CHEM 210
GENERAL CHEMISTRY I



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CHEM 210 General Chemistry I (Puenzo)

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Glossary

Detailed Licensing

Licensing

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

1: Matter, Measurement, and Problem Solving

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Chemistry is the study of matter and the changes that material substances undergo. Of all the scientific disciplines, it is perhaps the most extensively connected to other fields of study. As you begin your study of college chemistry, those of you who do not intend to become professional chemists may well wonder why you need to study chemistry. You will soon discover that a basic understanding of chemistry is useful in a wide range of disciplines and career paths. You will also discover that an understanding of chemistry helps you make informed decisions about many issues that affect you, your community, and your world. A major goal of this text is to demonstrate the importance of chemistry in your daily life and in our collective understanding of both the physical world we occupy and the biological realm of which we are a part.

1.1: Atoms and Molecules
1.2: The Scientific Approach to Knowledge
1.3: The Classification of Matter
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1.1: Atoms and Molecules

Learning Objectives

- Outline the historical development of chemistry
- Provide examples of the importance of chemistry in everyday life
- Provide examples illustrating macroscopic, microscopic, and symbolic domains

Throughout human history, people have tried to convert matter into more useful forms. Our Stone Age ancestors chipped pieces of flint into useful tools and carved wood into statues and toys. These endeavors involved changing the shape of a substance without changing the substance itself. But as our knowledge increased, humans began to change the composition of the substances as well—clay was converted into pottery, hides were cured to make garments, copper ores were transformed into copper tools and weapons, and grain was made into bread.

Humans began to practice chemistry when they learned to control fire and use it to cook, make pottery, and smelt metals. Subsequently, they began to separate and use specific components of matter. A variety of drugs such as aloe, myrrh, and opium were isolated from plants. Dyes, such as indigo and Tyrian purple, were extracted from plant and animal matter. Metals were combined to form alloys—for example, copper and tin were mixed together to make bronze—and more elaborate smelting techniques produced iron. Alkalis were extracted from ashes, and soaps were prepared by combining these alkalis with fats. Alcohol was produced by fermentation and purified by distillation.

Attempts to understand the behavior of matter extend back for more than 2500 years. As early as the sixth century BC, Greek philosophers discussed a system in which water was the basis of all things. You may have heard of the Greek postulate that matter consists of four elements: earth, air, fire, and water. Subsequently, an amalgamation of chemical technologies and philosophical speculations were spread from Egypt, China, and the eastern Mediterranean by alchemists, who endeavored to transform “base metals” such as lead into “noble metals” like gold, and to create elixirs to cure disease and extend life (Figure 1.1.1).



Figure 1.1.1: This portrayal shows an alchemist’s workshop circa 1580. Although alchemy made some useful contributions to how to manipulate matter, it was not scientific by modern standards. (credit: Chemical Heritage Foundation).

From alchemy came the historical progressions that led to modern chemistry: the isolation of drugs from natural sources, metallurgy, and the dye industry. Today, chemistry continues to deepen our understanding and improve our ability to harness and control the behavior of matter. This effort has been so successful that many people do not realize either the central position of chemistry among the sciences or the importance and universality of chemistry in daily life.

Chemistry: The Central Science

Chemistry is sometimes referred to as “the central science” due to its interconnectedness with a vast array of other STEM disciplines (STEM stands for areas of study in the science, technology, engineering, and math fields). Chemistry and the language of chemists play vital roles in biology, medicine, materials science, forensics, environmental science, and many other fields (Figure 1.1.2). The basic principles of physics are essential for understanding many aspects of chemistry, and there is extensive overlap between many subdisciplines within the two fields, such as chemical physics and nuclear chemistry. Mathematics, computer science, and information theory provide important tools that help us calculate, interpret, describe, and generally make sense of the chemical world. Biology and chemistry converge in biochemistry, which is crucial to understanding the many complex factors and processes that keep living organisms (such as us) alive. Chemical engineering, materials science, and nanotechnology combine chemical principles and empirical findings to produce useful substances, ranging from gasoline to fabrics to electronics. Agriculture, food science, veterinary science, and brewing and wine making help provide sustenance in the form of food and drink to the world’s population. Medicine, pharmacology, biotechnology, and botany identify and produce substances that help keep us

healthy. Environmental science, geology, oceanography, and atmospheric science incorporate many chemical ideas to help us better understand and protect our physical world. Chemical ideas are used to help understand the universe in astronomy and cosmology.

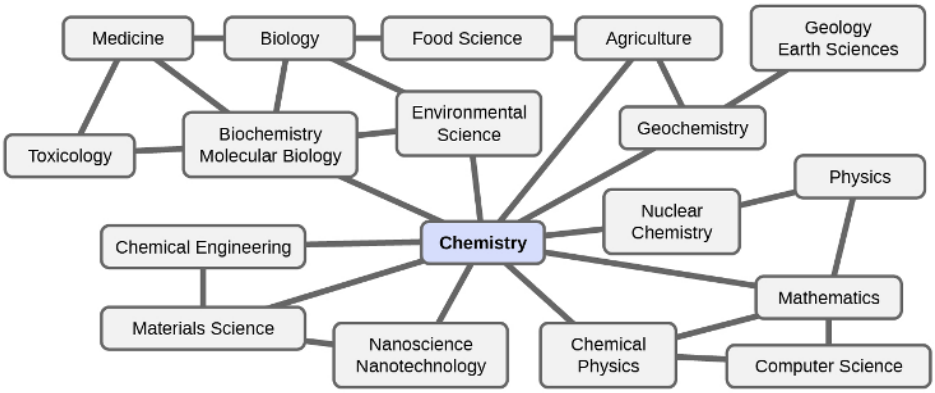


Figure 1.1.2: Knowledge of chemistry is central to understanding a wide range of scientific disciplines. This diagram shows just some of the interrelationships between chemistry and other fields.

What are some changes in matter that are essential to daily life? Digesting and assimilating food, synthesizing polymers that are used to make clothing, containers, cookware, and credit cards, and refining crude oil into gasoline and other products are just a few examples. As you proceed through this course, you will discover many different examples of changes in the composition and structure of matter, how to classify these changes and how they occurred, their causes, the changes in energy that accompany them, and the principles and laws involved. As you learn about these things, you will be learning chemistry, the study of the composition, properties, and interactions of matter. The practice of chemistry is not limited to chemistry books or laboratories: It happens whenever someone is involved in changes in matter or in conditions that may lead to such changes.

The Domains of Chemistry

Chemists study and describe the behavior of matter and energy in three different domains: macroscopic, microscopic, and symbolic. These domains provide different ways of considering and describing chemical behavior.

Macro is a Greek word that means “large.” The macroscopic domain is familiar to us: It is the realm of everyday things that are large enough to be sensed directly by human sight or touch. In daily life, this includes the food you eat and the breeze you feel on your face. The macroscopic domain includes everyday and laboratory chemistry, where we observe and measure physical and chemical properties, or changes such as density, solubility, and flammability.

The microscopic domain of chemistry is almost always visited in the imagination. *Micro* also comes from Greek and means “small.” Some aspects of the microscopic domains are visible through a microscope, such as a magnified image of graphite or bacteria. Viruses, for instance, are too small to be seen with the naked eye, but when we’re suffering from a cold, we’re reminded of how real they are.

However, most of the subjects in the microscopic domain of chemistry—such as atoms and molecules—are too small to be seen even with standard microscopes and often must be pictured in the mind. Other components of the microscopic domain include ions and electrons, protons and neutrons, and chemical bonds, each of which is far too small to see. This domain includes the individual metal atoms in a wire, the ions that compose a salt crystal, the changes in individual molecules that result in a color change, the conversion of nutrient molecules into tissue and energy, and the evolution of heat as bonds that hold atoms together are created.

The symbolic domain contains the specialized language used to represent components of the macroscopic and microscopic domains. Chemical symbols (such as those used in the periodic table), chemical formulas, and chemical equations are part of the symbolic domain, as are graphs and drawings. We can also consider calculations as part of the symbolic domain. These symbols play an important role in chemistry because they help interpret the behavior of the macroscopic domain in terms of the components of the microscopic domain. One of the challenges for students learning chemistry is recognizing that the same symbols can represent different things in the macroscopic and microscopic domains, and one of the features that makes chemistry fascinating is the use of a domain that must be imagined to explain behavior in a domain that can be observed.

A helpful way to understand the three domains is via the essential and ubiquitous substance of water. That water is a liquid at moderate temperatures, will freeze to form a solid at lower temperatures, and boil to form a gas at higher temperatures (Figure

1.1.3) are macroscopic observations. But some properties of water fall into the microscopic domain—what we cannot observe with the naked eye. The description of water as comprised of two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom, and the explanation of freezing and boiling in terms of attractions between these molecules, is within the microscopic arena. The formula H_2O, which can describe water at either the macroscopic or microscopic levels, is an example of the symbolic domain. The abbreviations (*g*) for gas, (*s*) for solid, and (*l*) for liquid are also symbolic.

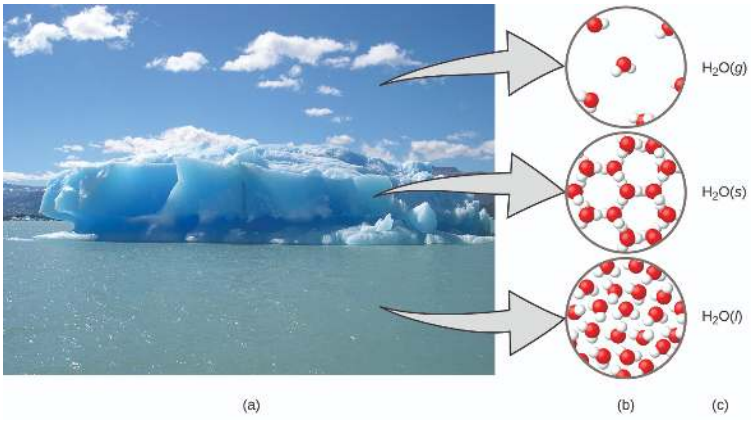


Figure 1.1.3: (a) Moisture in the air, icebergs, and the ocean represent water in the macroscopic domain. (b) At the molecular level (microscopic domain), gas molecules are far apart and disorganized, solid water molecules are close together and organized, and liquid molecules are close together and disorganized. (c) The formula H_2O symbolizes water, and (g), (s), and (l) symbolize its phases. Note that clouds are actually comprised of either very small liquid water droplets or solid water crystals; gaseous water in our atmosphere is not visible to the naked eye, although it may be sensed as humidity. (credit a: modification of work by "Gorkaazk"/Wikimedia Commons).

Summary

Chemistry deals with the composition, structure, and properties of matter, and the ways by which various forms of matter may be interconverted. Thus, it occupies a central place in the study and practice of science and technology. Chemists use the scientific method to perform experiments, pose hypotheses, and formulate laws and develop theories, so that they can better understand the behavior of the natural world. To do so, they operate in the macroscopic, microscopic, and symbolic domains. Chemists measure, analyze, purify, and synthesize a wide variety of substances that are important to our lives.

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1.2: The Scientific Approach to Knowledge

Learning Objectives

- To identify the components of the scientific method

Scientists search for answers to questions and solutions to problems by using a procedure called the **scientific method**. This procedure consists of making observations, formulating hypotheses, and designing experiments, which in turn lead to additional observations, hypotheses, and experiments in repeated cycles (Figure 1.2.1).

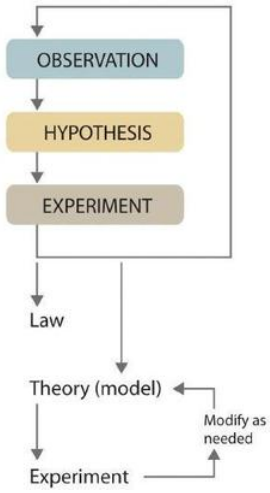


Figure 1.2.1: The Scientific Method. As depicted in this flowchart, the scientific method consists of making observations, formulating hypotheses, and designing experiments. A scientist may enter the cycle at any point.

Observations can be qualitative or quantitative. Qualitative observations describe properties or occurrences in ways that do not rely on numbers. Examples of qualitative observations include the following: the outside air temperature is cooler during the winter season, table salt is a crystalline solid, sulfur crystals are yellow, and dissolving a penny in dilute nitric acid forms a blue solution and a brown gas. Quantitative observations are measurements, which by definition consist of both a number and a unit. Examples of quantitative observations include the following: the melting point of crystalline sulfur is 115.21 °C, and 35.9 grams of table salt—whose chemical name is sodium chloride—dissolve in 100 grams of water at 20 °C. An example of a quantitative observation was the initial observation leading to the modern theory of the dinosaurs' extinction: iridium concentrations in sediments dating to 66 million years ago were found to be 20–160 times higher than normal. The development of this theory is a good exemplar of the scientific method in action (see Figure 1.2.2 below).

After deciding to learn more about an observation or a set of observations, scientists generally begin an investigation by forming a **hypothesis**, a tentative explanation for the observation(s). The hypothesis may not be correct, but it puts the scientist's understanding of the system being studied into a form that can be tested. For example, the observation that we experience alternating periods of light and darkness corresponding to observed movements of the sun, moon, clouds, and shadows is consistent with either of two hypotheses:

1. Earth rotates on its axis every 24 hours, alternately exposing one side to the sun, or
2. The sun revolves around Earth every 24 hours.

Suitable experiments can be designed to choose between these two alternatives. For the disappearance of the dinosaurs, the hypothesis was that the impact of a large extraterrestrial object caused their extinction. Unfortunately (or perhaps fortunately), this hypothesis does not lend itself to direct testing by any obvious experiment, but scientists collected additional data that either support or refute it.

After a hypothesis has been formed, scientists conduct experiments to test its validity. **Experiments** are systematic observations or measurements, preferably made under controlled conditions—that is, under conditions in which a single variable changes. For example, in the dinosaur extinction scenario, iridium concentrations were measured worldwide and compared. A properly designed and executed experiment enables a scientist to determine whether the original hypothesis is valid. Experiments often demonstrate that the hypothesis is incorrect or that it must be modified. More experimental data are then collected and analyzed, at which point

a scientist may begin to think that the results are sufficiently reproducible (i.e., dependable) to merit being summarized in a **law**, a verbal or mathematical description of a phenomenon that allows for general predictions. A law simply says what happens; it does not address the question of why.

One example of a law, the Law of Definite Proportions, which was discovered by the French scientist Joseph Proust (1754–1826), states that a chemical substance always contains the same proportions of elements by mass. Thus sodium chloride (table salt) always contains the same proportion by mass of sodium to chlorine, in this case 39.34% sodium and 60.66% chlorine by mass, and sucrose (table sugar) is always 42.11% carbon, 6.48% hydrogen, and 51.41% oxygen by mass. Some solid compounds do not strictly obey the law of definite proportions. The law of definite proportions should seem obvious—we would expect the composition of sodium chloride to be consistent—but the head of the US Patent Office did not accept it as a fact until the early 20th century.

Whereas a law states only what happens, a **theory** attempts to explain why nature behaves as it does. Laws are unlikely to change greatly over time unless a major experimental error is discovered. In contrast, a theory, by definition, is incomplete and imperfect, evolving with time to explain new facts as they are discovered. The theory developed to explain the extinction of the dinosaurs, for example, is that Earth occasionally encounters small- to medium-sized asteroids, and these encounters may have unfortunate implications for the continued existence of most species. This theory is by no means proven, but it is consistent with the bulk of evidence amassed to date. Figure 1.2.2 summarizes the application of the scientific method in this case.

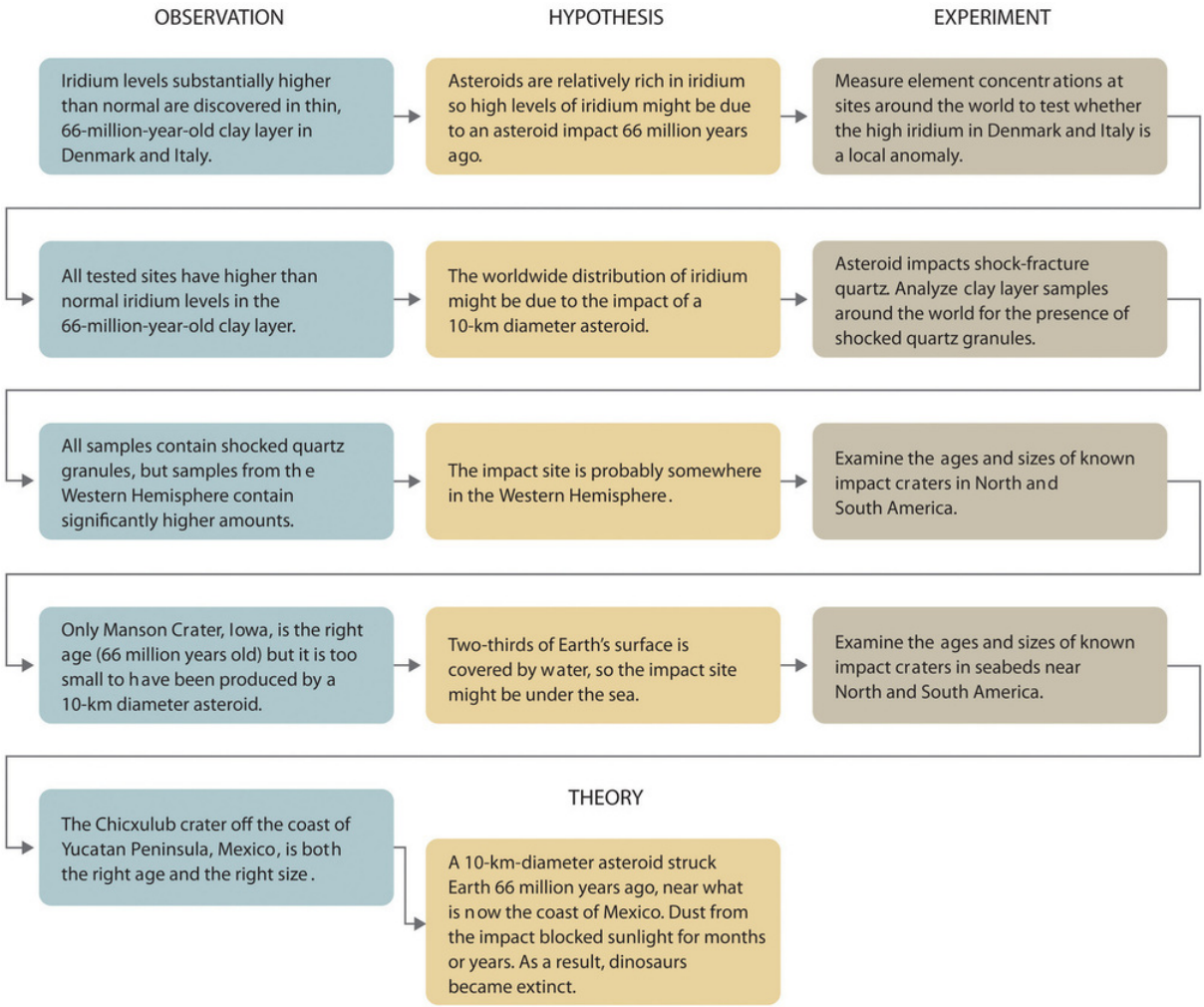


Figure 1.2.2: A Summary of How the Scientific Method Was Used in Developing the Asteroid Impact Theory to Explain the Disappearance of the Dinosaurs from Earth

Example 1.2.1

Classify each statement as a law, a theory, an experiment, a hypothesis, a qualitative observation, or a quantitative observation.

a. Ice always floats on liquid water.
b. Birds evolved from dinosaurs.
c. Hot air is less dense than cold air, probably because the components of hot air are moving more rapidly.
d. When 10 g of ice were added to 100 mL of water at 25 °C, the temperature of the water decreased to 15.5 °C after the ice melted.
e. The ingredients of Ivory soap were analyzed to see whether it really is 99.44% pure, as advertised.

Given: components of the scientific method

Asked for: statement classification

Strategy: Refer to the definitions in this section to determine which category best describes each statement.

Solution

a. This is a general statement of a relationship between the properties of liquid and solid water, so it is a law.
b. This is a possible explanation for the origin of birds, so it is a hypothesis.
c. This is a statement that tries to explain the relationship between the temperature and the density of air based on fundamental principles, so it is a theory.
d. The temperature is measured before and after a change is made in a system, so these are quantitative observations.
e. This is an analysis designed to test a hypothesis (in this case, the manufacturer's claim of purity), so it is an experiment.

Exercise 1.2.1

Classify each statement as a law, a theory, an experiment, a hypothesis, a qualitative observation, or a quantitative observation.

a. Measured amounts of acid were added to a Rolaids tablet to see whether it really "consumes 47 times its weight in excess stomach acid."
b. Heat always flows from hot objects to cooler ones, not in the opposite direction.
c. The universe was formed by a massive explosion that propelled matter into a vacuum.
d. Michael Jordan is the greatest pure shooter ever to play professional basketball.
e. Limestone is relatively insoluble in water but dissolves readily in dilute acid with the evolution of a gas.
f. Gas mixtures that contain more than 4% hydrogen in air are potentially explosive.

Answer a

experiment

Answer b

law

Answer c

theory

Answer d

hypothesis

Answer e

qualitative observation

Answer f

quantitative observation

Because scientists can enter the cycle shown in Figure 1.2.1 at any point, the actual application of the scientific method to different topics can take many different forms. For example, a scientist may start with a hypothesis formed by reading about work done by

others in the field, rather than by making direct observations.

It is important to remember that scientists have a tendency to formulate hypotheses in familiar terms simply because it is difficult to propose something that has never been encountered or imagined before. As a result, scientists sometimes discount or overlook unexpected findings that disagree with the basic assumptions behind the hypothesis or theory being tested. Fortunately, truly important findings are immediately subject to independent verification by scientists in other laboratories, so science is a self-correcting discipline. When the Alvarezes originally suggested that an extraterrestrial impact caused the extinction of the dinosaurs, the response was almost universal skepticism and scorn. In only 20 years, however, the persuasive nature of the evidence overcame the skepticism of many scientists, and their initial hypothesis has now evolved into a theory that has revolutionized paleontology and geology.

Summary

Chemists expand their knowledge by making observations, carrying out experiments, and testing hypotheses to develop laws to summarize their results and theories to explain them. In doing so, they are using the scientific method.



Fundamental Definitions in Chemistry: https://youtu.be/SBwjbkFNkdw

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1.3: The Classification of Matter

Learning Objectives

- To classify matter.

Chemists study the structures, physical properties, and chemical properties of material substances. These consist of **matter**, which is anything that occupies space and has mass. Gold and iridium are matter, as are peanuts, people, and postage stamps. Smoke, smog, and laughing gas are matter. Energy, light, and sound, however, are not matter; ideas and emotions are also not matter.

The **mass** of an object is the quantity of matter it contains. Do not confuse an object's mass with its **weight**, which is a force caused by the gravitational attraction that operates on the object. Mass is a fundamental property of an object that does not depend on its location.In physical terms, the mass of an object is directly proportional to the force required to change its speed or direction. A more detailed discussion of the differences between weight and mass and the units used to measure them is included in Essential Skills 1 (Section 1.9). Weight, on the other hand, depends on the location of an object. An astronaut whose mass is 95 kg weighs about 210 lb on Earth but only about 35 lb on the moon because the gravitational force he or she experiences on the moon is approximately one-sixth the force experienced on Earth. For practical purposes, weight and mass are often used interchangeably in laboratories. Because the force of gravity is considered to be the same everywhere on Earth's surface, 2.2 lb (a weight) equals 1.0 kg (a mass), regardless of the location of the laboratory on Earth.

Under normal conditions, there are three distinct states of matter: solids, liquids, and gases. **Solids** are relatively rigid and have fixed shapes and volumes. A rock, for example, is a solid. In contrast, **liquids** have fixed volumes but flow to assume the shape of their containers, such as a beverage in a can. **Gases**, such as air in an automobile tire, have neither fixed shapes nor fixed volumes and expand to completely fill their containers. Whereas the volume of gases strongly depends on their temperature and **pressure** (the amount of force exerted on a given area), the volumes of liquids and solids are virtually independent of temperature and pressure. Matter can often change from one physical state to another in a process called a **physical change**. For example, liquid water can be heated to form a gas called steam, or steam can be cooled to form liquid water. However, such changes of state do not affect the chemical composition of the substance.

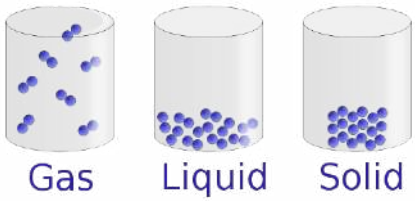


Figure 1.3.1: The Three States of Matter. Solids have a defined shape and volume. Liquids have a fixed volume but flow to assume the shape of their containers. Gases completely fill their containers, regardless of volume. Figure used with permission from Wikipedia

Three cylindrical containers containing spherical particles. From left to right. Particles are spread far apart, particles moderately closer to represent, particles that are tightly packed. Labeled gas, liquid, solid.

Pure Substances and Mixtures

A pure chemical substance is any matter that has a fixed chemical composition and characteristic properties. Oxygen, for example, is a pure chemical substance that is a colorless, odorless gas at 25°C. Very few samples of matter consist of pure substances; instead, most are mixtures, which are combinations of two or more pure substances in variable proportions in which the individual substances retain their identity. Air, tap water, milk, blue cheese, bread, and dirt are all mixtures. If all portions of a material are in the same state, have no visible boundaries, and are uniform throughout, then the material is **homogeneous**. Examples of homogeneous mixtures are the air we breathe and the tap water we drink. Homogeneous mixtures are also called solutions. Thus air is a solution of nitrogen, oxygen, water vapor, carbon dioxide, and several other gases; tap water is a solution of small amounts of several substances in water. The specific compositions of both of these solutions are not fixed, however, but depend on both source and location; for example, the composition of tap water in Boise, Idaho, is not the same as the composition of tap water in Buffalo, New York. Although most solutions we encounter are liquid, solutions can also be solid. The gray substance still used by some dentists to fill tooth cavities is a complex solid solution that contains 50% mercury and 50% of a powder that contains mostly silver, tin, and copper, with small amounts of zinc and mercury. Solid solutions of two or more metals are commonly called alloys.

If the composition of a material is not completely uniform, then it is **heterogeneous** (e.g., chocolate chip cookie dough, blue cheese, and dirt). Mixtures that appear to be homogeneous are often found to be heterogeneous after microscopic examination. Milk, for example, appears to be homogeneous, but when examined under a microscope, it clearly consists of tiny globules of fat and protein dispersed in water. The components of heterogeneous mixtures can usually be separated by simple means. Solid-liquid mixtures such as sand in water or tea leaves in tea are readily separated by filtration, which consists of passing the mixture through a barrier, such as a strainer, with holes or pores that are smaller than the solid particles. In principle, mixtures of two or more solids, such as sugar and salt, can be separated by microscopic inspection and sorting. More complex operations are usually necessary, though, such as when separating gold nuggets from river gravel by panning. First solid material is filtered from river water; then the solids are separated by inspection. If gold is embedded in rock, it may have to be isolated using chemical methods.



Figure 1.3.2: A Heterogeneous Mixture. Under a microscope, whole milk is actually a heterogeneous mixture composed of globules of fat and protein dispersed in water. Figure used with permission from Wikipedia

Homogeneous mixtures (solutions) can be separated into their component substances by physical processes that rely on differences in some physical property, such as differences in their boiling points. Two of these separation methods are distillation and crystallization. **Distillation** makes use of differences in volatility, a measure of how easily a substance is converted to a gas at a given temperature. A simple distillation apparatus for separating a mixture of substances, at least one of which is a liquid. The most volatile component boils first and is condensed back to a liquid in the water-cooled condenser, from which it flows into the receiving flask. If a solution of salt and water is distilled, for example, the more volatile component, pure water, collects in the receiving flask, while the salt remains in the distillation flask.

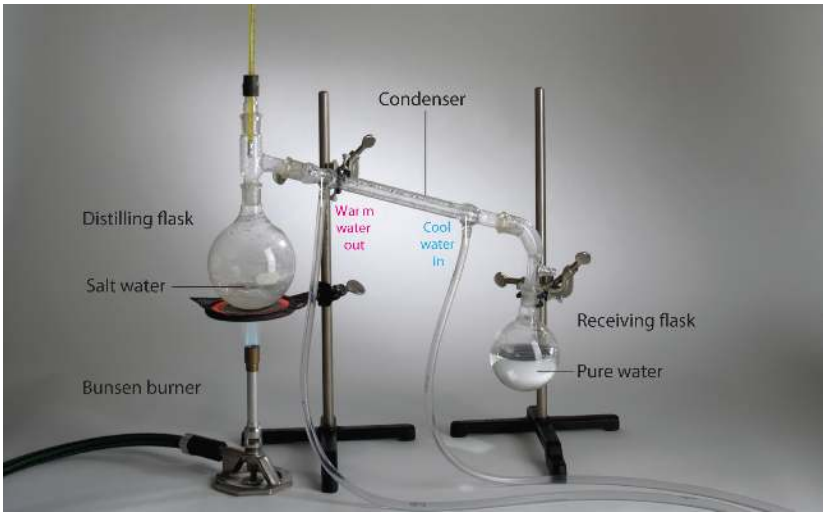


Figure 1.3.3: The Distillation of a Solution of Table Salt in Water. The solution of salt in water is heated in the distilling flask until it boils. The resulting vapor is enriched in the more volatile component (water), which condenses to a liquid in the cold condenser and is then collected in the receiving flask.

Distillation setup with distilling flask on the left being heated with a bunsen burner. A condenser connects the neck of the distilling flask to the flask containing pure water. The two flasks are being held up by clamps.

Mixtures of two or more liquids with different boiling points can be separated with a more complex distillation apparatus. One example is the refining of crude petroleum into a range of useful products: aviation fuel, gasoline, kerosene, diesel fuel, and lubricating oil (in the approximate order of decreasing volatility). Another example is the distillation of alcoholic spirits such as

brandy or whiskey. (This relatively simple procedure caused more than a few headaches for federal authorities in the 1920s during the era of Prohibition, when illegal stills proliferated in remote regions of the United States!)

Crystallization separates mixtures based on differences in solubility, a measure of how much solid substance remains dissolved in a given amount of a specified liquid. Most substances are more soluble at higher temperatures, so a mixture of two or more substances can be dissolved at an elevated temperature and then allowed to cool slowly. Alternatively, the liquid, called the solvent, may be allowed to evaporate. In either case, the least soluble of the dissolved substances, the one that is least likely to remain in solution, usually forms crystals first, and these crystals can be removed from the remaining solution by filtration.



Figure 1.3.4: The Crystallization of Sodium Acetate from a Concentrated Solution of Sodium Acetate in Water. The addition of a small “seed” crystal (a) causes the compound to form white crystals, which grow and eventually occupy most of the flask. Video can be found here: www.youtube.com/watch?v=BLq5NibwV5g

Closeup of bulb flask containing liquid with many thin spike crystals radially emerging from the center.

Most mixtures can be separated into pure substances, which may be either elements or compounds. An **element**, such as gray, metallic sodium, is a substance that cannot be broken down into simpler ones by chemical changes; a **compound**, such as white, crystalline sodium chloride, contains two or more elements and has chemical and physical properties that are usually different from those of the elements of which it is composed. With only a few exceptions, a particular compound has the same elemental composition (the same elements in the same proportions) regardless of its source or history. The chemical composition of a substance is altered in a process called a **chemical change**. The conversion of two or more elements, such as sodium and chlorine, to a chemical compound, sodium chloride, is an example of a chemical change, often called a chemical reaction. Currently, about 118 elements are known, but millions of chemical compounds have been prepared from these 118 elements. The known elements are listed in the periodic table.

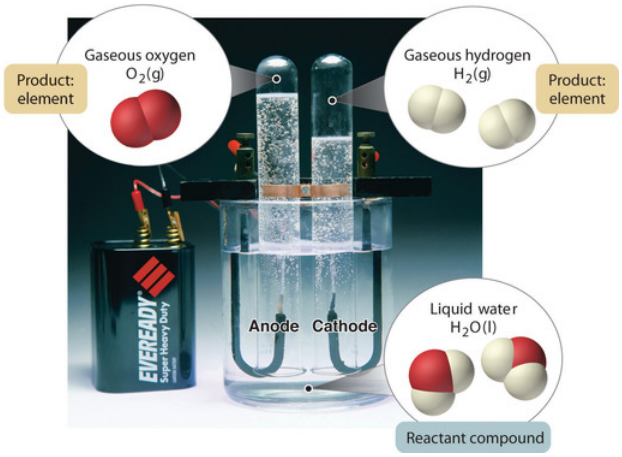


Figure 1.3.5: The Decomposition of Water to Hydrogen and Oxygen by Electrolysis. Water is a chemical compound; hydrogen and oxygen are elements.

A battery wired to an anode and cathode placed in a beaker filled with water. Two inverted test tubes are submerged in the water and placed over each of the electrodes to collect the gaseous products. Magnifying pointers show the molecular structure of water in the beaker as well as the hydrogen gas collected on the anode side and oxygen gas on the cathode side.



Different Definitions of Matter: YouTube, Different Definitions of Matter(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

In general, a reverse chemical process breaks down compounds into their elements. For example, water (a compound) can be decomposed into hydrogen and oxygen (both elements) by a process called electrolysis. In electrolysis, electricity provides the energy needed to separate a compound into its constituent elements (Figure 1.3.5). A similar technique is used on a vast scale to obtain pure aluminum, an element, from its ores, which are mixtures of compounds. Because a great deal of energy is required for electrolysis, the cost of electricity is by far the greatest expense incurred in manufacturing pure aluminum. Thus recycling aluminum is both cost-effective and ecologically sound.

The overall organization of matter and the methods used to separate mixtures are summarized in Figure 1.3.6.

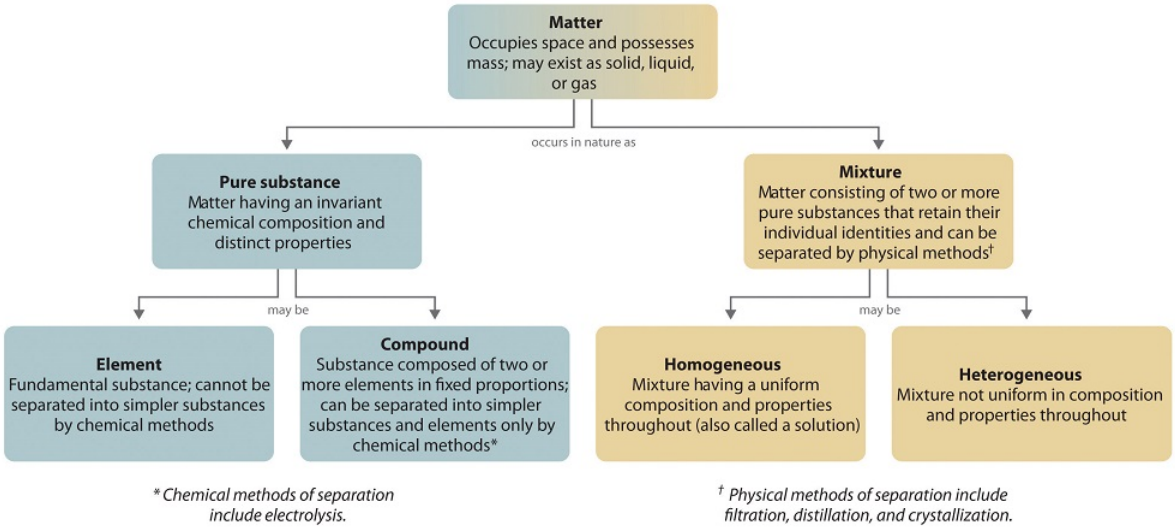


Figure 1.3.6: Relationships between the Types of Matter and the Methods Used to Separate Mixtures

Example 1.3.1

Identify each substance as a compound, an element, a heterogeneous mixture, or a homogeneous mixture (solution).

a. filtered tea
b. freshly squeezed orange juice
c. a compact disc
d. aluminum oxide, a white powder that contains a 2:3 ratio of aluminum and oxygen atoms
e. selenium

Given: a chemical substance

Asked for: its classification

Strategy:

A. Decide whether a substance is chemically pure. If it is pure, the substance is either an element or a compound. If a substance can be separated into its elements, it is a compound.

B. If a substance is not chemically pure, it is either a heterogeneous mixture or a homogeneous mixture. If its composition is uniform throughout, it is a homogeneous mixture.

Solution

a. **A** Tea is a solution of compounds in water, so it is not chemically pure. It is usually separated from tea leaves by filtration. **B** Because the composition of the solution is uniform throughout, it is a homogeneous mixture.

b. **A** Orange juice contains particles of solid (pulp) as well as liquid; it is not chemically pure. B Because its composition is not uniform throughout, orange juice is a heterogeneous mixture.

c. **A** A compact disc is a solid material that contains more than one element, with regions of different compositions visible along its edge. Hence a compact disc is not chemically pure. **B** The regions of different composition indicate that a compact disc is a heterogeneous mixture.

d. **A** Aluminum oxide is a single, chemically pure compound.

e. **A** Selenium is one of the known elements.

Exercise 1.3.1

Identify each substance as a compound, an element, a heterogeneous mixture, or a homogeneous mixture (solution).

a. white wine
b. mercury
c. ranch-style salad dressing
d. table sugar (sucrose)

Answer A

solution

Answer B

element

Answer C

heterogeneous mixture

Answer D

compound



Different Definitions of Changes: YouTube, Different Definitions of Changes(opens in new window) [youtu.be] (opens in new window)

Summary

Matter can be classified according to physical and chemical properties. Matter is anything that occupies space and has mass. The three states of matter are solid, liquid, and gas. A physical change involves the conversion of a substance from one state of matter to another, without changing its chemical composition. Most matter consists of mixtures of pure substances, which can be homogeneous (uniform in composition) or heterogeneous (different regions possess different compositions and properties). Pure substances can be either chemical compounds or elements. Compounds can be broken down into elements by chemical reactions, but elements cannot be separated into simpler substances by chemical means. The properties of substances can be classified as either physical or chemical. Scientists can observe physical properties without changing the composition of the substance, whereas chemical properties describe the tendency of a substance to undergo chemical changes (chemical reactions) that change its chemical composition. Physical properties can be intensive or extensive. Intensive properties are the same for all samples; do not depend on sample size; and include, for example, color, physical state, and melting and boiling points. Extensive properties depend on the amount of material and include mass and volume. The ratio of two extensive properties, mass and volume, is an important intensive property called density.

Contributors and Attributions

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1.4: Physical and Chemical Changes and Properties

Learning Objectives

- Describe the difference between physical and chemical properties or changed.
- Identify a property or transformation as either physical or chemical using symbolic, particulate, or macroscopic representations.
- Identify the properties of matter as extensive or intensive.
- Recognize and describe the parts of the NFPA hazard diamond.

The characteristics that enable us to distinguish one substance from another are called properties. A physical property is a characteristic of matter that is not associated with a change in its chemical composition. Familiar examples of physical properties include density, color, hardness, melting and boiling points, and electrical conductivity. We can observe some physical properties, such as density and color, without changing the physical state of the matter observed. Other physical properties, such as the melting temperature of iron or the freezing temperature of water, can only be observed as matter undergoes a physical change. A physical change is a change in the state or properties of matter without any accompanying change in its chemical composition (the identities of the substances contained in the matter). We observe a physical change when wax melts, when sugar dissolves in coffee, and when steam condenses into liquid water (Figure 1.4.1). Other examples of physical changes include magnetizing and demagnetizing metals (as is done with common antitheft security tags) and grinding solids into powders (which can sometimes yield noticeable changes in color). In each of these examples, there is a change in the physical state, form, or properties of the substance, but no change in its chemical composition.



