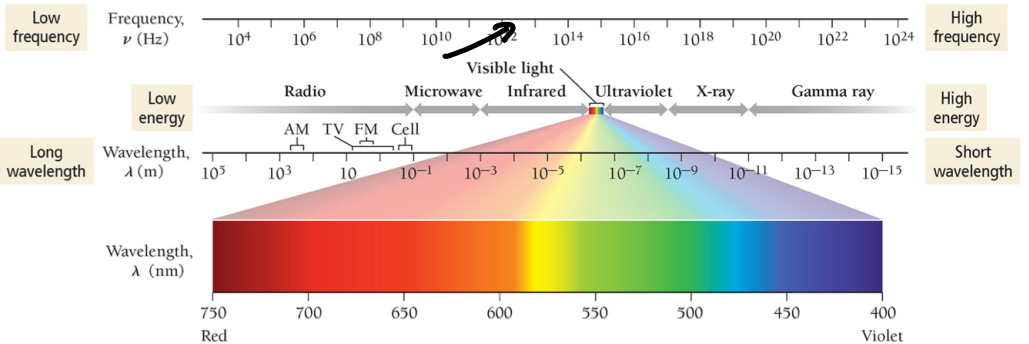
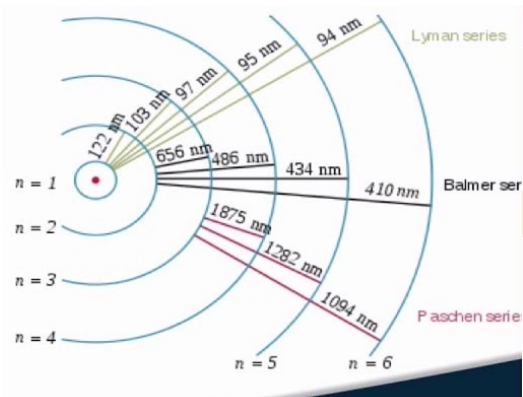
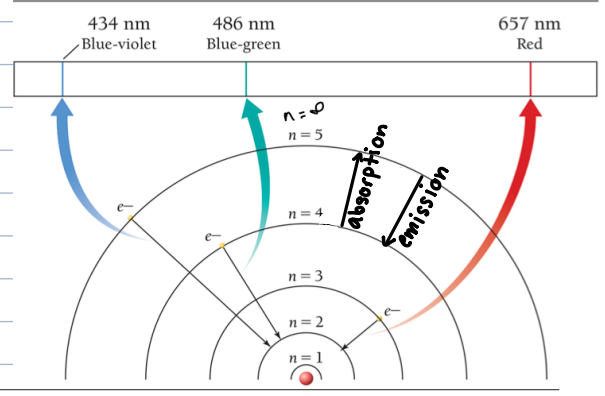


Element	Electrons	Electronic Configuration	Element	Electrons	Electronic Configuration
Hydrogen (H)	1	1s ¹	Yttrium (Y)	39	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹
Helium (He)	2	1s ²	Zincium (Zn)	40	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ²
Lithium (Li)	3	1s ² 2s ¹	Niobium (Nb)	41	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ¹ 4d ⁴
Beryllium (Be)	4	1s ² 2s ²	Molybdenum (Mo)	42	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ¹ 4d ⁵
Boron (B)	5	1s ² 2s ² 2p ¹	Technetium (Tc)	43	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ⁵
Carbon (C)	6	1s ² 2s ² 2p ²	Ruthenium (Ru)	44	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ¹ 4d ⁷
Nitrogen (N)	7	1s ² 2s ² 2p ³	Rhodium (Rh)	45	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ¹ 4d ⁸
Oxygen (O)	8	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁴	Palladium (Pd)	46	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 4d ¹⁰
Fluorine (F)	9	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁵	Silver (Ag)	47	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ¹ 4d ¹⁰
Neon (Ne)	10	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶	Cadmium (Cd)	48	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰
Sodium (Na)	11	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ¹	Indium (In)	49	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ¹
Magnesium (Mg)	12	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ²	Tin (Sn)	50	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ²
Aluminum (Al)	13	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ¹	Antimony (Sb)	51	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ³
Silicon (Si)	14	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ²	Tellurium (Te)	52	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁴
Phosphorous (P)	15	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ³	Iodine (I)	53	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁵
Sulfur (S)	16	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁴	Xenon (Xe)	54	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶
Chlorine (Cl)	17	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁵	Cesium (Cs)	55	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ¹
Argon (Ar)	18	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶	Barium (Ba)	56	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ²
Potassium (K)	19	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ¹	Lanthanum (La)	57	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 5d ¹
Calcium (Ca)	20	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ²	Cerium (Ce)	58	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 5d ¹ 4f ¹
Scandium (Sc)	21	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹	Osmium (Os)	76	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁶
Titanium (Ti)	22	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ²	Iridium (Ir)	77	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁷
Vanadium (V)	23	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ³	Platinum (Pt)	78	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ¹ 4f ¹⁴ 5d ⁹
Chromium (Cr)	24	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ¹ 3d ⁵	Gold (Au)	79	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ¹ 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰
Manganese (Mn)	25	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ⁵	Mercury (Hg)	80	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰
Iron (Fe)	26	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ⁶	Thallium (Tl)	81	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ¹
Cobalt (Co)	27	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ⁷	Lead (Pb)	82	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ²
Nickel (Ni)	28	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ⁸	Bismuth (Bi)	83	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ³
Copper (Cu)	29	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ¹ 3d ¹⁰	Polonium (Po)	84	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ⁴
Zinc (Zn)	30	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰	Astatine (At)	85	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ⁵
Gallium (Ga)	31	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ¹	Radon (Rn)	86	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ⁶
Germanium (Ge)	32	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ²	Francium (Fr)	87	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ⁷
Arsenic (As)	33	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ³	Radium (Ra)	88	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ⁸
Selenium (Se)	34	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁴	Actinium (Ac)	89	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ⁷ 7s ¹
Bromine (Br)	35	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁵	Thorium (Th)	90	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ² 3d ¹⁰ 4p ⁶ 5s ² 4d ¹⁰ 5p ⁶ 6s ² 4f ¹⁴ 5d ¹⁰ 6p ⁶ 7s ² 6d ²

