## Chapter 4

## Stoichiometry

## Alkanes and Hydrocarbons

- Alkanes are hydrocarbons where the carbon atoms are linked together with single bonds.

$$
\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{H}_{2 n+2}
$$

- Hydrocarbons are compounds composed only of hydrogen and carbon.


## Fundamentals of Stoichiometry

- Stoichiometry is a term used to describe quantitative relationships in chemistry.
- "How much?" of a product is produced or reactant is consumed.
- A balanced chemical equation is needed.
- Conversion between mass or volume to number of moles frequently needed.


## Ratios from a Balanced Chemical Equation



- Mole ratios are obtained from the coefficients in the balanced chemical reaction.
- $1 \mathrm{CH}_{4}: 2 \mathrm{O}_{2}: 1 \mathrm{CO}_{2}: 2 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$
- $1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{CH} 44: 2 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{O}_{2}: 1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{CO} 2: 2 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{H} \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$
- These ratios can be used in solving problems:

$$
\frac{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{CH}_{4}}{2 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{O}_{2}} \text { or } \frac{2 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}}{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{CH}_{4}}
$$

## Ratios from a Balanced Chemical Equation

- This flow diagram illustrates the various steps involved in solving a typical reaction stoichiometry problem.
- No different than unit conversion
- Usually more than one conversion is necessary
- Write all quantities with their complete units



## Example Question

- How many grams of water can be produced if sufficient hydrogen reacts with 26.0 g of oxygen?

$$
2 \mathrm{H}_{2}(\mathrm{~g})+\mathrm{O}_{2}(\mathrm{~g}) \rightarrow 2 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{~g})
$$



## Limiting Reactants

- In many chemical reactions, one reactant is often exhausted before the other reactants. This reactant is the limiting reactant.
- Limiting reactant is determined using stoichiometry.
- The limiting reactant limits the quantity of product produced.
 forms?

$$
\begin{gathered}
4 \mathrm{NH}_{3} \\
43.0 \mathrm{~kg}
\end{gathered}+5 \mathrm{O}_{2} \longrightarrow 4 \mathrm{NO}+6 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}
$$



$$
75.77 \times 10^{3} \mathrm{~g} \text { NO } \quad 75.8 \mathrm{~kg} \mathrm{NO}
$$

$\underset{\text { limiting }}{35.4 \times 10^{3} \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{O}_{2}} \times \frac{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{O}_{2}}{32.00 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{O}} \mathbf{2} \times \frac{4 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{NO}}{5 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{O}} \times \frac{30.01 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{NO}}{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{NO}}$

$$
53.12 \times 10^{3} \mathrm{~g} \text { NO } \quad 26.6 \mathrm{~kg} \mathrm{NO}
$$

smaller amt produced; $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ is limiting reactant!!

## Theoretical Yield

- The maximum mass of a product that can be obtained in a reaction is determined by the limiting reactant.
- Determine which reactant is the limiting reactant.
- Calculate the mass of product that can be made from the limiting reactant. This mass is the theoretical yield.
- In stoichiometric mixtures, however, both reactants are consumed completely, so either could be considered the limiting reactant.


## Theoretical and Percentage Yields

## Percentage Yield $=\left(\frac{\text { actual yield }}{\text { theoretical yield }}\right) \times 100 \%$

- Reaction efficiency is measured with percentage yield.
- The mass of product obtained is the actual yield.
- The ideal mass of product obtained from calculation is the theoretical yield.
Q. If 10.0 g NO react with 14.0 g of $\mathrm{NO}_{2}$ and 8.52 g of $\mathrm{N}_{\mathbf{2}} \mathrm{O}_{3}$ are produced. What is the percentage yield? $\mathrm{NO}+\mathrm{NO}_{2} \longrightarrow \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}$
Percent yield $=\frac{8.52 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}}{\text { Theoretical yield }} \times 100 \%=$ ? $36.9 \%$
$10.0 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{NO} \times \frac{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{NO}}{30.01 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{NO}} \times \frac{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}}{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{NO}} \times \frac{76.02 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}}{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}}$

$$
25.3 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}
$$

$14.0 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{NO}_{2} \times \frac{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{NO}}{46.01 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{NO}} 2 \mathrm{a}$ limiting

$$
23.1 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{~N}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{3}
$$

## Solution Stoichiometry

- For reactions occurring in solution, the concentration and volume of reactants and products are often used instead of mass to solve solution stoichiometry problems.


