

# **HONORS CHEM**

## **1<sup>st</sup> Semester**

### **Reference Sheets**

**Please be understanding if any of these reference sheets change, I am attempting to predict what we will cover and use for the entire school year...this is my best guess!**

**Contains Reference Sheets for the following chapters.**

- Unit 1 – Chemistry Basics and Atomic Structure
- Unit 2 – Nuclear Chemistry
- Unit 3 – Electrons
- Unit 4 – Periodic Table
- Unit 5 – Bonding and Structure
- Unit 6 – Reactions
- Unit 7 – Stoichiometry

***Units 8-14 are in a separate Reference Sheet photocopy packet.***



**Reference Sheets for**  
**Unit #1 – Chemistry Basics and**  
**Atomic Structure**



## Dougherty Valley HS Chemistry

### Chemistry Reference – Do Not Misplace!

#### Scientific Notation

Used to express a very large or very small number.

Move the decimal place to the right or to the left to produce a number between 1 and 10.

If you move the decimal to the right, your exponent will be negative.

If you move the decimal to the left, your exponent will be positive.

Adding and Subtracting numbers that are expressed in scientific notation require you to change the numbers so that they have the same exponents, you can do this by moving the decimal around a bit. You can also just use your calculator to add or subtract these numbers.

Multiplying numbers in scientific notation requires you to multiply the first factors then add the exponents.

Dividing numbers in scientific notation requires you to divide the first factors then subtract the exponents.

#### Dimensional Analysis

Dimensional analysis is a problem solving method that uses conversion factors.

A conversion factor is a ratio of equivalent values. For example; 1000m/1km

In solving dimensional analysis problems you always set the value you want over the value you already have. (What you want over what you got!)

You will cancel units and multiply to achieve your final value.

#### Accuracy and Precision

Accuracy refers to how close a measured value is to an accepted value.

Precision refers to how close a series of measurements are to one another.

Percent error is the ratio of an error to an accepted value.

Percent error =  $\text{error/accepted value} \times 100$  and should be expressed as a percentage.

It is irrelevant if the experimental value is larger or smaller than the accepted value.

#### Significant Figures

Significant figures include all known digits plus one estimated digit.

Non-zero numbers are always significant.

Zeros between non-zero numbers are always significant.

All final zeros to the right of the decimal place are significant.

Zeros that act, as placeholders are not significant.

Counting numbers and defined constants have an infinite number of significant figures.

#### Rounding Numbers

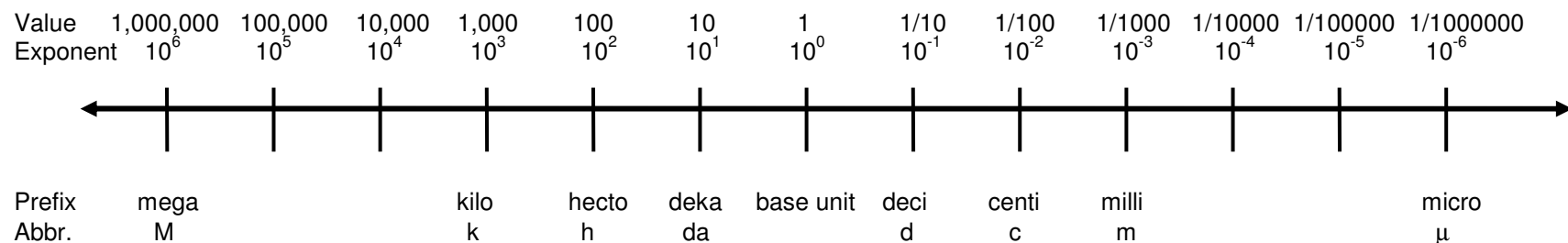
If the remainder *beyond the last digit* to be reported is less than 5, drop the last digit.

Rounding to one decimal place, the number 5.3467 becomes 5.3.

If the remainder is greater than 5, increase the final digit by 1. The number 5.798 becomes 5.8 if rounding to 1 digit.

To prevent rounding bias, if the remainder is exactly 5, then round the last digit to the closest even number. Thus the number 3.55 (rounded to 1 digit) would be 3.6 (rounding up) and the number 6.450 would round to 6.4 (rounding down) *if rounding to 1 decimal*.

## Metric Units and Conversions



### Working with quantities that are not in Scientific Notation

1. Find the prefix with which you are beginning. If the unit has no prefix attached, you are beginning with the “base unit” at  $10^0$ .
2. Find the prefix for the answer you are seeking. If the unit has no prefix attached, you are converting to the “base unit” at  $10^0$ .
3. Count the number of places on the number line to get from where you are starting to where you are finishing.
4. Now, move the decimal in the number you are converting that same number of places, and in the same direction that you moved on the number line above (if you moved left three spaces, you move the decimal left three spaces to complete the conversion).

Example: Convert 0.035 decimeters (dm) to millimeters (mm)

Solution: The prefix “milli” is two places (two powers of ten) to the right of the prefix “deci.” Move the decimal two places to the right.

Answer: 0.035 dm = 3.5 mm

### Working with numbers that are in Scientific Notation

1. Find the prefix with which you are beginning. If the unit has no prefix attached, you are beginning with the “base unit” at  $10^0$ .
2. Find the prefix for the answer you are seeking. If the unit has no prefix attached, you are converting to the “base unit” at  $10^0$ .
3. Count the number of places on the number line to get from where you are starting to where you are finishing.
4. If you moved to the right on the line, add the number of spaces to the exponent on 10.
5. If you moved to the left, subtract the number of spaces from the exponent on 10.

Example: Convert  $1.35 \times 10^2$  centigrams (cg) to kilograms (kg)

Solution: The prefix “kilo” is five places (five powers of ten) to the left of the prefix “centi.” Subtract five from the exponent.

Answer:  $1.35 \times 10^2$  centigrams =  $1.35 \times 10^{2-5}$  kilograms =  $1.35 \times 10^{-3}$  kg

## Significant Figures in Measurement and Calculations

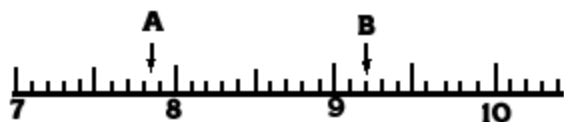
A successful chemistry student habitually labels all numbers, because the unit is important. Also of great importance is the number itself. Any number used in a calculation should contain only figures that are considered reliable; otherwise, time and effort are wasted. Figures that are considered reliable are called *significant figures*. Chemical calculations involve numbers representing actual measurements. In a measurement, significant figures in a number consist of:

Figures (digits) definitely known + One estimated figure (digit)

In class you will hear this expressed as "all of the digits known for certain plus one that is a guess."

### Recording Measurements

When one reads an instrument (ruler, thermometer, graduate, buret, barometer, balance), he expresses the reading as one which is reasonably reliable. For example, in the accompanying illustration, note the



reading marked A. This reading is definitely beyond the 7 cm mark and also beyond the 0.8 cm mark. We read the 7.8 with certainty. We further *estimate* that the reading is five-tenths the distance from the 7.8 mark to the 7.9 mark. So, we estimate the length as 0.05 cm more than 7.8 cm. All of these have meaning

and are therefore significant. We express the reading as 7.85 cm, accurate to three significant figures. All of these figures, 7.85, can be used in calculations. In reading B we see that 9.2 cm is definitely known. We can include one estimated digit in our reading, and we estimate the next digit to be zero. Our reading is reported as 9.20 cm. It is accurate to three significant figures.

### Rules for Zeros

If a zero represents a measured quantity, it is a significant figure. If it merely locates the decimal point, it is not a significant figure.

**Zero Within a Number.** In reading the measurement 9.04 cm, the zero represents a measured quantity, just as 9 and 4, and is, therefore, a significant number. A zero between any of the other digits in a number is a significant figure.

**Zero at the Front of a Number.** In reading the measurement 0.46 cm, the zero does not represent a measured quantity, but merely locates the decimal point. It is not a significant figure. Also, in the measurement 0.07 kg, the zeros are used merely to locate the decimal point and are, therefore, not significant. Zeros at the first (left) of a number are not significant figures.

**Zero at the End of a Number.** In reading the measurement 11.30 cm, the zero is an estimate and represents a measured quantity. It is therefore significant. Another way to look at this: The zero is not needed as a placeholder, and yet it was included by the person recording the measurement. It must have been recorded as a part of the measurement, making it significant. Zeros to the right of the decimal point, and at the end of the number, are significant figures.

**Zeros at the End of a Whole Number.** Zeros at the end of a whole number may or may not be significant. If a distance is reported as 1600 feet, one assumes two sig figs. Reporting measurements in scientific notation removes all doubt, since all numbers written in scientific notation are considered significant.

1 600 feet	$1.6 \times 10^3$ feet	Two significant figures
1 600 feet	$1.60 \times 10^3$ feet	Three significant figures
1 600 feet	$1.600 \times 10^3$ feet	Four significant figures

**Sample Problem #1:** Underline the significant figures in the following numbers.

(a) 0.0420 cm	answer = 0.0 <u>420</u> cm	(e) 2 403 ft.	answer = <u>2 403</u> ft.
(b) 5.320 in.	answer = <u>5.320</u> in.	(f) 80.5300 m	answer = <u>80.5300</u> m
(c) 10 lb.	answer = <u>10</u> lb.	(g) 200. g	answer = <u>200</u> g
(d) 0.020 ml	answer = 0.0 <u>20</u> ml	(h) $2.4 \times 10^3$ kg	answer = <u>2.4</u> $\times 10^3$ kg

### Rounding Off Numbers

In reporting a numerical answer, one needs to know how to "round off" a number to include the correct number of significant figures. Even in a series of operations leading to the final answer, one must "round off" numbers. The rules are well accepted rules:

1. If the figure to be dropped is less than 5, simply eliminate it.
2. If the figure to be dropped is greater than 5, eliminate it and raise the preceding figure by 1.
3. If the figure is 5, followed by nonzero digits, raise the preceding figure by 1
4. If the figure is 5, not followed by nonzero digit(s), and preceded by an odd digit, raise the preceding digit by one
5. If the figure is 5, not followed by nonzero digit(s), and the preceding significant digit is even, the preceding digit remains unchanged

**Sample Problem #2:** Round off the following to three significant figures.

- |               |                  |               |                   |
|---------------|------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| (a) 3.478 m   | answer = 3.48 m  | (c) 5.333 g   | answer = 5.33 g   |
| (b) 4.8055 cm | answer = 4.81 cm | (d) 7.999 in. | answer = 8.00 in. |

### **Multiplication**

In multiplying two numbers, when you wish to determine the number of significant figures you should have in your answer (the product), you should inspect the numbers multiplied and find which has the least number of significant figures. This is the number of significant figures you should have in your answer (the product). Thus the answer to  $0.024 \times 1244$  would be rounded off to contain two significant figures since the factor with the lesser number of significant figures (0.024) has only *two* such figures.

**Sample Problem #3:** Find the area of a rectangle 2.1 cm by 3.24 cm.

Solution: Area =  $2.1 \text{ cm} \times 3.24 \text{ cm} = 6.804 \text{ cm}^2$

We note that 2.1 contains two significant figures, while 3.24 contains three significant figures. Our product should contain no more than *two* significant figures. Therefore, our answer would be recorded as  $6.8 \text{ cm}^2$

**Sample Problem #4:** Find the volume of a rectangular solid 10.2 cm x 8.24 cm x 1.8 cm

Solution: Volume =  $10.2 \text{ cm} \times 8.24 \text{ cm} \times 1.8 \text{ cm} = 151.2864 \text{ cm}^3$

We observe that the factor having the least number of significant figures is 1.8 cm. It contains two significant figures. Therefore, the answer is rounded off to  $150 \text{ cm}^3$ .

### **Division**

In dividing two numbers, the answer (quotient) should contain the same number of significant figures as are contained in the number (divisor or dividend) with the least number of significant figures. Thus the answer to  $528 \div 0.14$  would be rounded off to contain *two* significant figures. The answer to  $0.340 \div 3242$  would be rounded off to contain three significant figures.

**Sample Problem #5:** Calculate  $20.45 \div 2.4$

Solution:  $20.45 \div 2.4 = 8.52083$

We note that the 2.4 has fewer significant figures than the 20.45. It has only *two* significant figures. Therefore, our answer should have no more than two significant figures and should be reported as 8.5.