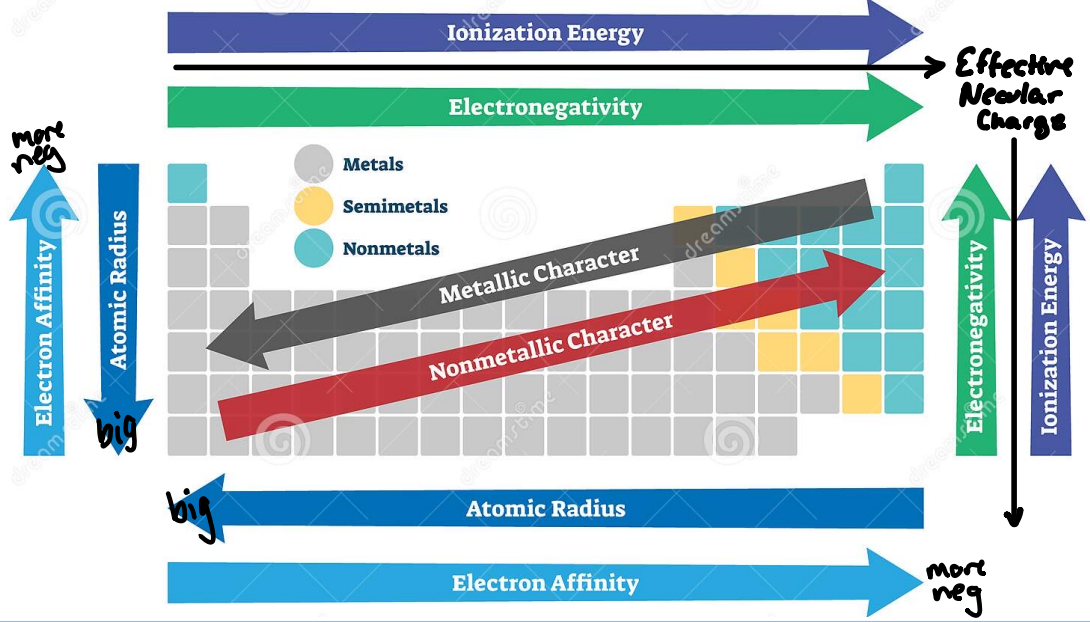
λ = wavelength $c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$ $\Delta E_{1\text{pho}} = \frac{\text{Total } E}{\# \text{ Photons}} \cdot \text{Photons}$ $KE = h\nu - \phi - KE$
 ν = frequency E = total energy $\lambda = h/mv$ w/ $\lambda = m, m = \text{kg}, v = \text{m/s}$ - DeBroglie
 $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34}$ ϕ = binding energy $\Delta x \Delta p = \frac{h}{4\pi}$ - Heisenberg's Uncertainty
 $\nu = c/\lambda$ $c = \nu \lambda$ $\lambda = c/\nu$ - Frequency, wavelength, light
 $E = h\nu$ $E = hc/\lambda$ $\nu = E/h$ $\lambda = hc/E$ - Photo electric

Photons = $\frac{\text{Total Energy}}{\text{Energy of 1 photon}} \cdot \text{Photons}$

$\Delta E = -2.178 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right)$ - Difference in ΔE levels hydrogen



Ionization Energy	Name chemical element	
3,8939	Cesium	6,7589 Niobium
4,0727	Francium	6,7665 Chromium
4,1771	Rubidium	6,8251 Hafnium
4,3407	Potassium	6,8281 Titanium
4,9	Lawrencium	7,0924 Molybdenum
5,1391	Sodium	7,28 Technetium
5,17	Actinium	7,2856 Bismuth
5,2117	Barium	7,3439 Tin
5,2784	Radium	7,3605 Ruthenium
5,3917	Lithium	7,4167 Lead
5,4259	Lutetium	7,434 Manganese
5,473	Praseodymium	7,4589 Rhodium
5,525	Neodymium	7,5496 Tantalum
5,5387	Cerium	7,5762 Silver
5,5769	Lanthanum	7,6398 Nickel
5,582	Promethium	7,6462 Magnesium
5,6437	Samarium	7,7264 Copper
5,6704	Europium	7,8335 Rhenium
5,6949	Strontium	7,864 Tungsten
5,7864	Indium	7,881 Cobalt
5,8638	Terbium	7,8994 Germanium
5,89	Protactinium	7,9024 Iron
5,9389	Dysprosium	8,1517 Silicon
5,9738	Americium	8,298 Boron
5,9858	Aluminum	8,3369 Palladium
5,9915	Curium	8,417 Polonium
5,9993	Gallium	8,4382 Osmium
6,0215	Holmium	8,6084 Antimony
6,0262	Plutonium	8,9587 Platinum
6,1077	Erbium	8,967 Iridium
6,1082	Thallium	8,9938 Cadmium
6,1132	Calcium	9,0096 Tellurium
6,1501	Gadolinium	9,2255 Gold
6,1843	Thulium	9,3 Astatine
6,1941	Uranium	9,3227 Beryllium
6,1979	Berkelium	9,3942 Zinc
6,2173	Yttrium	9,7524 Selenium
6,2542	Ytterbium	9,7886 Arsenic
6,2657	Neptunium	10,36 Sulfur
6,2817	Californium	10,4375 Mercury
6,3067	Thorium	10,4513 Iodine
6,42	Einsteinium	10,4867 Phosphorus
6,5	Fermium	10,7485 Radon
6,5615	Scandium	11,2603 Carbon
6,58	Mendelevium	11,8138 Bromine
6,6339	Zirconium	11,8138 Xenon
6,65	Nobelium	12,1298 Chlorine
6,7462	Vanadium	12,9676 Hydrogen
		13,5984 Oxygen
		13,6181 Krypton
		13,9996 Nitrogen
		14,5341 Argon
		15,7596 Fluorine
		17,4228 Neon
		21,5645 Helium
		24,5874



