CHEM 1220 Lecture Notes OpenStax Chemistry 2e

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COURSE ADMINISTRATIVE DETAILS

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- Introduction to chemistry
 - · Ruby fluorescence
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 - · Rubber band elasticity
 - · Structure of the periodic table
 - · Salt on ice and purifying hydrogen peroxide

CHAPTER O

1210 REVIEW

There is a whole semester of material from 1210, and these are only the topics which are *most* important for success in 1220

- o Composition of atoms and ions (protons, neutrons and electrons)
- o Chemical formulas and names
 - · Formulas and molar masses
 - · Polyatomic ion names
 - · Naming ionic compounds
 - · Naming binary molecular compounds
 - · Naming acids
- o Balancing molecular equations
- o Solubility rules
- o Fundamentals of acid/base chemistry
- o Measurements in chemistry
 - · Converting from measurements to moles and back
 - $\cdot\,$ Stoichiometry and predicting amounts
 - · Limiting reactants
- $\circ~$ Enthalpy of reaction and heat equations
- Lewis structures

CHEM 1210 Review Quiz

LIQUIDS AND SOLIDS

10.1 Intermolecular Forces

- Many physical properties of solids, liquids, and gases can be explained by the strength of attractive forces between particles (Figure 10.5)
- Phase changes happen due to the interplay between kinetic energy and intermolecular forces (Figure 10.2)
- Pressure can also play a role in phase changes, as discussed later
- o These intermolecular forces come in different varieties
 - Dispersion Forces Non-polar molecules, impacted by polarizability, molecular weight, and surface area
 - * Dominant in non-polar molecules
 - * Created by induced dipoles (Figure 10.6)
 - * Impacted by polarizability (Table 10.1)
 - * Impacted by molecular weight (hydrocarbons from methane to wax)
 - * Impacted by molecule shape (Figure 10.7 compares the boiling points of pentane isomers)
 - · Dipole-Dipole Forces
 - * Dominant in polar molecules
 - * Results from attraction between permanent dipoles (Figure 10.9)
 - · Hydrogen Bonding
 - * Dominant only in molecules capable of hydrogen bonding
 - * Must contain a hydrogen-donor atom (H attached to N, O, or F)
 - * Must contain a hydrogen-acceptor atom (lone pair of electrons attached to N, O, or F)
 - * Hydrogen bonds are more than just particularly strong dipole-dipole forces. They have strong directionality according to VSEPR
 - * Figures 10.10, 10.14, and other figures on the Internet show water, DNA, and proteins all organized by hydrogen bonds
 - * Figures 10.11 and 10.12 illustrate how much hydrogen bonds exceed dipole-dipole forces in strength

10.2 Properties of Liquids

Viscosity is a fluid's resistance to flow

- · We intuitively know that both water and honey flow...but at very different rates
- · Viscosity is proportional to the strength of intermolecular forces (high IF = high viscosity)
- · As temperature increases, kinetic energy is able to overcome intermolecular forces and viscosity decreases
- · Table 10.2 gives the viscosities of some common substances (note the unusual units!)
- o Surface tension is a force which minimizes a fluid's surface area
 - · Cohesive vs. adhesive forces
 - Bulk molecules have lower energy than surface molecules due to being *surrounded* by cohesive forces (Figure 10.16)
 - · Figure 10.17 illustrates a waterbug supporting itself on water surface tension
 - Surface tension is often in conflict with gravity and other forces, making most liquids rounded but not perfect spheres
 - · Surface tension is proportional to intermolecular forces (Table 10.3)
 - · Surface tension can be strongly affected by addition of certain solutes, called surfactants
- o Capillary action is a force between a fluid and narrow channels or capillaries of solid materials
 - Due to adhesive forces with the solid, liquids will be drawn up (or, less often, pushed down) a capillary
 - Figure 10.19 shows how paper towels are made to maximize capillary action, so they soak up water-based spills
 - The top of the liquid (called the meniscus) will curve differently depending on the reletive strength of cohesive and adhesive forces (Figure 10.18)
 - · Figure 10.20 shows capillary action in a variety of situations, including capillary repulsion
 - · Remember that when measuring volumes, convention is to read the *bottom* of the meniscus regardless of how it curves
 - · Don't worry about the formula given here