### **Addition and Subtraction**

In adding (or subtracting), set down the numbers, being sure to keep like decimal places under each other, and add (or subtract). Next, note which column contains the first estimated figure. This column determines the last decimal place of the answer. After the answer is obtained, it should be rounded off in this column. In other words, round to the least number of decimal places in your data.

**Sample Problem #6:** Add  $42.56 \text{ g} + 39.460 \text{ g} + 4.1 \text{ g}$

Solution:

	42.56 g
	39.460 g
	<u>4.1 g</u>
Sum =	86.120 g

Since the number 4.1 only extends to the first decimal place, the answer must be rounded to the first decimal place, yielding the answer 86.1 g.

### **Average Readings**

The average of a number of successive readings will have the same number of decimal places that are in their sum.

**Sample Problem #7:** A graduated cylinder was weighed three times and the recorded weighings were 12.523 g, 12.497 g, 12.515 g. Calculate the average weight.

Solution:

12.523 g
12.497 g
<u>12.515 g</u>
37.535 g

In order to find the average, the sum is divided by 3 to give an answer of 12.51167. Since each number extends to three decimal places, the final answer is rounded to three decimal places, yielding a final answer of 12.512 g. Notice that the divisor of 3 does not effect the rounding of the final answer. This is because 3 is an exact number - known to an infinite number of decimal places.



# Common English and Metric Conversions Chart

American Linear Units				American to Metric Units				American Capacity				
12 inches (in)		1 foot (ft)		1 inch		2.540 centimeters		8 fluid ounces (fl oz)		1 cup		
3 feet		1 yard (yd)		1 foot		0.305 meters		16 fluid ounces		2 cups		
36 inches		1 yard		1 yard		0.914 meters		2 cups		1 pint (pt)		
63,360 inches		1 mile (mi)		1 mile		1.609 kilometers		16 fluid ounces		1 pint		
5,280 feet		1 mile		1 gallon		3.78 Liters		2 pints		1 quart (qt)		
1,760 yards		1 mile		1 quart		0.95 Liter		4 quarts		1 gallon		
				1 pound		0.45 kilogram		8 pints		1 gallon		
Weight and Mass				1 ounce		28.35 grams		32 fluid ounces		1 quart		
1 Ton (T)		2,000 pounds		1 fluid ounce		29.57 mL		8 fluid dram		1 fluid ounce		
1 pound (lb)		16 ounces (oz)		1 grain		60 milligrams (mg)		3 teaspoon (tsp)		1 tablespoon (tbsp)		
1 Ton		32,000 ounces		1 teaspoon (tsp)		5 mL		6 teaspoon		1 fluid ounce		
1 metric ton (t)		1000 kg		1 fluid dram		4 mL		2 tablespoon		1 fluid ounce		
60 grains		1 dram		1 tablespoon (tbsp)		15 mL		1 drop (gtt)		1 minim		
				1 pint (pt)		500 mL (approx)		60 drop		1 fluid dram		
Larger unit → smaller unit		Multiply		1 quart (qt)		1000 mL (approx)		60 drop		1 teaspoon		
smaller unit → Larger unit		Divide		1 pound (lb)		453.6 g		60 minims		1 fluid dram		
Metric Units												
mega (M)	*	*	kilo (k)	hector (h)	deka (da)	unit (m, g, L)	deci (d)	centi (c)	milli (m)	*	*	micro (mc) (u)
When going from larger unit to smaller unit move decimal to the right												
When going from smaller unit to larger unit move decimal to the left												
Time				Metric to American Units				Temperature Formulas				
1 day		24 hours		1 km		0.621 miles		$C = \frac{(F - 32)}{1.8}$		$F = 1.8 \cdot C + 32$		
1 hour (hr)		60 minutes (min)		1 meter		1.094 yards						
1 minute		60 seconds (sec)		1 meter		3.281 feet						
1 year (yr)		365.25 days		1 meter		39.370 inches						
1 week		7 days		1 cm		0.3937 inch		Medical Application (Micrograms)				
1 year		12 months (mon)		1 Liter		0.26 gallon		1,000,000 micrograms (mcg)		1 gram		
1440 minutes		1 day		1 Liter		1.06 quarts		1,000,000 micrograms		1,000 mg		
3600 seconds		1 hour		1 kg		2.20 lbs		1 mL = 1 cc = 1 cm <sup>3</sup>				
				1 gram		0.035 oz		1 gram = 1 cm <sup>3</sup>				
Stones				1 gram		15 grains		Nursing students 1fl oz = 30 mL				
1 carat (karat)		200 mg		1 milliliter (mL)		15 minims		Nursing students 1 in. = 2.5 cm				



## Significant Figures with Scientific Notation Addition and Subtraction

Speaking realistically, the problems discussed below can all be done on a calculator. However, you need to know how to enter values into the calculator, read your calculator screen, and round off to the proper number of significant figures. Your calculator will not do these things for you.

All exponents MUST BE THE SAME before you can add and subtract numbers in scientific notation. The actual addition or subtraction will take place with the numerical portion, NOT the exponent.

The student might wish to re-read the above two sentences with emphasis on the emphasized portions.

It might be advisable to point out again - DO NOT, under any circumstances, add the exponents.

Example #1:  $1.00 \times 10^3 + 1.00 \times 10^2$

A good rule to follow is to express all numbers in the problem in the highest power of ten.

Convert  $1.00 \times 10^2$  to  $0.10 \times 10^3$ , then add:

$$\begin{array}{r} 1.00 \times 10^3 \\ + 0.10 \times 10^3 \\ = 1.10 \times 10^3 \end{array}$$

Example #2: The significant figure issue is sometimes obscured when numbers are in scientific notation. For example, add the following four numbers:

$$(4.56 \times 10^6) + (2.98 \times 10^5) + (3.65 \times 10^4) + (7.21 \times 10^3)$$

When the four numbers are written in the highest power, we get:

$$\begin{array}{r} 4.56 \quad \times 10^6 \\ 0.298 \quad \times 10^6 \\ 0.0365 \quad \times 10^6 \\ + 0.00721 \times 10^6 \\ = 4.90171 \times 10^6 \end{array}$$

The answer upon adding must be rounded to 2 significant figures to the right of the decimal point, thus giving  $4.90 \times 10^6$  as the correct answer.

Generally speaking, you can simply enter the numbers into the calculator and let the calculator keep track of where the decimal portion is. However, you must then round off the answer to the correct number of significant figures.

Lastly, be warned about using the calculator. Students often push buttons without understanding the math behind what they are doing. Then, when the teacher questions their work, they say "Well, that's what the calculator said!" As if the calculator is to blame for the wrong answer. Remember, it is your brain that must be in charge and it is you that will get the points deducted for poor work, not the calculator.

### Practice Problems

1)  $(4.52 \times 10^{-5}) + (1.24 \times 10^{-2}) + (3.70 \times 10^{-4}) + (1.74 \times 10^{-3})$

2)  $(2.71 \times 10^6) - (5.00 \times 10^4)$

Reminder: you must have the same exponent on each number of the problem.



# **Reference Sheets for Unit #2 – Nuclear Chemistry**



## Nuclear Decay Organizer

*Students know* the three most common forms of radioactive decay (alpha, beta, and gamma) and know how the nucleus changes in each type of decay.

*Students know* alpha, beta, and gamma radiation produce different amounts and kinds of damage in matter and have different penetrations.

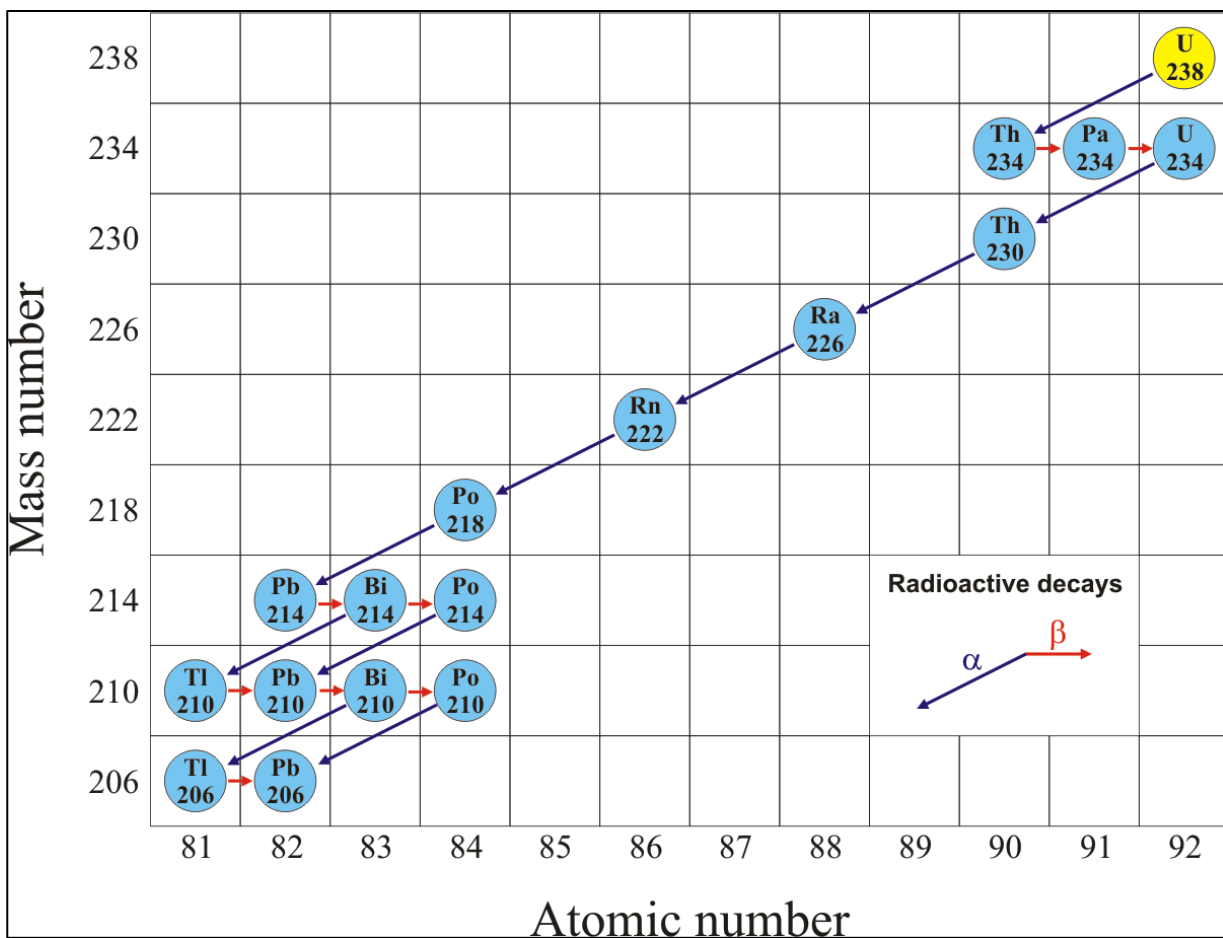
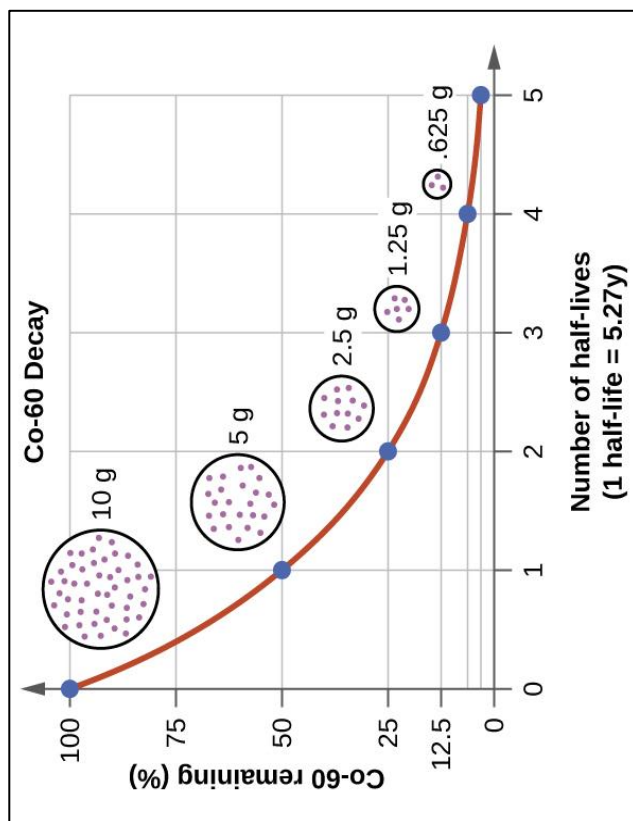
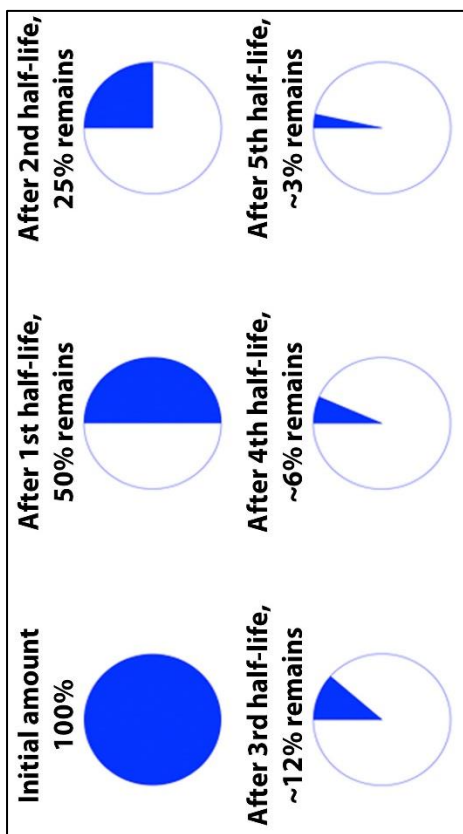
*Students know* some naturally occurring isotopes of elements are radioactive, as are isotopes formed in nuclear reactions.