Figure 1.4.1: (a) Wax undergoes a physical change when solid wax is heated and forms liquid wax. (b) Steam condensing inside a cooking pot is a physical change, as water vapor is changed into liquid water. (credit a: modification of work by "95jb14"/Wikimedia Commons; credit b: modification of work by "mjneuby"/Flickr).

The change of one type of matter into another type (or the inability to change) is a chemical property. Examples of chemical properties include flammability, toxicity, acidity, reactivity (many types), and heat of combustion. Iron, for example, combines with oxygen in the presence of water to form rust; chromium does not oxidize (Figure 1.4.2). Nitroglycerin is very dangerous because it explodes easily; neon poses almost no hazard because it is very unreactive.



Figure 1.4.2: (a) One of the chemical properties of iron is that it rusts; (b) one of the chemical properties of chromium is that it does not. (credit a: modification of work by Tony Hisgett; credit b: modification of work by "Atoma"/Wikimedia Commons)

Comparison of two metal equipments. The first image shows a rusted brown appearance and the following image shows a shiny metallic appearance.

To identify a chemical property, we look for a chemical change. A chemical change always produces one or more types of matter that differ from the matter present before the change. The formation of rust is a chemical change because rust is a different kind of matter than the iron, oxygen, and water present before the rust formed. The explosion of nitroglycerin is a chemical change because the gases produced are very different kinds of matter from the original substance. Other examples of chemical changes include reactions that are performed in a lab (such as copper reacting with nitric acid), all forms of combustion (burning), and food being cooked, digested, or rotting (Figure 1.4.3).

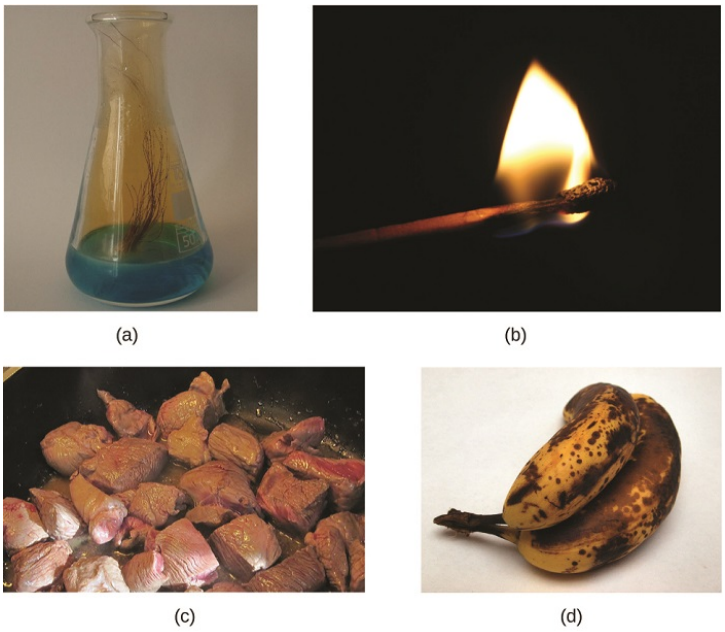


Figure 1.4.3: (a) Copper and nitric acid undergo a chemical change to form copper nitrate and brown, gaseous nitrogen dioxide. (b) During the combustion of a match, cellulose in the match and oxygen from the air undergo a chemical change to form carbon dioxide and water vapor. (c) Cooking red meat causes a number of chemical changes, including the oxidation of iron in myoglobin that results in the familiar red-to-brown color change. (d) A banana turning brown is a chemical change as new, darker (and less tasty) substances form. (credit b: modification of work by Jeff Turner; credit c: modification of work by Gloria Cabada-Leman; credit d: modification of work by Roberto Verzo)

Four pictures. A. a flask with copper wires placed in a blue solution and also the presence of a gas. B. A lighted match. C. meat cubes being cooked on a pan. D. Bananas forming black spots on its peel.

Properties of matter fall into one of two categories. If the property depends on the amount of matter present, it is an extensive property. The mass and volume of a substance are examples of extensive properties; for instance, a gallon of milk has a larger mass and volume than a cup of milk. The value of an extensive property is directly proportional to the amount of matter in question. If the property of a sample of matter does not depend on the amount of matter present, it is an intensive property. Temperature is an example of an intensive property. If the gallon and cup of milk are each at 20 °C (room temperature), when they are combined, the temperature remains at 20 °C. As another example, consider the distinct but related properties of heat and temperature. A drop of hot cooking oil spattered on your arm causes brief, minor discomfort, whereas a pot of hot oil yields severe burns. Both the drop and the pot of oil are at the same temperature (an intensive property), but the pot clearly contains much more heat (extensive property).

Hazard Diamond

You may have seen the symbol shown in Figure 1.4.4 on containers of chemicals in a laboratory or workplace. Sometimes called a “fire diamond” or “hazard diamond,” this chemical hazard diamond provides valuable information that briefly summarizes the various dangers of which to be aware when working with a particular substance.

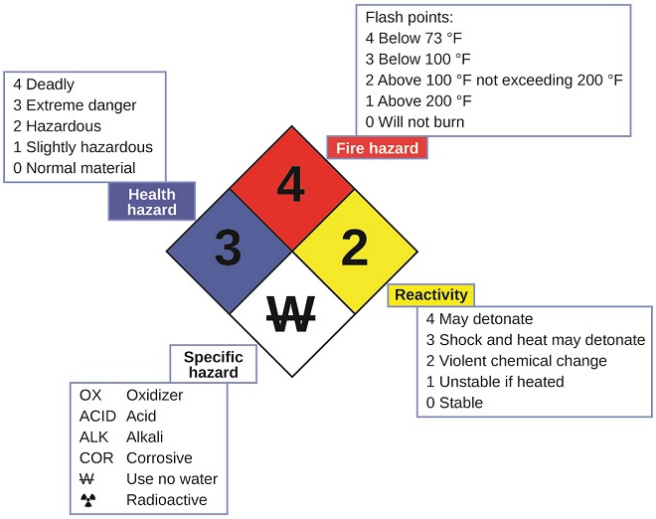


Figure 1.4.4: The National Fire Protection Agency (NFPA) hazard diamond summarizes the major hazards of a chemical substance.

The National Fire Protection Agency (NFPA) 704 Hazard Identification System was developed by NFPA to provide safety information about certain substances. The system details flammability, reactivity, health, and other hazards. Within the overall diamond symbol, the top (red) diamond specifies the level of fire hazard (temperature range for flash point). The blue (left) diamond indicates the level of health hazard. The yellow (right) diamond describes reactivity hazards, such as how readily the substance will undergo detonation or a violent chemical change. The white (bottom) diamond points out special hazards, such as if it is an oxidizer (which allows the substance to burn in the absence of air/oxygen), undergoes an unusual or dangerous reaction with water, is corrosive, acidic, alkaline, a biological hazard, radioactive, and so on. Each hazard is rated on a scale from 0 to 4, with 0 being no hazard and 4 being extremely hazardous.

While many elements differ dramatically in their chemical and physical properties, some elements have similar properties. We can identify sets of elements that exhibit common behaviors. For example, many elements conduct heat and electricity well, whereas others are poor conductors. These properties can be used to sort the elements into three classes: metals (elements that conduct well), nonmetals (elements that conduct poorly), and metalloids (elements that have properties of both metals and nonmetals).

The periodic table is a table of elements that places elements with similar properties close together (Figure 1.4.5). You will learn more about the periodic table as you continue your study of chemistry.

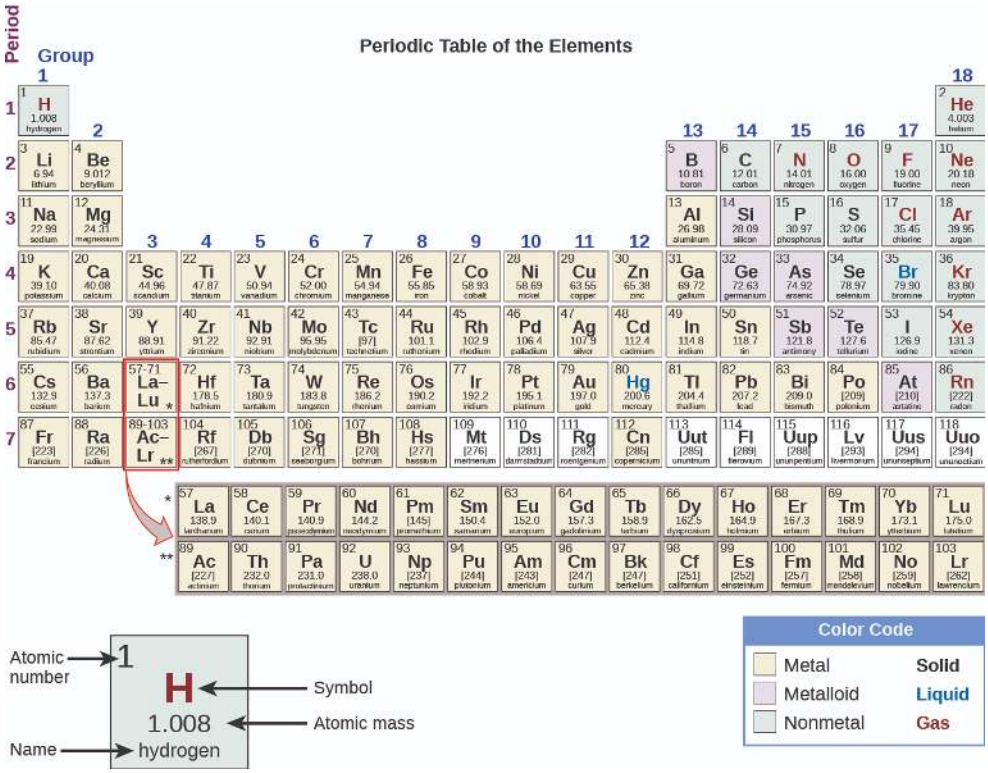


Figure 1.4.5: The periodic table shows how elements may be grouped according to certain similar properties. Note the background color denotes whether an element is a metal, metalloid, or nonmetal, whereas the element symbol color indicates whether it is a solid, liquid, or gas.

Summary

All substances have distinct physical and chemical properties, and may undergo physical or chemical changes. Physical properties, such as hardness and boiling point, and physical changes, such as melting or freezing, do not involve a change in the composition of matter. Chemical properties, such flammability and acidity, and chemical changes, such as rusting, involve production of matter that differs from that present beforehand.

Measurable properties fall into one of two categories. Extensive properties depend on the amount of matter present, for example, the mass of gold. Intensive properties do not depend on the amount of matter present, for example, the density of gold. Heat is an example of an extensive property, and temperature is an example of an intensive property.

Glossary

chemical change
: change producing a different kind of matter from the original kind of matter

chemical property
: behavior that is related to the change of one kind of matter into another kind of matter

extensive property
: property of a substance that depends on the amount of the substance

intensive property
: property of a substance that is independent of the amount of the substance

physical change
: change in the state or properties of matter that does not involve a change in its chemical composition

physical property

characteristic of matter that is not associated with any change in its chemical composition

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1.5: Energy- A Fundamental Part of Physical and Chemical Change

Learning Objectives

- To understand the concept of energy and its various forms.
- To know the relationship between energy, work, and heat.

Because energy takes many forms, only some of which can be seen or felt, it is defined by its effect on matter. For example, microwave ovens produce energy to cook food, but we cannot see that energy. In contrast, we can see the energy produced by a light bulb when we switch on a lamp. In this section, we describe the forms of energy and discuss the relationship between energy, heat, and work.

Forms of Energy

The forms of energy include thermal energy, radiant energy, electrical energy, nuclear energy, and chemical energy (Figure 1.5.1). Thermal energy results from atomic and molecular motion; the faster the motion, the greater the thermal energy. The temperature of an object is a measure of its thermal energy content. Radiant energy is the energy carried by light, microwaves, and radio waves. Objects left in bright sunshine or exposed to microwaves become warm because much of the radiant energy they absorb is converted to thermal energy. Electrical energy results from the flow of electrically charged particles. When the ground and a cloud develop a separation of charge, for example, the resulting flow of electrons from one to the other produces lightning, a natural form of electrical energy. Nuclear energy is stored in the nucleus of an atom, and chemical energy is stored within a chemical compound because of a particular arrangement of atoms.

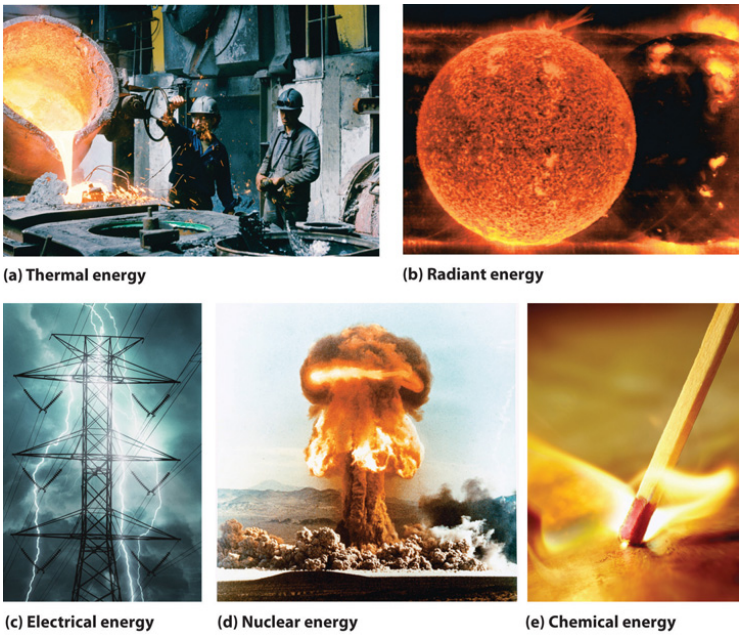


Figure 1.5.1: Forms of Energy. (a) *Thermal energy* results from atomic and molecular motion; molten steel at 2000°C has a very high thermal energy content. (b) *Radiant energy* (e.g., from the sun) is the energy in light, microwaves, and radio waves. (c) Lightning is an example of *electrical energy*, which is due to the flow of electrically charged particles. (d) *Nuclear energy* is released when particles in the nucleus of the atom are rearranged. (e) *Chemical energy* results from the particular arrangement of atoms in a chemical compound; the heat and light produced in this reaction are due to energy released during the breaking and reforming of chemical bonds.

Electrical energy, nuclear energy, and chemical energy are different forms of potential energy (PE), which is energy stored in an object because of the relative positions or orientations of its components. A brick lying on the windowsill of a 10th-floor office has a great deal of potential energy, but until its position changes by falling, the energy is contained. In contrast, kinetic energy (KE) is energy due to the motion of an object. When the brick falls, its potential energy is transformed to kinetic energy, which is then transferred to the object on the ground that it strikes. The electrostatic attraction between oppositely charged particles is a form of potential energy, which is converted to kinetic energy when the charged particles move toward each other.

Energy can be converted from one form to another (Figure 1.5.2) or, as we saw with the brick, transferred from one object to another. For example, when you climb a ladder to a high diving board, your body uses chemical energy produced by the combustion of organic molecules. As you climb, the chemical energy is converted to *mechanical work* to overcome the force of gravity. When you stand on the end of the diving board, your potential energy is greater than it was before you climbed the ladder: the greater the distance from the water, the greater the potential energy. When you then dive into the water, your potential energy is converted to kinetic energy as you fall, and when you hit the surface, some of that energy is transferred to the water, causing it to splash into the air. Chemical energy can also be converted to radiant energy; one common example is the light emitted by fireflies, which is produced from a chemical reaction.

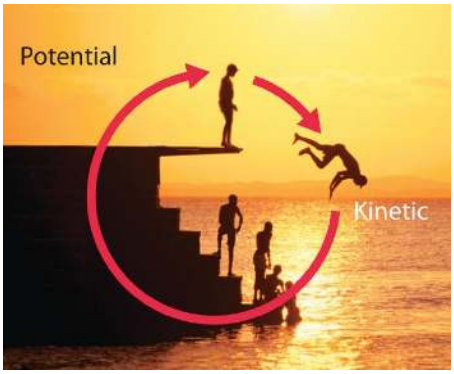


Figure 1.5.2: Interconversion of Forms of Energy. When a swimmer steps off the platform to dive into the water, potential energy is converted to kinetic energy. As the swimmer climbs back up to the top of the diving platform, chemical energy is converted to mechanical work.

Although energy can be converted from one form to another, *the total amount of energy in the universe remains constant*. This is known as the **law of conservation of energy**: *Energy cannot be created or destroyed.*

Energy, Heat, and Work

One definition of energy is the capacity to do work. The easiest form of work to visualize is mechanical work (Figure 1.5.3), which is the energy required to move an object a distance d when opposed by a force F, such as gravity:

work = force x distance

$$w = F\,d \tag{1.5.1}$$

Because the force (F) that opposes the action is equal to the mass (m) of the object times its acceleration (a), we can also write Equation 1.5.1 as follows:

work= mass x acceleration x distance

$$w = m\,a\,d \tag{1.5.2}$$

Recall from that weight is a force caused by the gravitational attraction between two masses, such as you and Earth.

Consider the mechanical work required for you to travel from the first floor of a building to the second. Whether you take an elevator or an escalator, trudge upstairs, or leap up the stairs two at a time, energy is expended to overcome the force of gravity. The amount of work done (*w*) and thus the energy required depends on three things:

1. the height of the second floor (the distance *d*);
2. your mass, which must be raised that distance against the downward acceleration due to gravity; and
3. your path.

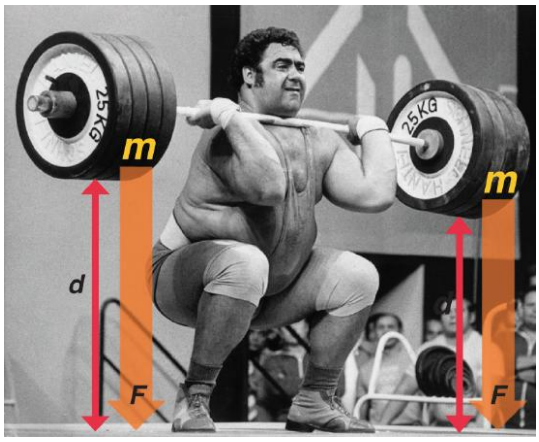


Figure 1.5.2: An Example of Mechanical Work. One form of energy is mechanical work, the energy required to move an object of mass *m* a distance *d* when opposed by a force *F*, such as gravity.

In contrast, heat (*q*) is thermal energy that can be transferred from an object at one temperature to an object at another temperature. The net transfer of thermal energy stops when the two objects reach the same temperature.

Energy is an *extensive* property of matter—for example, the amount of **thermal energy** in an object is proportional to both its mass and its temperature. A water heater that holds 150 L of water at 50°C contains much more thermal energy than does a 1 L pan of water at 50°C. Similarly, a bomb contains much more chemical energy than does a firecracker. We now present a more detailed description of kinetic and potential energy.

Kinetic and Potential Energy

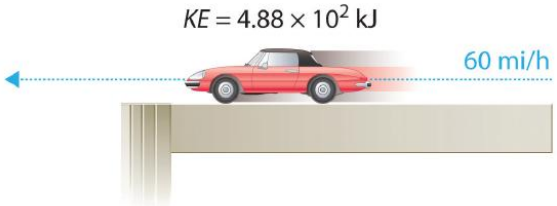
The kinetic energy of an object is related to its mass m and velocity v:

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \tag{1.5.3}$$

For example, the kinetic energy of a 1360 kg (approximately 3000 lb) automobile traveling at a velocity of 26.8 m/s (approximately 60 mi/h) is

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}(1360kg)(26.8ms)^2 = 4.88 \times 10^5 g \cdot m^2 \tag{1.5.4}$$

Because all forms of energy can be interconverted, energy in any form can be expressed using the same units as kinetic energy. The SI unit of energy, the joule (J), is named after the British physicist James Joule (1818–1889), an early worker in the field of energy. is defined as 1 kilogram·meter^2/second^2 (kg·m^2/s^2). Because a joule is such a small quantity of energy, chemists usually express energy in kilojoules (1 kJ = 10^3 J). For example, the kinetic energy of the 1360 kg car traveling at 26.8 m/s is 4.88 × 10^5 J or 4.88 × 10^2 kJ. It is important to remember that *the units of energy are the same regardless of the form of energy*, whether thermal, radiant, chemical, or any other form. Because heat and work result in changes in energy, their units must also be the same.



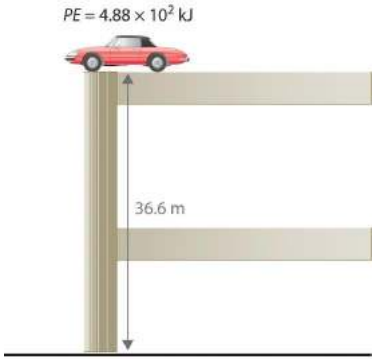
To demonstrate, let's calculate the potential energy of the same 1360 kg automobile if it were parked on the top level of a parking garage 36.6 m (120 ft) high. Its potential energy is equivalent to the amount of work required to raise the vehicle from street level to the top level of the parking garage, which is *w* = *Fd*. According to Equation 1.5.2, the force (*F*) exerted by gravity on any object is equal to its mass (*m*, in this case, 1360 kg) times the acceleration (*a*) due to gravity (*g*, 9.81 m/s^2 at Earth's surface). The distance (*d*) is the height (*h*) above street level (in this case, 36.6 m). Thus the potential energy of the car is as follows:

$$PE = F\ d = m\ a\ d = m\ g\ h \tag{1.5.5}$$

$$PE = (1360, Kg)\left(\frac{9.81\,m}{s^2}\right)(36.6\ m) = 4.88 \times 10^5\ \frac{Kg \cdot m}{s^2} \tag{1.5.6}$$

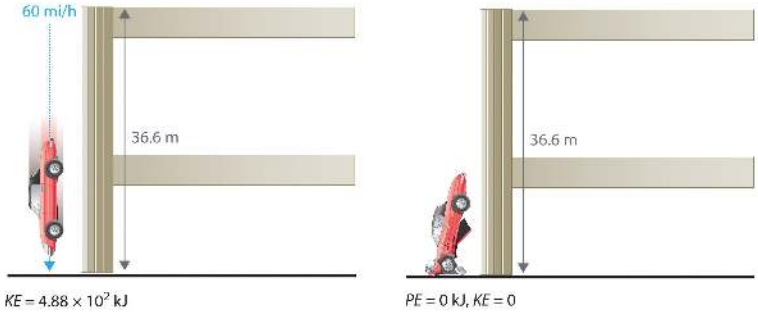
$$= 4.88 \times 10^5 J = 488\ kJ \tag{1.5.7}$$

The units of potential energy are the same as the units of kinetic energy. Notice that in this case the potential energy of the stationary automobile at the top of a 36.6 m high parking garage is the same as its kinetic energy at 60 mi/h.



If the vehicle fell from the roof of the parking garage, its potential energy would be converted to kinetic energy, and it is reasonable to infer that the vehicle would be traveling at 60 mi/h just before it hit the ground, neglecting air resistance. After the car hit the ground, its potential and kinetic energy would both be zero.

Potential energy is usually defined relative to an arbitrary standard position (in this case, the street was assigned an elevation of zero). As a result, we usually calculate only differences in potential energy: in this case, the difference between the potential energy of the car on the top level of the parking garage and the potential energy of the same car on the street at the base of the garage.



Units of Energy

The units of energy are the same for all forms of energy. Energy can also be expressed in the non-SI units of calories (cal), where 1 cal was originally defined as the amount of energy needed to raise the temperature of exactly 1 g of water from 14.5°C to 15.5°C.We specify the exact temperatures because the amount of energy needed to raise the temperature of 1 g of water 1°C varies slightly with elevation. To three significant figures, however, this amount is 1.00 cal over the temperature range 0°C–100°C. The name is derived from the Latin *calor*, meaning “heat.” Although energy may be expressed as either calories or joules, calories were defined in terms of heat, whereas joules were defined in terms of motion. Because calories and joules are both units of energy, however, the calorie is now defined in terms of the joule:

$$1\ cal = 4.184\ J \text{ exactly} \tag{1.5.8}$$

$$1\ J = 0.2390\ cal \tag{1.5.9}$$

In this text, we will use the SI units—joules (J) and kilojoules (kJ)—exclusively, except when we deal with nutritional information.

Example 1.5.1

a. If the mass of a baseball is 149 g, what is the kinetic energy of a fastball clocked at 100 mi/h?
b. A batter hits a pop fly, and the baseball (with a mass of 149 g) reaches an altitude of 250 ft. If we assume that the ball was 3 ft above home plate when hit by the batter, what is the increase in its potential energy?

Given: mass and velocity or height

Asked for: kinetic and potential energy

Strategy:

Use Equation 5.1.4 to calculate the kinetic energy and Equation 5.1.6 to calculate the potential energy, as appropriate.

Solution:

a. The kinetic energy of an object is given by $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ In this case, we know both the mass and the velocity, but we must convert the velocity to SI units:

$$v = \left(\frac{100\ \cancel{mi}}{1\ \cancel{h}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{h}}{60\ \cancel{min}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{min}}{60\ s}\right)\left(\frac{1.61\ \cancel{km}}{1\ \cancel{mi}}\right)\left(\frac{1000\ m}{1\ \cancel{km}}\right) = 44.7\ m/s$$

The kinetic energy of the baseball is therefore

$$KE = 1492\ \cancel{g}\left(\frac{1\ kg}{1000\ \cancel{g}}\right)\left(\frac{44.7\ m}{s}\right)^2 = 1.49 \times 10^2\ \frac{kg \cdot m^2}{s^2} = 1.49 \times 10^2\ J$$

b. The increase in potential energy is the same as the amount of work required to raise the ball to its new altitude, which is (250 − 3) = 247 feet above its initial position. Thus

$$PE = 149\ \cancel{g}\left(\frac{1\ kg}{1000\ \cancel{g}}\right)\left(\frac{9.81\ m}{s^2}\right)\left(247\ \cancel{ft}\right)\left(\frac{0.3048\ m}{1\ \cancel{ft}}\right) = 1.10 \times 10^2\ \frac{kg \cdot m^2}{s^2} = 1.10 \times 10^2\ J$$

? Exercise 1.5.1

a. In a bowling alley, the distance from the foul line to the head pin is 59 ft, 10 13/16 in. (18.26 m). If a 16 lb (7.3 kg) bowling ball takes 2.0 s to reach the head pin, what is its kinetic energy at impact? (Assume its speed is constant.)
b. What is the potential energy of a 16 lb bowling ball held 3.0 ft above your foot?

Answer a

3.10×10^2 J

Answer b

65 J

Summary

All forms of energy can be interconverted. Three things can change the energy of an object: the transfer of heat, work performed on or by an object, or some combination of heat and work. *Thermochemistry* is a branch of chemistry that qualitatively and quantitatively describes the energy changes that occur during chemical reactions. **Energy** is the capacity to do work. **Mechanical work** is the amount of energy required to move an object a given distance when opposed by a force. **Thermal energy** is due to the random motions of atoms, molecules, or ions in a substance. The **temperature** of an object is a measure of the amount of thermal energy it contains. **Heat (*q*)** is the transfer of thermal energy from a hotter object to a cooler one. Energy can take many forms; most are different varieties of **potential energy (*PE*)**, energy caused by the relative position or orientation of an object. **Kinetic energy (*KE*)** is the energy an object possesses due to its motion. The most common units of energy are the **joule (J)**, defined as 1 $(kg \cdot m^2)/s^2$, and the **calorie**, defined as the amount of energy needed to raise the temperature of 1 g of water by 1°C (1 cal = 4.184 J).

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1.6: The Units of Measurement

Learning Objectives

- Explain the process of measurement and describe the three basic parts of a quantity.
- Describe the properties and units of length, mass, volume, density, temperature, and time.
- Recognize the common unit prefixes and use them to describe the magnitude of a measurement.
- Describe and calculate the density of a substance.
- Perform basic unit calculations and conversions in the metric and other unit systems.

Measurements provide the macroscopic information that is the basis of most of the hypotheses, theories, and laws that describe the behavior of matter and energy in both the macroscopic and microscopic domains of chemistry. Every measurement provides three kinds of information: the size or magnitude of the measurement (a number); a standard of comparison for the measurement (a unit); and an indication of the uncertainty of the measurement. While the number and unit are explicitly represented when a quantity is written, the uncertainty is an aspect of the measurement result that is more implicitly represented and will be discussed later.

The number in the measurement can be represented in different ways, including decimal form and scientific notation. For example, the maximum takeoff weight of a Boeing 777-200ER airliner is 298,000 kilograms, which can also be written as 2.98×10^5 kg. The mass of the average mosquito is about 0.0000025 kilograms, which can be written as 2.5×10^{-6} kg.

Units, such as liters, pounds, and centimeters, are standards of comparison for measurements. When we buy a 2-liter bottle of a soft drink, we expect that the volume of the drink was measured, so it is two times larger than the volume that everyone agrees to be 1 liter. The meat used to prepare a 0.25-pound hamburger is measured so it weighs one-fourth as much as 1 pound. Without units, a number can be meaningless, confusing, or possibly life threatening. Suppose a doctor prescribes phenobarbital to control a patient's seizures and states a dosage of "100" without specifying units. Not only will this be confusing to the medical professional giving the dose, but the consequences can be dire: 100 mg given three times per day can be effective as an anticonvulsant, but a single dose of 100 g is more than 10 times the lethal amount.

We usually report the results of scientific measurements in SI units, an updated version of the metric system, using the units listed in Table 1.6.1. Other units can be derived from these base units. The standards for these units are fixed by international agreement, and they are called the International System of Units or SI Units (from the French, *Le Système International d'Unités*). SI units have been used by the United States National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) since 1964.

Table 1.6.1: Base Units of the SI System

Property Measured	Name of Unit	Symbol of Unit
length	meter	m
mass	kilogram	kg
time	second	s
temperature	kelvin	K
electric current	ampere	A
amount of substance	mole	mol
luminous intensity	candela	cd

Sometimes we use units that are fractions or multiples of a base unit. Ice cream is sold in quarts (a familiar, non-SI base unit), pints (0.5 quart), or gallons (4 quarts). We also use fractions or multiples of units in the SI system, but these fractions or multiples are always powers of 10. Fractional or multiple SI units are named using a prefix and the name of the base unit. For example, a length of 1000 meters is also called a kilometer because the prefix *kilo* means "one thousand," which in scientific notation is 10^3 (1 kilometer = 1000 m = 10^3 m). The prefixes used and the powers to which 10 are raised are listed in Table 1.6.2.

NG, equals 4 times ten to the negative 9, or 0.000000004 g. The prefix micro has the greek letter mu as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the negative sixth power. Therefore, 1 microliter, or mu L, is equal to one times ten to the negative 6 or 0.000001 L. The

prefix milli has a lowercase M as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the negative third power. Therefore, 2 millimoles, or M mol, are equal to two times ten to the negative 3 or 0.002 mol. The prefix centi has a lowercase C as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the negative second power. Therefore, 7 centimeters, or C M, are equal to seven times ten to the negative 2 meters or 0.07 M O L. The prefix deci has a lowercase D as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the negative first power. Therefore, 1 deciliter, or lowercase D uppercase L, are equal to one times ten to the negative 1 meters or 0.1 L. The prefix kilo has a lowercase K as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the third power. Therefore, 1 kilometer, or K M, is equal to one times ten to the third meters or 1000 M. The prefix mega has an uppercase M as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the sixth power. Therefore, 3 megahertz, or M H Z, are equal to three times 10 to the sixth hertz, or 3000000 H Z. The prefix giga has an uppercase G as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the ninth power. Therefore, 8 gigayears, or G Y R, are equal to eight times 10 to the ninth years, or 800000000 G Y R. The prefix tera has an uppercase T as its symbol and a factor of 10 to the twelfth power. Therefore, 5 terawatts, or T W, are equal to five times 10 to the twelfth watts, or 5000000000000 W." data-quail-id="64" data-mt-width="1076">

Table 1.6.2: Common Unit Prefixes

Prefix	Symbol	Factor	Example
femto	f	10^{-15}	1 femtosecond (fs) = 1×10^{-15} s (0.000000000000001 s)
pico	p	10^{-12}	1 picometer (pm) = 1×10^{-12} m (0.000000000001 m)
nano	n	10^{-9}	4 nanograms (ng) = 4×10^{-9} g (0.000000004 g)
micro	µ	10^{-6}	1 microliter (µL) = 1×10^{-6} L (0.000001 L)
milli	m	10^{-3}	2 millimoles (mmol) = 2×10^{-3} mol (0.002 mol)
centi	c	10^{-2}	7 centimeters (cm) = 7×10^{-2} m (0.07 m)
deci	d	10^{-1}	1 deciliter (dL) = 1×10^{-1} L (0.1 L)
kilo	k	10^{3}	1 kilometer (km) = 1×10^{3} m (1000 m)
mega	M	10^{6}	3 megahertz (MHz) = 3×10^{6} Hz (3,000,000 Hz)
giga	G	10^{9}	8 gigayears (Gyr) = 8×10^{9} yr (8,000,000,000 Gyr)
tera	T	10^{12}	5 terawatts (TW) = 5×10^{12} W (5,000,000,000,000 W)

SI Base Units

The initial units of the metric system, which eventually evolved into the SI system, were established in France during the French Revolution. The original standards for the meter and the kilogram were adopted there in 1799 and eventually by other countries. This section introduces four of the SI base units commonly used in chemistry. Other SI units will be introduced in subsequent chapters.

Length

The standard unit of length in both the SI and original metric systems is the meter (m). A meter was originally specified as 1/10,000,000 of the distance from the North Pole to the equator. It is now defined as the distance light in a vacuum travels in 1/299,792,458 of a second. A meter is about 3 inches longer than a yard (Figure 1.6.1); one meter is about 39.37 inches or 1.094

yards. Longer distances are often reported in kilometers (1 km = 1000 m = 10^3 m), whereas shorter distances can be reported in centimeters (1 cm = 0.01 m = 10^{-2} m) or millimeters (1 mm = 0.001 m = 10^{-3} m).

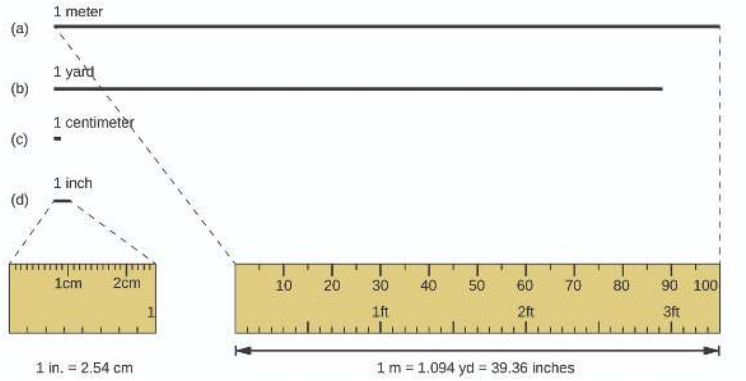


Figure 1.6.1: The relative lengths of 1 m, 1 yd, 1 cm, and 1 in. are shown (not actual size), as well as comparisons of 2.54 cm and 1 in., and of 1 m and 1.094 yd.

A ruler is shown with various lengths of black line shown above it to compare the relative lengths of 1 inch, meter, centimeter, and yard.

Mass

The standard unit of mass in the SI system is the kilogram (kg). A kilogram was originally defined as the mass of a liter of water (a cube of water with an edge length of exactly 0.1 meter). It is now defined by a certain cylinder of platinum-iridium alloy, which is kept in France (Figure 1.4.2). Any object with the same mass as this cylinder is said to have a mass of 1 kilogram. One kilogram is about 2.2 pounds. The gram (g) is exactly equal to 1/1000 of the mass of the kilogram (10^{-3} kg).



Figure 1.6.2: This replica prototype kilogram is housed at the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in Maryland. (credit: National Institutes of Standards and Technology).

Temperature

Temperature is an intensive property. The SI unit of temperature is the kelvin (K). The IUPAC convention is to use kelvin (all lowercase) for the word, K (uppercase) for the unit symbol, and neither the word “degree” nor the degree symbol (°). The degree Celsius (°C) is also allowed in the SI system, with both the word “degree” and the degree symbol used for Celsius measurements. Celsius degrees are the same magnitude as those of kelvin, but the two scales place their zeros in different places. Water freezes at 273.15 K (0 °C) and boils at 373.15 K (100 °C) by definition, and normal human body temperature is approximately 310 K (37 °C). The conversion between these two units and the Fahrenheit scale will be discussed later in this chapter.

Time

The SI base unit of time is the second (s). Small and large time intervals can be expressed with the appropriate prefixes; for example, 3 microseconds = 0.000003 s = 3×10^{-6} and 5 megaseconds = 5,000,000 s = 5×10^6 s. Alternatively, hours, days, and years can be used.

Derived SI Units

We can derive many units from the seven SI base units. For example, we can use the base unit of length to define a unit of volume, and the base units of mass and length to define a unit of density.

Volume

Volume is the measure of the amount of space occupied by an object. The standard SI unit of volume is defined by the base unit of length (Figure 1.6.3). The standard volume is a cubic meter (m^3), a cube with an edge length of exactly one meter. To dispense a cubic meter of water, we could build a cubic box with edge lengths of exactly one meter. This box would hold a cubic meter of water or any other substance.

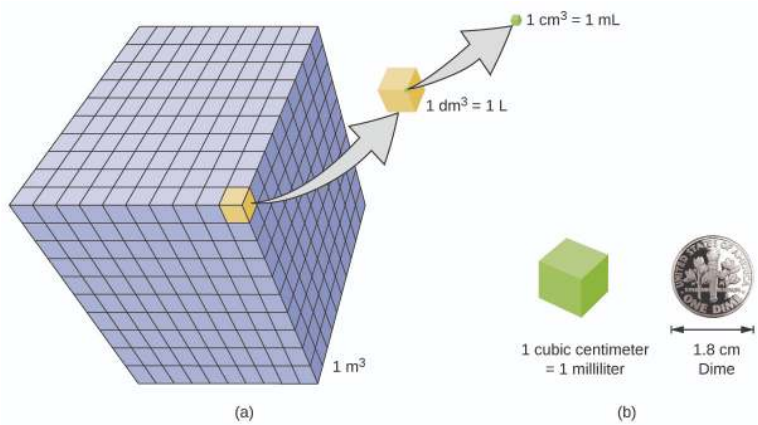


Figure 1.6.3: (a) The relative volumes are shown for cubes of 1 m^3, 1 dm^3 (1 L), and 1 cm^3 (1 mL) (not to scale). (b) The diameter of a dime is compared relative to the edge length of a 1-cm^3 (1-mL) cube.

A more commonly used unit of volume is derived from the decimeter (0.1 m, or 10 cm). A cube with edge lengths of exactly one decimeter contains a volume of one cubic decimeter (dm^3). A liter (L) is the more common name for the cubic decimeter. One liter is about 1.06 quarts. A cubic centimeter (cm^3) is the volume of a cube with an edge length of exactly one centimeter. The abbreviation **cc** (for **c**ubic **c**entimeter) is often used by health professionals. A cubic centimeter is also called a milliliter (mL) and is 1/1000 of a liter.

Density

We use the mass and volume of a substance to determine its density. Thus, the units of density are defined by the base units of mass and length.

The density of a substance is the ratio of the mass of a sample of the substance to its volume. The SI unit for density is the kilogram per cubic meter (kg/m^3). For many situations, however, this as an inconvenient unit, and we often use grams per cubic centimeter (g/cm^3) for the densities of solids and liquids, and grams per liter (g/L) for gases. Although there are exceptions, most liquids and solids have densities that range from about 0.7 g/cm^3 (the density of gasoline) to 19 g/cm^3 (the density of gold). The density of air is about 1.2 g/L. Table 1.6.3 shows the densities of some common substances.

