	SHS LEARNING ACTIVITY	CHEM1-01-01
Name:	Score/Mar	k:
Grade and Sectio		
Strand:		TVL Track)
Type of Activity:	□ Concept Notes □ Skills: Exercise/Drill	-
Laboratory Report	rt □Essay/Task Report □Other:	
Activity Title: 01-	01.Plan for Chemistry 1 - Semester 1	v09
Learning Target:	To identify the topics covered in Chemistry 1 -	- Semester 1
<b>Authors/Referen</b>	ces: Victor Sojo/DepEd-SHS General Chemistry	<sup>7</sup> 1 and 2
Торіс	Material	
1. Introduction	The <b>substances</b> we touch, see and eat, are m	
to Chemistry	Chemistry studies substances and how and why	they transform
<u> </u>	into different substances ( <b>react</b> ).	
2. Matter and	1. Matter is made of <b>atoms</b> , which are m	
particles	particles called <b>protons</b> , <b>neutrons</b> , and <b>ele</b> 2. Identical atoms are atoms of the same <b>elem</b>	
	3. Elements can combine to form <b>compound</b>	
	water is a <u>compound</u> . It is made of atoms	
	elements: hydrogen and oxygen.	
3. Electrons,	1. Quantum Theory describes how electron	ns distribute in
orbitals and the	orbitals around the nucleus made of proton	
Periodic Table	2. Elements can be ordered according to their p	properties.
4. Bonds	1. Atoms can <b>bond</b> (attach) to each other in m	
	2. The ways in which atoms are bonded to each	ch other in salt,
	sugar and iron are very different.	
5. Naming chemical	Because there are so many chemical component have created systematic (organized) ways of	
compounds	This is called chemical nomenclature.	naming them.
6. Reactions	1. The processes by which substances chang	e into different
and	substances are called <u>chemical reactions</u> .	
Stoichiometry	2. Reactions often (but not always) involve cha	anges in color,
	temperature, or appearance (looks).	
	3. It is possible to express these reactions a	
	relations (formulae), called chemical equat	
	4. These equations let us calculate the all	
	substances that react (the <u>reagents</u> ) a amounts of the substances formed (the <u>proc</u>	•
	5. Reactions can happen in gases (such as air)	
	water) and sometimes even in solids (like me	
7. Aqueous	1. <u>Water</u> is a very special molecule, with a ne	
solutions	two positive ends. This makes it a <b>polar</b> s	-
	"poles", like a magnet or a planet).	-
	2. Water <b>dissolves</b> many substances, such as	salt and sugar,
	but not many others, like oil or gold.	
<b>Questions</b>		

# <u>Questions</u>

- 1. Give an example in which you think a **<u>chemical reaction</u>** has happened; for example, when an iron screw turns orange (rusts or "**<u>oxidizes</u>**") over time.
- 2. We saw the **<u>elements</u>** hydrogen and oxygen above. Can you name any others?

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Name:			Score/Mark	K:
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Type of Activity:	Concept Notes	s □Skills: E	Exercise/Drill	□ Illustration
□ Laboratory Report	Essay/Task Re	port □Other:		
Activity Title: 01-02	2.Matter and sul	ostances		v06
Learning Target: To	o demonstrate t matter, which	hat the subst has a mass ar	ances around nd occupies a	d us are made volume
Authors/Reference			·	

**<u>Substances</u>** like the water we drink, the air we breathe and the chairs on which we sit are made of **<u>matter</u>**.

Matter has a mass (m) and occupies a space or volume (V).

### Laboratory experience

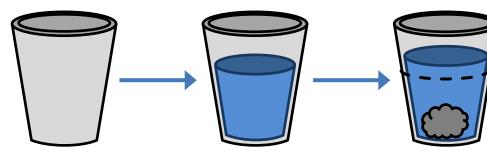
1. Weigh an empty glass or container to determine its mass in grams [g].

2. Fill a jug with water and then weigh it too.

3. Pour water into the glass and weigh the glass again. Weigh the jug also.

4. Draw a line on the glass with a marker, to indicate the level of the water.

5. Find a rock or a large marble and weigh it, then drop it into the glass.



6. Weigh the glass again. Also, have a look at the volume: did it change?

Object	m [g]	m <sub>mean</sub> [g]
Jug with water		
Glass (empty)		
Glass with water		
Jug after pouring water		
Rock		
Glass with water and rock/marble		

Note: always measure in triplicates (weigh three times, then get the mean)

# **Questions**

**a.** Did the total mass (glass+contents) change at steps 3 and 6? How much?

**b.**Can you calculate the mass of the water that you added?

c. Was the "empty" glass really empty? Why?

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Type of Activity:	Concept Notes	□ Skills: Exe	ercise/Drill	□ Illustration
Laboratory Report	∃Essay/Task Repo	ort 🗆 Other:		
Activity Title: 01-03.	Physical and che	mical changes	5	v03
Learning Target: To	differentiate bet	ween physical	and chem	ical changes
Authors/References	: Victor Sojo			

Chemistry studies how matter (substances) changes into different matter (other substances). These processes of **chemical change** are named **chemical reactions**.

Some examples of chemical changes or chemical reactions are the rusting of an iron nail over time, or the cooking of an egg. We can often detect that a reaction has happened because colors, smells, textures or tastes change.

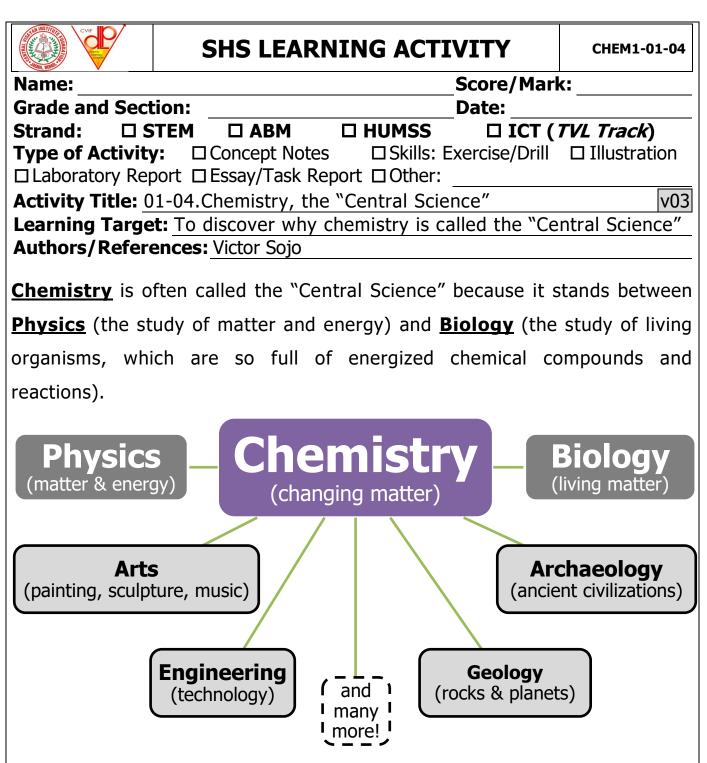


But often, even very obvious changes do not necessarily involve a transformation of substances into other substances. For example, **liquid water** can be frozen into **ice**, or it can be boiled into **vapor**, but it is still water. We know this because when ice **melts** or vapor **condensates**, we get liquid water again. These changes are known as **physical changes**.

### **Questions**

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- 1. Do you think that all chemical changes involve a change in color, smell, taste, or texture, or do you instead think that maybe there are some chemical changes that are difficult to detect with our body's senses?
- 2. When wood burns, it turns into gases that go into the atmosphere. Some of these gases can then be re-absorbed by plants and turned back into wood. Do you think these changes are chemical or physical? Why?



As the figure depicts, Chemistry is also very important for most other sciences and even many of the arts!

### **Questions**

- 1. Choose any three of the disciplines above, or any other that we didn't include, and discuss how you think Chemistry is related to them. For example, we didn't mention Meteorology, the study of the atmosphere. Chemistry is related to it because, in order to understand the weather, meteorologists need to study how the many chemical compounds in the atmosphere behave.
- 2. If Chemistry is the central science, does it mean it's more important than Physics, Biology, and the other sciences?