	Alpha Particle Emission	Beta Particle Emission	Gamma Ray Emission
<b>Symbol</b>	${}^4_2\text{He}^{2+}$ or ${}^4_2\alpha^{2+}$	${}^0_{-1}e$ or ${}^0_{-1}\beta$	${}^0_0\gamma$
<b>Mass</b>	Heavy	Light	No Mass
<b>How it changes the nucleus</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Decreases the mass number by 4</li> <li>Decreases the atomic number by 2</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Converts a neutron into a proton</li> <li>Increases atomic number by 1</li> </ul>	No change to the nucleus
<b>Penetration</b>	Low	Medium	High
<b>Protection provided by...</b>	Skin	Paper, clothing	Lead
<b>Danger</b>	Low	Medium	High





# Nuclear Info Sheet



# Nuclear Info Sheet

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## Half Life Equation

$$A_E = A_S \times 0.5^n$$

$A_E$  = amount ending

$A_S$  = amount starting

$n$  = number of half lives

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## # of Half Lives

$$n = \frac{t}{h}$$

$n$  = number of half-lives

$t$  = time that has passed

$h$  = length of a half life

---

## % still radioactive or % decayed

$$\%_{\text{still r.a.}} = \frac{A_E}{A_S} \times 100$$

$A_E$  = amount ending

$A_S$  = amount starting

$n$  = number of half lives

$$\%_{\text{still r.a.}} = 0.5^n \times 100$$

$$\%_{\text{decayed}} = 100 - \%_{\text{still r.a.}}$$

---

## Solving for t, or h

*Same as this version:*

$$\log\left(\frac{A_E}{A_S}\right) = n \times \log(0.5)$$

$$\log\left(\frac{A_E}{A_S}\right) = \frac{t}{h} \times \log(0.5)$$

Simply isolate the variable you are trying to solve for

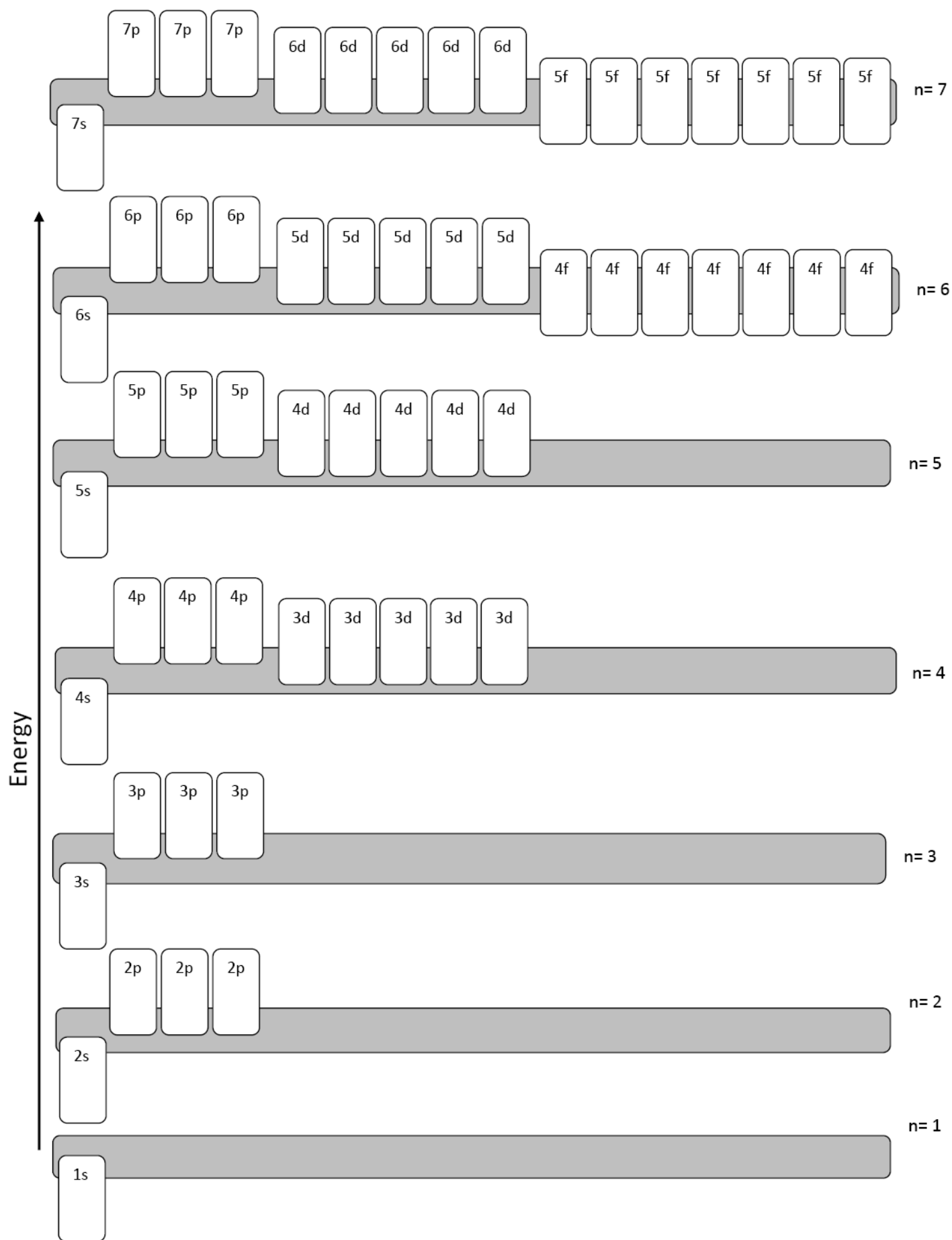
$$t = \frac{h \times \log\left(\frac{A_E}{A_S}\right)}{\log(0.5)}$$

$$h = \frac{t \times \log(0.5)}{\log\left(\frac{A_E}{A_S}\right)}$$

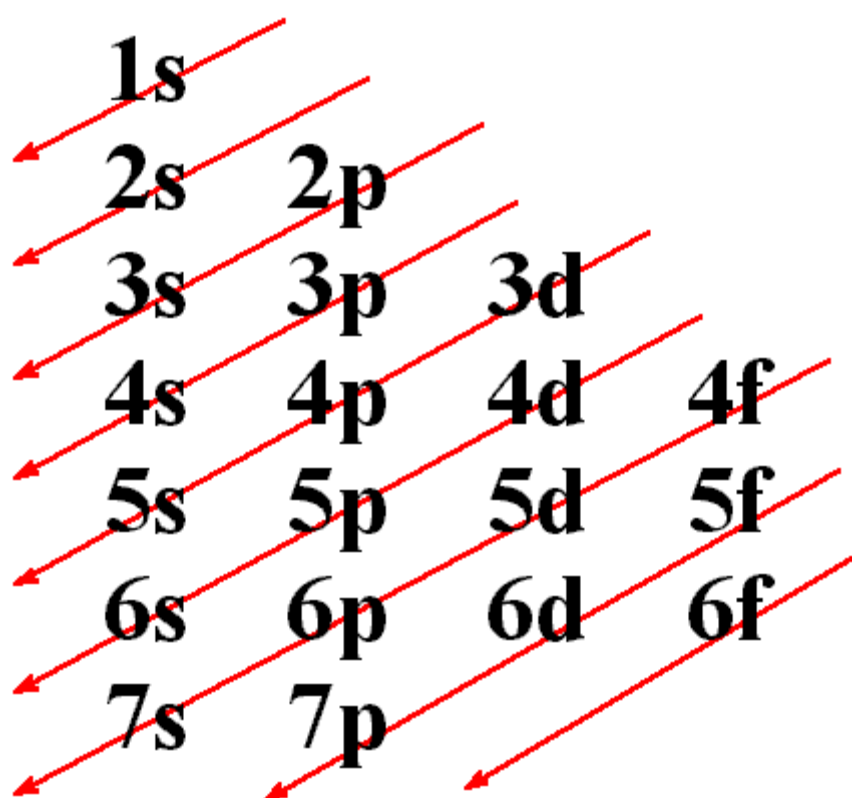
# **Reference Sheets for Unit #3 – Electrons**



# Orbital Diagram



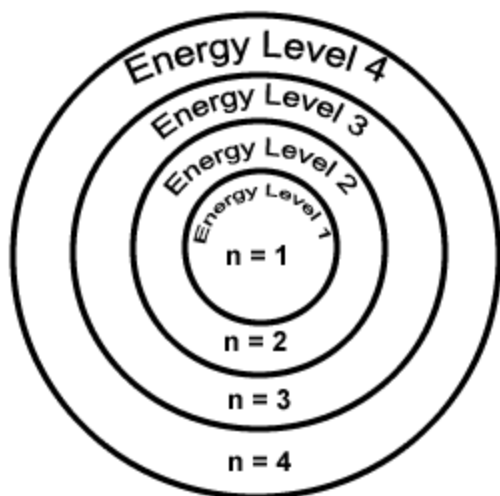
## Order of Orbital Filling



## Electron Orbitals

**Quantum Numbers** specify the properties of atomic orbitals and the properties of the electrons in orbitals

**Orbitals** are regions inside an energy level where the probability of finding an electron is very high.



Principal Quantum Number ( $n$ )	Sublevels in main energy level ( $n$ sublevels)	Number of orbitals ( $n^2$ )	Number of electrons per sublevel	Number of electrons per main energy level ( $2n^2$ )
1	s	1	2	2
2	s	1	2	8
	p	3	6	
3	s	1	2	18
	p	3	6	
	d	5	10	
4	s	1	2	32
	p	3	6	
	d	5	10	
	f	7	14	

- A. Principal Quantum Number ( $n$ )
  1. Indicates the main energy levels occupied by the electron
  2. Values of  $n$  are positive integers
    - a.  $n=1$  is closest to the nucleus, and lowest in energy
  3. The number of orbitals possible per energy level (or "shell") is equal to  $n^2$
- B. Angular Momentum Quantum Number
  1. Indicates the shape of the orbital
  2. Number of orbital shapes =  $n$ 
    - a. Shapes are designated  $s, p, d, f$
- C. Spin Quantum Number
  1. Indicates the fundamental spin states of an electron in an orbital
  2. Two possible values for spin,  $+1/2, -1/2$
  3. A single orbital can contain only two electrons, which must have opposite spin