Table 1.6.3: Densities of Common Substances

Solids	Liquids	Gases (at 25 °C and 1 atm)
ice (at 0 °C) 0.92 g/cm^3	water 1.0 g/cm^3	dry air 1.20 g/L
oak (wood) 0.60–0.90 g/cm^3	ethanol 0.79 g/cm^3	oxygen 1.31 g/L
iron 7.9 g/cm^3	acetone 0.79 g/cm^3	nitrogen 1.14 g/L
copper 9.0 g/cm^3	glycerin 1.26 g/cm^3	carbon dioxide 1.80 g/L
lead 11.3 g/cm^3	olive oil 0.92 g/cm^3	helium 0.16 g/L
silver 10.5 g/cm^3	gasoline 0.70–0.77 g/cm^3	neon 0.83 g/L
gold 19.3 g/cm^3	mercury 13.6 g/cm^3	radon 9.1 g/L

While there are many ways to determine the density of an object, perhaps the most straightforward method involves separately finding the mass and volume of the object, and then dividing the mass of the sample by its volume. In the following example, the mass is found directly by weighing, but the volume is found indirectly through length measurements.

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$$

Example 1.6.1

Calculation of Density Gold—in bricks, bars, and coins—has been a form of currency for centuries. In order to swindle people into paying for a brick of gold without actually investing in a brick of gold, people have considered filling the centers of hollow gold bricks with lead to fool buyers into thinking that the entire brick is gold. It does not work: Lead is a dense substance, but its density is not as great as that of gold, 19.3 g/cm^3. What is the density of lead if a cube of lead has an edge length of 2.00 cm and a mass of 90.7 g?

Solution

The density of a substance can be calculated by dividing its mass by its volume. The volume of a cube is calculated by cubing the edge length.

$$\text{volume of lead cube} = 2.00\ \text{cm} \times 2.00\ \text{cm} \times 2.00\ \text{cm} = 8.00\ \text{cm}^3$$

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{90.7\ \text{g}}{8.00\ \text{cm}^3} = \frac{11.3\ \text{g}}{1.00\ \text{cm}^3} = 11.3\ \text{g/cm}^3$$

(We will discuss the reason for rounding to the first decimal place in the next section.)

Exercise 1.6.1

a. To three decimal places, what is the volume of a cube (cm^3) with an edge length of 0.843 cm?
b. If the cube in part (a) is copper and has a mass of 5.34 g, what is the density of copper to two decimal places?

Answer a

0.599 cm^3;

Answer b

8.91 g/cm^3

Example 1.6.2: Using Displacement of Water to Determine Density

This PhET simulation illustrates another way to determine density, using displacement of water. Determine the density of the red and yellow blocks.

Solution

When you open the density simulation and select Same Mass, you can choose from several 5.00-kg colored blocks that you can drop into a tank containing 100.00 L water. The yellow block floats (it is less dense than water), and the water level rises to 105.00 L. While floating, the yellow block displaces 5.00 L water, an amount equal to the weight of the block. The red block sinks (it is more dense than water, which has density = 1.00 kg/L), and the water level rises to 101.25 L.

The red block therefore displaces 1.25 L water, an amount equal to the volume of the block. The density of the red block is:

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{5.00\ \text{kg}}{1.25\ \text{L}} = 4.00\ \text{kg/L}$$

Note that since the yellow block is not completely submerged, you cannot determine its density from this information. But if you hold the yellow block on the bottom of the tank, the water level rises to 110.00 L, which means that it now displaces 10.00 L water, and its density can be found:

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{5.00\ \text{kg}}{10.00\ \text{L}} = 0.500\ \text{kg/L}$$

? Exercise 1.6.1

Remove all of the blocks from the water and add the green block to the tank of water, placing it approximately in the middle of the tank. Determine the density of the green block.

Answer

2.00 kg/L

Summary

Measurements provide quantitative information that is critical in studying and practicing chemistry. Each measurement has an amount, a unit for comparison, and an uncertainty. Measurements can be represented in either decimal or scientific notation. Scientists primarily use the SI (International System) or metric systems. We use base SI units such as meters, seconds, and kilograms, as well as derived units, such as liters (for volume) and g/cm^3 (for density). In many cases, we find it convenient to use unit prefixes that yield fractional and multiple units, such as microseconds (10^{-6} seconds) and megahertz (10^6 hertz), respectively.

Key Equations

- $\text{density} = \dfrac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$

Glossary

Celsius (°C)
unit of temperature; water freezes at 0 °C and boils at 100 °C on this scale

cubic centimeter (cm^3 or cc)
volume of a cube with an edge length of exactly 1 cm

cubic meter (m^3)
SI unit of volume

density
ratio of mass to volume for a substance or object

kelvin (K)
SI unit of temperature; 273.15 K = 0 ºC

kilogram (kg)
standard SI unit of mass; 1 kg = approximately 2.2 pounds

length
measure of one dimension of an object

liter (L)
(also, cubic decimeter) unit of volume; 1 L = 1,000 cm^3

meter (m)
standard metric and SI unit of length; 1 m = approximately 1.094 yards

milliliter (mL)
1/1,000 of a liter; equal to 1 cm^3

second (s)
SI unit of time

SI units (International System of Units)

standards fixed by international agreement in the International System of Units (*Le Système International d'Unités*)

unit

standard of comparison for measurements

volume

amount of space occupied by an object

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1.7: Expressing Numbers - Scientific Notation

Learning Objectives

- Express a large number or a small number in scientific notation.
- Convert a number in scientific notation to standard conventional form.

The instructions for making a pot of coffee specified 3 scoops (rather than 12,000 grounds) because any measurement is expressed more efficiently with units that are appropriate in size. In science, however, we often must deal with quantities that are extremely small or incredibly large. For example, you may have 5,000,000,000,000 red blood cells in a liter of blood, and the diameter of an iron atom is 0.000000014 inches. Numbers with many zeros can be cumbersome to work with, so scientists use scientific notation.

Scientific notation is a system for expressing very large or very small numbers in a compact manner. It uses the idea that such numbers can be rewritten as a simple number multiplied by 10 raised to a certain exponent, or power.

Let us look first at very large numbers. Suppose a spacecraft is 1,500,000 miles from Mars. The number 1,500,000 can be thought of as follows:

$$1.5 \times \underbrace{1{,}000{,}000}_{\underbrace{10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10}_{10^6}} = 1.5 \times 10^6$$

That is, 1,500,000 is the same as 1.5 times 1 million, and 1 million is $10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10 \times 10$, or 10^6 (which is read as "ten to the sixth power"). Therefore, 1,500,000 can be rewritten as 1.5 times 10^6, or 1.5×10^6. The distance of the spacecraft from Mars can therefore be expressed as 1.5×10^6 miles.

Recall that:

- $10^0 = 1$
- $10^1 = 10$
- $10^2 = 100$
- $10^3 = 1{,}000$
- $10^4 = 10{,}000$
- and so forth

The standard convention for expressing numbers in scientific notation is to write a single *nonzero* first digit, a decimal point, and the rest of the digits, excluding any trailing zeros (see rules for significant figures in the next section for more details on what to exclude). This number is followed by a multiplication sign and then by 10 raised to the power necessary to reproduce the original number. For example, although 1,500,000 can also be written as $15. \times 10^5$ (which would be 15. × 100,000), the convention is to have only one digit before the decimal point. How do we know to what power 10 is raised? The power is the number of places you have to move the decimal point to the *left* to place it after the first digit, so that the number being multiplied is *between 1 and 10*:

$$1{,}500{,}000 = 1.5 \times 10^6$$

Example 1.7.1: Scientific Notation

Express each number in scientific notation.

a. 67,000,000,000
b. 1,689
c. 12.6

Answer a

Moving the decimal point 10 places to the left gives 6.7×10^{10}.

Answer b

The decimal point is assumed to be at the end of the number, so moving it three places to the left gives 1.689×10^3.

Answer c

In this case, we need to move the decimal point only one place to the left, which yields 1.26×10^1.

? Exercise 1.7.1

Express each number in scientific notation.

a. 1,492
b. 102,000,000
c. 101,325

Answer a

Moving the decimal point 3 places to the left gives 1.492×10^3.

Answer b

The decimal point is assumed to be at the end of the number, so moving it 8 places to the left gives 1.02×10^8.

Answer c

Moving the decimal point 5 places to the left yields 1.01325×10^5.

To change a number in **scientific notation** to **standard form**, we reverse the process, moving the decimal point to the right. Add zeros to the end of the number being converted, if necessary, to produce a number of the proper magnitude. Lastly, we drop the number 10 and its power.

$$1.5 \times 10^6 = 1.500000. = 1{,}500{,}000$$

✓ Example 1.7.2

Express each number in standard, or conventional notation.

a. 5.27×10^4
b. 1.0008×10^6

Answer a

Moving the decimal four places to the right and adding zeros give 52,700.

Answer b

Moving the decimal six places to the right and adding zeros give 1,000,800.

✓ Exercise 1.7.2

Express each number in standard, or conventional notation.

a. 6.98×10^8
b. 1.005×10^2

Answer a

Moving the decimal point eight places to the right and adding zeros give 698,000,000.

Answer b

Moving the decimal point two places to the right gives 100.5

We can also use scientific notation to express numbers whose magnitudes are less than 1. For example, the quantity 0.006 centimeters can be expressed as follows:

$$6 \times \underbrace{\frac{1}{1{,}000}}_{\underbrace{\frac{1}{10} \times \frac{1}{10} \times \frac{1}{10}}_{10^{-3}}} = 6 \times 10^{-3}$$

That is, 0.006 centimeters is the same as 6 *divided by* one thousand, which is the same as 6 *divided* by 10 x 10 x 10 or 6 *times* 10^{-3} (which is read as "ten to the negative third power"). Therefore, 0.006 centimeters can be rewritten as 6 times 10^{-3}, or 6×10^{-3} centimeters.

Recall that:

- $10^{-1} = 1/10$
- $10^{-2} = 1/100$
- $10^{-3} = 1/1{,}000$
- $10^{-4} = 1/10{,}000$
- $10^{-5} = 1/100{,}000$
- and so forth

We use a negative number as the power to indicate the number of places we have to move the decimal point to the right to make it follow the first nonzero digit so that the number is between 1 and 10. This is illustrated as follows:

$$0.006 = 6 \times 10^{-3}$$

Note:

In writing scientific notations, the convention is to have only one digit before the decimal point.

- Numbers that are greater than one have a positive power in scientific notation. If the decimal point is moved to the left n places, the power (n) of 10 is positive. $1{,}500{,}000 = 1.5 \times 10^{6}$
- Numbers that are less than one have a negative power in scientific notation. If the decimal point is moved to the right n places, the power (n) of 10 is negative. $0.006 = 6 \times 10^{-3}$

Example 1.7.3

Express each number in scientific notation.

a. 0.000006567
b. −0.0004004
c. 0.000000000000123

Answer a

Move the decimal point six places to the right to get 6.567×10^{-6}.

Answer b

Move the decimal point four places to the right to get -4.004×10^{-4}. The negative sign on the number itself does not affect how we apply the rules of scientific notation.

Answer c

Move the decimal point 13 places to the right to get 1.23×10^{-13}.

Exercise 1.7.3

Express each number in scientific notation.

a. 0.000355
b. 0.314159

c. −0.051204

Answer a

Moving the decimal point four places to the right gives 3.55×10^{-4}.

Answer b

Moving the decimal point one place to the right gives 3.14159×10^{-1}.

Answer c

Moving the decimal point one place to the right gives -5.1204×10^{-2}.

As with numbers with positive powers of 10, when changing from **scientific** notation to **standard or conventional** format, we reverse the process.

$$6 \times 10^{-3} = .006 = 0.006$$

Note

Changing a number in scientific notation to standard form:

- If the scientific notation has a positive power, the standard number is greater than one. Example: $8 \times 10^{4} = 80{,}000$
- If the scientific notation has a negative power, then the standard number is less than one. Example: $8 \times 10^{-2} = 0.08$

Example 1.7.4

Change the number in scientific notation to standard form.

a. 6.22×10^{-2}
b. 9.9×10^{-9}

Answer a

0.0622

Answer b

0.0000000099

Exercise 1.7.4

Change the number in scientific notation to standard form.

a. 9.98×10^{-5}
b. 5.109×10^{-8}

Answer a

0.0000998

Answer b

0.00000005109

Although calculators can show 8 to 10 digits in their display windows, that is not always enough when working with very large or very small numbers. For this reason, many calculators are designed to handle scientific notation. The method for entering scientific notation differs for each calculator model, so take the time to learn how to do it properly on your calculator, *asking your instructor for assistance if necessary*. If you do not learn to enter scientific notation into your calculator properly, you will not get the correct final answer when performing a calculation.

Concept Review Exercises

1. Why it is easier to use scientific notation to express very large or very small numbers?
2. What is the relationship between how many places a decimal point moves and the power of 10 used in changing a conventional number into scientific notation?

Answers

1. Scientific notation is more convenient than listing a large number of zeros.
2. The number of places the decimal point moves equals the power of 10. The power of 10 is positive if the decimal point moves to the left and negative if the decimal point moves to the right.

Key Takeaway

- Large or small numbers are expressed in scientific notation, which use powers of 10.

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1.8: The Reliability of a Measurement

Learning Objectives

- Compare and contrast exact and uncertain numbers.
- Correctly represent uncertainty in quantities using significant figures.
- Identify the number of significant figures in value.
- Solve problems that involve various calculations and report the results with the appropriate number of significant figures.
- Apply proper rounding rules to computed quantities
- Define accuracy and precision, and use accuracy and precision to describe data sets.

Counting is the only type of measurement that is free from uncertainty, provided the number of objects being counted does not change while the counting process is underway. The result of such a counting measurement is an example of an exact number. If we count eggs in a carton, we know *exactly* how many eggs the carton contains. The numbers of defined quantities are also exact. By definition, 1 foot is exactly 12 inches, 1 inch is exactly 2.54 centimeters, and 1 gram is exactly 0.001 kilogram. Quantities derived from measurements other than counting, however, are uncertain to varying extents due to practical limitations of the measurement process used.

Significant Figures in Measurement

The numbers of measured quantities, unlike defined or directly counted quantities, are not exact. To measure the volume of liquid in a graduated cylinder, you should make a reading at the bottom of the meniscus, the lowest point on the curved surface of the liquid.

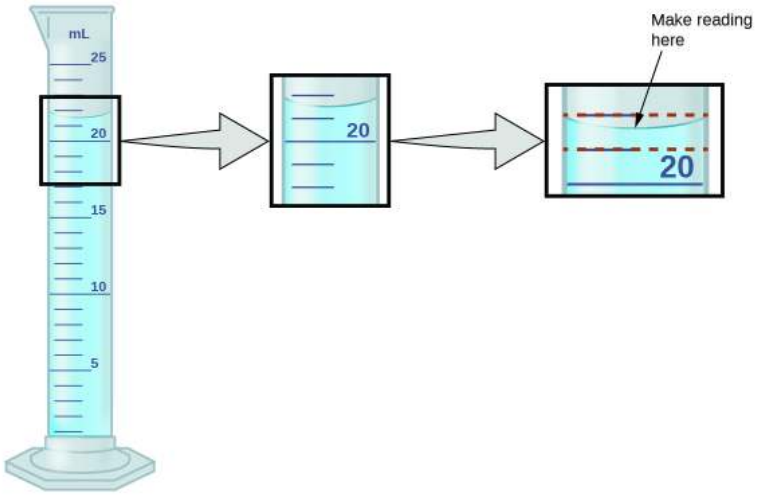
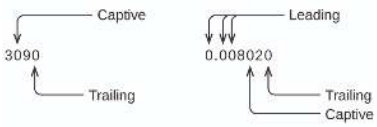


Figure 1.8.1: To measure the volume of liquid in this graduated cylinder, you must mentally subdivide the distance between the 21 and 22 mL marks into tenths of a milliliter, and then make a reading (estimate) at the bottom of the meniscus.

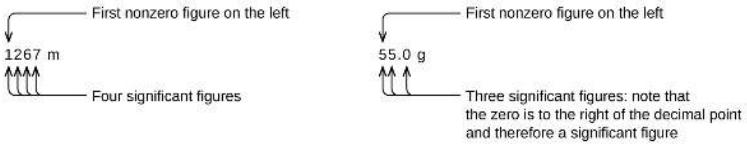
Refer to the illustration in Figure 1.8.1. The bottom of the meniscus in this case clearly lies between the 21 and 22 markings, meaning the liquid volume is *certainly* greater than 21 mL but less than 22 mL. The meniscus appears to be a bit closer to the 22-mL mark than to the 21-mL mark, and so a reasonable estimate of the liquid's volume would be 21.6 mL. In the number 21.6, then, the digits 2 and 1 are certain, but the 6 is an estimate. Some people might estimate the meniscus position to be equally distant from each of the markings and estimate the tenth-place digit as 5, while others may think it to be even closer to the 22-mL mark and estimate this digit to be 7. Note that it would be pointless to attempt to estimate a digit for the hundredths place, given that the tenths-place digit is uncertain. In general, numerical scales such as the one on this graduated cylinder will permit measurements to one-tenth of the smallest scale division. The scale in this case has 1-mL divisions, and so volumes may be measured to the nearest 0.1 mL.

This concept holds true for all measurements, even if you do not actively make an estimate. If you place a quarter on a standard electronic balance, you may obtain a reading of 6.72 g. The digits 6 and 7 are certain, and the 2 indicates that the mass of the quarter is likely between 6.71 and 6.73 grams. The quarter weighs *about* 6.72 grams, with a nominal uncertainty in the measurement of ± 0.01 gram. If we weigh the quarter on a more sensitive balance, we may find that its mass is 6.723 g. This means its mass lies between 6.722 and 6.724 grams, an uncertainty of 0.001 gram. Every measurement has some uncertainty, which depends on the device used (and the user's ability). All of the digits in a measurement, including the uncertain last digit, are called significant figures or significant digits. Note that zero may be a measured value; for example, if you stand on a scale that shows weight to the nearest pound and it shows "120," then the 1 (hundreds), 2 (tens) and 0 (ones) are all significant (measured) values.

Whenever you make a measurement properly, all the digits in the result are significant. But what if you were analyzing a reported value and trying to determine what is significant and what is not? Well, for starters, all nonzero digits are significant, and it is only zeros that require some thought. We will use the terms "leading," "trailing," and "captive" for the zeros and will consider how to deal with them.



Starting with the first nonzero digit on the left, count this digit and all remaining digits to the right. This is the number of significant figures in the measurement unless the last digit is a trailing zero lying to the left of the decimal point.

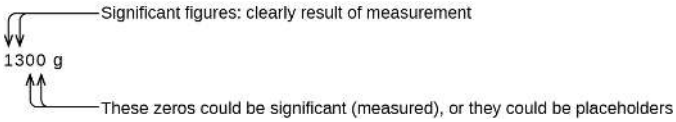


Captive zeros result from measurement and are therefore always significant. Leading zeros, however, are never significant—they merely tell us where the decimal point is located.



The leading zeros in this example are not significant. We could use exponential notation (as described in Appendix B) and express the number as 8.32407×10^{-3}; then the number 8.32407 contains all of the significant figures, and 10^{-3} locates the decimal point.

The number of significant figures is uncertain in a number that ends with a zero to the left of the decimal point location. The zeros in the measurement 1,300 grams could be significant or they could simply indicate where the decimal point is located. The ambiguity can be resolved with the use of exponential notation: 1.3×10^3 (two significant figures), 1.30×10^3 (three significant figures, if the tens place was measured), or 1.300×10^3 (four significant figures, if the ones place was also measured). In cases where only the decimal-formatted number is available, it is prudent to assume that all trailing zeros are not significant.



When determining significant figures, be sure to pay attention to reported values and think about the measurement and significant figures in terms of what is reasonable or likely—that is, whether the value makes sense. For example, the official January 2014 census reported the resident population of the US as 317,297,725. Do you think the US population was correctly determined to the reported nine significant figures, that is, to the exact number of people? People are constantly being born, dying, or moving into or out of the country, and assumptions are made to account for the large number of people who are not actually counted. Because of these uncertainties, it might be more reasonable to expect that we know the population to within perhaps a million or so, in which case the population should be reported as 317 million, or 3.17×10^8 people.

Significant Figures in Calculations

A second important principle of uncertainty is that results calculated from a measurement are at least as uncertain as the measurement itself. We must take the uncertainty in our measurements into account to avoid misrepresenting the uncertainty in calculated results. One way to do this is to report the result of a calculation with the correct number of significant figures, which is determined by the following three rules for rounding numbers:

1. When we add or subtract numbers, we should round the result to the same number of decimal places as the number with the least number of decimal places (the least precise value in terms of addition and subtraction).
2. When we multiply or divide numbers, we should round the result to the same number of digits as the number with the least number of significant figures (the least precise value in terms of multiplication and division).
3. If the digit to be dropped (the one immediately to the right of the digit to be retained) is less than 5, we "round down" and leave the retained digit unchanged; if it is more than 5, we "round up" and increase the retained digit by 1; if the dropped digit *is* 5, we round up or down, whichever yields an even value for the retained digit. (The last part of this rule may strike you as a bit odd, but it's based on reliable statistics and is aimed at avoiding any bias when dropping the digit "5," since it is equally close to both possible values of the retained digit.)

The following examples illustrate the application of this rule in rounding a few different numbers to three significant figures:

- 0.028675 rounds "up" to 0.0287 (the dropped digit, 7, is greater than 5)
- 18.3384 rounds "down" to 18.3 (the dropped digit, 3, is less than 5)
- 6.8752 rounds "up" to 6.88 (the dropped digit is 5, and the retained digit is even)
- 92.85 rounds "down" to 92.8 (the dropped digit is 5, and the retained digit is even)

Let's work through these rules with a few examples.

Example 1.8.1: Rounding Numbers

Round the following to the indicated number of significant figures:

a. 31.57 (to two significant figures)
b. 8.1649 (to three significant figures)
c. 0.051065 (to four significant figures)
d. 0.90275 (to four significant figures)

Solution

a. 31.57 rounds "up" to 32 (the dropped digit is 5, and the retained digit is even)
b. 8.1649 rounds "down" to 8.16 (the dropped digit, 4, is less than 5)
c. 0.051065 rounds "down" to 0.05106 (the dropped digit is 5, and the retained digit is even)
d. 0.90275 rounds "up" to 0.9028 (the dropped digit is 5, and the retained digit is even)

Exercise 1.8.1

Round the following to the indicated number of significant figures:

a. 0.424 (to two significant figures)
b. 0.0038661 (to three significant figures)
c. 421.25 (to four significant figures)
d. 28,683.5 (to five significant figures)

Answer a

0.42

Answer b

0.00387

Answer c

421.2

Answer d

28,684

Example 1.8.2: Addition and Subtraction with Significant Figures Rule:

When we add or subtract numbers, we should round the result to the same number of decimal places as the number with the least number of decimal places (i.e., the least precise value in terms of addition and subtraction).

a. Add 1.0023 g and 4.383 g.
b. Subtract 421.23 g from 486 g.

Solution

(a)

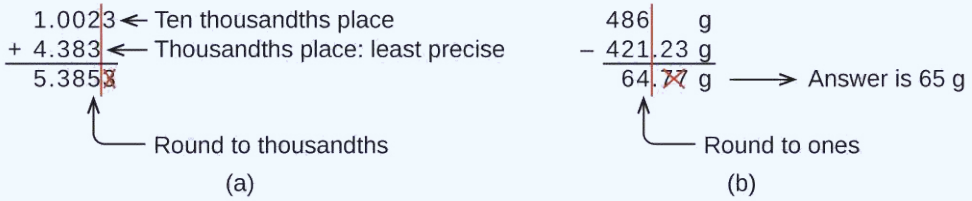
$$\begin{array}{r} 1.0023\ \text{g} \\ +\ 4.383\ \text{g} \\ \hline 5.3853\ \text{g} \end{array}$$

Answer is 5.385 g (round to the thousandths place; three decimal places)

(b)

$$\begin{array}{r} 486\ \text{g} \\ -\ 421.23\ \text{g} \\ \hline 64.77\ \text{g} \end{array}$$

Answer is 65 g (round to the ones place; no decimal places)



Exercise 1.8.2

a. Add 2.334 mL and 0.31 mL.
b. Subtract 55.8752 m from 56.533 m.

Answer a

2.64 mL

Answer b

0.658 m

Example 1.8.3: Multiplication and Division with Significant Figures

Rule: When we multiply or divide numbers, we should round the result to the same number of digits as the number with the least number of significant figures (the least precise value in terms of multiplication and division).

a. Multiply 0.6238 cm by 6.6 cm.
b. Divide 421.23 g by 486 mL.

Solution

(a)

$$0.6238\ \text{cm} \times 6.6\ \text{cm} = 4.11708\ \text{cm}^2 \rightarrow \text{result is } 4.1\ \text{cm}^2\ (\text{round to two significant figures})$$

$$\text{four significant figures} \times \text{two significant figures} \rightarrow \text{two significant figures answer}$$

(b)

$$\frac{421.23\ \text{g}}{486\ \text{mL}} = 0.86728\ldots\ \text{g/mL} \rightarrow \text{result is } 0.867\ \text{g/mL}\ (\text{round to three significant figures})$$

$$\frac{\text{five significant figures}}{\text{three significant figures}} \rightarrow \text{three significant figures answer}$$

Exercise 1.8.3

a. Multiply 2.334 cm and 0.320 cm.
b. Divide 55.8752 m by 56.53 s.

Answer a

0.747 cm^2

Answer b

0.9884 m/s

In the midst of all these technicalities, it is important to keep in mind the reason why we use significant figures and rounding rules—to correctly represent the certainty of the values we report and to ensure that a calculated result is not represented as being more certain than the least certain value used in the calculation.

Example 1.8.4: Calculation with Significant Figures

One common bathtub is 13.44 dm long, 5.920 dm wide, and 2.54 dm deep. Assume that the tub is rectangular and calculate its approximate volume in liters.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} V &= l \times w \times d \\ &= 13.44\ \text{dm} \times 5.920\ \text{dm} \times 2.54\ \text{dm} \\ &= 202.09459\ldots \text{dm}^3\ \text{(value from calculator)} \\ &= 202\ \text{dm}^3\text{, or } 202\ \text{L (answer rounded to three significant figures)} \end{aligned}$$

Exercise 1.8.4: Determination of Density Using Water Displacement

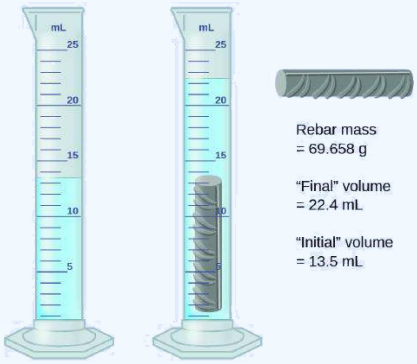
What is the density of a liquid with a mass of 31.1415 g and a volume of 30.13 cm^3?

Answer

1.034 g/mL

Example 1.8.4

A piece of rebar is weighed and then submerged in a graduated cylinder partially filled with water, with results as shown.



a. Use these values to determine the density of this piece of rebar.
b. Rebar is mostly iron. Does your result in (a) support this statement? How?

Solution

The volume of the piece of rebar is equal to the volume of the water displaced:

$$\text{volume} = 22.4\ \text{mL} - 13.5\ \text{mL} = 8.9\ \text{mL} = 8.9\ \text{cm}^3$$

(rounded to the nearest 0.1 mL, per the rule for addition and subtraction)

The density is the mass-to-volume ratio:

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}} = \frac{69.658\ \text{g}}{8.9\ \text{cm}^3} = 7.8\ \text{g/cm}^3$$

(rounded to two significant figures, per the rule for multiplication and division)

The density of iron is 7.9 g/cm^3, very close to that of rebar, which lends some support to the fact that rebar is mostly iron.

Exercise 1.8.4

An irregularly shaped piece of a shiny yellowish material is weighed and then submerged in a graduated cylinder, with results as shown.



a. Use these values to determine the density of this material.
b. Do you have any reasonable guesses as to the identity of this material? Explain your reasoning.

Answer a

19 g/cm^3

Answer b

It is likely gold; it has the right appearance for gold and very close to the density given for gold.

Accuracy and Precision

Scientists typically make repeated measurements of a quantity to ensure the quality of their findings and to know both the precision and the accuracy of their results. Measurements are said to be precise if they yield very similar results when repeated in the same manner. A measurement is considered accurate if it yields a result that is very close to the true or accepted value. Precise values agree with each other; accurate values agree with a true value. These characterizations can be extended to other contexts, such as the results of an archery competition (Figure 1.8.2).

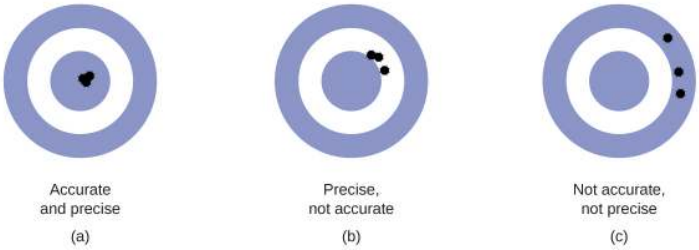


Figure 1.8.2: (a) These arrows are close to both the bull's eye and one another, so they are both accurate and precise. (b) These arrows are close to one another but not on target, so they are precise but not accurate. (c) These arrows are neither on target nor close to one another, so they are neither accurate nor precise.

Suppose a quality control chemist at a pharmaceutical company is tasked with checking the accuracy and precision of three different machines that are meant to dispense 10 ounces (296 mL) of cough syrup into storage bottles. She proceeds to use each machine to fill five bottles and then carefully determines the actual volume dispensed, obtaining the results tabulated in Table 1.8.2.

Table 1.8.2: Volume (mL) of Cough Medicine Delivered by 10-oz (296 mL) Dispensers

Dispenser #1	Dispenser #2	Dispenser #3
283.3	298.3	296.1
284.1	294.2	295.9
283.9	296.0	296.1
284.0	297.8	296.0
284.1	293.9	296.1

Considering these results, she will report that dispenser #1 is precise (values all close to one another, within a few tenths of a milliliter) but not accurate (none of the values are close to the target value of 296 mL, each being more than 10 mL too low). Results for dispenser #2 represent improved accuracy (each volume is less than 3 mL away from 296 mL) but worse precision (volumes vary by more than 4 mL). Finally, she can

report that dispenser #3 is working well, dispensing cough syrup both accurately (all volumes within 0.1 mL of the target volume) and precisely (volumes differing from each other by no more than 0.2 mL).



Figure 1.8.1 (Public Domain; Daniel Arizpe via Commons Wikimedia, High School Basketball Game [commons.wikimedia.org])

How do professional basketball players improve their shooting accuracy?

Basketball is one of those sports where you need to hit the target. A football field goal kicker might have room for some deviation from a straight line – for college and pro football there is an 18 foot 6 inch space for the ball to go through. In basketball, the basket is only 18 inches across and the ball is a little less than 10 inches across – not much room for error. The ball has to be on target in order to go into the basket and score.

Accuracy and Precision

In everyday speech, the terms **accuracy** and **precision** are frequently used interchangeably. However, their scientific meanings are quite different. Accuracy is a measure of how close a measurement is to the correct or accepted value of the quantity being measured. Precision is a measure of how close a series of measurements are to one another. Precise measurements are highly reproducible, even if the measurements are not near the correct value. Darts thrown at a dartboard are helpful in illustrating accuracy and precision.

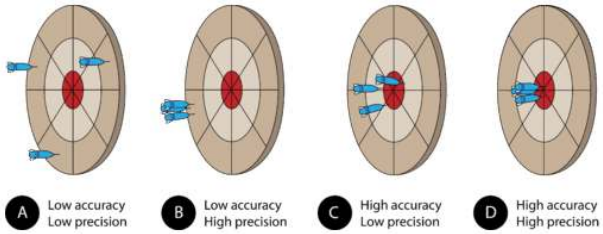


Figure 1.8.2: The distribution of darts on a dartboard shows the difference between accuracy and precision. (CC BY-NC 3.0; Christopher Auyeung via CK-12 Foundation)

Assume that three darts are thrown at the dartboard, with the bulls-eye representing the true, or accepted, value of what is being measured. A dart that hits the bulls-eye is highly accurate, whereas a dart that lands far away from the bulls-eye displays poor accuracy. The figure above demonstrates four possible outcomes:

a. The darts have landed far from each other and far from the bulls-eye. This grouping demonstrates measurements that are neither accurate nor precise.
b. The darts are close to one another, but far from the bulls-eye. This grouping demonstrates measurements that are precise, but not accurate. In a laboratory situation, high precision with low accuracy often results from a systematic error. Either the measurer makes the same mistake repeatedly, or the measuring tool is somehow flawed. A poorly calibrated balance may give the same mass reading every time, but it will be far from the true mass of the object.
c. The darts are not grouped very near to each other, but are generally centered around the bulls-eye. This demonstrates poor precision, but fairly high accuracy. This situation is not desirable in a lab situation because the "high" accuracy may simply be random chance and not a true indicator of good measuring skill.
d. The darts are grouped together and have hit the bulls-eye. This demonstrates high precision and high accuracy. Scientists always strive to maximize both in their measurements.



Figure 1.8.3: Students in a chemistry lab are making careful measurements with a series of volumetric flasks. Accuracy and precision are critical in every experiment. (CK-12 Curriculum Materials license; CK-12 Foundation via CK-12 Foundation)

Summary

- Accuracy is a measure of how close a measurement is to the correct or accepted value of the quantity being measured.
- Precision is a measure of how close a series of measurements are to one another.

Review

1. Define accuracy.
2. Define precision.
3. What can be said about the reproducibility of precise values?

Summary

Quantities can be exact or measured. Measured quantities have an associated uncertainty that is represented by the number of significant figures in the measurement. The uncertainty of a calculated value depends on the uncertainties in the values used in the calculation and is reflected in how the value is rounded. Measured values can be accurate (close to the true value) and/or precise (showing little variation when measured repeatedly).

Glossary

uncertainty
estimate of amount by which measurement differs from true value

significant figures
(also, significant digits) all of the measured digits in a determination, including the uncertain last digit

rounding
procedure used to ensure that calculated results properly reflect the uncertainty in the measurements used in the calculation

precision
how closely a measurement matches the same measurement when repeated

exact number
number derived by counting or by definition

accuracy
how closely a measurement aligns with a correct value

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1.9: Solving Chemical Problems

Learning Objectives

- Explain the dimensional analysis (factor label) approach to mathematical calculations involving quantities.
- Describe how to use dimensional analysis to carry out unit conversions for a given property and computations involving two or more properties.
- Convert between the three main temperature units: Fahrenheit, Celsius, and Kelvin.

It is often the case that a quantity of interest may not be easy (or even possible) to measure directly but instead must be calculated from other directly measured properties and appropriate mathematical relationships. For example, consider measuring the average speed of an athlete running sprints. This is typically accomplished by measuring the *time* required for the athlete to run from the starting line to the finish line, and the *distance* between these two lines, and then computing *speed* from the equation that relates these three properties:

$$\text{speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}}$$

An Olympic-quality sprinter can run 100 m in approximately 10 s, corresponding to an average speed of

$$\frac{100\ \text{m}}{10\ \text{s}} = 10\ \text{m/s}$$

Note that this simple arithmetic involves dividing the numbers of each measured quantity to yield the number of the computed quantity (100/10 = 10) *and likewise* dividing the units of each measured quantity to yield the unit of the computed quantity (m/s = m/s). Now, consider using this same relation to predict the time required for a person running at this speed to travel a distance of 25 m. The same relation between the three properties is used, but in this case, the two quantities provided are a speed (10 m/s) and a distance (25 m). To yield the sought property, time, the equation must be rearranged appropriately:

$$\text{time} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{speed}}$$

The time can then be computed as:

$$\frac{25\ \text{m}}{10\ \text{m/s}} = 2.5\ \text{s}$$

Again, arithmetic on the numbers (25/10 = 2.5) was accompanied by the same arithmetic on the units (m/m/s = s) to yield the number and unit of the result, 2.5 s. Note that, just as for numbers, when a unit is divided by an identical unit (in this case, m/m), the result is "1"—or, as commonly phrased, the units "cancel."

These calculations are examples of a versatile mathematical approach known as dimensional analysis (or the factor-label method). Dimensional analysis is based on this premise: *the units of quantities must be subjected to the same mathematical operations as their associated numbers*. This method can be applied to computations ranging from simple unit conversions to more complex, multi-step calculations involving several different quantities.

Conversion Factors and Dimensional Analysis

A ratio of two equivalent quantities expressed with different measurement units can be used as a unit conversion factor. For example, the lengths of 2.54 cm and 1 in. are equivalent (by definition), and so a unit conversion factor may be derived from the ratio,

$$\frac{2.54\ \text{cm}}{1\ \text{in.}}\ (2.54\ \text{cm} = 1\ \text{in.}\ ) \text{ or } 2.54\ \frac{\text{cm}}{\text{in.}}$$

Several other commonly used conversion factors are given in Table 1.9.1.

Table 1.9.1: Common Conversion Factors

Length	Volume	Mass
1 m = 1.0936 yd	1 L = 1.0567 qt	1 kg = 2.2046 lb
1 in. = 2.54 cm (exact)	1 qt = 0.94635 L	1 lb = 453.59 g
1 km = 0.62137 mi	1 ft^3 = 28.317 L	1 (avoirdupois) oz = 28.349 g
1 mi = 1609.3 m	1 tbsp = 14.787 mL	1 (troy) oz = 31.103 g

When we multiply a quantity (such as distance given in inches) by an appropriate unit conversion factor, we convert the quantity to an equivalent value with different units (such as distance in centimeters). For example, a basketball player's vertical jump of 34 inches can be converted to centimeters by:

$$34\ \cancel{\text{in.}} \times \frac{2.54\ \text{cm}}{1\ \cancel{\text{in.}}} = 86\ \text{cm}$$

Since this simple arithmetic involves *quantities*, the premise of dimensional analysis requires that we multiply both *numbers and units*. The numbers of these two quantities are multiplied to yield the number of the product quantity, 86, whereas the units are multiplied to yield

$$\frac{\text{in.} \times \text{cm}}{\text{in.}}.$$

Just as for numbers, a ratio of identical units is also numerically equal to one,

$$\frac{\text{in.}}{\text{in.}} = 1$$

and the unit product thus simplifies to *cm*. (When identical units divide to yield a factor of 1, they are said to "cancel.") Using dimensional analysis, we can determine that a unit conversion factor has been set up correctly by checking to confirm that the original unit will cancel, and the result will contain the sought (converted) unit.

Example 1.9.1: Using a Unit Conversion Factor

The mass of a competition Frisbee is 125 g. Convert its mass to ounces using the unit conversion factor derived from the relationship 1 oz = 28.349 g (Table 1.9.1).

Solution

If we have the conversion factor, we can determine the mass in kilograms using an equation similar the one used for converting length from inches to centimeters.

$$x\ \text{oz} = 125\ \text{g} \times \text{unit conversion factor}$$

We write the unit conversion factor in its two forms:

$$\frac{1\ \text{oz}}{28.349\ \text{g}} \text{ and } \frac{28.349\ \text{g}}{1\ \text{oz}}$$

The correct unit conversion factor is the ratio that cancels the units of grams and leaves ounces.

$$\begin{aligned} x \text{ oz} &= 125 \text{ g} \times \frac{1 \text{ oz}}{28.349 \text{ g}} \\ &= \left(\frac{125}{28.349}\right) \text{ oz} \\ &= 4.41 \text{ oz (three significant figures)} \end{aligned}$$

? Exercise 1.9.1

Convert a volume of 9.345 qt to liters.

