

SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATION

1. On previous SOL tests, students have been asked to choose the piece of glassware that gives the most *precise* results. They have usually been given the following choices:

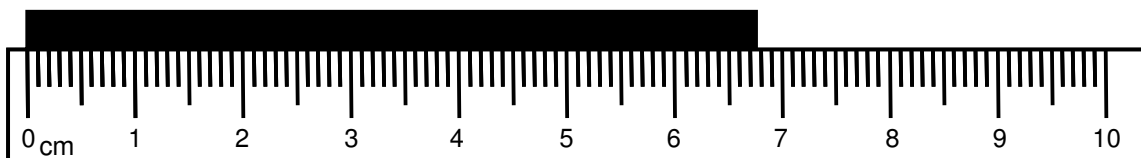
beaker flask pipet test tube graduated cylinder

Of these choices, the most precise piece of glassware is the GRADUATED CYLINDER

because EACH LINE REPRESENTS 1 mL or 0.1 mL. SMALL DIVISIONS BETWEEN LINES = MORE PRECISE

2. When you read the volume on a graduated cylinder or you measure length with a ruler, you should always estimate the final digit. The final estimated digit will always be one power of ten *smaller* what each line is worth on the instrument. In other words, if the ruler shows lines every 0.1 cm, then you estimate length to the nearest 0.01 cm.

Estimate the length of this strip: 6.75 cm



3. If you measure something in an experiment, why do you think it is a good idea to perform the measurement three separate times and take the average result?

TO VERIFY YOUR RESULTS; TO GET CONSISTENT, REPRODUCIBLE RESULTS

4. If you take several measurements, then your data will be *precise* if

THE NUMBERS ARE VERY CLOSE TO EACH OTHER

5. Data is considered to be *accurate* if THE NUMBERS ARE CLOSE TO THE ACCEPTED VALUE

6. A common scenario is to show data that is *precise but not accurate*. The boiling point of water is 100.0°C. Give an example of data for the BP of H₂O that is *precise but not accurate*:

Trial 1: 81°C Trial 2: 82°C Trial 3: 82°C Trial 4: 81°C (answers may vary)

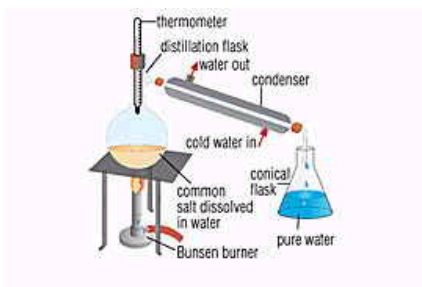
6. Basic lab techniques for separation of a mixture are listed below. Match the physical property with the separation technique.

C chromatography A. boiling point

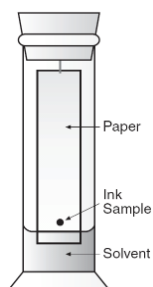
B filtration B. particle size

A distillation C. interaction with the solvent (polarity)

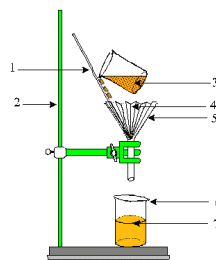
7. Now match the separation technique with the picture:



A.



B.



C.

 B chromatography

 C filtration

 A distillation

8. Fill in the blanks by writing numbers in either regular notation or scientific notation.

Regular Notation	Scientific Notation
15600	1.56×10^4
250,000	2.5×10^5
0.00045	4.5×10^{-4}
2300	2.3×10^3
0.0061	6.1×10^{-3}

9. If you get a chemical on your skin or in your eyes, the first thing you should do is always

FLUSH OR RINSE WITH LOTS OF WATER

10. If you need to mix acid and water together, remember that the safety rules state that

you should always add **ACID** to **WATER**

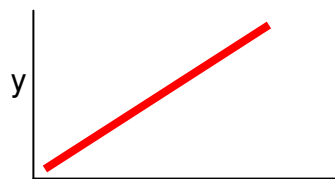
(Heat may be given off when acids are mixed with water. Concentrated acids are more dense than water; they sink to bottom of water and mix more evenly. Otherwise adding water to acid may cause spattering on top of liquid surface)

11. If you see a graph that shows a relationship between two variables, it will often fall into one of two categories: *direct relationship* or *inverse relationship*.

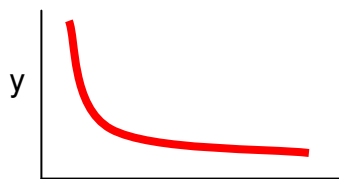
A *direct relationship* can be summarized by saying that as one variable increases, the other variable **INCREASES**. An example of this would be **VOLUME AND TEMP.**

An *inverse relationship* can be summarized by saying that as one variable increases, the other variable **DECREASES**. An example of this would be **PRESSURE AND VOLUME**

Sketch the general shape of each graph below:



Direct relationship



Inverse relationship

12. If you are asked to calculate *percent error*, you should know that

$$\text{percent error} = \frac{|\text{measured value} - \text{accepted value}|}{\text{accepted value}} \times 100\%$$

A certain piece of metal has an accepted mass of 65.0 grams. Its mass was recorded in the laboratory as 55.0 grams. Calculate the *percent error* in this measurement.

$$\% \text{ ERROR} = \frac{10.0 \text{ g}}{65.0 \text{ g}} \times 100\% = 15.4\%$$

13. The following information concerns the metric system and other unit conversions. You should definitely know these numbers.

$$1 \text{ L} = \underline{1000} \text{ mL} \quad 1 \text{ kg} = \underline{1000} \text{ g} \quad ^\circ\text{C} + \underline{273} = \text{K}$$

14. Students often forget how to determine how many *significant figures* are in a given measurement. See if you remember how to do this.

Number	Significant Figures
25.7	THREE
100.62	FIVE
5.00	THREE
200	ONE
200.0	FOUR
0.075	TWO
0.0050	TWO

15. When you multiply or divide two numbers, the rule is that the final answer should be rounded so that it has the same number of sig figs as the measurement with the fewest sig figs.

If the mass of an object is 2.7 g and the volume is 3.5 mL, calculate the *density* and round your answer to the proper number of sig figs.

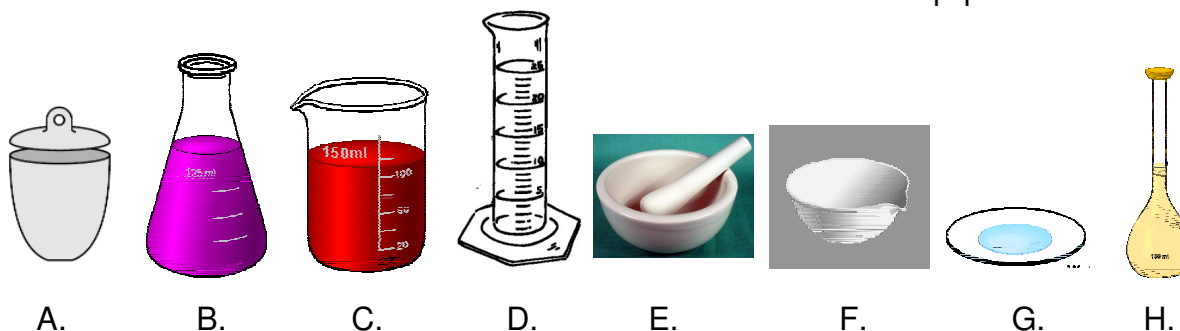
$$\text{DENSITY} = \frac{2.7 \text{ g}}{3.5 \text{ mL}} = 0.7714 \text{ g/mL (unrounded)} \rightarrow 0.77 \text{ g/mL (rounded)}$$

16. Report the *average* of these three measurements using the correct number of significant figures.

Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3	Average
85.2	84.9	85.4	85.2

(unrounded = 85.1666)

17. Sometimes students are asked to identify pieces of laboratory equipment. In each blank below write the letter that matches the name of the equipment with the picture.