## Electron Configurations

1. Aufbau Principle
  - a. An electron occupies the lowest-energy orbital that can receive it
2. Hund's Rule
  - a. Orbitals of equal energy are each occupied by one electron before any orbital is occupied by a second electron, and all electrons in singly occupied orbitals must have the same spin
3. Octet
  - a. Highest energy level *s* and *p* electrons are filled (8 electrons)
  - b. Characteristic of noble gases, Group 18
4. Noble gas configuration
  - a. Outer main energy level fully occupied, usually (except for He) by eight electrons
  - b. This configuration has extra stability

Element	Configuration notation	Orbital notation	Noble gas notation
Lithium	$1s^2 2s^1$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^1$
Beryllium	$1s^2 2s^2$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^2$
Boron	$1s^2 2s^2 p^1$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^2 p^1$
Carbon	$1s^2 2s^2 p^2$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^2 p^2$
Nitrogen	$1s^2 2s^2 p^3$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^2 p^3$
Oxygen	$1s^2 2s^2 p^4$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^2 p^4$
Fluorine	$1s^2 2s^2 p^5$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^2 p^5$
Neon	$1s^2 2s^2 p^6$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} & \underline{\hspace{1cm}} \\ 1s & 2s & & 2p & \end{array}$	$[\text{He}] 2s^2 p^6$



# **Reference Sheets for Unit #4 – Periodic Table**



# Periodic Table Structure Info Sheet

**Periods (rows) →**

**Mendeleev** – Organized PT based on atomic masses & properties (almost right...)

**Groups (columns) ↑**

**Moseley** – Organized PT based on atomic numbers (the way we do it now!)

**Three classes of elements:** Metals, non-metals, metalloids/semi-metals

1 H 1.008	2 He 4.003																	3 Li 6.941	4 Be 9.012	5 B 10.81	6 C 12.01	7 N 14.01	8 O 16.00	9 F 18.99	10 Ne 20.18																										
11 Na 22.99	12 Mg 24.31																	13 Al 26.98	14 Si 28.09	15 P 30.97	16 S 32.07	17 Cl 35.45	18 Ar 39.95																												
19 K 39.10	20 Ca 40.08	21 Sc 44.96	22 Ti 47.88	23 V 50.94	24 Cr 52.00	25 Mn 54.94	26 Fe 55.85	27 Co 58.93	28 Ni 58.69	29 Cu 63.55	30 Zn 65.38	31 Ga 69.72	32 Ge 72.64	33 As 74.92	34 Se 78.96	35 Br 79.90	36 Kr 83.80	37 Rb 85.47	38 Sr 87.62	39 Y 88.91	40 Zr 91.22	41 Nb 92.91	42 Mo 95.94	43 Tc 98.91	44 Ru 101.07	45 Rh 102.91	46 Pd 106.42	47 Ag 107.87	48 Cd 112.41	49 In 114.82	50 Sn 118.71	51 Sb 121.76	52 Te 127.60	53 I 126.91	54 Xe 131.29																
55 Cs 132.91	56 Ba 137.33	* Lanthanide series																71 Lu 174.97	72 Hf 178.49	73 Ta 180.95	74 W 183.84	75 Re 186.21	76 Os 190.23	77 Ir 192.22	78 Pt 195.08	79 Au 196.97	80 Hg 200.59	81 Tl 204.38	82 Pb 207.2	83 Bi 208.98	84 Po 209	85 At 210	86 Rn 222	87 Fr 223	88 Ra 226	* Actinide series															
89 La 138.91	90 Ce 140.12	91 Pr 140.91	92 Nd 144.24	93 Pm 144.91	94 Sm 150.36	95 Eu 151.96	96 Gd 157.25	97 Tb 158.93	98 Dy 162.50	99 Ho 164.93	100 Er 167.26	101 Tm 168.93	102 Yb 173.05	103 Lu 174.97																																					
104 Th 232.04	105 Pa 231.04	106 U 238.03	107 Np 237.05	108 Pu 244.06	109 Am 243.06	110 Cm 247.07	111 Bk 247.07	112 Cf 251.08	113 Es 252.08	114 Fm 257.10	115 Md 258.10	116 No 259.10	117 Lr 262.11																																						

# Periodic Table Structure Info Sheet

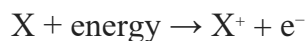
## The Periodic Table of the Elements

[illegible]

# Periodic Trends Info Sheet

## IONIZATION ENERGY

The minimum amount of energy required to remove the most loosely bound electron, the valence electron, of an isolated neutral gaseous atom to form a cation. It is quantitatively expressed in symbols as:

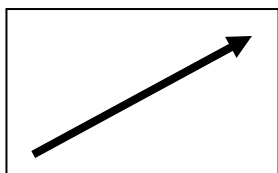


### In other words...

How much energy does it take to take away an electron from an atom?

### Trend

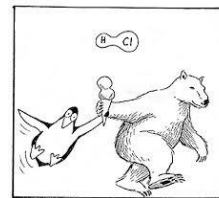
Increases →  
Increases ↑



Highest = Fluorine only higher are Noble Gases (Rn)  
Lowest = Francium

## ELECTRONEGATIVITY

The tendency of an atom to attract a shared pair of electrons (or electron density) towards itself.

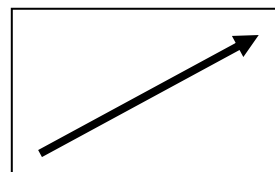


### In other words...

How strong is the atom? How hard can it pull on electrons when sharing them with another atom?

### Trend

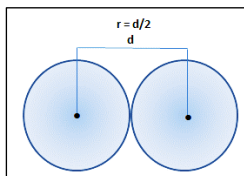
Increases →  
Increases ↑



Highest = Fluorine  
Lowest = Francium only lower are Noble Gases (He)

## ATOMIC RADIUS

Usually the mean or typical distance from the center of the nucleus to the boundary of the surrounding cloud of electrons. Since the boundary is not a well-defined physical entity, there are various non-equivalent definitions of atomic radius.

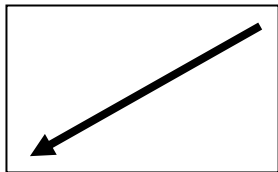


### In other words...

Half the diameter of an atom. Hard to measure because atoms do not have actual tangible edges. Lots of ways to measure it.

### Trend

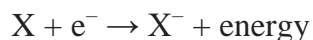
Increases ←  
Increases ↓



Highest = Francium  
Lowest = Helium

## ELECTRON AFFINITY

The amount of energy released\* when an electron is added to one mole of a neutral atom, or molecule, in the gaseous state to form a negative ion. Usually written as a  $\Delta E$  value.

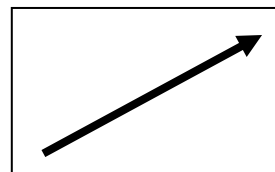


### In other words...

How happy is the atom to gain that new electron?  
Really happy – much more stable, releases lots of energy. Not happy – not as much stability, doesn't release lots of energy.

### Trend

Increases →  
Increases ↑



Highest = Fluorine  
Lowest = Francium only lower are Noble Gases (zero)

\*Some electron affinities are actually positive  $\Delta E$  – meaning energy is absorbed. They are not commonly talked about or used though.

# Periodic Trends Info Sheet

## REACTIVITY

The impetus for which a chemical substance undergoes a chemical reaction, either by itself or with other materials, with an overall release of energy.

### In other words...

How quickly, violently, readily, does an element undergo certain reactions. More reactivity means faster, more violent, easier reaction with lots of energy released.

### Trend

Metals

Increase  $\downarrow \leftarrow$

Non-metals

Increases  $\uparrow \rightarrow$



Highest metal = Francium

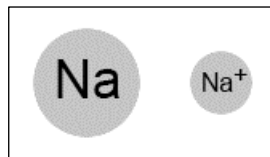
Highest non-metal = Fluorine

Lowest non-metal = Noble gases (He)

## IONIC RADIUS

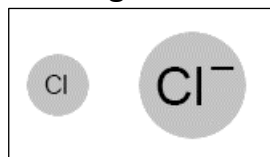
### Cations:

Get smaller when they lose electrons



### Anions:

Get larger when they gain electrons



## EFFECTIVE NUCLEAR CHARGE - $Z_{eff}$

The pull that the nucleus has on electrons

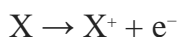
$$Z_{eff} = Z - S$$

$Z$  = # of protons

$S$  = Core/Inner electrons (# of electrons in previous noble gas + any d or f electrons)

## SUBSEQUENT IONIZATIONS

1st ionization energy



2nd ionization energy



3rd ionization energy



Ionization energy increases with each subsequent ionization because there is more attraction between the nucleus and the valence electrons each time you lower the number of valence electrons.

There is a huge leap in ionization energy once an atom loses all its valence electrons because it now looks like a noble gas and really doesn't want to let go of any more electrons!

## SHIELDING

When the inner/core electrons repel the valence electrons and prevents them from seeing the nucleus. Decreases how strongly the electrons are held onto by the nucleus.

## BREAKS IN PATTERNS

There are *many* examples of elements that do not appear to follow the general trends typically described. This can be due to a variety of reasons. Here are two of many reasons why this can happen.

- Half-filled orbitals have slightly more stability than expected

Example: p orbital set:  $\uparrow$   $\uparrow$   $\uparrow$

- Unpairing an electron takes slightly more energy than expected

Example: p orbital set:  $\uparrow\downarrow$   $\uparrow$   $\uparrow$

# Warning...

- Don't over think this stuff.
- You can talk yourself into backwards answers.
- Focus on the fact that there are only a set number of trends to learn.
- Practice explaining each trend until you can do it in your sleep!
- There will ALWAYS be exceptions. Don't worry about that – focus on the pattern and answer questions based on the patterns.

# Warning...

- There is about to be a lot of notes because it takes a lot of words to explain
- You don't need EVERY word written down to understand it.
- Focus on listening and understanding.
- You can add to your notes at home.
- Capture enough to pay attention, leave space to come back and add/annotate.

# Warning...

Make sure you capture:

What

How

Why

Make sure you can tell me:

What

How

Why

## Periodic Trends

The periodic table shows elements from Hydrogen (H) to Oganesson (Og). Trends for atomic radius are indicated by arrows: increasing down and to the left, and decreasing up and to the right.

## Atomic Radius

### ATOMIC RADIUS

What	How
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> the distance between two bonded nuclei</li> <li>• Can't measure to the edge b/c orbitals aren't tangible!</li> </ul>	

### ATOMIC RADIUS

#### Why

#### INCREASES DOWN

- Adding energy levels  
Smaller "effective nuclear charge"
- Inner e- keep valence e- from "feeling" the nucleus
- Outer e-'s are not as pulled in by the protons in the nucleus – there is more "shielding" by the inner electrons

#### DECREASES TO RIGHT

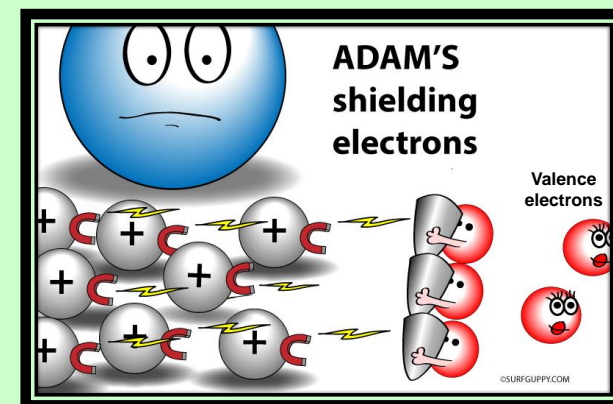
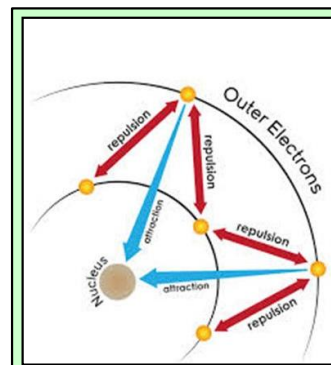
- Adding a proton = bigger change than adding an e-
- More protons pull the valence electrons in closer - "Greater Effective Nuclear Charge"
- No increase in shielding b/c no new energy levels

### Effective Nuclear Charge ( $Z_{eff}$ )

The relative attraction the valence electrons have for the protons in the nucleus

### Shielding Effect

The inner shell electrons repel the outer valence electrons – keeps the valence e- from "feeling" the nucleus. More energy levels - lowers the effective nuclear charge





## Calculating Effective Nuclear Charge

The relative attraction the valence electrons have for the protons in the nucleus

$$Z_{\text{eff}} = Z - S$$

**Z** = nuclear attraction = # protons

**S** = the core/inner e<sup>-</sup> shielding the valence e<sup>-</sup>'s

= the total number of e<sup>-</sup> minus the e<sup>-</sup> in the highest occupied s and p energy levels

= (# of e<sup>-</sup> in previous noble gas + any d or f e<sup>-</sup>'s past the noble gas in the element)

## Calculating Effective Nuclear Charge

$$Z_{\text{eff}} = Z - S$$

### Magnesium

Z = 12 protons

S = Previous noble gas

= Neon = 10 electrons

Z<sub>eff</sub> = 12 - 10 = 2

### Aluminum

Z = 13 protons

S = Previous noble gas

= Neon = 10 electrons

Z<sub>eff</sub> = 13 - 10 = 3

Aluminum is smaller  
– valence electrons  
are pulled in harder  
by the nucleus

## IONIC RADIUS

What	How
The radius of an ion	Cation – always smaller
Cation – lost electrons Anion – gained electrons	Anion – always bigger

## IONIC RADIUS

### Why

#### CATION SMALLER

- Reduced repulsion between electrons
- If you lose enough electrons you even drop down an energy level! Much smaller!