Quiz 10.1 - Intermolecular Forces and Liquid Properties

Homework 10.1

- o 10.11: Predicting trends in boiling points
- o 10.21: Identifying intermolecular forces
- 10.25: Affect of temperature on viscosity

10.3 Phase Transitions

- Vaporization and condensation are the transitions between liquid and gas phases
 - · The enthalpy of vaporization (ΔH_{vap}) is the energy required to transition from liquid to gas phase
 - · Enthalpy of condensation is the opposite $\Delta H_{con} = -\Delta H_{vap}$
 - · In a closed volume, these processes will reach a *dynamic equilibrium*
 - The partial pressure of the liquid at this equilibrium state is called its *vapor pressure* (Figure 10.22)
 - · Higher intermolecular forces lead to lower vapor pressures
 - · Higher temperatures increase the vapor pressure due to increased kinetic energy (Figure 10.23)

Boiling points

- · Figure 10.24 shows vapor pressure curves and the normal boiling points of several liquids
- · Boiling points generally depend on the pressure (pressure cookers, boiling water to freezing, etc.)
- · The Clausius-Clapeyron equation defines these curves (Note the rearrangments I've made) $P = Ae^{-\Delta H_{vap}/RT} \qquad \ln P = -\frac{\Delta H_{vap}}{RT} + \ln A \qquad \ln \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right) = -\frac{\Delta H_{vap}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_2} \frac{1}{T_1}\right)$
- Fusion (melting), freezing, sublimation, and deposition all have their enthalpies and transition temperatures
- \circ These enthalpies are state functions, such that $\Delta H_{sub} = \Delta H_{fus} + \Delta H_{vap}$ (Figure 10.28)
- Heating and Cooling curves
 - · When heat is added to a system, it will either cause a phase change, or a change in temperature
 - For phase changes, $q = n\Delta H_{change}$
 - · For temperature changes, $q=mc\Delta T$, where c is the specific heat for that substance and phase
 - · Sometimes ΔH_{change} is given as a -per gram value, and sometimes c is given as a -per mole value, but usually not:(
 - Figure 10.29 shows a typical heating curve (Work example 10.10 in the text)

Quiz 10.2 - Heating Curves

Homework 10.2

- o 10.31: Temperature during a phase transition
- o 10.39: Definition of normal boiling point
- 10.51: Heating curve problem

10.4 Phase Diagrams

- The stable phase at different temperatures and pressures is best illustrated with a phase diagram (Figures 10.30, 10.31)
- We can tell at a glance what transitions might occur as we increase or decrease either the temperature or pressure
- o Note that at some pressures, sublimation may occur instead of fusion
- The triple point is a unique point where liquid, solid, and gas can all exist at equilibrium (contrast with a glass of icy water on a humid day)
- The critical point is where the distinction between liquid and solid phases disappears
- Figure 10.34 shows the phase diagram of CO₂
- Supercritical fluids exhibit some interesting properties, and are often great solvents (Nile Blue Youtube video)
- Critical points vary widely depending on the intermolecular forces, and other factors (Table in text)

Quiz 10.3 - Phase Diagrams

Homework 10.3

- o 10.55: Trajectories on a phase diagram
- o 10.57: Determining state on a phase diagram
- o 10.63: Identifying phases on a blank phase diagram

10.5 The Solid State of Matter

- o Solids can be divided into *crystalline* and *amorphous* based on their structure at atomic scales
- Figure 10.37 shows the difference generally, Figure 10.38 shows crystalline and amorphous SiO₂
- Amorphous solids will not exhibit a sharp fusion transition temperature, but will instead grow soft and maleable over a temperature range
- Crystalline solids are diverse but always show long-range repeating order in their structure
 - · Ionic solids (Figure 10.39) have high melting points, cleave along planes, and conduct electricity only in the liquid phase
 - · Metallic solids (Figure 10.40) have mostly high melting points, are maleable and ductile, and conduct electricity and heat well