## Moles can be solved from concentration (molarity) and volume (Liters)

$$
\text { Molarity }=\frac{\text { moles }}{\text { volume }(L)}
$$

$$
\text { moles }=\text { Molarity } \times \text { volume }(L)
$$

$$
\text { previously: } \quad \text { moles }=\frac{\text { mass }}{\text { molar mass }}
$$

## Solution Stoichiometry



What is the molarity of a solution of nitric acid if 0.216 g of barium hydroxide is required to neutralize a $20.00-\mathrm{mL}$ sample of nitric acid?
acid
$2 \mathrm{HNO}_{3}(\mathrm{aq})+\mathrm{Ba}(\mathrm{OH})_{2}(\mathrm{aq}) \longrightarrow$ $\begin{gathered}\text { salt } \\ \mathrm{Ba}\left(\mathrm{NO}_{3}\right)_{2}(\mathrm{aq})+2 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}(l)\end{gathered}$
$0.216 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{Ba}(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \times \frac{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{Ba}(\mathrm{OH})_{2}}{171.34 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{Ba}(\mathrm{OH})_{2}} 1.26 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{Ba}(\mathrm{OH})_{2}$
$1.26 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{Ba}(\mathrm{OH})_{2} \times \frac{2 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{HNO}_{3}}{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{Ba}(\mathrm{OH})_{2}} \quad 2.52 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{HNO}_{3}$
Molarity $=2.52 \times 10^{-3} \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{HNO}_{3} \times \frac{1}{0.0200} \mathbf{L}$
$0.126 \mathrm{M} \mathrm{HNO}_{3}$

## Solution Stoichiometry

- A titration is a common laboratory technique that uses solution stoichiometry.
- A solution-phase reaction is carried out under controlled conditions so that the amount of one reactant can be determined with high precision.
- An indicator is a dye added to a titration to indicate when the reaction is complete.


## Chapter 5

Gases

## Ideal Gas Law

- The ideal gas law is the quantitative relationship between pressure ( $P$ ), volume ( $V$ ), moles gas present ( $n$ ), and the absolute temperature ( $T$ ).

$$
P V=n R T
$$

- $R$ is the universal gas constant.
- $R=0.08206 \mathrm{~L} \mathrm{~atm}_{\mathrm{mol}}{ }^{-1} \mathrm{~K}^{-1}$ : used in most gas equations (universal gas constant)


## Pressure and Temperature

Units of Pressure

- 1 torr $=1 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{Hg}$
- $1 \mathrm{~atm}=760$ torr (exactly)
- $1 \mathrm{~atm}=101,325 \mathrm{~Pa}$ (exactly)
- 760 torr $=101,325 \mathrm{~Pa}$ (exactly)

Units of Temperature

$$
\begin{aligned}
& { }^{\circ} \mathrm{F}=\left(1.8 \times{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)+32 \\
& { }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}=\left({ }^{\circ} \mathrm{F}-32\right) / 1.8
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\mathrm{K}={ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}+273.15
$$

$$
{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}=\mathrm{K}-273.15
$$

## History and Application of the Gas Law

- Charles's Law: $\boldsymbol{T} \propto \boldsymbol{V}$

$$
\frac{V_{1}}{T_{1}}=\frac{V_{2}}{T_{2}}
$$

- Boyle' s Law: $P \propto 1 / V$

$$
P_{1} V_{1}=P_{2} V_{2}
$$

- Avogadro’ s Law: $\boldsymbol{n} \propto \boldsymbol{V}$

$$
\frac{V_{1}}{n_{1}}=\frac{V_{2}}{n_{2}}
$$

- The empirical gas laws led to the ideal gas law.

$$
P V=n R T
$$

Which of the following relationships are true for gases?
i) The number of moles of a gas is inversely proportional to its volume (at constant pressure and temperature). Wrong
ii) The pressure of a gas is directly proportional to its temperature in kelvins (at constant volume). True
iii) The volume of a gas is inversely proportional to its pressure (at constant temperature). True

$$
\frac{V_{1}}{n_{1}}=\frac{V_{2}}{n_{2}}
$$

$$
\frac{P_{1}}{T_{1}}=\frac{P_{2}}{T_{2}}
$$

$$
P_{1} V_{1}=P_{2} V_{2}
$$

## Example Questions

At constant temperature, $14.0 \mathrm{~L}^{2}$ of $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ at 0.882 atm is compressed to 1.75 L . What is the final pressure of $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ ?