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Name:	Score/Mark:
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Strand:Image: STEMImage: ABMImage: Concept NotesImage: Type of Activity :Image: Concept NotesImage: Laboratory ReportImage: Essay/Task Report	-
Activity Title: 02-01. Dividing sugar in	half infinitely v05
Learning Target: To discuss whether s	substances can be divided endlessly
Authors/References: Victor Sojo	
Laboratory experience	
1. Pour a teaspoonful of sugar onto a f	at surface.
2. Divide <i>roughly</i> in half and give the o	ther half to a fellow student.
3. Take your half and divide it roughly	in two again. Keep one part and push
the other part away to create a wast	e pile.
4. Divide the portion you kept in two of	nce more and put the unwanted sugar
into the discard pile. The portion we	kept is a half of the half of the initial
half of the full spoonful.	
5. Quickly keep doing this again and	again and again until only one little
crystal of sugar is left.	
6. It seems we've reached the end. Ma	ybe not: try to squash this last crystal
with a spoon or spatula. Can you sta	rt the division process again?
7. There will be a point at which you ca	n't divide the sugar in half anymore.
<u>Analysis</u>	
We reached the end of the experim	ent, but maybe we could have kept
going if we had a very sharp knife	and a magnifying glass, or even a
microscope. Perhaps with the sharpest	knife and the best microscope in the
world we could carry on dividing the su	ugar forever Could we?

The answer is not obvious, but it is "no, we cannot", or at least not without destroying the identity of the sugar. Even if we had such a knife, there would be a point at which we would reach the most basic block of the sugar, in this case, the **molecule** of sucrose. If we break it further, which is certainly possible, we would have the **atoms** that compose it (carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen), but no longer sugar.

Note: Make sure to clean up the surface and get rid of all the sugar.

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Type of Activity : Concept	Notes Skills: Exercise/Drill Illustration
□ Laboratory Report □ Essay/Te	ask Report 🗆 Other:
Activity Title: 02-02.Substance	es are made of atoms, which are very small v03
Learning Target: To familiari	ze with how small and how many atoms are
Authors/References: Victor S	ојо

All chemical substances, such as water, gold, air, salt and sugar, are made of **atoms**.

**Atoms are extremely small**, much smaller than we can normally imagine. In just one teaspoon of common table salt (sodium chloride), which weighs about 5 g ("five grams"), there are approximately:

# 5,152,413,464,900,000,000,000

sodium atoms! And that's only half: there's the same number of chlorine atoms!

Combined, that's over **ten sextillion atoms**! Almost nothing we see in our daily life comes in such huge numbers. All the money in the world, even all the hair of all people and animals combined, all the leaves of all trees, all the rocks... none of them come anywhere near those numbers.

And this is only in a teaspoon... imagine how many atoms of sodium there are in all the salty water of the sea!

### **Questions**

- 1.Let's leave the calculation of the number of sodium atoms in the sea for later. For now, let's tackle a simpler problem: how many atoms of sodium are there in a 1 kg packet of table salt?
- 2. There is actually at least one visible thing that might come relatively close to the gigantic number above. <u>Hint:</u> it is very very small but you can still see it, and it can also be found near the sea or at the bottom of it.



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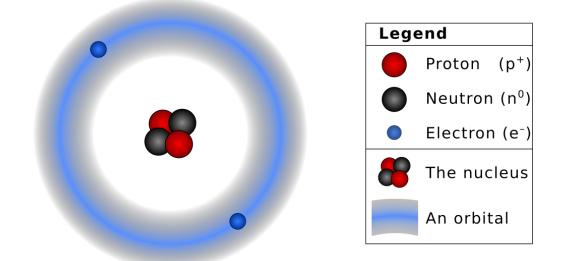
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□Laboratory Report □Essay/Task Report □Other:						
<b>Activity T</b>	itle: 02-03.A	Atoms are ma	de of "subatom	ic" particles	5 V	/04
Loorning	Target To i	Ilustrate how	atoms are ma	de of suba	tomic particl	les
Learning Target: To illustrate how atoms are made of subatomic particle called protons, electrons and neutrons						
Authors/References: Victor Sojo / OED:atom; Brown: The Central Science						
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The word "atom" comes from the Greek word "*átomos*" which means "**indivisible**". The reason for this name is that ancient philosophers in Greece, and before them in India, used to think that matter was composed of very small particles that could not be divided.

They were right about the small particles, but they were wrong about their being indivisible. In fact, through the careful work of many generations of scientists, we now know that **atoms are made of three main subatomic particles**: **protons**, **neutrons**, and **electrons**.

Let's look at a <u>very simplistic</u> **model** of the atom:



Protons and neutrons are clustered together in the **nucleus**. Electrons are distributed far away in **orbitals**, in ways that we will study later.

**<u>Protons</u>** have a **<u>positive electric charge</u>**, **<u>electrons</u>** are **<u>negative</u>**, and **<u>neutrons don't have any charge</u>** (which is why they have that name).

In a neutral **atom**, the **number of electrons and protons is the same**. **Question - Review from Grade 9-10:** What is the main difference between Thomson's "plum pudding" and Rutherford's "planetary" models? Make drawings to discuss the difference.



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□ Laboratory	y Report 🛛	Essay/Task Re	port 🗆 Other	: 		
				of the same e		v03
Learning Ta	arget: To with	explain that its own type	there are 1 of atom	18 chemical e	elements,	each
Authors/R						

Atoms are made of **protons** and **neutrons** in the **nucleus**, and **electrons** distributed in **orbitals** around the nucleus.

If two atoms are identical, they are atoms of the same chemical **<u>element</u>**.

**There are 118 known elements**. Some have names you may recognize, like carbon, gold, silver, oxygen, hydrogen, or sodium; but there are many with less famous names, such as thulium, seaborgium or praseodymium.

If we compare two atoms, their number of protons could be the same or it could be different, and the same applies to neutrons and electrons.

We can consider what would happen if we vary the number of each of the three subatomic particles. We will do this in detail in later LASs, but just as an introduction:

- <u>Protons</u> determine the <u>element</u>: atoms with a different number of protons in the nucleus are atoms of different elements. Carbon <u>always</u> has 6 protons, uranium always has 92, and hydrogen only 1.
- <u>Electrons</u> determine the <u>ion</u>: since protons are positive and electrons negative, if we vary the number of electrons the atom will have a <u>charge</u> and we instead call it an "ion" (pronounced "eye-on").
- <u>Neutrons</u> determine the <u>isotope</u>: two atoms can be different just in their number of neutrons. These are called "isotopes" of the element. Carbon, for example, has three natural isotopes; nitrogen has two.

### **Question**

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How many electrons do the (neutral) atoms hydrogen, carbon, and uranium have? Does this mean they always have an equal number of protons and electrons?

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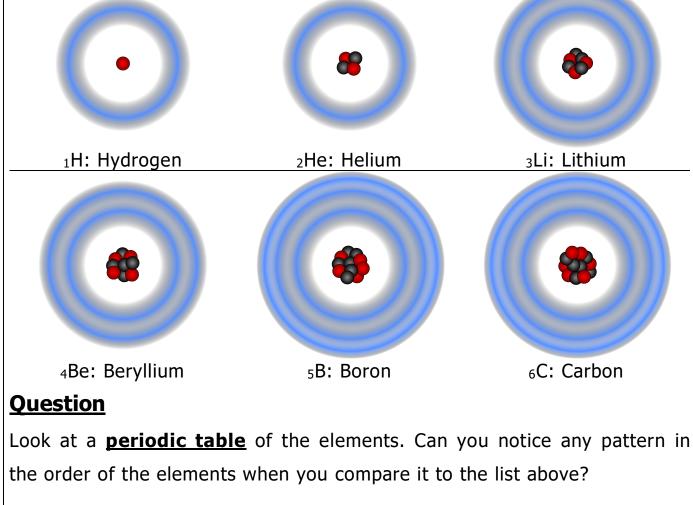
Authors/References: Victor Sojo

Chemists write elements with a one- or two-letter **symbol**. For hydrogen, this is just **<u>H</u>**.

Sometimes chemists also write a little number on the **bottom-left corner** of the symbol. This is the **number of protons in the nucleus**, **Z**, so hydrogen would be  $_1$ H, because hydrogen atoms have only 1 proton.

The number of **protons** Z is **always the same** for each **element**.

The second element is helium, with 2 protons, and then come lithium with 3, beryllium has 4, boron 5 and carbon 6. Let's make model drawings of these six atoms, including the orbitals but leaving out the electrons:



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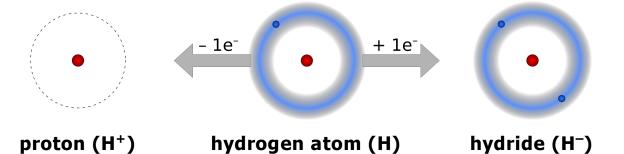
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Type of Activity : Concept Notes	lls: Exercise/Drill 🛛 Illustration
□ Laboratory Report □ Essay/Task Report □ Oth	ner:
Activity Title: 02-06.Electrons determine the	charge of the atom or ion v03
Learning Target: To calculate the charge of a	atoms and ions
Authors/References: Victor Sojo	

We saw how a different number of protons makes the atom into a different element. But actually, **the number of protons does not normally change** in chemical reactions. Conversely, the **number of electrons does change** rather often, and **many chemical reactions involve changes in the numbers of electrons**.