Principal Quantum Number, n : The Energy Level

- It characterizes the energy of the electron in a particular orbital.
 - It is Bohr's energy level.
- Values of n can be any whole number integer ≥ 1 .
- It determines the size (overall) and energy of an orbital.
 - The larger the value of n , the more energy the orbital has.
 - The larger the value of n , the larger the orbital.
- Energies are defined as being "negative."
 - An electron's energy is lowered (made more negative) as a result of its interaction with the nucleus of the atom.
 - An electron would have $E = 0$ when it escapes the atom.
 - As n gets larger, the following occurs:
 - The amount of energy between orbitals gets smaller.
 - The energy of the orbital becomes greater (less negative).

$$E_n = -2.18 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J } (1/n^2) \text{ where } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Angular Momentum Quantum Number, l : The Orbital Quantum Number

- The angular momentum quantum number (l) determines the shape of the orbital.
- l can have integer values from 0 to $(n-1)$. $n=2 \rightarrow l=0, 1$
- Each l value is designated by a particular letter that designates the shape of the orbital.
 - s** orbitals are spherical.
 - Have l value of zero (0)
 - p** orbitals are like two balloons tied at the knots (dumbbell shape).
 - Have l value of one (1)
 - d** orbitals are mainly like a flat four-leaf clover.
 - Have l value of two (2)
 - f** orbitals are mainly like eight balloons tied at the knots.
 - Have l value of three (3)

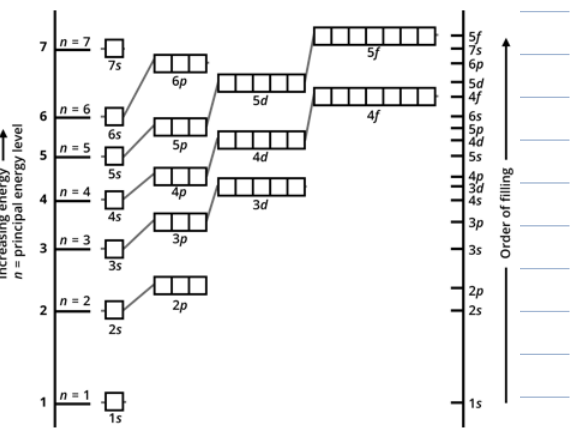
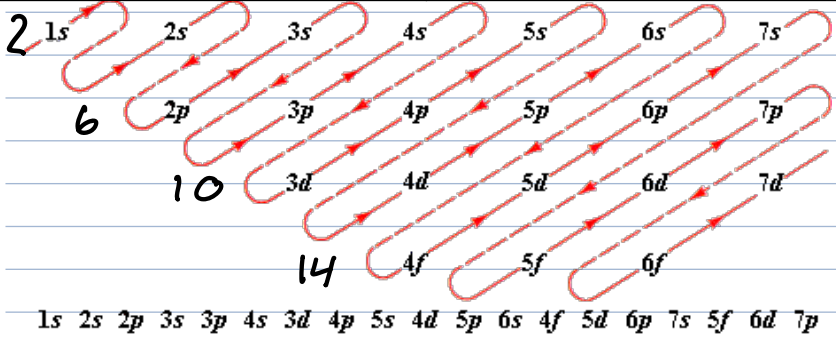
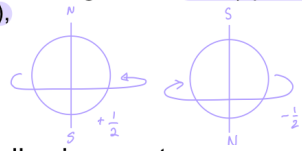
-g- no known elements use it

Magnetic Quantum Number, m_l : The Position or Orientation Quantum Number

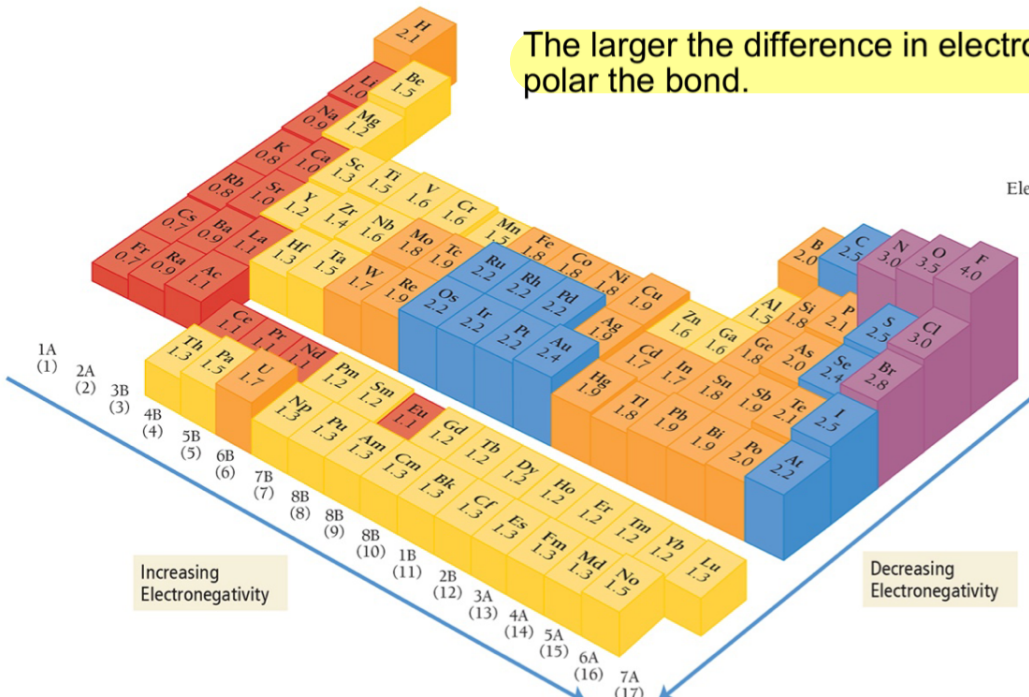
- The magnetic quantum number is an integer that specifies the orientation of the orbital.
 - The direction in space the orbital is aligned relative to the other orbitals.
- Values are integers from $-l$ to $+l$.
 - Including zero
 - Gives the number of orbitals of a particular shape
 - When $l = 2$, the values of m_l are $-2, -1, 0, +1, +2$, which means there are five orbitals with $l = 2$.

