

#### Chapter 6

#### Thermochemistry

# Chapter 6 *Table of Contents*



- (6.1) The nature of energy
- (6.2) Enthalpy and calorimetry
- (6.3) Hess's law
- (6.4) Standard enthalpies of formation
- (6.5) Present sources of energy
- (6.6) New energy sources



Energy

- Capacity to do work or to produce heat
- Law of conservation of energy: Energy can be converted from one form to another but can be neither created nor destroyed
  - Total energy content of the universe is constant



Classification of Energy

- Potential energy: Energy due to position or composition
  - Can result from attractive and repulsive forces
- Kinetic energy: Energy due to the motion of an object
  - Depends on the mass of the object (*m*) and its velocity
     (v)

$$\mathrm{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$



#### Conversion of Energy

Consider the following image:



 Due to its higher initial position, ball A has more potential energy than ball B



Conversion of Energy (Continued)



- After A has rolled down the hill, the potential energy lost by A has been converted to:
  - Random motions of the components of the hill (frictional heating)
  - The increase in the potential energy of B



Methods of Transferring Energy

- Heat: Transfer of energy between two objects due to a temperature difference
  - Temperature reflects random motion of particles in a substance
- Work: Force acting over a distance



Pathway

- Specific conditions that define the path by which energy is transferred
- Work and heat are dependent on the pathway
- Energy change is independent of the pathway



Energy as a State Function

- State function (state property): Property that does not depend in any way on the system's past or future
  - Value depends on the characteristics of the present state
  - While transitioning from one state to another, the change in state property is independent of the pathway taken between the two states



Parts of the Universe

- System: Part of the universe on which one wishes to focus his/her attention
  - Example The reactants and products of a reaction
- Surroundings: Include everything else in the universe
  - Example Things other than the reactants and products



Types of Reactions

- Exothermic reaction: Results in the evolution of heat
  - Energy flows out of the system
  - Example Combustion of methane
- Endothermic reaction: Results in the absorption of energy from the surroundings
  - Heat flows into a system
  - Example Formation of nitric oxide



**Reaction Mechanism** 

- Energy gained by the surroundings must be equal to the energy lost by the system
  - Endothermic reactions result from a lowered potential energy of the reaction system
  - In exothermic reactions, potential energy stored in chemical bonds is converted to thermal energy via heat



**Δ(PE)** 

- Change in potential energy stored in the bonds of products as compared with the bonds of reactants
  - For an exothermic process, more energy is released while forming new bonds than is consumed while breaking the bonds in the reactants
  - In an endothermic reaction, energy that flows into the system as heat is used to increase the potential energy of the system



# **Figure 6.2** - Energy Diagram for the Combustion of Methane





**Figure 6.3** - Energy Diagram for the Formation of Nitric Oxide





Thermodynamics

- Study of energy and its interconversions
- First law of thermodynamics: Energy of the universe is constant
  - Known as the law of conservation of energy



# Internal Energy (E)

- Sum of kinetic and potential energies of all particles in a system
- Can be changed by flow of work, heat, or both

$$\Delta E = q + w$$

- $\Delta E$  Change in the system's internal energy
- q Heat
- w Work



Parts of Thermodynamic Quantities

- Number Gives the magnitude of change
- Sign Indicates the direction of flow
  - Reflects the system's point of view
    - In an endothermic system, q is equal to +x
    - In an exothermic system, *q* is equal to –*x*
    - When a system does work on surroundings, w is negative
    - When the surroundings do work on the system, *w* is positive



#### Endothermic and Exothermic Systems and Energy





Interactive Example 6.1 - Internal Energy

 Calculate ΔE for a system undergoing an endothermic process in which 15.6 kJ of heat flows and where 1.4 kJ of work is done on the system



Interactive Example 6.1 - Solution

We use the following equation:

 $\Delta E = q + w$ 

- q = +15.6 kJ, since the process is endothermic
- w = +1.4 kJ, since work is done on the system

 $\Delta E = 15.6 \text{ kJ} + 1.4 \text{ kJ} = 17.0 \text{ kJ}$ 

Thus, the system has gained 17.0 kJ of energy



Work

- Types of work associated with a chemical process
  - Work done by a gas through expansion
  - Work done to a gas through compression
- Example Motion of a car
  - In an automobile engine, heat from the combustion of gasoline expands the gases in the cylinder to push back the piston, and this results in the motion of the car

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Section 6.1 *The Nature of Energy* 

Deriving the Equation for Work

- Consider a gas confined to a cylindrical container with a movable piston
  - F is the force acting on the piston of area A
  - Pressure is defined as force per unit area

$$P = \frac{F}{A}$$







Deriving the Equation for Work (Continued 1)

• Consider that the piston moves a distance of  $\Delta h$ 

Work = force  $\times$  distance =  $F \times \Delta h$ 

Work = 
$$F \times \Delta h = P \times A \times \Delta h$$

- Volume of the cylinder equals the area of the piston times the height of the cylinder
  - Change in volume ΔV resulting from the piston moving a distance Δh is:

 $\Delta V = \text{final volume} - \text{initial volume} = A \times \Delta h$ 



Deriving the Equation for Work (Continued 2)

Substitute the expression derived for ΔV into the expression for work

Work = 
$$P \times A \times \Delta h = P \Delta V$$

- Since the system is doing work on the surroundings, the sign of work should be negative
  - $\Delta V$  is a positive quantity since volume is increasing
  - Therefore,

$$w = -P\Delta V$$



Deriving the Equation for Work (Continued 3)

- For a gas expanding against an external pressure
   *P*, *w* is a negative quantity as required
  - Work flows out of the system
- When a gas is compressed, ΔV is a negative quantity (the volume decreases)
  - This makes w a positive quantity (work flows into the system)



**Critical Thinking** 

- You are calculating  $\Delta E$  in a chemistry problem
  - What if you confuse the system and the surroundings?
    - How would this affect the magnitude of the answer you calculate? The sign?



