## CHEMISTRY 111 LECTURE

## EXAM I Material

## Part 1 GASES:

## I. Properties of gases

## II. Measurements-Review

A. $\underline{\text { Pressure }}=\frac{\text { force }}{\text { Unit area }}$

1. Conversions:

- 1 atm $=760 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{Hg}=760$ torr (exactly)
$1.013 \times 10^{5} \mathrm{~Pa}=1 \mathrm{~atm}=14.68 \mathrm{psi}$

2. Barometer
3. Manometer
B. Temperature - Kelvin
$K={ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}+273$
C. Volume
4. The volume of a gas is the volume of the container it occupies.
5. Units: liters or milliliters
III. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$, VOLUME, AND PRESSURE.-Review
A. Boyle's law P \& V

As the pressure increases the volume decreases in the same proportion.
B Charles's law ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{T}$ \& $V$
As the temperature (Kelvin) is increased the volume is increased proportionally.

## C Gay-Lussac's Law

When temperature ( $K$ ) increases pressure increases proportionally.

D Avogadro's Law: Volume and Amount (in moles, n)
When the amount (moles, $n$ ) increases volumne increases proportionally.
E. COMBINATION OF THE GAS LAWS-Review:
$\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{V}$, and ${ }^{\mathrm{O}} \mathrm{T}$ varying. Assume that the mass is constant.
Prob: A certain mass of gas occupies 5.50 L at $34^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 655 mm Hg .
What will its volume in liters be if it is cooled to $10.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and its pressure remains the same?

## E. GAY-LUSSAC'S LAW OF COMBINING VOLUMES-Review:

At the same ${ }^{\mathrm{O}} \mathrm{T}$ and Pressure, the volumes of gases that combine in a chemical reaction are in the ratio of small whole numbers.

## F. IDEAL GAS EQUATION-Review:

Derivation:
know: $P V=n R T \quad$ where: $n=$ moles of gas

$$
\mathrm{R}=\frac{0.0821 \mathrm{~L}-\mathrm{atm}}{\mathrm{~mole}-\mathrm{K}}
$$

1. What volume in liters will be occupied by 6.00 mol carbon dioxide gas at 105 mm Hg and $28^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ?

G MOLAR VOLUME at Standard Temperature and Pressure-Review:
At the same temperature and pressure the same number of moles of different gases have the same volume. The Molar Volume is the volume of one mole of any gas at a given ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{T}$ \& P . [STP]
Standard Temperature and Pressure = [STP]:
22.4 L

1 mole of gas At: 273 K and 1 atm (760 torr)

The density of an unknown gas is $1.43 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{L}$ at $0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 760 torr. What is the molar mass of the unknown gas?

## WHEN TO USE:

1. $P V=n R T$
2. $\frac{22.4 \mathrm{~L}}{\text { mole }}$ at STP
3. $\frac{\mathrm{P}_{1} \mathrm{~V}_{1}}{\mathrm{~T}_{1}}=\frac{\mathrm{P}_{2} \mathrm{~V}_{2}}{\mathrm{~T}_{2}}$
4. $P_{\text {Total }}=P_{1}+P_{2}+P_{3}+\ldots \ldots$.
5. $X_{1}=\frac{n_{1}}{n_{\text {Total }}}=\frac{P_{1}}{P_{\text {Total }}}$
H. MIXTURES OF GASES AND PARTIAL PRESSURES (DALTON'S LAW OF PARTIAL PRESSURES) a mixture of gases is equal to the sum of the partial pressures exerted by each gas.
$P_{\text {total }}=P_{1}+P_{2}+P_{3}+\ldots$.

## Collecting Gases over Water



Example: The total pressure in a 1.00 liter container is 725 mm Hg . The container contains water vapor and nitrogen gas.
If the partial pressure of the water vapor is 225 mm Hg , what is the partial pressure of the nitrogen gas.

$$
P_{\text {total }}=P_{\mathrm{N}_{2}}+P_{\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}}
$$

1. MOLE FRACTIONS; Mixtures of gases

The mole fraction of a component is the fraction of moles of that component of the total moles of the gas mixture.

IV GASES IN CHEMICAL REACTIONS: STOICHIOMETRY--Review:
Certain chemical reactions involve gas as a reactant or product. For these types of reactions, the stoichiometric calculations involve the use of:

1) $P V=n R T$
2) $22.4 \frac{\mathrm{~L}}{\mathrm{~mole}}$ at STP
3) Molar volumes

The general stoichiometric scheme


Problems:

1. How many liters of ammonia gas can be produced by the reaction of 735 ml hydrogen gas with an excess nitrogen gas at $425^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 135 atm ?

