

Chemistry

Review Notes

Units 8-14



Regents Review Unit 8

Gases

Comparing States of Matter

Solid	Liquid	Gas
 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Particle arrangement: Close, Ordered, vibrate in place Intermolecular forces of attraction: high Shape: definite Volume: definite Entropy: low 	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Particle arrangement: Less ordered, flow around each other Intermolecular forces of attraction: medium Shape: take shape of container Volume: definite Entropy: medium 	 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Particle arrangement: Far apart, disorder, RANDOM movement Intermolecular forces of attraction: low Shape: takes shape of container Volume: fills container Entropy: high

*Gases are most affected by changes in temperature, pressure, and volume.

Ideal vs real gases

IDEAL GASES	REAL GASES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Imaginary Follows the gas laws Particles are NOT attracted to each other Particles have NO volume (negligible) Particles move in straight line motion Have elastic collisions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Actual gas, what we work with in lab Do not follow gas laws exactly Particles DO attract each other (have some intermolecular forces of attraction) Particles DO have some volume... atomic radii Particles DO not necessarily move in straight lines Non elastic collisions

- Ideal Gases are perfect gases. They have:
 - No mass
 - No volume
 - No attractive forces
- When will real gases behave as Ideal Gases?
 - When they are spread out
 - Temperature is High
 - Pressure is Low

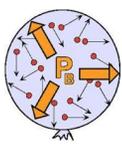
PLIGHT

Gas Pressure

- Force exerted on container walls by particles in a gas
- Units we use: kPa, atm
- STP (Standard Temperature and Pressure) refer to **Table A**

Table A
Standard Temperature and Pressure

Name	Value	Unit
Standard Pressure	101.3 kPa 1 atm	kilopascal atmosphere
Standard Temperature	273 K 0°C	kelvin degree Celsius

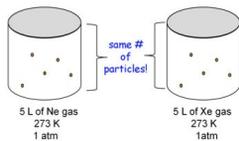


Factors Affecting Pressure

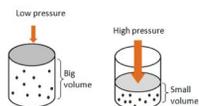
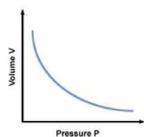
Amount of Gas (number of moles)	Increasing amount will increase Pressure and dec amount will dec pressure	
Temperature	Increasing temp. will increase Pressure and dec temp will decrease pressure	
Volume	Decreasing volume will increase P, increasing volume decreases P	

Avagadro's Law

- EQUAL VOLUMES of different gases at the same temperature and pressure contain EQUAL NUMBERS OF PARTICLES



Inverse Relationship: Temperature constant



Combined Gas Law

Table T

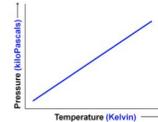
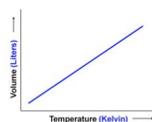
$$\frac{P_1 V_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{T_2}$$

- Temperature must be in Kelvin
- Make sure units are the same on both sides
- If a variable is held constant or not mentioned, cross it out of equation

Table A
Standard Temperature and Pressure

Name	Value	Unit
Standard Pressure	101.3 kPa 1 atm	kilopascal atmosphere
Standard Temperature	273 K 0°C	kelvin degree Celsius

Direct Relationship: Temp changing



$$P/T = k_p \text{ or } P_1/T_1 = P_2/T_2$$

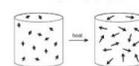
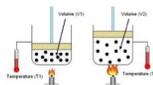


Figure 8.5 Pressure-temperature relationship for gases. As the temperature increases, the gas particles have greater kinetic energy (longer arrows) and collisions are more frequent and forceful.

Graham's Law of Diffusion

- Gases move from high to low concentrations. Lighter gases diffuse faster.



Example

A gas in a rigid container has a pressure of 3.5 atmospheres at 200. K. Calculate the pressure at 273K.

Example:

A 32.9L sample of a gas at constant pressure increases in temperature from 25 to 45C. Should the volume increase or decrease? Calculate the new volume.

Example

A 45 mL sample of gas at standard pressure is heated from 20.°C to 50.°C. The pressure of the gas increases to 107.9 kPa. What is the new volume of the gas?

Regents Review Unit 9

Solutions

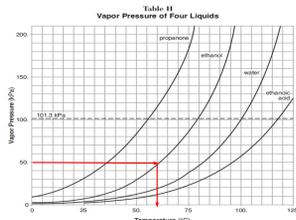
Boiling and Attractive Forces (Intermolecular Forces)

Boiling occurs when heat energy overcomes attractive forces between molecules.

IMF	Effect on Boiling pt	Reason
The stronger the IMF	The higher the boiling pt	Takes MORE energy to break the forces of attraction (IMF's) between particles
The weaker the IMF	The lower the boiling pt	Takes LESS energy to break the forces of attraction (IMF's) between particles

Table H: Boiling pts

Example: What is the boiling point of ethanol at 50kPa?



Solution:

- **Homogenous Mixture**
- **SOLUTE:** dissolved substance
- **SOLVENT:** substance solute is dissolved in
- Ex. $\text{NaCl}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)} \rightleftharpoons \text{NaCl}_{(aq)}$

Solute Solvent Solution (mixture)



Electrolytes: Ionic Compounds (salts)

The diagram shows two beakers. The left beaker contains a white solid labeled 'NaCl solid' and 'NaCl (aq)'. The right beaker contains a blue solution with green circles representing Cl⁻ ions and grey circles representing Na⁺ ions. A legend indicates that a grey circle represents Na⁺ and a green circle represents Cl⁻. To the right, a battery is connected to two electrodes in a beaker of the solution, with a light bulb glowing. Labels include 'Source of electric power' and 'Free ions present in water'.