Interactive Example 6.2 - PV Work

 Calculate the work associated with the expansion of a gas from 46 L to 64 L at a constant external pressure of 15 atm



Interactive Example 6.2 - Solution

For a gas at constant pressure,

 $w = -P\Delta V$ 

• In this case P = 15 atm and  $\Delta V = 64 - 46 = 18$  L

w = -15 atm  $\times 18$  L = -270 L  $\cdot$  atm

- Note that since the gas expands, it does work on its surroundings
- Reality check Energy flows out of the gas, so w is a negative quantity



Interactive Example 6.3 - Internal Energy, Heat, and Work

- A balloon is being inflated to its full extent by heating the air inside it
  - In the final stages of this process, the volume of the balloon changes from  $4.00 \times 10^6$  L to  $4.50 \times 10^6$  L by the addition of  $1.3 \times 10^8$  J of energy as heat
  - Assuming that the balloon expands against a constant pressure of 1.0 atm, calculate ΔE for the process
    - To convert between L · atm and J, use 1 L · atm = 101.3 J



Interactive Example 6.3 - Solution

- Where are we going?
  - To calculate  $\Delta E$
- What do we know?
  - $V_1 = 4.00 \times 10^6 \, \text{L}$
  - $q = +1.3 \times 10^8 \text{ J}$
  - P = 1.0 atm
  - 1 L · atm = 101.3 J
  - $V_2 = 4.50 \times 10^6 \text{ L}$



Interactive Example 6.3 - Solution (Continued 1)

What do we need?

$$\Delta E = q + w$$

- How do we get there?
  - What is the work done on the gas?

$$w = -P\Delta V$$

• What is  $\Delta V$ ?

 $\Delta V = V_2 - V_1 = 4.50 \times 10^6 \text{ L} - 4.00 \times 10^6 \text{ L} = 5.0 \times 10^5 \text{ L}$ 



Interactive Example 6.3 - Solution (Continued 2)

What is the work?

 $w = -P\Delta V = -1.0 \text{ atm} \times 5.0 \times 10^5 \text{ L} = -5.0 \times 10^5 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm}$ 

- The negative sign makes sense because the gas is expanding and doing work on the surroundings
- To calculate  $\Delta E$ , we must sum q and w
  - However, since q is given in units of J and w is given in units of L · atm, we must change the work to units of joules



Interactive Example 6.3 - Solution (Continued 3)

$$w = -5.0 \times 10^5$$
 L atm  $\times \frac{101.3 \text{ J}}{\text{L}} = -5.1 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$ 

• Then,  

$$\Delta E = q + w = (+1.3 \times 10^8 \text{ J}) + (-5.1 \times 10^7 \text{ J}) = 8 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$$
  
Reality check

- Since more energy is added through heating than the gas expends doing work, there is a net increase in the internal energy of the gas in the balloon
  - Hence  $\Delta E$  is positive



#### Exercise

- A balloon filled with 39.1 moles of helium has a volume of 876 L at 0.0° C and 1.00 atm pressure
  - The temperature of the balloon is increased to 38.0° C as it expands to a volume of 998 L, the pressure remaining constant
  - Calculate q, w, and  $\Delta E$  for the helium in the balloon
    - The molar heat capacity for helium gas is 20.8 J/° C  $\cdot$  mol

#### *q* = 30.9 kJ, *w* = −12.4 kJ, and Δ*E* = 18.5 kJ

Section 6.2 Enthalpy and Calorimetry



Enthalpy (H)

A state function that is defined as:

#### H = E + PV

- E Internal energy of the system
- P Pressure of the system
- V Volume of the system


# Enthalpy and PV Work

- At constant pressure,  $\Delta H = q_P$ 
  - *q<sub>P</sub>* Heat at constant pressure
- For a chemical reaction, the enthalpy change is given by the following equation:

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

- When  $H_{\text{products}} > H_{\text{reactants}}$ ,  $\Delta H$  is positive
  - Heat is absorbed by the system
  - Reaction is endothermic



Enthalpy and PV Work (Continued)

- When  $H_{\text{products}} < H_{\text{reactants}}$ ,  $\Delta H$  is negative
  - Overall decreased in enthalpy is achieved by the generation of heat
  - Reaction is exothermic



Interactive Example 6.4 - Enthalpy

- When 1 mole of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) is burned at constant pressure, 890 kJ of energy is released as heat
  - Calculate ΔH for a process in which a 5.8-g sample of methane is burned at constant pressure



Interactive Example 6.4 - Solution

- Where are we going?
  - To calculate  $\Delta H$
- What do we know?
  - $q_p = \Delta H = -890 \text{ kJ/mol CH}_4$
  - Mass = 5.8 g CH<sub>4</sub>
  - Molar mass CH<sub>4</sub> = 16.04 g



Interactive Example 6.4 - Solution (Continued 1)

- How do we get there?
  - What are the moles of CH<sub>4</sub> burned?

5.8 g CH<sub>4</sub> × 
$$\frac{1 \text{ mol CH}_4}{16.04 \text{ g CH}_4} = 0.36 \text{ mol CH}_4$$

• What is  $\Delta H$ ?

$$\Delta H = 0.36 \text{ mol} \text{CH}_4 \times \frac{-890 \text{ kJ}}{\text{mol} \text{CH}_4} = -320 \text{ kJ}$$



Interactive Example 6.4 - Solution (Continued 2)

Thus, when a 5.8-g sample of CH<sub>4</sub> is burned at constant pressure,

$$\Delta H = \text{heat flow} = -320 \text{ kJ}$$

- Reality check
  - In this case, a 5.8-g sample of CH<sub>4</sub> is burned
    - Since this amount is smaller than 1 mole, less than 890 kJ will be released as heat



Exercise

 The overall reaction in a commercial heat pack can be represented as

$$4\text{Fe}(s) + 3\text{O}_2(g) \rightarrow 2\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3(s) \qquad \Delta H = -1652 \text{ kJ}$$

How much heat is released when 4.00 moles of iron are reacted with excess O<sub>2</sub>?