- · Covalent network solids (Figure 10.41) have very high melting points and are electrical insulators
- · Molecular solids (Figure 10.42) Have low to very low melting points and are electrical insulators
- · Crystalline solid properties are summarized in Table 10.4
- Even crystalline solids do not have perfect structure. Various types of defects are illustrated in Figure 10.45

Quiz 10.4 - Classifying Solids

Homework 10.4

- o 10.69: Classify solids by formulas
- o 10.71: Classify solids by properties

10.6 Lattice Structures in Crystalline Solids

- The structure of a crystalline solid is represented by a *unit cell*, the smallest repeatable unit of the structure
- Sometimes this microscopic structure is evidently manifested on macroscopic scales, but sometimes it isn't
- Unit cells are defined by lattice points that often lie at the center of certain atoms, and the cell edges often cut atoms in half, quarter, etc.
- o Unit cells of metals
 - · For metals, we should keep track of the quantity of atoms in a unit cell, the coordination number, and the relationship between the atomic radius and unit cell edge length
 - · Simple cubic (Figure 10.49) 1 atom, Coordination=6, l=2r
 - · Body-centered cubic (Figure 10.51) 2 atoms, Coordination=8, $l=\frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}r$
 - Face-centered cubic (Figure 10.52) 4 atoms, Coordination=12, $l=\sqrt{8}r$
 - · Figure 10.54 shows hexagonal closest packed and cubic closest packed structures
 - Find the radius of a gold atom, which has fcc structure and a density of $19.283^{g}/cm^{3}$ (136pm)
 - Find the density of polonium, which has so structure and an atomic radius of 140pm (9.20 g/cm^3)
 - · Figure 10.56 shows many non-cubic structures which are common as well
- Unit cells of ionic compounds
 - · Anions are generally larger than cations, so ionic lattice points are generally the centers of anions
 - · Cations occupy holes in the anionic lattice (Figures 10.57 and 10.58)

- Unit cells of ionic structures share names with the metallic cells but look different because of the cations
- · Simple cubic (Figure 10.59)
- · Face-centered cubic (rock salt structure) (Figure 10.60)
- · Zinc blende (Figure 10.61)
- · Find the ionic bond length for NaCl which has rock salt structure and denisty of $2.17^g/cm^3$ (l=564pm)
- o Crystal structure is determined through X-ray crystallography
 - · X-rays reflected off a crystal surface can combine destructively or constructively to produce an interference pattern (Figure 10.63)
 - The X-rays will take different pathlengths depending on the angle of the X-ray beam and the crystal lattice constant (Figure 1.64)
 - · An experimental setup and actual diffractogram are shown in Figures 10.65 and 10.66
 - · We have a powerful X-ray instrument here at SUU

Quiz 10.5 - Unit Cells

Homework 10.5

- o 10.77: Coordination number
- o 10.81: Density from lattice constant
- o 10.85: Packing efficiency and density

SOLUTIONS AND COLLOIDS

11.1 The Dissolution Process

- o Some vocabulary: Solution, Solvent, Solute, and solvation
- Table 11.1 shows many different types of solutions, with different phases of solvent and solute
- Molecular compounds dissolve to form one solute:

$$C_6H_{12}O_6(s) \longrightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6(aq)$$

o Ionic compounds will dissolve into individual ions:

$$Na_2SO_3(s) \longrightarrow Na_2SO_3(aq) \longrightarrow 2Na^+(aq) + SO_3^{2-}(aq)$$

- o Dissolving soluble compounds is a thermodynamically *spontaneous* process
 - · Spontaneity is covered in more detail in chapter 16
 - · Solvation mixes solvent and solute, increasing the system *entropy* (Figure 11.3)
 - · Solvation can be either *exothermic* (favors spontaneity) or *endothermic* (hampers spontaneity) depending on the strength of solvent-solvent, solute-solute, and solvent-solute intermolecular forces (Figure 11.4)
 - · Demonstration, dissolving NaOH(s) and NH₄NO₃(s) in water (Don't overdo the NaOH!)
 - · When solvation has $\Delta H \approx 0$, the result is an *ideal solution*, whose properties best match simple laws