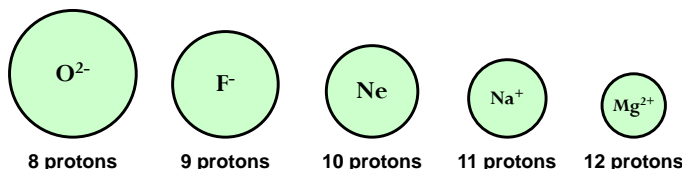
#### ANION LARGER

- Extra valence electrons repel each other a bit more so it gets larger.

## Isoelectric Species

Atoms/Ions that have the same number of e<sup>-</sup>

All these examples are 1s<sup>2</sup>2s<sup>2</sup>2p<sup>6</sup>



Increased protons can pull harder on the valence electrons – greater effective nuclear charge – so the radius is smaller even though they have the same number of electrons and energy levels

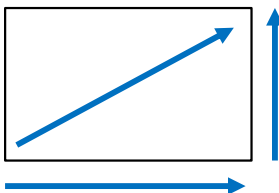
# Ionization Energy

## IONIZATION ENERGY

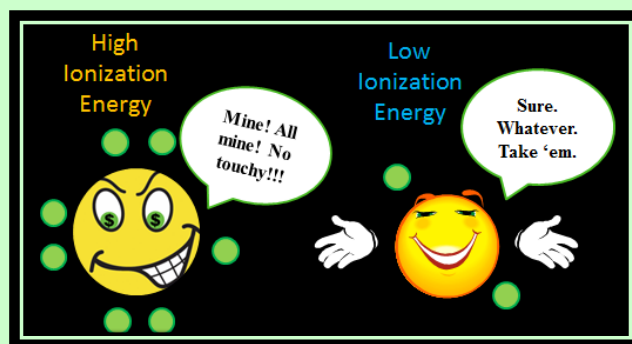
### What

The energy required to remove an electron from a neutral atom of an element

### How



Noble Gases are HIGHEST!  
They REALLY don't want to let go of an e<sup>-</sup>



## IONIZATION ENERGY

### Why

#### DECREASES DOWN

- Electrons are further from nucleus in higher energy levels
- Increased shielding from core e<sup>-</sup> causes nucleus to not pull as hard on valence e<sup>-</sup>
- Lower effective nuclear charge – so they are more easily removed

#### INCREASES TO RIGHT

- Closer to having a full stable valence shell
- Increased effective nuclear charge means nucleus is pulling harder on the valence e<sup>-</sup> so they are harder to remove



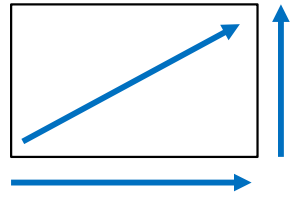
## Subsequent Ionizations

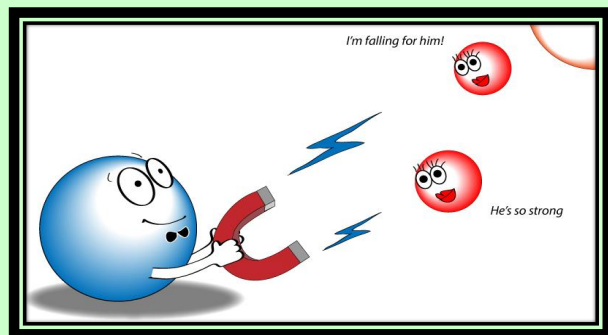
Every time you take an e<sup>-</sup> away it gets harder to take the next one. Radius is getting smaller, so nucleus can pull harder on the valence - harder to remove the next one. HUGE LEAP in I.E. once it's achieved noble gas configuration – why would it want to lose another one?!

Element	IE <sub>1</sub>	IE <sub>2</sub>	IE <sub>3</sub>	IE <sub>4</sub>
Na	496	4560		
Mg	738	1450	7730	
Al	578	1820	2750	11,600

# Electronegativity

## ELECTRONEGATIVITY

What	How
A measure of the ability of an atom in a chemical compound to attract electrons from another atom in the compound	 <p>Noble Gases are LOWEST! They DON'T CARE about attracting electrons!</p>
How strongly can one atom pull on the electrons being shared in a bond.	

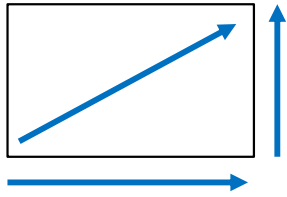


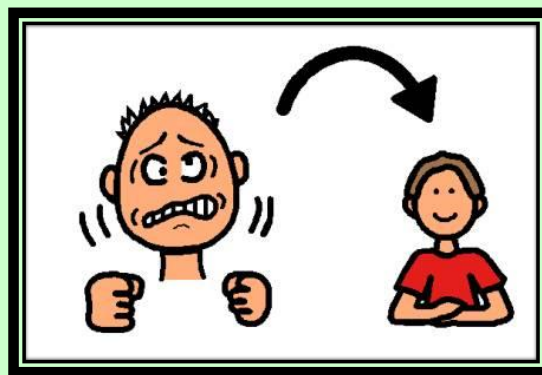
## ELECTRONEGATIVITY

<i>Why</i>	
<b><u>DECREASES DOWN</u></b>	<b><u>INCREASES TO RIGHT</u></b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• e<sup>-</sup> are further from nucleus in higher energy levels</li><li>• Increased shielding from core e<sup>-</sup> causes nucleus to not pull as hard on valence e<sup>-</sup></li><li>• So nucleus doesn't pull as hard on the bonding e<sup>-</sup>'s from another atom</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Smaller radius, increased effective nuclear charge</li><li>• Nucleus is pulling harder on the valence electrons – which is where the bonding is occurring.</li></ul>

# Electron Affinity

## ELECTRON AFFINITY

What	How
How much energy is released when the atom gains an electron to make a negative ion.	 <p>Noble Gases are LOWEST! They DON'T CARE about attracting electrons!</p>
How much stability does it gain once it is an anion. More energy released – more stable.	



## ELECTRON AFFINITY

<i>Why</i>	
<b><u>DECREASES DOWN</u></b>	<b><u>INCREASES TO RIGHT</u></b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Electrons are further from nucleus in higher energy levels</li><li>• Increased shielding from core e-'s causes the nucleus to not pull as hard on valence e-'s</li><li>• So atom doesn't notice as much if it gains an electron – doesn't gain much stability</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Closer to filling valence shell – noble gas configuration is most stable</li></ul>

# Reactivity

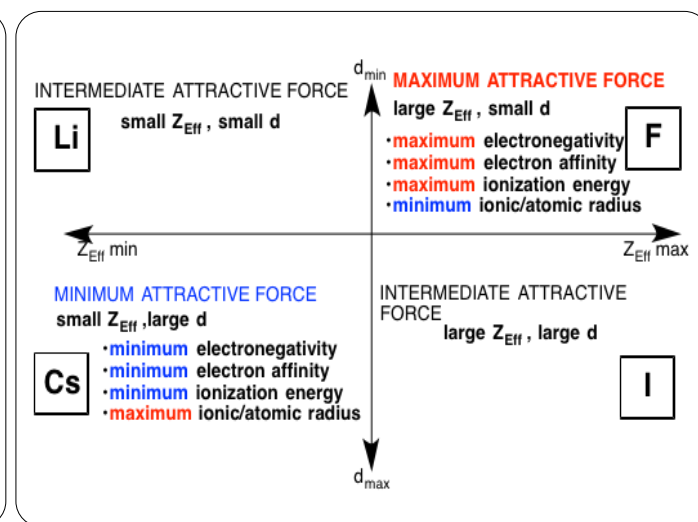
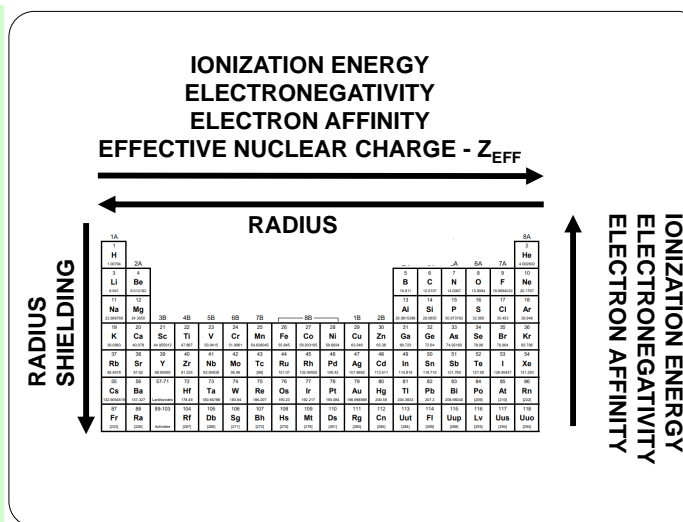
## REACTIVITY

What	How
<p>Elements in the same group have similar types of behaviors <u>because they have the same number of valence e-</u></p> <p>BUT</p> <p>The <b>MAGNITUDE</b> of their reactions changes!</p>	

## REACTIVITY

Why	
<b><u>METALS INCREASE DOWN</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Larger radius and increased shielding means lower ionization energy so it is easier to remove electrons</li></ul>	<b><u>NON-METALS INCREASE UP</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Smaller radius and greater effective nuclear charge means higher electronegativity and electron affinity so it can attract an electron easier</li></ul>

# Summary



Brainiac Video — note: they augmented the reactions, but it is such a fun, silly, memorable video I think it is still worth watching 😊

Disposal of Sodium — old footage from WWII. Neat to see such old footage and how they actually disposed of the sodium after the war!

Quick summary. Also has a quick but good explanation of some exceptions to the trends

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hePb00CqvP0>

# **Reference Sheets for Unit #5 – Bonding and Structure**



## DVHS Chemistry

### Types of Bonds Reader

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#### Directions:

Read this page and take notes and/or annotate it. We will not be doing a traditional lecture on this material because it is mostly review material. There is potentially information in here you may not be familiar with. If you come across anything you do not understand you need to ask about it! At the end there are questions to check that you were able to follow and grasp the material talked about here. These are selections of reading by various people, credit given when possible.

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#### Types of Bonds – by Janet Rae-Dupree, Pat DuPree.

*Edited to suit our purposes here.*

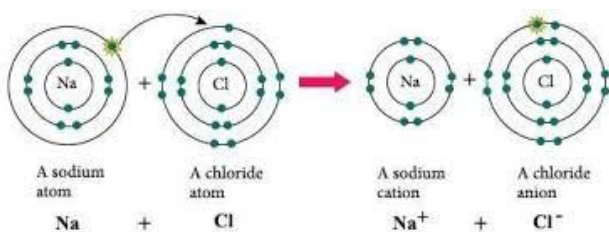
Atoms tend to arrange themselves in the most stable patterns possible, which means they have a tendency to complete or fill their valence shells. They join with other atoms in order to do that. The force that holds atoms together as “molecules” or “compounds” is referred to as a *chemical bond*. There are three main types of bonds, and they each may have some sub categories that are more specific.