#### 1650 kJ heat is released



Exercise (Continued)

How much heat is released when 1.00 mole of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is produced?

### 826 kJ of heat is released

How much heat is released when 1.00 g iron is reacted with excess O<sub>2</sub>?

7.39 kJ of heat is released

How much heat is released when 10.0 g Fe and 2.00 g O<sub>2</sub> are reacted?

### 34.4 kJ of heat is released

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Calorimetry

- Science of measuring heat
  - Based on observations of temperature change when a body absorbs or discharges energy in the form of heat
- Calorimeter: Device used to determine the heat associated with a chemical reaction



Heat Capacity (C)

 $C = \frac{\text{heat absorbed}}{\text{increase in temperature}}$ 

- Specific heat capacity: Energy required to raise the temperature of one gram of a substance by one degree Celsius
  - Units J/ °  $C \cdot g \text{ or } J/K \cdot g$



Heat Capacity (C) (Continued)

- Molar heat capacity: Energy required to raise the temperature of one mole of a substance by one degree Celsius
  - Units J/ ° C · mol or J/K · mol
- Heat capacities of metals are different from that of water
  - Takes less energy to change the temperature of a gram of a metal by 1° C than for a gram of water



Figure 6.5 - A Coffee-Cup Calorimeter



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# **Table 6.1** - The Specific Heat Capacities of SomeCommon Substances

Substance	Specific Heat Capacity (J/°C · g)
H <sub>2</sub> O( <i>l</i> )	4.18
$H_2O(s)$	2.03
Al(s)	0.89
Fe(s)	0.45
Hg(/)	0.14
C(s)	0.71

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**Constant-Pressure Calorimetry** 

- Example Coffee-cup calorimeter
  - Atmospheric pressure remains constant during the process
- Used to determine enthalpy changes in reactions that occur in a solution
  - In a solution,  $\Delta H = q_P$



**Constant-Pressure Calorimetry** (Continued 1)

- When two reactants at the same temperature are mixed:
  - An exothermic reaction warms the solution
  - An endothermic reaction cools the solution



Constant-Pressure Calorimetry (Continued 2)

- Calculation of heat for a neutralization reaction
  - Energy (as heat) released by the reaction
    - = Energy (as heat) absorbed by the solution
    - = Specific heat capacity × mass of solution

× change in temperature

 $= s \times m \times \Delta T$ 

- Heat of a reaction is an extensive property
  - Depends entirely on the amount of substance



Interactive Example 6.5 - Constant-Pressure Calorimetry

When 1.00 L of 1.00 M Ba(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> solution at 25.0° C is mixed with 1.00 L of 1.00 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution at 25.0° C in a calorimeter, the white solid BaSO<sub>4</sub> forms, and the temperature of the mixture increases to 28.1° C



Interactive Example 6.5 - Constant-Pressure Calorimetry (Continued)

- Assume that:
  - The calorimeter absorbs only a negligible quantity of heat
  - The specific heat capacity of the solution is 4.18 J/  $^{\circ}$  C  $\cdot$  g
  - The density of the final solution is 1.0 g/mL
- Calculate the enthalpy change per mole of BaSO<sub>4</sub> formed



Interactive Example 6.5 - Solution

- Where are we going?
  - To calculate  $\Delta H$  per mole of BaSO<sub>4</sub> formed
- What do we know?
  - 1.00 L of 1.00 M Ba(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>
  - 1.00 L of 1.00 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>
  - $T_{\text{initial}} = 25.0^{\circ}$  C and  $T_{\text{final}} = 28.1^{\circ}$  C
  - Heat capacity of solution = 4.18 J/  $^{\circ}$  C  $\cdot$  g
  - Density of final solution = 1.0 g/mL



Interactive Example 6.5 - Solution (Continued 1)

- What do we need?
  - Net ionic equation for the reaction
    - The ions present before any reaction occurs are Ba<sup>2+</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>
    - The Na<sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ions are spectator ions, since NaNO<sub>3</sub> is very soluble in water and will not precipitate under these conditions
    - The net ionic equation for the reaction is:

$$\operatorname{Ba}^{2+}(aq) + \operatorname{SO}_{4}^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow \operatorname{BaSO}_{4}(s)$$



Interactive Example 6.5 - Solution (Continued 2)

- How do we get there?
  - What is  $\Delta H$ ?
    - Since the temperature increases, formation of solid BaSO<sub>4</sub> must be exothermic
    - ∆H is negative
    - Heat evolved by the reaction
      - = heat absorbed by the solution

= specific heat capacity × mass of solution × increase in temperature



Interactive Example 6.5 - Solution (Continued 3)

What is the mass of the final solution?

Mass of solution = 2.00 
$$\not\!L \times \frac{1000 \text{ mL}}{1 \not\!L} \times \frac{1.0 \text{ g}}{1 \not\!R} = 2.0 \times 10^3 \text{ g}$$

What is the temperature increase?

$$\Delta T = T_{\text{final}} - T_{\text{initial}} = 28.1^{\circ}\text{C} - 25.0^{\circ}\text{C} = 3.1^{\circ}\text{C}$$

How much heat is evolved by the reaction?