11.2 Electrolytes

• Electrolytes will yield ions when dissolved in water, yielding a solution which conducts electricity (Figure 11.6)

Non-electrolytes: Do not yield ions at all when dissolved (Most molecular compounds)

Strong electrolytes: Produce a large (stoichiometric) amount of ions when dissolved (Soluble ionic compounds and *strong* acids/bases)

Weak electrolytes: Produce a smaller amount of ions when dissolved (weak acids/bases)

- Ionic electrolytes produce ions by directly *dissociating* into their cations and anions (Figure 11.7)
- o Molecular electrolytes produce ions by reacting with the solvent or other molecules

$$NH_3(aq) + H_2O(l) \implies NH_4^+(aq) + OH^-(aq)$$

11.3 Solubilty

- Table 4.1 gave rules to predict if an ionic compound is soluble or insoluble, but in reality solubilities lie on a spectrum
- In Chapter 15, we will explore solubility with mathematic rigor. For now, we will focus on trends and factors affecting solubility
- Solubility is a type of reaction governed by *equilibrium*

Unsaturated solutions have not yet reached their limit of how much solute they can dissolve

Saturated solutions have met their solubility limit and are in equilibrium. You can recognize a saturated solution by the presence of undissolved solute in contact with the solution

Supersaturated solutions have exceeded their solubility limit. This situation is only *metastable* and usually contrived by quick changes in temperature or volume ("Jeremy Krug" Youtube video of supersaturated NaCH₂CO₂)

- Solutions of gases in liquids
 - · Gas-in-liquid solvation is always exothermic and solubility depends primarily on solvent-solute interactions
 - · Solubility is decreases as temperature rises (Figures 11.8 and 11.9)
 - · Solubility also depends on the gas partial pressure, according to Henry's law. Figure 11.8 gives k_H , and Figure 11.10 illustrates how to use Henry's law to supersaturate a solution (carbonation!) $C_{gas} = k_H P_{gas}$
- Solutions of liquids in liquids
 - · Miscible liquids are infinitely soluble in each other (mix in any ratio)
 - · Immiscible liquids have very low solubility in each other, and separate to form layers. Oil and water (Figure 11.14) are a classic example of immiscible liquids and illustrate the axiom that "like dissolves like" because their intermolecular forces are so different
 - · Partially miscible liquids will form two layers when mixed, but each layer contains significant amounts of the other solute liquid
- Solutions of solids in liquids
 - · Figure 11.6 shows the temperature dependance of solubility for several solids
 - Exothermic ΔH_{solv} leads to lower solubility at higher temperatures
 - · Endothermic ΔH_{solv} leads to higher solubility at higher temperatures

Quiz 11.1 - The Solvation Process

Homework 11.1

- o 11.3: Energetics of solvation
- o 11.9: Rule of like dissolves like
- o 11.13: Classifying electrolytes
- o 11.23: Henry's law

11.4 Colligative Properties

- \circ Colligative properties of solutions depend on the *amount* of solute present, regardless of the chemical identity of the solutes
- o Some colligative properties depend on less common units of concentration
 - · Recall molarity from chapter 3
 - Mass % is $\frac{m_{solute}}{m_{total}} \times 100\%$
 - Mole fraction is $\chi_A = \frac{n_A}{n_{total}}$
 - · Molality is $m = \frac{moles_{solute}}{kg_{solvent}}$
 - Practice interconverting between these units: $\chi_{\rm C_6H_{12}O_6}=0.25$ in aqueous solution
 - $\cdot\,$ For electrolytes, we will also need the van't Hoff factor, i= # of particles produce on solvation

Quiz 11.2 - Concentrations

Homework 11.2

- o 11.19: % by mass and solubility
- o 11.31: Mole fraction
- o 11.39: Molality

Back to Section 11.4 Colligative Properties

- Vapor pressure lowering
 - · Figure 11.8 illustrates why solutes lower the vapor pressure of the solvent
 - · Rault's law: $P_A = \chi_A P_A^{\star}$
 - · If the solute is a liquid, we can apply Rault's law to the solute as well $P_{total} = \chi_A P_A^\star + \chi_B P_B^\star$