Answer

8.844 L

Beyond simple unit conversions, the factor-label method can be used to solve more complex problems involving computations. Regardless of the details, the basic approach is the same—all the *factors* involved in the calculation must be appropriately oriented to insure that their *labels* (units) will appropriately cancel and/or combine to yield the desired unit in the result. This is why it is referred to as the factor-label method. As your study of chemistry continues, you will encounter many opportunities to apply this approach.

✓ Example 1.9.2: Computing Quantities from Measurement Results

What is the density of common antifreeze in units of g/mL? A 4.00-qt sample of the antifreeze weighs 9.26 lb.

Solution

Since density $= \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$, we need to divide the mass in grams by the volume in milliliters. In general: the number of units of B = the number of units of A $\times$ unit conversion factor. The necessary conversion factors are given in Table 1.7.1: 1 lb = 453.59 g; 1 L = 1.0567 qt; 1 L = 1,000 mL. We can convert mass from pounds to grams in one step:

$$9.26 \text{ lb} \times \frac{453.59 \text{ g}}{1 \text{ lb}} = 4.20 \times 10^3 \text{ g}$$

We need to use two steps to convert volume from quarts to milliliters.

1. *Convert quarts to liters.*

$$4.00 \text{ qt} \times \frac{1 \text{ L}}{1.0567 \text{ qt}} = 3.78 \text{ L}$$

2. *Convert liters to milliliters.*

$$3.78 \text{ L} \times \frac{1000 \text{ mL}}{1 \text{ L}} = 3.78 \times 10^3 \text{ mL}$$

Then,

$$\text{density} = \frac{4.20 \times 10^3 \text{ g}}{3.78 \times 10^3 \text{ mL}} = 1.11 \text{ g/mL}$$

Alternatively, the calculation could be set up in a way that uses three unit conversion factors sequentially as follows:

$$\frac{9.26 \text{ lb}}{4.00 \text{ qt}} \times \frac{453.59 \text{ g}}{1 \text{ lb}} \times \frac{1.0567 \text{ qt}}{1 \text{ L}} \times \frac{1 \text{ L}}{1000 \text{ mL}} = 1.11 \text{ g/mL}$$

? Exercise 1.9.2

What is the volume in liters of 1.000 oz, given that 1 L = 1.0567 qt and 1 qt = 32 oz (exactly)?

Answer

2.956×10^{-2} L

✓ Example 1.9.3: Computing Quantities from Measurement Results

While being driven from Philadelphia to Atlanta, a distance of about 1250 km, a 2014 Lamborghini Aventador Roadster uses 213 L gasoline.

a. What (average) fuel economy, in miles per gallon, did the Roadster get during this trip?
b. If gasoline costs $3.80 per gallon, what was the fuel cost for this trip?

Solution

(a) We first convert distance from kilometers to miles:

$$1250 \text{ km} \times \frac{0.62137 \text{ mi}}{1 \text{ km}} = 777 \text{ mi}$$

and then convert volume from liters to gallons:

$$213 \text{ L} \times \frac{1.0567 \text{ qt}}{1 \text{ L}} \times \frac{1 \text{ gal}}{4 \text{ qt}} = 56.3 \text{ gal}$$

Then,

$$\text{(average) mileage} = \frac{777 \text{ mi}}{56.3 \text{ gal}} = 13.8 \text{ miles/gallon} = 13.8 \text{ mpg}$$

Alternatively, the calculation could be set up in a way that uses all the conversion factors sequentially, as follows:

$$\frac{1250 \text{ km}}{213 \text{ L}} \times \frac{0.62137 \text{ mi}}{1 \text{ km}} \times \frac{1 \text{ L}}{1.0567 \text{ qt}} \times \frac{4 \text{ qt}}{1 \text{ gal}} = 13.8 \text{ mpg}$$

(b) Using the previously calculated volume in gallons, we find:

$$56.3 \text{ gal} \times \frac{\$3.80}{1 \text{ gal}} = \$214$$

? Exercise 1.9.3

A Toyota Prius Hybrid uses 59.7 L gasoline to drive from San Francisco to Seattle, a distance of 1300 km (two significant digits).

a. What (average) fuel economy, in miles per gallon, did the Prius get during this trip?
b. If gasoline costs $3.90 per gallon, what was the fuel cost for this trip?

Answer a

51 mpg

Answer b

$62

Conversion of Temperature Units

We use the word temperature to refer to the hotness or coldness of a substance. One way we measure a change in temperature is to use the fact that most substances expand when their temperature increases and contract when their temperature decreases. The mercury or alcohol in a common glass thermometer changes its volume as the temperature changes. Because the volume of the liquid changes more than the volume of the glass, we can see the liquid expand when it gets warmer and contract when it gets cooler.

To mark a scale on a thermometer, we need a set of reference values: Two of the most commonly used are the freezing and boiling temperatures of water at a specified atmospheric pressure. On the Celsius scale, 0 °C is defined as the freezing temperature of water and 100 °C as the boiling temperature of water. The space between the two temperatures is divided into 100 equal intervals, which we call degrees. On the Fahrenheit scale, the freezing point of water is defined as 32 °F and the boiling temperature as 212 °F. The space between these two points on a Fahrenheit thermometer is divided into 180 equal parts (degrees).

Defining the Celsius and Fahrenheit temperature scales as described in the previous paragraph results in a slightly more complex relationship between temperature values on these two scales than for different units of measure for other properties. Most measurement units for a given property are directly proportional to one another (y = mx). Using familiar length units as one example:

$$\text{length in feet} = \left(\frac{1 \text{ ft}}{12 \text{ in.}}\right) \times \text{length in inches}$$

where

- y = length in feet,
- x = length in inches, and
- the proportionality constant, m, is the conversion factor.

The Celsius and Fahrenheit temperature scales, however, do not share a common zero point, and so the relationship between these two scales is a linear one rather than a proportional one ($y = mx + b$). Consequently, converting a temperature from one of these scales into the other requires more than simple multiplication by a conversion factor, m, it also must take into account differences in the scales' zero points (b).

The linear equation relating Celsius and Fahrenheit temperatures is easily derived from the two temperatures used to define each scale. Representing the Celsius temperature as x and the Fahrenheit temperature as y, the slope, m, is computed to be:

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \\ &= \frac{212 \text{ °F} - 32 \text{ °F}}{100 \text{ °C} - 0 \text{ °C}} \\ &= \frac{180 \text{ °F}}{100 \text{ °C}} \\ &= \frac{9 \text{ °F}}{5 \text{ °C}} \end{aligned}$$

The y-intercept of the equation, b, is then calculated using either of the equivalent temperature pairs, (100 °C, 212 °F) or (0 °C, 32 °F), as:

$$\begin{aligned} b &= y - mx \\ &= 32 \text{ °F} - \frac{9 \text{ °F}}{5 \text{ °C}} \times 0 \text{ °C} \\ &= 32 \text{ °F} \end{aligned}$$

The equation relating the temperature scales is then:

$$T_{\text{°F}} = \left(\frac{9 \text{ °F}}{5 \text{ °C}} \times T_{\text{°C}}\right) + 32 \text{ °C}$$

An abbreviated form of this equation that omits the measurement units is:

$$T_{\text{°F}} = \frac{9}{5} \times T_{\text{°C}} + 32$$

Rearrangement of this equation yields the form useful for converting from Fahrenheit to Celsius:

$$T_{\text{°C}} = \frac{5}{9}(T_{\text{°F}} + 32)$$

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the SI unit of temperature is the kelvin (K). Unlike the Celsius and Fahrenheit scales, the kelvin scale is an absolute temperature scale in which 0 (zero) K corresponds to the lowest temperature that can theoretically be achieved. The early 19th-century discovery of the relationship between a gas's volume and temperature suggested that the volume of a gas would be zero at −273.15 °C. In 1848, British physicist William Thompson, who later adopted the title of Lord Kelvin, proposed an absolute temperature scale based on this concept (further treatment of this topic is provided in this text's chapter on gases).

The freezing temperature of water on this scale is 273.15 K and its boiling temperature 373.15 K. Notice the numerical difference in these two reference temperatures is 100, the same as for the Celsius scale, and so the linear relation between these two temperature scales will exhibit a slope of $1 \frac{\text{K}}{\text{°C}}$. Following the same approach, the equations for converting between the kelvin and Celsius temperature scales are derived to be:

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

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

The 273.15 in these equations has been determined experimentally, so it is not exact. Figure 1.9.1 shows the relationship among the three temperature scales. Recall that we do not use the degree sign with temperatures on the kelvin scale.

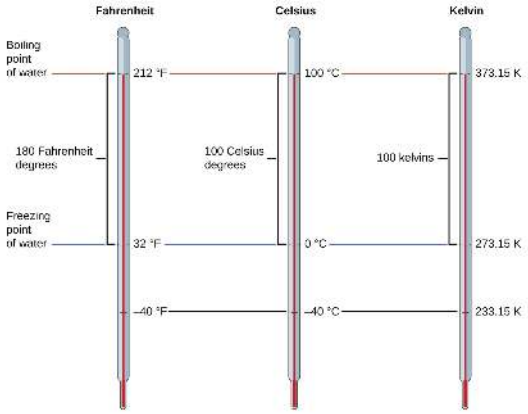


Figure 1.9.1: The Fahrenheit, Celsius, and kelvin temperature scales are compared.

Although the kelvin (absolute) temperature scale is the official SI temperature scale, Celsius is commonly used in many scientific contexts and is the scale of choice for nonscience contexts in almost all areas of the world. Very few countries (the U.S. and its territories, the Bahamas, Belize, Cayman Islands, and Palau) still use Fahrenheit for weather, medicine, and cooking.

Example 1.9.4: Conversion from Celsius

Normal body temperature has been commonly accepted as 37.0 °C (although it varies depending on time of day and method of measurement, as well as among individuals). What is this temperature on the kelvin scale and on the Fahrenheit scale?

Solution

$$\mathrm{K} = {}^\circ\mathrm{C} + 273.15 = 37.0 + 273.2 = 310.2\ \mathrm{K}$$

$${}^\circ\mathrm{F} = \frac{9}{5}\,{}^\circ\mathrm{C} + 32.0 = \left(\frac{9}{5} \times 37.0\right) + 32.0 = 66.6 + 32.0 = 98.6\ {}^\circ\mathrm{F}$$

Exercise 1.9.4

Convert 80.92 °C to K and °F.

Answer

354.07 K, 177.7 °F

Example 1.9.5: Conversion from Fahrenheit

Baking a ready-made pizza calls for an oven temperature of 450 °F. If you are in Europe, and your oven thermometer uses the Celsius scale, what is the setting? What is the kelvin temperature?

Solution

$${}^\circ\mathrm{C} = \frac{5}{9}({}^\circ\mathrm{F} - 32) = \frac{5}{9}(450 - 32) = \frac{5}{9} \times 418 = 232{}^\circ\mathrm{C} \rightarrow \text{set oven to } 230{}^\circ\mathrm{C} \quad \text{(two significant figures)}$$

$$\mathrm{K} = {}^\circ\mathrm{C} + 273.15 = 230 + 273 = 503\ \mathrm{K} \rightarrow 5.0 \times 10^2\ \mathrm{K} \quad \text{(two significant figures)}$$

Exercise 1.9.5

Convert 50 °F to °C and K.

Answer

10 °C, 280 K

Summary

Measurements are made using a variety of units. It is often useful or necessary to convert a measured quantity from one unit into another. These conversions are accomplished using unit conversion factors, which are derived by simple applications of a mathematical approach called the factor-label method or dimensional analysis. This strategy is also employed to calculate sought quantities using measured quantities and appropriate mathematical relations.

Key Equations

- $T_{^\circ\mathrm{C}} = \frac{5}{9} \times T_{^\circ\mathrm{F}} - 32$
- $T_{^\circ\mathrm{F}} = \frac{9}{5} \times T_{^\circ\mathrm{C}} + 32$
- $T_{\mathrm{K}} = {}^\circ\mathrm{C} + 273.15$
- $T_{^\circ\mathrm{C}} = \mathrm{K} - 273.15$

Glossary

dimensional analysis
(also, factor-label method) versatile mathematical approach that can be applied to computations ranging from simple unit conversions to more complex, multi-step calculations involving several different quantities

Fahrenheit
unit of temperature; water freezes at 32 °F and boils at 212 °F on this scale

unit conversion factor
ratio of equivalent quantities expressed with different units; used to convert from one unit to a different unit

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1.10: Matter, Measurement, and Problem Solving (Exercises)

Template:HideTOC

These are homework exercises to accompany the Textmap created for Chemistry: A Molecular Approach by Nivaldo Tro. Complementary General Chemistry question banks can be found for other Textmaps and can be accessed here. In addition to these publicly available questions, access to private problems bank for use in exams and homework is available to faculty only on an individual basis; please contact Delmar Larsen for an account with access permission.

Q1.36

Determine whether the mixtures are Homogeneous or Heterogeneous. State whether it is a compound or pure substance?

a. Mud and Water
b. Salt and water
c. Chicken noodle soup
d. Gold
e. H_2O

Strategy

- Homogeneous: mixtures are uniformly distributed, easily dissolved, of a single phase, also they are easily dispersed through the membrane.
- Heterogeneous: mixtures are unequally distributed, do not dissolve in water, and could be of different phases. A pure substance: has a definite and constant composition, it can be a compound or and element.
- A element: is composed of a single atom.
- A compound is composed of two or more elements. For example, H_2O is a ratio of two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom to form H_2O. So with this strategy you can solve the following question.

a. Mud and Water: Heterogeneous mixture
b. Salt and water: Homogeneous mixture
c. Chicken noodle soup: Heterogeneous mixture
d. Gold: (element)
e. H_2O: Compound

Q1.37

Classify each substance as a pure substance or a mixture. If it is a pure substance, classify it as an element or a compound. If it is a mixture, classify it as homogeneous or heterogeneous.

a. Plain yogurt
b. Chicken noodle soup
c. Titanium
d. Table salt

What we know:

- A pure substance is made up of only one type of particle.
- A mixture is a substance composed of two or more particles.
- An element is a substance that cannot be chemically broken down into simpler substances.
- A compound is a substance composed of two or more elements.
- A heterogeneous mixture is one in which the composition varies from one region of the mixture to another.
- A homogeneous mixture is one with the same composition throughout.

Solution

a. mixture, homogeneous
b. mixture, heterogeneous
c. pure substance, element
d. pure substance, compound

Q1.38

Classify Each statement as an Observation, Theory, or Law.

a. All matter that exists is made up of Submicroscopic particles known as atoms.
b. If an iron rod is placed in a closed container and it rusts, the mass of the container and its contents do not change.
c. Matter is neither created nor destroyed
d. When a candle is burned, heat is released

Strategy

You need to understand what an Observation, Theory or law is before you classify it in the question.

- *Observation*: An outcome of events that is being viewed
- *Theory*: Preserved explanation for observations and laws
- *Law*: Summarizes past observations and predicts future ones

Now that we have defined them, we need to apply it to the question (AnswerS IN BOLD)

a. This statement is proposing all matter is made up of atoms so it would become a **theory** because it is an idea that studies propose is true.
b. This statement is saying, without matter being added to the container, As you See it rust, the mass doesn't change so this is assumed by **Observation.**
c. This statement is called the Law of conservation of mass, so because this is true, the statement is a **Law.**
d. If you are looking at a candle and see the flame, then you should understand that heat is being released. You tell this from **Observation**.

Q1.39

The length of a Nickel coin is measured using a ruler with markings at every 0.1 mm. What is the correct measurement report for the Nickel?

What We Know: According to the US government, the size of a Nickel is 0.835 inches or 21.21 mm

What It's Asking For: Using significant figures, determine the correct measurement of the Nickel.

Strategy: Every digit in a scientific measurement is certain except for the last digit. Unless stated otherwise, the last digit is estimated with an uncertainty of +/- 1.

Solution:

a. **21.21 mm**
b. 21.2 mm
c. 21 mm

Q1.40

When measuring the mass of a cat that weighs around 4530 g that is placed on a scale that has markings at every 0.01 kg, which is the correct measurement reported on this scale?

a. 4.5 kg
b. 4.53 kg
c. 5 kg
d. 4.534 kg

Strategy:

First you have to convert grams to kg because the scale is measured in kg. Once it is concerted to kg, you have to remember that when reading a scale, you need to read on sig fig past where the markings read.

$$4534\ \cancel{g}\left(\frac{1\ kg}{1000\ \cancel{g}}\right) = 4.53\ kg \tag{1.10.1}$$

The grams will cross out to leave you with kg as the units. Since the the scale reads to the 0.01 kg, it would read as a clear marking at 4.53, and you would estimate the next number at the 0.001 kg. That being said the only answer that reads to that is D) 4.534 kg.

Q1.41

A silver picture frame displaces 0.454 L of water and has a mass of 2.78 kg. Calculate the density of the silver in g/cm^3.

Strategy

A. Convert L to cm^3 using dimensional analysis and conversion factors.

$$0.454\ L\left(\frac{1,000\ mL}{1\ L}\right)\left(\frac{1cm^3}{1\ mL}\right)=454cm^3 \tag{1.10.2}$$

B. Convert kg to g using dimensional analysis and conversion factors.

$$2.78\ kg\left(\frac{1,000\ g}{1\ kg}\right)=2,780\ g \tag{1.10.3}$$

C. Calculate the density ρ.

$$\rho=\frac{m}{V} \tag{1.10.4}$$

$$\rho=\frac{2,780g}{454cm^3} \tag{1.10.5}$$

$$\rho=6.12\frac{g}{cm^3} \tag{1.10.6}$$

Q1.42

The density of liquid gold (Au) is 19.3g/cm^3.

a. If given a volume of 450 mL of this liquid, what is the mass?
b. If given a mass of 24.4 kg of this liquid, what is its volume in L?

Solutions For Part a:

First, we must start with how to approach the problem.

1. We are given the density. So we must recall the formula we learned this year for density.

Density= Mass(g)/ Volume(mL)

2. Part a of the question asks for us to solve for the mass. Therefore, we must rearrange the previous equation and solve for mass. We do this by multiplying both side by volume. This leaves you with the following equation:

Mass(g)= Density(g/mL) x Volume(mL)

3. Before plugging in all of our data into this equation we must make sure that all of our units match up in order to be able to perform demensional analysis. We see that the density is given to us in g/cm^3 however, we are given a volume of liquid in mL. Therefore we must convert cm^3 to mL. We must recall that 1mL=1cm^3. This makes our conversion very simple:

1g/cm^3= 1g/mL

19.3g/cm^3= 19.3g/mL

4. Now that all of our units are in alignment we can go ahead and plug all of our data into the equation solved for mass and solve the problem. Our density is 19.3 g/mL and our volume is 450 mL. When we multiply these two numbers we get an answer of 8685. Our units also end up cancelling out because we have 1/mL x mL. This leaves us with grams on the top of the equation. Our answer is then 8685 g. We are not finished yet because we have to take into account significant figures. The rule for multiplication is that there are as many significant figures in the answer as there are in the value in the equation with the least number of significant figures. In this problem, this is 450, having two significant figures. Therefore, our final answer will also have two significant figures. Since our number is 8685, we round up to 8700 giving us only two significant figures and our final answer of 8700 g.

m = D x V

$$m = 19.3 g/mL \times 450 mL$$

$$m = 8685 g$$

$$m = 8700 g$$

Solutions For part b:

1. We are given the mass and density and are asked to solve for the volume. So we must again recall the formula of density and rearrange it, in order that it will solve for volume. We do this by multiplying both sides of the equation by volume. Once this is done, in order to isolate volume on one side of the equation we divide both sides of the equation by density to leave us with an equation solved for volume.

$$D(g/mL) = m(g) / V(mL)$$

$$D \times V = m$$

$$V = m / D$$

2. Now that we have an equation that solves for what we want, we now need to look at our units. We are given the mass in kilograms and the density in g/cm^3. First we must convert kilograms to grams in order that when we divide. The two will cancel each other out when we divide and this will leave us with volume in the units of milliliters. Then we must convert g/cm^3 to g/mL.

Hints:

$$1 cm^3 = 1mL$$

$$1000 g = 1kg$$

Solution:

$$24.4kg \times 1000g / 1kg = 24400g$$

$$1cm^3 = 1mL$$

$$19.3 g/cm^3 = 19.3 g/mL$$

3. We now have all of our units in line and we are able to plug in the values into the equation and solve for volume.

$$V = m / D$$

$$V = 24400 g / 19.3 g/mL$$

$$V = 1264.2487mL$$

4. In order to complete this problem we have two last steps. The first thing we must take into account after doing division is significant figures. The rule for significant figures when dividing is that the answer will have as many significant figures as the number in the problem with the least amount of significant figures. So we must find the number with the least amount of sig figs and then apply this number to our final answer

Hints

- trailing zeros do not count as significant figures
- -5 and above rounds up, 4 and below rounds down

Solution

$$V = m / D = 24400/19.3 = 1264.2487$$

$$= 1260 mL$$

5. Our last step in the problem is to make sure our answer is what the question is asking for. when we go back and look at the problem, it asks for us to solve for the volume in Liters. By looking at our dimensional analysis, we end up with volume in milliliters. We must convert this to Liters an then our answer will be complete.

Hint: 1000mL= 1L

Solution:

$$*1260 mL \times 1L / 1000 mL = 1.26 Liters*$$

Q1.43

a. Sodium Hypochlorite (bleach) has a density of 1.11 g/cm^3 and a volume of 48.21 mL, what is the mass?
b. What is the volume of 8.31 g of bleach?

Use the correct units in your answers.

Answers

a. m= 53.51g
b. V= 7.49mL

Strategy for part A

1. Recognize the equation for density is density (d) equals mass (m) divided by volume (V)

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} \tag{1.10.7}$$

2. Plug in the provided information from the question above

$$1.11\ g/cm^3 = \frac{m}{48.21\ ml} \tag{1.10.8}$$

3. Convert cm^3 into mL using the conversion factor 1 cm^3=1 mL, these units should then cancel each other out leaving only grams as the unit.

4.Now solve for m.

$$m = 53.51\ g \tag{1.10.9}$$

Strategy for part B

1. Use the density formula from part a to plug in the information given in the question above

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} \tag{1.10.10}$$

2. Plug in the values from the question above

$$1.11\ g/cm^3 = \frac{8.31\ g}{V} \tag{1.10.11}$$

3. To get volume in mL, convert cm^3 to mL use the conversion factor 1 cm^3= 1 mL.

4. Solve for V

$$V = 7.49\ mL \tag{1.10.12}$$

Q1.44

A ship has a fuel tank that can hold 900 L of gasoline. The fuel has a density of 0.0432 g/cm^3. How much weight is the ship carrying in fuel?

Strategy

First, you want to look at what the problem has given you. Look at the units and determine if you have been given the density, the mass, or the volume. Also, check to see if any of the units need to be converted to match the units of the density formula. Then you are going to plug the numbers you have into the formula and solve for what is being asked for.

Solving

The problem has given us the volume and the density of the gasoline, so now we must solve for the mass of the fuel. First, we must make sure that none of the numbers need to be converted to different units, but they do! The 900 L needs to be converted to cm^3. First we must convert L to mL.

$$900\ \cancel{L} = \frac{1000\ ml}{1\ \cancel{L}} \tag{1.10.13}$$

which gives us 900,000 mL. Now mL=cm^3 so you do not need to convert for that. So now we have 900000 cm^3 and we can plug all our numbers into the density formula. The density formula is

$$\rho = \frac{mass}{volume} \tag{1.10.14}$$

However, since we are looking for the mass we will switch the formula around and use it in this manner

$$Mass = Density * Volume \tag{1.10.15}$$

So now we will plug our values into the second formula

$$Mass = \left(0.432 g/cm^3\right) * \left(900000 cm^3\right) \tag{1.10.16}$$

After the cm^3 cancel each other out, we are left with 3.8×10^4 grams of gasoline.

Q1.45

A children's cough syrup contains 25.0mg of Benzocaine (a numbing agent) per 5.00 milliliters of syrup. The bottle instructs a parent to give a max of 5.00mg per kilogram of body weight per day. How many mL of the cough syrup can a 32.0 lb toddler take in one day?

Strategy

What do we know?

1. The cough syrup is concentrated at 25.0mg Benzocaine per 5.0 mL ► 25.0mg/5mL. We can divide by 5 to simplify this ratio so we know how many mL contain 5.0mg, the recommended per kg dose. ► 5.0mg/1mL
2. The recommended maximum dose is 5.0mg per kilogram of the child's weight. ► 5.0mg/kg

What are we trying to find?

- The amount of mL needed to supply 5mg per kilogram of body weight.
- Child's weight in kg

Since the ratio of Benzocaine to kilogram of weight is 5:1, we can find the weight in kilograms and use dimensional analysis to find the correct ratio.

Solving:

A To convert, we can use dimensional analysis. Remember that each "fraction" represents a ratio of two things to each other. In order for dimensional analysis to work, units for the given information have to match the units in the denominator of the ratio to the right of it. (Think of it this way, we cant divide apples by oranges!)

$$32\ lb \cdot \frac{1lb}{2.204kg} = 14.519\ kg \tag{1.10.17}$$

B When calculating sig figs, we round our answer at the end. We are going to use this number in our dimensional analysis question.

C Using dimensional analysis, we can multiply the weight by the ratio of Benzocaine per kg. The kg unit cancels because it is present both as a numerator and denominator. Cancelling them is equivalent to simplifying them to an implied 1. The units on the far right should be the answer we are looking for.

$$14.519kg \cdot \frac{5mL}{1kg} = 72.595mL \tag{1.10.18}$$

Answer: The child can take a maximum of 72.6mL of the cough syrup.

Q1.46

Classify each substance as a pure substance or a mixture. If it is a pure substance, classify it as an element or compound. If it is a mixture, classify it as homogenous or heterogeneous.

a. tears
b. lithium hydroxide

c. gold
d. bowl of chili

Strategy

A. You must know the difference between a:

1. *pure substance* - A substance that is made up of only one type of atom or molecule.
2. *mixture* - A material system made up of two or more different substances that are mixed but not combined together chemically.

B. You must know the difference between:

1. *element* - Cannot be broken down into simpler substances.
2. *compound* - Substance formed when two or more chemical elements are bonded together chemically and can be broken down into simpler substances.
3. *homogeneous* - Mixture that has a uniform composition and properties throughout (cannot see ingredients)
4. *heterogeneous* - Mixture that remains physically separated throughout (can see ingredients)

C. Label either pure substance or mixture
D. Label each pure substance as either an element or compound and each mixture as either homogeneous or heterogeneous.

Solution

a. *homogeneous mixture*
b. *pure compound*
c. *pure element*
d. *heterogeneous mixture*

Q1.47

A household receives a $125 electricity bill. The cost of electricity is $0.150 /kWh. How much energy, in joules (J), did the household use? $\2.78 \times 10^{-7}$ kWh = 1 J

Strategy

Step 1: You must first multiply the total cost of the bill ($125) by 1 kWh and then divide that answer by the cost of each kW ($0.150 kWh). You should end up with an equation that looks like this:

$$(\$125) \times \frac{1\ kWh}{0.150\ kWh}$$

Step 2: Once you do this math, then you should receive the answer of 833.33 kWh. This is the number of kWh used during the billing cycle.

Step 3: Next, you will then take your solution found during step 1 and multiply it by $\frac{1J}{2.78 \times 10^{-7} kWh}$ in order to convert kWh to J. You should have the equation:

$$(833.33kWh) \times \frac{1J}{2.78 \cdot 10^{-7} kWh}$$

Step 4: After completing step 3, you should receive an answer of

$$3.0 \times 10^{9} J$$

Step 5: YOU ARE FINISHED!

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

2: Atoms and Elements

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2.1: Brownian Motion - Evidence for Atoms

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the basic structure of the atom, the substructure of all matter.

How do we know that atoms are really there if we cannot see them with our eyes? A brief account of the progression from the proposal of atoms by the Greeks to the first direct evidence of their existence follows.

People have long speculated about the structure of matter and the existence of atoms. The earliest significant ideas to survive are due to the ancient Greeks in the fifth century BCE, especially those of the philosophers Leucippus and Democritus. (There is some evidence that philosophers in both India and China made similar speculations, at about the same time.) They considered the question of whether a substance can be divided without limit into ever smaller pieces. There are only a few possible answers to this question. One is that infinitesimally small subdivision is possible. Another is what Democritus in particular believed—that there is a smallest unit that cannot be further subdivided. Democritus called this the atom. We now know that atoms themselves can be subdivided, but their identity is destroyed in the process, so the Greeks were correct in a respect. The Greeks also felt that atoms were in constant motion, another correct notion.

The Greeks and others speculated about the properties of atoms, proposing that only a few types existed and that all matter was formed as various combinations of these types. The famous proposal that the basic elements were earth, air, fire, and water was brilliant, but incorrect. The Greeks had identified the most common examples of the four states of matter (solid, gas, plasma, and liquid), rather than the basic elements. More than 2000 years passed before observations could be made with equipment capable of revealing the true nature of atoms.

Over the centuries, discoveries were made regarding the properties of substances and their chemical reactions. Certain systematic features were recognized, but similarities between common and rare elements resulted in efforts to transmute them (lead into gold, in particular) for financial gain. Secrecy was endemic. Alchemists discovered and rediscovered many facts but did not make them broadly available. As the Middle Ages ended, alchemy gradually faded, and the science of chemistry arose. It was no longer possible, nor considered desirable, to keep discoveries secret. Collective knowledge grew, and by the beginning of the 19th century, an important fact was well established—the masses of reactants in specific chemical reactions always have a particular mass ratio. This is very strong indirect evidence that there are basic units (atoms and molecules) that have these same mass ratios. The English chemist John Dalton (1766–1844) did much of this work, with significant contributions by the Italian physicist Amedeo Avogadro (1776–1856). It was Avogadro who developed the idea of a fixed number of atoms and molecules in a mole, and this special number is called Avogadro's number in his honor. The Austrian physicist Johann Josef Loschmidt was the first to measure the value of the constant in 1865 using the kinetic theory of gases.

PATTERNS AND SYSTEMATICS

The recognition and appreciation of patterns has enabled us to make many discoveries. The periodic table of elements was proposed as an organized summary of the known elements long before all elements had been discovered, and it led to many other discoveries. We shall see in later chapters that patterns in the properties of subatomic particles led to the proposal of quarks as their underlying structure, an idea that is still bearing fruit.

Knowledge of the properties of elements and compounds grew, culminating in the mid-19th-century development of the periodic table of the elements by Dmitri Mendeleev (1834–1907), the great Russian chemist. Mendeleev proposed an ingenious array that highlighted the periodic nature of the properties of elements. Believing in the systematics of the periodic table, he also predicted the existence of then-unknown elements to complete it. Once these elements were discovered and determined to have properties predicted by Mendeleev, his periodic table became universally accepted.

Also during the 19th century, the kinetic theory of gases was developed. Kinetic theory is based on the existence of atoms and molecules in random thermal motion and provides a microscopic explanation of the gas laws, heat transfer, and thermodynamics. Kinetic theory works so well that it is another strong indication of the existence of atoms. But it is still indirect evidence—individual atoms and molecules had not been observed. There were heated debates about the validity of kinetic theory until direct evidence of atoms was obtained.

The first truly direct evidence of atoms is credited to Robert Brown, a Scottish botanist. In 1827, he noticed that tiny pollen grains suspended in still water moved about in complex paths. This can be observed with a microscope for any small particles in a fluid. The motion is caused by the random thermal motions of fluid molecules colliding with particles in the fluid, and it is now called **Brownian motion** (Figure 2.1.1). Statistical fluctuations in the numbers of molecules striking the sides of a visible particle cause it to move first this way, then that. Although the molecules cannot be directly observed, their effects on the particle can be. By examining Brownian motion, the size of molecules can be calculated. The smaller and more numerous they are, the smaller the fluctuations in the numbers striking different sides.

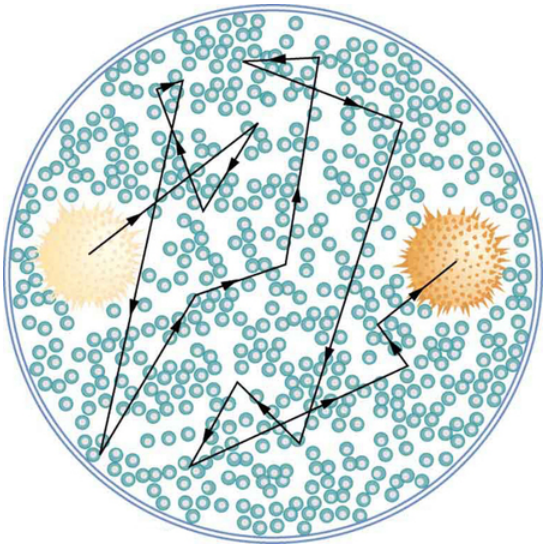


Figure 2.1.1: The position of a pollen grain in water, measured every few seconds under a microscope, exhibits Brownian motion. Brownian motion is due to fluctuations in the number of atoms and molecules colliding with a small mass, causing it to move about in complex paths. This is nearly direct evidence for the existence of atoms, providing a satisfactory alternative explanation cannot be found.

It was Albert Einstein who, starting in his epochal year of 1905, published several papers that explained precisely how Brownian motion could be used to measure the size of atoms and molecules. (In 1905 Einstein created special relativity, proposed photons as quanta of EM radiation, and produced a theory of Brownian motion that allowed the size of atoms to be determined. All of this was done in his spare time, since he worked days as a patent examiner. Any one of these very basic works could have been the crowning achievement of an entire career—yet Einstein did even more in later years.) Their sizes were only approximately known to be $10^{-10}\ m$, based on a comparison of latent heat of vaporization and surface tension made in about 1805 by Thomas Young of double-slit fame and the famous astronomer and mathematician Simon Laplace.

Using Einstein's ideas, the French physicist Jean-Baptiste Perrin (1870–1942) carefully observed Brownian motion; not only did he confirm Einstein's theory, he also produced accurate sizes for atoms and molecules. Since molecular weights and densities of materials were well established, knowing atomic and molecular sizes allowed a precise value for Avogadro's number to be obtained. (If we know how big an atom is, we know how many fit into a certain volume.) Perrin also used these ideas to explain atomic and molecular agitation effects in sedimentation, and he received the 1926 Nobel Prize for his achievements. Most scientists were already convinced of the existence of atoms, but the accurate observation and analysis of Brownian motion was conclusive—it was the first truly direct evidence.

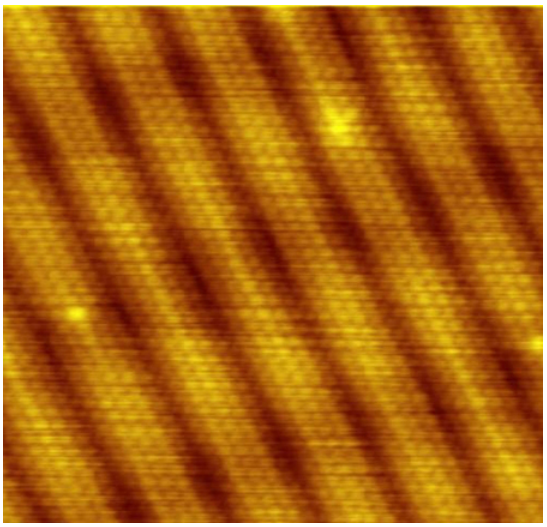


Figure 2.1.2 Individual atoms can be detected with devices such as the scanning tunneling electron microscope that produced this image of individual gold atoms on a graphite substrate. (credit: Erwin Rossen, Eindhoven University of Technology, via Wikimedia Commons)

A huge array of direct and indirect evidence for the existence of atoms now exists. For example, it has become possible to accelerate ions (much as electrons are accelerated in cathode-ray tubes) and to detect them individually as well as measure their masses (see More Applications of Magnetism for a discussion of mass spectrometers). Other devices that observe individual atoms, such as the scanning tunneling electron microscope, will be discussed elsewhere (Figure 2.1.2). All of our understanding of the properties of matter is based on and consistent with the atom. The atom's substructures, such as electron shells and the nucleus, are both interesting and important. The nucleus in turn has a substructure, as do the particles of which it is composed. These topics, and the question of whether there is a smallest basic structure to matter, will be explored in later parts of the text.

Summary

- Atoms are the smallest unit of elements; atoms combine to form molecules, the smallest unit of compounds.
- The first direct observation of atoms was in Brownian motion.
- Analysis of Brownian motion gave accurate sizes for atoms ($10^{-10}\ m$ on average) and a precise value for Avogadro's number.

Glossary

atom

basic unit of matter, which consists of a central, positively charged nucleus surrounded by negatively charged electrons

Brownian motion

the continuous random movement of particles of matter suspended in a liquid or gas

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2.2: Early Ideas about the Building Blocks of Matter

Chemistry is the study of the material world. What are different materials made of? How is their composition and structure related to their properties? How does one material become transformed into another? These are the sorts of questions that have driven the development of chemistry. People have been using chemistry for a very long time. Medicines were obtained from plants in early societies all over the world. People made dyes for clothing and paints for houses. Metallurgy was practiced in India and the Sahel, in Africa, before 1000 BC.

The Greek philosopher, Democritus, is often cited as the earliest person to formulate an idea of atoms, although similar ideas were recorded in India around the same time. Democritus thought that all things were made of atoms. Atoms were very small, he thought. They were also indivisible. Although you could cut a piece of wood in half, and cut each of those pieces in half, at some point you would reach the stage at which the wood could not be cut any longer, because you had a slice that was one atom thick.



Figure 2.2.1: *Democritus.*

There were an infinite variety of atoms, Democritus thought, making up an infinite variety of materials in the world. The properties of those atoms were directly responsible for the properties of materials. Water was made of water atoms, and water atoms were slippery. Iron was made of iron atoms, and iron atoms were strong and hard.

> *All of the materials in the world around us are made from atoms.*

A more practical aspect of chemistry has its roots in the Islamic Golden Age. Practitioners such as Jabir Ibn Hayyan developed laboratory apparatus and experimental methods to recrystallize and distill compounds from natural sources. Like Democritus, these early chemists wanted to know what the world is made of, but they were also trying to make improvements in practical applications such as tanning leather, making glass or rust-proofing iron.

The translation of Arabic texts into Latin helped spur the European Renaissance. Practical observations from the Islamic period, such as the fact that matter could be converted into different forms but did not disappear, gave rise to some of the most fundamental ideas of modern chemistry.

> *Conservation of mass: matter can be converted from one form to another, but it does not disappear.*

As is usually true in science, new developments in chemistry built on earlier work as well as the work of contemporary colleagues, continually improving our understanding of nature in small steps. In the 1600's, Robert Boyle adopted the Islamic emphasis on experimental work. Among his experiments, he was able to isolate the hydrogen gas formed by reacting metals with acids, as other scientists were doing at that time. In the 1700's, Joseph Priestley isolated several different "airs" or gases, including oxygen. Henry Cavendish showed that hydrogen combined with oxygen to form water. Antoine Lavoisier argued that oxygen and nitrogen, the other major component of air, are elements. The free exchange of ideas allowed people to rapidly advance our understanding of the material world.

Lavoisier, in particular, was important in bringing a number of important ideas together. He clearly stated that elements were the basic unit of matter, that could not be obtained from other materials. Compounds were made by combining different elements. His careful use of a balance to weigh reactants and products of an experiment clearly confirmed the idea of conservation of mass: the total mass of products after a reaction equals the total mass of reactants. These conclusions were more sophisticated versions of earlier ideas, and Lavoisier was able to present them in a way that eventually gained wide acceptance.

- A compound is a mixture of different elements bonded together.
- Conservation of mass, revised: the total mass of products after a reaction equals the total mass of reactants.

In the 1800's one of the principle proponents of the developing atomic theory was John Dalton. He advanced the idea that all atoms of a particular element are identical (as far as he could tell at that time). An element is a fundamental atomic building block from which other materials are made. Dalton performed analyses to try to deduce the atomic weights of different elements. Taking these ideas together, he showed that a particular compound always contained the same elements in the same ratio.