Heat evolved =  $(4.18 \text{ J/}^{\circ}\text{C} \cdot \text{g})(2.0 \times 10^{3} \text{g})(3.1 \circ \text{C}) = 2.6 \times 10^{4} \text{ J}$ 



Interactive Example 6.5 - Solution (Continued 4)

Thus,

$$q = q_P = \Delta H = -2.6 \times 10^4 \text{ J}$$

- What is  $\Delta H$  per mole of BaSO<sub>4</sub> formed?
  - Since 1.0 L of 1.0 M Ba(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> contains 1 mole of Ba<sup>2+</sup> ions and 1.0 L of 1.0 M Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> contains 1.0 mole of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> ions, 1.0 mole of solid BaSO<sub>4</sub> is formed in this experiment
  - Thus the enthalpy change per mole of BaSO<sub>4</sub> formed is

$$\Delta H = -2.6 \times 10^4 \text{ J/mol} = -26 \text{ kJ/mol}$$



**Constant-Volume Calorimetry** 

- Used in conditions when experiments are to be performed under constant volume
  - No work is done since V must change for PV work to be performed
- Bomb calorimeter
  - Weighed reactants are placed within a rigid steel container and ignited
  - Change in energy is determined by the increase in temperature of the water and other parts

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## Figure 6.6 - A Bomb Calorimeter



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Constant-Volume Calorimetry (Continued)

- For a constant-volume process,  $\Delta V = 0$ 
  - Therefore,  $w = -P\Delta V = 0$

$$\Delta E = q + w = q = q_V$$
 (constant volume)

Energy released by the reaction

= temperature increase × energy required to change the temperature by 1°C

=  $\Delta T \times$  heat capacity of the calorimeter



Example 6.6 - Constant-Volume Calorimetry

- It has been suggested that hydrogen gas obtained by the decomposition of water might be a substitute for natural gas (principally methane)
  - To compare the energies of combustion of these fuels, the following experiment was carried out using a bomb calorimeter with a heat capacity of 11.3 kJ/° C



Example 6.6 - Constant-Volume Calorimetry (Continued)

- When a 1.50-g sample of methane gas was burned with excess oxygen in the calorimeter, the temperature increased by 7.3°C
- When a 1.15-g sample of hydrogen gas was burned with excess oxygen, the temperature increase was 14.3°C
  - Compare the energies of combustion (per gram) for hydrogen and methane



Example 6.6 - Solution

- Where are we going?
  - To calculate  $\Delta H$  of combustion per gram for H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>
- What do we know?
  - 1.50 g  $CH_4 \rightarrow \Delta T = 7.3^{\circ}$  C
  - 1.15 g H<sub>2</sub>  $\rightarrow \Delta T = 14.3^{\circ}$  C
  - Heat capacity of calorimeter = 11.3 kJ/° C



Example 6.6 - Solution (Continued 1)

- What do we need?
  - $\Delta E = \Delta T \times$  heat capacity of calorimeter
- How do we get there?
  - What is the energy released for each combustion?
    - For CH<sub>4</sub>, we calculate the energy of combustion for methane using the heat capacity of the calorimeter (11.3 kJ/° C) and the observed temperature increase of 7.3° C

Energy released in the combustion of 1.5 g CH<sub>4</sub> =  $(11.3 \text{ kJ/}^{\circ}\text{C})(7.3^{\circ}\text{C})$ = 83 kJ



Example 6.6 - Solution (Continued 2)

Energy released in the combustion of 1 g CH<sub>4</sub> =  $\frac{83 \text{ kJ}}{1.5 \text{ g}}$  = 55 kJ/g

For H<sub>2</sub>,

Energy released in the combustion of 1.15 g  $H_2 = (11.3 \text{ kJ/°C})(14.3^{\circ}\text{C})$ = 162 kJ

Energy released in the combustion of 1 g H<sub>2</sub> =  $\frac{162 \text{ kJ}}{1.15 \text{ g}}$  = 141 kJ/g

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Example 6.6 - Solution (Continued 3)

- How do the energies of combustion compare?
  - The energy released in the combustion of 1 g hydrogen is approximately 2.5 times that for 1 g methane, indicating that hydrogen gas is a potentially useful fuel

Section 6.3 *Hess's Law* 



Hess's Law

 In going from a particular set of reactants to a particular set of products, the change in enthalpy is the same whether the reaction takes place in one step or in a series of steps



**Characteristics of Enthalpy Changes** 

- If a reaction is reversed, the sign of ΔH is also reversed
- Magnitude of ΔH is directly proportional to the quantities of reactants and products in a reaction
  - If the coefficients in a balanced reaction are multiplied by an integer, the value of ΔH is multiplied by the same integer

Section 6.3 *Hess's Law* 



# **Critical Thinking**

- What if Hess's law were not true?
  - What are some possible repercussions this would have?



## Problem-Solving Strategy - Hess's Law

- Work backward from the required reaction
  - Use the reactants and products to decide how to manipulate the other given reactions at your disposal
- Reverse any reactions as needed to give the required reactants and products
- Multiply reactions to give the correct numbers of reactants and products


Interactive Example 6.8 - Hess's Law II

- Diborane (B<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>) is a highly reactive boron hydride that was once considered as a possible rocket fuel for the U.S. space program
  - Calculate ΔH for the synthesis of diborane from its elements, according to the following equation:

$$2\mathrm{B}(s) + 3\mathrm{H}_{2}(g) \rightarrow \mathrm{B}_{2}\mathrm{H}_{6}(g)$$

Section 6.3 *Hess's Law* 



Interactive Example 6.8 - Hess's Law II (Continued)

Use the following data:
 Reaction ΔH

a. 
$$2B(s) + \frac{3}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow B_2O_3(s)$$
 -1273 kJ

b. 
$$B_2H_6(g) + 3O_2(g) \rightarrow B_2O_3(s) + 3H_2O(g)$$
 -2035 kJ

C. 
$$H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g) \to H_2O(l)$$
 -286 kJ

d.  $H_2O(l) \rightarrow H_2O(g)$  44 kJ



Interactive Example 6.8 - Solution

- To obtain ΔH for the required reaction, we must somehow combine equations (a), (b), (c), and (d) to produce that reaction and add the corresponding ΔH values
  - This can best be done by focusing on the reactants and products of the required reaction
    - The reactants are B(s) and  $H_2(g)$ , and the product is  $B_2H_6(g)$



Interactive Example 6.8 - Solution (Continued 1)

- How can we obtain the correct equation?
  - Reaction (a) has B(s) as a reactant, as needed in the required equation
    - Reaction (a) will be used as it is
  - Reaction (b) has B<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>(g) as a reactant, but this substance is needed as a product
    - Reaction (b) must be reversed, and the sign of ΔH must be changed accordingly