$$
P_{1} V_{1}=P_{2} V_{2}
$$

$$
P_{2}=\frac{P_{1} V_{1}}{V_{2}} \quad \begin{aligned}
& P_{1}=0.882 \mathrm{~atm} \\
& V_{1}=14.0 \mathrm{~L} \\
& V_{2}=1.75 \mathrm{~L}
\end{aligned}
$$

7.06 atm

## Partial Pressure

- Dalton' s law of partial pressures: The total pressure ( $P$ ) of a mixture of gases is the sum of the partial pressures of the component gases ( $P_{i}$ ).

$$
P=\sum_{i} P_{i} \quad P_{i}=\frac{n_{i} R T}{V} \quad P=\sum_{i} P_{i}=\sum_{i} n_{i} \frac{R T}{V}
$$

- Daltons Law can be expressed in terms of mole fraction.
- Mole fraction $\left(X_{i}\right)$ for a gas in a gas mixture is the moles of the gas $\left(n_{\mathrm{i}}\right)$ divided by the total moles of the gases present.
- The partial pressure of each gas is related to its mole fraction.

$$
\begin{gathered}
X_{i}=\frac{n_{i}}{n_{\text {total }}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P_{i}=X_{i} P \\
\frac{P_{i}}{P}=\frac{n_{i}(R T / V)}{n_{\text {total }}(R T / V)}=\frac{n_{i}}{n_{\text {total }}}=X_{i}
\end{gathered}
$$

A mixture of He and $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ is placed in a 4.00 L flask at $32^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. The partial pressure of the He is 3.4 atm and the partial pressure of the $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ is 2.6 atm . What is the mole fraction of $\mathrm{O}_{2}$ ?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P=\sum_{i} P_{i}=P_{O 2}+P_{H e}=3.4 \mathrm{~atm}+2.6 \mathrm{~atm}=6.0 \mathrm{~atm} \\
& \frac{P_{i}}{P}=\frac{n_{i}(R T / V)}{n_{\text {total }}(R T / V)}=\frac{n_{i}}{n_{\text {total }}}=X_{i} \quad X_{O 2}=\frac{P_{O 2}}{P}=\frac{2.6}{6.0}=0.43
\end{aligned}
$$

## Stoichiometry of Reactions Involving Gases

- For reactions involving gases, the ideal gas law is used to determine moles of gas involved in the reaction.
- Use mole ratios (stoichiometry)
- Connect number of moles of a gas to its temperature, pressure, or volume with ideal gas law

$$
P V=n R T
$$

What volume of $\mathrm{O}_{2}$, measured at $91.2^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 743 mm Hg , will be produced by the decomposition of $4.88 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{KClO}_{3}$ ? $(\mathrm{R}=0.08206$
$\mathrm{L} \cdot \mathrm{atm} / \mathrm{mol} \cdot \mathrm{K}$ )
$2 \mathrm{KClO}_{3}(\mathrm{~s}) \rightarrow 2 \mathrm{KCl}(\mathrm{s})+3 \mathrm{O}_{2}(\mathrm{~g})$
$\frac{n_{K C O O}}{n_{O 2}}=\frac{2}{3} \quad n_{O 2}=\frac{3 \times n_{\text {KClO }}}{2}=\frac{3 \times n_{\text {KClO3 }}}{2}=\frac{3 \times 4.88 \mathrm{~g} \times \frac{1 \mathrm{~mole}}{122.5495 \mathrm{~g}}}{2}=0.0597 \mathrm{~mol}$
$\boldsymbol{P V}=\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{T} \quad \boldsymbol{V}=\frac{\boldsymbol{n} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{T}}{\boldsymbol{P}} \begin{gathered}T=91.2+273.15=364.4 \mathrm{~K} \\ P=743 \mathrm{~mm} \times \frac{1 \mathrm{~atm}}{760 \mathrm{~mm}} \\ =0.978 \mathrm{~atm}\end{gathered}$
1.83 L

## Postulates of the Kinetic-Molecular Model

- Gases are made up of large collections of particles, which are in constant, random motion.
- Gas particles are infinitely small and occupy negligible volume.
- Gas particles move in straight lines except when they collide with other particles or with the container walls. These collisions are elastic, so kinetic energy of particles is conserved.
- Particles interact with each other only when collisions occur.
- The average kinetic energy of a gas is proportional to the absolute temperature of the gas but does not depend upon the identity of the gas