Table F: Solubility

- If substance is in the **soluble** column it dissolves in H₂O (aq)
- If substance is in the **insoluble** column it doesn't dissolve (s) this is called a **precipitate**.
- If substance is in exceptions column it is the opposite

Table F: Solubility Guidelines for Aqueous Solutions

Ions That Form Soluble Compounds	Exceptions	Ions That Form Insoluble Compounds	Exceptions
Group 1 ions (Li ⁺ , Na ⁺ , etc.)		carbonate (CO ₃ ²⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)		chromate (CrO ₄ ²⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions, Ca ²⁺ , Mg ²⁺ , or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
nitrate (NO ₃ ⁻)			
acetate (C ₂ H ₃ O ₂ ⁻) or CH ₃ COO ⁻		phosphate (PO ₄ ³⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
halogen carbonate (BrCO ₂ ⁻)			
chloride (Cl ⁻)		sulfide (S ²⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
iodide (I ⁻)			
halides (Cl ⁻ , Br ⁻ , I ⁻)	when combined with Ag ⁺ , Pb ²⁺ , or Hg ₂ ²⁺	hydroxide (OH ⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions, Ca ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
sulfates (SO ₄ ²⁻)	when combined with Ag ⁺ , Ca ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , or Pb ²⁺		

*Common listing uses the solubility in H₂O

Example (exception): Determine which product is the precipitate.

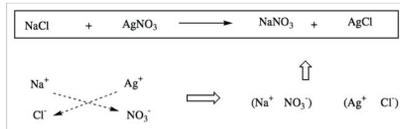


Table F
Solubility Guidelines for Aqueous Solutions

Ions That Form Soluble Compounds	Exceptions	Ions That Form Insoluble Compounds*	Exceptions
Group 1 ions (Li ⁺ , Na ⁺ , etc.)		carbonate (CO ₃ ²⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)		chromate (CrO ₄ ²⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions, Ca ²⁺ , Mg ²⁺ , or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
nitrate (NO ₃ ⁻)		phosphate (PO ₄ ³⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
acetate (C ₂ H ₃ O ₂ ⁻ or CH ₃ COO ⁻)		sulfide (S ²⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
hydrogen carbonate (HCO ₃ ⁻)		hydroxide (OH ⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions, Ca ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
chlorate (ClO ₃ ⁻)			
halides (Cl ⁻ , Br ⁻ , I ⁻)	when combined with Ag ⁺ , Pb ²⁺ , or Hg ₂ ²⁺		
sulfates (SO ₄ ²⁻)	when combined with Ag ⁺ , Ca ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , or Pb ²⁺		

*compounds having very low solubility in H₂O

How to complete a Double Replacement Reaction



1. Positive ions switch partners
2. Look up oxidation states and perform criss cross to make new products.
3. Use table F to determine which (if any) product forms a precipitate.

Example: Complete the following double replacement rx and determine the insoluble product:

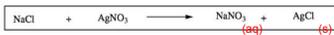


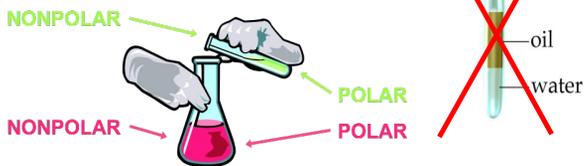
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nitrate (NO ₃ ⁻)		phosphate (PO ₄ ³⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
acetate (C ₂ H ₃ O ₂ ⁻ or CH ₃ COO ⁻)		sulfide (S ²⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
hydrogen carbonate (HCO ₃ ⁻)		hydroxide (OH ⁻)	when combined with Group 1 ions, Ca ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , or ammonium (NH ₄ ⁺)
chlorate (ClO ₃ ⁻)			
halides (Cl ⁻ , Br ⁻ , I ⁻)	when combined with Ag ⁺ , Pb ²⁺ , or Hg ₂ ²⁺		
sulfates (SO ₄ ²⁻)	when combined with Ag ⁺ , Ca ²⁺ , Sr ²⁺ , Ba ²⁺ , or Pb ²⁺		

*compounds having very low solubility in H₂O

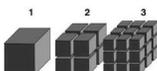
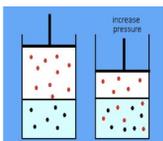
Solubility

- "Like Dissolves Like"
- Polar substances dissolve in polar substances
- Non polar substances dissolve in non polar



Factors Affecting Solubility

- Solubility:
 - o **INCREASES** as temperature increases (solids)
 - o **DECREASES** as temperature increases (gases)
 - o **INCREASES** as pressure increases (gases)
- Speed up dissolving by
 - o Stirring
 - o Increasing surface area

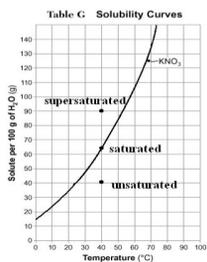


Types of Solutions

- UNSATURATED SOLUTION**
more solute dissolves
- SATURATED SOLUTION**
no more solute dissolves
- SUPERSATURATED SOLUTION**
becomes unstable, crystals form



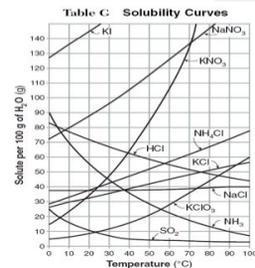
Table G



Mp
MR. PALERMO

Table G: Solubility Curve

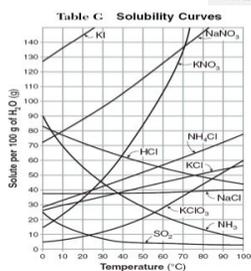
Example: If you dissolve 50g of NaNO₃ at 30 C what type of solution did you make?