Nitrogen + hydrogen --> ammonia Ans. $=0.490 \mathrm{~L}$
2. How many liters of carbon dioxide gas at $0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 1 atm are produced by the complete combustion of 60.0 mol of liquid glucose, $\mathrm{C}_{6} \mathrm{H}_{12} \mathrm{O}_{6}$ ?
Ans. $=9.10 \times 10^{3} \mathrm{CO}_{2}$
3. How many liters of the air pollutant $\mathrm{NO}(\mathrm{g})$ could be produced at $985^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and a pressure of 30.0 atm by the reaction of oxygen gas with 455 g of nitrogen gas.
Ans. $=112$ L NO

## V GAS PROBLEMS--Review:

1. A 655 ml gas cylinder filled with oxygen gas at a pressure of 95 atm and at $26.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ was used by a scuba diver. The pressure after it was used was 85 atm . How many moles of oxygen gas were used by the diver?
Ans $=0.2 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{O}_{2}$
2. A flask contained 1.017 mol of carbon dioxide. The gas exerted a pressure of 925 mm Hg at a temperature of $28^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. When an additional 0.250 mole of Carbon dioxide was added to the flask the temperature increased to $35^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. What is the new pressure in the flask?
Ans. $=1.56 \mathrm{~atm} \mathrm{CO} 2$
3. A sample of an unknown gaseous hydrocarbon had a density of $1.56 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{L}$ at $25.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ AND 1.33 atm. Calculate the molar mass of the gas.
Ans. $=28.7 \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mol}$
4. A container with only He had a pressure of 544 torr at a temperature of $35^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. When 0.810 g of Ne is added to this container, the pressure increases to 959 torr. Calculate the grams of He in the container. Ans. $=0.212 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{He}$

5 A mixture containing 1.22 g Xe and $0.675 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{NO}_{2}$ exerts a pressure of 1.44 atm . What is the partial pressure of $\mathrm{NO}_{2}$ ? Ans. $=0.883 \mathrm{~atm} \mathrm{NO}_{2}$
6.. The complete combustion of 0.500 g of hydrocarbon, containing only C and H , produced $0.771 \mathrm{~L} \mathrm{of}_{2} \mathrm{CO}_{2}$ at STP and 0.755 g of water. In another experiment, 0.218 g of sample occupied 185 ml at $23^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 374 mm Hg . What is the molecular formula of the compound?
Ans. $=\mathrm{C}_{4} \mathrm{H}_{10}$

## VI. KINETIC MOLECULAR THEORY-Review

A. Gases are composed of such extremely tiny atoms or molecules that are widely separated by empty space.
B. Gas particles move in a random,rapid, and continuous motion, thus has kinetic energy.
C. Gas particles moves so rapidly and are so far apart the there is essentially no force of attraction between the particles.
D. Particles collide frequently wtih each other and with the walls of the container, the collisions are perfectly "elastic" - (No net loss of energy as a result of a collision)

## VII. TEMPERATURE AND MOLECULAR VELOCITIES: AVERAGE KINETIC ENERGY

The average kinetic energy (energy of motion) of the gas particles are directly proportional to its absolute $T^{\circ}$ (Kelvin)

## VIII MOLECULAR SPEEDS; DIFFUSION AND EFFUSION

A. MOLECULAR SPEEDS

molecular speed
B. DIFFUSION AND EFFUSION

Diffusion is the ability of two or more gases to spontaneously mix until it becomes a uniform, homogeneous mixture.

Effusion is the process by which gas particles flows thru a very small hole from a container of high pressure to a lower pressure.

Graham's Law of Effusion - The rate of effusion of a gas is inversely proportional to it's size [ $\sqrt{\text { Molar Mass }}$ ] at constant temperature and pressure.

$$
\frac{r_{A}}{r_{B}}=\sqrt{\frac{M_{B}}{m_{A}}}
$$

Problem \#1: What is the rate of effusion for $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ if 15.00 ml carbon dioxide of $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ takes 4.55 sec to effuse out of a container?

Problem \#2: What is the molar mass of gas $X$ if it effuses 0.876 times as rapidly as $\mathrm{N}_{2}(\mathrm{~g})$ ?

## IX REAL GASES

Gas laws describe the behavior of an ideal or "perfect" gas - a gas described by the kinetic molecular theory. Under normal conditions of typical pressure and temperature, gases follow the ideal gas laws fairly closely. At low temperature and/or high pressures gases deviate from the ideal gas laws.
A. Intermolecular forces of attraction
B. Molecular volume

## Part II Thermochemistry

## Chapter 6

Thermochemistry is the study of heat released or absorbed during chemical reactions.