Section 6.3 *Hess's Law* 



Interactive Example 6.8 - Solution (Continued 2)

• Up to this point we have:

(a) 
$$2B(s) + \frac{3}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow B_2O_3(s)$$
  $\Delta H = -1273 \text{ kJ}$   
-(b)  $B_2O_3(s) + 3H_2O(g) \rightarrow B_2H_6(g) + 3O_2(g)$   $\Delta H = -(-2035 \text{ kJ})$ 

Sum: 
$$B_2O_3(s) + 2B(s) + \frac{3}{2}O_2(g) + 3H_2O(g) \rightarrow$$
  
 $B_2O_3(s) + B_2H_6(g) + 3O_2(g) \qquad \Delta H = 762 \text{ kJ}$ 

• Deleting the species that occur on both sides gives:  $2B(s) + 3H_2O(g) \rightarrow B_2H_6(g) + \frac{3}{2}O_2(g) \quad \Delta H = 762 \text{ kJ}$ 



Interactive Example 6.8 - Solution (Continued 3)

- We are closer to the required reaction, but we still need to remove H<sub>2</sub>O(g) and O<sub>2</sub>(g) and introduce H<sub>2</sub>(g) as a reactant
  - We can do this using reactions (c) and (d)
  - Multiply reaction (c) and its ΔH value by 3 and add the result to the preceding equation

Section 6.3 *Hess's Law* 



Interactive Example 6.8 - Solution (Continued 4)

$$2B(s) + 3H_{2}O(g) \rightarrow B_{2}H_{6}(g) + \frac{3}{2}O_{2}(g) \qquad \Delta H = 762 \text{ kJ}$$

$$3 \times (c) \quad 3\left[H_{2}(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_{2}(g) \rightarrow H_{2}O(l)\right] \qquad \Delta H = 3(-286 \text{ kJ})$$
Sum: 
$$2B(s) + 3H_{2}(g) + \frac{3}{2}O_{2}(g) + 3H_{2}O(g) \rightarrow$$

$$B_{2}H_{6}(g) + \frac{3}{2}O_{2}(g) + 3H_{2}O(l) \quad \Delta H = -96 \text{ kJ}$$



Interactive Example 6.8 - Solution (Continued 5)

- We can cancel the 3/2 O<sub>2</sub>(g) on both sides, but we cannot cancel the H<sub>2</sub>O because it is gaseous on one side and liquid on the other
  - This can be solved by adding reaction (d), multiplied by 3:

$$2B(s) + 3H_2(g) + 3H_2O(g) \rightarrow B_2H_6(g) + 3H_2O(l) \quad \Delta H = -96 \text{ kJ}$$
  
$$3 \times (d) \quad 3[H_2O(l) \rightarrow H_2O(g)] \qquad \Delta H = 3(44 \text{ kJ})$$

 $2B(s) + 3H_2(g) + 3H_2O(g) + 3H_2O(l) \rightarrow$  $B_2H_6(g) + 3H_2O(l) + 3H_2O(g) \qquad \Delta H = +36 \text{ kJ}$ 

Section 6.3 *Hess's Law* 



Interactive Example 6.8 - Solution (Continued 6)

This gives the reaction required by the problem

 $2B(s) + 3H_2(g) \rightarrow B_2H_6(g) \qquad \Delta H = +36 \text{ kJ}$ 

## Conclusion

 ΔH for the synthesis of 1 mole of diborane from the elements is +36 kJ



Standard Enthalpy of Formation ( $\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ )

- Change in enthalpy that accompanies the formation of one mole of a compound from its elements with all substances in their standard states
  - Standard state: Precisely defined reference state
  - A degree symbol on a thermodynamic function indicates that the corresponding process that is carried out under standard conditions

Conventional Definitions of Standard States for a Compound

- Standard state for a gaseous substance is a pressure of exactly 1 atm
- For a pure substance in a condensed state (liquid or solid), the standard state is the pure liquid or solid
- For a substance in solution, the standard state is a concentration of exactly 1 M



Conventional Definitions of Standard States for an Element

- Standard state of an element is the form in which that element exists under conditions of 1 atm and 25°C
  - Examples
    - Standard state for oxygen is O<sub>2</sub>(g)
    - Standard state of sodium is Na(s)
    - Standard state of mercury is Hg(/)



Table 6.2 - Standard Enthalpies of Formation forSeveral Compounds at 25° C

Compound	$\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ (kJ/mol)
NH₃( <i>g</i> )	-46
$NO_2(g)$	34
H <sub>2</sub> O( <i>I</i> )	-286
$AI_2O_3(s)$	-1676
$Fe_2O_3(s)$	-826
$CO_2(g)$	-394
CH₃OH( <i>I</i> )	-239
C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>18</sub> ( <i>I</i> )	-269



Problem-Solving Strategy - Enthalpy Calculations

- When a reaction is reversed, the magnitude of ΔH remains the same, but its sign changes
- When the balanced equation for a reaction is multiplied by an integer, the value of ΔH for that reaction must be multiplied by the same integer



Problem-Solving Strategy - Enthalpy Calculations (Continued)

 Change in enthalpy for a given reaction can be calculated from the enthalpies of formation of the reactants and products:

$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{reaction}} = \sum n_{\text{p}} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} (\text{products}) - \sum n_{\text{r}} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} (\text{reactants})$$

- Elements in their standard states are not included in the  $\Delta H_{\text{reaction}}$  calculations
  - $\Delta H_{\rm f}^{\circ}$  for an element in its standard state is zero



Interactive Example 6.10 - Enthalpies from Standard Enthalpies of Formation II

 Using enthalpies of formation, calculate the standard change in enthalpy for the thermite reaction:

$$2\mathrm{Al}(s) + \mathrm{Fe}_{2}\mathrm{O}_{3}(s) \rightarrow \mathrm{Al}_{2}\mathrm{O}_{3}(s) + 2\mathrm{Fe}(s)$$

 This reaction occurs when a mixture of powdered aluminum and iron(III) oxide is ignited with a magnesium fuse

Interactive Example 6.10 - Solution

- Where are we going?
  - To calculate  $\Delta H$  for the reaction
- What do we know?
  - $\Delta H_{f}^{\circ}$  for Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>(s) = -826 kJ/mol
  - $\Delta H_{f}^{\circ}$  for  $Al_2O_3(s) = -1676 \text{ kJ/mol}$
  - $\Delta H_{f}^{\circ}$  for Al(s) =  $\Delta H_{f}^{\circ}$  for Fe(s) = 0

Interactive Example 6.10 - Solution (Continued 1)

- What do we need?
  - We use the following equation:

$$\Delta H^{\circ} = \sum n_{\rm p} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\rm f} \left( \text{products} \right) - \sum n_{\rm r} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\rm f} \left( \text{reactants} \right)$$

How do we get there?