Mp
MR. PALERMO

Table G: Solubility Curve

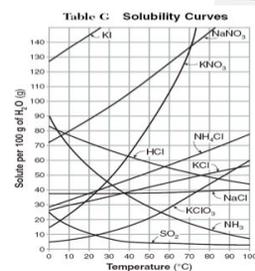
Example: According to table G, what is the maximum amount of KNO₃ that can be dissolved in 100 g H₂O at 60°C?



Mp
MR. PALERMO

Table G: Solubility Curve

Example: What is the amount of NaNO₃ that can be dissolved in 50g of water at 80°C is?



Mp
MR. PALERMO

PPM (Table T)

Example: A sample of water is found to contain 0.010 g lead in 15. g solution. What is the concentration in ppm?

$$\text{Parts Per Million} = \frac{\text{Mass of Solute}}{\text{Mass of Solution}} \times 1,000,000$$

$$\text{ppm} = \frac{0.010\text{g}}{15.\text{g}} \times 1,000,000 = 670 \text{ ppm}$$

Mp
MR. PALERMO

Molarity (concentration) (Table T)

A solution has a volume of 2.5 liters and contains 0.70 mol of NaCl. What is the molarity?

$$\text{Molarity (M)} = \frac{\text{Moles of Solute (mol)}}{\text{Liters of solution (L)}}$$

$$M = \frac{0.70 \text{ mol}}{2.5 \text{ L}} = 0.28M$$

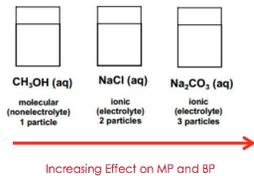
Mp
MR. PALERMO

Solutions vs. Pure Water

- Solutions have a higher boiling pt and lower freezing pt than pure water
- The more particles the greater the effect on boiling pt and freezing pt

- Ionic compounds (salts) have greatest effect

The more particles formed the greater the effect



Example:

Which compound when dissolved in water, will have the highest boiling point?

CaCl₂ Ionic: dissociates into Ca⁺² and 2Cl⁻

NaCl Ionic: dissociates into Na⁺¹ and Cl⁻

C₆H₁₂O₆ Covalent: doesn't dissociate

NaI Ionic: dissociates into Na⁺¹ and I⁻¹



Regents Review Unit 10

Kinetics and Equilibrium

Effective Collisions

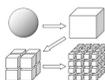
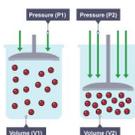
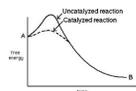
In order for a reaction to occur, reactant **PARTICLES MUST COLLIDE** (effectively) with the following:

1. Proper amount of **ENERGY**
2. Proper **ORIENTATION (angle)**



Factors Increasing Reaction Rate

1. Type of reactant (ionic aqueous solutions react fastest)
2. Increase Concentration
3. Increase Temperature
4. Increase pressure (gases only)
5. Increase surface area
6. Add a catalyst



Endothermic



Table I
Heats of Reaction at 101.3 kPa and 298 K

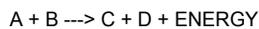
$\text{N}_2(\text{g}) + \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{NO}(\text{g})$	+182.6
--	--------

*The ΔH values are based on molar quantities represented in the equations. A minus sign indicates an exothermic reaction.

(+) sign indicated energy was absorbed (endothermic)

Exothermic

- Heat is **RELEASED** as a PRODUCT
 - ΔH is (-)
 - More stable reaction
 - Spontaneous



energy released as a product

Exothermic

Table I
Heats of Reaction at 101.3 kPa and 298 K

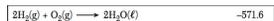
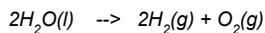


*The ΔH values are based on molar quantities represented in the equations. A minus sign indicates an exothermic reaction.

(-) sign indicated energy was released (exothermic)

Reverse Reactions

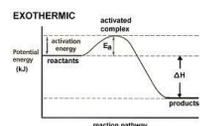
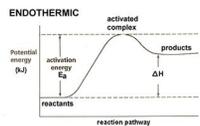
Example: Is the following endothermic or exothermic?



***For reverse reactions switch signs of ΔH

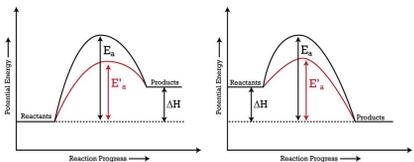
+571.6kJ (endothermic)

Potential Energy Diagrams



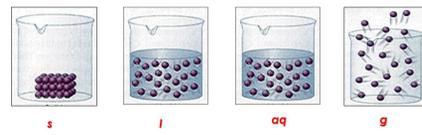
Effects of adding a catalyst

LOWERS activation energy so reaction occurs faster with less energy input



Entropy

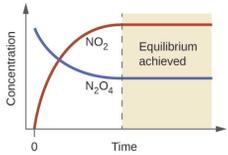
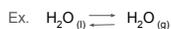
Increasing Entropy →



Equilibrium

The rate of the forward reaction equals the rate of the reverse reactions

The concentrations become constant

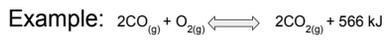


LeChatelier's Principle (equilibrium shifts)

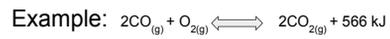
When you **ADD** (increase concentration) a stress, equilibrium shifts **AWAY** from that side to relieve the stress and restore equilibrium.