#### Ionic Bond – by Janet Rae-Dupree, Pat DuPree.

*Edited to suit our purposes here.*

Ionic bonding involves the transfer of electrons. One atom gains one or more electrons, while another atom loses one or more electrons. The atom that lost an electron carries a negative charge (anion), and the atom that lost an electron carries a positive charge (cation). Because opposite charges attract, the atoms bond together to form a compound. The electrostatic attraction is the “bond.” Ionic bonds are formed when one atom has a low ionization energy (cation, metal) and another atom has a high electron affinity (anion, nonmetal). That essentially results in needing a metal and a non-metal to form an ionic bond.

*Examples: NaBr – sodium is a metal, bromine is a nonmetal. Na turn into  $\text{Na}^+$  and gives its electron to Br which turns into  $\text{Br}^-$*   
 *$\text{MgF}_2$  – magnesium is a metal, fluorine is a nonmetal. Mg turns into  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  and gives two electrons to the fluorine atoms. Each fluorine turns into F so you need two fluorine atoms in order to balance out the +2 charge of the magnesium.*



## Covalent Bond – by Janet Rae-Dupree, Pat DuPree.

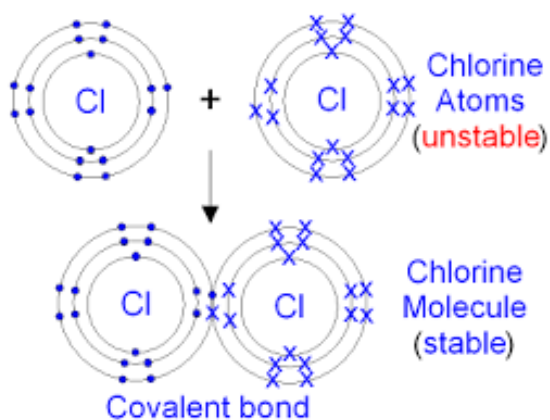
*Edited to suit our purposes here.*

Covalent Bonds involve the sharing of electrons between two atoms. The pair of shared electrons holds the atoms close together and this sharing of electrons is the bond. Covalent bonds form when there is not an atom with a sufficiently low ionization energy to simply “give up” the electron, and the other atom does not have a sufficiently high electronegativity to “steal” the electron completely. That essentially results in needing two (or more) nonmetals to form the bond. One thing to note is that when a covalent bond is formed, neither atom truly has a complete valence shell. It “feels” like it has a full shell due to the sharing, but it doesn’t completely “own” those electrons.

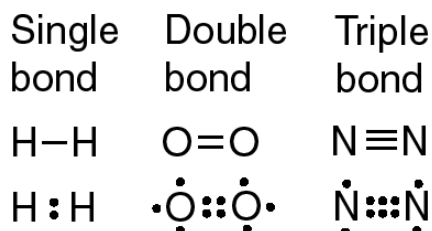
*Examples:  $H_2O$  – each hydrogen and each oxygen*

*“donate” an electron to a shared bond. Both hydrogen and oxygen are nonmetals. They are not strong enough to steal the electron completely from the other atom.*

*$Cl_2$  – Each chlorine only has 7 valence electrons. If they each “donate” one to share then they are tricked into thinking they each have 8 valence electrons.*



Nonmetals can donate one electron each to form a single bond (2 electrons being shared), or they can each donate two electrons to form a double bond (4 electrons being shared), or they can each donate three electrons to form a triple bond (6 electrons being shared).

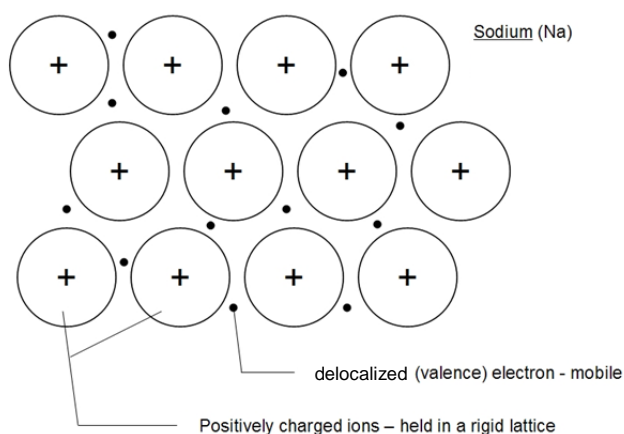


## Metallic Bond –

Metallic bonds form when one or more types of metals are together. The vacant p and/or d orbitals in the metal atoms' outer energy levels overlap, and allow outer valence electrons to move freely through the metal. The valence electrons basically “detach” and float around as a “sea of electrons.” We say that the electrons are “delocalized” and no longer belong to any particular atom. This sea of electrons effect allows the electrons to flow through the material – this is how electricity can be conducted through something like a metal wire. All the delocalized electrons are flowing from one end of the wire to the other because they are not attached to their nuclei anymore. If you have more than one type of metal atom present it is called an “alloy.” These metallic mixtures can form unique properties that can be useful.

*Example: Cu – note: you do not need to include a subscript for metallic materials. It is not practical to tell someone how many atoms are present in a chunk of metal. Because the electrons essentially belong to every atom, it isn't really a molecule or compound in the traditional sense. If you just see a metallic element listed by itself you can assume there are lots present and it is a metallic bond – like Mg, Ag, Cu, Fe*

### Metallic Bonding







Name:

Period:

Seat#:

**Directions:**

Read this page and take notes and/or annotate it. We will not be doing a traditional lecture on this material because it is mostly review material. There is potentially information in here you may not be familiar with. If you come across anything you do not understand you need to ask about it! At the end there are questions to check that you were able to follow and grasp the material talked about here. These are selections of reading by various people, credit given when possible.

**Nomenclature** – *by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry Edited to suit our purposes here.*

A system of rules for naming chemical compounds. The International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) devised the system for naming compounds in order to ensure uniformity, consistency, and avoid ambiguity.

**Ionic Compounds**

For simple binary ionic compounds (ionic compounds composed of one kind of metal and one kind of nonmetal) the cation name comes first and then the anion. Simple *cations* take the name of their element, for example, the name for  $K^+$  would be potassium, and the name for  $Zn^{2+}$  would be Zinc. Elements that form two or more ions need a roman numeral to denote their charge. For example, many transition metals can form ions with different charges, although they will always form cations. For example, copper can form  $Cu^+$  which would be named copper (I), or it can form  $Cu^{2+}$ , which would be named copper (II).

Simple *anions* use the base name of the element, but end in *-ide*. For example,  $F^-$  would be named fluoride, and  $I^-$  would be named iodide.

Put the name of the cation and anion together to name the ionic compound. For example,  $NaCl$  is named sodium chloride.  $ZnS$  is named Zinc sulfide.

Compounds made with polyatomic ions do not change their anion name – keep the special polyatomic names for both cation and anion!  $NH_4I$  is named Ammonium Iodide,  $Li_2CO_3$  is named Lithium carbonate.

*Note: Some stable ions do not have noble gas configurations! Polyatomic Ions (ions with several types of atoms have names that will need to be memorized. Check your Common Ions table for the ions you will be required to memorize.*

## Naming Covalent Molecules – by Eden Francis.

*Edited to suit our purposes here.*

Covalent molecules use a different system for nomenclature. Simple covalent molecules are generally named by using **Greek prefixes** to indicate how many atoms of each element are shown in the formula and the ending of the last element is changed to **-ide**.

The **mono-** prefix is usually not used for the first element in the formula. Some double vowels are omitted to help with ease of pronouncing the molecule name. The "o" and "a" endings of these prefixes commonly are dropped when they are attached to "oxide." See the table below for the Greek prefixes you will need to memorize.

number of atoms	prefix	example	
1	mono	NO	nitrogen monoxide
2	di	NO <sub>2</sub>	nitrogen dioxide
3	tri	N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	dinitrogen trioxide
4	tetra	N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	dinitrogen tetroxide
5	penta	N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	dinitrogen pentoxide
6	hexa	SF <sub>6</sub>	sulphur hexa fluoride
7	hepta	IF <sub>7</sub>	iodine hepta fluoride
8	octa	P <sub>4</sub> O <sub>8</sub>	tetra phosphur decoxide
9	nona	P <sub>4</sub> S <sub>9</sub>	tetra phusphur nona sulphide
10	deca	As <sub>4</sub> O <sub>10</sub>	tetra arsinic decoxide

## Diatomic Molecules

A molecule composed of only two atoms is said to be diatomic. There are several diatomic molecules made of the same element that you will need to memorize.

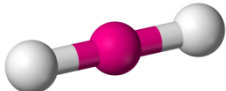
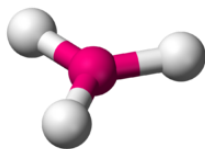
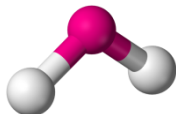
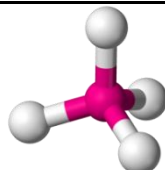
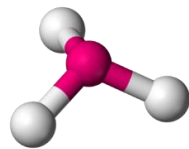
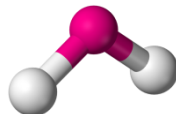
Luckily, there is a mnemonic device for this. **Horses Need Oats For Clear Brown Eyes (H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, F<sub>2</sub>, Cl<sub>2</sub>, Br<sub>2</sub>, and I<sub>2</sub>)** will help you remember that H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, F<sub>2</sub>, Cl<sub>2</sub>, Br<sub>2</sub>, and I<sub>2</sub> are all diatomic molecules. Another mnemonic is "H-7" which reminds you that there are seven diatomic elements, they make the shape of a seven on the periodic table, starting with N, and that Hydrogen is one of the diatomic elements.





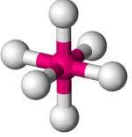
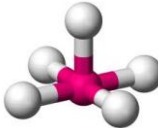


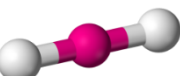
**Practice – We will review these names in class!**


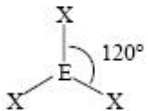
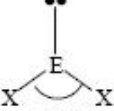
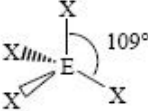
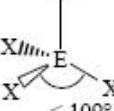
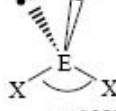
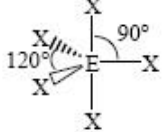
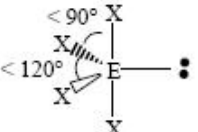
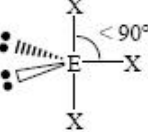
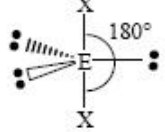
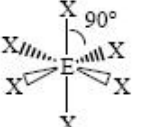
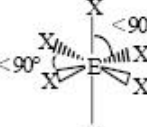
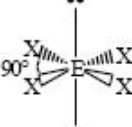
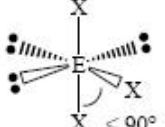
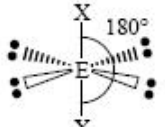
1. CO
2. CO<sub>2</sub>
3. S<sub>4</sub>N<sub>2</sub>
4. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>
5. PF<sub>3</sub>

# VSEPR

## Predicting Molecular Geometry and Hybridization

Electron Groups	Bonding Groups	Lone Pairs	Electron Geometry (Hybridization)	Molecular Geometry (VSEPR class)	Approximate Bond Angles	Geometry Examples
2	2	0	Linear ( $sp$ )	Linear ( $AX_2$ )	180	
3	3	0	Trigonal Planar ( $sp^2$ )	Trigonal Planar ( $AX_3$ )	120	
	2	1		Bent ( $AX_2E$ )		
4	4	0	Tetrahedral ( $sp^3$ )	Tetrahedral ( $AX_4$ )	109.5	
	3	1		Trigonal Pyramidal ( $AX_3E$ )		
	2	2		Bent ( $AX_2E_2$ )		

Electron Groups	Bonding Groups	Lone Pairs	Electron Geometry (Hybridization)	Molecular Geometry (VSEPR class)	Approximate Bond Angles	Geometry Examples
5	5	0	Trigonal Bipyramidal ( $sp^3d$ )	Trigonal Bipyramidal ( $AX_5$ )	120 (in plane) 90 (above and below)	
	4	1		Seesaw ( $AX_4E$ )		
	3	2		T-Shaped ( $AX_3E_2$ )		
	2	3		Linear ( $AX_2E_3$ )	180	
6	6	0	Octahedral ( $sp^3d^2$ )	Octahedral ( $AX_6$ )	90	
	5	1		Square Pyramidal ( $AX_5E$ )		
	4	2		Square Planar ( $AX_4E_2$ )		
	3	3		T-Shaped ( $AX_3E_3$ )		
	2	4		Linear ( $AX_2E_4$ )		