- An element is a fundamental atomic building block from which other materials are made.
- A compound is a mixture of different elements bonded together in a specific ratio.
- A compound may have a specific number of atoms of one type combined with a specific number of atoms of another type.
- Because all atoms have weight, we can also think of a compound as a specific weight of one kind of element combined with a specific weight of another element.

For example, water is a compound made from hydrogen and oxygen. It is crucial for life, of course. Water is about $1/9^{th}$ hydrogen by weight; the other $8/9^{ths}$ are oxygen. However, a different compound, hydrogen peroxide, is a rocket fuel. Hydrogen peroxide is only about $1/19^{th}$ hydrogen by weight. Those specific ratios of hydrogen to oxygen are inherent qualities of each compound.

Furthermore, Dalton found that he could make compounds through different methods. For example, he could make cupric oxide (CuO) by heating copper in air, or he could make it through various reactions involving copper and acids. It didn't matter how he made the cupric oxide; the ratio of copper to oxygen was always the same in the product.

There is one other compound containing copper and oxygen in a different ratio; it is called cuprous oxide, and it has the formula Cu_2O. However, it is very different from cupric oxide. The most obvious difference is that cuprous oxide is red whereas cupric oxide is black. Once again, when elements are combined in different ratios, different materials are produced, and they have properties that differ from each other and from they elements of which they are comprised.

Contributors and Attributions

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2.3: Modern Atomic Theory and the Laws That Led to It

Learning Objectives

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- State the postulates of Dalton's atomic theory
- Use postulates of Dalton's atomic theory to explain the laws of definite and multiple proportions

The language used in chemistry is seen and heard in many disciplines, ranging from medicine to engineering to forensics to art. The language of chemistry includes its own vocabulary as well as its own form of shorthand. Chemical symbols are used to represent atoms and elements. Chemical formulas depict molecules as well as the composition of compounds. Chemical equations provide information about the quality and quantity of the changes associated with chemical reactions.

This chapter will lay the foundation for our study of the language of chemistry. The concepts of this foundation include the atomic theory, the composition and mass of an atom, the variability of the composition of isotopes, ion formation, chemical bonds in ionic and covalent compounds, the types of chemical reactions, and the naming of compounds. We will also introduce one of the most powerful tools for organizing chemical knowledge: the periodic table.

Atomic Theory through the Nineteenth Century

The earliest recorded discussion of the basic structure of matter comes from ancient Greek philosophers, the scientists of their day. In the fifth century BC, Leucippus and Democritus argued that all matter was composed of small, finite particles that they called *atomos*, a term derived from the Greek word for "indivisible." They thought of atoms as moving particles that differed in shape and size, and which could join together. Later, Aristotle and others came to the conclusion that matter consisted of various combinations of the four "elements"—fire, earth, air, and water—and could be infinitely divided. Interestingly, these philosophers thought about atoms and "elements" as philosophical concepts, but apparently never considered performing experiments to test their ideas.

The Aristotelian view of the composition of matter held sway for over two thousand years, until English schoolteacher John Dalton helped to revolutionize chemistry with his hypothesis that the behavior of matter could be explained using an atomic theory. First published in 1807, many of Dalton's hypotheses about the microscopic features of matter are still valid in modern atomic theory. Here are the postulates of Dalton's atomic theory.

1. Matter is composed of exceedingly small particles called atoms. An atom is the smallest unit of an element that can participate in a chemical change.
2. An element consists of only one type of atom, which has a mass that is characteristic of the element and is the same for all atoms of that element (Figure 2.3.1). A macroscopic sample of an element contains an incredibly large number of atoms, all of which have identical chemical properties.

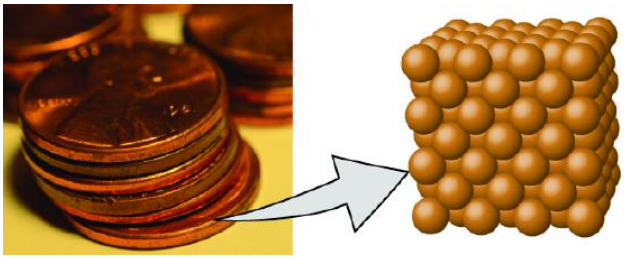


Figure 2.3.1: A pre-1982 copper penny (left) contains approximately 3×10^{22} copper atoms (several dozen are represented as brown spheres at the right), each of which has the same chemical properties. (credit: modification of work by "slgckgc"/Flickr)

The left image shows a photograph of a stack of pennies. The right image calls out an area of one of the pennies, which is made up of many sphere-shaped copper atoms. The atoms are densely organized.

3. Atoms of one element differ in properties from atoms of all other elements.
4. A compound consists of atoms of two or more elements combined in a small, whole-number ratio. In a given compound, the numbers of atoms of each of its elements are always present in the same ratio (Figure 2.3.2).

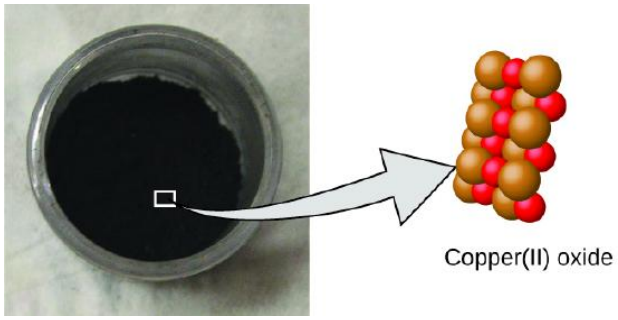


Figure 2.3.2: Copper(II) oxide, a powdery, black compound, results from the combination of two types of atoms—copper (brown spheres) and oxygen (red spheres)—in a 1:1 ratio. (credit: modification of work by "Chemicalinterest"/Wikimedia Commons)

The left image shows a container with a black, powdery compound. The right image calls out the molecular structure of the powder which contains copper atoms that are clustered together with an equal number of oxygen atoms.

5. *Atoms are neither created nor destroyed during a chemical change, but are instead rearranged to yield substances that are different from those present before the change (Figure 2.3.3).*

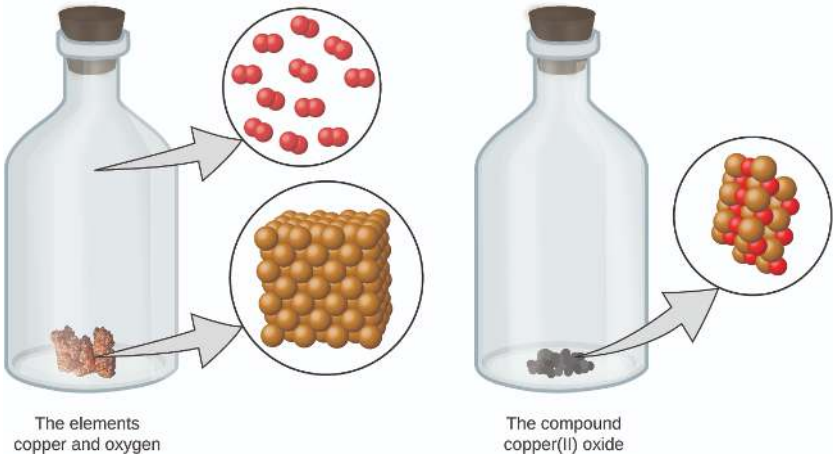


Figure 2.3.3: When the elements copper (a shiny, red-brown solid, shown here as brown spheres) and oxygen (a clear and colorless gas, shown here as red spheres) react, their atoms rearrange to form a compound containing copper and oxygen (a powdery, black solid). (credit copper: modification of work by Copper [images-of-elements.com]).

The left stoppered bottle contains copper and oxygen. There is a callout which shows that copper is made up of many sphere-shaped atoms. The atoms are densely organized. The open space of the bottle contains oxygen gas, which is made up of bonded pairs of oxygen atoms that are evenly spaced. The right stoppered bottle shows the compound copper two oxide. A callout from the powder shows a molecule of copper two oxide, which contains copper atoms that are clustered together with an equal number of oxygen atoms.

Dalton's atomic theory provides a microscopic explanation of the many macroscopic properties of matter that you've learned about. For example, if an element such as copper consists of only one kind of atom, then it cannot be broken down into simpler substances, that is, into substances composed of fewer types of atoms. And if atoms are neither created nor destroyed during a chemical change, then the total mass of matter present when matter changes from one type to another will remain constant (the law of conservation of matter).

Example 2.3.1: Testing Dalton's Atomic Theory

In the following drawing, the green spheres represent atoms of a certain element. The purple spheres represent atoms of another element. If the spheres touch, they are part of a single unit of a compound. Does the following chemical change represented by these symbols violate any of the ideas of Dalton's atomic theory? If so, which one?



This equation shows that the starting materials of the reaction are two bonded, green spheres, which are being combined with two smaller, bonded purple spheres. The product of the change is one purple sphere that is bonded to one green sphere.

Solution

The starting materials consist of two green spheres and two purple spheres. The products consist of only one green sphere and one purple sphere. This violates Dalton's postulate that atoms are neither created nor destroyed during a chemical change, but are merely redistributed. (In this case, atoms appear to have been destroyed.)

? Exercise 2.3.1

In the following drawing, the green spheres represent atoms of a certain element. The purple spheres represent atoms of another element. If the spheres touch, they are part of a single unit of a compound. Does the following chemical change represented by these symbols violate any of the ideas of Dalton's atomic theory? If so, which one



This equation shows that the starting materials of the reaction are two sets of bonded, green spheres which are each being combined with two smaller, bonded purple spheres. The products of the change are two molecules that each contain one purple sphere bonded between two green spheres.

Answer

The starting materials consist of four green spheres and two purple spheres. The products consist of four green spheres and two purple spheres. This does not violate any of Dalton's postulates: Atoms are neither created nor destroyed, but are redistributed in small, whole-number ratios.

Dalton knew of the experiments of French chemist Joseph Proust, who demonstrated that *all samples of a pure compound contain the same elements in the same proportion by mass*. This statement is known as the law of definite proportions or the law of constant composition. The suggestion that the numbers of atoms of the elements in a given compound always exist in the same ratio is consistent with these observations. For example, when different samples of isooctane (a component of gasoline and one of the standards used in the octane rating system) are analyzed, they are found to have a carbon-to-hydrogen mass ratio of 5.33:1, as shown in Table 2.3.1.

Table 2.3.1: Constant Composition of Isooctane

Sample	Carbon	Hydrogen	Mass Ratio
A	14.82 g	2.78 g	$\frac{14.82\text{ g carbon}}{2.78\text{ g hydrogen}} = \frac{5.33\text{ g carbo}}{1.00\text{ g hydrog}}$
B	22.33 g	4.19 g	$\frac{22.33\text{ g carbon}}{4.19\text{ g hydrogen}} = \frac{5.33\text{ g carbo}}{1.00\text{ g hydrog}}$
C	19.40 g	3.64 g	$\frac{19.40\text{ g carbon}}{3.63\text{ g hydrogen}} = \frac{5.33\text{ g carbo}}{1.00\text{ g hydrog}}$

It is worth noting that although all samples of a particular compound have the same mass ratio, the converse is not true in general. That is, samples that have the same mass ratio are not necessarily the same substance. For example, there are many compounds other than isooctane that also have a carbon-to-hydrogen mass ratio of 5.33:1.00.

Dalton also used data from Proust, as well as results from his own experiments, to formulate another interesting law. The law of multiple proportions states that *when two elements react to form more than one compound, a fixed mass of one element will react with masses of the other element in a ratio of small, whole numbers*. For example, copper and chlorine can form a green, crystalline solid with a mass ratio of 0.558 g chlorine to 1 g copper, as well as a brown crystalline solid with a mass ratio of 1.116 g chlorine to 1 g copper. These ratios by themselves may not seem particularly interesting or informative; however, if we take a ratio of these ratios, we obtain a useful and possibly surprising result: a small, whole-number ratio.

$$\frac{\frac{1.116\text{ g Cl}}{1\text{ g Cu}}}{\frac{0.558\text{ g Cl}}{1\text{ g Cu}}} = \frac{2}{1}$$

This 2-to-1 ratio means that the brown compound has twice the amount of chlorine per amount of copper as the green compound.

This can be explained by atomic theory if the copper-to-chlorine ratio in the brown compound is 1 copper atom to 2 chlorine atoms, and the ratio in the green compound is 1 copper atom to 1 chlorine atom. The ratio of chlorine atoms (and thus the ratio of their masses) is therefore 2 to 1 (Figure 2.3.4).

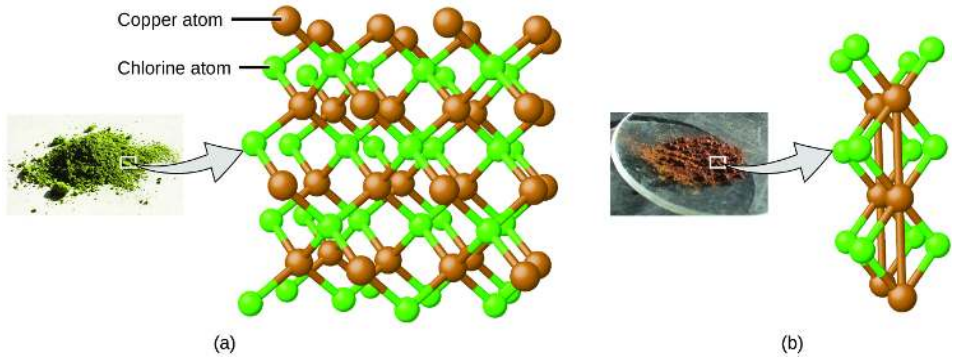


Figure 2.3.4: Compared to the copper chlorine compound in (a), where copper is represented by brown spheres and chlorine by green spheres, the copper chlorine compound in (b) has twice as many chlorine atoms per copper atom. (credit a: modification of work by "Benjah-bmm27"/Wikimedia Commons; credit b: modification of work by "Walkerma"/Wikimedia Commons)

Figure A shows a pile of green powder. A callout shows that the green powder is made up of a lattice of copper atoms interspersed with chlorine atoms. The atoms are color coded brown for copper and green for chlorine. The number of copper atoms is equal to the number of chlorine atoms in the molecule. Figure B shows a pile of brown powder. A callout shows that the brown powder is also made up of copper and chlorine atoms similar to the molecule shown in figure A.

Example 2.3.2: Laws of Definite and Multiple Proportions

A sample of compound A (a clear, colorless gas) is analyzed and found to contain 4.27 g carbon and 5.69 g oxygen. A sample of compound B (also a clear, colorless gas) is analyzed and found to contain 5.19 g carbon and 13.84 g oxygen. Are these data an example of the law of definite proportions, the law of multiple proportions, or neither? What do these data tell you about substances A and B?

Solution

In compound A, the mass ratio of carbon to oxygen is:

$$\frac{1.33\text{ g O}}{1\text{ g C}}$$

In compound B, the mass ratio of carbon to oxygen is:

$$\frac{2.67\text{ g O}}{1\text{ g C}}$$

The ratio of these ratios is:

$$\frac{\frac{1.33\text{ g O}}{1\text{ g C}}}{\frac{2.67\text{ g O}}{1\text{ g C}}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

This supports the law of multiple proportions. This means that A and B are different compounds, with A having one-half as much carbon per amount of oxygen (or twice as much oxygen per amount of carbon) as B. A possible pair of compounds that would fit this relationship would be A = CO_2 and B = CO.

Exercise 2.3.1

A sample of compound X (a clear, colorless, combustible liquid with a noticeable odor) is analyzed and found to contain 14.13 g carbon and 2.96 g hydrogen. A sample of compound Y (a clear, colorless, combustible liquid with a noticeable odor that is slightly different from X's odor) is analyzed and found to contain 19.91 g carbon and 3.34 g hydrogen. Are these data an example of the law of definite proportions, the law of multiple proportions, or neither? What do these data tell you about substances X and Y?

Answer

In compound X, the mass ratio of carbon to hydrogen is $\frac{14.13\text{ g C}}{2.96\text{ g H}}$.

In compound Y, the mass ratio of carbon to oxygen is $\frac{19.91\text{ g C}}{3.34\text{ g H}}$.

The ratio of these ratios is

$$\frac{\frac{14.13\text{ g C}}{2.96\text{ g H}}}{\frac{19.91\text{ g C}}{3.34\text{ g H}}} = \frac{4.77\text{ g C/g H}}{5.96\text{ g C/g H}} = 0.800 = \frac{4}{5}.$$

This small, whole-number ratio supports the law of multiple proportions. This means that X and Y are different compounds.

Summary

The ancient Greeks proposed that matter consists of extremely small particles called atoms. Dalton postulated that each element has a characteristic type of atom that differs in properties from atoms of all other elements, and that atoms of different elements can combine in fixed, small, whole-number ratios to form compounds. Samples of a particular compound all have the same elemental proportions by mass. When two elements form different compounds, a given mass of one element will combine with masses of the other element in a small, whole-number ratio. During any chemical change, atoms are neither created nor destroyed.

Glossary

Dalton's atomic theory
set of postulates that established the fundamental properties of atoms

law of constant composition
(also, law of definite proportions) all samples of a pure compound contain the same elements in the same proportions by mass

law of multiple proportions
when two elements react to form more than one compound, a fixed mass of one element will react with masses of the other element in a ratio of small whole numbers

law of definite proportions
(also, law of constant composition) all samples of a pure compound contain the same elements in the same proportions by mass

- Paul Flowers (University of North Carolina - Pembroke), Klaus Theopold (University of Delaware) and Richard Langley (Stephen F. Austin State University) with contributing authors. Textbook content produced by OpenStax College is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 license. Download for free at http://cnx.org/contents/85abf193-2bd...a7ac8df6@9.110).

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2.4: The Discovery of the Subatomic Particles

Learning Objectives

- To become familiar with the components and structure of the atom.

Long before the end of the 19th century, it was well known that applying a high voltage to a gas contained at low pressure in a sealed tube (called a gas discharge tube) caused electricity to flow through the gas, which then emitted light (Figure 2.4.1). Researchers trying to understand this phenomenon found that an unusual form of energy was also emitted from the cathode, or negatively charged electrode; this form of energy was called a cathode ray.

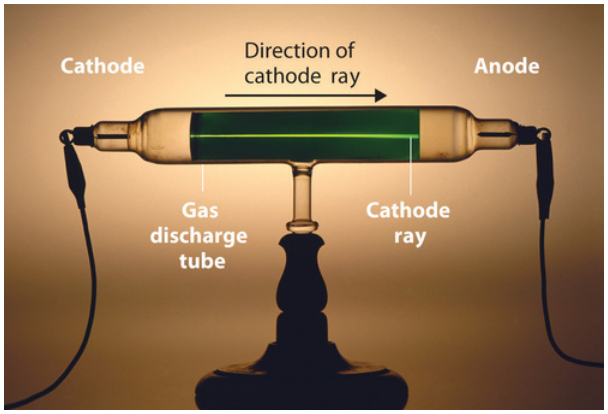


Figure 2.4.1: A Gas Discharge Tube Producing Cathode Rays. When a high voltage is applied to a gas contained at low pressure in a gas discharge tube, electricity flows through the gas, and energy is emitted in the form of light. Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).

In 1897, the British physicist J. J. Thomson (1856–1940) proved that atoms were not the most basic form of matter. He demonstrated that cathode rays could be deflected, or bent, by magnetic or electric fields, which indicated that cathode rays consist of charged particles (Figure 2.4.2). More important, by measuring the extent of the deflection of the cathode rays in magnetic or electric fields of various strengths, Thomson was able to calculate the mass-to-charge ratio of the particles. These particles were emitted by the negatively charged cathode and repelled by the negative terminal of an electric field. Because like charges repel each other and opposite charges attract, Thomson concluded that the particles had a net negative charge; these particles are now called electrons. Most relevant to the field of chemistry, Thomson found that the mass-to-charge ratio of cathode rays is independent of the nature of the metal electrodes or the gas, which suggested that electrons were fundamental components of all atoms.

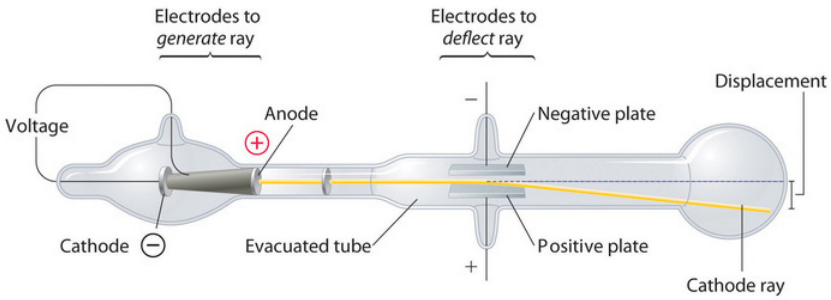


Figure 2.4.2: Deflection of Cathode Rays by an Electric Field. As the cathode rays travel toward the right, they are deflected toward the positive electrode (+), demonstrating that they are negatively charged. Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).

Subsequently, the American scientist Robert Millikan (1868–1953) carried out a series of experiments using electrically charged oil droplets, which allowed him to calculate the charge on a single electron. With this information and Thomson's mass-to-charge ratio, Millikan determined the mass of an electron:

$$\frac{mass}{charge} \times charge = mass$$

It was at this point that two separate lines of investigation began to converge, both aimed at determining how and why matter emits energy. The video below shows how JJ Thompson used such a tube to measure the ratio of charge over the mass of an electron.



Measuring e/m For an Electron. Video from Davidson College demonstrating Thompson's e/m experiment.

Radioactivity

The second line of investigation began in 1896, when the French physicist Henri Becquerel (1852–1908) discovered that certain minerals, such as uranium salts, emitted a new form of energy. Becquerel's work was greatly extended by Marie Curie (1867–1934) and her husband, Pierre (1854–1906); all three shared the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1903. Marie Curie coined the term radioactivity (from the Latin *radius*, meaning "ray") to describe the emission of energy rays by matter. She found that one particular uranium ore, pitchblende, was substantially more radioactive than most, which suggested that it contained one or more highly radioactive impurities. Starting with several tons of pitchblende, the Curies isolated two new radioactive elements after months of work: polonium, which was named for Marie's native Poland, and radium, which was named for its intense radioactivity. Pierre Curie carried a vial of radium in his coat pocket to demonstrate its greenish glow, a habit that caused him to become ill from radiation poisoning well before he was run over by a horse-drawn wagon and killed instantly in 1906. Marie Curie, in turn, died of what was almost certainly radiation poisoning.



Figure 2.4.3: Radium bromide illuminated by its own radioactive glow. This 1922 photo was taken in the dark in the Curie laboratory.

Building on the Curies' work, the British physicist Ernest Rutherford (1871–1937) performed decisive experiments that led to the modern view of the structure of the atom. While working in Thomson's laboratory shortly after Thomson discovered the electron, Rutherford showed that compounds of uranium and other elements emitted at least two distinct types of radiation. One was readily absorbed by matter and seemed to consist of particles that had a positive charge and were massive compared to electrons. Because it was the first kind of radiation to be discovered, Rutherford called these substances α particles. Rutherford also showed that the particles in the second type of radiation, β particles, had the same charge and mass-to-charge ratio as Thomson's electrons; they are now known to be high-speed electrons. A third type of radiation, γ rays, was discovered somewhat later and found to be similar to the lower-energy form of radiation called x-rays, now used to produce images of bones and teeth.

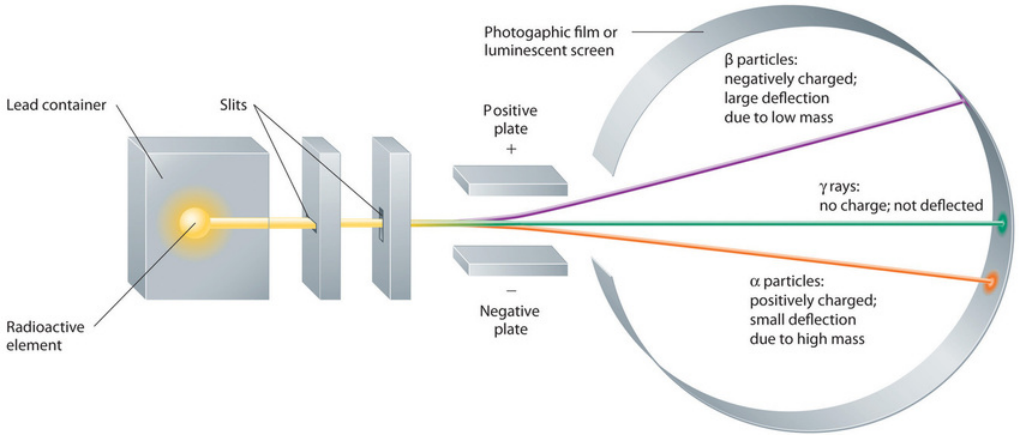


Figure 2.4.4: Effect of an Electric Field on α Particles, β Particles, and γ Rays. A negative electrode deflects negatively charged β particles, whereas a positive electrode deflects positively charged α particles. Uncharged γ rays are unaffected by an electric field. (Relative deflections are not shown to scale.) Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).

These three kinds of radiation—α particles, β particles, and γ rays—are readily distinguished by the way they are deflected by an electric field and by the degree to which they penetrate matter. As Figure 2.4.3 illustrates, α particles and β particles are deflected in opposite directions; α particles are deflected to a much lesser extent because of their higher mass-to-charge ratio. In contrast, γ rays have no charge, so they are not deflected by electric or magnetic fields. Figure 2.4.5 shows that α particles have the least penetrating power and are stopped by a sheet of paper, whereas β particles can pass through thin sheets of metal but are absorbed by lead foil or even thick glass. In contrast, γ-rays can readily penetrate matter; thick blocks of lead or concrete are needed to stop them.

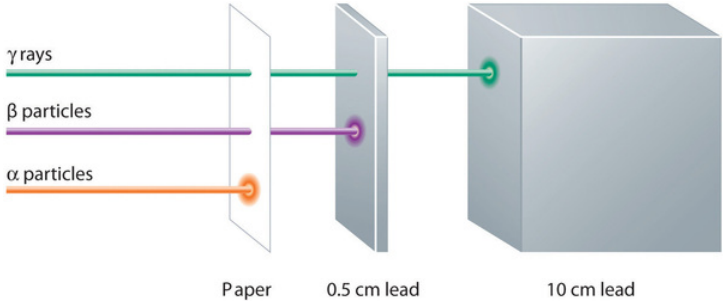


Figure 2.4.5: Relative Penetrating Power of the Three Types of Radiation. A sheet of paper stops comparatively massive α particles, whereas β particles easily penetrate paper but are stopped by a thin piece of lead foil. Uncharged γ rays penetrate the paper and lead foil; a much thicker piece of lead or concrete is needed to absorb them. Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).

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2.5: The Structure of The Atom

Learning Objectives

- To become familiar with the components and structure of the atom.

The Atomic Model

Once scientists concluded that all matter contains negatively charged electrons, it became clear that atoms, which are electrically neutral, must also contain positive charges to balance the negative ones. Thomson proposed that the electrons were embedded in a uniform sphere that contained both the positive charge and most of the mass of the atom, much like raisins in plum pudding or chocolate chips in a cookie (Figure 2.5.6).

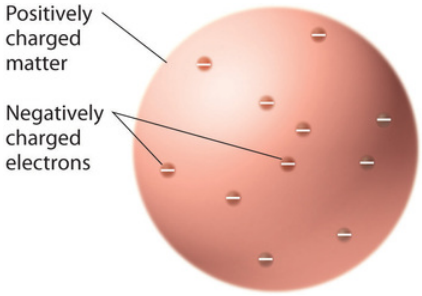


Figure 2.5.6: Thomson's Plum Pudding or Chocolate Chip Cookie Model of the Atom. In this model, the electrons are embedded in a uniform sphere of positive charge. Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).

In a single famous experiment, however, Rutherford showed unambiguously that Thomson's model of the atom was incorrect. Rutherford aimed a stream of α particles at a very thin gold foil target (Figure 2.5.7*a*) and examined how the α particles were scattered by the foil. Gold was chosen because it could be easily hammered into extremely thin sheets, minimizing the number of atoms in the target. If Thomson's model of the atom were correct, the positively-charged α particles should crash through the uniformly distributed mass of the gold target like cannonballs through the side of a wooden house. They might be moving a little slower when they emerged, but they should pass essentially straight through the target (Figure 2.5.7*b*). To Rutherford's amazement, a small fraction of the α particles were deflected at large angles, and some were reflected directly back at the source (Figure 2.5.7*c*). According to Rutherford, "It was almost as incredible as if you fired a 15-inch shell at a piece of tissue paper and it came back and hit you."

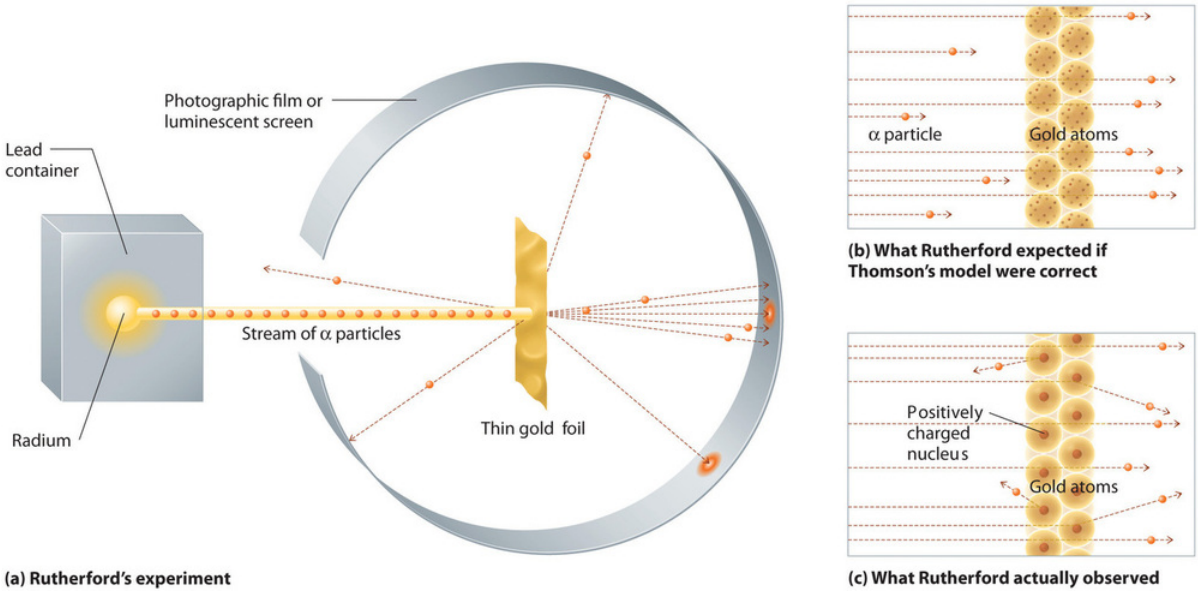


Figure 2.5.7: A Summary of Rutherford's Experiments. (a) A representation of the apparatus Rutherford used to detect deflections in a stream of α particles aimed at a thin gold foil target. The particles were produced by a sample of radium. (b) If Thomson's model of the atom were correct, the α particles should have passed straight through the gold foil. (c) However, a small number of α particles were deflected in various directions, including right back at the source. This could be true only if the positive charge were much more massive than the α particle. It suggested that the mass of the gold atom is concentrated in a very small region of space, which he called the nucleus. Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).



The Nuclear Atom: https://youtu.be/eqoyZuv1tWA

Rutherford's results were not consistent with a model in which the mass and positive charge are distributed uniformly throughout the volume of an atom. Instead, they strongly suggested that both the mass and positive charge are concentrated in a tiny fraction of the volume of an atom, which Rutherford called the nucleus. It made sense that a small fraction of the α particles collided with the dense, positively charged nuclei in either a glancing fashion, resulting in large deflections, or almost head-on, causing them to be reflected straight back at the source.

Although Rutherford could not explain why repulsions between the positive charges in nuclei that contained more than one positive charge did not cause the nucleus to disintegrate, he reasoned that repulsions between negatively charged electrons would cause the electrons to be uniformly distributed throughout the atom's volume.Today it is known that strong nuclear forces, which are much stronger than electrostatic interactions, hold the protons and the neutrons together in the nucleus. For this and other insights, Rutherford was awarded the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1908. Unfortunately, Rutherford would have preferred to receive the Nobel Prize in Physics because he considered physics superior to chemistry. In his opinion, "All science is either physics or stamp collecting."

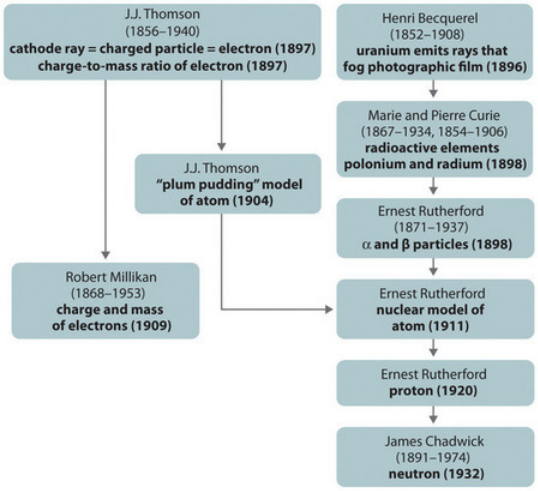


Figure 2.5.8: A Summary of the Historical Development of Models of the Components and Structure of the Atom. The dates in parentheses are the years in which the key experiments were performed. Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).

The historical development of the different models of the atom's structure is summarized in Figure 2.5.8. Rutherford established that the nucleus of the hydrogen atom was a positively charged particle, for which he coined the name proton in 1920. He also suggested that the nuclei of elements other than hydrogen must contain electrically neutral particles with approximately the same mass as the proton. The neutron, however, was not discovered until 1932, when James Chadwick (1891–1974, a student of Rutherford; Nobel Prize in Physics, 1935) discovered it. As a result of Rutherford's work, it became clear that an α particle contains two protons and neutrons, and is therefore the nucleus of a helium atom.

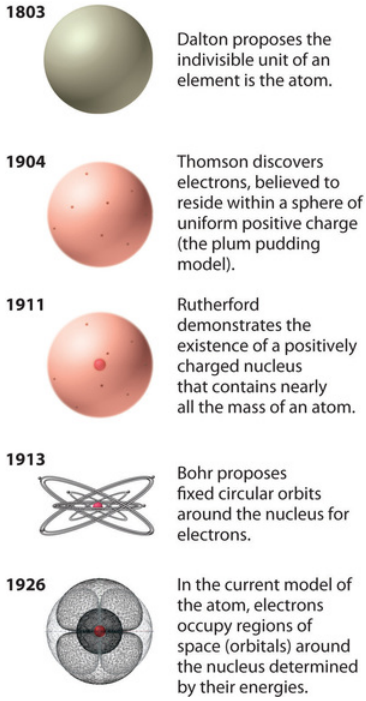


Figure 2.5.9: The Evolution of Atomic Theory, as Illustrated by Models of the Oxygen Atom. Bohr's model and the current model are described in Chapter 6, "The Structure of Atoms." Image used with Permission (CC BY-SA-NC).

Rutherford's model of the atom is essentially the same as the modern model, except that it is now known that electrons are not uniformly distributed throughout an atom's volume. Instead, they are distributed according to a set of principles described by Quantum Mechanics. Figure 2.5.9 shows how the model of the atom has evolved over time from the indivisible unit of Dalton to the modern view taught today.

Summary

Atoms are the ultimate building blocks of all matter. The modern atomic theory establishes the concepts of atoms and how they compose matter. Atoms, the smallest particles of an element that exhibit the properties of that element, consist of negatively charged electrons around a central nucleus composed of more massive positively charged protons and electrically neutral neutrons. Radioactivity is the emission of energetic particles and rays (radiation) by some substances. Three important kinds of radiation are α particles (helium nuclei), β particles (electrons traveling at high speed), and γ rays (similar to x-rays but higher in energy).

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2.6: Protons, Neutrons, and Electrons in Atoms

Learning Objectives

- Describe the locations, charges, and masses of the three main subatomic particles.
- Determine the number of protons and electrons in an atom.
- Write and interpret symbols that depict the atomic number, mass number, and charge of an atom or ion.
- Define the atomic mass unit and average atomic mass

Dalton's Atomic Theory explained a lot about matter, chemicals, and chemical reactions. Nevertheless, it was not entirely accurate, because contrary to what Dalton believed, atoms can, in fact, be broken apart into smaller subunits or subatomic particles. We have been talking about the electron in great detail, but there are two other particles of interest to us: protons and neutrons. We already learned that J. J. Thomson discovered a negatively charged particle, called the **electron**. Rutherford proposed that these electrons orbit a positive nucleus. In subsequent experiments, he found that there is a smaller positively charged particle in the nucleus, called a **proton**. There is also a third subatomic particle, known as a neutron.

Electrons

Electrons are one of three main types of particles that make up atoms. Unlike protons and neutrons, which consist of smaller, simpler particles, electrons are fundamental particles that do not consist of smaller particles. They are a type of fundamental particle called leptons. All leptons have an electric charge of -1 or 0. Electrons are extremely small. The mass of an electron is only about 1/2000 the mass of a proton or neutron, so electrons contribute virtually nothing to the total mass of an atom. Electrons have an electric charge of -1, which is equal but opposite to the charge of a proton, which is $+1$. All atoms have the same number of electrons as protons, so the positive and negative charges "cancel out", making atoms electrically neutral.

Unlike protons and neutrons, which are located inside the nucleus at the center of the atom, electrons are found outside the nucleus. Because opposite electric charges attract one another, negative electrons are attracted to the positive nucleus. This force of attraction keeps electrons constantly moving through the otherwise empty space around the nucleus. The figure below is a common way to represent the structure of an atom. It shows the electron as a particle orbiting the nucleus, similar to the way that planets orbit the sun. However, this is an incorrect perspective, as quantum mechanics demonstrates that electrons are more complicated.



Figure 2.6.1: Electrons are much smaller than protons or neutrons. If an electron was the mass of a penny, a proton or a neutron would have the mass of a large bowling ball!

Protons

A proton is one of three main particles that make up the atom. Protons are found in the nucleus of the atom. This is a tiny, dense region at the center of the atom. Protons have a positive electrical charge of one $(+1)$ and a mass of 1 atomic mass unit (amu), which is about 1.67×10^{-27} kilograms. Together with neutrons, they make up virtually all of the mass of an atom.

Neutrons

Atoms of all elements—except for most atoms of hydrogen—have neutrons in their nucleus. Unlike protons and electrons, which are electrically charged, neutrons have no charge—they are electrically neutral. That's why the neutrons in the diagram above are labeled n^0. The zero stands for "zero charge". The mass of a neutron is slightly greater than the mass of a proton, which is 1 atomic mass unit (amu). (An atomic mass unit equals about 1.67×10^{-27} kilograms.) A neutron also has about the same diameter as a proton, or 1.7×10^{-15} meters.

As you might have already guessed from its name, the neutron is neutral. In other words, it has no charge whatsoever and is therefore neither attracted to nor repelled from other objects. Neutrons are in every atom (with one exception), and they are bound together with other neutrons and protons in the atomic nucleus.

Before we move on, we must discuss how the different types of subatomic particles interact with each other. When it comes to neutrons, the answer is obvious. Since neutrons are neither attracted to nor repelled from objects, they don't really interact with protons or electrons (beyond being bound into the nucleus with the protons).

Even though electrons, protons, and neutrons are all types of subatomic particles, they are not all the same size. When you compare the masses of electrons, protons, and neutrons, what you find is that electrons have an extremely small mass, compared to either protons or neutrons. On the other hand, the masses of protons and neutrons are fairly similar, although technically, the mass of a neutron is slightly larger than the mass of a proton. Because protons and neutrons are so much more massive than electrons, almost all of the mass of any atom comes from the nucleus, which contains all of the neutrons and protons.