- C beaker F evaporating dish H volumetric flask
A crucible D graduated cylinder G watch glass
B Erlenmeyer flask E mortar and pestle

ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND PERIODIC RELATIONSHIPS

1. Here are some scientists you should know.

Mendeleev Rutherford Dalton Bohr

DALTON He came up with an atomic theory in 1803 that said that atoms were indivisible building blocks of matter. He thought that all atoms of a given element were identical.

RUTHERFORD He did a famous gold foil experiment that led him to conclude that all atoms contain a tiny dense center of positive charge called the nucleus.

BOHR He tried to explain the bright-line spectrum of hydrogen with a model of the atom in which electrons occupy fixed energy levels and circle the nucleus in orbits, like planets around the sun.

MENDELEEV He came up with the first periodic table and predicted the properties of a few elements that had not been discovered yet.

2. Elements contain three subatomic particles. Fill in the missing data:

Particle	Charge	Mass Number	Location
PROTON	+	1	in the nucleus
NEUTRON	0	1	in the nucleus
ELECTRON	-	0	around the nucleus

3. Remember that the *atomic number* refers to the number of PROTONS in an atom.

The *mass number* refers to the sum of the PROTONS and NEUTRONS in an atom.

You should know that atoms are neutral. They have no charge, because they have the same number of PROTONS and ELECTRONS

4 Fill in the missing information in the table.

Make sure that you got the symbols correct →

Symbol	Protons	Neutrons	Electrons
${}_{11}^{23}\text{Na}^+$	11	12	10
${}_{15}^{31}\text{P}$	15	16	15
${}_{20}^{40}\text{Ca}^{+2}$	20	20	18
${}_{35}^{80}\text{Br}^-$	35	45	36
${}_{19}^{39}\text{K}^+$	19	20	18
${}_{33}^{75}\text{As}^{-3}$	33	42	36

- When a neutral atom gains or loses electrons, it becomes an ION.
- An atom that *loses* electrons will have a + charge. This is called a CATION.
- An atom that *gains* electrons will have a - charge. This is called an ANION.
- If two atoms have the same number of protons, but different numbers of neutrons, these atoms would represent different ISOTOPES of the same element.

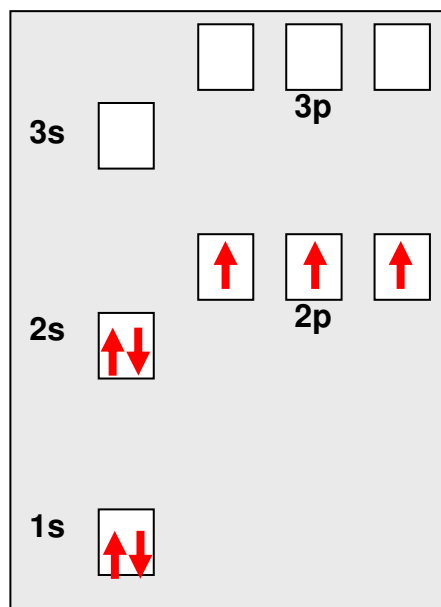
Electrons will fill energy levels according to certain rules. At right is an energy level diagram. Here are the rules:

aufbau rule: start at the bottom and work your way up

Pauli exclusion principle: no more than two electrons in each orbital. Two electrons in same orbital have opposite spins

Hund's rule: when a sublevel has more than one orbital (like the p sublevel) you should always put electrons one at a time into each orbital before you double them up

- Fill in the electrons in the diagram at the right for the atom NITROGEN. →



10. Fill in the missing information in the table:

Element name	Element Symbol	Complete Electron Configuration	Noble Gas Abbreviated Electron Configuration
magnesium	Mg	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2$	[Ne] $3s^2$
sulfur	S	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4$	[Ne] $3s^2 3p^4$
calcium	Ca	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2$	[Ar] $4s^2$
gallium	Ga	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^1$	[Ar] $4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^1$
silicon	Si	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^2$	[Ne] $3s^2 3p^2$

11. You might see an abbreviated electron configuration notation that looks like this. Fill in the Group number for each electron configuration.

	ns^1	ns^2	$ns^2 np^1$	$ns^2 np^2$	$ns^2 np^3$	$ns^2 np^4$	$ns^2 np^5$	$ns^2 np^6$
Group	1	2	13	14	15	16	17	18

12. There are several things about the periodic table that you should know:

Horizontal rows of the periodic table are called **PERIODS**

Vertical columns of the periodic table are called **GROUPS** or **FAMILIES**

Two elements that are located in the same group will have the same number of

VALENCE electrons, and they will have similar **CHEMICAL PROPERTIES**

13. There are seven elements that are diatomic, because they exist naturally in the form X_2 . Write the symbols for these seven diatomic elements:

H₂ **O₂** **N₂** **F₂** **Cl₂** **Br₂** **I₂**

14. The following groups or sections of the periodic table have names that you should know. Name them.

Group 1 **ALKALI METALS**

Group 2 **ALKALINE EARTH METALS**

Groups 3-12 **TRANSITION METALS**

Group 17 **HALOGENS**

Group 18 **NOBLE GASES**

15. Horizontal trends of the periodic table:

As you move from left to right across a period of the periodic table,

THE NUMBER OF PROTONS will INCREASE

THE ATOMIC RADIUS tends to DECREASE

THE 1st IONIZATION ENERGY tends to INCREASE

THE ELECTRONEGATIVITY tends to INCREASE

16. Vertical trends of the periodic table:

As you move from top to bottom down a group of the periodic table,

THE PRINCIPAL QUANTUM NUMBER (energy level *n*) will INCREASE

THE ATOMIC RADIUS tends to INCREASE

THE 1st IONIZATION ENERGY tends to DECREASE

THE ELECTRONEGATIVITY tends to DECREASE

17. The valence electrons are the electrons that are in the OUTER energy level. If you are asked to identify how many valence electrons an atom has, all you have to do is count from left to right across the periodic table. Fill in the valence electrons in each box below:

1	2											3	4	5	6	7	8											
<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: flex-start;"> <div style="width: 45%;"> <p>Atomic number</p> <p>Electron configuration</p> <p>* The bracketed area represents the electron configuration of a noble gas.</p> </div> <div style="width: 50%; border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;"> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="width: 10%;">B 5 Boron</td> <td style="width: 10%;">C 6 Carbon</td> <td style="width: 10%;">N 7 Nitrogen</td> <td style="width: 10%;">O 8 Oxygen</td> <td style="width: 10%;">F 9 Fluorine</td> <td style="width: 10%;">Ne 10 Neon</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Al 13 Aluminum</td> <td>Si 14 Silicon</td> <td>P 15 Phosphorus</td> <td>S 16 Sulfur</td> <td>Cl 17 Chlorine</td> <td>Ar 18 Argon</td> </tr> </table> </div> </div>																	B 5 Boron	C 6 Carbon	N 7 Nitrogen	O 8 Oxygen	F 9 Fluorine	Ne 10 Neon	Al 13 Aluminum	Si 14 Silicon	P 15 Phosphorus	S 16 Sulfur	Cl 17 Chlorine	Ar 18 Argon
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Al 13 Aluminum	Si 14 Silicon	P 15 Phosphorus	S 16 Sulfur	Cl 17 Chlorine	Ar 18 Argon																							
Transition Elements																												
Li 3 Lithium	Be 4 Beryllium											B 5 Boron	C 6 Carbon	N 7 Nitrogen	O 8 Oxygen	F 9 Fluorine	Ne 10 Neon											
Na 11 Sodium	Mg 12 Magnesium	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Al 13 Aluminum	Si 14 Silicon	P 15 Phosphorus	S 16 Sulfur	Cl 17 Chlorine	Ar 18 Argon											
K 19 Potassium	Ca 20 Calcium	Sc 21 Scandium	Ti 22 Titanium	V 23 Vanadium	Cr 24 Chromium	Mn 25 Manganese	Fe 26 Iron	Co 27 Cobalt	Ni 28 Nickel	Cu 29 Copper	Zn 30 Zinc	Ga 31 Gallium	Ge 32 Germanium	As 33 Arsenic	Se 34 Selenium	Br 35 Bromine	Kr 36 Krypton											
Rb 37 Rubidium	Sr 38 Strontium	Y 39 Yttrium	Zr 40 Zirconium	Nb 41 Niobium	Mo 42 Molybdenum	Tc 43 Technetium	Ru 44 Ruthenium	Rh 45 Rhodium	Pd 46 Palladium	Ag 47 Silver	Cd 48 Cadmium	In 49 Indium	Sn 50 Tin	Sb 51 Antimony	Te 52 Tellurium	I 53 Iodine	Xe 54 Xenon											
Cs 55 Cesium	Ba 56 Barium	La 57 Lanthanum	Hf 72 Hafnium	Ta 73 Tantalum	W 74 Tungsten	Re 75 Rhenium	Os 76 Osmium	Ir 77 Iridium	Pt 78 Platinum	Au 79 Gold	Hg 80 Mercury	Tl 81 Thallium	Pb 82 Lead	Bi 83 Bismuth	Po 84 Polonium	At 85 Astatine	Rn 86 Radon											
Fr 87 Francium	Ra 88 Radium	Ac 89 Actinium	Rf 104 Rutherfordium	Db 105 Dubnium	Sg 106 Seaborgium	Bh 107 Bohrium	Hs 108 Hassium	Mt 109 Meitnerium	110	<p>Mass numbers in parentheses are those of the most stable or most common isotopes.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">Metals ← → Nonmetals</p>																		

18. The valence electrons will also be written as dots around the atoms. This is called the Lewis dot structure for an atom. Fill in the dots around each atom below:



Sometimes an SOL question may give you two different isotopes for an element and ask you to calculate the average atomic mass. Here is an example:

Isotope	Percent abundance
Cl-35	75%
Cl-37	25%

$$\text{Average atomic mass of Cl} = (0.75)(35) + (0.25)(37) = 35.5 \text{ amu}$$

(atomic mass units)

19. Now you try it. Calculate the average atomic mass of Cu, based on the data below:

Isotope	Percent abundance
Cu-63	70%
Cu-65	30%

$$\text{Average atomic mass of Cu} = \underline{(0.70)(63) + (0.30)(65) = 64}$$

20. In Group 1, the most reactive element would be Cs or Fr. This can be explained because because metals need to LOSE electrons when they undergo chemical reactions, and so the LARGER the atom, the more reactive it will be.

In Group 17, the most reactive element would be F. This can be explained because nonmetals need to GAIN electrons when they undergo chemical reactions, and so the SMALLER the atom, the more reactive it will be.

NOMENCLATURE, CHEMICAL FORMULAS, AND REACTIONS

- The two main types of bonds in chemistry are IONIC and COVALENT
- An *ionic* bond is normally formed between a METAL and a NONMETAL
In an ionic bond, the two elements should have a rather LARGE difference in their electronegativity values. In an ionic bond, electrons are transferred from the METAL to the NONMETAL. A classic example of an ionic compound is an alkali metal and a halogen, like NaCl. If an ionic compound is soluble in water, then it will produce aqueous ions in solution. Ionic compounds are considered to be *electrolytes*.

3. Fill in the names and formulas for the following ionic compounds

Chemical Formula	Chemical Name
Na ₂ S	SODIUM SULFIDE
MgCl ₂	MAGNESIUM CHLORIDE
Al ₂ O ₃	ALUMINUM OXIDE
Li ₃ N	LITHIUM NITRIDE
K ₃ P	POTASSIUM PHOSPHIDE
CaF₂	calcium fluoride
SrI₂	strontium iodide
CuBr	copper(I) bromide
CuBr₂	copper(II) bromide
Fe₂O₃	iron(III) oxide

Remember that we use Roman numerals to indicate the *charge* on the ion when it can form more than one charge.

4. The ionic compounds above are called binary compounds, because they consist of only two elements. Some ionic compounds contain more than two elements. That is because they contain polyatomic ions. The names, formulas, and charges for the following polyatomic ions should be memorized:

ammonium **NH₄⁺**

carbonate **CO₃⁻²**

nitrate **NO₃⁻**

hydroxide **OH⁻**

sulfate **SO₄⁻²**

phosphate **PO₄⁻³**

5. Fill in the names and formulas for the following ionic compounds that contain polyatomic ions

Chemical Formula	Chemical Name
NaNO ₃	SODIUM NITRATE
Fe ₂ (SO ₄) ₃	IRON(III) SULFATE
NH ₄ Cl	AMMONIUM CHLORIDE
K₂CO₃	potassium carbonate
Mg₃(PO₄)₂	magnesium phosphate
Ca(OH)₂	calcium hydroxide

6. A *covalent* bond is normally formed between two **NONMETALS**

In a covalent bond, the two elements should have a rather **SMALL** difference in their electronegativity values. In a covalent bond, electrons are shared between the atoms.

A classic example of this is H₂O. If a covalent compound (like sugar, C₆H₁₂O₆) is soluble in water, then it will *not* produce any ions. Covalent (molecular) compounds are *nonelectrolytes*.