Spin Quantum Number, m_s

- The spin quantum number describes the spin behavior (i.e., angular momentum) of an electron in an atomic orbital.
 - It specifies the orientation of the electron in the orbital.
 - All electron spins are equal in magnitude; differ only in orientation
- The numerical values assigned are $+1/2$ (spin up) or $-1/2$ (spin down).



The larger the difference in electronegativity, the more polar the bond.



Electronegativity Difference (ΔEN)	Bond Type
Small (0-0.4)	Covalent
Intermediate (0.4-2.0)	Polar covalent
Large (2.0+)	Ionic

- polar molecules are unequal
- nonpolar molecules are equal

Electron Groups	Bonding Groups	Lone Pairs	Electron Geometry	Molecular Geometry	Approximate Bond Angles
2	2	0	Linear	Linear	180°
3	3	0	Trigonal planar	Trigonal planar	120°
3	2	1	Trigonal planar	Bent	<120°
4	4	0	Tetrahedral	Tetrahedral	109.5°
4	3	1	Tetrahedral	Trigonal pyramidal	<109.5°
4	2	2	Tetrahedral	Bent	<<109.5°
5	5	0	Trigonal bipyramidal	Trigonal bipyramidal	120° (equatorial) 90° (axial)
5	4	1	Trigonal bipyramidal	Seesaw	<120° (equatorial) <90° (axial)
5	3	2	Trigonal bipyramidal	T-shaped	<90°
5	2	3	Trigonal bipyramidal	Linear	180°
6	6	0	Octahedral	Octahedral	90°
6	5	1	Octahedral	Square pyramidal	<90°
6	4	2	Octahedral	Square planar	90°

Hybridization

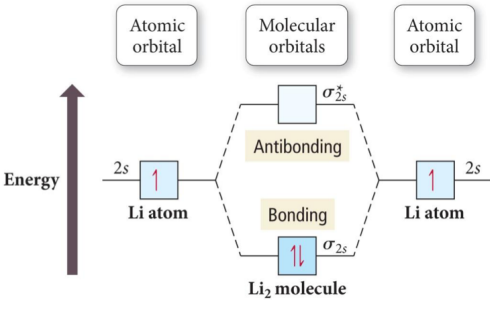
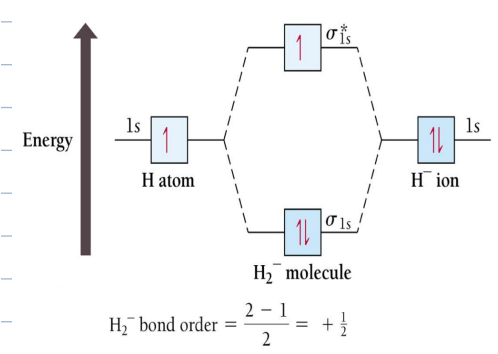
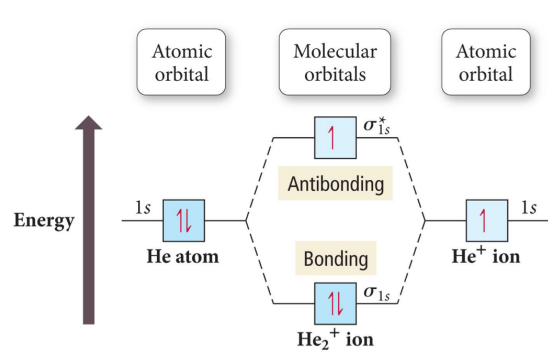
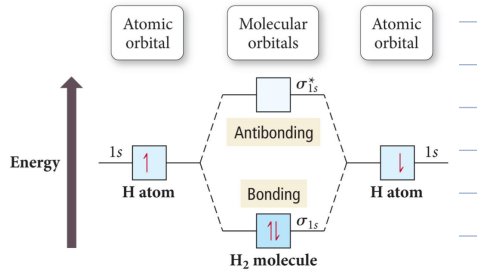
# of e ⁻ groups	hybridization
2	sp
3	sp ²
4	sp ³
5	sp ³ d
6	sp ³ d ²

Bond Strength

- multiple bonds are stronger
- single < double < tripple
- shorter bonds are stronger
- higher BO → shorter bond → stronger bond

Pi & Sigma

- Double bond is 1pi
- Tripple bond is 2pi
- All bonds are 1 sigma



$BO = \frac{1}{2} (\text{Bond } e^- - \text{antibond } e^-)$

Li₂ molecule

	B ₂	C ₂	N ₂	O ₂	F ₂	Ne ₂
σ_{2p}^*						$\uparrow\downarrow$
π_{2p}^*				$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$
σ_{2p}			$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$
π_{2p}	\uparrow \uparrow	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$ $\uparrow\downarrow$
σ_{2s}^*	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$
σ_{2s}	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$
BO	1	2	3	2	1	0
BE	290	620	946	498	159	—
BL	159	131	110	121	143	—

Percent Yield = $\frac{\text{actual}}{\text{theor}} \cdot 100$

Molarity = $\frac{\text{solute in mL}}{\text{volume of solution}_L}$

$n = \text{moles}$

$M = n/L$

$n = ML$

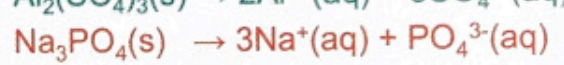
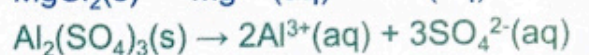
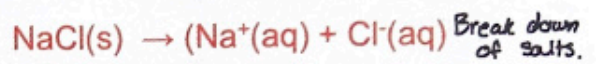
$L = n/M$

Solution Dilution = $M_c V_c = M_d V_d$ * might not be total volumes

$c = \text{concentrate}$ $M = \text{molarity}$
 $d = \text{dilute}$ $V = \text{volume}$