Table 2.6.1: Properties of Subatomic Particles

Particle	Symbol	Mass (amu)	Relative Mass (proton = 1)	Relative Charge	Location
proton	p^+	1	1	+1	inside the nucleus
electron	e^-	5.45×10^{-4}	0.00055	−1	outside the nucleus
neutron	n^0	1	1	0	inside the nucleus

Table 2.6.1 gives the properties and locations of electrons, protons, and neutrons. The third column shows the masses of the three subatomic particles in "atomic mass units." An **atomic mass unit (**amu**)** is defined as one-twelfth of the mass of a carbon-12 atom. Atomic mass units (amu) are useful, because, as you can see, the mass of a proton and the mass of a neutron are almost exactly 1 in this unit system.

Negative and positive charges of equal magnitude cancel each other out. This means that the negative charge on an electron perfectly balances the positive charge on the proton. In other words, a neutral atom must have exactly one electron for every proton. If a neutral atom has 1 proton, it must have 1 electron. If a neutral atom has 2 protons, it must have 2 electrons. If a neutral atom has 10 protons, it must have 10 electrons. You get the idea. In order to be neutral, an atom must have the same number of electrons and protons.

Atoms—and the protons, neutrons, and electrons that compose them—are extremely small. For example, a carbon atom weighs less than 2×10^{-23} g, and an electron has a charge of less than 2×10^{-19} C (coulomb). When describing the properties of tiny objects such as atoms, we use appropriately small units of measure, such as the atomic mass unit (amu) and the fundamental unit of charge (e). The amu was originally defined based on hydrogen, the lightest element, then later in terms of oxygen. Since 1961, it has been defined with regard to the most abundant isotope of carbon, atoms of which are assigned masses of exactly 12 amu. (This isotope is known as “carbon-12” as will be discussed later in this module.) Thus, one amu is exactly $1/12$ of the mass of one carbon-12 atom: 1 amu = 1.6605×10^{-24} g. (The Dalton (Da) and the unified atomic mass unit (u) are alternative units that are equivalent to the amu.)

Atomic Number

The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom is its **atomic number** (Z). This is the defining trait of an element: Its value determines the identity of the atom. For example, any atom that contains six protons is the element carbon and has the atomic number 6, regardless of how many neutrons or electrons it may have. A neutral atom must contain the same number of positive and negative charges, so the number of protons equals the number of electrons. Therefore, the atomic number also indicates the number of electrons in an atom. The total number of protons and neutrons in an atom is called its mass number (A). The number of neutrons is therefore the difference between the mass number and the atomic number: A – Z = number of neutrons.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{atomic number (Z)} &= \text{number of protons} \\ \text{mass number (A)} &= \text{number of protons} + \text{number of neutrons} \\ \text{A} - \text{Z} &= \text{number of neutrons} \end{aligned}$$

Atoms are electrically neutral if they contain the same number of positively charged protons and negatively charged electrons. When the numbers of these subatomic particles are *not* equal, the atom is electrically charged and is called an ion. The charge of an atom is defined as follows:

$$\text{Atomic charge} = \text{number of protons} - \text{number of electrons}$$

As will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter, atoms (and molecules) typically acquire charge by gaining or losing electrons. An atom that gains one or more electrons will exhibit a negative charge and is called an anion. Positively charged atoms called cations are formed when an atom loses one or more electrons. For example, a neutral sodium atom (Z = 11) has 11 electrons. If this atom loses one electron, it will become a cation with a 1+ charge (11 − 10 = 1+). A neutral oxygen atom (Z = 8) has eight electrons, and if it gains two electrons it will become an anion with a 2− charge (8 − 10 = 2−).

Example 2.6.1: Composition of an Atom

Iodine is an essential trace element in our diet; it is needed to produce thyroid hormone. Insufficient iodine in the diet can lead to the development of a goiter, an enlargement of the thyroid gland (Figure 2.6.2).

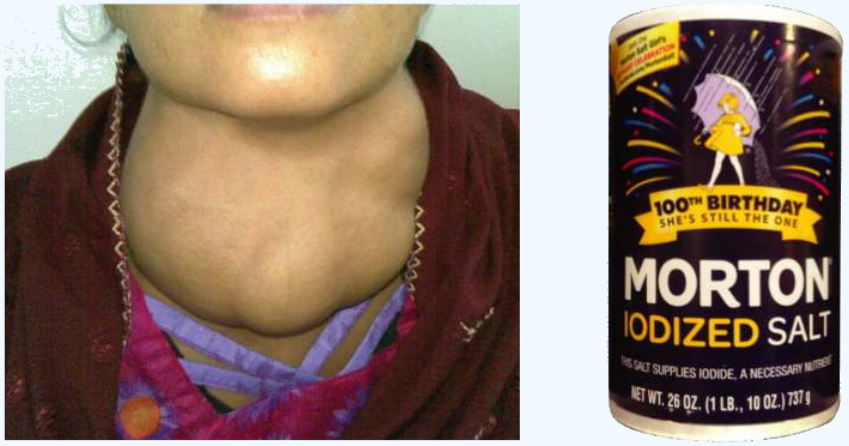


Figure 2.6.2: (a) Insufficient iodine in the diet can cause an enlargement of the thyroid gland called a goiter. (b) The addition of small amounts of iodine to salt, which prevents the formation of goiters, has helped eliminate this concern in the US where salt consumption is high. (credit a: modification of work by “Almazi”/Wikimedia Commons; credit b: modification of work by Mike Mozart)

The addition of small amounts of iodine to table salt (iodized salt) has essentially eliminated this health concern in the United States, but as much as 40% of the world’s population is still at risk of iodine deficiency. The iodine atoms are added as anions, and each has a 1− charge and a mass number of 127. Determine the numbers of protons, neutrons, and electrons in one of these iodine anions.

Solution

The atomic number of iodine (53) tells us that a neutral iodine atom contains 53 protons in its nucleus and 53 electrons outside its nucleus. Because the sum of the numbers of protons and neutrons equals the mass number, 127, the number of neutrons is 74 (127 − 53 = 74). Since the iodine is added as a 1− anion, the number of electrons is 54 [53 – (1–) = 54].

Exercise 2.6.1

An ion of platinum has a mass number of 195 and contains 74 electrons. How many protons and neutrons does it contain, and what is its charge?

Answer

78 protons; 117 neutrons; charge is 4+

Chemical Symbols

A chemical symbol is an abbreviation that we use to indicate an element or an atom of an element. For example, the symbol for mercury is Hg (Figure 2.6.3). We use the same symbol to indicate one atom of mercury (microscopic domain) or to label a container of many atoms of the element mercury (macroscopic domain).



Figure 2.6.3: The symbol Hg represents the element mercury regardless of the amount; it could represent one atom of mercury or a large amount of mercury. from Wikipedia (user: Materialscientist).

The symbols for several common elements and their atoms are listed in Table 2.6.2. Some symbols are derived from the common name of the element; others are abbreviations of the name in another language. Symbols have one or two letters, for example, H for hydrogen and Cl for chlorine. To avoid confusion with other notations, only the first letter of a symbol is capitalized. For example, Co is the symbol for the element cobalt, but CO is the notation for the compound carbon monoxide, which contains atoms of the elements carbon (C) and oxygen (O). All known elements and their symbols are in the periodic table.

Table 2.6.2: Some Common Elements and Their Symbols

Element	Symbol	Element	Symbol
aluminum	Al	iron	Fe (from *ferrum*)
bromine	Br	lead	Pb (from *plumbum*)
calcium	Ca	magnesium	Mg
carbon	C	mercury	Hg (from *hydrargyrum*)
chlorine	Cl	nitrogen	N
chromium	Cr	oxygen	O
cobalt	Co	potassium	K (from *kalium*)
copper	Cu (from *cuprum*)	silicon	Si
fluorine	F	silver	Ag (from *argentum*)
gold	Au (from *aurum*)	sodium	Na (from *natrium*)
helium	He	sulfur	S
hydrogen	H	tin	Sn (from *stannum*)
iodine	I	zinc	Zn

Traditionally, the discoverer (or discoverers) of a new element names the element. However, until the name is recognized by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC), the recommended name of the new element is based on the Latin word(s) for its atomic number. For example, element 106 was called unnilhexium (Unh), element 107 was called unnilseptium (Uns), and element 108 was called unniloctium (Uno) for several years. These elements are now named after scientists or locations; for example, element 106 is now known as *seaborgium* (Sg) in honor of Glenn Seaborg, a Nobel Prize winner who was active in the discovery of several heavy elements.

Isotopes

The symbol for a specific isotope of any element is written by placing the mass number as a superscript to the left of the element symbol (Figure 2.6.4). The atomic number is sometimes written as a subscript preceding the symbol, but since this number defines the element's identity, as does its symbol, it is often omitted. For example, magnesium exists as a mixture of three isotopes, each with an atomic number of 12 and with mass numbers of 24, 25, and 26, respectively. These isotopes can be identified as ^{24}Mg, ^{25}Mg, and ^{26}Mg. These isotope symbols are read as "element, mass number" and can be symbolized consistent with this reading. For instance, ^{24}Mg is read as "magnesium 24," and can be written as "magnesium-24" or "Mg-24." ^{25}Mg is read as "magnesium 25," and can be written as "magnesium-25" or "Mg-25." All magnesium atoms have 12 protons in their nucleus. They differ only because a ^{24}Mg atom has 12 neutrons in its nucleus, a ^{25}Mg atom has 13 neutrons, and a ^{26}Mg has 14 neutrons.

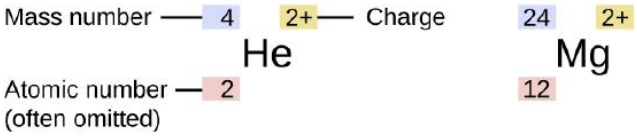


Figure 2.6.4: The symbol for an atom indicates the element via its usual two-letter symbol, the mass number as a left superscript, the atomic number as a left subscript (sometimes omitted), and the charge as a right superscript.

Information about the naturally occurring isotopes of elements with atomic numbers 1 through 10 is given in Table 2.6.2. Note that in addition to standard names and symbols, the isotopes of hydrogen are often referred to using common names and accompanying symbols. Hydrogen-2, symbolized ^{2}H, is also called deuterium and sometimes symbolized D. Hydrogen-3, symbolized ^{3}H, is also called tritium and sometimes symbolized T.

Table 2.6.2: Nuclear Compositions of Atoms of the Very Light Elements

Element	Symbol	Atomic Number	Number of Protons	Number of Neutrons	Mass (amu)	% Natural Abundance
hydrogen	$^{1}_{1}$H (protium)	1	1	0	1.0078	99.989
	$^{2}_{1}$H (deuterium)	1	1	1	2.0141	0.0115
	$^{3}_{1}$H (tritium)	1	1	2	3.01605	— (trace)
helium	$^{3}_{2}$He	2	2	1	3.01603	0.00013
	$^{4}_{2}$He	2	2	2	4.0026	100
lithium	$^{6}_{3}$Li	3	3	3	6.0151	7.59
	$^{7}_{3}$Li	3	3	4	7.0160	92.41
beryllium	$^{9}_{4}$Be	4	4	5	9.0122	100
boron	$^{10}_{5}$B	5	5	5	10.0129	19.9
	$^{11}_{5}$B	5	5	6	11.0093	80.1
carbon	$^{12}_{6}$C	6	6	6	12.0000	98.89
	$^{13}_{6}$C	6	6	7	13.0034	1.11
	$^{14}_{6}$C	6	6	8	14.0032	— (trace)
nitrogen	$^{14}_{7}$N	7	7	7	14.0031	99.63
	$^{15}_{7}$N	7	7	8	15.0001	0.37
oxygen	$^{16}_{8}$O	8	8	8	15.9949	99.757

Element	Symbol	Atomic Number	Number of Protons	Number of Neutrons	Mass (amu)	% Natural Abundance
	$^{17}_{8}\mathrm{O}$	8	8	9	16.9991	0.038
	$^{18}_{8}\mathrm{O}$	8	8	10	17.9992	0.205
fluorine	$^{19}_{9}\mathrm{F}$	9	9	10	18.9984	100
neon	$^{20}_{10}\mathrm{Ne}$	10	10	10	19.9924	90.48
	$^{21}_{10}\mathrm{Ne}$	10	10	11	20.9938	0.27
	$^{22}_{10}\mathrm{Ne}$	10	10	12	21.9914	9.25

Atomic Mass

Because each proton and each neutron contribute approximately one amu to the mass of an atom, and each electron contributes far less, the atomic mass of a single atom is approximately equal to its mass number (a whole number). However, the average masses of atoms of most elements are not whole numbers because most elements exist naturally as mixtures of two or more isotopes.

The mass of an element shown in a periodic table or listed in a table of atomic masses is a weighted, average mass of all the isotopes present in a naturally occurring sample of that element. This is equal to the sum of each individual isotope's mass multiplied by its fractional abundance.

$$\text{average mass} = \sum_i (\text{fractional abundance} \times \text{isotopic mass})_i$$

For example, the element boron is composed of two isotopes: About 19.9% of all boron atoms are ^{10}B with a mass of 10.0129 amu, and the remaining 80.1% are ^{11}B with a mass of 11.0093 amu. The average atomic mass for boron is calculated to be:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{boron average mass} &= (0.199 \times 10.0129 \text{ amu}) + (0.801 \times 11.0093 \text{ amu}) \\ &= 1.99 \text{ amu} + 8.82 \text{ amu} \\ &= 10.81 \text{ amu} \end{aligned}$$

It is important to understand that no single boron atom weighs exactly 10.8 amu; 10.8 amu is the average mass of all boron atoms, and individual boron atoms weigh either approximately 10 amu or 11 amu.

✔ Example 2.6.2: Calculation of Average Atomic Mass

A meteorite found in central Indiana contains traces of the noble gas neon picked up from the solar wind during the meteorite's trip through the solar system. Analysis of a sample of the gas showed that it consisted of 91.84% ^{20}Ne (mass 19.9924 amu), 0.47% ^{21}Ne (mass 20.9940 amu), and 7.69% ^{22}Ne (mass 21.9914 amu). What is the average mass of the neon in the solar wind?

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \text{average mass} &= (0.9184 \times 19.9924 \text{ amu}) + (0.0047 \times 20.9940 \text{ amu}) + (0.0769 \times 21.9914 \text{ amu}) \\ &= (18.36 + 0.099 + 1.69) \text{ amu} \\ &= 20.15 \text{ amu} \end{aligned}$$

The average mass of a neon atom in the solar wind is 20.15 amu. (The average mass of a terrestrial neon atom is 20.1796 amu. This result demonstrates that we may find slight differences in the natural abundance of isotopes, depending on their origin.)

? Exercise 2.6.2

A sample of magnesium is found to contain 78.70% of ^{24}Mg atoms (mass 23.98 amu), 10.13% of ^{25}Mg atoms (mass 24.99 amu), and 11.17% of ^{26}Mg atoms (mass 25.98 amu). Calculate the average mass of a Mg atom.

Answer

24.31 amu

We can also do variations of this type of calculation, as shown in the next example.

Example 2.6.3: Calculation of Percent Abundance

Naturally occurring chlorine consists of ^{35}Cl (mass 34.96885 amu) and ^{37}Cl (mass 36.96590 amu), with an average mass of 35.453 amu. What is the percent composition of Cl in terms of these two isotopes?

Solution

The average mass of chlorine is the fraction that is ^{35}Cl times the mass of ^{35}Cl plus the fraction that is ^{37}Cl times the mass of ^{37}Cl.

$$\text{average mass} = (\text{fraction of } ^{35}\text{Cl} \times \text{mass of } ^{35}\text{Cl}) + (\text{fraction of } ^{37}\text{Cl} \times \text{mass of } ^{37}\text{Cl})$$

If we let *x* represent the fraction that is ^{35}Cl, then the fraction that is ^{37}Cl is represented by 1.00 − *x*.

(The fraction that is ^{35}Cl + the fraction that is ^{37}Cl must add up to 1, so the fraction of ^{37}Cl must equal 1.00 − the fraction of ^{35}Cl.)

Substituting this into the average mass equation, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} 35.453 \text{ amu} &= (x \times 34.96885 \text{ amu}) + [(1.00 - x) \times 36.96590 \text{ amu}] \\ 35.453 &= 34.96885x + 36.96590 - 36.96590x \\ 1.99705x &= 1.513 \\ x &= \frac{1.513}{1.99705} = 0.7576 \end{aligned}$$

So solving yields: *x* = 0.7576, which means that 1.00 − 0.7576 = 0.2424. Therefore, chlorine consists of 75.76% ^{35}Cl and 24.24% ^{37}Cl.

Exercise 2.6.3

Naturally occurring copper consists of ^{63}Cu (mass 62.9296 amu) and ^{65}Cu (mass 64.9278 amu), with an average mass of 63.546 amu. What is the percent composition of Cu in terms of these two isotopes?

Answer

69.15% Cu-63 and 30.85% Cu-65

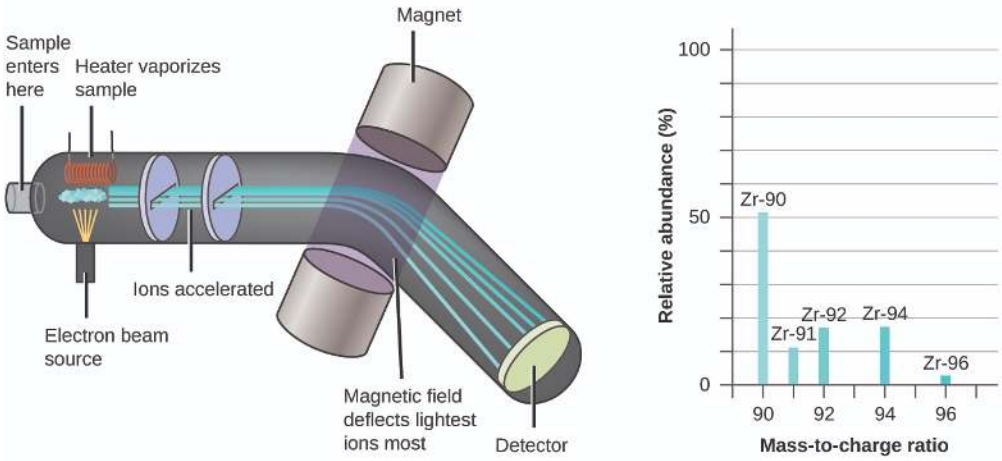


Figure 2.6.5: Analysis of zirconium in a mass spectrometer produces a mass spectrum with peaks showing the different isotopes of Zr.

The occurrence and natural abundances of isotopes can be experimentally determined using an instrument called a mass spectrometer. Mass spectrometry (MS) is widely used in chemistry, forensics, medicine, environmental science, and many other fields to analyze and help identify the substances in a sample of material. In a typical mass spectrometer (Figure 2.6.5), the sample is vaporized and exposed to a high-energy electron beam that causes the sample's atoms (or molecules) to become electrically charged, typically by losing one or more electrons. These cations then pass through a (variable) electric or magnetic field that deflects each cation's path to an extent that depends on both its mass and charge (similar to how the path of a large steel ball bearing rolling past a magnet is deflected to a lesser extent that that of a small steel BB). The ions are detected, and a plot of the relative number of ions generated versus their mass-to-charge ratios (a *mass spectrum*) is made. The height of each vertical feature or peak in a mass spectrum is proportional to the fraction of cations with the specified mass-to-charge ratio. Since its initial use during the development of modern atomic theory, MS has evolved to become a powerful tool for chemical analysis in a wide range of applications.



***Video* 2.6.1**: *Watch this video from the Royal Society for Chemistry for a brief description of the rudiments of mass spectrometry.*

Summary

An atom consists of a small, positively charged nucleus surrounded by electrons. The nucleus contains protons and neutrons; its diameter is about 100,000 times smaller than that of the atom. The mass of one atom is usually expressed in atomic mass units (amu), which is referred to as the atomic mass. An amu is defined as exactly $1/12$ of the mass of a carbon-12 atom and is equal to 1.6605×10^{-24} g.

Protons are relatively heavy particles with a charge of 1+ and a mass of 1.0073 amu. Neutrons are relatively heavy particles with no charge and a mass of 1.0087 amu. Electrons are light particles with a charge of 1− and a mass of 0.00055 amu. The number of protons in the nucleus is called the atomic number (Z) and is the property that defines an atom's elemental identity. The sum of the numbers of protons and neutrons in the nucleus is called the mass number and, expressed in amu, is approximately equal to the mass of the atom. An atom is neutral when it contains equal numbers of electrons and protons.

Isotopes of an element are atoms with the same atomic number but different mass numbers; isotopes of an element, therefore, differ from each other only in the number of neutrons within the nucleus. When a naturally occurring element is composed of several isotopes, the atomic mass of the element represents the average of the masses of the isotopes involved. A chemical symbol identifies the atoms in a substance using symbols, which are one-, two-, or three-letter abbreviations for the atoms.

Key Equations

- $\text{average mass} = \sum_i (\text{fractional abundance} \times \text{isotopic mass})_i$

Glossary

anion

negatively charged atom or molecule (contains more electrons than protons)

atomic mass

average mass of atoms of an element, expressed in amu

atomic mass unit (amu)

(also, unified atomic mass unit, u, or Dalton, Da) unit of mass equal to $\frac{1}{12}$ of the mass of a ^{12}C atom

atomic number (Z)

number of protons in the nucleus of an atom

cation

positively charged atom or molecule (contains fewer electrons than protons)

chemical symbol

one-, two-, or three-letter abbreviation used to represent an element or its atoms

Dalton (Da)

alternative unit equivalent to the atomic mass unit

fundamental unit of charge

(also called the elementary charge) equals the magnitude of the charge of an electron (e) with e = 1.602×10^{-19} C

ion

electrically charged atom or molecule (contains unequal numbers of protons and electrons)

mass number (A)

sum of the numbers of neutrons and protons in the nucleus of an atom

unified atomic mass unit (u)

alternative unit equivalent to the atomic mass unit

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2.7: Finding Patterns - The Periodic Law and the Periodic Table

Learning Objectives

- To become familiar with the organization of the periodic table.

Rutherford's nuclear model of the atom helped explain why atoms of different elements exhibit different chemical behavior. The identity of an element is defined by its *atomic number (Z)*, the number of protons in the nucleus of an atom of the element. The atomic number is therefore different for each element. The known elements are arranged in order of increasing Z in the *periodic table* (Figure 2.7.1). The rationale for the peculiar format of the periodic table is explained later. Each element is assigned a unique one-, two-, or three-letter symbol. The names of the elements are listed in the periodic table, along with their symbols, atomic numbers, and atomic masses. The chemistry of each element is determined by its number of protons and electrons. In a neutral atom, the number of electrons equals the number of protons.

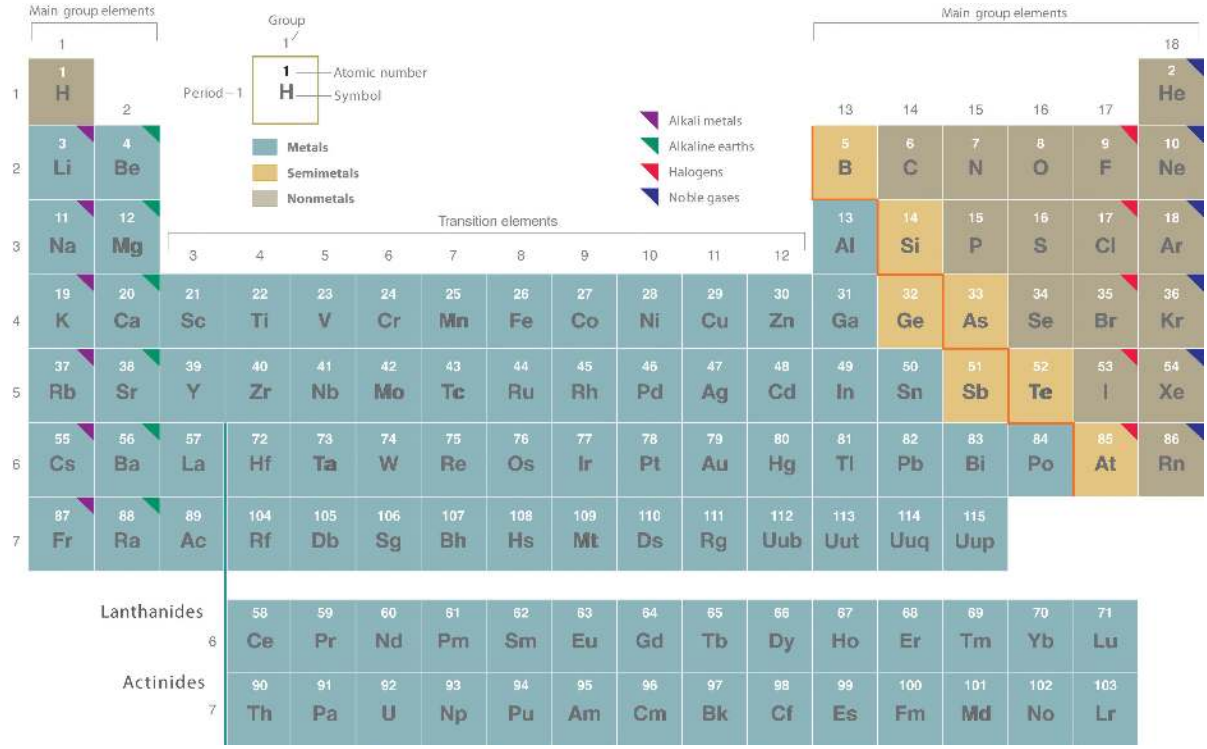


Figure 2.7.1: The Periodic Table Showing the Elements in Order of Increasing Z. The metals are on the bottom left in the periodic table, and the nonmetals are at the top right. The semimetals lie along a diagonal line separating the metals and nonmetals. An interactive Periodic table can be found Periodic Table of the Elements, LibreTexts. (CC-BY-SA-NC 3.0; Anonymous via LibreTexts)

The elements are arranged in a periodic table, which is probably the single most important learning aid in chemistry. It summarizes huge amounts of information about the elements in a way that facilitates the prediction of many of their properties and chemical reactions. The elements are arranged in seven horizontal rows, in order of increasing atomic number from left to right and top to bottom. The rows are called periods, and they are numbered from 1 to 7. The elements are stacked in such a way that elements with similar chemical properties form vertical columns, called groups, numbered from 1 to 18 (older periodic tables use a system based on roman numerals). Groups 1, 2, and 13–18 are the main group elements, listed as A in older tables. Groups 3–12 are in the middle of the periodic table and are the transition elements, listed as B in older tables. The two rows of 14 elements at the bottom of the periodic table are the lanthanides and the actinides, whose positions in the periodic table are indicated in group 3.

Metals, Nonmetals, and Semimetals

The heavy orange zigzag line running diagonally from the upper left to the lower right through groups 13–16 in Figure 2.7.1 divides the elements into metals (in blue, below and to the left of the line) and nonmetals (in bronze, above and to the right of the

line). Gold-colored lements that lie along the diagonal line exhibit properties intermediate between metals and nonmetals; they are called semimetals.

The distinction between metals and nonmetals is one of the most fundamental in chemistry. Metals—such as copper or gold—are good conductors of electricity and heat; they can be pulled into wires because they are ductile; they can be hammered or pressed into thin sheets or foils because they are malleable; and most have a shiny appearance, so they are lustrous. The vast majority of the known elements are metals. Of the metals, only mercury is a liquid at room temperature and pressure; all the rest are solids.

Nonmetals, in contrast, are generally poor conductors of heat and electricity and are not lustrous. Nonmetals can be gases (such as chlorine), liquids (such as bromine), or solids (such as iodine) at room temperature and pressure. Most solid nonmetals are brittle, so they break into small pieces when hit with a hammer or pulled into a wire. As expected, semimetals exhibit properties intermediate between metals and nonmetals.

✔ Example 2.7.1: Classifying Elements

Based on its position in the periodic table, do you expect selenium to be a metal, a nonmetal, or a semimetal?

Given: element

Asked for: classification

Strategy:

Find selenium in the periodic table shown in Figure 2.7.1 and then classify the element according to its location.

Solution:

The atomic number of selenium is 34, which places it in period 4 and group 16. In Figure 2.7.1, selenium lies above and to the right of the diagonal line marking the boundary between metals and nonmetals, so it should be a nonmetal. Note, however, that because selenium is close to the metal-nonmetal dividing line, it would not be surprising if selenium were similar to a semimetal in some of its properties.

? Exercise 2.7.1

Based on its location in the periodic table, do you expect indium to be a nonmetal, a metal, or a semimetal?

Answer

metal

As previously noted, the periodic table is arranged so that elements with similar chemical behaviors are in the same group. Chemists often make general statements about the properties of the elements in a group using descriptive names with historical origins. For example, the elements of Group 1 are known as the alkali metals, Group 2 are the alkaline earth metals, Group 17 are the halogens, and Group 18 are the noble gases.

Group 1: The Alkali Metals

The alkali metals are lithium, sodium, potassium, rubidium, cesium, and francium. Hydrogen is unique in that it is generally placed in Group 1, but it is not a metal. The compounds of the alkali metals are common in nature and daily life. One example is table salt (sodium chloride); lithium compounds are used in greases, in batteries, and as drugs to treat patients who exhibit manic-depressive, or bipolar, behavior. Although lithium, rubidium, and cesium are relatively rare in nature, and francium is so unstable and highly radioactive that it exists in only trace amounts, sodium and potassium are the seventh and eighth most abundant elements in Earth's crust, respectively.

Group 2: The Alkaline Earth Metals

The alkaline earth metals are beryllium, magnesium, calcium, strontium, barium, and radium. Beryllium, strontium, and barium are rare, and radium is unstable and highly radioactive. In contrast, calcium and magnesium are the fifth and sixth most abundant elements on Earth, respectively; they are found in huge deposits of limestone and other minerals.

Group 17: The Halogens

The halogens are fluorine, chlorine, bromine, iodine, and astatine. The name halogen is derived from the Greek words for “salt forming,” which reflects that all the halogens react readily with metals to form compounds, such as sodium chloride and calcium chloride (used in some areas as road salt).

Compounds that contain the fluoride ion are added to toothpaste and the water supply to prevent dental cavities. Fluorine is also found in Teflon coatings on kitchen utensils. Although chlorofluorocarbon propellants and refrigerants are believed to lead to the depletion of Earth’s ozone layer and contain both fluorine and chlorine, the latter is responsible for the adverse effect on the ozone layer. Bromine and iodine are less abundant than chlorine, and astatine is so radioactive that it exists in only negligible amounts in nature.

Group 18: The Noble Gases

The noble gases are helium, neon, argon, krypton, xenon, and radon. Because the noble gases are composed of only single atoms, they are called monatomic. At room temperature and pressure, they are unreactive gases. Because of their lack of reactivity, for many years they were called inert gases or rare gases. However, the first chemical compounds containing the noble gases were prepared in 1962. Although the noble gases are relatively minor constituents of the atmosphere, natural gas contains substantial amounts of helium. Because of its low reactivity, argon is often used as an unreactive (inert) atmosphere for welding and in light bulbs. The red light emitted by neon in a gas discharge tube is used in neon lights.

> *The noble gases are unreactive at room temperature and pressure.*

Summary

The periodic table is used as a predictive tool. It arranges of the elements in order of increasing atomic number. Elements that exhibit similar chemistry appear in vertical columns called groups (numbered 1–18 from left to right); the seven horizontal rows are called periods. Some of the groups have widely-used common names, including the alkali metals (Group 1) and the alkaline earth metals (Group 2) on the far left, and the halogens (Group 17) and the noble gases (Group 18) on the far right. The elements can be broadly divided into metals, nonmetals, and semimetals. Semimetals exhibit properties intermediate between those of metals and nonmetals. Metals are located on the left of the periodic table, and nonmetals are located on the upper right. They are separated by a diagonal band of semimetals. Metals are lustrous, good conductors of electricity, and readily shaped (they are ductile and malleable), whereas solid nonmetals are generally brittle and poor electrical conductors. Other important groupings of elements in the periodic table are the main group elements, the transition metals, the lanthanides, and the actinides.

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2.8: The Average Mass of an Element's Atoms

Learning Objectives

- Differentiate Mass Number from Atomic Mass
- Reinforce the meaning of isotopes
- Calculate average atomic mass and isotopic abundance.

Atomic and Molecular Weights

The subscripts in chemical formulas, and the coefficients in chemical equations represent *exact* quantities. H_2O, for example, indicates that a water molecule comprises exactly **two** atoms of hydrogen and **one** atom of oxygen. The following equation:

$$C_3H_8(g) + 5\,O_2(g) \rightarrow 3\,CO_2(g) + 4\,H_2O(l) \tag{2.8.1}$$

not only tells us that propane reacts with oxygen to produce carbon dioxide and water, but that ***1*** molecule of propane reacts with ***5*** molecules of oxygen to produce ***3*** molecules of carbon dioxide and ***4*** molecules of water. Since counting individual atoms or molecules is a little difficult, quantitative aspects of chemistry rely on knowing the *masses* of the compounds involved.

Atoms of different elements have different masses. Early work on the separation of water into its constituent elements (hydrogen and oxygen) indicated that 100 grams of water contained 11.1 grams of hydrogen and 88.9 grams of oxygen:

$$100\text{ grams Water} \rightarrow 11.1\text{ grams Hydrogen} + 88.9\text{ grams Oxygen} \tag{2.8.2}$$

Later, scientists discovered that water was composed of ***two atoms*** of hydrogen ***for each atom*** of oxygen. Therefore, in the above analysis, *in the 11.1 grams of hydrogen there were twice as many atoms as in the 88.9 grams of oxygen.* Therefore, an oxygen atom must weigh about 16 times as much as a hydrogen atom:

$$\frac{\frac{88.9\ g\ Oxygen}{1\ atom}}{\frac{111\ g\ Hydrogen}{2\ atoms}} = 16 \tag{2.8.3}$$

Hydrogen, the lightest element, was assigned a relative mass of '1', and the other elements were assigned 'atomic masses' relative to this value for hydrogen. Thus, oxygen was assigned an atomic mass of 16. We now know that a **hydrogen** atom has a mass of **1.6735 x 10^{-24}** grams, and that the **oxygen** atom has a mass of **2.6561 X 10^{-23}** grams. As we saw earlier, it is convenient to use a reference unit when dealing with such small numbers: the **atomic mass unit**. The atomic mass unit (***amu***) was not standardized against hydrogen, but rather, against the ^{12}C isotope of **carbon** (***amu* = 12**).

Thus, the mass of the **hydrogen atom** (^{1}H) is 1.0080 *amu*, and the mass of **an oxygen atom** (^{16}O) is 15.995 *amu*. Once the masses of atoms were determined, the ***amu*** could be assigned an actual value:

1 ***amu*** = 1.66054 x 10^{-24} **grams** conversely: 1 **gram** = 6.02214 x 10^{23} ***amu***



Mass Numbers and Atomic Mass of Elements: https://youtu.be/Bg8yBFSBuqs

Average Atomic Mass

Although the masses of the electron, the proton, and the neutron are known to a high degree of precision (Table 2.3.1), the mass of any given atom is not simply the sum of the masses of its electrons, protons, and neutrons. For example, the ratio of the masses of ^{1}H (hydrogen) and ^{2}H (deuterium) is actually 0.500384, rather than 0.49979 as predicted from the numbers of neutrons and protons present. Although the difference in mass is small, it is extremely important because it is the source of the huge amounts of energy released in nuclear reactions.

Because atoms are much too small to measure individually and do not have charges, there is no convenient way to accurately measure absolute atomic masses. Scientists can measure relative atomic masses very accurately, however, using an instrument called a mass spectrometer. The technique is conceptually similar to the one Thomson used to determine the mass-to-charge ratio of the electron. First, electrons are removed from or added to atoms or molecules, thus producing charged particles called ions. When an electric field is applied, the ions are accelerated into a separate chamber where they are deflected from their initial trajectory by a magnetic field, like the electrons in Thomson's experiment. The extent of the deflection depends on the mass-to-charge ratio of the ion. By measuring the relative deflection of ions that have the same charge, scientists can determine their relative masses (Figure 2.8.1). Thus it is not possible to calculate absolute atomic masses accurately by simply adding together the masses of the electrons, the protons, and the neutrons, and absolute atomic masses cannot be measured, but relative masses can be measured very accurately. It is actually rather common in chemistry to encounter a quantity whose magnitude can be measured only relative to some other quantity, rather than absolutely. We will encounter many other examples later in this text. In such cases, chemists usually define a standard by arbitrarily assigning a numerical value to one of the quantities, which allows them to calculate numerical values for the rest.

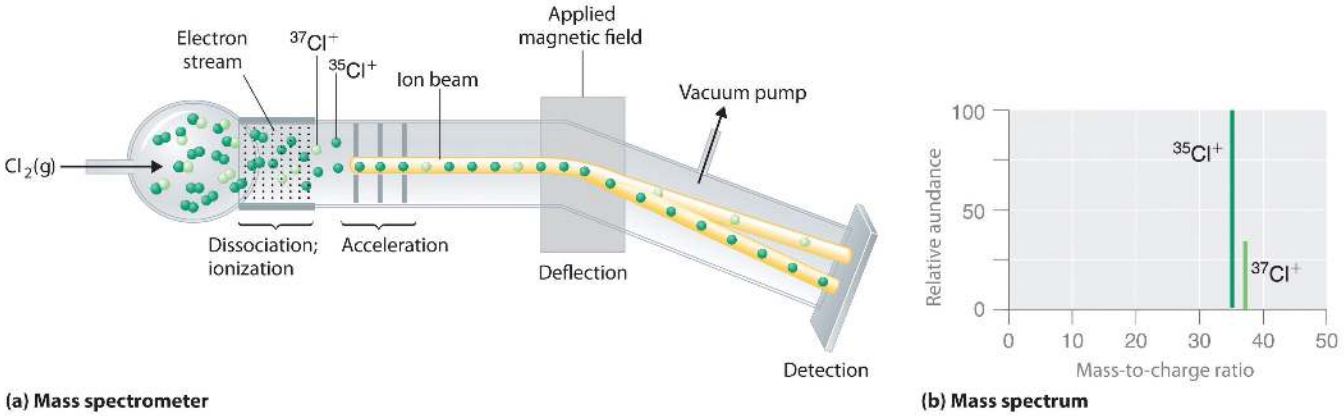


Figure 2.8.1: Determining Relative Atomic Masses Using a Mass Spectrometer. Chlorine consists of two isotopes, ^{35}Cl and ^{37}Cl, in approximately a 3:1 ratio. (a) When a sample of elemental chlorine is injected into the mass spectrometer, electrical energy is used to dissociate the Cl_2 molecules into chlorine atoms and convert the chlorine atoms to Cl^+ ions. The ions are then accelerated into a magnetic field. The extent to which the ions are deflected by the magnetic field depends on their relative mass-to-charge ratios. Note that the lighter $^{35}Cl^+$ ions are deflected more than the heavier $^{37}Cl^+$ ions. By measuring the relative deflections of the ions, chemists can determine their mass-to-charge ratios and thus their masses. (b) Each peak in the mass spectrum corresponds to an ion with a particular mass-to-charge ratio. The abundance of the two isotopes can be determined from the heights of the peaks.

The arbitrary standard that has been established for describing atomic mass is the atomic mass unit (amu or u), defined as one-twelfth of the mass of one atom of ^{12}C. Because the masses of all other atoms are calculated relative to the ^{12}C standard, ^{12}C is the only atom listed in Table 2.3.2 whose exact atomic mass is equal to the mass number. Experiments have shown that 1 amu = 1.66×10^{-24} g.

