Consider 2.40 atm to 1.80 atm and finally to 1.20 atm.



7-6 Heats of Reaction: ΔU and ΔH

Reactants \rightarrow Products $U_i \qquad U_f$ $\Delta U = U_f - U_i$ $\Delta U = q_{rxn} + w$

In a system at constant volume:

$$\Delta U = q_{rxn} + 0 = q_{rxn} = q_v$$

The heat of reaction measured in a bomb calorimeter is equal to ΔU .

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Heats of Reaction

 $q_V = q_P + w$

We know that $w = -P\Delta V$ and $\Delta U = q_P$, therefore:

 $\Delta U = q_P - P\Delta V$ $q_P = \Delta U + P\Delta V$

These are all state functions, so define a new function.

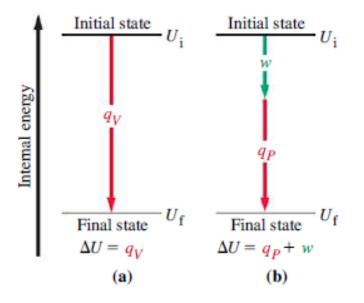
Let

 $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{U} + \mathbf{P}\mathbf{V}$

Then $\Delta H = H_f - H_i = \Delta U + \Delta PV$

If we work at constant pressure and temperature:

 $\Delta H = \Delta U + P \Delta V = q_P$



Changes of State of Matter

Molar enthalpy of vaporization: The heat required to vaporize a fixed quantity of liquid is called the enthalpy (or heat) of vaporization. Usually the fixed quantity of liquid chosen is one mole, and we can call this quantity the *molar enthalpy of vaporization*. For example,

 $H_2O(l) \rightarrow H_2O(g)$ $\Delta H = 44.0 \text{ kJ at } 298 \text{ K}$

Molar enthalpy of fusion: We described the melting of a solid in a similar fashion. The energy requirement in this case is called the enthalpy (or heat) of fusion. For the melting of one mole of ice, we can write

$$H_2O(s) \to H_2O(l)$$
 $\Delta H = 6.01 \text{ kJ at } 273.15 \text{ K}$

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Enthalpy Changes Accompanying Changes in States of Matter. Calculate ΔH for the process in which 50.0 g of water is converted from liquid at 10.0°C to vapor at 25.0°C.

Break the problem into two steps: Raise the temperature of the liquid first then completely vaporize it. The total enthalpy change is the sum of the changes in each step.

Set up the equation and calculate:

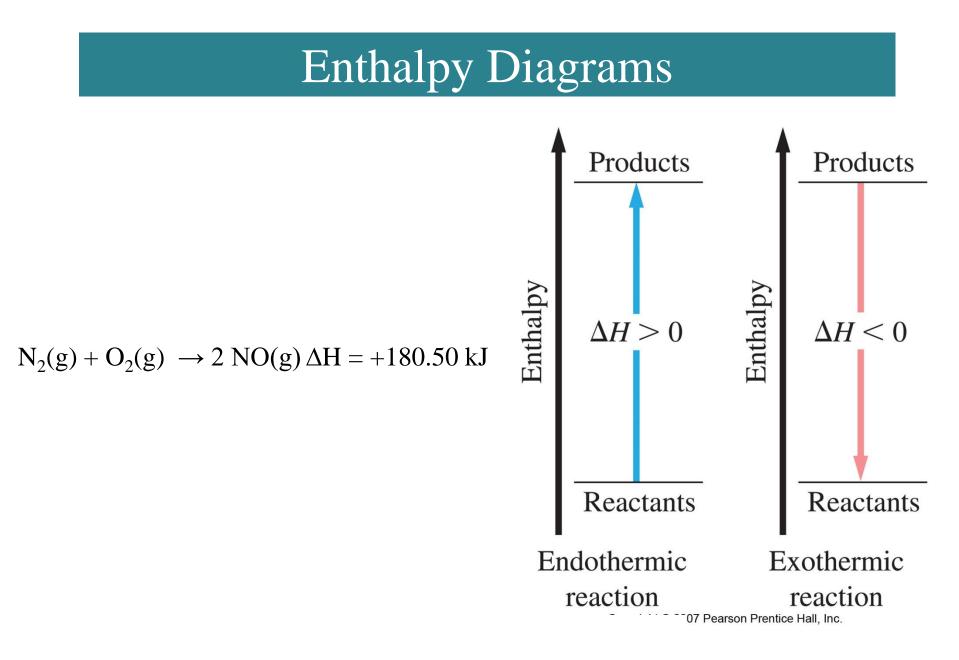
 $q_{P} = mc_{H_{2}O}\Delta T + n\Delta H_{vap}$