When you **TAKE AWAY** (decrease concentration) a stress, equilibrium shifts **TOWARDS** that side to restore equilibrium.



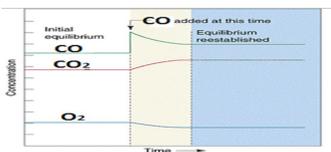


- Increasing concentration of CO or O₂ shift away to product side: increase in CO₂ and heat and decrease in CO and O₂
- Decreasing concentration of CO or O₂ shift towards reactant side: decrease in CO₂ and heat and increase in CO and O₂
- Increasing concentration of CO₂ or heat shift away to reactant side: decrease in CO₂ and heat and increase in CO and O₂
- Decreasing concentration of CO₂ or heat shift towards product side: increase in CO₂ and heat and decrease in CO and O₂



- Increase in pressure (affects gases only), shift away from side that has more moles of gas (in this ex. It's the reactant side) to the product side
- Decrease in pressure (affects gases only), shift back towards side that has more moles of gas (in this ex. It's the reactant side)

What can conclude about equilibrium from the graph?



Answer: The concentrations are constant (not changing)

Regents Review Unit 11

Organic Chemistry

Organic Compounds

- Contain Carbon and hydrogen
 - Hydrocarbon: Type of organic molecule that only contains carbon and hydrogen
- Carbon has 4 valence electrons so it forms 4 bonds



Table P & Q

Ex. pentene has 5 carbons and 10 hydrogens

Ex. $\text{H}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{H}$ is ethyne

Table P
Organic Prefixes

Prefix	Number of Carbon Atoms
methyl-	1
ethyl-	2
propyl-	3
butyl-	4
pentyl-	5
hexyl-	6
heptyl-	7
octyl-	8
nonyl-	9
decyl-	10

Table Q
Homologous Series of Hydrocarbons

Name	General Formula	Name	Examples
alkanes	$\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$	ethane	
alkenes	C_nH_{2n}	ethene	
alkynes	$\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n-2}$	ethyne	

n = number of carbon atoms

How to determine the type of hydrocarbon

1. Count up the number of carbons
2. If the # of Hydrogen are **double** the # of carbons its an **alkene**
3. If **more than double** its an **alkane**, **less than double** its an **alkyne**

Example: C_5H_{12}
(12 is more than double
5 so it's an alkane)

Table Q
Homologous Series of Hydrocarbons

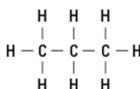
Name	General Formula	Name	Examples
alkanes	$\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$	ethane	
alkenes	C_nH_{2n}	ethene	
alkynes	$\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n-2}$	ethyne	

n = number of carbon atoms

Structural and condensed structural formulas

Example: Propane

C_3H_8

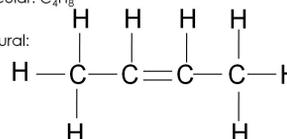


Condensed formula:
 $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$

EXAMPLE: 2-BUTENE

Molecular: C_4H_8

Structural:



Condensed: $\text{CH}_3\text{CHCHCH}_3$

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Isomers

Same molecular formula different structural formula resulting in different properties

butane
 C_4H_{10}

2-methylpropane
 C_4H_{10}

1-butene
 C_4H_8

2-butene
 C_4H_8

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Naming branched alkanes

2-methyl butane

2-ethyl butane

2,2 dimethyl butane

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Functional Groups

- Table R
- 1st identify the class of compound in your example
- Then use the example to help you name your compound

Ex:

1,2-dibromo ethane

Class of Compound	Functional Group	General Formula	Example
halide (halocarbon)	-F (fluoro) -Cl (chloro) -Br (bromo) -I (iodo)	R-X (X represents any halogen)	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ Cl 1-chloropropane
alcohol	-OH	R-OH	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ OH 1-propanol
ether	-O-	R-O-R'	CH ₃ OCH ₂ CH ₃ methoxy ethyl ether
aldehyde	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-H \end{matrix}$	R-CHO	CH ₃ CH ₂ CHO propanal
ketone	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C- \end{matrix}$	R-C(=O)-R'	CH ₃ COCH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃ 2-pentanone
organic acid	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-OH \end{matrix}$	R-COOH	CH ₃ CH ₂ COOH propanoic acid
ester	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-O- \end{matrix}$	R-COO-R'	CH ₃ COOCH ₂ CH ₃ methyl propanoate
amine	-N-	R-N-R'	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ NH ₂ 1-propanamine
amide	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-NH \end{matrix}$	R-CO-NH ₂	CH ₃ CH ₂ CONH ₂ propanamide

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Examples:

2-butanone

Ethyl propanoate

Class of Compound	Functional Group	General Formula	Example
halide (halocarbon)	-F (fluoro) -Cl (chloro) -Br (bromo) -I (iodo)	R-X (X represents any halogen)	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ Cl 1-chloropropane
alcohol	-OH	R-OH	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ OH 1-propanol
ether	-O-	R-O-R'	CH ₃ OCH ₂ CH ₃ methoxy ethyl ether
aldehyde	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-H \end{matrix}$	R-CHO	CH ₃ CH ₂ CHO propanal
ketone	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C- \end{matrix}$	R-C(=O)-R'	CH ₃ COCH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃ 2-pentanone
organic acid	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-OH \end{matrix}$	R-COOH	CH ₃ CH ₂ COOH propanoic acid
ester	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-O- \end{matrix}$	R-COO-R'	CH ₃ COOCH ₂ CH ₃ methyl propanoate
amine	-N-	R-N-R'	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ NH ₂ 1-propanamine
amide	$\begin{matrix} O \\ \\ -C-NH \end{matrix}$	R-CO-NH ₂	CH ₃ CH ₂ CONH ₂ propanamide

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Combustion

$CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O$

Table 1
Heats of Reaction at 101.3 kPa and 298 K

Reaction	ΔH (kJ)
$CH_4(g) + 2O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(l)$	-890.4
$C_2H_2(g) + 5/2O_2(g) \rightarrow 2CO_2(g) + H_2O(l)$	-2591.2
$2C_2H_6(g) + 7O_2(g) \rightarrow 4CO_2(g) + 6H_2O(l)$	-3120.3
$2C_2H_5OH(l) + 3O_2(g) \rightarrow 2CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(l)$	-1482.2
$C_2H_5OH(l) + 3O_2(g) \rightarrow 2CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(l)$	-1367
$C_2H_5OH(g) + 3O_2(g) \rightarrow 2CO_2(g) + 3H_2O(l)$	-2864
$2O_3(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2O_2(g)$	-560.0
$C(s) + O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g)$	-393.5
$4Al(s) + 3O_2(g) \rightarrow 2Al_2O_3(s)$	-3351
$N_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2NO(g)$	182.6
$N_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2NO_2(g)$	68.4
$2H_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2H_2O(g)$	-485.4
$2H_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2H_2O(l)$	-571.6
$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \rightarrow 2NH_3(g)$	-91.8
$2CO(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2CO_2(g)$	-564.0
$2CO(g) + 2H_2(g) \rightarrow C_2H_4(g)$	-52.4
$2CO(g) + H_2(g) \rightarrow C_2H_2(g)$	-47.4
$H_2(g) + I_2(g) \rightarrow 2HI(g)$	25.9
$KNO_3(s) \xrightarrow{250^\circ C} KNO_2(s) + O_2(g)$	234.90
$NaOH(s) \xrightarrow{250^\circ C} Na_2O(s) + H_2O(g)$	-44.51
$NH_4Cl(s) \xrightarrow{250^\circ C} NH_3(g) + HCl(g)$	-41.76
$NH_4NO_3(s) \xrightarrow{250^\circ C} N_2O(g) + 2H_2O(g)$	-45.90
$NaClO_3(s) \xrightarrow{250^\circ C} NaCl(s) + O_2(g)$	53.88
$LiBr(s) \xrightarrow{250^\circ C} LiF(s) + Br_2(l)$	-48.88
$H_2O(g) \rightarrow H_2O(l)$	-40.7

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Addition

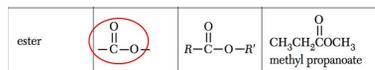
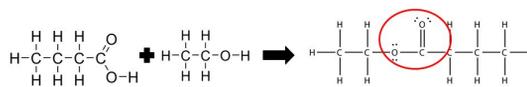
Substitution

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Esterification

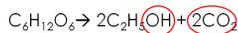
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FERMENTATION

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- Enzymatic breakdown of sugar into alcohol (ethanol) and CO_2
- Identify Alcohol and CO_2 as product**

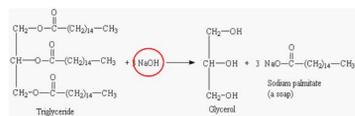


alcohol	-OH	R-OH	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ 1-propanol
---------	-----	------	--

Saponification

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Making Soap



Polymerization

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- Long chains of repeating monomers
- Look for the n or a large number outside the parentheses

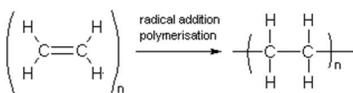


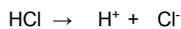
Fig 1: The polymerisation of ethene in to poly(ethene)

Regents Review Unit 12

Acids and Bases

Arrhenius Acid & Bases

Acids yield the hydrogen ion H^+ or Hydronium ion H_3O



Bases yield the hydroxide ion OH^-

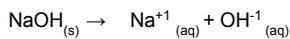


Table K
Common Acids

Formula	Name
$HCl_{(aq)}$	hydrochloric acid
$HNO_3_{(aq)}$	nitric acid
$H_2SO_4_{(aq)}$	sulfuric acid
$H_3PO_4_{(aq)}$	phosphoric acid
$H_2CO_3_{(aq)}$	carbonic acid
$CH_3COOH_{(aq)}$	acetic acid
$HClO_4_{(aq)}$	perchloric acid

Table L
Common Bases

Formula	Name
$NaOH_{(aq)}$	sodium hydroxide
$KOH_{(aq)}$	potassium hydroxide
$Ca(OH)_{(aq)}$	calcium hydroxide
$NH_3_{(aq)}$	ammonia