Mass spectrometric experiments give a value of 0.167842 for the ratio of the mass of ^{2}H to the mass of ^{12}C, so the **absolute mass** of ^{2}H is

$$\frac{\text{mass of } ^{2}\text{H}}{\text{mass of } ^{12}\text{C}} \times \text{mass of } ^{12}\text{C} = 0.167842 \times 12 \text{ amu} = 2.104104 \text{ amu} \tag{2.8.4}$$

The masses of the other elements are determined in a similar way.

The periodic table lists the atomic masses of all the elements. Comparing these values with those given for some of the isotopes in Table 2.3.2 reveals that the atomic masses given in the periodic table never correspond exactly to those of any of the isotopes. Because most elements exist as mixtures of several stable isotopes, the atomic mass of an element is defined as the weighted

average of the masses of the isotopes. For example, naturally occurring carbon is largely a mixture of two isotopes: 98.89% ^{12}C (mass = 12 amu by definition) and 1.11% ^{13}C (mass = 13.003355 amu). The percent abundance of ^{14}C is so low that it can be ignored in this calculation. The average atomic mass of carbon is then calculated as follows:

$$(0.9889 \times 12 \text{ amu}) + (0.0111 \times 13.003355 \text{ amu}) = 12.01 \text{ amu} \tag{2.8.5}$$

Carbon is predominantly ^{12}C, so its average atomic mass should be close to 12 amu, which is in agreement with this calculation.

The value of 12.01 is shown under the symbol for C in the periodic table, although without the abbreviation amu, which is customarily omitted. Thus the tabulated atomic mass of carbon or any other element is the weighted average of the masses of the naturally occurring isotopes.

Example 2.8.1: Bromine

Naturally occurring bromine consists of the two isotopes listed in the following table:

Isotope	Exact Mass (amu)	Percent Abundance (%)
^{79}Br	78.9183	50.69
^{81}Br	80.9163	49.31

Calculate the atomic mass of bromine.

Given: exact mass and percent abundance

Asked for: atomic mass

Strategy:

A. Convert the percent abundances to decimal form to obtain the mass fraction of each isotope.
B. Multiply the exact mass of each isotope by its corresponding mass fraction (percent abundance ÷ 100) to obtain its weighted mass.
C. Add together the weighted masses to obtain the atomic mass of the element.
D. Check to make sure that your answer makes sense.

Solution:

A The atomic mass is the weighted average of the masses of the isotopes. In general, we can write

atomic mass of element = [(mass of isotope 1 in amu) (mass fraction of isotope 1)] + [(mass of isotope 2) (mass fraction of isotope 2)] + …

Bromine has only two isotopes. Converting the percent abundances to mass fractions gives

$$^{79}\text{Br} : \frac{50.69}{100} = 0.5069$$

$$^{81}\text{Br} : \frac{49.31}{100} = 0.4931$$

B Multiplying the exact mass of each isotope by the corresponding mass fraction gives the isotope's weighted mass:

$$^{79}\text{Br} : 79.9183\ amu \times 0.5069 = 40.00\ amu$$

$$^{81}\text{Br} : 80.9163\ amu \times 0.4931 = 39.90\ amu$$

C The sum of the weighted masses is the atomic mass of bromine is

40.00 amu + 39.90 amu = 79.90 amu

D This value is about halfway between the masses of the two isotopes, which is expected because the percent abundance of each is approximately 50%.

Exercise 2.8.1

Magnesium has the three isotopes listed in the following table:

Isotope	Exact Mass (amu)	Percent Abundance (%)
^{24}Mg	23.98504	78.70
^{25}Mg	24.98584	10.13
^{26}Mg	25.98259	11.17

Use these data to calculate the atomic mass of magnesium.

Answer

24.31 amu



Finding the Averaged Atomic Weight of an Element: https://youtu.be/bmP6Gr9zJiQ

Summary

The mass of an atom is a weighted average that is largely determined by the number of its protons and neutrons, whereas the number of protons and electrons determines its charge. Each atom of an element contains the same number of protons, known as the atomic number (Z). Neutral atoms have the same number of electrons and protons. Atoms of an element that contain different numbers of neutrons are called isotopes. Each isotope of a given element has the same atomic number but a different mass number (A), which is the sum of the numbers of protons and neutrons. The relative masses of atoms are reported using the atomic mass unit (amu), which is defined as one-twelfth of the mass of one atom of carbon-12, with 6 protons, 6 neutrons, and 6 electrons. The atomic mass of an element is the weighted average of the masses of the naturally occurring isotopes. When one or more electrons are added to or removed from an atom or molecule, a charged particle called an ion is produced, whose charge is indicated by a superscript after the symbol.

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2.9: Molar Mass - Counting Atoms by Weighing Them

Learning Objectives

Make sure you thoroughly understand the following essential ideas:

- Define *Avogadro's number* and explain why it is important to know.
- Define the *mole*. Be able to calculate the number of moles in a given mass of a substance, or the mass corresponding to a given number of moles.
- Define *molecular weight*, *formula weight*, and *molar mass*; explain how the latter differs from the first two.
- Be able to find the number of atoms or molecules in a given weight of a substance.
- Find the *molar volume* of a solid or liquid, given its density and molar mass.
- Explain how the molar volume of a metallic solid can lead to an estimate of atomic diameter.

The chemical changes we observe always involve *discrete numbers of atoms* that rearrange themselves into new configurations. These numbers are HUGE— far too large in magnitude for us to count or even visualize, but they are still *numbers*, and we need to have a way to deal with them. We also need a bridge between these numbers, which we are unable to measure directly, and the weights of substances, which we do measure and observe. The *mole concept* provides this bridge, and is central to all of quantitative chemistry.



Counting Atoms: Avogadro's Number

Owing to their tiny size, atoms and molecules cannot be counted by direct observation. But much as we do when "counting" beans in a jar, we can estimate the number of particles in a sample of an element or compound if we have some idea of the volume occupied by each particle and the volume of the container. Once this has been done, we know the number of formula units (to use the most general term for any combination of atoms we wish to define) in any arbitrary weight of the substance. The number will of course depend both on the formula of the substance and on the weight of the sample. However, if we consider a weight of substance that is the same as its formula (molecular) weight expressed in grams, we have only one number to know: **Avogadro's number**.

Avogadro's number is known to ten significant digits:

$$N_A = 6.022141527 \times 10^{23}. \tag{2.9.1}$$

However, you only need to know it to three significant figures:

$$N_A \approx 6.02 \times 10^{23}. \tag{2.9.2}$$

So 6.02×10^{23} of *what*? Well, of anything you like: apples, stars in the sky, burritos. However, the only *practical* use for N_A is to have a more convenient way of expressing the huge numbers of the tiny particles such as atoms or molecules that we deal with in chemistry. Avogadro's number is a *collective number*, just like a dozen. Students can think of 6.02×10^{23} as the "chemist's dozen".

Before getting into the use of Avogadro's number in problems, take a moment to convince yourself of the reasoning embodied in the following examples.

Example 2.9.1: Mass ratio from atomic weights

The atomic weights of oxygen and carbon are 16.0 and 12.0 atomic mass units (u), respectively. How much heavier is the oxygen atom in relation to carbon?

Solution

Atomic weights represent the relative masses of different kinds of atoms. This means that the atom of oxygen has a mass that is

$$\frac{16 \ \cancel{u}}{12 \ \cancel{u}} = \frac{4}{3} \approx 1.33$$

as great as the mass of a carbon atom.

Example 2.9.2: Mass of a single atom

The absolute mass of a carbon atom is 12.0 unified atomic mass units (u). How many grams will a single oxygen atom weigh?

Solution

The absolute mass of a carbon atom is 12.0 u or

$$12 \ \cancel{u} \times \frac{1.6605 \times 10^{-24} g}{1 \ \cancel{u}} = 1.99 \times 10^{-23} \, g \, (\text{per carbon atom})$$

The mass of the oxygen atom will be 4/3 greater (from Example 2.9.1):

$$\left(\frac{4}{3}\right) 1.99 \times 10^{-23} \, g = 2.66 \times 10^{-23} \, g \, (\text{per oxygen atom})$$

Alternatively we can do the calculation directly like with carbon:

$$16 \ \cancel{u} \times \frac{1.6605 \times 10^{-24} g}{1 \ \cancel{u}} = 2.66 \times 10^{-23} \, g \, (\text{per oxygen atom})$$

Example 2.9.3: Relative masses from atomic weights

Suppose that we have N carbon atoms, where N is a number large enough to give us a pile of carbon atoms whose mass is 12.0 grams. How much would the same number, N, of oxygen atoms weigh?

Solution

We use the results from Example 2.9.1 again. The collection of N oxygen atoms would have a mass of

$$\frac{4}{3} \times 12 \, g = 16.0 \, g.$$

Exercise 2.9.1

What is the numerical value of N in Example 2.9.3?

Answer

Using the results of Examples 2.9.2and 2.9.3

$$N \times 1.99 \times 10^{-23}\, g\,(\text{per carbon atom}) = 12\, g$$

or

$$N = \frac{12\ \cancel{g}}{1.99 \times 10^{-23}\ \cancel{g}\ (\text{per carbon atom})} = 6.03 \times 10^{23}\text{atoms}$$

There are a lot of atoms in 12 g of carbon.

- It is a *number*, just as is "dozen", and thus is *dimensionless*.
- It is a *huge* number, far greater in magnitude than we can visualize
- Its practical use is limited to counting tiny things like atoms, molecules, "formula units", electrons, or photons.
- The value of N_A can be known only to the precision that the number of atoms in a measurable weight of a substance can be estimated. Because large numbers of atoms cannot be counted directly, a variety of ingenious indirect measurements have been made involving such things as Brownian motion and X-ray scattering.
- The current value was determined by measuring the distances between the atoms of silicon in an ultrapure crystal of this element that was shaped into a perfect sphere. (The measurement was made by X-ray scattering.) When combined with the measured mass of this sphere, it yields Avogadro's number. However, there are two problems with this:
  - The silicon sphere is an artifact, rather than being something that occurs in nature, and thus may not be perfectly reproducible.
  - The standard of mass, the kilogram, is not precisely known, and its value appears to be changing. For these reasons, there are proposals to revise the definitions of both N_A and the kilogram.

The Mole

The identity of a substance is defined not only by the types of atoms or ions it contains, but by the quantity of each type of atom or ion. For example, water, H2OH2O, and hydrogen peroxide, H2O2H2O2, are alike in that their respective molecules are composed of hydrogen and oxygen atoms. However, because a hydrogen peroxide molecule contains two oxygen atoms, as opposed to the wa ter molecule, which has only one, the two substances exhibit very different properties. Today, we possess sophisticated instruments that allow the direct measurement of these defining microscopic traits; however, the same traits were originally derived from the m easurement of macroscopic properties (the masses and volumes of bulk quantities of matter) using relatively simple tools (balances and volumetric glassware). This experimental approach required the introduction of a new unit for amount of substances, the *mole*, which remains indispensable in modern chemical science.

The mole is an amount unit similar to familiar units like pair, dozen, gross, etc. It provides a specific measure of *the number* of ato ms or molecules in a bulk sample of matter. A mole is defined as the amount of substance containing the same number of discrete e ntities (such as atoms, molecules, and ions) as the number of atoms in a sample of pure ^{12}C weighing exactly 12 g. One Latin conn otation for the word “mole” is “large mass” or “bulk,” which is consistent with its use as the name for this unit. The mole provides a link between an easily measured macroscopic property, bulk mass, and an extremely important fundamental property, number of atoms, molecules, and so forth.

The number of entities composing a mole has been experimentally determined to be 6.02214179×10236.02214179×1023, a fundam ental constant named **Avogadro’s number** (NANA) or the Avogadro constant in honor of Italian scientist Amedeo Avogadro. This constant is properly reported with an explicit unit of “per mole,” a conveniently rounded version being 6.022×1023/mol6.022×1023 /mol.

Consistent with its definition as an amount unit, 1 mole of any element contains the same number of atoms as 1 mole of any other e lement. The masses of 1 mole of different elements, however, are different, since the masses of the individual atoms are drastically different. The molar mass of an element (or compound) is the mass in grams of 1 mole of that substance, a property expressed in un its of grams per mole (g/mol) (Figure 3.9.43.9.4).

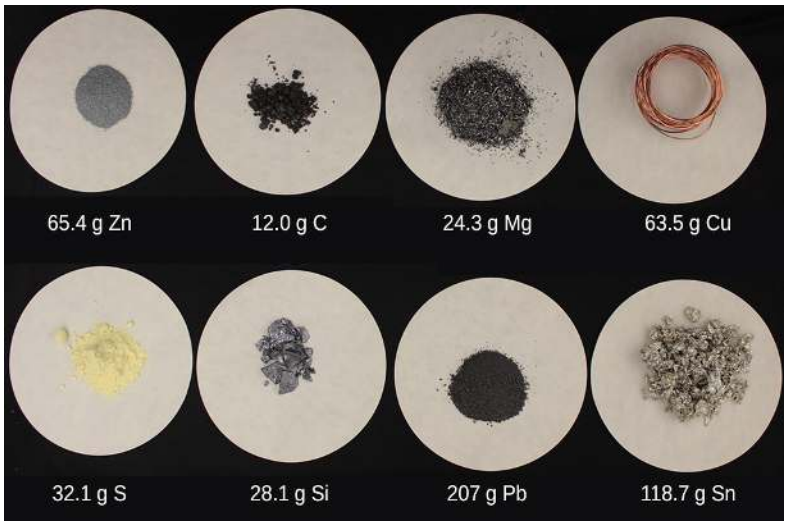


Figure 3.9.43.9.4: Each sample contains 6.022×10236.022×1023 atoms —1.00 mol of atoms. From left to right (top row): 65.4 g zinc, 12.0 g carbon, 24.3 g magnesium, and 63.5 g copper. From left to right (bottom row): 32.1 g sulfur, 28.1 g silicon, 207 g lead, and 118.7 g tin. (credit: modification of work by Mark Ott).

This figure contains eight different substances displayed on white circles. The amount of each substance is visibly different.

Because the definitions of both the mole and the atomic mass unit are based on the same reference substance, ^{12}C, the molar mass o f any substance is numerically equivalent to its atomic or formula weight in amu. Per the amu definition, a single ^{12}C atom weighs 12 amu (its atomic mass is 12 amu). According to the definition of the mole, 12 g of ^{12}C contains 1 mole of ^{12}C atoms (its molar m ass is 12 g/mol). This relationship holds for all elements, since their atomic masses are measured relative to that of the amu-reference substance, ^{12}C. Extending this principle, the molar mass of a compound in grams is likewise numerically equivalent to its formula mass in amu (Figure 3.9.53.9.5).

Moles and their Uses

The *mole* (abbreviated mol) is the the SI measure of *quantity of a "chemical entity"*, which can be an atom, molecule, formula unit, electron or photon. One mole of anything is just Avogadro's number of that something. Or, if you think like a lawyer, you might prefer the official SI definition:

Definition: The Mole

The mole is the amount of substance of a system which contains as many elementary entities as there are atoms in 0.012 kilogram of carbon 12

Avogadro's number (Equation 2.9.2) like any pure number, is dimensionless. However, it also defines the mole, so we can also express N_A as 6.02×10^{23} mol^{-1}; in this form, it is properly known as ***Avogadro's constant***. This construction emphasizes the role of Avogadro's number as a *conversion factor* between number of moles and number of "entities".

Example 2.9.4: number of moles in N particles

How many moles of nickel atoms are there in 80 nickel atoms?

Solution

$$\frac{80\ atoms}{6.02 \times 10^{23}\ atoms\ mol^{-1}} = 1.33 \times 10^{-22} mol$$

Is this answer reasonable? Yes, because 80 is an extremely small fraction of N_A.

Molar Mass

The atomic weight, molecular weight, or formula weight of one mole of the fundamental units (atoms, molecules, or groups of atoms that correspond to the formula of a pure substance) is the ratio of its mass to 1/12 the mass of one mole of C^{12} atoms, and being a ratio, is dimensionless. But at the same time, this *molar mass* (as many now prefer to call it) is also the observable mass of one mole (N_A) of the substance, so we frequently emphasize this by stating it explicitly as so many grams (or kilograms) per mole: g mol^{-1}.

> *It is important always to bear in mind that the mole is a number and not a mass. But each individual particle has a mass of its own, so a mole of any specific substance will always correspond to a certain mass of that substance.*

Example 2.9.5: Boron content of borax

Borax is the common name of sodium tetraborate, $Na_2B_4O_7$.

a. how many moles of boron are present in 20.0 g of borax?
b. how many grams of boron are present in 20.0 g of borax?

Solution

The formula weight of $Na_2B_4O_7$ so the molecular weight is:

$$(2 \times 23.0) + (4 \times 10.8) + (7 \times 16.0) = 201.2$$

a. 20 g of borax contains (20.0 g) ÷ (201 g mol^{-1}) = 0.10 mol of borax, and thus **0.40 mol** of B.
b. 0.40 mol of boron has a mass of (0.40 mol) × (10.8 g mol^{-1}) = **4.3 g**.

Example 2.9.6: Magnesium in chlorophyll

The plant photosynthetic pigment chlorophyll contains 2.68 percent magnesium by weight. How many atoms of Mg will there be in 1.00 g of chlorophyll?

Solution

Each gram of chlorophyll contains 0.0268 g of Mg, atomic weight 24.3.

- Number of moles in this weight of Mg: (.0268 g) / (24.2 g mol^{-1}) = 0.00110 mol
- Number of atoms: (0.00110 mol) × (6.02E23 mol^{-1}) = 6.64×10^{20}

Is this answer reasonable? (Always be suspicious of huge-number answers!) Yes, because we would expect to have huge numbers of atoms in any observable quantity of a substance.

Molar Volume

This is the volume occupied by one mole of a pure substance. Molar volume depends on the density of a substance and, like density, varies with temperature owing to thermal expansion, and also with the pressure. For solids and liquids, these variables ordinarily have little practical effect, so the values quoted for 1 atm pressure and 25°C are generally useful over a fairly wide range of conditions. This is definitely **not** the case with gases, whose molar volumes must be calculated for a specific temperature and pressure.

Example 2.9.7: Molar Volume of a Liquid

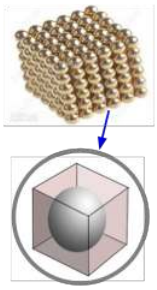
Methanol, CH_3OH, is a liquid having a density of 0.79 g per milliliter. Calculate the molar volume of methanol.

Solution

The molar volume will be the volume occupied by one molar mass (32 g) of the liquid. Expressing the density in liters instead of mL, we have

$$V_M = \frac{32\ g\ mol^{-1}}{790\ g\ L^{-1}} = 0.0405\ L\ mol^{-1}$$

The molar volume of a metallic element allows one to estimate the size of the atom. The idea is to mentally divide a piece of the metal into as many little cubic boxes as there are atoms, and then calculate the length of each box. Assuming that an atom sits in the center of each box and that each atom is in direct contact with its six neighbors (two along each dimension), this gives the diameter of the atom. The manner in which atoms pack together in actual metallic crystals is usually more complicated than this and it varies from metal to metal, so this calculation only provides an approximate value.



Example 2.9.8: Radius of a Strontium Atom

The density of metallic strontium is 2.60 g cm^{-3}. Use this value to estimate the radius of the atom of Sr, whose atomic weight is 87.6.

Solution

The molar volume of Sr is:

$$\frac{87.6\ g\ mol^{-1}}{2.60\ g\ cm^{-3}} = 33.7\ cm^3\ mol^{-1} \tag{2.9.3}$$

The volume of each "box" is"

$$\frac{33.7\ cm^3 mol^{-1}}{6.02 \times 10^{23}\ mol^{-1}} = 5.48 \times 10^{-23}\ cm^3 \tag{2.9.4}$$

The side length of each box will be the cube root of this value, $3.79 \times 10^{-8}\ cm$. The atomic radius will be half this value, or

$$1.9 \times 10^{-8}\ cm = 1.9 \times 10^{-10}\ m = 190pm \tag{2.9.5}$$

Note: Your calculator probably has no cube root button, but you *are* expected to be able to find cube roots; you can usually use the x^y button with y=0.333. You should also be able estimate the magnitude of this value for checking. The easiest way is to express the number so that the exponent is a multiple of 3. Take 54×10^{-24}, for example. Since 3^3=27 and 4^3 = 64, you know that the cube root of 55 will be between 3 and 4, so the cube root should be a bit less than 4×10^{-8}.

So how good is our atomic radius? Standard tables give the atomic radius of strontium is in the range 192-220 pm.

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2.10: Atoms and Elements (Exercises)

Template:HideTOC

These are homework exercises to accompany the Textmap created for Chemistry: A Molecular Approach by Nivaldo Tro. Complementary General Chemistry question banks can be found for other Textmaps and can be accessed here. In addition to these publicly available questions, access to private problems bank for use in exams and homework is available to faculty only on an individual basis; please contact Delmar Larsen for an account with access permission.

Q2.15

When 12 g of sodium reacts with 23.5 g of chlorine to form sodium chloride, how many grams of sodium chloride is formed? (Assume that sodium chloride is the only product).

Solution:

What we know: We have a chemical reaction between sodium and chlorine to form only sodium chloride. We are also given the masses of the reactants, 12 g of sodium and 23.5 g of chlorine. We also know that the Law of Conservation of Mass tells us that matter is neither created nor destroyed in a chemical reaction.

What we're asked for: The mass, in grams, of sodium chloride formed from the reaction.

Strategy:

A. Find the sum of the masses of the reactants from the chemical equation.

Solution

$$12\ g + 23.5\ g = 35.5\ g$$

35.5 g of sodium chloride is formed from the reaction.

Q1.55

According to Dalton's Atomic Theory, what are compounds made up of?

Strategy

A. Find the summary of Dalton's Atomic Theory
B. Read through it
C. Locate where it talks about what compounds are made of
D. Write your answer

Solution

Compounds are made up of two or more different atoms.

Q1.64

Isotopes are atoms that have the same number of protons but differ in the number of neutrons. Write the chemical symbols for each of the following isotopes:

a. the chlorine isotope with 18 neutrons
b. the chlorine isotope with 20 neutrons
c. the calcium isotope with 20 neutrons
d. the neon isotope with 11 neutrons

Strategy:

A. Determine the given element's atomic number from the periodic table.
B. Add the number of neutrons given in the question to the atomic number to calculate the mass number of the isotope.
C. The mass number will be represented in the upper left corner of the chemical symbol, while the atomic number will be represented in the lower left corner.

Helpful Hints:

- A chemical symbol is written as

$$^{A}_{Z}\mathrm{X}$$

. The **A** stands for the number of protons and neutrons, also known as the mass number. The **Z** stands for the number of protons, also known as the atomic number.
- Subtracting **Z** from **A** will give you the number of neutrons. Example:

$$^{39}_{19}\mathrm{K}$$

--> 39-19= 20 neutrons
- Therefore, adding the given number of neutrons to the atomic number, **Z**, gives you the mass number.

Solution:

a. $^{35}_{17}\mathrm{Cl}$

b. $^{37}_{17}\mathrm{Cl}$

c. $^{40}_{20}\mathrm{Ca}$

d. $^{21}_{10}\mathrm{Ne}$

Q1.65

Give the number of protons and neutrons in each isotope listed

a. $^{41}_{19}\mathrm{K}$

b. $^{11}_{4}\mathrm{Be}$

c. $^{45}_{22}\mathrm{Ti}$

d. $^{16}_{8}\mathrm{O}$

Strategy

Take the larger number and subtract the smaller number from it. The smaller number is the atomic number (z), which indicates the number of protons the element has. The larger number indicates the number of protons and neutron present in the element.

a. ^{41}K has an atomic mass of 41. The atomic mass is the number of protons and neutrons present in the element. To get the number of neutrons, subtract the atomic number (19) from the atomic mass (41). When done so you find that K^{41} has 19 protons and 22 neutrons. Keep in mind the atomic number is the number of protons present in the element, so the only thing you are trying to find through subtraction is the number of neutrons.
b. For ^{11}Be, the same thing occurs. Take the atomic number and subtract it from the atomic mass. The atomic mass is 11 and the atomic number is 4, so, 11 minus for equals 7. The answer for part **b.** is 4 protons and 7 neutrons.
c. For ^{45} Ti, you subtract 22 from 45, which gives you 22 protons and 23 neutrons.
d. For ^{16}O, the same method is applied. Subtract 8 from 16 and you get 8 protons and 8 electrons.

Q1.66

Question: Find the amount of protons and neutrons in the following atoms:

a. $^{14}_{6}\mathrm{C}$

b. $^{18}_{8}\mathrm{O}$

c. $^{55}_{25}\mathrm{Mn}$

d. $^{64}_{30}\mathrm{Zn}$

Strategy

A. First identify the subscript, the bottom number on the left hand side of the element's symbol. This is the atomic number and indicates how many protons the atom's nucleus contains. All isotopes of the same element contain the same number of protons.
B. Next, identify the superscript, the top number left hand side of the element symbol. This is the atomic mass number, the total combined number of protons and neutrons. Different isotopes of a given element differ in the number of neutrons contained in their nuclei.
C. The number of protons can be found simply by identifying the atomic number. To find the number of neutrons in the atom, the atomic number is subtracted from the atomic mass number.

Solution

A The atomic number of carbon is 6, the atomic number of oxygen is 8, the atomic number of manganese is 25, and the atomic number of zinc is 30. Therefore, we now know the number of protons contained within each atom since this number is represented by the atomic number.

B The atomic mass number of the carbon isotope is 14, the mass number of the oxygen isotope is 18, the mass number of the manganese isotope is 55, and the mass number of the zinc isotope is 64. This is the combined number of protons and neutrons in each respective isotope.

C Carbon isotope:

$$14 - 6 = 8\, neutrons$$

Oxygen isotope:

$$18 - 8 = 10\, neutrons$$

Manganese isotope:

$$55 - 25 = 30\, neutrons$$

Zinc isotope:

$$64 - 30 = 34\, neutrons$$

Q1.64

Write the isotopic symbols in the form AZX for each isotope.

a. The oxygen isotope with 9 neutrons.
b. The neon isotope with 10 neutrons.
c. The chlorine isotope with 18 neutrons.
d. The carbon isotope with 8 neutrons.

Strategy

A. Identify each element’s atomic number (number of protons).
B. Find the atomic mass of each element by adding the number of protons and the number of neutrons.
C. Properly write the isotopic symbol of each element by placing the atomic mass as the superscript and the atomic number (number of protons) as the subscript.

Solution

1. Atomic Numbers (Number of Protons):

   Oxygen: 8 protons

   Neon: 10 protons

   Chlorine: 17 protons

   Carbon: 6 protons

2. Atomic Mass:

   Oxygen: 8+9=17

   Neon: 10+10=20

Chlorine: 17+18=35

Carbon: 6+8=14

3. Isotopic Symbols:

Oxygen: $^{17}_{8}O$

Neon: $^{20}_{10}Ne$

Chlorine: $^{35}_{17}Cl$

Carbon: $^{14}_{6}C$

Q1.69

Question: Determine the number of protons and electrons in each of the following ions.

a. N^{3-}
b. Be^{2+}
c. K^{+}
d. Se^{2-}

Strategy

A. First locate each element on the periodic table. Identify the atomic number associated with each element, or the number in between the element's symbol and scientific name. The atomic number is the number of protons as well as the number of electrons an element possesses in it's neutral state.
B. Next, identify the superscript of each element, or the number to the top right of the element's symbol. This number should include a "+" or "-" sign next to it, indicating the element's charge. A "+" indicates a positively charged ion and a "-" indicates a negatively charged ion. An element becomes positively charged when it loses electrons, and negative when it gains electrons.
C. To solve for each element's total number of electrons, take that element's atomic number, and inversely add or subtract the number in the superscript according to the element's charge. If an element has a "+" sign, it is losing the amount of electrons indicated by the superscript number, so subtract this number from the element's atomic number. The same goes if an element has a "-" sign, instead adding the number in the superscript to the element's atomic number.

Solution

(1) N^{3-}

A. Nitrogen's atomic number is 7, so in a neutral state, Nitrogen has **7** protons and electrons.

B. Nitrogen's superscript is "3-" indicating that it is gaining 3 electrons

C. Because it gains 3 electrons, N^{3-} now has a total of **10** electrons.

(2) Be^{2+}

A. Beryllium's atomic number is 4, so Beryllium possesses **4** protons and electrons

B. The superscript "2+" indicates beryllium is losing 2 electrons

C. 2 electrons are subtracted from Beryllium's total 4, so it now has **2** electrons.

(3) K^{+}

A. Potassium as a neutral element possesses **19** protons and electrons, indicated by it's atomic number of 19.

B. The superscript "+" indicates Potassium will lose 1 electron from it's total.

C. 19 total electrons minus 1 makes K^{+} number of electrons to **18.**

(4) Se^{2-}

A. Selenium's atomic number is 34, indicating **34** protons and electrons at ground state.

B. It' superscript "2-" indicates that it will be gaining 2 electrons to it's total.

C. 34 electrons plus 2 makes selenium's total number of electrons **34.**

Q 1.73

The atomic mass for Helium is 4.003 amu and the mass spectrum for Helium shows a spike at this mass. Meanwhile, the atomic mass for Bromine is 79.904 amu; however, the mass spectrum for Bromine does not show a peak at that mass. What causes the difference?

Solution

1. The best way to start this problem is to recall what the atomic mass means in the context of the problem. This is the standard atomic mass, which is the weighted average of all the isotopes. "Weighted" in this situation means that the abundance of each isotope factors in to how it factors in to the overall the standard atomic mass for that particular element.
2. Next step is to look at Helium. Helium has two isotopes and is stable at either; however, in atmospheric values, Helium is found most abundantly as ^{4}He (99.999863%) and much less commonly found as ^{3}He (0.000137%). Consequently, ^{3}He does not have a strong influence on the standard atomic mass of Helium or much expression on the mass spectrum which measures relative abundance.
3. Examining Bromine reveals two major isotopes for that element as well. Both ^{79}Br as well as ^{81}Br are rather prevalent (^{79}Br with 50.69% and ^{81}Br with 49.31%). This means that their relative abundance is high enough that they would make a significant impact on both the mass spectrum as well as the standard atomic weight of Bromine.
4. To connect the dots, the dichotomy between the two elements comes from the abundance of their isotopes. Bromine's two isotopes almost equally comprise the atomic mass so the atomic mass they produce does not match up with an actual relatively abundant isotope of Br so therefore the line for that particular atomic mass is absent on the mass spectrum for Br. Helium, meanwhile, is primarily influenced by the ^{3}He because of its incredibly high abundance and therefore the mass spectrum and the standard atomic mass are very similar.

Q1.74

The atomic mass of chlorine is 35.453 amu. There are two stable isotopes for chlorine. Would either of these isotopes have a mass of 35.453 amu? Why or why not?

Important things to consider

- The atomic mass is the sum of the protons and neutrons.
- Isotopes vary in the amount of neutrons of the same element.
- Each isotope will have a different mass number depending upon how many neutrons are present.
- amu = atomic mass unit
    - unit used for indicating mass on an atomic scale

Answer

No, because isotopes are variants of an element that differ in the number of neutrons present, but they have the same number of protons (atomic number the same).

Q2.47

How many Magnesium atoms are there in 4.67 mol of Magnesium?

What we know: We know that we have 4.67 mol of Magnesium.

What we are asked for: The number of Magnesium atoms present.

Strategy:

A. Familiarize yourself with Avogadro's number which is 6.022 x 10^{23}.
B. Set up a dimensional analysis equation to convert Magnesium moles to Magnesium atoms.
C. Carry out the equation.

Solution

A. 1 mol is equal to 6.022 x 10^{23} of anything, but in this case Magnesium atoms.

B.
$$4.67 mol Mg \times \frac{6.022 \times 10^{23} atoms Mg}{1 mol Mg} \tag{2.10.1}$$

C. The "mol Mg" units cancel so you're left with:

$$4.67 \times (6.022 \times 10^{23} atoms Mg) = 2.81 \times 10^{24} atoms Mg \tag{2.10.2}$$

2.81 x 10^{24} atoms of Magnesium are in 4.67 mol of Magnesium

Q2.55

Find the mass (in grams) of each of the following:

a. 2.1 x 10^{22} Fe molecules
b. 2.9 x 10^{23} Al molecules
c. 3.9 x 10^{22} Ca molecules
d. 4.3 x 10^{22} Ga molecules

Solution

1. Firstly, because the question requires the same steps for each part, the best way to begin would be to break down the steps necessary into a basic equation:

$$\frac{number\ of\ molecules}{1} | \frac{1\ mol}{6.022 \cdot 10^{23} molecules} | \frac{g}{1\ mol} \tag{2.10.3}$$

   This equation is formed by the fact there are 6.022•10^{23} molecules per mole. Next, the g/mol is the atomic weight of the respective elements in order to finalize the conversion from molecules to grams.

2. Next is to fill in the numbers for each part and each element.

a.

$$\frac{2.1 \cdot 10^{22} Fe\ molecules}{1} | \frac{1\ mol}{6.022 \cdot 10^{23} molecules} | \frac{55.845\ g}{1\ mol} \tag{2.10.4}$$

$$= 1.9 g \tag{2.10.5}$$

b.

$$\frac{2.9 \cdot 10^{23} Al\ molecules}{1} | \frac{1\ mol}{6.022 \cdot 10^{23} molecules} | \frac{26.982\ g}{1\ mol} \tag{2.10.6}$$

$$= 13.0 g (from 12.99 g)] \tag{2.10.7}$$

c.

$$\frac{3.9 \cdot 10^{22} Ca\ molecules}{1} | \frac{1\ mol}{6.022 \cdot 10^{23} molecules} | \frac{40.078\ g}{1\ mol} \tag{2.10.8}$$

$$= 2.6 g \tag{2.10.9}$$

d.

$$\frac{4.3 \cdot 10^{22} Ga\ molecules}{1} | \frac{1\ mol}{6.022 \cdot 10^{23} molecules} | \frac{69.723\ g}{1\ mol} \tag{2.10.10}$$

$$= 5.0 g (from 4.98 g) \tag{2.10.11}$$

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

3: Molecules, Compounds and Chemical Equations

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3.1: Hydrogen, Oxygen, and Water

Swimming pools have long been a popular means of recreation, exercise, and physical therapy. Since it is impractical to refill large pools with fresh water frequently, pool water is regularly treated with chemicals to prevent the growth of harmful bacteria and algae. Proper pool maintenance requires regular additions of various chemical compounds in carefully measured amounts. For example, the relative amount of calcium ion, Ca^{2+}, in the water should be maintained within certain limits to prevent eye irritation and avoid damage to the pool bed and plumbing. To maintain proper calcium levels, calcium cations are added to the water in the form of an ionic compound that also contains anions; thus, it is necessary to know both the relative amount of Ca^{2+} in the compound and the volume of water in the pool in order to achieve the proper calcium level.

Qualitative description of substances (such as water), the types of bonds present in the substances, and quantitative aspects of the composition of substances are the subject of this chapter.



Figure 1. The water in a swimming pool is a complex mixture of substances whose relative amounts must be carefully maintained to ensure the health and comfort of people using the pool. (credit: modification of work by Vic Brincat)

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3.2: Representing Compounds- Chemical Formulas and Molecular Models

Chemistry is the experimental and theoretical study of materials on their properties at the macroscopic and microscopic levels.

A chemical formula is a format used to express the structure of atoms. The formula tells which elements and how many of each element are present in a compound. Formulas are written using the elemental symbol of each atom and a subscript to denote the number of elements.

Molecular Formula

The molecular formula is based on the actual makeup of the compound. Although the molecular formula can sometimes be the same as the empirical formula, molecular compounds tend to be more helpful. However, they do not describe how the atoms are put together.

Ex. Molecular Formula for Ethanol: C_2H_6O.

It is important to note that a subscript following a symbol and a number in front of a symbol does not represent the same thing; for example, H_2 and 2H represent distinctly different species. H_2 is a molecular formula; it represents a diatomic molecule of hydrogen , consisting of two atoms of the element that are chemically bonded together. The expression 2H, on the other hand, indicates two s eparate hydrogen atoms that are not combined as a unit. The expression $2H_2$ represents two molecules of diatomic hydrogen (Figur e 3.2.1).

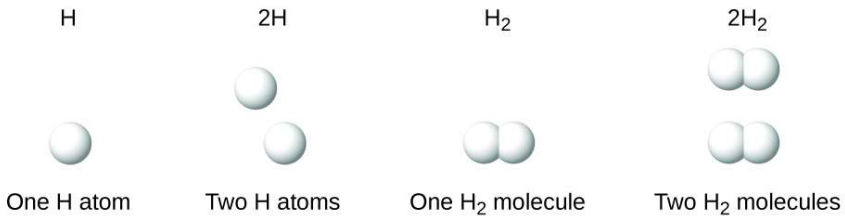


Figure 3.2.1: The symbols H, 2H, H_2, and $2H_2$ represent very different entities.

Empirical Formula

An empirical formula shows the most basic form of a compound. Empirical formulas show the number of atoms of each element in a compound in the most simplified state using whole numbers. While empirical formulas cannot determine the structure, shape, or properties of the compound, it usually is one of the first experiments to know what atoms and in which relationship are present in an unknown sample.

Ex. Find the empirical formula for $C_8H_{16}O_2$.

Answer: C_4H_8O (divide all subscripts by 2 to get the smallest, whole number ratio).

Binary compounds

Binary compounds are formed between two elements, either a metal paired with a nonmetal or two nonmetals paired together.

When two nonmetals are paired together, the compound is a molecular compound always represented using the Molecular Formula. When writing out the formula, the element with a more metallic character (with a positive oxidation state) is placed first.

Ex. Molecular Compound: N_2O_4 (Dinitrogen Tetroxide)

When a metal is paired with a nonmetal, they form an ionic compound, representing it using Empirical Formulas. In ionic compounds, each atom is in the form of an ion; one atom is a negatively charged ion (anion), and the other is a positively charged ion (cation). The net charge of the compound must be neutral using the minimal amount of each atom.

Ex. Ionic Compound: $BaBr_2$ (Barium Bromide)

Example 3.2.1: Empirical and Molecular Formulas

Molecules of glucose (blood sugar) contain 6 carbon atoms, 12 hydrogen atoms, and 6 oxygen atoms. What are the molecular and empirical formulas of glucose?

Solution

The molecular formula is $C_6H_{12}O_6$ because one molecule contains 6 C, 12 H, and 6 O atoms. The simplest whole-number ratio of C to H to O atoms in glucose is 1:2:1, so the empirical formula is CH_2O.

Exercise 3.2.1

A molecule of metaldehyde (a pesticide used for snails and slugs) contains 8 carbon atoms, 16 hydrogen atoms, and 4 oxygen atoms. What are the molecular and empirical formulas of metaldehyde?

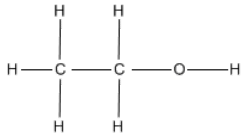
Answer

Molecular formula, $C_8H_{16}O_4$; empirical formula, C_2H_4O

Structural Formula

A structural formula displays the atoms of the molecule in the order they are bonded. It also depicts how the atoms are bonded to one another, for example single, double, and triple covalent bond. Covalent bonds are shown using lines. The number of dashes indicates whether the bond is a single, double, or triple covalent bond. Structural formulas are helpful because they explain the compound's properties and structure, which empirical and molecular formulas cannot always represent.

Ex. Structural Formula for Ethanol:



Condensed Structural Formula

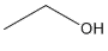
Condensed structural formulas show the order of atoms like a structural formula but are written in a single line to save space and make it more convenient and faster to write out. Condensed structural formulas are also helpful when showing that a group of atoms is connected to a single atom in a compound. When this happens, parenthesis is used around the group of atoms to show they are together.

Ex. Condensed Structural Formula for Ethanol: CH_3CH_2OH (Molecular Formula for Ethanol C_2H_6O).