7. Fill in the names and formulas for the following covalent compounds

Chemical Formula	Chemical Name
CCl ₄	carbon tetrachloride
PBr ₃	PHOSPHORUS TRIBROMIDE
SF ₆	SULFUR HEXAFLUORIDE
P₂O₅	diphosphorus pentoxide
CS₂	carbon disulfide

Remember that we use prefixes to indicate the *number of atoms* in a covalent compound.

8. The following compounds are classified as *acids*, because they can all *donate H⁺*. Write the formulas in the blanks provided. You should know these formulas.

HCl hydrochloric acid H₂SO₄ sulfuric acid H₂CO₃ carbonic acid

HNO₃ nitric acid H₃PO₄ phosphoric acid

You should know that an *acid is a H⁺ donor* and it will have a pH that is LESS THAN 7

You should know that a base will *accept H⁺* and it will have a pH that is MORE THAN 7

Examples of acids are listed above. Examples of bases would be anything that contains the hydroxide ion. For example: NaOH, KOH, Mg(OH)₂, Al(OH)₃, etc.

The *molecular formula* only tells you the number of each kind of atom.

The *structural formula* will also tell you how the atoms are connected to each other.

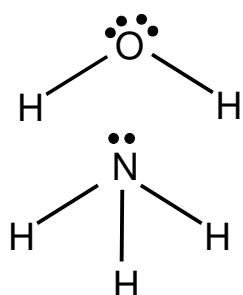
10. The *empirical formula* is the lowest whole number ratio of atoms. For example, the empirical formula of C₆H₁₂O₆ is CH₂O. Write the empirical formula for each of the following:

C₆H₁₂ CH₂ C₁₀H₂₀O₂ C₅H₁₀O C₂H₆ CH₃

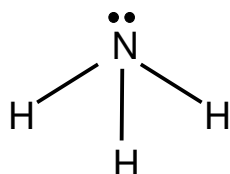
11. Here are some Lewis dot structures for simple molecules. Indicate the geometric shape for each molecule.

Your choices are bent, linear, trigonal planar, pyramidal, tetrahedral.

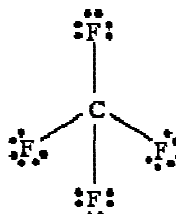
If you learn these 5 examples you should be in very good "shape".



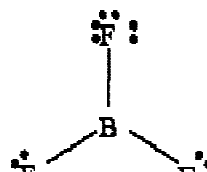
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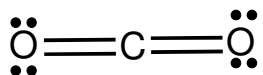


PYRAMIDAL



TETRAHEDRAL

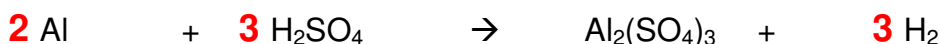
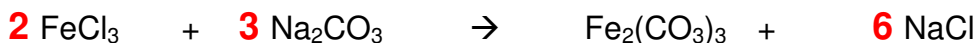
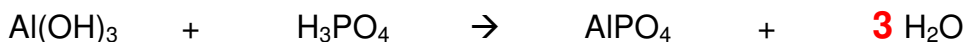
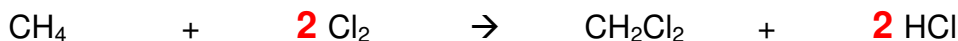
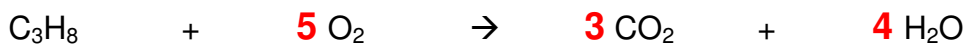




LINEAR

TRIGONAL PLANAR

12. Balancing equations is a skill that every chemistry student should know how to do. Here are some equations for you to balance.



When we learned about chemical reactions, we also learned about that there are categories that describe reaction types. You should be familiar with the following types of reactions:

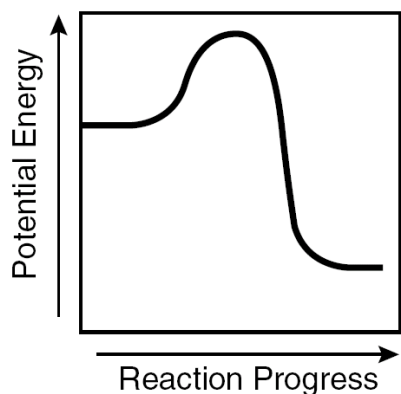
Reaction type	General Scheme	Specific Example
synthesis	$A + B \rightarrow AB$	$\text{N}_2 + 3 \text{H}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{NH}_3$
decomposition	$AB \rightarrow A + B$	$2 \text{KClO}_3 \rightarrow 2 \text{KCl} + 3 \text{O}_2$
single replacement	$A + BY \rightarrow AY + B$	$\text{Mg} + 2 \text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
double replacement	$AX + BY \rightarrow AY + BX$	$\text{AgNO}_3 + \text{NaCl} \rightarrow \text{AgCl} + \text{NaNO}_3$
neutralization	$\text{HX} + \text{MOH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{MX}$	$\text{HCl} + \text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{NaCl}$

13. Identify the type of each reaction below:

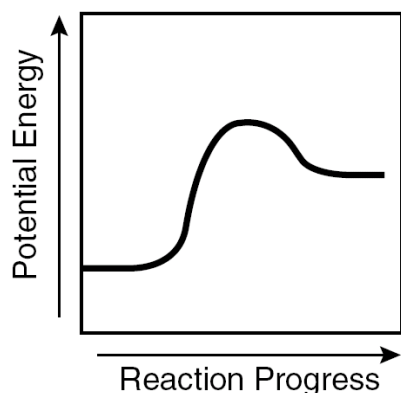
(synthesis, decomposition, single replacement, double replacement, neutralization)

Reaction	Reaction type
$\text{Zn} + \text{CuSO}_4 \rightarrow \text{ZnSO}_4 + \text{Cu}$	SINGLE REPLACEMENT
$\text{HNO}_3 + \text{KOH} \rightarrow \text{KNO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	NEUTRALIZATION
$\text{Mg} + \text{N}_2 \rightarrow \text{Mg}_3\text{N}_2$	SYNTHESIS
$\text{Cl}_2 + 2 \text{NaBr} \rightarrow \text{Br}_2 + 2 \text{NaCl}$	SINGLE REPLACEMENT
$\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + 2 \text{KI} \rightarrow \text{PbI}_2 + 2 \text{KNO}_3$	DOUBLE REPLACEMENT
$2 \text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3 \rightarrow 2 \text{N}_2 + \text{O}_2 + 4 \text{H}_2\text{O}$	DECOMPOSITION
$\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{HBr} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CaBr}_2$	NEUTRALIZATION
$\text{CaCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CaO}$	DECOMPOSITION
$\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow \text{BaSO}_4 + 2 \text{KOH}$	DOUBLE REPLACEMENT

14. Sometimes questions will discuss the energy in a chemical reaction. Here are some things you should know about energy:



This reaction represents an EXOTHERMIC process. This means that energy is RELEASED. You can think of energy as one of the *products* of the reaction, which means that you would write it on the RIGHT side of the equation. “ ΔH ,” which represents the change in heat, will be NEGATIVE.