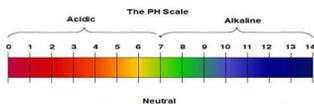
Properties of Acids and Bases

Acids:

- Sour Taste
- Can burn your skin
- React vigorously with metals to make $H_2(g)$
- pH is less than 7

Bases:

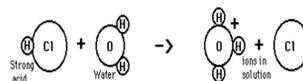
- Bitter taste
- Can be corrosive
- pH greater than 7



Alternate theory of acids and bases

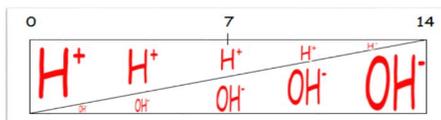
Acids are proton H^+ donors

Bases are proton H^+ acceptors



BAAD

pH



The ratio of $[H^+]$ to $[OH^-]$ determines pH

-In acids $[H^+] > [OH^-]$

-In bases $[H^+] < [OH^-]$

-When neutral $[H^+] = [OH^-]$

Indicators

If it is the left hand color the pH is below that number

If it is the right hand color the pH is above that number

Ex: A solution turns **blue** with bromocresol green (>5.4) and **yellow** with bromothymol blue (<6.0)

The pH range is between 5.4 and 6.0

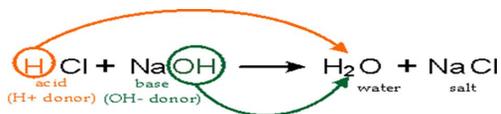
Table M
Common Acid-Base Indicators

Indicator	Approximate pH Range for Color Change	Color Change
metanil orange	3.3-4.4	red to yellow
bromothymol blue	6.0-7.6	yellow to blue
phenolphthalein	8.2-10	colorless to pink
litmus	5.5-8.2	red to blue
bromocresol green	3.8-5.4	yellow to blue
thymol blue	8.0-9.6	yellow to blue

Neutralization

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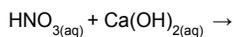
Acid + Base → Salt + Water



Example:

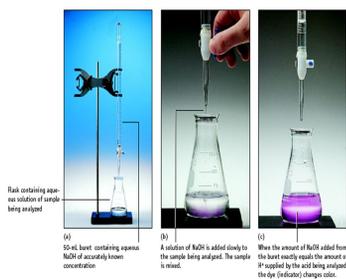
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Complete the neutralization reaction:



Titration

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Titration Formula

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Titration	$M_A V_A = M_B V_B$	$M_A = \text{molarity of H}^+$	$M_B = \text{molarity of OH}^-$
		$V_A = \text{volume of acid}$	$V_B = \text{volume of base}$

Ex. What is the molarity of NaOH if 100.mL of 3.00M HCl is titrated with 200.mL of NaOH?

Titration Formula

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Titration	$M_A V_A = M_B V_B$	$M_A = \text{molarity of H}^+$	$M_B = \text{molarity of OH}^-$
		$V_A = \text{volume of acid}$	$V_B = \text{volume of base}$

Ex. You have 50 mL of 1.0 M H₂SO_{4(aq)}. What volume of 0.5 M NaOH would be required to neutralize the acid?

Regents Review Unit 13

Electrochemistry

Assigning Oxidation Numbers

- Elements not in compounds have a zero oxidation state
- Assign the most electronegative element first
- If there is more than two elements, assign the middle last.
- Remember that the sum of the oxidation states is zero for compounds

Example: H_2 $CaClO_3$

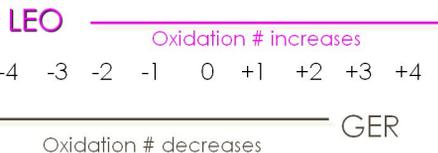
Oxidation & Reduction

Example

- Oxidation #'s can change as a result of a rxn.

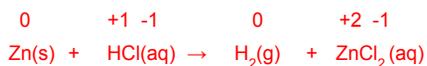


Na went from 0 to +1: Na was **oxidized**
 Cl went from 0 to -1: Cl was **reduced**



Remember

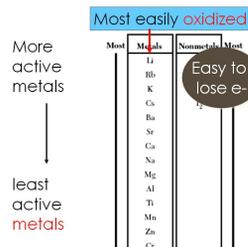
Single Replacement Rx's are **ALWAYS** Redox



Double Replacement Rx's are **NEVER** redox



Table J



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Most easily reduced

Most	Metals	Nonmetals	Most
	Li	F ₂	
	Rb	Cl ₂	
	K	Br ₂	
	Na	I ₂	
	Ba		
	Sr		
	Ca		
	Mg		
	Al		
	Ti		
	Mn		
	Zn		
	Cr		

Easy to gain e-

More active nonmetals

least active nonmetals

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Half Reactions

$$\overset{0}{\text{Cu}} + 2\overset{+1}{\text{Ag}}\overset{-1}{\text{NO}_3} \rightarrow \overset{+2}{\text{Cu}}\overset{-1}{\text{NO}_3}_2 + 2\overset{0}{\text{Ag}}$$