Since protons  $(p^+)$  are positive and electrons  $(e^-)$  are negative, if their numbers are not the same the atom will have a **<u>charge</u>**. When this happens, we don't normally call it an atom anymore, but an "**<u>ion</u>**" instead.

Electrons are negative, so when a neutral atom gains one it becomes a **negatively charged ion**, also called an "**anion**" (pronounced an-eye-on). Losing electrons produces a **positively charged ion**, or "**cation**".

**<u>Charge</u>** is written in the **<u>top-right corner</u>** of the element's symbol.



For example, hydrogen can either lose or gain an electron. If it gains one, we end up with an anion called "hydride". If instead H loses an electron, we end up simply with a proton, so chemists normally call this the "proton ion" H<sup>+</sup>, or just a "proton". This can be a little confusing because of p<sup>+</sup>; so "carbon has six protons" means six p<sup>+</sup> in its nucleus, not six H<sup>+</sup> ions.

### **Question**

Draw, including the electrons, the <u>lithium atom</u> and the <u>lithium ion</u>,  $_{3}Li^{+}$ .



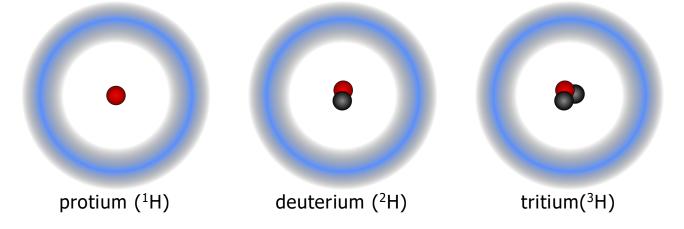
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<b>Type of Activity :</b> Concept Notes	□ Skills: Exercise/Drill □ Illustration	า
□ Laboratory Report □ Essay/Task Rep	oort □Other:	
Activity Title: 02-07.Neutrons deter	mine the isotope	03
Learning Target: To identify that iso	otopes are types of the same element	
Authors/References: Victor Sojo		

We've seen what happens when we change the number of protons (a different atom) and electrons (an ion). How about neutrons?

**Changing the number of neutrons** does not change the element, but it makes varieties of it called **isotopes**.

**Neutrons and protons** are sometimes called **nucleons** (can you guess why?). They have roughly the **same mass**, which is much larger than that of the electron. For this reason, and to distinguish between isotopes of the same element, the **number of nucleons** is sometimes written in the **top-left corner** of the element's symbol.

Hydrogen has three isotopes: protium <sup>1</sup>H, deuterium <sup>2</sup>H, and tritium <sup>3</sup>H. The first one has no neutrons, the second has one, and the third has two:



### **Exercise**

Carbon also has three natural isotopes, called simply carbon-12 ( $^{12}$ C), carbon-13 ( $^{13}$ C), and carbon-14 ( $^{14}$ C). The most common is  $^{12}$ C, but everything with carbon (including us!) normally has a bit of the other two. Choose one of the three carbon isotopes and draw its <u>**nucleus**</u>.

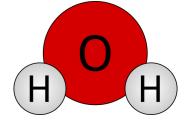


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Laborato	ory Report 🛛	Essay/Task R	eport 🗆 Other:			
		3.Elements can combine into compounds v02				
Learning Target: To identify that compounds such as water are made of two or more elements						
Learning	two	or more eler	ments			
Authors/I	References:	Victor Sojo				

**Elements can combine into compounds**. One of the most familiar compounds is **water**, which is made of **hydrogen** and **oxygen**. Through experimentation, we can show that there is **twice as much hydrogen as there is oxygen**. For this reason, we write the chemical **formula** of water:

# $H_2O$

The little number in the middle belongs to the hydrogen, not to the oxygen. It means that there are **two atoms of hydrogen for each atom of oxygen** in a water molecule (oxygen has a 1, but we don't write this). If we could see it, a water molecule would actually look something like this:



H\_O\_H

... or drawn another way:

So sometimes chemists write HOH, although  $H_2O$  is more common.

But not all compounds form molecules such as HOH. Some compounds, like table salt (NaCl), make a crystal that spreads in all six directions: up, down, left, right, back and forth, without any clear beginning or end. Every sodium ion (Na<sup>+</sup>) is followed by a chloride ion (Cl<sup>-</sup>), which is followed by another sodium, then another chloride, and so on, in every direction. We write NaCl simply because for every atom of sodium there is one of chlorine.

**Exercise:** Calculate the numbers of atoms of each element in aluminium sulphate  $Al_2(SO_4)_3$  (note: the 3 multiplies the group in the parentheses).



CHEM1-02-09

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Type of Activity : Concept Notes	□ Skills: Exercise/Drill □ Illustration
□ Laboratory Report □ Essay/Task Re	port 🗆 Other:
Activity Title: 02-09.The four corne	ers of an atomic symbol v03
Learning Target: To identify the nu	mbers in each corner of atomic symbols
Authors/References: Victor Sojo	

### The mass number

Same as the number of **nucleons** (protons + neutrons). It determines the **isotope**, so we only need to write it if we are considering a specific isotope. If we don't write anything, we mean the element just as it is found in Nature.

For oxygen, this would be:

99.76% <sup>16</sup>O 0.04% <sup>17</sup>O 0.20% <sup>18</sup>O

### The charge

This corresponds to the difference between the total number of protons and the total number of electrons.

If we write **<u>nothing</u>**, it means the **<u>charge is zero</u>**.

**Otherwise** we must **always** write it. Some people write charges as -2 or +3 instead of **2–** and **3+**, but the latter are strongly preferred!

When there is only one charge, we just write + or -, without 1.

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### The atomic number Z

Same as the number of **protons** in the nucleus. It is not necessary to write it because oxygen always has 8 protons, so just by writing the symbol "O" we already indicated that Z=8. However, sometimes we write Z just to make some discussions easier.

### <u>The atom count</u>

This indicates how many atoms of this element are present in this particular substance.

If we write **<u>nothing</u>**, it means there is only **<u>one atom</u>**.

**Otherwise**, we must **always** write the appropriate number.

For example, in H<sub>2</sub>O there are two hydrogens and one oxygen.

### **Question**

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Write the four numbers at the corners of the ion azide, which has three nitrogen atoms and one negative charge. Assume that each of the nitrogen atoms has 7 neutrons.

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Activity T	itle: <u>03-01.</u> [	Dalton's atom	ic theory (~18	805)	v05
Learning	Target: To a	describe the a	atomic theory	of John Dalto	n
Authors/F	References:	Victor Soio /	Brown's Centra	Science: Wik	ipedia

Unlike most scientists of his time, **John Dalton** (1766-1844) was born poor. He worked and studied very hard and went on to make multiple significant contributions to Science. Chief of these is his **Atomic Theory**, built upon work by many other scientists of his time (all great Science is built upon the knowledge gathered by previous scientists; this is why we must study their work).

The main ideas of Dalton's atomic theory are:

- 1. Elements are made of extremely small particles (the atoms).
- 2. Atoms of the **same element** are **identical**.
- 3. Atoms of **different elements** are **different**.
- 4. Atoms **are indivisible**.
- 5. In a **chemical compound**, atoms of **different elements** are **combined** in **simple proportions of integer (whole) numbers** (1, 2, 3, ...).
- 6.In <u>chemical reactions</u>, atoms are <u>combined, separated or</u> <u>rearranged</u>.
- 7. Atoms cannot be created or destroyed.
- 8. Atoms of an element do not change into atoms of another element.

# <u>Questions</u>

- a) We now know that idea #4 above is wrong. How do we know this?
- b) We also know that ideas #7 and #8 are right in the vast majority of the chemistry that we do. However, there are cases in which atoms can indeed be created, destroyed, or transformed into other atoms. Do you know which kind of processes these cases belong to?



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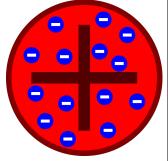
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	t Notes Skills: Exercise/Drill Illustration
□ Laboratory Report □ Essay/T	ask Report 🗆 Other:
Activity Title: 03-02. Thomson	n's (1897) and Rutherford's (1910) models v03
Learning Target: To describe	the atom models of Thomson and Rutherford
Authors/References: Victor S	Sojo / Brown's Central Science; Wikipedia

Dalton thought that **atoms** were **indivisible**. However, when **J.J. Thomson** took a glass tube, pumped almost all the air out, and then connected each end of a very strong battery to the two ends of the tube, **negative particles** flew from the negative end of the battery (the "**cathode**") to the positive end (the "**anode**"). This made Thomson realize that atoms of all elements have **negative particles** that are **easy to move**. We now call these particles "**electrons**".