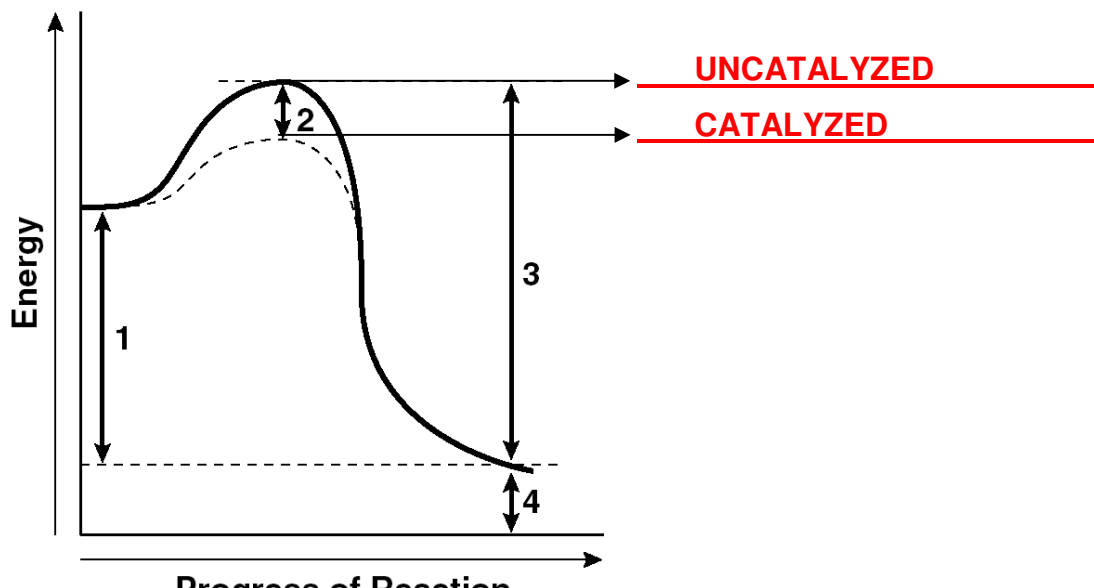


This reaction represents an ENDOTHERMIC process. This means that energy is ABSORBED. You can think of energy as one of the *reactants*, which means that you would write it on the LEFT side of the equation. “ ΔH ,” which represents the change in heat, will be POSITIVE.

15. Sometimes you will see a question about how a catalyst speeds up a reaction. Here is an important fact you should know about a catalyst:

A catalyst will LOWER the activation energy, which makes the reaction go faster.

16. Which path is the catalyzed reaction? Which path is the UNcatalyzed reaction? Label them.



17. How do you think the *speed* of the reaction will be affected by temperature? Well, you already know that if you *increase* the temperature, the molecules will move **FASTER**. So if you *increase* the temperature, the molecules will collide with each other more often and the reaction rate will **INCREASE**.

MOLAR RELATIONSHIPS

Here are several important facts about moles that you should know. You should *memorize* the number 6.02×10^{23} and the number 22.4 and know when to use them.

General Facts	Specific Examples
1 mole = 6.02×10^{23} particles	1 mol of Cu = 6.02×10^{23} atoms of Cu 1 mol of CO ₂ = 6.02×10^{23} molecules of CO ₂
The mass of 1 mole (in grams) can be calculated by adding up the atomic masses of all the elements in the chemical formula.	1 mol of H ₂ O = 1.0 + 1.0 + 16.0 = 18.0 g 1 mol of CO ₂ = 12.0 + 16.0 + 16.0 = 44.0 g 1 mol of NaCl = 23.0 + 35.5 = 58.5 g
At standard temperature and pressure (STP), 1 mole of gas has a volume of 22.4 L	1 mol of He @ STP = 22.4 L 1 mol of N ₂ @ STP = 22.4 L
The coefficients in a balanced chemical equation represent molar ratios.	In the equation $N_2 + 3 H_2 \rightarrow 2 NH_3$, this can be summarized by saying that "1 mol of N ₂ reacts with 3 mol to produce 2 mol NH ₃ "

When we perform conversions with moles, we usually set up ratios, or conversion factors, that help us to cancel out units. Remember the following:

- The units will cancel out when they are on opposite sides of the line.
- When a number is above the line we multiply; when a number is below the line we divide.

Here are some examples:

Convert 3.58×10^{24} atoms Fe into moles of Fe

$$3.58 \times 10^{24} \text{ atoms Fe} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol Fe}}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ atoms Fe}} = 5.95 \text{ mol Fe}$$

Convert 2.25 moles of KNO₃ into grams of KNO₃ (Note that we need the periodic table to do this.)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{K} = 39.1 \times 1 = 39.1 \\ \text{N} = 14.0 \times 1 = 14.0 \\ \text{O} = 16.0 \times 3 = 48.0 \\ \hline 101.1 \text{ g/mol} \end{array} \quad 2.25 \text{ mol KNO}_3 \times \frac{101.1 \text{ g KNO}_3}{1 \text{ mol KNO}_3} = 227 \text{ g KNO}_3$$

Now it's your turn:

1. Perform the following conversions:

a) Calculate the molar mass of $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$

$$\text{Ca} = 40.0 \times 1 = 40.0$$

$$\text{N} = 14.0 \times 2 = 28.0$$

$$\text{O} = 16.0 \times 6 = \underline{96.0}$$

164.0 grams per mole

b) How many *grams* of oxygen are present in 2 moles of CaCO_3 ?

$$2 \text{ moles of CaCO}_3 \times \frac{3 \text{ mol O}}{1 \text{ mol CaCO}_3} \times \frac{16.0 \text{ g O}}{1 \text{ mol O}} = 96.0 \text{ g O}$$

c) How many *moles* are present in a 100.0-g sample of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}$?

$$100.0 \text{ g C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}}{46.0 \text{ g C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}} = 2.17 \text{ mol C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}$$

d) What is the *mass* of 9.25×10^{22} molecules of water? (two steps).

$$9.25 \times 10^{22} \text{ molecules H}_2\text{O} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O}}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules H}_2\text{O}} \times \frac{18.0 \text{ g H}_2\text{O}}{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O}} = 2.77 \text{ g H}_2\text{O}$$

Another type of molar conversion you will be asked to do is related to a balanced chemical equation. We will use the coefficients to set up molar ratios, or conversion factors. Again we will try to cancel out units. Here is an example:

When magnesium metal is burned, it produces magnesium oxide (MgO). How many moles of oxygen gas are needed to burn 10 moles of Mg?

In this problem we are *not* given a balanced chemical equation, so we have to write one first:

here is the equation: $\text{Mg} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{MgO}$

and now it is balanced: $2 \text{Mg} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{MgO}$

Notice that there are 2 moles of Mg for every 1 mole of O_2 . That is the molar ratio you need.

$$10 \text{ mol Mg} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol O}_2}{2 \text{ mol Mg}} = 5 \text{ mol O}_2$$

Now it's your turn:

2. Perform the following conversions:

- a) Given the following equation: $2 \text{C}_2\text{H}_6 + 7 \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 4 \text{CO}_2 + 6 \text{H}_2\text{O}$
If 5.2 moles of ethane (C_2H_6) is burned, how many moles of O_2 are required?