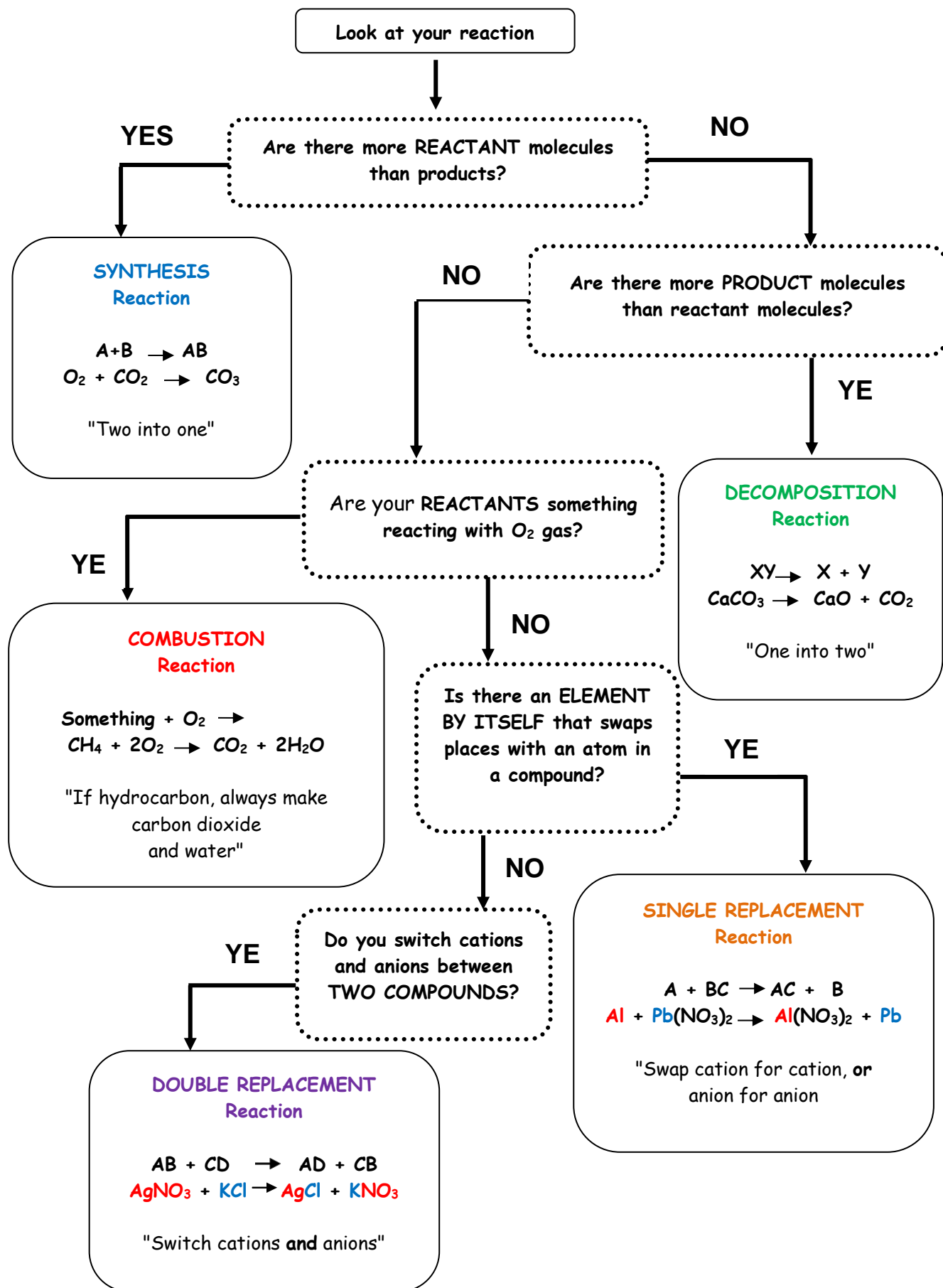
VSEPR Geometries					
Steric No.	Basic Geometry 0 lone pair	1 lone pair	2 lone pairs	3 lone pairs	4 lone pairs
2	 Linear				
3	 Trigonal Planar	 Bent or Angular			
4	 Tetrahedral	 Trigonal Pyramid	 Bent or Angular		
5	 Trigonal Bipyramid	 Sawhorse or Seesaw	 T-shape	 Linear	
6	 Octahedral	 Square Pyramid	 Square Planar	 T-shape	 Linear



# **Reference Sheets for Unit #6 – Reactions**










# Activity Series Chart

	<b>Metals</b>			<b>Non-Metals</b>	
	<u>Name</u>	<u>Symbol</u>		<u>Name</u>	<u>Symbol</u>
<b>Most Active</b>  <b>Least Active</b>	<b>Lithium</b>	<b>Li</b>	Lithium through Sodium can replace a Hydrogen in a water molecule	<b>Fluorine</b>	<b>F</b>
	<b>Potassium</b>	<b>K</b>		<b>Chlorine</b>	<b>Cl</b>
	<b>Barium</b>	<b>Ba</b>		<b>Bromine</b>	<b>Br</b>
	<b>Strontium</b>	<b>Sr</b>		<b>Iodine</b>	<b>I</b>
	<b>Calcium</b>	<b>Ca</b>			
	<b>Sodium</b>	<b>Na</b>	Magnesium through Lead can replace a Hydrogen in an acid molecule		
	<b>Magnesium</b>	<b>Mg</b>			
	<b>Aluminum</b>	<b>Al</b>			
	<b>Manganese</b>	<b>Mn</b>			
	<b>Zinc</b>	<b>Zn</b>			
	<b>Iron</b>	<b>Fe</b>			
	<b>Cadmium</b>	<b>Cd</b>			
	<b>Cobalt</b>	<b>Co</b>			
	<b>Nickel</b>	<b>Ni</b>			
	<b>Tin</b>	<b>Sn</b>			
	<b>Lead</b>	<b>Pb</b>			
	<b>Hydrogen</b>	<b>H</b>			
	<b>Copper</b>	<b>Cu</b>			
	<b>Silver</b>	<b>Ag</b>			
	<b>Mercury</b>	<b>Hg</b>			
	<b>Gold</b>	<b>Au</b>			

\*\*\*

Elements CANNOT replace anything ABOVE them.  
The reaction DOES NOT OCCUR in this situation.

\*\*\*

Examples:  $\text{ZnCl}_2 + \text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_2$   
 Magnesium is above Zinc so the reaction happens

$\text{ZnCl}_2 + \text{Cu} \rightarrow \text{No Reaction}$   
 Copper is below Zinc so no reaction happens



# Solubility of Some Ionic Compounds in Water

## Always Soluble

Alkali metals =	$\text{Li}^+, \text{Na}^+, \text{K}^+, \text{Rb}^+, \text{Cs}^+$
Ammonium =	$\text{NH}_4^+$
Acetate =	$\text{C}_2\text{H}_3\text{O}_2^-$
Chlorate =	$\text{ClO}_3^-$
Nitrate =	$\text{NO}_3^-$
Perchlorate =	$\text{ClO}_4^-$

AAA  
CNP

## Generally Soluble

$\text{Cl}^-, \text{Br}^-, \text{I}^-$  Soluble except:  $\text{Ag}^+, \text{Pb}^{2+}, \text{Hg}_2^{2+}$

AP-H

$\text{F}^-$  Soluble except:  $\text{Ca}^{2+}, \text{Ba}^{2+}, \text{Sr}^{2+}, \text{Pb}^{2+}, \text{Mg}^{2+}$

CBS-PM

Sulfate =  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  Soluble except:  $\text{Ca}^{2+}, \text{Ba}^{2+}, \text{Sr}^{2+}, \text{Pb}^{2+}$

CBS-P

## Generally Insoluble

$\text{O}^{2-}, \text{OH}^-$  Insoluble except: Alkali metals and  $\text{NH}_4^+$

AA

Somewhat soluble:  $\text{Ca}^{2+}, \text{Ba}^{2+}, \text{Sr}^{2+}$

CBS

$\text{CO}_3^{2-}$

$\text{S}^{2-}, \text{SO}_3^{2-}$

$\text{PO}_4^{3-}$

$\text{CrO}_4^{2-}, \text{Cr}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$

Insoluble except: Alkali metals and  $\text{NH}_4^+$

AA

**Not Soluble** = forms precipitate

**Soluble** = dissolves in water (aqueous)



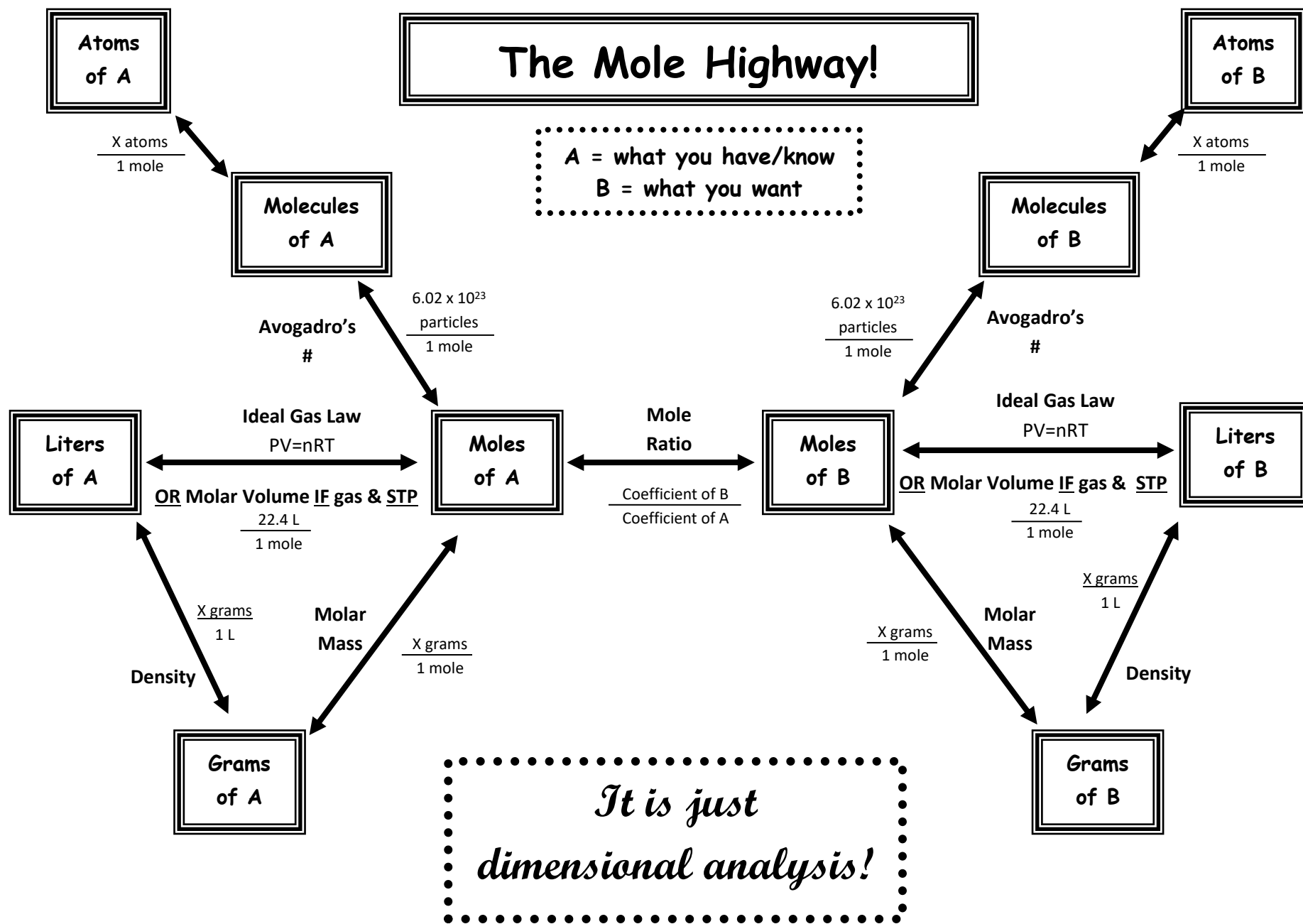
# **Reference Sheets for Unit #7 – Stoichiometry**