But no matter what Thomson did, he couldn't get any positive particles to move, so he thought that the positive part of the atom must be static (he knew there had to be a positive part because atoms are electrically neutral).

He therefore imagined that atoms must be made of a big solid positive mass, with negative bits (**electrons**) embedded within, just like chocolate chips in a cookie. That's why we call this the **"plum-pudding" model**. It was very advanced for its time, but it's not entirely right.



Trying to demonstrate that his mentor Thomson was right, Ernest Rutherford shot small "alpha" particles against a very thin sheet of gold. He was expecting most particles to bounce back after smashing against the solid wall of plum-pudding atoms but, to his surprise, **most went through!** Only a few did bounce back. He concluded that the atom must be mostly empty (that's why most particles went through), with a **positive nucleus** and the **electrons around it like planets to the sun**.

**Exercise:** Draw Rutherford's planetary model of a Lithium atom (3 electrons). Note that in 1910 **<u>Rutherford knew nothing of protons,</u>** <u>**neutrons or orbitals**</u>. These were discovered later.

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Type of Activity	/: 🗆	Concept Not	es □Sk	ills: Exe	ercise/Drill		llustrati	on
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Activity Title: 0	3-03.1	he modern,	quantum-m	echani	cs view of	the a	itom	v04
Learning Targe	t: To stru	describe t cture based	he moderr on Quantu	n unde Im Mec	erstanding chanics	of	electro	onic

Thomson (1897) discovered that atoms have easy-to-move electrons. Then in 1910 Rutherford discovered the nucleus, and suggested a planetary model. In 1919, Rutherford himself discovered protons, positive particles that compose the nucleus, and Chadwick discovered neutrons in 1932.

Authors/References: Victor Sojo / Brown's Central Science; Wikipedia

This painted a full picture of the atomic particles (neutrons and protons in the nucleus, electrons distributed away around the nucleus). But how exactly are electrons distributed around the nucleus?

Many discoveries, hypotheses, discussions and even quarrels have led to our current understanding, based on a theory called **<u>quantum mechanics</u>**. The main contributors have been scientists such as Planck, Einstein, de Broglie, Heisenberg, Schrödinger, Pauli, Hund, and many others.

The theory is very complex, and we cannot go over it in detail here, but we can study some important conclusions of what we know:

- Electrons behave <u>both</u> as <u>particles</u> (like a ball) and <u>waves</u> (like sound).
- Electrons are not in simple 2-dimensional planetary <u>orbits</u>, but instead in <u>3-dimensional "orbitals"</u>.
- Orbitals are not like bags in which electrons are held, but instead they are volumes where it is most likely (or probable) to find an electron.
- There cannot be more than 2 electrons in any orbital.

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- Atoms have four main types of orbitals: **<u>s</u>**, **<u>p</u>**, **<u>d</u>**, and **<u>f</u>** (always lowercase).
- <u>s</u> orbitals only take <u>2 electrons</u>. <u>p</u> orbitals are actually <u>three</u> separate orbitals, so they take <u>6 electrons</u> in total. <u>d</u> orbitals are actually <u>five</u> separate orbitals, and <u>f</u> orbitals are actually <u>seven</u>.

**Question:** How many electrons fit into the d and f groups of orbitals?

		SHS LEAR	RNING ACT	IVITY	CHEM1-03-04
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Strand:	□ STEM				TVL Track)

 Type of Activity :
 □ Concept Notes
 □ Skills: Exercise/Drill
 □ Illustration

 □ Laboratory Report
 □ Essay/Task Report
 □ Other:

 Activity Title:
 03-04.Electronic configurations and the rain method
 v03

 Learning Target:
 To describe our current view of electronic structure

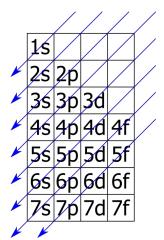
 Authors/References:
 Victor Sojo / Brown's Central Science; Wikipedia

Electrons tend to **occupy the orbital with the lowest energy available**. In most cases, the energy of orbitals increases, from left to right:

1s 2s 2p 3s 3p 4s 3d 4p 5s 4d 5p 6s 4f 5d 6p 7s 5f 6d 7p

However, remembering this seemingly disordered pattern is a little difficult, so many chemists like to use a mnemotechnic tool called the **rain method**:

We respectively add the first s p d and f orbitals at every major step (1, 2, 3, and 4), starting with <u>1s</u>, then 2s <u>2p</u>, then 3s 3p <u>3d</u>, and then 4s 4p 4d <u>4f</u>, and from 4 onwards we just add all four. We then draw <u>diagonal</u> <u>arrows</u> from the top-right, through the orbital names. To get the <u>electron configuration</u> of an atom or ion, we follow the first arrow, then the second, and so on.

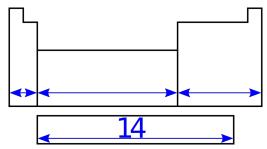


So, for the rubidium ion 37Rb<sup>+</sup>, which has 36 electrons, we have:

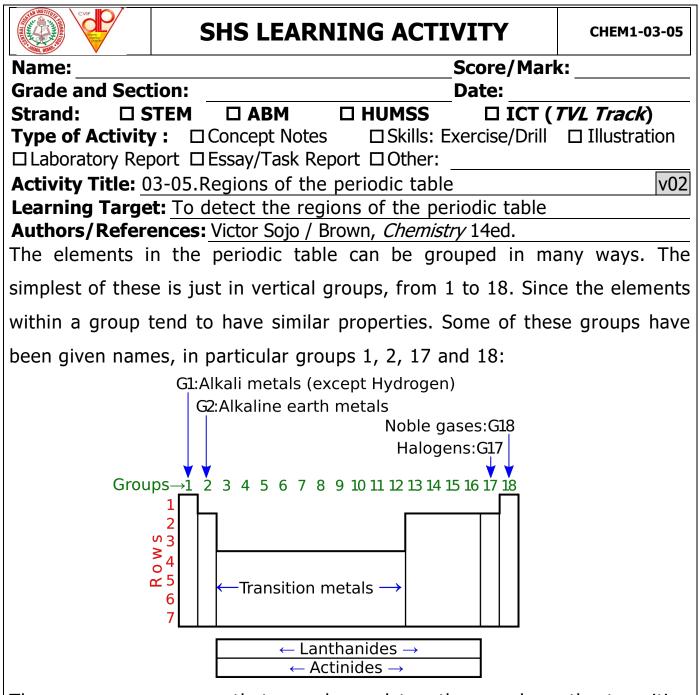
37Rb<sup>+</sup>: 1s<sup>2</sup> 2s<sup>2</sup> 2p<sup>6</sup> 3s<sup>2</sup> 3p<sup>6</sup> 4s<sup>2</sup> 3d<sup>10</sup> 4p<sup>6</sup>

Note that  $d^{10}$  actually means that there are 2 electrons in each of the five d sub-orbitals. There cannot be more than 2 electrons in any orbital (this is called Pauli's exclusion principle). In total, there can be a maximum <u>2</u> <u>electrons</u> in each of the <u>s</u> orbitals, <u>6</u> in the <u>p</u>, <u>10</u> in the <u>d</u>, and <u>14</u> in the <u>f</u>.

**Question:** Look at a periodic table and count how many columns ("**groups**") there are in each of the four blocks marked. Write the number in the figure. Do you notice anything?

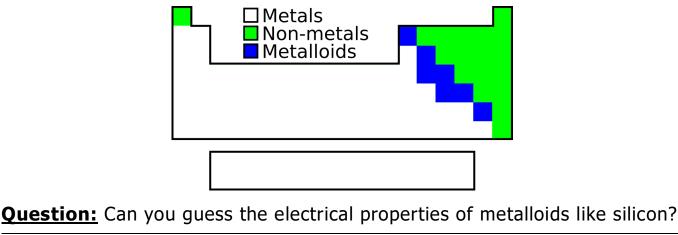


**Exercise:** Determine the electronic configurations of the following atoms or ions:  ${}_{17}Cl^-$ , Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Kr,  ${}_{86}Rn^0$ .



There are some groups that are clumped together, such as the transition metals (groups in the d block) and the lanthanides and actinides (groups in the two rows of the f block). This is because they share similar properties.