TABLE 8.1 Solubility Rules for Ionic Compounds in Water

Compounds Containing the Following Ions Are Generally Soluble	Exceptions
Li ⁺ , Na ⁺ , K ⁺ , and NH ₄ ⁺	None
NO ₃ ⁻ and C ₂ H ₃ O ₂ ⁻	None
Cl ⁻ , Br ⁻ , and I ⁻	When these ions pair with Ag ⁺ , Hg ₂ ²⁺ , or Pb ²⁺ , the resulting compounds are insoluble.
SO ₄ ²⁻	When SO ₄ ²⁻ pairs with Sr ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , Pb ²⁺ , Ag ⁺ , or Ca ²⁺ , the resulting compound is insoluble.
Compounds Containing the Following Ions Are Generally Insoluble	Exceptions
OH ⁻ and S ²⁻	When these ions pair with Li ⁺ , Na ⁺ , K ⁺ , or NH ₄ ⁺ , the resulting compounds are soluble. When S ²⁻ pairs with Ca ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , or Ba ²⁺ , the resulting compound is soluble. When OH ⁻ pairs with Ca ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , or Ba ²⁺ , the resulting compound is slightly soluble.
CO ₃ ²⁻ and PO ₄ ³⁻	When these ions pair with Li ⁺ , Na ⁺ , K ⁺ , or NH ₄ ⁺ , the resulting compounds are soluble.



Steps in writing a net ionic equation

- Write the balanced molecular equation.
 - Predict products by exchanging cations and anions in reactants.
- Separate strong electrolytes into ions.
- Cancel spectator ions.
- Use the remaining species to write the net ionic equation.

8.9 Oxidation–Reduction Reactions

- The reactions in which electrons are transferred from one reactant to the other are called **oxidation–reduction** reactions.

Atoms that **lose electrons** are being **oxidized**.

- The reaction is referred to as **oxidation**.

Atoms that **gain electrons** are being **reduced**.

- The reaction is referred to as **reduction**.

The following rules are in order of priority:

- Free elements have an oxidation state = 0.
 - Na = 0 and Cl₂ = 0 in 2 Na(s) + Cl₂(g)
- Monatomic ions have an oxidation state equal to their charge.
 - Na = +1 and Cl = -1 in NaCl
- (a) The sum of the oxidation states of all the atoms in a compound is 0.
 - Na = +1 and Cl = -1 in NaCl, (+1) + (-1) = 0
- (b) The sum of the oxidation states of all the atoms in a polyatomic ion equals the charge on the ion.
 - N = +5 and O = -2 in NO₃⁻, (+5) + 3(-2) = -1

- Oxidation state of oxygen is -2, except in the O₂²⁻ ion, it is -1
- Oxidation state of hydrogen is +1, except in metal hydrides it is -1.
- Group I metals have an oxidation state of +1 in all their compounds.
 - Na = +1 in NaCl
- Group II metals have an oxidation state of +2 in all their compounds.
 - Mg = +2 in MgCl₂
- In their compounds, nonmetals have oxidation states according to the table on the right.

Nonmetal	Oxidation State	Example
Fluorine	-1	MgF ₂ -1 ox state
Hydrogen	+1	H ₂ O +1 ox state
Oxygen	-2	CO ₂ -2 ox state
Group 7A	-1	CCl ₄ -1 ox state
Group 6A	-2	H ₂ S -2 ox state
Group 5A	-3	NH ₃ -3 ox state

- The reactant that reduces an element in another reactant is called the **reducing agent**.
 - The reducing agent contains the element that is oxidized.
- The reactant that oxidizes an element in another reactant is called the **oxidizing agent**.
 - The oxidizing agent contains the element that is reduced.

Redox Reactions

- All the reactions which involve a change in oxidation number of the species involved are redox reactions.
- Double replacement reactions are not redox reactions.

Decomposition reactions

- These reactions are just the opposite of combination reactions.
- a. Hydroxide decompose to give metal oxide and water:

$$\text{Mg(OH)}_2(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{MgO}(\text{s}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$$
- b. Metal carbonates decompose into metal oxide and carbon dioxide

$$\text{MgCO}_3(\text{s}) \rightarrow \text{MgO}(\text{s}) + \text{CO}_2(\text{g})$$
- c. All metal chlorates when heated decompose into metal chlorides and oxygen gas:

$$2\text{KClO}_3(\text{s}) \rightarrow 2\text{KCl}(\text{s}) + 3\text{O}_2(\text{g})$$

Combination Reactions

- Metals react with oxygen to give metallic oxides:

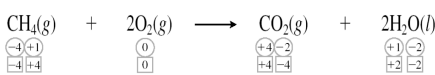
$$\text{Mg}(\text{s}) + \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{MgO}(\text{s})$$
- Metallic oxides react with water to give hydroxides:

$$\text{MgO}(\text{s}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l}) \rightarrow \text{Mg(OH)}_2$$
- Metallic oxides react with carbon dioxide to give carbonates:

$$\text{MgO}(\text{s}) + \text{CO}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{MgCO}_3(\text{s})$$

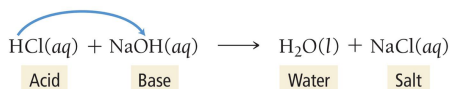
Combustion reactions

- Common example, hydrocarbon fuel reacts with oxygen to produce carbon dioxide and water
- Consider:



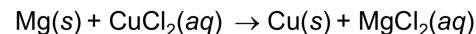
Acid–Base Reactions

- When an acid and a base react, the reaction is called a **neutralization reaction**.
- Moles of acid = Moles of base



Single replacement reactions

- A common reaction: active metal replaces (displaces) a metal ion from a solution.



- The activity series of metals is useful in order to predict the outcome of the reaction.