$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{reaction}} = \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{Al}_2 \text{O}_3(s) - \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{Fe}_2 \text{O}_3(s)$$
$$= -1676 \text{ kJ} - (-826 \text{ kJ}) = -850 \text{ kJ}$$



Interactive Example 6.10 - Solution (Continued 2)

- This reaction is so highly exothermic that the iron produced is initially molten
  - Used as a lecture demonstration
  - Used in welding massive steel objects such as ships' propellers



**Critical Thinking** 

- For  $\Delta H_{\text{reaction}}$  calculations, we define  $\Delta H_{\text{f}}^{\circ}$  for an element in its standard state as zero
  - What if we define  $\Delta H_f^{\circ}$  for an element in its standard state as 10 kJ/mol?
    - How would this affect your determination of  $\Delta H_{\text{reaction}}$ ?
    - Provide support for your answer with a sample calculation



Example 6.11 - Enthalpies from Standard Enthalpies of Formation III

- Until recently, methanol (CH<sub>3</sub>OH) was used as a fuel in high-performance engines in race cars
  - Using data from the table containing standard enthalpies of formation for several compounds at 25°C, compare the standard enthalpy of combustion per gram of methanol with that per gram of gasoline
  - Gasoline is actually a mixture of compounds, but assume for this problem that gasoline is pure liquid octane ( $C_8H_{18}$ )



Example 6.11 - Solution

- Where are we going?
  - To compare ΔH of combustion for methanol and octane
- What do we know?
  - Standard enthalpies of formation from Table 6.2



Example 6.11 - Solution (Continued 1)

- How do we get there? (For methanol)
  - What is the combustion reaction?

 $2\mathrm{CH}_{3}\mathrm{OH}(l) + 3\mathrm{O}_{2}(g) \rightarrow 2\mathrm{CO}_{2}(g) + 4\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}(l)$ 

- What is the  $\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{reaction}}$ ?
  - Use the standard enthalpies of formation from Table 6.2 and the following equation:

$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{reaction}} = \sum n_{\text{p}} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} (\text{products}) - \sum n_{\text{r}} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} (\text{reactants})$$



Example 6.11 - Solution (Continued 2)

$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{reaction}} = 2 \times \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{CO}_{2}(g) + 4 \times \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{H}_{2}\text{O}(l)$$
$$-2 \times \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{CH}_{3}\text{OH}(l)$$
$$= 2 \times (-394 \text{ kJ}) + 4 \times (-286 \text{ kJ}) - 2 \times (-239 \text{ kJ})$$
$$= -1.45 \times 10^{3} \text{ kJ}$$



Example 6.11 - Solution (Continued 3)

- What is the enthalpy of combustion per gram?
  - 1.45 × 10<sup>3</sup> kJ of heat is evolved when 2 moles of methanol burn
  - The molar mass of methanol is 32.04 g/mol, which means that 1.45 × 10<sup>3</sup> kJ of energy is produced when 64.08 g methanol burns
  - The enthalpy of combustion per gram of methanol is:

$$\frac{-1.45 \times 10^3 \text{ kJ}}{64.08 \text{ g}} = -22.6 \text{ kJ/g}$$



Example 6.11 - Solution (Continued 4)

- How do we get there? (For octane)
  - What is the combustion reaction?

$$2C_8H_{18}(l) + 25O_2(g) \rightarrow 16CO_2(g) + 18H_2O(l)$$

- What is the  $\Delta H^{\circ}_{reaction}$ ?
  - Use the standard enthalpies of formation from Table 6.2 and the following equation:

$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{reaction}} = \sum n_{\text{p}} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} (\text{products}) - \sum n_{\text{r}} \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} (\text{reactants})$$



Example 6.11 - Solution (Continued 5)

$$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{reaction}} = 16 \times \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{CO}_{2}(g) + 18 \times \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{H}_{2}\text{O}(l)$$
$$-2 \times \Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{f}} \text{ for } \text{C}_{8}\text{H}_{18}(l)$$
$$= 16 \times (-394 \text{ kJ}) + 18 \times (-286 \text{ kJ}) - 2 \times (-269 \text{ kJ})$$
$$= -1.09 \times 10^{4} \text{ kJ}$$



Example 6.11 - Solution (Continued 6)

- What is the enthalpy of combustion per gram?
  - This is the amount of heat evolved when 2 moles of octane burn
  - Since the molar mass of octane is 114.22 g/mol, the enthalpy of combustion per gram of octane is

$$\frac{-1.09 \times 10^4 \text{ kJ}}{2(114.22 \text{ g})} = -47.7 \text{ kJ/g}$$



Example 6.11 - Solution (Continued 7)

- The enthalpy of combustion per gram of octane is approximately twice that per gram of methanol
  - Gasoline appears to be superior to methanol for use in a racing car, where weight considerations are usually very important
  - Methanol is used in racing cars since it burns much more smoothly than gasoline in high-performance engines
    - This advantage compensates for its weight disadvantage



## Figure 6.11 - Energy Sources Used in the United States



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Petroleum and Natural Gas

- Remains of marine organisms that lived approximately 500 million years ago
  - Petroleum: Thick, dark liquid that is mainly composed of hydrocarbons
  - Natural gas
    - Mostly consists of methane but also contains significant amounts of ethane, propane, and butane