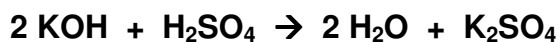
$$5.2 \text{ mol C}_2\text{H}_6 \times \frac{7 \text{ mol O}_2}{2 \text{ mol C}_2\text{H}_6} = 18.2 \text{ mol O}_2$$

- b) Given the following equation: $2 \text{Al} + 6 \text{HCl} \rightarrow 2 \text{AlCl}_3 + 3 \text{H}_2$
If 3.4 moles of aluminum reacts with excess hydrochloric acid, how many moles of H_2 will be produced?

$$3.4 \text{ mol Al} \times \frac{3 \text{ mol H}_2}{2 \text{ mol Al}} = 5.1 \text{ mol H}_2$$

Sometimes you are asked to convert *grams of one chemical into grams of another chemical*. With this type of molar conversion you will need to do *three steps*.

Again we will try to cancel out units. Here is an example from the 2005 SOL test:



What mass of potassium hydroxide is required to react completely with 2.70 g of sulfuric acid to produce potassium sulfate and water?

In this problem you need to go from *grams of H_2SO_4 into grams of KOH*

If you take it one step at a time, and remember to set up the units so they will cancel out, then this is not a difficult problem:

This is the basic set-up, with the units in place. Notice how everything cancels out except for the grams of KOH at the end of the problem.

$$2.70 \text{ g H}_2\text{SO}_4 \times \frac{\text{mol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{\text{g H}_2\text{SO}_4} \times \frac{\text{mol KOH}}{\text{mol H}_2\text{SO}_4} \times \frac{\text{g KOH}}{\text{mol KOH}} = \text{g KOH}$$

The 1st step requires the periodic table. When we add up all the atomic masses for H_2SO_4 , we get $(2)(1.0) + (32.0) + (4)(16.0) = 98.0 \text{ g/mol}$

The 2nd step requires the coefficients. We see that 2 moles of KOH react with 1 mole of H_2SO_4 .

The 3rd step requires the periodic table again. When we add up all the atomic masses for KOH, we get $(39.1) + (16.0) + (1.0) = 56.1 \text{ g/mol}$

Now put all the numbers in place:

$$2.70 \text{ g H}_2\text{SO}_4 \times \frac{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{98.0 \text{ g H}_2\text{SO}_4} \times \frac{2 \text{ mol KOH}}{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{SO}_4} \times \frac{56.1 \text{ g KOH}}{1 \text{ mol KOH}} = 3.09 \text{ g KOH}$$

Remember that if a number is above the line you multiply and if it is below the line you divide.

Now it's your turn:

3. Perform the following conversion:

Given the following equation: $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + 2 \text{KI} \rightarrow \text{PbI}_2 + 2 \text{KNO}_3$

If 5.00 grams of potassium iodide reacts according to the equation above, how many grams of lead iodide will be produced?

$$5.00 \text{ g KI} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol KI}}{166.0 \text{ g KI}} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol PbI}_2}{2 \text{ mol KI}} \times \frac{461.0 \text{ g PbI}_2}{1 \text{ mol PbI}_2} = 6.94 \text{ g PbI}_2$$

Another type of problem that you will need to know involves moles of gas at standard temperature and pressure (STP). Conditions of STP are pressure = 1 atm and temp. = 0°C

The equation we use for gases is called the ideal gas law: $PV = nRT$

P = pressure, V = volume, n = moles, R = a gas constant, and T = temperature.

When you solve for the volume of 1 mole of any gas at STP, this is what you get:

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} = \frac{(1 \text{ mol})(8.31 \text{ kPa L mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1})(273 \text{ K})}{(101.3 \text{ kPa})} = 22.4 \text{ L}$$

Because this number is used so often, you should just memorize that

1 mole of any gas at STP has a volume of 22.4 L

There are a number of ways in which you can use this information. Try the following examples:

4. a) What is the density of CH_4 gas at STP?

$$1 \text{ mol CH}_4 = 16.0 \text{ g and also has a volume of 22.4 L, so density} = \frac{16.0 \text{ g}}{22.4 \text{ L}} = 0.714 \text{ g/L}$$

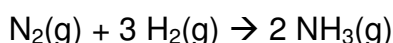
b) Which sample of gas has the largest volume at STP?

10.0 g He 10.0 g Ne 10.0 g Ar 10.0 g Kr

The sample with the largest amount of moles should have the largest volume. To convert from grams to moles we need to divide 10.0 g by the molar mass for each gas. That means that Helium is the sample with the largest # of moles.

c) What is the volume of 3.01×10^{23} atoms of He gas at STP?

$$3.01 \times 10^{23} \text{ atoms He} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol He}}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ atoms He}} \times \frac{22.4 \text{ L}}{1 \text{ mol He}} = 11.2 \text{ L He}$$



Suppose that you have a balanced chemical equation like the one above, and that all of the chemicals are gases. You already know that the coefficients represent *molar ratios*. But if all of the chemicals are gases, then the coefficients *also represent volume ratios!*

In other words, the equation above can be thought of as the following:

“1 liter of N₂ reacts with 3 liters of H₂ to produce 2 liters of NH₃.”

Suppose the question asks you something like the following:

How many liters of hydrogen gas are needed to react completely with 2.00 L of nitrogen gas?

All you have to do is use the coefficients as the ratio between liters of H₂ and liters of N₂:

$$2.00 \text{ L N}_2 \times \frac{3 \text{ L H}_2}{1 \text{ L N}_2} = 6.00 \text{ L H}_2 \quad \text{It's really simple. Try the following examples:}$$

5. a) Given the following equation: $2 \text{ C}_2\text{H}_6(\text{g}) + 7 \text{ O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 4 \text{ CO}_2(\text{g}) + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}(\text{g})$
To produce 12 liters of water, how many liters of oxygen gas are needed?

$$12 \text{ L H}_2\text{O} \times \frac{7 \text{ L O}_2}{6 \text{ L H}_2\text{O}} = 14 \text{ L O}_2$$

- b) Given the following equation: $2 \text{ H}_2\text{S}(\text{g}) + 3 \text{ O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2 \text{ H}_2\text{O} + 2 \text{ SO}_2(\text{g})$
If 4.0 liters of oxygen gas reacts according to the above reaction, how many liters of H₂S will be required?

$$4.0 \text{ L O}_2 \times \frac{2 \text{ L H}_2\text{S}}{3 \text{ L O}_2} = 2.7 \text{ L H}_2\text{S}$$

The last topic in molar relationships deals with molarity (M), which is defined as follows:

$$M = \frac{\text{moles of solute}}{\text{liters of solution}} \quad \text{This equation can be rearranged: } (M) \times (\text{liters of solution}) = \text{moles}$$

Remember the following:

If you are given *grams* of solute, you can convert it into *moles* using the periodic table.
Of course you can also go from moles to grams, too.