TABLE 4.6 Activity Series

Element	Oxidation Half-Reaction
Lithium	Li → Li ⁺ + e ⁻
Potassium	K → K ⁺ + e ⁻
Barium	Ba → Ba ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Calcium	Ca → Ca ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Sodium	Na → Na ⁺ + e ⁻
Magnesium	Mg → Mg ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Aluminum	Al → Al ³⁺ + 3e ⁻
Manganese	Mn → Mn ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Zinc	Zn → Zn ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Chromium	Cr → Cr ³⁺ + 3e ⁻
Iron	Fe → Fe ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Cadmium	Cd → Cd ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Cobalt	Co → Co ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Nickel	Ni → Ni ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Tin	Sn → Sn ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Lead	Pb → Pb ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Hydrogen	H ₂ → 2H ⁺ + 2e ⁻
Copper	Cu → Cu ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Silver	Ag → Ag ⁺ + e ⁻
Mercury	Hg → Hg ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Platinum	Pt → Pt ²⁺ + 2e ⁻
Gold	Au → Au ³⁺ + 3e ⁻

8.8 Gas-Evolution Chemical Reactions

- In a **gas-evolution reaction**, a gas forms, resulting in bubbling.

TABLE 8.3 Types of Compounds That Undergo Gas-Evolution Reactions

Reactant Type	Intermediate Product	Gas Evolved	Example
Sulfides	None	H ₂ S	2 HCl(aq) + K ₂ S(aq) → H ₂ S(g) + 2 KCl(aq)
Carbonates and bicarbonates	H ₂ CO ₃	CO ₂	2 HCl(aq) + K ₂ CO ₃ (aq) → H ₂ O(l) + CO ₂ (g) + 2 KCl(aq)
Sulfites and bisulfites	H ₂ SO ₃	SO ₂	2 HCl(aq) + K ₂ SO ₃ (aq) → H ₂ O(l) + SO ₂ (g) + 2 KCl(aq)
Ammonium	NH ₄ OH	NH ₃	NH ₄ Cl(aq) + KOH(aq) → H ₂ O(l) + NH ₃ (g) + KCl(aq)

Chemical Reactions
Chapter 8

Chapter 9 - Thermochem

A summary of the important sign conventions

$$\Delta E = q + w = q - P\Delta V$$

ΔE	-	internal energy of a system decreases
	+	internal energy of a system increases
q	-	the system releases heat into surroundings (lowers E)
	+	the system absorbs heat from the surroundings (raises E)
w	-	the system does work on its surroundings (lowers E)
	+	the surroundings does work on the system (raises E)
ΔV	-	the system is compressed by the surroundings (w is +)
	+	the system expands against the surroundings (w is -)

Internal Energy = (ΔE) ← heat (J)
 (state function) $\Delta U = Q + W$ ← work
 ΔE Change = $\Delta E = E_{\text{prod/final}} - E_{\text{reactants/initial}}$

Quantifying Heat -

- when $q+$, the temp goes up,
- when $q-$, the temp goes down
- q & Δt are directly proportional

Heat Capacity -

$$C = \frac{q}{\Delta T} \rightarrow \frac{J}{^\circ C}$$

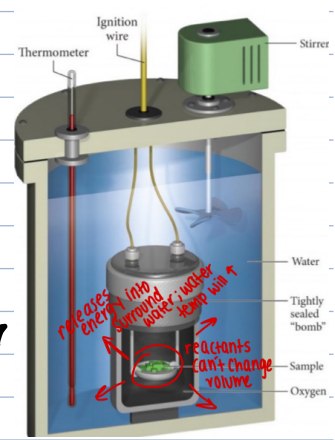
Specific Heat Capacity -

$$q = m \cdot c_s \cdot \Delta t$$

heat (J) mass (g) specific heat (J/g°C) temp change (°C)

TABLE 9.2 Specific Heat Capacities of Some Common Substances

Lead	0.128
Gold	0.128
Silver	0.235
Copper	0.385
Iron	0.449
Aluminum	0.903
Compounds	
Ethanol	2.42
Water	4.18



Work - $w = -P_{\text{external}} \Delta V$ $P_{\text{external}} (\text{atm}) \cdot \Delta V = \text{volume (L)} \cdot 101.3 \text{ J} \cdot \text{atm}^{-1} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$

Constant-Volume Calorimetry = $\Delta E_{\text{rxn}} = q_v$ (heat of volume)

Bomb Calorimetry = $\Delta E_{\text{rxn}} = -q_{\text{cal}}$ $q_{\text{cal}} = \Delta T \cdot C_{\text{cal}}$ (heat capacity of entire assembly)

Enthalpy (H) -

$\Delta H = \Delta E + P\Delta V$
 ΔH = enthalpy change of reaction
 ΔH = heat under constant pressure
 $-\Delta H$ → heat is released, exothermic
 $+\Delta H$ → heat is absorbed, endothermic
 constant pressure

experimental conditions under which the reaction is taking place	property of reaction being directly measured by calorimeter.	apparatus used to perform heat measurements	property of reaction being indirectly established
constant volume	q_v (heat of the reaction under constant volume)	bomb calorimeter	ΔE_{rxn}
constant pressure	q_p (heat of the reaction under constant pressure)	coffee-cup calorimeter	ΔH_{rxn}

Constant Pressure Calorimetry -

measures $\Delta H_{\text{rxn}} = q_{\text{rxn}} = -q_{\text{solution}}$
 (system) (surroundings)

Hesses Law - computational way to determine ΔH

- 1) use helper reactions
- 2) Bond energies
 $\Delta H_{\text{rxn}} = \sum (\Delta H \text{ bonds broken}) + \sum (\Delta H \text{ bonds formed})$
 (+) (-)
- 3) standard enthalpies
 $\Delta H_{\text{rxn}} = \sum n_p \Delta H_f^\circ - \sum n_r \Delta H_f^\circ$
 (products) (reactants)

Example: estimate the enthalpy change for

$$\text{H}_{2(g)} + \text{F}_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2\text{HF}_{(g)} \quad \Delta H_{\text{rxn}} = ?$$

Bonds broken:	Bonds made:
1 mol H-H: +436 kJ	2 mols H-F: 2(-565 kJ)
1 mol F-F: +159 kJ	
+ 595 kJ	-1130 kJ
	$\Delta H_{\text{rxn}} = 595 \text{ kJ} + (-1130 \text{ kJ}) = -535 \text{ kJ}$

Lattice Energy - Look at charges, if it is greater, it has a greater mag.

If they are the same, look at radii. Larger the radii, smaller the lattice magnitude.