## I. Energy

$$
\text { Internal Energy }=\Delta E=E_{\text {final }}-\text { Einitial }^{\text {in }}
$$

## II. Heat and Work

Heat, $\mathbf{q}$, is the heat transferred to or from a system during a reaction. It is the energy that flows to or from a system due to the difference of ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{T}$

Work,w, is the energy exchange when a force ,F, moves an object a certain distance.

Internal Energy $=\Delta \mathrm{E}=\mathrm{q}+\mathrm{w}$
III. Units of Energy

Joule, J
Calorie,Cal

## IV. State Functions

State Functions are properties that on dependant upon its present state and not dependant upon the pathway to the present state.

## V. First Law of Thermodynamics

Energy can neither be created or destroyed

## VI. Enthalpy: The Heat Evolved in a Chemical Reaction at Constant Pressure

## Enthalpy, H (Heat content of a substance)

Change of Enthalpy, $\mathbf{\Delta H}$, is the heat given off or absorbed by a system at constant pressure. For reactions, the change of enthalpy is the

Heat of Reaction:
Heat of Reaction $=\Delta H_{r x n}=H_{\text {final }}-H_{\text {initial }}$

Mechanics of reactions:

## VII. Calorimetry

The Heat Capacity of a substance is the amount of heat required to change its temperature $1^{\circ}$

The Specific Heat of a substance is the amount of heat required to change 1 gram of the substance its temperature 1 K

Problem: Calculate the amount of heat required to heat 35.0 g of Al from $55.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ to $75.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.
Specific Heat of $\mathrm{Al}=0.908 \frac{\mathrm{~J}}{\mathrm{gK}}$

The Heat Capacity of a substance is the amount of heat required to change its temperature $1^{\circ}$

## VII. Law of Hess-Law of constant heat summation

A. Enthalphy, $\Delta H \quad \Delta H_{r x n}=\Delta H_{\text {products }}-\Delta H_{\text {reactants }}$

B. Energy diagram

C. Energy Equations:

1. Additon of equations

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\mathrm{C}(\text { graphite })+\mathrm{O}_{2}(\mathrm{~g}) \rightarrow & \mathrm{CO}(\mathrm{~g})+1 / 2 \mathrm{O}_{2} & \Delta \mathrm{H}=-110.5 \mathrm{KJ} \\
\mathrm{CO}(\mathrm{~g})+1 / 2 \mathrm{O}_{2}(\mathrm{~g}) \rightarrow & \mathrm{CO}_{2} & \Delta \mathrm{H}=-283.0 \mathrm{KJ}
\end{array}
$$

2. Multiplying:

$$
\mathrm{HI}(\mathrm{~g}) \rightarrow \quad 1 / 2 \mathrm{H}_{2}(\mathrm{~g})+1 / 2 \mathrm{I}_{2}(\mathrm{~s}) \quad \triangle \mathrm{H}=-25.9 \mathrm{KJ}
$$

3. Reversing:

$$
1 / 2 \mathrm{H}_{2}(\mathrm{~g})+1 / 2 \mathrm{I}_{2}(\mathrm{~s}) \rightarrow \mathrm{HI}(\mathrm{~g})
$$

$$
\triangle \mathrm{H}=+25.9 \mathrm{KJ}
$$

4. Problem:

Find $\triangle \mathrm{H}$ for $2 \mathrm{NH}_{3}(\mathrm{~g})+3 / 2 \mathrm{O}_{2}(\mathrm{~g}) \leftrightarrows \quad \mathrm{N}_{2} \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{g})+2 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{l})+\mathrm{H}_{2}(\mathrm{~g})$ Given:

```
4 NH
    \triangleH=-1531 KJ
N2O(g)+ H2(g)-> N
```

VIII. Standard Heats of Reactions

Calculate the the $\Delta \mathrm{H}$ for the following reactions: $\Delta H_{R X N}=\sum \Delta H_{\text {Products }}-\sum \Delta H_{\text {Reactants }}$

1. $\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{4}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{6}$
2. $2 \mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{OH}+3 \mathrm{O}_{2} \leftrightarrows 4 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}+2 \mathrm{CO}_{2}$

# Part 01 PERIODIC PROPERITIES OF THE ELEMENTS <br> Chapter 8 

A. Electron Configuration and orbital diagrams (review)

Electron configuration<br>Orbital diagram

B. Sublevel Energy Splitting in Multielectron Atoms $\rightarrow$ Shielding
C. Electron Configurations, Valence electrons, and the Periodic Table (review)

## D. Periodic Trends in the Size of Atoms and Effective Nuclear Charge

1. Atomic Radius [Atom Size]
a. As the number of shells increases, the radius size increases

b. As you go left to right across a period, the radius size decreases
2. Ion Size - is the measure of the electron cloud around the nucleus.
a. Cations
b. Anions
3. Ionization Energy

The energy required to remove an electron from a neutral atom (in gas phase).

a. As you go left to right across a period, the ionization energy increases.
b. As you go down a group (top to bottom), the ionization energy decreases.