# The Mole Highway!

A = what you have/know  
B = what you want





# Stoichiometry Walk-Through

Some examples using the mole highway



**You start with 25.00g of N<sub>2</sub> - How much H<sub>2</sub> do you need?**

<b>Grams A → Moles A</b>  <i>Use molar mass A</i>	$\frac{25.00\text{g N}_2}{28.01\text{ g N}_2} \times 1\text{ mol N}_2$  $= 0.8925\text{mol N}_2$
<b>Moles A → Moles B</b>  <i>Use mole ratio B/A</i>	$0.8925\text{mol N}_2 \times \frac{3\text{ mol H}_2}{1\text{ mol N}_2}$  $= 2.678\text{ mol H}_2$
<b>Grams A → Moles B</b>  <i>Use molar mass A, then mole ratio B/A</i>	$\frac{25.00\text{g N}_2}{28.01\text{ g N}_2} \times \frac{1\text{ mol N}_2}{1\text{ mol N}_2} \times \frac{3\text{ mol H}_2}{1\text{ mol N}_2}$  $= 2.678\text{ mol H}_2$
<b>Grams A → Grams B</b>  <i>Use molar mass A, then mole ratio B/A, then molar mass B</i>	$\frac{25.00\text{g N}_2}{28.01\text{g N}_2} \times \frac{1\text{mol N}_2}{1\text{mol N}_2} \times \frac{3\text{mol H}_2}{1\text{mol N}_2} \times \frac{2.02\text{g H}_2}{1\text{mol H}_2}$  $= 5.409\text{ mol H}_2$
<b>Grams A → Molecules B</b>  <i>Use molar mass A, then mole ratio B/A, then Avogadro's # B</i>	$\frac{25.00\text{g N}_2}{28.01\text{g N}_2} \times \frac{1\text{mol N}_2}{1\text{mol N}_2} \times \frac{3\text{mol H}_2}{1\text{mol N}_2} \times \frac{6.02 \times 10^{23}\text{ molec. H}_2}{1\text{mol H}_2}$  $= 1.612 \times 10^{24}\text{ molecules H}_2$

These are not all the combinations of routes on the mole highway, just some examples of possible routes



## Winter Break Reminders and Suggestions:

When we return from Winter Break we will be starting a new chapter called "Advanced Chemical Ratios." This chapter adds in a more complicated type of stoich called "limiting reagents." It also adds in problems where you determine the formula of unknown compounds using stoichiometry and mole ratios.

**There is no official homework over Winter Break, however, please make sure that you do not forget the following topics while on vacation!** If you struggled with these topics during 1<sup>st</sup> semester please spend some time reviewing the topics. We want to make sure that everyone comes back from vacation ready to start 2<sup>nd</sup> semester off in a strong way!

Included in this handout is a list of topics to remember, a chart of notes where you learned the topics, starred (\*) optional worksheets where you have practice problems, and a small practice test of some examples of the types of things we need to make sure we don't forget how to do. Please realize that this practice test is not required, and it does not show every single possible thing you need to remember from 1<sup>st</sup> semester, it is just some examples to remind you.

We will keep using the same Composition Book and 3-ring binder 2<sup>nd</sup> semester so do not lose them or get new ones. You may take out your old rainbow packets BUT you need to keep them safe because they will be graded again at the end of 2<sup>nd</sup> semester. If you would rather leave them in your binder that is ok too. The gradebook starts over 2<sup>nd</sup> semester so everyone gets to start fresh and work towards completing all their work, doing well on quizzes and tests, etc.

If you have questions please email me. I will not be checking email daily, but I will check it occasionally over vacation. Thank you, and have a fabulous Winter Break!

*Mrs. Farmer*

## Some Key Topics to Remember Over Vacation:

### 1. Study your ions!

- ***There will be an ion quiz the week we return!***
- The day is unannounced, but it will be during the first week.
- Remember to know the ones on your ion sheet, but also any atoms from the periodic table s, p, d block that follow the pattern of the group numbers and those that use roman numerals.

### 2. Types of bonds

- Identify if a molecule is ionic or covalent

### 3. Writing formulas

- Crossing over to make neutral ionic compounds
- Using prefixes to write covalent molecules

### 4. Naming formulas

- Remember - two different ways to name things – one for ionic, one for covalent

### 5. Type of reactions

- Be able to identify the type of reaction shown.

### 6. Predicting products

- Use the main types of reactions to predict the products and write valid formulas for the products made – cross over if ionic, careful of diatomics, etc.

### 7. Balancing equations

- Remember to balance AFTER predicting your products and writing valid formulas!

### 8. Molar Conversions and Stoichiometry

- ***There will be a quiz on molar conversions and stoichiometry the week we return!***
- The day is unannounced, but it will be during the first week.
- Make sure you can do any type of problem given to you – don't forget conversion factors like density, molar volume at STP, metric conversions thrown in, etc.

## Where to Go to Refresh Your Memory Over Vacation:

Topic	Notes	* Optional Worksheets
Ions	N-17	R-2
Types of bonds	N-16	P5-WS16*
Writing/naming formulas	N-16 N-17	P5-WS16*
Types of Reactions	N-23	P6-5*
Predicting products	N-24	P6-5*
Balancing equations	N-22	P6-5*
Molar conversions and stoich	N-25 N-26	P7-5*

**\*Remember** – You have your rainbow packets, reference pages, study materials, the class website has a "Resources" tab that has links to other websites and other practice, the "Notebook" tab has worksheets from my regular chem class that cover some similar basic level topics, and you have the entire internet at your fingertips too! ☺

## Practice Test for Jogging Your Memory Before 2<sup>nd</sup> Semester:

- Which of the following statements is **not** true of balancing a chemical equation?  
A) Subscripts in the reactants must be conserved in the products.  
B) Coefficients are used to balance the atoms on both sides.  
C) The law of conservation of matter must be followed.  
D) Phases are often shown for each compound but are not critical to balancing an equation.
- The name for  $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$  is  
A) aluminum(III) hydroxide  
B) aluminum trihydroxide  
C) aluminum hydroxide  
D) monaluminum trihydroxide
- Calculate the molecules of oxygen required to react with 35.9 g of sulfur.  
 $2\text{S} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{SO}_3$   
A)  $2.02 \times 10^{24}$  molecules  $\text{O}_2$   
B)  $1.01 \times 10^{24}$  molecules  $\text{O}_2$   
C)  $3.37 \times 10^{23}$  molecules  $\text{O}_2$   
D)  $6.74 \times 10^{23}$  molecules  $\text{O}_2$
- iron(III) phosphide is  
A)  $\text{Fe}_3\text{P}_2$   
B)  $\text{FeP}$   
C)  $\text{Fe}_3\text{P}$   
D)  $\text{FeP}_3$

5. Convert $9.51 \times 10^{22}$ molecules $\text{NH}_3$ A) $5.73 \times 10^{46}$ mol B) 6.33 mol C) 2.69 mol D) 0.158 mol	16. Convert: 45.0 g NaCl into mol A) $2.63 \times 10^3$ B) 1.30 C) 0.770 D) $1.47 \times 10^{23}$	27. Classify the following reaction: $2\text{Mg}(s) + \text{O}_2(g) \rightarrow 2\text{MgO}(s)$ A) Synthesis B) combustion C) double replacement D) single replacement
6. The reaction $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{Pb} + \text{Mg}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ is: A) synthesis B) acid-base C) single-replacement D) double-replacement	17. The charge on a barium ion is: A) +1 B) +2 C) +3 D) -1	28. When the following equation is balanced using the smallest possible integers, what is the number in front of the substance in bold type? $\text{Al} + \text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 \rightarrow \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Fe}$ A) 1 B) 3 C) 6 D) 9
7. Sodium chloride and lead(II) nitrate react. Which is one of the products? A) $\text{PbCl}(s)$ B) $\text{Pb}_2\text{Cl}(s)$ C) $\text{NaNO}_3(aq)$ D) $2\text{NaNO}_3(aq)$	18. Convert: 2.64 g $\text{O}_3$ into molecules A) $1.59 \times 10^{24}$ B) $7.63 \times 10^{25}$ C) $3.31 \times 10^{22}$ D) $9.13 \times 10^{-26}$	29. True or false? Covalent bonding occurs when a metal reacts with a nonmetal. A) True B) False
8. The compound $\text{PI}_3$ is named A) potassium iodide B) monophosphorus iodide C) phosphorus iodide D) phosphorus triiodide	19. 2.85 moles of water weighs A) $1.58 \times 10^{-1}$ g B) 51.3 g C) 6.32 g D) 21.0 g	30. Which of the following compounds contains an ionic bond? A) $\text{HCl}(g)$ B) NaCl C) $\text{CCl}_4$ D) $\text{SO}_2$
9. Which has covalent bond(s)? A) NaCl B) CaO C) $\text{CO}_2$ D) $\text{Cs}_2\text{O}$	20. Titanium(IV) oxide has the formula A) $\text{Ti}_4\text{O}$ B) $\text{TiO}_4$ C) $\text{Ti}(\text{IV})\text{O}$ D) $\text{TiO}_2$	<p style="text-align: right;"><b>Answer Key</b>            *Answer Key has not been checked!            If you see typos please email me            so I can fix them! ☺</p>
10. A 4.7-mol sample of $\text{KClO}_3$ was decomposed. How many moles of $\text{O}_2$ are formed? $2\text{KClO}_3 \rightarrow 2\text{KCl} + 3\text{O}_2$ A) 7.1 mol B) 3.9 mol C) 4.7 mol D) 2.3 mol	21. The percent yield is a ratio of the _____ yield to the _____ yield, multiplied by 100%.	
11. The correct name for $\text{FeO}$ is A) iron oxide B) iron(II) oxide C) iron(I) oxide D) iron monoxide	22. Which of the following formulas is <b>incorrect</b> ? A) NaBr B) $\text{AlCl}_3$ C) $\text{CsCl}_2$ D) $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$	
12. How many kilograms of silver can be produced when 40.3 g copper reacts with silver nitrate? Assume product has copper (II) A) 0.137 kg Ag B) 68.4 kg Ag C) 0.342 kg Ag D) 47.5 kg Ag	23. An aqueous solution of potassium chloride is mixed with an aqueous solution of sodium nitrate. Which is a product? A) $\text{KCl}(s)$ B) $\text{KNO}_3(aq)$ C) $\text{KNa}(aq)$ D) $\text{ClNO}_3(aq)$	
13. Ammonium sulfate is A) $\text{NH}_4\text{SO}_3$ B) $\text{NH}_4\text{SO}_4$ C) $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_3$ D) $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$	24. When they react, alkali metals: A) gain 1 electron B) gain 7 electrons C) gain or lose 7 electrons D) lose 1 electron	
14. What mass of oxygen gas is required to react completely with 18.8 g of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{14}$ ? A) $5.72 \times 10^3$ g B) 33.2 g C) 6.98 g D) 66.3 g	25. The molar mass of ammonium phosphate is A) 113.01 g/mol B) 131.05 g/mol C) 144.06 g/mol D) 149.10 g/mol	
15. How many atoms of calcium are present in 87.1 g of calcium? A) $3.61 \times 10^{-24}$ B) $5.25 \times 10^{25}$ C) $6.02 \times 10^{23}$ D) $1.31 \times 10^{24}$	26. The balanced equation $\text{P}_4(s) + 6\text{H}_2(g) \rightarrow 4\text{PH}_3(g)$ tells us that 5.0 mol $\text{H}_2$ A) reacts with 2.5 mol $\text{P}_4$ B) produces 10.0 mol $\text{PH}_3$ C) cannot react with phosphorus D) produces 3.3 mol $\text{PH}_3$	1. A 2. C 3. B 4. B 5. D 6. D 7. D 8. D 9. C 10. A 11. B 12. A 13. D 14. D 15. D 16. C 17. B 18. C 19. B 20. D 21. actual, theoretical 22. C 23. B 24. D 25. D 26. D 27. A 28. D 29. B 30. B