## Table 6.3 - Names and Formulas for Some CommonHydrocarbons

Formula	Name
CH <sub>4</sub>	Methane
$C_2H_6$	Ethane
C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub>	Propane
$C_4H_{10}$	Butane
$C_{5}H_{12}$	Pentane
$C_6H_{14}$	Hexane
$C_7H_{16}$	Heptane
C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>18</sub>	Octane



Natural Gas Reserves

- Exist in shale deposits
  - Shale is impermeable, and the gas does not flow out on its own
- Hydraulic fracturing or fracking is used to access shale deposits
  - Involves the injection of a slurry of water, sand, and chemical additives under pressure through a well bore
  - Poses environmental concerns



Petroleum

- Mainly consists of hydrocarbons that have chains containing 5 to more than 25 carbons
- For efficient use, petroleum must be separated into fractions by boiling
  - Lighter molecules will boil away, and the heavier molecules will be left behind



## Table 6.4 - Uses of the Various Petroleum Fractions

Petroleum Fraction in Terms of Numbers of Carbon Atoms	Major Uses
C <sub>5</sub> -C <sub>10</sub>	Gasoline
C <sub>10</sub> -C <sub>18</sub>	Kerosene
	Jet fuel
C <sub>15</sub> -C <sub>25</sub>	Diesel fuel
	Heating oil
	Lubricating oil
>C <sub>25</sub>	Asphalt



The Petroleum Era

- Industrial Revolution
  - Demand for lamp oil outstripped the traditional sources
  - Edwin Drake drilled the first oil well in 1859 at Titusville, Pennsylvania
    - Used the petroleum to produce kerosene


The Petroleum Era (Continued)

- Gasoline age Marked by the decreased need for kerosene due to the invention of electric lights and the advent of cars
  - William Burton invented pyrolytic cracking
    - Pyrolytic (high-temperature) cracking Process used to separate gasoline from petroleum
  - Tetraethyl lead was added to gasoline to promote smoother burning
    - Use of lead has been phased out due to environmental concerns

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# Coal

- Formed from the remains of buried plants that were subject to high pressure and heat over a long period of time
  - Plants contain cellulose (empirical formula CH<sub>2</sub>O), a complex molecule with high molar mass (500,000 g/mol)
    - After the plants die, chemical changes decrease the oxygen and hydrogen content of cellulose molecules



Coal (Continued)

- Stages of coal maturation
  - Lignite, subbituminous, bituminous, and anthracite
- Each stage has a higher carbon-to-oxygen and carbon-to-hydrogen ratio
  - Composition varies depending on the age and location
  - Available energy from combustion increases as the carbon content of a given mass of coal increases



# **Table 6.5** - Elemental Composition of Various Types ofCoal

	Mass Percent of Each Element				
Type of Coal	С	н	0	N	S
Lignite Subbituminous Bituminous Anthracite	71 77 80 92	4 5 6 3	23 16 8 3	1 1 1 1	1 1 5 1

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Coal as a Fuel - Disadvantages

- Expensive
- Dangerous to mine underground
- Burning high-sulfur coal leads to air pollution
  - Contributes to acid rain
- Carbon dioxide is produced when coal is burned
  - Significantly affects the earth's climate



The Greenhouse Effect

- The earth's atmosphere is transparent to visible light from the sun
  - Does not permit all infrared radiation to pass back into space
    - Molecules such as H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> strongly absorb this radiation and radiate it back to the earth
    - Earth becomes warmer due to the amount of thermal energy retained by the atmosphere



### **Figure 6.12** - Schematic of the Greenhouse Effect



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The Earth's Surface

- Temperature is controlled by water content of the atmosphere and greenhouse gases
  - The atmosphere's water content is controlled by the water cycle
- Extensive usage of fossil fuels has increased carbon dioxide concentration in the atmosphere
  - Increases the earth's average temperature
    - Causes dramatic climate changes and affects agriculture



## **Potential Energy Sources**



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#### Figure 6.14 - Coal Gasification



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**Reactions in Coal Gasification** 

# Exothermic reactions

$$C(s) + 2H_{2}(g) \rightarrow CH_{4}(g) \qquad \Delta H^{\circ} = -75 \text{ kJ}$$
$$C(s) + \frac{1}{2}O_{2}(g) \rightarrow CO(g) \qquad \Delta H^{\circ} = -111 \text{ kJ}$$
$$C(s) + O_{2}(g) \rightarrow CO_{2}(g) \qquad \Delta H^{\circ} = -394 \text{ kJ}$$

Endothermic reaction

 $C(s) + H_2O(g) \rightarrow H_2(g) + CO(g) \quad \Delta H^\circ = 131 \text{ kJ}$ 



# Syngas (Synthesis Gas)

- Mixture of carbon monoxide and hydrogen
- Uses
  - Can be used directly as fuel
  - Essential raw material in the production of other fuels
    - Syngas can be directly converted to methanol

 $\operatorname{CO}(g) + 2\operatorname{H}_2(g) \rightarrow \operatorname{CH}_3\operatorname{OH}(l)$ 



Formation of Coal Slurry

- Suspension of fine particles in a liquid
- Contains a mixture of pulverized coal and water
- Slurry can be handled, stored, and burned in a manner similar to that used for residual oil



Hydrogen as a Fuel

 Combustion reaction that demonstrates hydrogen's potential as a fuel:

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

 Since the reaction's product is water, hydrogen has an advantage over fossil fuels



Hydrogen as a Fuel - Major Problem

- Cost of production
  - Main source of hydrogen gas is from the treatment of natural gas with steam
    - The reaction is highly endothermic  $CH_4(g) + H_2O(g) \rightarrow 3H_2(g) + CO(g)$
  - Most methods for producing hydrogen require tremendous amounts of energy, which is not economically feasible