Ox: $\text{Cu}^0 \rightarrow \text{Cu}^{+2} + 2e^-$

Red: $\text{Ag}^{+1} + 1e^- \rightarrow \text{Ag}^0$

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Balancing Redox Reactions

$$\overset{0}{\text{Cu}} + 2\overset{+1}{\text{Ag}}\overset{-1}{\text{NO}_3} \rightarrow \overset{+2}{\text{Cu}}\overset{-1}{\text{NO}_3}_2 + 2\overset{0}{\text{Ag}}$$

Ox: $\text{Cu}^0 \rightarrow \text{Cu}^{+2} + 2e^-$ Ox: $\text{Cu}^0 \rightarrow \text{Cu}^{+2} + 2e^-$

Red: $\text{Ag}^{+1} + 1e^- \rightarrow \text{Ag}^0$ Red: $2\text{Ag}^{+1} + 2e^- \rightarrow 2\text{Ag}^0$

Now MASS and CHARGE are CONSERVED

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Example: Balance the following redox rx

$$\text{Mg} + \text{N}_2 \rightarrow \text{Mg}_3\text{N}_2$$

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Voltaic Cell (battery)

- Label flow of e- (Electrons flow from high to low on table J)
- Label which half cell is oxidized and which is reduced (use Leo Ger)
- Use an ox and red cat to label the anode & cathode Anode is negative and cathode is positive
- Spontaneously converts chemical energy into electrical energy

Electrons allows flow from anode to cathode in any cell

$2\text{Ag}^+(\text{aq}) + \text{Ni}(\text{s}) \rightarrow 2\text{Ag}(\text{s}) + \text{Ni}^{2+}(\text{aq})$

Metals	Nonmetals
Li	F ₂
Ba	Cl ₂
K	Br ₂
Ca	I ₂
Na	
Mg	
Al	
Ti	
Mn	
Zn	
Cr	
Fe	
Co	
Ni	
Sb	
Pb	
H ₂	
Cu	
Ag	
Hg	

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Salt bridge

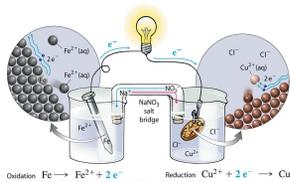
Allows IONS to flow to maintain neutrality

$2\text{Ag}^+(\text{aq}) + \text{Ni}(\text{s}) \rightarrow 2\text{Ag}(\text{s}) + \text{Ni}^{2+}(\text{aq})$

Changes in mass

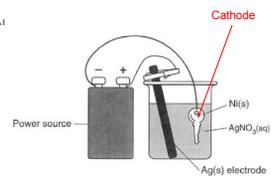
Anode: atoms form ions so mass of anode decreases

Cathode: ions form atoms so mass of cathode increases



Electrolytic Cell

- Label flow of electrons from the negative terminal of battery
- Label anode and cathode (Electrons flow from anode to cathode)
- Anode is positive and cathode is negative
- Nonspontaneous reaction
- Converts electrical energy to chemi^{cal}



Regents Review Unit 14

Nuclear chemistry

Nuclear Decay Equations

- Make sure both sides are equal in terms of mass and charge (conservation)
- Look up the decay mode on table N then use table O to write the notation in the equation



Table N
Selected Radioisotopes

Nuclide	Half-Life	Decay Mode	Nuclide Name
${}^{198}\text{Au}$	2.695 d	β^-	gold-198
${}^{14}\text{C}$	5730 y	β^-	carbon-14
${}^{37}\text{Ca}$	1.75 min	β^-	calcium-37

Table O
Symbols Used in Nuclear Chemistry

Name	Notation	Symbol
alpha particle	${}^4_2\text{He}$ or ${}^4_2\alpha$	α
beta particle (electron)	${}^0_{-1}\text{e}$ or ${}^0_{-1}\beta$	β^-
gamma radiation	γ	γ
neutron	${}^1_0\text{n}$	n
proton	${}^1_1\text{H}$ or ${}^1_1\text{p}$	p
positron	${}^0_{+1}\text{e}$ or ${}^0_{+1}\beta$	β^+

Penetrating power

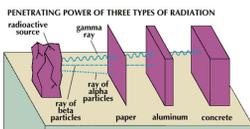
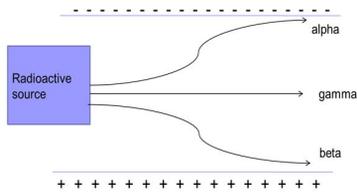


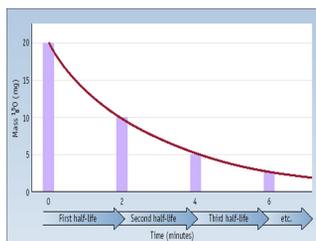
Table O
Symbols Used in Nuclear Chemistry

Name	Notation	Symbol
alpha particle	${}^4_2\text{He}$ or ${}^4_2\alpha$	α
beta particle (electron)	${}^0_{-1}\text{e}$ or ${}^0_{-1}\beta$	β^-
gamma radiation	γ	γ
neutron	${}^1_0\text{n}$	n
proton	${}^1_1\text{H}$ or ${}^1_1\text{p}$	p
positron	${}^0_{+1}\text{e}$ or ${}^0_{+1}\beta$	β^+

Least penetrating power →
Most penetrating power →



Half Life



Half Life Problems

$$\frac{\text{Total time}}{\text{Half life (table N)}} = \# \text{ of half lives}$$

Half the mass or fraction/percent of the sample for however many half lives you calculated