## 4. $1^{\text {st }}, 2^{\text {nd }}$, and $3^{\text {rd }}$, Ionization Energies

5. Electron Affinity The amount of energy released or absorbed when an electron is added to an atom to form a (-) ion [anion], in gas phase.

a. As you go left to right across a period, the electron affinity increases.
b. As you go down a group (top to bottom), the electron affinity decreases.
6. Metalic Character
a. As you go left to right across a period, metallic decreases.
b. As you go down a group (top to bottom), the ionization energy increases.

B. Isoelectronic particles- species with the same number of electrons

Problem: Arrange the ions $\mathrm{Se}^{2-}, \mathrm{Br}^{-}, \mathrm{Rb}^{+}$, and $\mathrm{Sr}^{+2}$ in decreasing size

## Part 2 CNENMCAL BONDNNG PART I - LEWNS TMEORY

## Chapter 9

$\rightarrow$ The attractive interaction between two atoms or ions
I. Types: -

1. Ionic Bond- Cations (+ charged) and Anions (- charged) are held together by the attractive force of their (+) and (-) charges $\cdots$ Electrostatic force.
2. Metallic Bonds
3. Macro molecular crystals
4. Covalent Bonds- Results from the sharing of a pair of electrons between two atoms.
II. Valence electrons (High energy electrons)-Review

The electrons in the outermost shell (energy level). Valence electrons are involved in reactions. (Rem: \# valence $\mathrm{e}^{-}=$the group number for the " A " subgroup elements)
ex.
III. Ionic Bonds- The attractive force between a cation (+ ion) and anion (- ion).-Review Atoms lose or/ gain electrons to obtain an octet.

## IV BORN-HARBER CYCLE DIAGRAM

BACKGROUND:
The Born- Haber cycle uses the law of Hess to determine the Lattice Energy. The lattice energy is the enthalphy change, $\Delta \mathrm{H}$, associated when gaseous cations and anions from a crystal:

$$
\mathrm{Na}^{+}(\mathrm{g})+\mathrm{Cl}^{-}(\mathrm{g}) \rightarrow \mathrm{NaCl}(\mathrm{~s}) \quad \Delta \mathrm{H}=-788 \mathrm{KJ}
$$

Since heat is always evolved in these processes, all lattice energies have a negative sign (Energy is lost). Lattice enrgies cannot be determined directly; therefore, the law of Hess is applied to indirectly determine the lattice energy:

## V BORN-HABER CYCLE

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To prepare 1 mole of NaCl , for example, the following steps must be taken:
A. Crystalline Na metal is sublimed into gaseous Na :
$\Delta \mathrm{H}_{\text {sublimation }}=+108 \mathrm{KJ}$
B. Gaseous sodium atoms are ionized into gaseous sodium ions. The amount of energy required for 1 mole of Na is the first ionization energy of sodium
$\Delta \mathrm{H}_{\text {ionization }}=+496 \mathrm{KJ}$
*Note some cations will require the second ionization energy step:
C. Gaseous $\mathrm{Cl}_{2}$ molecules are dissociated. (Bonds are broken). This the enthalpy change when 1 mole of $\mathrm{Cl}_{2}$ molecules are dissociated.
$\Delta \mathrm{H}_{\text {dissociation }}=+243 \mathrm{KJ}$
D. Electrons are added to the gaseous chlorine atoms. The enthalpy change per mole of $\mathrm{Cl}(\mathrm{g})$ is the first electron affinity of chlorine
$\Delta \mathrm{H}_{\text {electron }}$ affinity $=-349 \mathrm{KJ}$
*Note some anions will require the second electron affinity energy step:
E. In this step, gaseous $\mathrm{Na}^{+}$and $\mathrm{Cl}^{-}$condense into one mole of crystalline sodium chloride. The lattice energy is the amount of energy released per mole of NaCl .
$\Delta H_{\text {lattice energy }}=-788 \mathrm{KJ}$
F. Once steps A-E are added, the sum will give you the $\Delta \mathrm{H}_{\text {formation }}$ :
$\mathrm{Na}(\mathrm{s})+1 / 2 \mathrm{Cl}_{2}(\mathrm{~g}) \rightarrow \mathrm{NaCl}(\mathrm{s})$
$\Delta H_{\text {formation }}=-411 \mathrm{KJ}$