- This gives a different composition of the gas phase from the liquid phase, allowing for purification through distillation (Figures 11.19 and 11.20)
- Changes in phase tranistion temperatures
 - · Boiling point elevation is a consequence of vapor pressure lowering
 - · Freezing point depression follows a similar forumula
 - $\cdot \Delta T_{f/b} = iK_{f/b}m$
 - Table 11.2 gives T_b , K_b , T_f , and K_f for several substances
 - · These effects manifest on a phase diagram like in Figure 11.23
- o Osmotic pressure
 - · Figure 11.24 shows how water will flow across a selectively permeable membrane via osmosis
 - · Figure 11.25 shows how and applied pressure can reverse this process and purify water

$$\cdot \ \pi = \frac{inRT}{V} = iMRT$$

- Figure 11.27 shows how blood salinity can impact the health of red blood cells (isotonic, hypertonic, hypotonic, hemolysis, crenation)
- Measuring colligative properties can give the molar mass of an unknown, as long as we know the van't Hoff factor

Quiz 11.3 - Colligative Properties

Homework 11.3

- 11.45: Freezing point depression
- o 11.61: Osmotic pressure
- o 11.65: Vapor pressures of mixtures

11.5 Colloids

- Colloids occupy the blurry boundry region between homogeneous and heterogeneous mixtures (Figure 11.29)
- Colloids can be identified by several properties:
 - · Particle size is on a range of tens- to hundreds- of nanometers
 - · Particles will not settle out on their own under the influence of gravity
 - · Particles will scatter light, called the Tyndall Effect (Figure 11.30)
- Table 11.4 gives some examples of colloids in various phases
- Emulsifying agents can create an emulsion, or colloidal suspension of two immiscible liquids
- Soaps and detergents can create colloidal suspensions of oils in water (Figure 11.33)

Quiz 11.4 - Molar Masses and Colloids

Homework 11.4

- $\circ~$ 11.49: Molar mass from boiling point
- \circ 11.59: Molar mass from osmotic pressure
- o 11.73: Colloid particle size

KINETICS

- 12.1 Chemical Reaction Rates
- 12.2 Factors Affecting Reaction Rates
- 12.3 Rate Laws
- 12.4 Integrated Rate Laws
- 12.5 Collision Theory
- 12.6 Reaction Mechanisms
- 12.7 Catalysis

FUNDAMENTAL EQUILIBRIUM CONCEPTS

- 13.1 Chemical Equilibria
- 13.2 Equilibrium Constants
- 13.3 Shifting Equilibria: Le Châtelier's Principle
- 13.4 Equilibrium Calculations

ACID-BASE EQUILIBRIA

- 14.1 Brønsted-Lowry Acids and Bases
- 14.2 pH and pOH
- 14.3 Relative Strengths of Acids and Bases
- 14.4 Hydrolysis of Salts
- 14.5 Polyprotic Acids
- 14.6 Buffers
- 14.7 Acid-Base Titrations

EQUILIBRIA OF OTHER REACTION CLASSES

- 15.1 Precipitation and Dissolution
- 15.2 Lewis Acids and Bases
- 15.3 Coupled Equilibria

THERMODYNAMICS

- 16.1 Spontaneity
- 16.2 Entropy
- 16.3 The Second and Third Laws of Thermodynamics
- 16.4 Free Energy

ELECTROCHEMISTRY

17.1 Review of Redox Chemi	istry
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- 17.2 Galvanic Cells
- 17.3 Electrode and Cell Potentials
- 17.4 Potential, Fee Energy, and Equilibrium
- 17.5 Batteries and Fuel Cells
- 17.6 Corrosion
- 17.7 Electrolysis

NUCLEAR CHEMISTRY

- 21.1 Nuclear Structure and Stability
- 21.2 Nuclear Equations
- 21.3 Radioactive Decay
- 21.4 Transmutation and Nuclear Energy
- 21.5 Uses of Radioisotopes
- 21.6 Biological Effects of Radiation

ERRATA