We can also cluster elements in terms of how **metallic** they are. Metals have similar properties; for example, they tend to conduct electricity and heat very well, and they are easy to bend and shape (ductility and malleability). Most pure non-metals don't conduct electricity or heat very well.

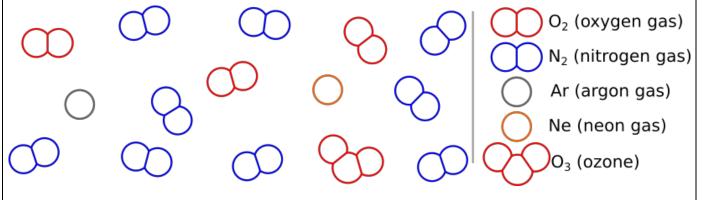


same conditions, and you credit us by linking to our website eduversum.org/cvif. Visit the website for additional information and to contact us with comments or suggestions.

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Activity Title: 0	4-01.E	lements as a	toms, molecu	lles, and lattic	ces v02
Learning Target: To identify that pure elements exist in different structures					
Authors/Refere	uthors/References: Victor Sojo / Wikipedia: Element; Brown, Chemistry 14ed.				

Some elements are typically found in the Universe just as **single atoms** that float around on their own and don't interact much with any other atoms. This is the case of the noble gases such as Neon and Argon, both of which are present in very small concentrations in the air we breathe:

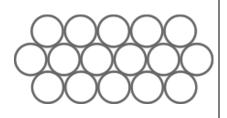


There are many more **molecules** of nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) in the air, formed by two atoms of the element nitrogen. There is also plenty of oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>), formed by two atoms of oxygen. O<sub>2</sub> is the most common form of the pure element oxygen on Earth. However, you will notice that there is also a little bit of ozone (O<sub>3</sub>). Up in the stratosphere (about 20 to 30 km upwards), there's a little more ozone than down on the ground.

<u>All molecules are formed by two or more atoms</u>. These atoms don't have to be of the same element. For example, carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and water (H<sub>2</sub>O) are both molecules also present in the air in small amounts.

Some elements don't form molecules, but they are also not alone as atoms. This is the case of **metals** such as gold, silver or aluminium, which form a **lattice**, a kind of three-dimensional pattern.

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**Question:** Try to draw the  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  molecules (hint: C is in the middle of the  $CO_2$  molecule). We will see their exact shapes later.

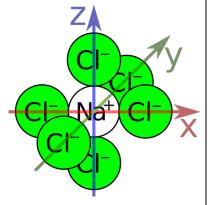
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<b>Type of Activity :</b> Concept Notes	□ Skills: Exercise/Drill □ Illustration		
□ Laboratory Report □ Essay/Task Rep	oort □Other:		
Activity Title: 04-02.Ionic, covalent,	, and metallic bonds v03		
Learning Target: To identify the diff	ferent types of chemical bonds		
Authors/References: Victor Sojo / W	/ikipedia: Bond; Brown, <i>Chemistry</i> 14ed.		

# There are **three main types of bonds** in chemical substances: **ionic**, **covalent**, and **metallic**.

**Ionic bonds:** Saltwater contains many Sodium cations Na<sup>+</sup> and chloride anions Cl<sup>-</sup>. If we fill a pot with seawater and evaporate all the water, the ions

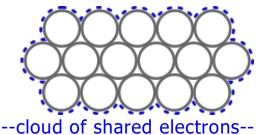
Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> can no longer float around in the water. Instead, they now move towards each other because of their opposite charges and form a <u>crystal</u> of NaCl "sodium chloride". This union formed because of the <u>attraction between negative and positive</u> particles (e.g. in salts) is called an ionic bond.



**Covalent bonds:** Water is a **molecule** with formula H<sub>2</sub>O. Atoms in molecules

Are <u>bound</u> to each other by <u>pairs of shared</u> <u>electrons</u>. We call these pairs <u>covalent bonds</u>, and we normally draw them as sticks. Remember: <u>each bond</u> or stick corresponds to <u>two electrons</u>. Sometimes we draw double sticks, which are simply <u>double bonds</u>, made of two electrons each, four in total.

Metallic bonds: Metals do not form molecules. Instead, they form large



three-dimensional networks or <u>lattices</u> in which all the atoms share electrons. The <u>metallic bond</u> is caused by the sharing of these electrons. And the <u>shared-electron</u>

<u>cloud</u> is also <u>why metals are so good at conducting electricity</u>. <u>Question</u>: What type of bonds do atoms in these compounds form?

a)18K gold in a ring. b)CO<sub>2</sub>. c)KF (potassium fluoride) d)Steel in a ship.



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Activity Title: 04-03.	Valence elec ule	trons, Lewis	structures	and	the v03
Learning Target: To	identify the re	eacting electro	ns of an elen	nents	
Authors/References	Victor Sojo				

Elements can have many electrons. For example, neutral silver has 47, and neutral lead has 82. Not all of these are involved in chemical reactions. In fact, **only the outer electrons participate in chemical reactions**. These are called the **valence electrons**, underlined as follows:

 $_{1}$ H:<u>1s<sup>1</sup></u>  $_{9}$ F:1s<sup>2</sup><u>2s<sup>2</sup>2p<sup>5</sup></u>  $_{20}$ Ca:1s<sup>2</sup>2s<sup>2</sup>2p<sup>6</sup>3s<sup>2</sup>3p<sup>6</sup><u>4s<sup>2</sup></u>  $_{2}$ He:<u>1s<sup>2</sup></u>  $_{8}$ O:1s<sup>2</sup><u>2s<sup>2</sup>2p<sup>4</sup></u> **When elements react, they often gain, lose, or share electrons** until they end up with a s<sup>2</sup>p<sup>6</sup> configuration. This is called a full or "<u>closed" shell</u>. The noble gases (He, Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe) do not tend to react at all. This is because they already have a closed shell, which is very stable. For this reason, some like to say that <u>atoms tend to get the electronic</u> <u>configuration of the closest noble gas</u>.

Calcium, for example, can <u>lose</u> its two valence electrons and form the ion calcium,  $Ca^{2+}:1s^22s^22p^63s^23p^6$ , which has the configuration of argon (<sub>18</sub>Ar). Fluorine would instead tend to <u>gain</u> one electron and end up as the ion fluoride with the configuration of <sub>10</sub>Ne, F<sup>-</sup>:1s<sup>2</sup>2s<sup>2</sup>2p<sup>6</sup>. Unsurprisingly, calcium reacts with fluorine, forming calcium fluoride: Ca + F<sub>2</sub>  $\longrightarrow$  CaF<sub>2</sub>

Here, two electrons were transferred from calcium, one to each fluorine.

But sometimes neither element would benefit from losing electrons, so they **<u>share</u>**. Hydrogen would welcome one electron and end up with a helium-like  $1s^2$ ,

whereas oxygen would prefer two and have neon's  $1s^22s^22p^6$ . The solution? Two hydrogen atoms can each share one electron with one oxygen atom.



In this **Lewis structure**, we normally end up with eight electrons around each atom (except H, which ends up with 2). This is called the **octet rule**.

**Exercise:** Draw the Lewis structures of H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>.

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		tures common in moder	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Authors   Refer	ences: Victor Sojo   Wi	kipedia: August Kekulé; C	ovalent bond
Lowic structu	ros roprosont oach ol	ectron as a dot. Let's	draw the Lowic
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		e need the electronic co	•
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Now we can o	Iraw the Lewis dot str	ucture, assuming N is in	the center:
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Another way	of presenting electror	ns is drawing each pair	as a stick. This
is called a Keku	<b>ilé</b> structure:		
	—Н І	<mark>∖</mark> H   -	
Neither pure	Lewis-dot nor pure l	Kekulé-stick structures	are common ir
modern chemis	try. Instead, chemist	s most often use a h	ybrid model ir
which we prese	ent bonds as Kekulé s	ticks, but <u>unpaired el</u>	<u>ectrons</u> (those
electrons that a	re not in a bond) as L	ewis dots:	
	H-H	<b>∖</b> —H I ⊣	
Actually the	unnaired electrons at	e optional, and chemis	ta aftan da n

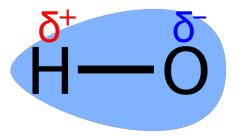
Actually, the unpaired electrons are optional, and chemists often do not draw them (but often they do, when they think it is important to do so). **Exercise:** draw the pure Lewis, pure Kekulé, and modern structure with unpaired electrons for hydrogen fluoride (HF) and molecular nitrogen N<sub>2</sub>.