If you are given a volume in *mL*, you can convert it into *liters* by dividing by 1000. For example, 500 mL = 0.500 L. Of course you can also go from liters to mL by multiplying by 1000.

Here are some example problems that deal with molarity.

6. a) How many grams of KCl are required to prepare 500 mL of a 0.125 M solution?

$$\text{The molar mass of KCl is equal to} \quad 0.125 \text{ mol KCl} \quad 74.6 \text{ g KCl} \\ 0.500 \text{ L} \times \frac{\quad}{\quad} \times \frac{\quad}{\quad} = 4.66 \text{ g KCl}$$

$$39.1 + 35.5 = 74.6 \text{ g/mol}$$

1 L

1 mol KCl

- b) What is the molarity of a solution that is prepared by dissolving 75.0 g of $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$ in enough water to prepare 500.0 mL of solution?

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{C} = 12.0 \times 6 = 72.0 \\ \text{H} = 1.0 \times 12 = 12.0 \\ \text{O} = 16.0 \times 6 = 96.0 \\ \hline 180.0 \text{ g/mol} \end{array} \quad 75.0 \text{ g} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol } \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6}{180.0 \text{ g } \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6} = 0.417 \text{ mol } \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$$

$$\text{Molarity} = (\text{moles} / \text{L}) = (0.417 \text{ mol} / 0.500 \text{ L}) = 0.833 \text{ M}$$

- c) How many milliliters of 2.50 M NaCl are needed to provide 0.150 mol NaCl?

$$0.150 \text{ mol NaCl} \times \frac{1 \text{ L}}{2.50 \text{ mol NaCl}} \times \frac{1000 \text{ mL}}{1 \text{ L}} = 60 \text{ mL}$$

Sometimes a solution is prepared by diluting (adding water) to a concentrated solution. If you have to do a problem that involves dilution, here is how you do it:

$M_1V_1 = M_2V_2$ where M_1 is the initial molarity of the concentrated solution
 M_2 is the final molarity of the diluted solution
 V_1 is the initial volume of the concentrated solution
 V_2 is the final volume of the diluted solution

Example: A 15 mL sample of 4.0 M NaOH was diluted to a volume of 250 mL. What is the new concentration of the solution?

$$(4.0 \text{ M})(15 \text{ mL}) = (M_2)(250 \text{ mL})$$

$$M_2 = \frac{(4)(15)}{250} = 0.24 \text{ M}$$

7. a) If 50.0 mL of a 3.00 M solution is diluted to a volume of 500 mL, what is the final concentration?

$$(3.00 \text{ M})(50.0 \text{ mL}) = (M_2)(500 \text{ mL})$$

$$M_2 = \frac{(3)(50)}{500} = 0.30 \text{ M}$$

Note that the volume increased ten-fold and the molarity decreased by a factor of ten.

- b) 750 mL of 0.50 M HCl is required for a lab experiment. How many milliliters of 6.00 M HCl should be used to prepare this solution?

$$(6.00 \text{ M})(V_1) = (0.50 \text{ M})(750 \text{ mL})$$

$$V_1 = \frac{(0.5)(750)}{6} = 62.5 \text{ mL}$$

PHASES OF MATTER AND KINETIC MOLECULAR THEORY

Here are some important things to know about the kinetic molecular theory:

Gas particles are in constant, rapid, random motion, and they are very far apart from each other. When you increase the temp., gas particles travel faster because they have more kinetic energy.

Here are some gas laws you should know:

Charles' Law: As temp. goes up, volume goes up (and vice versa)

Boyle's Law: As pressure goes up, volume goes down (and vice versa)

If you ever see a problem involving a gas collected "by water displacement" or "over water," you will always *subtract the water pressure from the total pressure to get the pressure of the dry gas.*

1. For example: A sample of oxygen gas is collected over water at 98.67 kPa. If the partial pressure of the water is 2.67 kPa, the partial pressure of the oxygen is 96.00 kPa

In general, the total pressure of a gas *mixture* is equal to the sum of the partial pressures of each individual gas.

2. If you have to do any calculations with gases that involve temperature, you should always convert the temperature from °C to K by ADDING 273 TO IT

Here is an example: A sample of gas occupies a volume of 5.00 L at 25°C. This gas was heated at constant pressure and the volume increased to 6.00 L. What is the new temperature of the gas?

Charles Law: $\frac{T_1}{V_1} = \frac{T_2}{V_2}$ $\frac{(298 \text{ K})}{(5.00 \text{ L})} = \frac{(T_2)}{(6.00 \text{ L})}$ $T_2 = \frac{(6.00)(298)}{(5.00)} = 358 \text{ K} - 273 = 85^\circ\text{C}$

3. A sample of gas occupies a volume of 10.0 liters at 10°C. What would be the volume of this gas at 50°C if the pressure remains constant?

Charles Law: $\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$ $\frac{(10.0 \text{ L})}{(283 \text{ K})} = \frac{(V_2)}{(323 \text{ K})}$ $V_2 = \frac{(10.0)(323)}{(283)} = 11.4 \text{ L}$

If you are given a problem that involves the ideal gas law, you will need to remember

$$PV = nRT$$

Here is an example problem:

$R = 8.31 \frac{\text{kPa} \cdot \text{dm}^3}{\text{moles} \cdot \text{K}}$

A gas cylinder is filled with 4.00 moles of oxygen gas at 300.0 K. The piston is compressed to yield a pressure of 400.0 kPa. What is the volume inside the cylinder?

- A 3.19 dm³
- B 6.25 dm³
- C 24.9 dm³
- D 31.5 dm³

To answer this question, you need to solve for V:

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} = \frac{(4.00 \text{ moles})(8.31 \text{ kPa dm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1})(300.0 \text{ K})}{(400.0 \text{ kPa})} = 24.9 \text{ dm}^3 \quad (\text{Notice that all units cancel out except dm}^3)$$

$$R = 8.31 \frac{\text{kPa L}}{\text{mol K}}$$

4. A sample of oxygen gas occupies a volume of 15.0 liters at a pressure of 250 kPa and a temperature of 50°C. How many *moles* of oxygen are present in this gas sample?

$$n = \frac{PV}{RT} = \frac{(250 \text{ kPa})(15.0 \text{ L})}{(8.31 \text{ kPa dm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1})(323 \text{ K})} = 1.40 \text{ moles}$$

5. There are other things you should know about phases of matter:
Fill in the name of the phase changes below:

These three phase changes are all ENDOTHERMIC:					
Solid → Liquid	MELTING	Liquid → Gas	EVAPORATION	Solid → Gas	SUBLIMATION

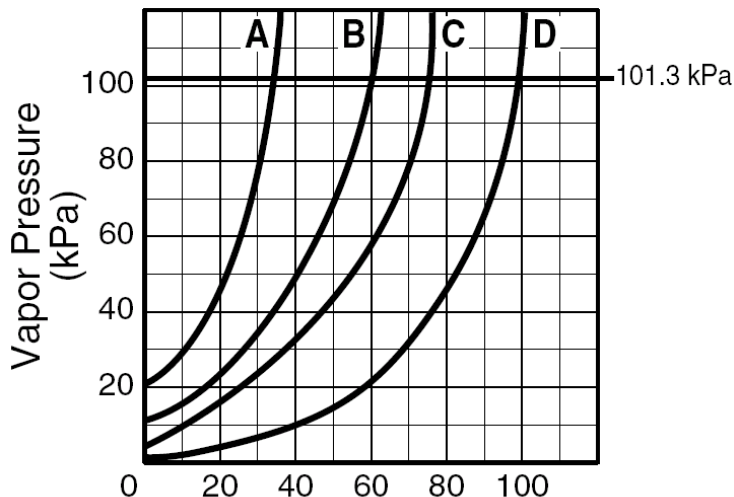
These three phase changes are all EXOTHERMIC:					
Gas → Liquid	CONDENSATION	Liquid → Solid	FREEZING	Gas → Solid	DEPOSITION

Another word for melting is FUSION. Another word for evaporation is VAPORIZATION.