## Breaking of the ideal gas law



- The ideal gas model breaks down at high pressures and low temperatures.
- high pressure: volume of particles no longer negligible
- low temperature: particles move slowly enough to interact


## Chapter 6

## The Periodic Table and Atomic Structure

## The Wave-Particle Duality of Light

- The product of the frequency and wavelength is the speed of light.

$$
c=\lambda v
$$

- $c=2.99792458 \times 10^{8} \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$
- The energy of a photon $(E)$ is proportional to its frequency $(v)$.
- and is inversely proportional to the wavelength ( $\lambda$ ).
- $h=$ Planck' s constant $=6.626 \times 10^{-34} \mathrm{~J} \cdot \mathrm{~s}$

$$
E=h v \quad c=\lambda v \quad E=h v=\frac{h c}{\lambda}
$$

When a hydrogen atom undergoes a transition from $n=2$ to $n$ $=1$, it emits a photon with wavelength $\lambda=121.6 \mathrm{~nm}$. What is the energy of a 1 mole of photons of this light?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E=h v=\frac{h c}{\lambda}=\frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34} \mathrm{~J} \cdot \mathrm{~s} \times 2.998 \times 10^{8} \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}}{121.6 \times 10^{-9} \mathrm{~m}}=1.633 \times 10^{-18} \mathrm{~J} \\
& E_{\text {mol }}=1.633 \times 10^{-18} \mathrm{~J} \times 6.022 \times 10^{23}=9.838 \times 10^{5} \mathrm{~J}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Quantum numbers

n Principle quantum number - shell
l Secondary quantum number - subshell
$\boldsymbol{m}_{\boldsymbol{l}} \quad$ Magnetic quantum number - subshell direction
$\boldsymbol{m}_{\boldsymbol{s}} \quad$ Spin quantum number - spin direction
principal quantum secondary quantum
$n=1,2,3, \ldots$ number $(\boldsymbol{n}) \quad$ number $(\boldsymbol{l})$
$l=0,1,2, n-1$
$m_{l}=-l, \ldots 0, \ldots l$
$m_{s}= \pm 1 / 2$
indicates the principal shell of the orbital.
indicates the subshell of the orbital.

Which of the following represents invalid set of quantum numbers?
a) $n=3, l=2, m_{l}=-2$,
b) $n=2, I=1, m_{l}=0$,
c) $n=3, I=3, m_{l}=3$,
d) $n=4, l=3, m_{l}=3$
e) $n=5, l=0, m_{l}=0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{n}=1,2,3, \ldots \\
& \boldsymbol{l}=0,1,2, \boldsymbol{n}-1 \\
& \boldsymbol{m}_{\boldsymbol{l}}=-\boldsymbol{l}, \ldots \mathbf{0}, \ldots \boldsymbol{l} \\
& \boldsymbol{m}_{\boldsymbol{s}}= \pm \mathbf{1} / \mathbf{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Quentun Nunders

Principal level (specified by $n$ )
$n=2$
$2^{2}=4$
$n=1$
$1^{2}=1$


Sublevel
(specified by $l$ )


- the number of sublevels within a level $=n$.
- the number of orbitals within a sublevel $=2 l+1$.
- the number of orbitals in a level $=n^{2}$.

Letter designations for the secondary quantum number

| $\ell$-value | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Letter Designation | $s$ | $p$ | $d$ | $f$ | $g$ |

## Electron Configuration

Pauli Exclusion Principle: no more than two electrons can occupy any orbital

Aufbau Principle: Lower-energy orbitals fill before higherenergy orbitals.

Hund' s rule: Fill a set orbitals of same energy with electrons singly, with parallel spins, before pairing starts.