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Learning Targe	<b>t:</b> To re To d	ealize why wa raw the angle	ater has perr d (non-linear)	nanent electri shape of wate	c poles. r.
Authors   Refere					

We know that atoms in a covalent bond share a pair of electrons:



Here, the two electrons are in an evenly distributed <u>electron cloud</u>. However, in many cases the sharing of electrons is not perfectly even. For example, in the case of the H–O bond, oxygen attracts electrons more than hydrogen does (oxygen is more "<u>electronegative</u>"). The electrons in the H–O bond are therefor displaced towards the oxygen atom, and the electron cloud is not even. This creates a slightly positive ( $\delta^+$ ) <u>charge density</u> on the hydrogen atom, and a slightly negative density ( $\delta^-$ ) on the oxygen:



This uneven electron cloud is unthe bond **polar** (it has a positive pole and a negative pole).

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Activity Title: 0	5-01.Chemical no	omenclature		v03
Learning Targe	et: To assign nam	es to chemical of	compounds	
Authors/Refere	thors/References: Victor Sojo / Wikipedia: Metal; Brown, <i>Chemistry</i> 14ed.			

Humans have been naming substances for a very long time, such as "water", "vinegar", "salt", or "alcohol". However, we now know that all compounds are made from the same 118 elements, so chemists have been able to develop systematic (organized) ways of naming compounds. This is called **chemical nomenclature**.

Let's first learn some major types of compounds in **inorganic chemistry**: **Salts** are typically made of a **metal** cation and a **non-metal** anion. We're already familiar with common table salt, sodium chloride (NaCl); but there are many more **binary salts** (made of only two elements), such as barium chloride (BaCl<sub>2</sub>), potassium fluoride (KF), aluminium sulfide (Al<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>), and lithium nitride (Li<sub>3</sub>N).

**Ternary salts** are made of three elements. Typically, oxygen is part of the anion, in which case it is called an **oxyanion**. They include sulfates (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup>), phosphates (PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3–</sup>), nitrates (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>–</sup>), carbonates (CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2–</sup>) and many more.

**<u>Hydroxides</u>** are a special kind of ternary salt, in which the anion is always  $OH^{-}$ . They include common **<u>bases</u>** (or **<u>alkalis</u>**) such as NaOH and Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>.

<u>Metal oxides</u> are also ionic (like salts). A most familiar one is ferric oxide, Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, also called iron(III) oxide (because the <u>charge</u> of iron is 3+). There is also the iron(II) or "ferrous" ion, Fe<sup>2+</sup>, which forms ferrous oxide FeO.

**Non-metal oxides** have covalent bonds, such as in carbon dioxide, CO<sub>2</sub>.

**Acids** have hydrogen as the proton ion, H<sup>+</sup>, and one of the anions from the binary or ternary salts. Some well-known ones are hydrochloric acid (HCl), sulfuric acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>), nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>), and phosphoric acid.

**Exercises:** We didn't really give any full examples of ternary salts above. Write the formulas for sodium sulfate, barium nitrate, and calcium phosphate. For this, you need the **charges** of the cations: Na<sup>+</sup>, Ba<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>. We also didn't give the formula for phosphoric acid. Can you deduce it?

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Learning 7	Target: To f	amiliarize with	n the most typica	al inorganic ions	
Authors/R	eferences:	Victor Sojo, Je ed., pp. 60–61	erome Sadudaquil ; Petrucci, Chemi	/ Chang, Chemistry stry 10th ed., pp. 88	/ 10th -91
element, su Only 1+:	uch as the s All in Group	ilver ion, Ag <sup>+</sup> , 1 of the perio	Here are the m dic table (Li <sup>+</sup> , N	ve the name of the ost significant ones la <sup>+</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , Rb <sup>+</sup> , Cs <sup>+</sup> ), A	5:
<u>Only 2+:</u> /	All in Group	⊇ (Be⁴⁺, Mg⁴¹	<sup>+</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup> , Sr <sup>2+</sup> , Ba <sup>2</sup>	''), Cd <sup>2+</sup> , Zn <sup>2+</sup> .	

### CATIONS WITH TWO TYPICAL CHARGES

Here are some useful pairs to remember:

**Only 3+:** Al<sup>3+</sup>.

Cu+	copper(I)	cuprous	Au <sup>+</sup>	gold(I)	aurous
Cu <sup>2+</sup>	copper(II)	cupric	Au <sup>3+</sup>	gold(III)	auric
$Hg_{2}^{2+}$	mercury(I)	mercurous	Fe <sup>2+</sup>	iron(II)	ferrous
Hg <sup>2+</sup>	mercury(II)	mercuric	Fe <sup>3+</sup>	iron(III)	ferric
Sn <sup>2+</sup>	tin(II)	stannous	Co <sup>2+</sup>	cobalt(II)	cobaltous
Sn <sup>4+</sup>	tin(IV)	stannic	Co <sup>3+</sup>	cobalt(III)	cobaltic
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	lead(II)	plumbous	Cr <sup>2+</sup>	chromium(II)	chromous
Pb <sup>4+</sup>	lead(IV)	plumbic	Cr <sup>3+</sup>	chromium(III)	chromic

**ANIONS** are not as easy to classify, so let's just group them loosely:

F <sup>_</sup>	fluoride	OH⁻	hydroxide	N <sup>3–</sup>	nitride
Cl⁻	chloride	O <sup>2-</sup>	oxide	$NO_2^-$	nitrite
Br <sup>_</sup>	bromide	O <sub>2</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	peroxide	$NO_3^-$	nitrate
I <sup>-</sup>	iodide	S <sup>2-</sup>	sulfide	MnO <sub>4</sub> -	permanganate
CIO-	hypochlorite	SO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	sulfite	CrO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	chromate
$CIO_2^-$	chlorite	SO4 <sup>2-</sup>	sulfate	$Cr_2O_7^{2-}$	dichromate
$CIO_3^-$	chlorate	HSO₃ <sup>−</sup>	bisulfite	CO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2–</sup>	carbonate
$CIO_4^-$	perchlorate	$HSO_4^-$	bisulfate	HCO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	bicarbonate
PO4 <sup>3-</sup>	phosphate	HPO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	hydrogen phosphate	$H_2PO_4^-$	dihydrogen phosphate

### SOME STRANGE IONS

Hydrogen can be either a cation (H<sup>+</sup>, proton) or an anion (H<sup>-</sup>, hydride). NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, ammonium, is the only cation discussed here that is not a metal. We saw the peroxide  $O_2^{2^-}$  and mercurous  $Hg_2^{2^+}$  ions above. **Do not** "simplify" them to  $\Theta^-$  and  $Hg^+$ ! This is incorrect! They must stay as pairs. **Exercise:** can you predict the formula of the ion iodate? Hint: Group 17.

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Learning Targe	et: To p	ractice nami	ng chemical c	ompounds	
Authors/Refer	ences:	Victor Sojo	-		

**Salts** are named simply by stating the cation followed by the anion. For example, KI is "potassium iodide", and Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> is "iron(III) sulfate" (or, in the old nomenclature that's still in use, "ferric sulfate"). To find out how many of each ion we need, we must make sure that the total charge is zero using the smallest possible combination. For Na<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> it's easy: just one of each. But for Fe<sup>3+</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> it's trickier. We could have either one Fe<sup>3+</sup> (3 positive charges), or two Fe<sup>3+</sup> (**6**+), or three (9+) or four (**12**+) and so on. Similarly, we could have one SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (2–), two (4–), three (**6**–), four (8–), five (10–), six (**12**–), seven (14–) and so on. The first time that we have the same number of positive and negative charges is at ±6, so we get Fe<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub>. Technically, 6 is the least common multiple (LCM) of 2 and 3.

Conversely, for lead(IV) sulfate, we have  $Pb^{4+}$  and  $SO_4^{2-}$ , so we only need to get to ±4, the LCM of 2 and 4:  $Pb(SO_4)_2$ .

Hydroxides (bases) and metal oxides are named exactly like salts.

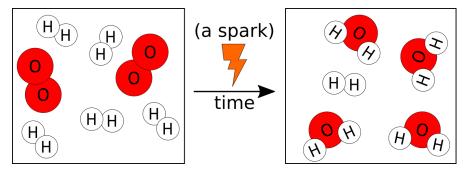
**Non-metal oxides** are much easier to name: we just count the number of each atom and write prefixes that indicate the numbers (mono, di, tri, tetra, penta, hexa, hepta, octa, nona, deca). For example:  $N_2O_4$  is dinitrogen tetraoxide. Note that if the first element has only one atom, we don't write "mono" for it, but we do for the oxygen: CO is carbon monoxide.