Alternate Sources of Hydrogen

- Electrolysis of water
  - Involves passing current through water
  - Not economically feasible due to the current cost of electricity
- Corn
  - Starch is fermented to produce alcohol that is decomposed in a reactor at 140° C with a rhodium and cerium oxide catalyst to give hydrogen



Alternate Sources of Hydrogen (Continued)

- Thermal decomposition
  - Involves heating water to several thousand degrees where it decomposes into hydrogen and oxygen
  - Expensive to attain high temperatures required for this process
- Thermochemical decomposition
  - Chemical reactions and heat are used to split water into its components



Hydrogen as a Fuel - Problems

- Storage and transportation
  - Hydrogen decomposes to atoms on metal surfaces, which may pose a potential leakage threat
    - Atoms may migrate into the metal and cause structural changes that make the metal brittle
    - Could cause harm to the atmosphere by raising atmospheric hydrogen levels
- Relatively small amount of energy is available per unit volume of hydrogen



Example 6.12 - Enthalpies of Combustion

 Compare the energy available from the combustion of a given volume of methane and the same volume of hydrogen at the same temperature and pressure



## Example 6.12 - Solution

- We know that the heat released for the combustion of methane is 55 kJ/g CH<sub>4</sub> and for and hydrogen is 141 kJ/g H<sub>2</sub>
- We also know from our study of gases that 1 mole of H<sub>2</sub>(g) has the same volume as 1 mole of CH<sub>4</sub>(g) at the same temperature and pressure (assuming ideal behavior)



Example 6.12 - Solution (Continued 1)

 For molar volumes of both gases under the same conditions of temperature and pressure,

Enthalpy of combustion of 1 molar volume of  $H_2(g)$ Enthalpy of combustion of 1 molar volume of  $CH_4(g)$ 

 $= \frac{\text{enthalpy of combustion per mole of H}_2}{\text{enthalpy of combustion per mole of CH}_4}$  $= \frac{\left(-141 \text{ kJ/g}\right)\left(2.02 \text{ g/H}_2/\text{mol} \text{ H}_2\right)}{\left(-55 \text{ kJ/g}\right)\left(16.04 \text{ g/CH}_4/\text{mol} \text{ CH}_4\right)} = \frac{-285}{-882} \approx \frac{1}{3}$ 



Example 6.12 - Solution (Continued 2)

 About three times the volume of hydrogen gas is needed to furnish the same energy as a given volume of methane



Interactive Example 6.13 - Comparing Enthalpies of Combustion

- Assuming that the combustion of hydrogen gas provides three times as much energy per gram as gasoline, calculate the volume of liquid H<sub>2</sub> (density = 0.0710 g/mL) required to furnish the energy contained in 80.0 L (about 20 gal) of gasoline (density = 0.740 g/mL)
  - Calculate also the volume that this hydrogen would occupy as a gas at 1.00 atm and 25° C



Interactive Example 6.13 - Solution

- Where are we going?
  - To calculate the volume of H<sub>2</sub>(/) required and its volume as a gas at the given conditions
- What do we know?
  - Density for H<sub>2</sub>(/) = 0.0710 g/mL
  - 80.0 L gasoline
  - Density for gasoline = 0.740 g/mL
  - $H_2(g) \Rightarrow P = 1.00 \text{ atm}, T = 25^{\circ} \text{ C} = 298 \text{ K}$



Interactive Example 6.13 - Solution (Continued 1)

- How do we get there?
  - What is the mass of gasoline?

$$80.0 \not L \times \frac{1000 \text{ mL}}{1 \not L} \times \frac{0.740 \text{ g}}{\text{mL}} = 59,200 \text{ g}$$

- How much H<sub>2</sub>(/) is needed?
  - Since H<sub>2</sub> furnishes three times as much energy per gram as gasoline, only a third as much liquid hydrogen is needed to furnish the same energy



Interactive Example 6.13 - Solution (Continued 2)

Mass of 
$$H_2(l)$$
 needed =  $\frac{59,200 \text{ g}}{3} = 19,700 \text{ g}$ 

Since density = mass/volume, then volume = mass/density, and the volume of H<sub>2</sub>(/) needed is

$$V = \frac{19,700 \text{ g}}{0.0710 \text{ g}/\text{mL}} = 2.77 \times 10^5 \text{ mL} = 277 \text{ L}$$

Thus, 277 L of liquid H<sub>2</sub> is needed to furnish the same energy of combustion as 80.0 L of gasoline

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Interactive Example 6.13 - Solution (Continued 3)

- What is the volume of the H<sub>2</sub>(g)?
  - To calculate the volume that this hydrogen would occupy as a gas at 1.00 atm and 25° C, we use the ideal gas law:

$$PV = nRT$$

In this case:

P = 1.00 atm  $T = 273 + 25^{\circ} \text{ C} = 298 \text{ K}$  $R = 0.08206 \text{ L} \cdot \text{ atm/K} \cdot \text{mol}$ 



Interactive Example 6.13 - Solution (Continued 4)

• What are the moles of  $H_2(g)$ ?  $n = 19,700 \text{ g.H}_2 \times \frac{1 \mod H_2}{2.016 \text{ g.H}_2} = 9.77 \times 10^3 \mod H_2$ 

Thus,

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} = \frac{(9.77 \times 10^{3} \text{ mol})(0.08206 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm} / \text{K} \cdot \text{mol})(298 \text{ K})}{1.00 \text{ atm}}$$
$$= 2.39 \times 10^{5} \text{ L} = 239,000 \text{ L}$$

At 1 atm and 25° C, the hydrogen gas needed to replace 20 gal of gasoline occupies a volume of 239,000 L

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# **Other Energy Alternatives**

- Oil shale deposits
  - Consist of a complex carbon-based material called kerogen
  - Difficult to extract
- Ethanol and methanol
  - Produced through fermentation
  - Alternative fuel for car engines



Other Energy Alternatives (Continued)

- Seed oil
  - Oil seeds are processed to produce an oil that is mainly composed of carbon and hydrogen
    - This oil would react with oxygen to produce carbon dioxide, water, and heat
  - Advantage Renewability