 $= (50.0 \text{ g})(4.184 \text{ J/g} ^{\circ}\text{C})(25.0-10.0)^{\circ}\text{C} + \frac{50.0 \text{ g}}{18.0 \text{ g/mol}} 44.0 \text{ kJ/mol}$

= 3.14 kJ + 122 kJ = 125 kJ

Standard States and Standard Enthalpy Changes

- Define a particular state as a standard state.
- Standard enthalpy of reaction, ΔH°
 - The enthalpy change of a reaction in which all reactants and products are in their standard states.
- Standard State
 - The pure element or compound at a pressure of 1 bar and at the temperature of interest.



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7-7 Indirect Determination of Δ H: Hess's Law

- Δ H is an extensive property.
 - Enthalpy change is directly proportional to the amount of substance in a system.

 $N_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2 \text{ NO}(g)$ $\Delta H = +180.50 \text{ kJ}$ $\frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow \text{NO}(g)$ $\Delta H = +90.25 \text{ kJ}$

• Δ H changes sign when a process is reversed NO(g) $\rightarrow \frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \quad \Delta H = -90.25 \text{ kJ}$

Hess's Law

Hess's law of constant heat summation

• If a process occurs in stages or steps (even hypothetically), the enthalpy change for the overall process is the sum of the enthalpy changes for the individual steps.

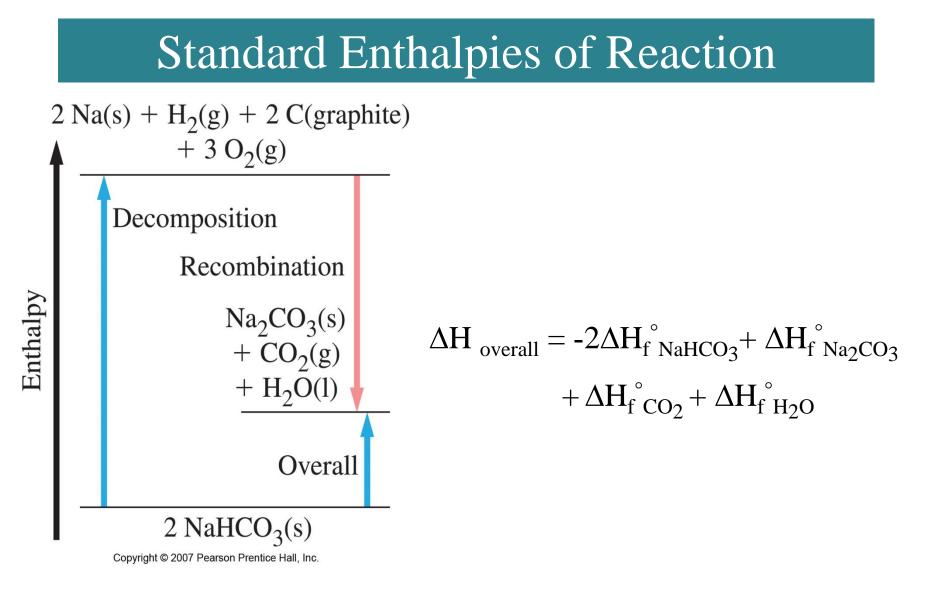
$$1/_2N_2(g) + 1/_2O_2(g) \rightarrow NO(g)$$
 $\Delta H = +90.25 \text{ kJ}$
NO(g) $+ 1/_2O_2(g) \rightarrow NO_2(g)$ $\Delta H = -57.07 \text{ kJ}$