**Binary acids** are named "hydro{elem-}ic acid"; HCl is hydrochloric acid.

**Oxoacids** are easier to learn with an example. Sulfur<u>ic</u> acid is made from sulf<u>ate</u>: H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, whereas sulfur<u>ous</u> acid is made from sulf<u>ite</u>. So just remember that: \_\_\_\_\_ite ion  $\rightarrow$  \_\_\_\_\_ous acid, \_\_\_\_\_ate ion  $\rightarrow$  \_\_\_\_\_ic acid. **Exercise.** Write the name or formula of the following compounds. **Salts:** KI, CdS, ammonium sulfate, calcium phosphate. **Non-metal oxides:** N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, P<sub>4</sub>O<sub>10</sub>, sulfur trioxide. **Acids:** hydroiodic acid, nitric acid, HNO<sub>2</sub>. **Bases:** Mg(OH)<sub>2</sub>.

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Activity Title: 0	6-01.Stoichiomet	ry - Reactions and	equations	v03
Learning Targe	et: To visualize rea	actions and start b	alancing e	quations
<b>Authors/Refere</b>	ences: Victor Sojo			

So far, we have just been naming and describing elements and compounds. But chemistry is the science of **changing substances**, not static matter. When a substance changes into another, we call this a **chemical reaction**:



Here, hydrogen and oxygen (the <u>reactants</u> or <u>reagents</u>) <u>reacted</u>, forming water (the <u>product</u>). <u>Count the atoms</u>; you'll see that the numbers for each element are exactly the same before and after: the atoms only rearrange, their numbers remain the same in chemical reactions (nuclear reactions are an exception, but we won't study them here). You'll also notice that some of the H<sub>2</sub> didn't have any O<sub>2</sub> to react with, so it was left unreacted.

These simple relations have allowed chemists to create very simple mathematical expressions to easily calculate quantities in reactions:

$$H_2 + O_2 \longrightarrow H_2O$$
 unbalanced!

Like all good mathematical equalities, these **chemical equations** must be **balanced** (what's on the left-hand side must be **equal** to what's on the right-hand side). Let's count the atoms again. One oxygen seems to have disappeared! That cannot be, so let's fix it by multiplying water by 2:

 $H_2 + O_2 \longrightarrow 2H_2O$  unbalanced!

That helped, but now we messed up the hydrogen. It's easy to fix it:

$$\mathbf{2}H_2 + O_2 \longrightarrow \mathbf{2}H_2O \qquad \qquad \text{balanced} \ \textcircled{\odot}$$

We read this as: "two molecules of hydrogen react with one molecule of oxygen and produce (or yield) two molecules of water".

**Exercise:** balance the equation for the formation of  $AI_2O_3$  from AI and  $O_2$ .

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Activity Title	<b>:</b> 06-02.E	Balancing equa	tions		v02

Activity Title: 06-02.Balancing equations Learning Target: To practice balancing equations Authors | References: Victor Sojo | sky-web: bit.ly/2C1mltt Wikipedia: Hydrazine; Nitrogen pentoxide.

If a solution to the balancing is not obvious, a good trick is to follow this order: 1)Metals, 2)Nonmetals (except H and O), 3)Hydrogen, and lastly 4)Oxygen. It doesn't always work, but often it does. Another trick if the previous fails is to leave a pure element (such as  $Cl_2$ ,  $O_2$ ,  $H_2$  or  $F_2$ ) for the end, since multiplying it won't affect any other element.

Practice makes perfect! Let's balance a few equations (remember to always make sure that the number of atoms of each element is the same on both sides! Count again after you finish balancing!):

 $Na \ + \ Cl_2 \ \longrightarrow \ NaCl$ 

 $Zn \ + \ HCl \ \longrightarrow \ ZnCl_2 \ + \ H_2$ 

 $C_2H_5OH + O_2 \longrightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$ 

 $AI_2(CO_3)_3 + H_3PO_4 \longrightarrow AIPO_4 + CO_2 + H_2O$ 

 $C_6H_{12}O_6 + O_2 \longrightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$ 

 $FeCI_3 + NH_3 + H_2O \longrightarrow Fe(OH)_3 + NH_4CI$ 

 $NH_3 \ + \ H_2O_2 \ \rightarrow \ N_2H_4 \ + \ H_2O$ 

 $S_8 \ + \ F_2 \ \longrightarrow \ SF_6$ 

 $P_4O_{10} \ + \ HNO_3 \longrightarrow \ H_3PO_4 \ + \ N_2O_5$ 

 $C_4H_{10} \ + \ O_2 \ \longrightarrow \ CO_2 \ + \ H_2O$ 

 $(H_2N)_2CO + NaOCI + NaOH \longrightarrow N_2H_4 + H_2O + NaCI + Na_2CO_3$ 

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Activity Title: 0	6-03.Mc	oles and Ave	ogadro's Num	ber	<b>v0</b> 3
Learning Targe	e <b>t:</b> To de	fine mole a	is just a name	e for a numbe	r, like "dozen"
Authors   Refer	ences: V	/ictor Sojo	Wikipedia: Mol	le; Earth; Milky	/ Way

Because atoms are so incredibly small, we need some way to count them easily. Someone had a brilliant idea: just like we defined "a dozen" to mean 12, let's just define "one **mole**" (1 mol) to mean a very big, specific number of particles, one that we can weigh easily. But what number to use? Well, since hydrogen is the first element, and we normally weigh things in grams, let's just make 1 mol be the number of atoms in 1 g of pure <sup>1</sup>H hydrogen. That was a great idea, but hydrogen is volatile and flammable and difficult to purify, so we now define mole as the number of carbon atoms in 12 g of pure <sup>12</sup>C (without any <sup>13</sup>C or <sup>14</sup>C). This value, called Avogadro's number (in honor of Italian chemist Amedeo Avogadro), is approximately <u>**6.02**:10<sup>23</sup></u>.

Note that "dozen" just means 12, but it doesn't specify 12 what (it could be eggs, cakes, hippopotamuses, cars, students, hairpins, dentists... anything!). In the same way, "mole" is just 6.02·10<sup>23</sup>, but it doesn't specify what of. It could be atoms, molecules, ions, cakes, people... anything!

Actually, Avogadro's number is so large that we could not get so many people, even if every planet in the solar system had people! What's more, even if every single planet in the whole galaxy had people, we still wouldn't have 1 mol of students! Let's prove that. There are close to 8 billion people on Earth. Let's be generous and round it to 10 billion ( $10^9$ ). There are 8 planets in our solar system, so let's just say approximately 10 planets per star. And there are between 100 and 400 billion ( $1-to-4\cdot10^{11}$ ) stars in the Milky Way; let's be very generous again and say it's  $10^{12}$ . We have:

 $\frac{10^9 \text{ people}}{\text{planet}} \cdot \frac{10 \text{ planets}}{\text{star}} \cdot \frac{10^{12} \text{ stars}}{\text{galaxy}} = 10^{22} \text{ people/galaxy}$ 

So, even if we had as many people on Earth in every single planet of the entire galaxy, we'd still need over 60 galaxies before we had 1 mol people!

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Activity Title: 0	6-04.Mola	ar masses			v03
Learning Targe	et: To calc	ulate the r	nass of 1 mol	of any subst	ance
Authors   Refer	ences: Vic	tor Soio I \	Vikipedia: Mola	r mass	

So, we know that if we had 1 mol of  ${}^{12}C$ , it would weigh exactly 12 g. But since there's a bit of  ${}^{13}C$  and  ${}^{14}C$  in typical carbon, 1 mol of normal pure carbon actually weighs 12.011 g.

This is called the **molar mass** of carbon. The standard symbol is M, but we will use that later for "molarity" (the concentration of something dissolved in a liquid), so here we will use the Greek letter  $\mu$  ("mu") instead.

Similarly, 1 mol of oxygen weighs 15.999 g, the molar mass of hydrogen is 1.008 g/mol, and that uranium is 238.029 g/mol.

Since we know the formulas of substances, we can easily calculate the molar masses of compounds too. For example, for CO<sub>2</sub>:

 $\mu_{CO_2} = \mu_C \cdot 1 + \mu_0 \cdot 2$ 

= 12.011 g/mol + 2.15.999 g/mol

= 44.009 g/mol

Since most molar masses are so close to integers, we often round them (12, 16, and 44 in the calculation above). But some are too far to round up or down; for example,  $\mu_{Cl} = 35.45$  g/mol, which shouldn't really be rounded to either 35 or 36, so we just leave it as is or round only to 35.5 g/mol.

If you've heard the term "molecular weight" before, we won't use it here, firstly because it's not a weight (it's a mass), and secondly because it isn't always a molecule, as in some of the examples below.