Example: rank the following ionic compounds in order of increasing magnitude of lattice energy:
 Al_2O_3 , KBr , LiF , Li_2O , SrCl_2
 $\text{KBr} < \text{LiF} < \text{SrCl}_2 < \text{Li}_2\text{O} < \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$

Born Haber Cycle - $\Delta H_f^\circ \text{NaCl}_{(s)} = \Delta H_{\text{sub}}^\circ + \text{IE} + \frac{1}{2} \text{BE}(\text{Cl}_2) + \text{EA}_1 + \Delta H_{\text{lattice}}^\circ$

- calculate the Lattice energy for $\text{NaCl}_{(s)}$ $\text{Na}_{(s)} + \text{Cl}_{(g)} \rightarrow \text{NaCl}_{(s)}$ $\Delta H_{\text{rxn}}^\circ / \text{mol}$

a) $\Delta H_f^\circ \text{NaCl}_{(s)} = -411.2 \text{ kJ/mol}$: $\text{Na}_{(s)} + \frac{1}{2} \text{Cl}_{2(g)} \rightarrow \text{NaCl}_{(s)}$	leave a)	$\text{Na}_{(s)} + \frac{1}{2} \text{Cl}_{2(g)} \rightarrow \text{NaCl}_{(s)}$	-411.2
b) $\Delta H_{\text{sub}}^\circ \text{Na}_{(s)} = 107.5 \text{ kJ/mol}$: $\text{Na}_{(s)} \rightarrow \text{Na}_{(g)}$	reverse c)	$\text{Na}_{(g)} + 1e^- \rightarrow \text{Na}_{(s)}$	-496
c) $\text{IE}_{1, \text{Na}} = 496 \text{ kJ/mol}$: $\text{Na}_{(g)} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+_{(g)} + 1e^-$	reverse d)	$\text{Cl}_{(g)} \rightarrow \text{Cl}^-_{(g)} + 1e^-$	349
d) $\text{EA}_{1, \text{Cl}} = -349 \text{ kJ/mol}$: $\text{Cl}_{(g)} + 1e^- \rightarrow \text{Cl}^-_{(g)}$	reverse e) x 1/2	$\text{Cl}_{(g)} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \text{Cl}_{2(g)}$	$-\frac{243}{2} = -121.5$
e) Bond Energy $\text{Cl}_2 = 243 \text{ kJ/mol}$: $\text{Cl}_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2\text{Cl}_{(g)}$	reverse b)	$\text{Na}_{(g)} \rightarrow \text{Na}_{(s)}$	-107.5
		$\text{Na}^+_{(g)} + \text{Cl}^-_{(g)} \rightarrow \text{NaCl}_{(s)}$	-787.2 kJ

Gas Pressure

$$\text{Pressure} = \frac{\text{force}}{\text{area}} = \frac{F}{A}$$

$$P_a = \text{height} \cdot \text{density} \cdot 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$$

h = m, d = kg/m³

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ atm}^* &= 101,325 \text{ Pa} \\ &= 760 \text{ mmHg}^* \\ &= 760 \text{ torr}^* \\ &= 1.01325 \text{ bar} \\ &= 14.7 \text{ psi} \end{aligned}$$

Boyle's Law

$$P \times V = \text{constant}$$

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$$

inversely proportional

Avogadro's Law

$$V = \text{constant} \times n \text{ (moles)}$$

$$V/n = \text{constant} \quad \frac{V_1}{n_1} = \frac{V_2}{n_2}$$

$$\frac{\text{rate}_A}{\text{rate}_B} = \sqrt{\frac{M_B}{M_A}} \quad \text{Graham's Law of Effusion}$$

$$\frac{\text{time}_A}{\text{time}_B} = \frac{\sqrt{M_A}}{\sqrt{M_B}}$$

Charles's Law

$$V = \text{constant} \times T$$

$$V/T = \text{constant}$$

$$(V_1/T_1) = (V_2/T_2)$$

direct relationship

combined gas law

$$\frac{P_1 V_1}{n_1 T_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{n_2 T_2}$$

The Ideal Gas Equation

$$PV = nRT$$

*P = atm
V = Liters
n = moles
T = temp k*

$$R = .08206$$

Numerical value	Unit
0.08206	L · atm/K · mol
62.36	L · torr/K · mol
0.08314	L · bar/K · mol
8.314	m ³ · Pa/K · mol
8.314	J/K · mol
1.987	cal/K · mol

Gas Density

$$d = \frac{PM}{RT}$$

M = molar mass

P = pressure atm

$$R = .08206$$

T = Temp kelvin

Partial Pressures

$$P_{\text{Total}} = P_A + P_B + P_C$$

$$P_{\text{Total}} = n_A \frac{RT}{V} + n_B \frac{RT}{V} + n_C \frac{RT}{V}$$

$$P_{\text{Total}} = n_{\text{total}} \frac{RT}{V}$$

n_A n_B n_C

$$X_A = \frac{n_A}{n_{\text{total}}} \quad X_B = \frac{n_B}{n_{\text{total}}} \quad X_C = \frac{n_C}{n_{\text{total}}}$$

$$P_A = X_A \cdot P_{\text{Total}}$$

Vapor Pressure

TABLE 10.3 Vapor Pressure of Water versus Temperature

Temperature (°C)	Pressure (mmHg)	Temperature (°C)	Pressure (mmHg)
0	4.58	55	118.2
5	6.54	60	149.6
10	9.21	65	187.5
15	12.79	70	233.7
20	17.55	75	289.1
25	23.78	80	355.1
30	31.86	85	433.6
35	42.23	90	525.8
40	55.40	95	633.9
45	71.97	100	760.0
50	92.6		

Van der Waals

$$\left[P + a \left(\frac{n}{V} \right)^2 \right] \cdot [V - nb]$$

$$= \frac{nRT}{nRT}$$

STP

Calc the V of a mole of ideal gas at room temp (25°C) and 1 atm

$$T = 273 \quad P = 1 \text{ atm}$$

Root Mean V

$$v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}$$

M → kg, molecular mass

Temperature and Molecular Velocities

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 \quad m = \text{kg}$$

$$KE_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{2} n \text{ avogadro's } \mu^2$$

$$KE = \frac{3}{2} RT$$

Ideal gas laws assume

- no attractions between gas molecules.
- gas molecules do not take up space.
- Based on the kinetic molecular theory

Gases behave ideally at low pressures and high temperatures

At low temperatures and high pressures, however, these assumptions are not valid.