## Electron Configurations

Aufbau Principle: order of electron filling 1s 2s 2p 3s 3p 4s 3d 4p 5s 4d 5p 6s 4f 5d 6p 7s 5f 6d 7p

s subshell: 1 orbital, 2 electrons
p subshell: 3 orbitals, 6 electrons
d subshell: 5 orbitals, 10 electrons
f subshell: 7 orbitals, 14 electrons

Write the ground state electron configuration for iron.
a) $[A r] 4 s^{2} 4 p^{6}$
b) $[\mathrm{Ar}] 4 \mathrm{~s}^{2} 3 \mathrm{~d}^{6}$
c) $[\mathrm{Ar}] 3 \mathrm{~d}^{8}$
d) $[A r] 4 s^{2} 3 d^{5} 4 p^{1}$ e) $[K r] 4 s^{2} 3 d^{6}$

## ${ }_{26} \mathrm{Fe}$

Orbitals Fill in the Following Order: 1s $2 s 2 p 3 s 3 p 4 s 3 d 4 p 5 s 4 d 5 p 6 s 4 f 5 d 6 p 7 s 5 f 6 d 7 p$
${ }_{26}$ Fe: $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6} 3 s^{2} 3 p^{6} 4 s^{2} 3 d^{6}$
[Ar] $4 s^{2} 3 d^{6}$

## Valence Electrons and Core Electrons

Si has 4 valence electrons (those in the $n=3$ principal shell) and 10 core electrons.

Si

$$
1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6} 3 s^{2} 3 p^{2}
$$

$$
\text { Core } \int_{\left[\mathrm{Ne]} \mathrm{3} \mathbf{s}^{2} 3 \mathbf{p}^{2}\right.}^{\sim} \text { Valence }
$$ electrons electrons

Valence electrons: electrons in the outermost shell [the shell with the highest principal quantum number(s), $n$ ].

How many valence electrons are in selenium?
a) 1
b) 2
c) 4
d) 6
e) 8

## ${ }_{34} \mathrm{Se}$

Orbitals Fill in the Following Order: 1s 2s 2p 3s 3p 4s 3d 4p 5s 4d 5p 6s 4f 5d 6p 7s 5f 6d 7p
${ }_{34} \mathrm{Se}: 1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6} 3 s^{2} 3 p^{6} 4 s^{2} 3 d^{10} 4 p^{4}$

$$
[\mathrm{Ar}] 4 s^{2} 3 d^{10} 4 p^{4}
$$

Which element has the electron configuration $[\mathrm{Ar}] 4 \mathrm{~s}^{1} 3 \mathrm{~d}^{10}$ ?

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { a) } \mathrm{Co} \quad \text { b) } \mathrm{Zn} \quad \text { c) } \mathrm{Ga} \quad \text { d) } \mathrm{Ag} \quad \text { e) } \mathrm{Cu} \\
{[\mathrm{Ar}] 4 s^{1} 3 d^{10}} \\
1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6} 3 s^{2} 3 p^{6} 4 s^{1} 3 d^{10}
\end{gathered}
$$

${ }_{29} \mathrm{Cu}$

## Ionization Energy


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- Graph of the first ionization energy (in $\mathrm{kJ} / \mathrm{mol}$ ) vs. atomic number for the first 38 elements.
Q. Arrange these elements based on their increasing first ionization energies.
I.E. Increase Se, Ge, K, S

Se, S, Group 6A (same group) $\mathrm{Se}<\mathrm{S}$

Se, Ge, K, Row 4 (same period) بِ $\mathrm{K}<\mathrm{Ge}<\mathrm{Se}$
$\mathrm{K}<\mathrm{Ge}<\mathrm{Se}<\mathrm{S}$

|  |  | I.E. Increase |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | \% | 28 | 3 | ${ }^{4}$ | ${ }^{51}$ | ${ }^{6}$ | 7A | нe |
|  | $\bigcirc$ | $\stackrel{\text { be }}{ }$ | ${ }_{8}$ | ¢ | $\stackrel{\text { i }}{ }$ | : | ${ }_{\text {\% }}$ | $\mathrm{Ne}^{\text {e }}$ |
|  | ${ }_{\text {Na }}$ | ${ }_{\text {Ms }}$ | ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ${ }_{\text {si }}$ | ${ }_{p}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | $\stackrel{\text { a }}{ }$ | $\stackrel{\text { ar }}{ }$ |
|  | ${ }^{0}$ | ${ }_{\text {Ca }}$ | ${ }_{\mathrm{ca}}^{0}$ | ${ }_{\text {ce }}$ | $\bigcirc$ | se | ${ }_{\text {Br }}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{\text { kt }}$ |
|  | O | st | O | Sn | sb | ${ }_{\text {re }}$ | i | xe |
|  |  |  | II | po |  | $\bigcirc$ | - | - |