**Exercise.** Calculate the molar masses of: H<sub>2</sub>O, NaCl, (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH. You may use the rounded numbers here. For example, for H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>3</sub> we have:

 $\mu_{H_3PO_3} = \mu_H \cdot 3 + \mu_P \cdot 1 + \mu_O \cdot 4$ 

= 1 g/mol · 3 + 31 g/mol + 16 g/mol · 3

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Type of Activity :   □ Concept Notes							
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Activity Title: 06-05. Stoichiometry: reaction with excess of one reagent v03							
Learning T	Learning Target: To start calculating amounts of reagents and products						
Authors   R	eferences:	Victor Sojo					

We can use balanced equations to calculate the amounts of products formed in chemical reactions. For example, let's calculate the amount of  $CO_2$  and  $H_2O$  that would be produced in a **full combustion** of 6.84 g of sucrose  $(C_{12}H_{22}O_{11})$  with oxygen in the air.

The proportions in a chemical equation do not work for grams, but they do work for particles, so the first thing we must do is find out how much 6.84 g of sucrose is in mol. For that, we need the molar mass of sucrose:

 $\mu_{C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}} = \mu_{C} \cdot 12 + \mu_{H} \cdot 22 + \mu_{O} \cdot 11 = 342 \text{ g/mol}$ 

With this, we can calculate the number of mol "n" of butane:

 $n_{sucrose} = 6.84 \text{ g sucrose} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ mol sucrose}}{342 \text{ g sucrose}} = 0.02 \text{ mol sucrose}$ 

Next we need a balanced equation. A full combustion of butane with oxygen in air would produce carbon dioxide and water, so we have in total:

 $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11} + \textbf{12} O_2 \longrightarrow \textbf{12} CO_2 + \textbf{11} H_2O$ 

And from here we can easily calculate how much of each product was formed. This is easily seen using a table, where we start by filling the first row with the initial ("i") data that we have, in mol:

We don't know how much  $O_2$  there was to start with, but the reaction was happening in air, so we know there was a lot of it (it was "in excess"). Of course, there were no products <u>before</u> the reaction, so their initial quantities are both zero. Now we can add two more rows, one for what happened in the reaction "r", and another one for the final conditions "f":

		$C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$	+ <b>12</b> O <sub>2</sub>	→ <b>12</b> CO <sub>2</sub>	+ <b>11</b> H <sub>2</sub> O	
	i)	0.02	(in excess)	0	0	
	r)	-0.02	-0.24	+0.24	+0.22	
	f)	0 (nothing)	(still in excess)	0.24	0.22	
<u>)u</u>	est	ion: Can you	calculate where the "i	r" numbers c	ame from?	

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		SHS LEAR	RNING ACTI	IVITY	CHEM1-06-06
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 Type of Activity :
 □ Concept Notes
 □ Skills: Exercise/Drill
 □ Illustration

 □ Laboratory Report
 □ Essay/Task Report
 □ Other:

 Activity Title:
 06-06.Limiting reagent and excess reagent
 v03

 Learning Target:
 To determine the limiting reagent. Further calculations.

 Authors | References:
 Victor Sojo | Wikipedia: Limiting reagent.

What happens when we know the amounts of both reagents? Normally, we will have too little of one of them, so the other will remain as an excess.

The reaction of tetraphosphorous decaoxide with perchloric acid produces phosphoric acid and dichlorine heptoxide. Let's say we start with 0.08 mol of  $P_4O_{10}$  and 0.6 mol of HClO<sub>4</sub>. We would have, in mol:

	$P_4O_{10}$	+	<b>12</b> HClO <sub>4</sub>	$\longrightarrow$	<b>4</b> H <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	+	<b>6</b> Cl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub>	
i)	0.1		0.60		0.00		0.00	
r)								
f)								

To fill in the table, the equation tells us that, for every molecule of  $P_4O_{10}$ that react, 12 molecules of HClO<sub>4</sub> must react with it. If we have 0.10 mol of  $P_4O_{10}$ , we would need 12 times that of HClO<sub>4</sub> to react completely, i.e. we would need 1.2 mol HClO<sub>4</sub>. We only have 0.6 mol HClO<sub>4</sub>, so we know that HClO<sub>4</sub> is the **limiting reagent** (it **limits** how long the reaction can go on for), and  $P_4O_{10}$  is an **excess reagent**. Note that the limiting reagent can actually start out with larger quantities: we had a lot more HClO<sub>4</sub> than  $P_4O_{10}$ , but since the relation is 1:12, the HClO<sub>4</sub> ran out much more quickly. **The limiting reagent reacts completely**, nothing is left of it, so we can fill in our first two missing boxes, the "r" and "f" for HClO<sub>4</sub>. **Do that now**.

We know that HClO<sub>4</sub> reacted completely; now it would be good to know how much of the  $P_4O_{10}$  reacted, and how much is left. That's easy: the amount of  $P_4O_{10}$  that reacted is 1/12 of the 0.06 mol of HClO<sub>4</sub> that reacted.

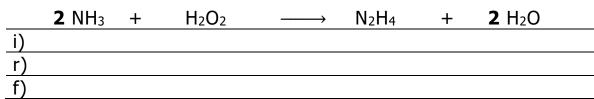
Next we have the products. Their quantities are also determined by the limiting reagent. We know that their respective relations to  $HClO_4$  are 12:4 and 12:6. That's the same as 3:1 and 2:1, or more convenient in this case, 6:2 and 6:3! So, we must have formed 0.2 mol  $H_3PO_4$  and 0.3 mol  $Cl_2O_7$ . Note that the stoichiometric relations also remain if you use the "r" numbers for any reagent or product. **Exercise:** go on and fill in the whole table =)

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Type of Activity	y: Concept Not	tes □Skills:	Exercise/Drill	□ Illustration
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Activity Title: 0	6-07.Calculating	reagents from t	he products	v04
Learning Targe	t: To determine t desired amount	he necessary a	amounts of re	eagents from a
	desired amount	t of product in a	an industrial :	setting

Authors | References: Victor Sojo | Wikipedia: Hydrazine

We now know how to determine the limiting reagent, and calculate the remainder of the excess reagent, as well as the amounts of the products.

But many times chemists want to **synthesize** something, i.e. they want to **make a product**, normally in a specific amount. Hydrazine is the main compound in the air bags of cars, and it is also used as a rocket fuel. Let's say we own a chemical company and want to sell 5 ton (1 ton = 1,000 kg) of hydrazine. We previously balanced this equation:



We want to know how much ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) and hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$  we need to buy to make our 5 ton of hydrazine. For that, we need to find the proportions, but for that we need the molar mass of hydrazine:

 $\mu_{N_2H_4} = \mu_N \cdot 2 + \mu_H \cdot 4 = 32 \text{ g/mol}$ 

With this, we can calculate how many moles of hydrazine we want:

$$n_{N_2H_4} = 5 \text{ ton } N_2H_4 \cdot \frac{1,000 \text{ kg } N_2H_4}{1 \text{ ton } N_2H_4} \cdot \frac{1,000 \text{ g } N_2H_4}{1 \text{ kg } N_2H_4} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ mol } N_2H_4}{32 \text{ g } N_2H_4} = 1.56 \cdot 10^5 \text{ mol } N_2H_4$$

We can go ahead and write that into the table above... and the rest is easy! We need just the same amount of hydrogen peroxide (the relation is 1:1) and double the amount of ammonia:

 $n_{NH_3} = 1.56 \cdot 10^5 \text{ mol } N_2H_4 \cdot \frac{2 \text{ mol } NH_3}{1 \text{ mol } N_2H_4} = 3.12 \cdot 10^5 \text{ mol } NH_3$ 

**Exercises:** We can't really buy moles from our industrial supplier, so let's calculate how many tons of each of the two reagents we need.

And just to make our industrial scenario a little more realistic, let's say the supplier sells us the reagents in 200 kg containers. How many containers of each reagent would we need?

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	07-01.Water is a pol				v04
Learning Targe	t: To realize why w To draw the angle	ater has permane d (non-linear) shap	nt electrie e of wate	c poles. r.	
Authors   Refer	ences: Victor Sojo   V	Nikipedia: Water			
Water (H <sub>2</sub> O)	is made of two hy	/drogen atoms, e	ach bour	nd to a cent	tral
oxygen atom by	a single covalent	bond. We know t	hat atom	s in a coval	ent
share a pair o	f electrons. Howev	er, in the case	of the H	I–O bond, t	this
sharing is not p	erfectly even: oxyg	en attracts electro	ons more	than hydrog	jen

does (oxygen is more "**electronegative**"), so the electrons in the covalent bond are displaced towards the oxygen atom. This creates a **polarity**, in which there is a slightly positive **charge density** on the hydrogen atom, and a negative density on the oxygen:

H–O

080