If you see a diagram with a sealed liquid in a jar or flask, you should know that there is an equilibrium happening in there. The rate of evaporation is equal to the rate of condensation.



Vapor pressure is defined as the pressure exerted by the gas above a liquid. Here is an example of some vapor pressure curves:



6. From this graph we can get certain information.

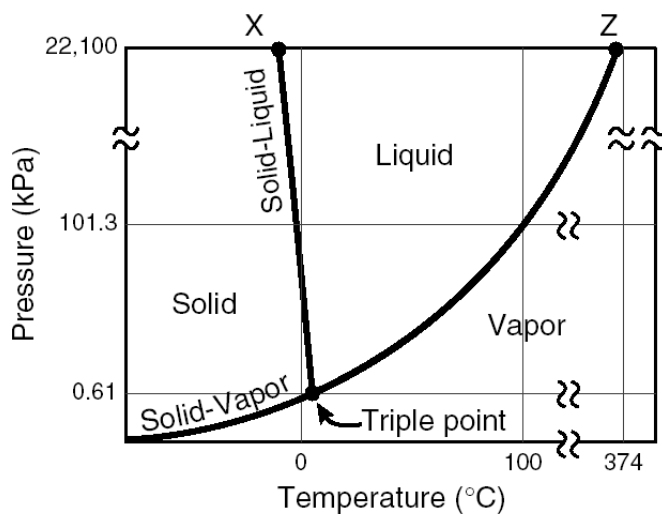
- a) The normal boiling point of liquid A is 34-35°C
- b) If the external pressure is reduced to 60 kPa, then Liquid C would boil at 60-61°C
- c) The liquid with the strongest intermolecular forces is most likely LIQUID D

Liquid	Boiling Point (°C)
ether	35
ethyl alcohol	78
water	100
glycerine	290

7. Which of the liquids in the table above would have the *highest vapor pressure* at room temperature? Explain

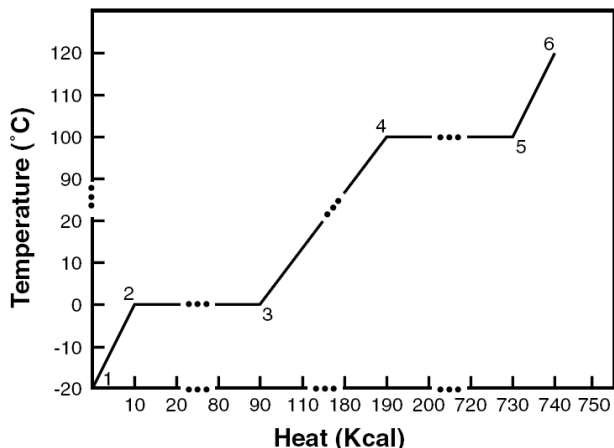
ETHER HAS THE LOWEST BOILING POINT. THEREFORE IT SHOULD HAVE THE HIGHEST VAPOR PRESSURE AT ROOM TEMPERATURE. A LIQUID WITH A HIGH VAPOR PRESSURE SHOULD EVAPORATE EASILY, AND ETHER PROBABLY HAS THE WEAKEST IATTRACTIVE FORCES.

- 8. If you want to get water to boil BELOW 100°C, you can DECREASE the air pressure.
If you want to get water to boil ABOVE 100°C, you can INCREASE the air pressure.
- 9. If you add salt to water, this will LOWER the freezing point and RAISE the boiling point.



10. The diagram above is called a phase diagram. All along the boundary between two phases there is an equilibrium between those phases. What can we say about the triple point?

AT THE TRIPLE POINT, ALL THREE PHASES OF MATTER (SOLID, LIQUID, AND GAS) ARE IN EQUILIBRIUM WITH EACH OTHER.



11. The diagram above is called a heating curve. Match the descriptions of what is happening with the various line segments

 C Between 1 and 2

A. ice is melting

 A Between 2 and 3

B. liquid water is evaporating

 D Between 3 and 4

C. ice is being heated

 B Between 4 and 5

D. liquid is being heated

 E Between 5 and 6

E. gas is being heated

Sometimes you will be asked to calculate how much heat is needed to raise the temperature of water. Here is an example:

How many calories of heat are needed to raise the temperature of 50.0 g of water from 20.0°C to 80.0°C?

You should know that it takes ONE CALORIE to raise the temperature of ONE GRAM of water by ONE DEGREE CELSIUS.

So all you have to do is use the following equation:

$$(\text{MASS}) \times \left(\frac{1 \text{ calorie}}{\text{g } ^\circ\text{C}} \right) \times (\Delta T) \quad \text{where } \Delta T \text{ is the change in temperature.}$$

$$(50.0 \text{ g}) \times (1 \text{ cal} / \text{g } ^\circ\text{C}) \times (60^\circ\text{C}) = 3000 \text{ calories}$$

12. How many calories are needed to raise the temperature of 75.0 g H₂O from 30.0°C to 70.0°C?

$$(75.0 \text{ g}) \times (1 \text{ cal} / \text{g } ^\circ\text{C}) \times (40^\circ\text{C}) = 3000 \text{ calories (OOH, THAT WAS JUST A COINCIDENCE!)}$$

Sometimes you will be asked to calculate how much heat is needed to melt a substance. They will give you the heat of fusion. Here is an example:

13. The heat of fusion for water is 6.12 kJ per mole. How many kJ of heat is required to melt 100.0 grams of ice at 0°C?

$$100.0 \text{ g H}_2\text{O} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O}}{18.0 \text{ g H}_2\text{O}} \times \frac{6.12 \text{ kJ}}{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{O}} = 34 \text{ kJ}$$

14. If you see a question that mentions that water has a high boiling point or a high heat capacity, then the explanation will be that water has very strong intermolecular forces, known as

HYDROGEN BONDING

15. If you see any questions that deal with polarity and mixing two liquids together, you should

know that two liquids will mix well together if they are **BOTH POLAR OR BOTH NONPOLAR**

16. You might be asked to predict if the attractive forces are strong or weak. You should know that

if a substance has a high melting or boiling point, then it will have **STRONG**

attractive forces.

END OF SOL REVIEW PACKET. GOOD LUCK ON THE SOL TEST!