Problem: Calculate the Lattice energy for:

$$
\mathrm{Li}^{+}+\mathrm{F}^{-} \rightarrow \mathrm{LiF} \quad \Delta \mathrm{H}_{\text {lattice e energy }}=?
$$

Given:
$\Delta \mathrm{H}_{\text {sublimation }}=+155.2 \mathrm{KJ}$
$\Delta H_{\text {ionization }}=+520 . \mathrm{KJ}$
$\Delta H_{\text {dissociation }}=+150.6 \mathrm{KJ}$ (Bond energy)
$\Delta H_{\text {electron }}$ affinity $=-333 \mathrm{KJ}$
$\Delta H_{\text {formation }}=-594.1 \mathrm{KJ}$

Problem: Calculate the Mg sublimation energy for:

$$
\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}+2 \mathrm{Cl}^{-} \rightarrow \mathrm{MgCl}_{2}
$$

$\Delta H_{\text {lattice energy }}=$ ?
Given:
$\Delta H_{\text {ionization }}$ : the first and second ionization energy of Mg is: $756 \mathrm{KJ} /$ mole and $1490 . \mathrm{KJ} / \mathrm{mole}$, respectively.
$\Delta H_{\text {dissociation }}=+248 \mathrm{KJ}$ (Bond energy)
$\Delta H_{\text {electron }}$ affinity $=-368 \mathrm{KJ}$
$\Delta H_{\text {Lattice Energy }}=-2576 \mathrm{KJ}$
$\Delta H_{\text {formation }}=-698 \mathrm{KJ}$

## VI. Electronegativity and Bond Polarity

A. Electronegativity - The measure of the attractive force that an atom for its shared electrons. In general, electronegativity increases left to right and bottom to top on the periodic table.
B. Electronegativities and bond polarity

1. Covalent Bonds
a. Non polar covalent bonds - differences in the electronegativities is $\leq 0.4$
b. Polar covalent bonds - differences in the electronegativities is between 0.5-1.7
2. Ionic bonds

Differences in electronegativities is $>1.7$

Examples:
1.
2.
3.
5.

## IV. Covalent Bonds

A. Bond Energy - The average energy required for the dissociation of a bond
B. Bond Length - The average distance between the two nuclei of covalently bonded atoms.

## C. Drawing LEWIS STRUCTURES - Electron dot structures-Review

## HOW TO:

1. Write e-dot structure for the individual atoms.
2. a) Add together the number of valence electrons for all the atoms (If it is an ion, you must add or subtract electrons accordingly)
b) Divide the total number of $e^{-}$by 2 : This will give you the number of $e^{-}$pairs available for bonding.
3. Determine which is the central atom
a. The least represented atom that is not $\mathbf{H}$
b. Usually, the first atom in the chemical formula that is not $\mathbf{H}$.
4. Arrange atoms symmetrically around the central atom.
5. Draw a single line (or 2 dots) between the central and outer atoms.
6. From the total number of valence electrons subtract 2 electron for each bond made.
7. Attempt to place the remaining electron pairs around the outer atoms to make an octet or duet (for H )
8. Additional electrons are placed on the central atom
9. If the central atom still has less than an octet ; then, a double or triple bond must be formed.

Waming: Do not use a double or triple bond unless you have to!

MONC, a general rule(a help)

Examples.
B. Specific Electron Dot Cases-Review:

1. Ions:
2. Oxy Acids

## 3. Carbon chains

## D. Exceptions to the Octet Rule

1. Electron deficient molecules: Molecules where the central atom does not have an octet. Usually a group IIIA atom Example: $\mathrm{BCl}_{3}$
2. Expanded valence shell: Molecules where the central atom has more than 8 valence around the central atom. The central atom would belong to the $3^{\text {rd }, ~} 4^{\text {th }}, 5^{\text {th }}, 6^{\text {th }}$, or $7^{\text {th }}$ period.
Example: SF 6
3. Molecules with an odd number of electrons: There are an odd number of valece electrons in the molecule Example: $\mathrm{NO}_{2}$

## Practice:

$\mathrm{SO}_{2}$
$\mathrm{IF}_{5}$
$\mathrm{NO}_{3}{ }^{-}$

HBrO

## $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COCH}_{3}$

## $\mathrm{PF}_{5}$