 $\frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow NO_2(g) \qquad \Delta H = +33.18 \text{ kJ}$

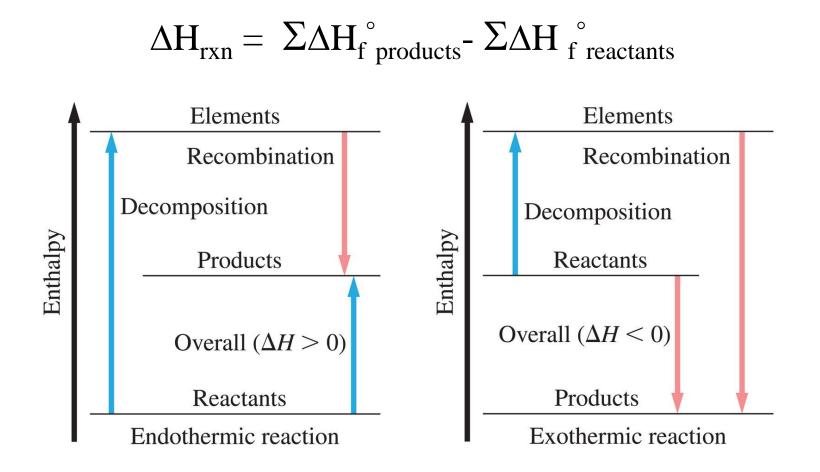
7-8 Standard Enthalpies of Formation

$\Delta H_{f}^{~\circ}$

- The enthalpy change that occurs in the formation of one mole of a substance in the standard state from the reference forms of the elements in their standard states.
- Because the formation of the most stable form of an element from itself is no change at all, the standard enthalpy of formation of a pure element in its reference state is 0.



Enthalpy of Reaction



Calculate the standard enthalpy of combustion of ethane, C_2H_6 a component of natural gas.

$$C_2H_6(g) \ + \frac{7}{2}O_2(g) \ \longrightarrow 2 \operatorname{CO}_2(g) \ + 3 \operatorname{H}_2O(l)$$

$$\begin{split} \Delta H^{\circ} &= \{2 \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{CO}_{2} \times \Delta H_{\mathrm{f}}^{\circ}[\operatorname{CO}_{2}(\mathrm{g})] + 3 \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O} \times \Delta H_{\mathrm{f}}^{\circ}[\operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O}(1)]\} \\ &- \{1 \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{C}_{2}\operatorname{H}_{6} \times \Delta H_{\mathrm{f}}^{\circ}[\operatorname{C}_{2}\operatorname{H}_{6}(\mathrm{g})] + \frac{7}{2}\operatorname{mol} \operatorname{O}_{2} \times \Delta H_{\mathrm{f}}^{\circ}[\operatorname{O}_{2}(\mathrm{g})]\} \\ &= 2 \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{CO}_{2} \times (-393.5 \operatorname{kJ/mol} \operatorname{CO}_{2}) + 3 \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O} \times (-285.8 \operatorname{kJ/mol} \operatorname{H}_{2}\operatorname{O}) \\ &- 1 \operatorname{mol} \operatorname{C}_{2}\operatorname{H}_{6} \times (-84.7 \operatorname{kJ/mol} \operatorname{C}_{2}\operatorname{H}_{6}) - \frac{7}{2}\operatorname{mol} \operatorname{O}_{2} \times 0 \operatorname{kJ/mol} \operatorname{O}_{2} \\ &= -787.0 \operatorname{kJ} - 857.4 \operatorname{kJ} + 84.7 \operatorname{kJ} = -1559.7 \operatorname{kJ} \end{split}$$