Reason:

- Gas molecules occupy significant volume (at high pressures)
- Gas molecules experience intermolecular forces of attraction and repulsion (at low temperatures)

But at lower temperatures, the pressure of gases is less than that of an ideal gas.

- At the lower temperatures, the gas atoms spend more time interacting with each other and less time colliding with the walls, making the actual pressure less than that predicted by the ideal gas law.

Real Gases

Intermolecular Forces

gas → weak
 Liquid → moderate
 Solid → strong

The higher the normal boiling point of the liquid, the stronger the intermolecular attractive forces.

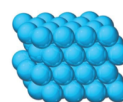
The strength of the attractions between the particles of a substance determines its state (e.g., gas, liquid, solid).

- At room temperature, moderate to strong attractive forces result in materials being solids or liquids.
- The stronger the attractive forces are, the higher the boiling point of the liquid and the melting point of the solid will be.

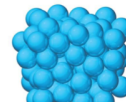
Solids

Regular ordered structure

No long-range order



Crystalline solid



Amorphous solid

- **Dispersion forces** have the following characteristics:
 - They are the weakest of the intermolecular attractions.
 - They are present in all molecules and atoms.
 - Their magnitude increases with molar mass.
- **Polar molecules**
 - have dipole-dipole attractive forces.
 - The permanent dipole adds to the attractive forces, raising Boiling Point and melting points (similar shape, size)
- **Hydrogen bonds** are
 - a type of dipole-dipole interaction.
 - the strongest of the intermolecular attractive forces a pure substance can have.
 - present when a molecule has H directly bonded to either O, N, or F atoms.
 - The only example of H bonded to F is HF.
 - Hydrogen bonds mean higher boiling points
- **Ion-dipole attractions** are
 - present in mixtures of ionic compounds with polar molecules.
 - the strongest of the intermolecular attractions.
 - especially important in aqueous solutions of ionic compounds.
 - Like dissolves like
- **Immiscible Liquids** - only similar compounds mix.
- If non-polar look at atomic mass

Surface Tension, Viscosity and Capillary Action

ST

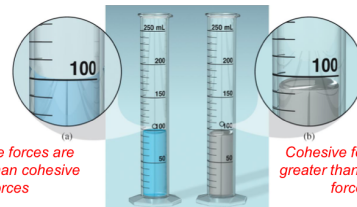
- Surface tension is a property of liquids that results from the tendency of liquids to minimize their surface area.
- The surface tension of a liquid is the energy required to increase the surface area a given amount.
- Stronger the intermolecular attractive forces, higher the surface tension

Vis

- **Viscosity** is the resistance of a liquid to flow.
- Larger intermolecular attractions = larger viscosity

Cap

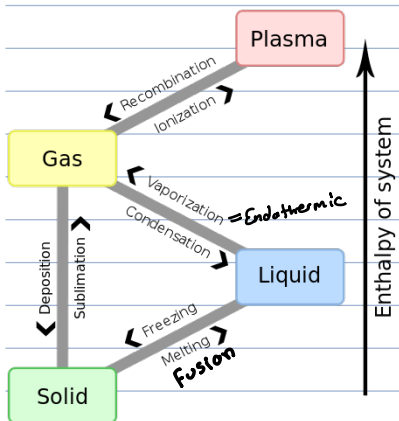
- **Capillary action** is the ability of a liquid to flow up a thin tube against the influence of gravity.
- Uses adhesive forces (pull up the tube) and cohesive forces (holds molecules to forces)



Adhesive forces are greater than cohesive forces

Cohesive forces are greater than adhesive forces

Phase Changes



Effect of Intermolecular Attraction on Vaporization and Condensation

- The weaker the attractive forces between molecules, the less energy the molecules will need to vaporize.
- Also, weaker attractive forces means that more energy will need to be removed from the vapor molecules before they can condense.
- The net result will be more molecules in the vapor phase and a liquid that evaporates faster; the weaker the attractive forces, the faster the rate of evaporation.
- Liquids that evaporate easily are said to be **volatile**.
 - Examples: gasoline and fingernail polish remover
- Liquids that do not evaporate easily are called **nonvolatile**.
 - Example: motor oil

heat of vaporization, ΔH_{vap} (always +)

Vapor Pressure

- The pressure exerted by the vapor when it is in dynamic equilibrium with its liquid is called the **vapor pressure**.
- The weaker the attractive forces between the molecules, the more molecules will be in the vapor. Therefore,
 - the weaker the attractive forces, the higher the vapor pressure.
 - the higher the vapor pressure, the more volatile the liquid.

• As temp increases, the vapor pressure increases

Boiling Point

- when vapor pressure is equal to atm.
- its an exponential relation
- Depends on altitude

Clausius-Clapeyron

• vapor pressure and temp

$$\ln \frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{-\Delta H_{vap}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)$$

$R = 8.314$

• Can predict vapor pressure if you know ΔH and boiling point. VP at norm BP = 1 atm

Sublimation and Fusion

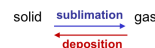
Molecules in the solid state have thermal energy that allows them to vibrate.

Surface molecules with sufficient energy may break free from the surface and become a gas. This process is called **sublimation**.

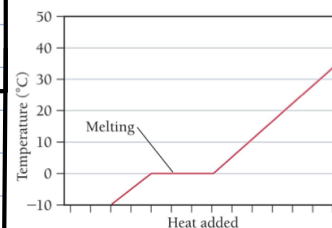
The capturing of vapor molecules into a solid is called **deposition**.

The solid and vapor phases exist in dynamic equilibrium in a closed container at temperatures below the melting point.

- Therefore, molecular solids have a vapor pressure.



Heating Curve of a Solid



Heating Curve for Water