Table N
Selected Radioisotopes

Nuclide	Half-Life	Decay Mode	Nuclide Name
${}^{198}\text{Au}$	2.695 d	β^-	gold-198
${}^{14}\text{C}$	5735 y	β^-	carbon-14
${}^{37}\text{Ca}$	182 min	β^-	calcium-37
${}^{60}\text{Co}$	5.271 y	β^-	cobalt-60
${}^{137}\text{Cs}$	30.2 y	β^-	cesium-137
${}^{125}\text{I}$	60.1 min	β^-	iodine-125
${}^{223}\text{Fr}$	27.4 s	α	francium-223
${}^3\text{H}$	12.31 y	β^-	hydrogen-3
${}^{131}\text{I}$	8.061 d	β^-	iodine-131
${}^{37}\text{K}$	1.23 s	β^-	potassium-37
${}^{42}\text{K}$	12.36 h	β^-	potassium-42
${}^{86}\text{Kr}$	10.75 y	β^-	krypton-86
${}^{15}\text{N}$	7.13 s	β^-	nitrogen-15
${}^{13}\text{N}$	17.22 s	β^-	neon-13
${}^{32}\text{P}$	14.28 d	β^-	phosphorus-32
${}^{239}\text{Pu}$	2.419×10^4 y	α	plutonium-239
${}^{226}\text{Ra}$	1599 y	α	radium-226
${}^{222}\text{Rn}$	3.823 d	α	radon-222
${}^{90}\text{Sr}$	28.1 y	β^-	strontium-90
${}^{99}\text{Tc}$	2.13×10^5 y	β^-	technetium-99
${}^{232}\text{Th}$	1.40×10^{10} y	α	thorium-232
${}^{235}\text{U}$	7.04×10^8 y	α	uranium-235
${}^{238}\text{U}$	4.47×10^9 y	α	uranium-238

Source: CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 91st ed., 2010-2011, 205-206E.

Half Life Problems

$$\text{Total time} = \# \text{ of half lives}$$

Half life (table N)

Example: How many grams of N-16 will remain from a 100 gram sample after 21.6 seconds?

$$21.6 / 7.13s = 3 \text{ half lives}$$

$$100g \rightarrow 50g \rightarrow 25g \rightarrow 12.5g$$

$$1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{4} \rightarrow \frac{1}{8}$$

Nuclide	Half-Life	Decay Mode	Nuclide Name
¹⁹⁸ Au	2.695 d	β ⁻	gold-198
¹⁴ C	5715 y	β ⁻	carbon-14
¹³⁷ Cs	30.2 y	β ⁻	cesium-137
⁶⁰ Co	5.271 y	β ⁻	cobalt-60
¹³⁷ Cs	30.2 y	β ⁻	cesium-137
¹²⁵ I	60.1 d	β ⁻	iodine-125
²²³ Rn	3.82 d	α	radon-223
³ H	12.31 y	β ⁻	hydrogen-3
¹³¹ I	8.021 d	β ⁻	iodine-131
¹³⁷ Cs	30.2 y	β ⁻	cesium-137
¹³⁷ Cs	30.2 y	β ⁻	cesium-137
⁹⁰ Kr	10.73 y	β ⁻	krypton-90
¹⁵ N	7.13 s	β ⁻	nitrogen-15
¹⁹² Ir	74.1 d	β ⁻	iridium-192
³² P	14.28 d	β ⁻	phosphorus-32
²³⁹ Pu	2.41 × 10 ⁴ y	α	plutonium-239
²²⁶ Ra	1588 y	α	radium-226
²²² Rn	3.823 d	α	radon-222
⁹⁰ Sr	48.8 y	β ⁻	strontium-90
⁹⁹ Tc	2.13 × 10 ⁵ y	β ⁻	technetium-99
²³² Th	1.40 × 10 ¹⁰ y	α	thorium-232
²³⁸ U	4.47 × 10 ⁹ y	α	uranium-238
²³⁵ U	7.04 × 10 ⁸ y	α	uranium-235
²³⁴ U	4.47 × 10 ⁵ y	α	uranium-234

Source: CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 91st ed., 2010-2011, CRC Press.

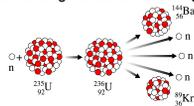
Nuclear Reactions

- Convert matter to energy
- Produce more energy than chemical reactions
- Fusion reactions produce the most energy

Fission vs Fusion

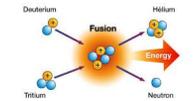
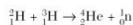
- Fission: splitting of a heavy, unstable nucleus into two lighter nuclei releasing large amounts of energy

- Produces radioactive waste
- Chain reaction



- Fusion: process where two light nuclei combine together releasing vast amounts of energy (takes place inside the sun)

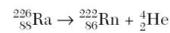
- Less waste
- More energy released than fission
- Currently too costly



Natural vs artificial transmutation

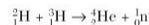
Natural: spontaneously decays (look for 1 reactant)

Ex. radioactive decay



Artificial: non spontaneous (look for 2 or more reactants)

Ex. fission and fusion



Pros and Cons of radioactivity

Pros:

- large amounts of energy
- Dating materials
- Medical uses

Cons:

- Radioactive waste
- Dangerous
- mutations

Flower exposed to radiation from Fukushima nuclear facility, Japan



Uses

- Carbon 14- dating organic material
- Uranium-238 dating rocks
- Iodine-131 used to diagnose thyroid disorders
- cobalt -60 used to treat cancer
- Tc-99 locate brain tumors