Line-Angle Formula

Because organic compounds can sometimes be complex, line-angle formulas are used to write carbon and hydrogen atoms more efficiently by replacing the letters with lines. A carbon atom is present wherever a line intersects another line. Hydrogen atoms are then assumed to complete each of carbon's four bonds. All other atoms that are connected to carbon atoms are written out. Line angle formulas help show the structure and order of the atoms in a compound, making the advantages and disadvantages similar to structural formulas.

Ex. Line-Angle Formula for Ethanol:



Ball-and-stick model

A ball-and-stick model shows the geometric arrangement of the atoms with atomic sizes not to scale, and a space-filling model shows the relative sizes of the atoms.

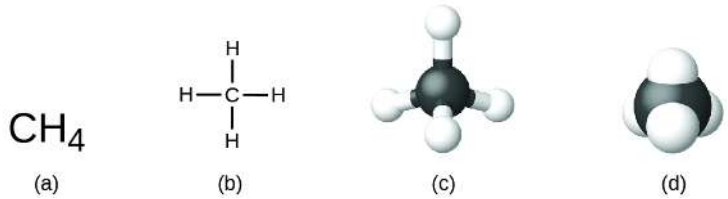
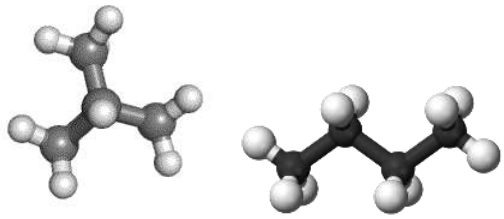


Figure 3.2.2: A methane molecule can be represented as (a) a molecular formula, (b) a structural formula, (c) a ball-and-stick model, and (d) a space-filling model. Carbon and hydrogen atoms are represented by black and white spheres, respectively.

Molecular Geometry and Structural Formula

Understanding how atoms in a molecule are arranged and how they are bonded together is very important in giving the molecule its identity. Isomers are compounds in which two molecules can have the same number of atoms, and thus the same molecular formula, but can have completely different physical and chemical properties because of differences in the structural formula.



Methylpropane and butane have the same molecular formula of C_4H_{10}, but are structurally different (methylpropane on the left, butane on the right).

Summary

As discussed previously, we can describe a compound with a molecular formula, in which the subscripts indicate the *actual numbers of atoms* of each element in a molecule of the compound. In many cases, the molecular formula of a substance is derived from the experimental determination of both its empirical formula and its molecular mass (the sum of atomic masses for all atoms composing the molecule). For example, it can be determined experimentally that benzene contains two elements, carbon (C) and hydrogen (H), and that for every carbon atom in benzene, there is one hydrogen atom. Thus, the empirical formula is CH. An experimental determination of the molecular mass reveals that a molecule of benzene contains six carbon atoms and six hydrogen atoms, so the molecular formula for benzene is C_6H_6 (Figure 3.2.3).

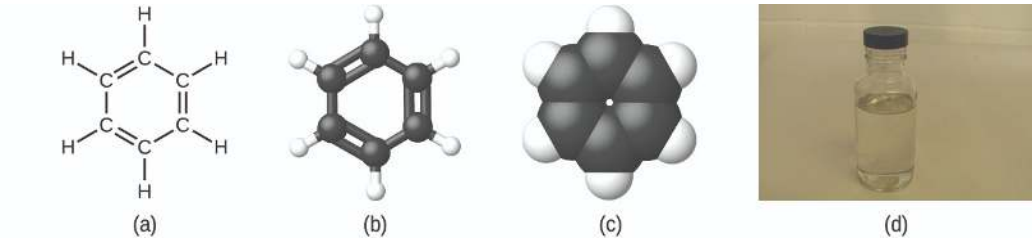
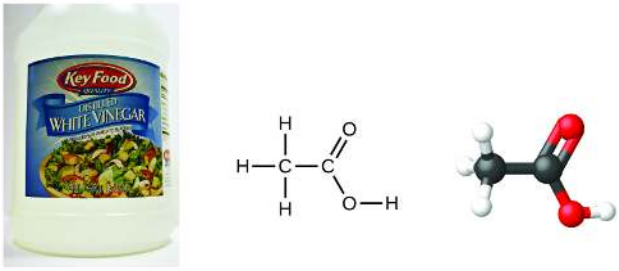


Figure 3.2.3: Benzene, C_6H_6, is produced during oil refining and has many industrial uses. A benzene molecule can be represented as (a) a structural formula, (b) a ball-and-stick model, and (c) a space-filling model. (d) Benzene is a clear liquid. (credit d: modification of work by Sahar Atwa).

If we know a compound's molecular formula, we can easily determine the empirical formula. (This is somewhat of an academic exercise; the reverse chronology is generally followed in actual practice.) For example, the molecular formula for acetic acid, the component that gives vinegar its sharp taste, is $C_2H_4O_2$. This formula indicates that a molecule of acetic acid (Figure 3.2.4) contains two carbon atoms, four hydrogen atoms, and two oxygen atoms. The ratio of atoms is 2:4:2. Dividing by the lowest common denominator (2) gives the simplest, whole-number ratio of atoms, 1:2:1, so the empirical formula is CH_2O. Note that a molecular formula is always a whole-number multiple of an empirical formula.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 3.2.4: (a) Vinegar contains acetic acid, $C_2H_4O_2$, which has an empirical formula of CH_2O. It can be represented as (b) a structural formula and (c) as a ball-and-stick model. (credit a: modification of work by "HomeSpot HQ"/Flickr)

? Exercise 3.2.1

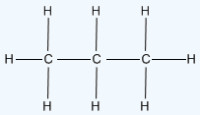
1. Which of the following formulas can not be considered an Empirical Formula?
   a. HClO
   b. C_5H_{10}
   c. CO_2
2. Write the empirical formula for the following compounds
   a. $C_{12}H_{10}O_6$
   b. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$
   c. H_3O^+

Answer

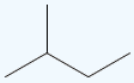
1. b. C_5H_{10}
2. a. $C_6H_5O_3$, b. C_7H_{16}, c. H_3O^+

? Exercise 3.2.1

1. What is the Classification of the following formula?



2. What is the name of the representation and the chemical formula of the following molecule?



Answer

1. Structural Formula
2. Line-Angle, C_5H_{12}

Contributors and Attributions

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3.3: Lewis (Dot) Representation

Chemical bonding is one of the most basic fundamentals of chemistry that explains other concepts such as molecules and reactions. Without it, scientists wouldn't be able to explain why atoms are attracted to each other or how products are formed after a chemical reaction. To understand the concept of bonding, one must first know the basics behind atomic structure.

Introduction

A common atom contains a nucleus composed of protons and neutrons, with electrons in certain energy levels revolving around the nucleus. In this section, the main focus will be on these electrons. Elements are distinguishable from each other due to their "electron cloud," or the area where electrons move around the nucleus of an atom. Because each element has a distinct electron cloud, this determines their chemical properties as well as the extent of their reactivity (i.e. noble gases are inert/not reactive while alkaline metals are highly reactive). In chemical bonding, only valence electrons, electrons located in the orbitals of the outermost energy level (valence shell) of an element, are involved.

For atoms in groups A on the periodic table, we are going to match the number of valance electrons with the roman numeral of the groups A. For example, Hydrogen (H) belongs to Group IA, which means H has 1 valence electron, then, Oxygen (O) belongs to Group VIA, which means O has 6 valence electrons. This easy way to know the number of valence electrons works only for Group A.

Octet Rule

Most elements follow the octet rule in chemical bonding, which means that an element should have contact to eight valence electrons in a bond or exactly fill up its valence shell. Having eight electrons total ensures that the atom is stable. This is the reason why noble gases, a valence electron shell of 8 electrons, are chemically inert; they are already stable and tend to not need the transfer of electrons when bonding with another atom in order to be stable. On the other hand, alkali metals have a valance electron shell of one electron. Since they want to complete the octet rule they often simply lose one electron. This makes them quite reactive because they can easily donate this electron to other elements. This explains the highly reactive properties of the Group IA elements.

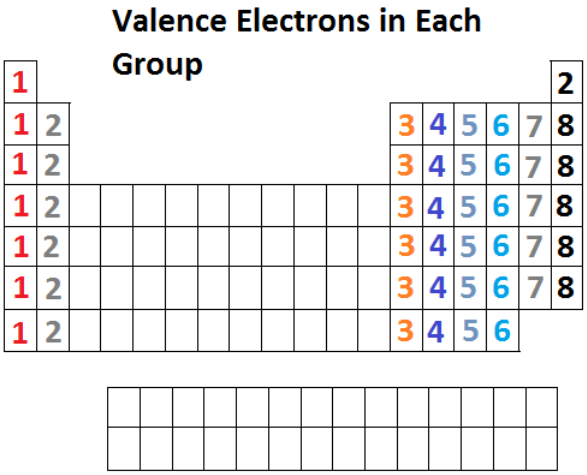
Some elements that are exceptions to the octet rule include Aluminum(Al), Phosphorus(P), Sulfur(S), and Xenon(Xe).

Hydrogen(H) and Helium(He) follow the duet rule since their valence shell only allows two electrons. There are no exceptions to the duet rule; hydrogen and helium will always hold a maximum of two electrons.

Lewis Diagrams

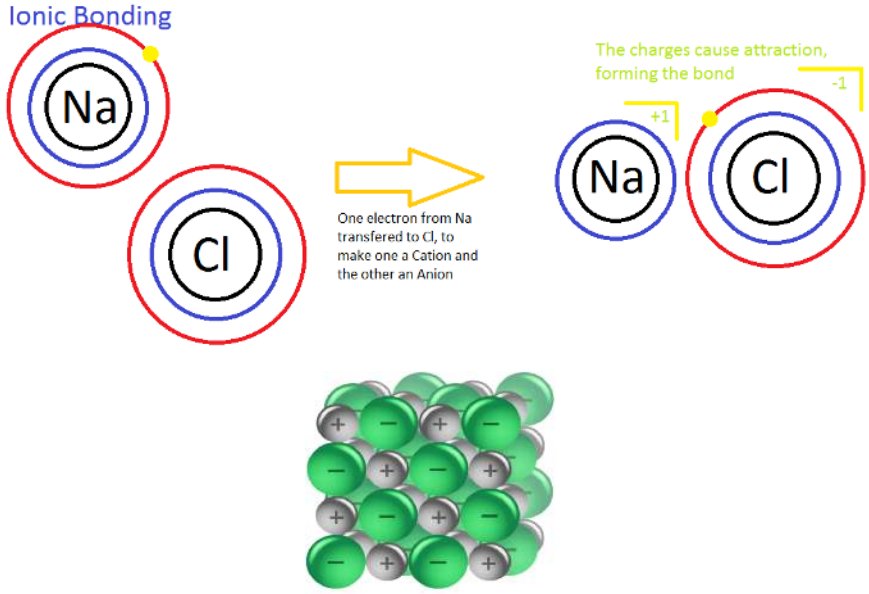
Lewis diagrams are graphical representations of elements and their valence electrons. Valance electrons are the electrons that form the outermost shell of an atom. In a Lewis diagram of an element, the symbol of the element is written in the center and the valence electrons are drawn around it as dots. The position of the valence electrons drawn is unimportant. However, the general convention is to start from 12o'clock position and go clockwise direction to 3 o'clock, 6 o'clock, 9 o'clock, and back to 12 o'clock positions respectively. Generally the Roman numeral of the group corresponds with the number of valance electrons of the element.

Below is the periodic table representation of the number of valance electrons. The alkali metals of Group IA have one valance electron, the alkaline-earth metals of Group IIA have 2 valance electrons, Group IIIA has 3 valance electrons, and so on. The nonindicated transition metals, lanthanoids, and actinoids are more difficult in terms of distinguishing the number of valance electrons they have; however, this section only introduces bonding, hence they will not be covered in this unit.

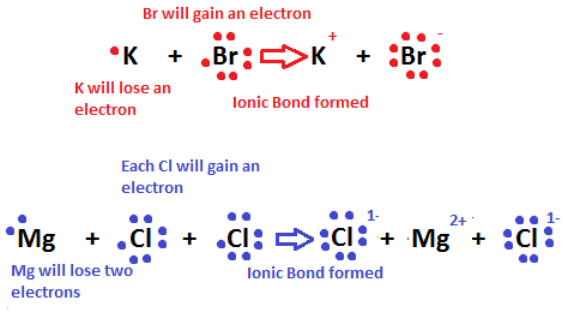


Ionic Bonding

Ionic bonding is the process of not sharing electrons between two atoms. It occurs between a nonmetal and a metal. Ionic bonding is also known as the process in which electrons are "transferred" to one another because the two atoms have different levels of electron affinity. In the picture below, a sodium (Na) ion and a chlorine (Cl) ion are being combined through ionic bonding. Na^+ has less electronegativity due to a large atomic radius and essentially does not want the electron it has. This will easily allow the more electronegative chlorine atom to gain the electron to complete its 3rd energy level. Throughout this process, the transfer of the electron releases energy to the atmosphere.

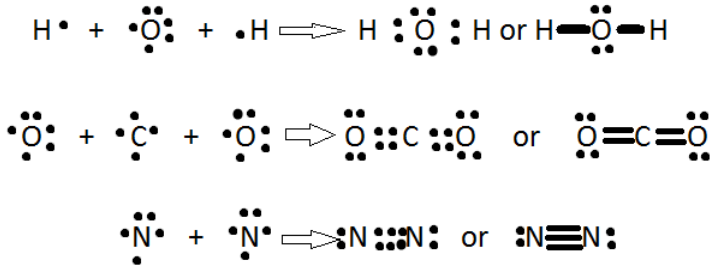


Another example of ionic bonding is the crystal lattice structure shown above. The ions are arranged in such a way that shows unifomity and stablity; a physical characteristic in crystals and solids. Moreover, in a concept called "the sea of electrons," it is seen that the molecular structure of metals is composed of stabilized positive ions (cations) and "free-flowing" electrons that weave in-between the cations. This attributes to the metal property of conductivity; the flowing electrons allow the electric current to pass through them. In addition, this explains why strong electrolytes are good conductors. Ionic bonds are easily broken by water because the polarity of the water molecules shield the anions from attracting the cations. Therefore, the ionic compounds dissociate easily in water, and the metallic properties of the compound allow conductivity of the solution.



Covalent Bonding

Covalent bonding is the process of sharing of electrons between two atoms. The bonds are typically between a nonmetal and a nonmetal. Since their electronegativities are all within the high range, the electrons are attracted and pulled by both atom's nuceli. In the case of two identical atoms that are bonded to each other (also known as a nonpolar bond, explained later below), they both emit the same force of pull on the electrons, thus there is equal attraction between the two atoms (i.e. oxygen gas, or O_2, have an equal distribution of electron affinity. This makes covalent bonds harder to break.



All these diagrams show the formation of covalent bonds as electrons from elements are shared to form single, double, and triple bonds

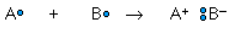
There are three types of covalent bonds: single, double, and triple bonds. A single bond is composed of 2 bonded electrons. Naturally, a double bond has 4 electrons, and a triple bond has 6 bonded electrons. Because a triple bond will have more strength in electron affinity than a single bond, the attraction to the positively charged nucleus is increased, meaning that the distance from the nucleus to the electrons is less. Simply put, the more bonds or the greater the bond strength, the shorter the bond length will be. In other words:

Bond length: triple bond < double bond < single bond

Summary

The covalent bond is formed when two atoms are able to share electrons:

whereas the ionic bond is formed when the "sharing" is so unequal that an electron from atom A is completely lost to atom B, resulting in a pair of ions:



The two extremes of electron sharing represented by the covalent and ionic models appear to be generally consistent with the observed properties of molecular and ionic solids and liquids.

Contributors and Attributions

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3.4: A Molecular View of Elements and Compounds

Learning Objectives

- Classify substances as atomic elements, molecular elements, molecular compounds, or ionic compounds.

Elements

There are lots of elements, and you don't need to memorize them all. Here are a few that you should learn right now, though, because they are common or important so that you won't be confused when they are mentioned later. They are organized by their type.

Atomic Elements

Most elements exist with **individual atoms** as their basic unit. It is assumed that there is only one atom in a formula if there is no numerical subscript on the right side of an element's symbol.

1. Non-metals - All Noble Gases. Example:
   - Helium (He): named after the sun, because it was discovered in the sun before being discovered on Earth (we'll explain how later); it doesn't react with anything.
2. Metals: soft or hard, light or heavy, usually solid electric conductors. Examples:
   - Lithium (Li): the lightest alkali, used in batteries and anti-depressants
   - Lead (Pb, from Latin plumbum): sweet-tasting toxic metal, now used to shield radiation and in bullets, among other uses
   - Iron (Fe, from Latin ferrum): most abundant element on earth, essential in steel, with complex reaction properties essential to life
   - Copper (Cu, from Latin cuprum): less reactive metal, with characteristic colors, commonly used in coins and electronics
   - Gold (Au, from Latin aurum): used since ancient times in coins and jewelry, to color stained glass, also in dentistry and other applications
   - Mercury (Hg, from Latin hydrargyrum): also called quicksilver, because it is a silver liquid, it is toxic but very important in the history of science; used in thermometers.

Molecular Elements

Many substances exist as two or more atoms connected together so strongly that they behave as a single particle. These multi-atom combinations are called **molecules**. A molecule is the smallest part of a substance that has the physical and chemical properties of that substance. In some respects, a molecule is similar to an atom. A molecule, however, is composed of more than one atom.

Some elements exist naturally as molecules. For example, hydrogen and oxygen exist as two-atom molecules. Other elements also exist naturally as diatomic molecules—a molecule with only two atoms (Figure 3.4.1). As with any molecule, these elements are labeled with a **molecular formula**, a formal listing of what and how many atoms are in a molecule. (Sometimes, only the word *formula* is used, and its meaning is inferred from the context.)

For example, the molecular formula for elemental hydrogen is $\mathbf{H_2}$, with H being the symbol for hydrogen and the subscript 2 implying that there are two atoms of this element in the molecule. Other diatomic elements have similar formulas: $\mathbf{O_2}$, $\mathbf{N_2}$, and Halogens $\mathbf{F_2}$, $\mathbf{Cl_2}$, $\mathbf{Br_2}$, and $\mathbf{I_2}$.

Other elements exist as molecules—for example, sulfur normally exists as an eight-atom molecule, $\mathbf{S_8}$, while phosphorus exists as a four-atom molecule, $\mathbf{P_4}$ (Figure 3.4.1).

Figure 3.4.1 shows two examples of how molecules will be represented in this text. An atom is represented by a small ball or sphere, which generally indicates where the nucleus is in the molecule. A cylindrical line connecting the balls represents the connection between the atoms that make this collection of atoms a molecule. This connection is called a chemical bond.

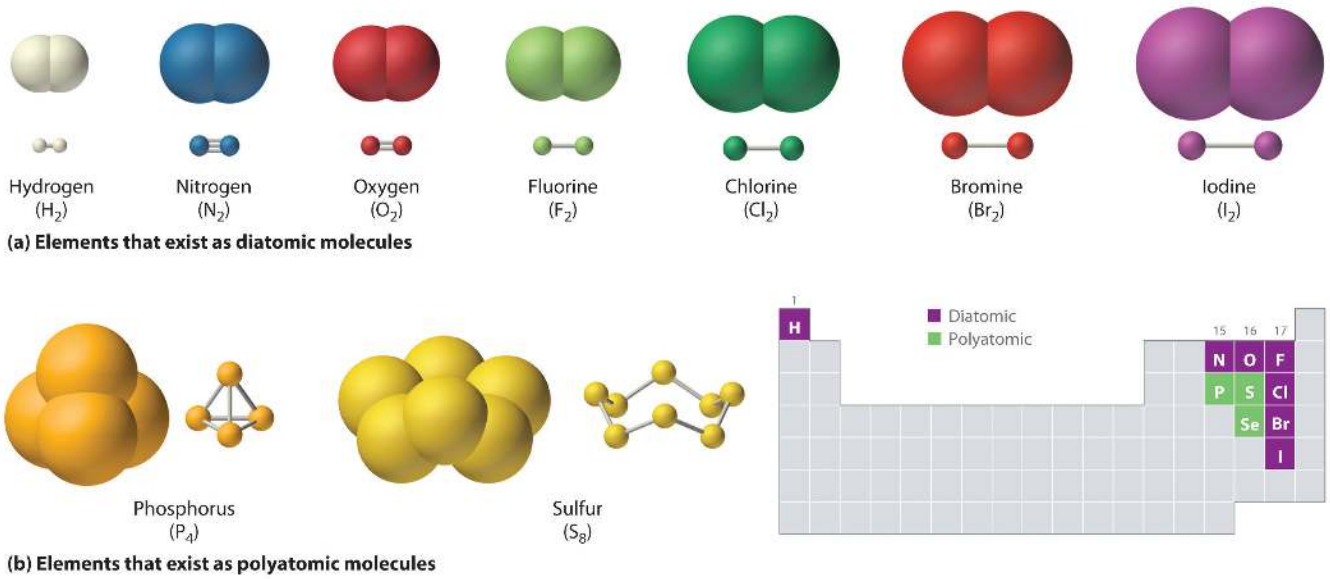


Figure 3.4.1: Elements That Exist as Covalent Molecules. (a) Several elements naturally exist as diatomic molecules, in which two atoms (E) are joined by one or more covalent bonds to form a molecule with the general formula E2. (b) A few elements naturally exist as polyatomic molecules, which contain more than two atoms. For example, phosphorus exists as P_4 tetrahedral—regular polyhedral with four triangular sides—with a phosphorus atom at each vertex. Elemental sulfur consists of a puckered ring of eight sulfur atoms connected by single bonds. Selenium is not shown due to the complexity of its structure.

Ionic Compounds

The elements in the periodic table are divided into specific groupings; metals, non-metals, metalloids, and so on. These groupings are largely based on physical properties and the tendency of the various elements to bond with other elements by forming either an ionic or a covalent bond. As a general rule of thumb, compounds involving metal binding with either a non-metal or a metalloids will display ionic bonding. Thus, the compound formed from sodium and chlorine will be ionic (a metal and a non-metal). The basic unit of ionic compounds is the **formula unit**.

Molecular Compounds

Compounds composed of only non-metals or semi-metals with non-metals will display covalent bonding and be classified as molecular compounds. Nitrogen monoxide (NO) will be a covalently bound molecule (two non-metals), and silicon dioxide (SiO_2) will also be a covalently bound molecule (a semi-metal and a non-metal). The basic unit of molecular compounds is the **molecule**.

✔ Example 3.4.1

Provide the classification (i.e. atomic element, molecular element, molecular compound, or ionic compound) of each substance.

a. Fe
b. PCl_3
c. LiBr
d. P_4
e. oxygen gas

Solution

a. **Fe** (iron) is an element that is represented with no subscript, so it is an **atomic element**.
b. **PCl_3** is made up of two nonmetals, so it is a **molecular compound**.
c. **LiBr** is made up of lithium, a metal, and bromine, a nonmetal, so it is an **ionic compound**.
d. **P_4** is a substance that is made up of four atoms of the same element, so it is a **molecular element**.
e. The formula for **oxygen gas** is **O_2** so it is a molecular element.

Exercise 3.4.1

Provide the classification (i.e. atomic element, molecular element, molecular compound, or ionic compound) of each substance.

a. I_2
b. He
c. H_2O
d. Al
e. CuCl

Answer a:

molecular element

Answer b:

atomic element

Answer c:

molecular compound

Answer d:

atomic element

Answer e:

ionic compound

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3.5: Formation of Ions and Ionic Compounds

Learning Objectives

- Define ionic compounds
- Predict the type of compound formed from elements based on their location within the periodic table
- Determine formulas for simple ionic compounds

Formation of Ions

In ordinary chemical reactions, the nucleus of each atom (and thus the element's identity) remains unchanged. Electrons, however, can be added to atoms by transfer from other atoms, lost by transfer to other atoms, or shared with other atoms. The transfer and sharing of electrons among atoms govern the chemistry of the elements. During the formation of some compounds, atoms gain or lose electrons, and form electrically charged particles called ions (Figure 3.5.1). You can use the periodic table to predict whether an atom will form an anion or a cation, and you can often predict the charge of the resulting ion.

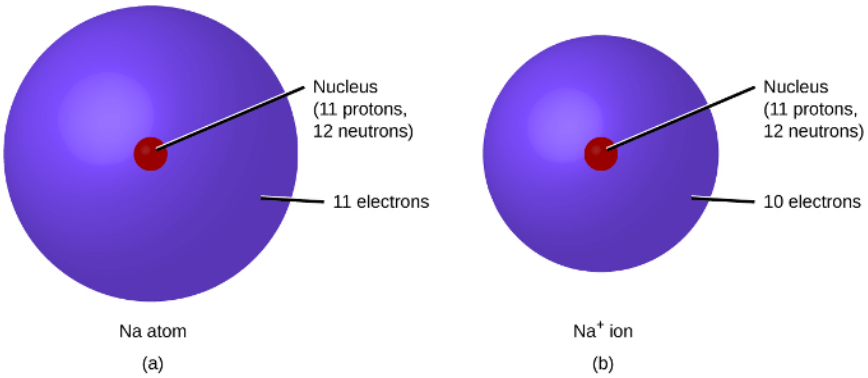


Figure 3.5.1: (a) A sodium atom (Na) has equal numbers of protons and electrons (11) and is uncharged. (b) A sodium cation (Na^+) has lost an electron, so it has one more proton (11) than electrons (10), giving it an overall positive charge, signified by a superscripted plus sign.

Cations

Atoms of many main-group metals lose enough electrons to leave them with the same number of electrons as an atom of the preceding noble gas. To illustrate, an atom of an alkali metal (group 1) loses one electron and forms a cation with a 1+ charge, as presented in Figure 3.5.1; an alkaline earth metal (group 2) loses two electrons and forms a cation with a 2+ charge, and so on. For example, a neutral calcium atom, with 20 protons and 20 electrons, readily loses two electrons. This results in a cation with 20 protons, 18 electrons, and a 2+ charge. It has the same number of electrons as atoms of the preceding noble gas, argon, and is symbolized Ca^{2+}. The name of a metal ion is the same as the name of the metal atom from which it forms, so Ca^{2+} is called a calcium ion.

Anios

When atoms of nonmetal elements form ions, they generally gain enough electrons to give them the same number of electrons as an atom of the next noble gas in the periodic table. Atoms of group 17 gain one electron and form anions with a 1− charge; atoms of group 16 gain two electrons and form ions with a 2− charge, and so on. For example, the neutral bromine atom, with 35 protons and 35 electrons, can gain one electron to provide it with 36 electrons. This results in an anion with 35 protons, 36 electrons, and a 1− charge. It has the same number of electrons as atoms of the next noble gas, krypton, and is symbolized Br^-. (A discussion of the theory supporting the favored status of noble gas electron numbers reflected in these predictive rules for ion formation is provided in a later chapter of this text.)

Note the usefulness of the periodic table in predicting likely ion formation and charge (Figure 3.5.2). Moving from the far left to the right on the periodic table, main-group elements tend to form cations with a charge equal to the group number. That is, group 1 elements form 1+ ions; group 2 elements form 2+ ions, and so on. Moving from the far right to the left on the periodic table, elements often form anions with a negative charge equal to the number of groups moved left from the noble gases. For example, group 17 elements (one group left of the noble gases) form 1− ions; group 16 elements (two groups left) form 2− ions, and so on.

This trend can be used as a guide in many cases, but its predictive value decreases when moving toward the center of the periodic table. In fact, transition metals and some other metals often exhibit variable charges that are not predictable by their location in the table. For example, copper can form ions with a 1+ or 2+ charge, and iron can form ions with a 2+ or 3+ charge.

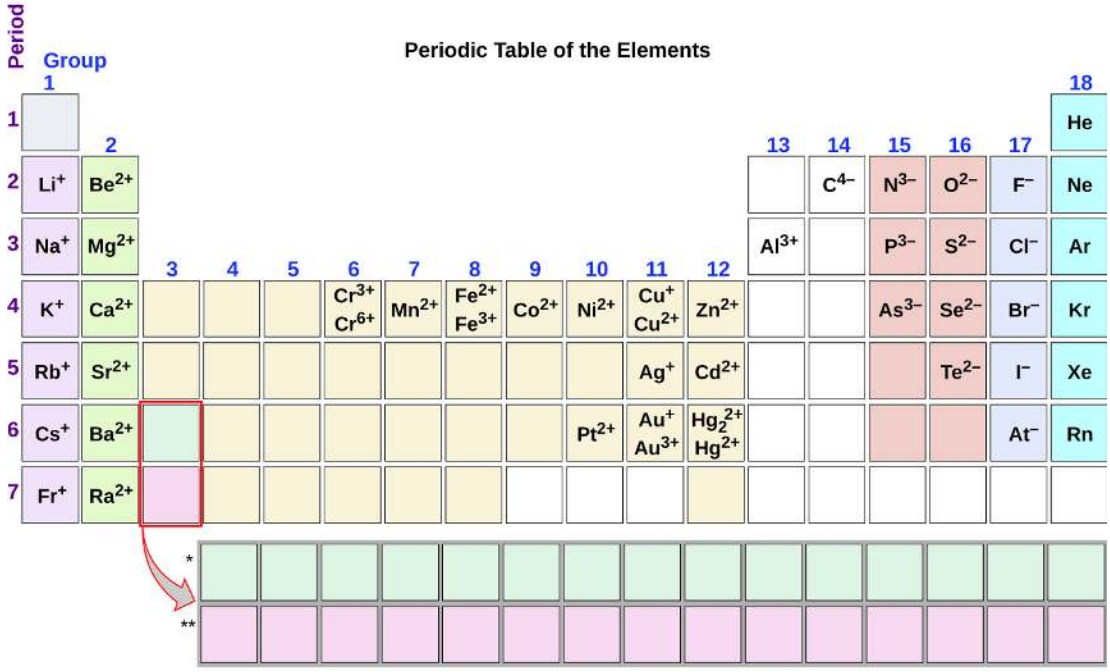


Figure 3.5.2: Some elements exhibit a regular pattern of ionic charge when they form ions.

Example 3.5.1: Composition of Ions

An ion found in some compounds used as antiperspirants contains 13 protons and 10 electrons. What is its symbol?

Solution

Because the number of protons remains unchanged when an atom forms an ion, the atomic number of the element must be 13. Knowing this lets us use the periodic table to identify the element as Al (aluminum). The Al atom has lost three electrons and thus has three more positive charges (13) than it has electrons (10). This is the aluminum cation, Al^{3+}.

Exercise 3.5.1

Give the symbol and name for the ion with 34 protons and 36 electrons.

Answer

Se^{2-}, the selenide ion

Example 3.5.2: Formation of Ions

Magnesium and nitrogen react to form an ionic compound. Predict which forms an anion, which forms a cation, and the charges of each ion. Write the symbol for each ion and name them.

Solution

Magnesium's position in the periodic table (group 2) tells us that it is a metal. Metals form positive ions (cations). A magnesium atom must lose two electrons to have the same number electrons as an atom of the previous noble gas, neon. Thus, a magnesium atom will form a cation with two fewer electrons than protons and a charge of 2+. The symbol for the ion is Mg^{2+}, and it is called a magnesium ion.

Nitrogen's position in the periodic table (group 15) reveals that it is a nonmetal. Nonmetals form negative ions (anions). A nitrogen atom must gain three electrons to have the same number of electrons as an atom of the following noble gas, neon.

Thus, a nitrogen atom will form an anion with three more electrons than protons and a charge of 3−. The symbol for the ion is N^{3-}, and it is called a nitride ion.

? Exercise 3.5.2

Aluminum and carbon react to form an ionic compound. Predict which forms an anion, which forms a cation, and the charges of each ion. Write the symbol for each ion and name them.

Answer

Al will form a cation with a charge of 3+: Al^{3+}, an aluminum ion. Carbon will form an anion with a charge of 4−: C^{4-}, a carbide ion.

Polyatomic Ions

The ions that we have discussed so far are called monatomic ions, that is, they are ions formed from only one atom. We also find many polyatomic ions. These ions, which act as discrete units, are electrically charged molecules (a group of bonded atoms with an overall charge). Some of the more important polyatomic ions are listed in Table 3.5.1. Oxyanions are polyatomic ions that contain one or more oxygen atoms. At this point in your study of chemistry, you should memorize the names, formulas, and charges of the most common polyatomic ions. Because you will use them repeatedly, they will soon become familiar.

Table 3.5.1: Common Polyatomic Ions

Name	Formula	Name	Formula
ammonium	NH_4^+		
hydronium	H_3O^+		
oxide	O^{2-}		
peroxide	O_2^{2-}		
hydroxide	OH^-		
acetate	CH_3COO^-		
cyanide	CN^-		
azide	N_3^-		
carbonate	CO_3^{2-}		
bicarbonate	HCO_3^-		
nitrate	NO_3^-		
nitrite	NO_2^-		
sulfate	SO_4^{2-}		
hydrogen sulfate	HSO_4^-		
sulfite	SO_3^{2-}		
hydrogen sulfite	HSO_3^-		
phosphate	PO_4^{3-}		
hydrogen phosphate	HPO_4^{2-}		
dihydrogen phosphate	$H_2PO_4^-$		
perchlorate	ClO_4^-		

Name	Formula	Name	Formula
chlorate	ClO_3^-		
chlorite	ClO_2^-		
hypochlorite	ClO^-		
chromate	CrO_4^{2-}		
dichromate	$Cr_2O_7^{2-}$		
permanganate	MnO_4^-		

Note that there is a system for naming some polyatomic ions; *-ate* and *-ite* are suffixes designating polyatomic ions containing more or fewer oxygen atoms. *Per-* (short for “hyper”) and *hypo-* (meaning “under”) are prefixes meaning more oxygen atoms than *-ate* and fewer oxygen atoms than *-ite*, respectively. For example, perchlorate is ClO_4^-, chlorate is ClO_3^-, chlorite is ClO_2^- and hypochlorite is ClO^-. Unfortunately, the number of oxygen atoms corresponding to a given suffix or prefix is not consistent; for example, nitrate is NO_3^- while sulfate is SO_4^{2-}. This will be covered in more detail in the next module on nomenclature.

The nature of the attractive forces that hold atoms or ions together within a compound is the basis for classifying chemical bonding. When electrons are transferred and ions form, ionic bonds result. Ionic bonds are electrostatic forces of attraction, that is, the attractive forces experienced between objects of opposite electrical charge (in this case, cations and anions). When electrons are “shared” and molecules form, covalent bonds result. Covalent bonds are the attractive forces between the positively charged nuclei of the bonded atoms and one or more pairs of electrons that are located between the atoms. Compounds are classified as ionic or molecular (covalent) on the basis of the bonds present in them.

Ionic Compounds

When an element composed of atoms that readily lose electrons (a metal) reacts with an element composed of atoms that readily gain electrons (a nonmetal), a transfer of electrons usually occurs, producing ions. The compound formed by this transfer is stabilized by the electrostatic attractions (ionic bonds) between the ions of opposite charge present in the compound. For example, when each sodium atom in a sample of sodium metal (group 1) gives up one electron to form a sodium cation, Na^+, and each chlorine atom in a sample of chlorine gas (group 17) accepts one electron to form a chloride anion, Cl^-, the resulting compound, NaCl, is composed of sodium ions and chloride ions in the ratio of one Na^+ ion for each Cl^- ion. Similarly, each calcium atom (group 2) can give up two electrons and transfer one to each of two chlorine atoms to form $CaCl_2$, which is composed of Ca^{2+} and Cl^- ions in the ratio of one Ca^{2+} ion to two Cl^- ions.

A compound that contains ions and is held together by ionic bonds is called an ionic compound. The periodic table can help us recognize many of the compounds that are ionic: When a metal is combined with one or more nonmetals, the compound is usually ionic. This guideline works well for predicting ionic compound formation for most of the compounds typically encountered in an introductory chemistry course. However, it is not always true (for example, aluminum chloride, $AlCl_3$, is not ionic).

You can often recognize ionic compounds because of their properties. Ionic compounds are solids that typically melt at high temperatures and boil at even higher temperatures. For example, sodium chloride melts at 801 °C and boils at 1413 °C. (As a comparison, the molecular compound water melts at 0 °C and boils at 100 °C.) In solid form, an ionic compound is not electrically conductive because its ions are unable to flow (“electricity” is the flow of charged particles). When molten, however, it can conduct electricity because its ions are able to move freely through the liquid (Figure 3.5.3).

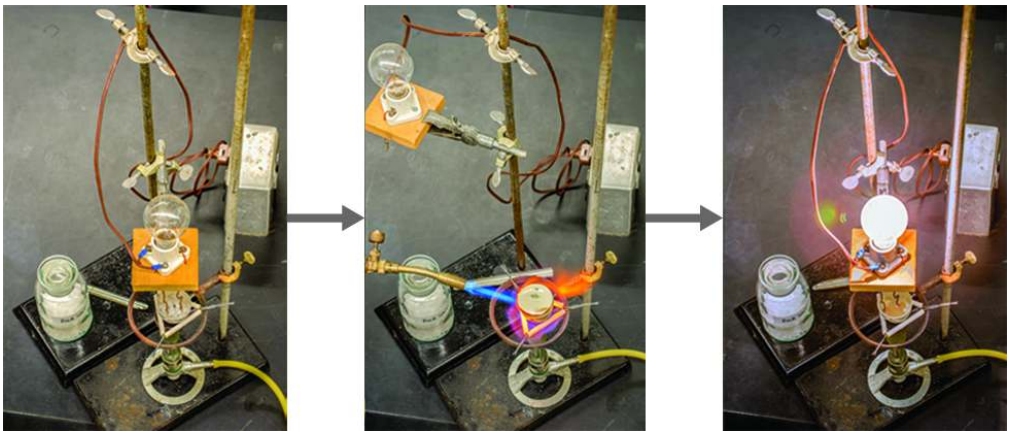


Figure 3.5.3: Sodium chloride melts at 801 °C and conducts electricity when molten. (credit: modification of work by Mark Blaser and Matt Evans)

In every ionic compound, the total number of positive charges of the cations equals the total number of negative charges of the anions. Thus, ionic compounds are electrically neutral overall, even though they contain positive and negative ions. We can use this observation to help us write the formula of an ionic compound. The formula of an ionic compound must have a ratio of ions such that the numbers of positive and negative charges are equal.

Example 3.5.3: Predicting the Formula of an Ionic Compound

The gemstone sapphire (Figure 3.5.4) is mostly a compound of aluminum and oxygen that contains aluminum cations, Al^{3+}, and oxygen anions, O^{2-}. What is the formula of this compound?



Figure 3.5.4: Although pure aluminum oxide is colorless, trace amounts of iron and titanium give blue sapphire its characteristic color. (credit: modification of work by Stanislav Doronenko)

Solution Because the ionic compound must be electrically neutral, it must have the same number of positive and negative charges. Two aluminum ions, each with a charge of 3+, would give us six positive charges, and three oxide ions, each with a charge of 2−, would give us six negative charges. The formula would be Al_2O_3.

Exercise 3.5.3

Predict the formula of the ionic compound formed between the sodium cation, Na^+, and the sulfide anion, S^{2-}.

Answer

Na_2S

Many ionic compounds contain polyatomic ions (Table 3.5.1) as the cation, the anion, or both. As with simple ionic compounds, these compounds must also be electrically neutral, so their formulas can be predicted by treating the polyatomic ions as discrete units. We use parentheses in a formula to indicate a group of atoms that behave as a unit. For example, the formula for calcium phosphate, one of the minerals in our bones, is $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$. This formula indicates that there are three calcium ions (Ca^{2+}) for every two phosphate $\left(PO_4^{3-}\right)$ groups. The PO_4^{3-} groups are discrete units, each consisting of one phosphorus atom and four oxygen atoms, and having an overall charge of 3−. The compound is electrically neutral, and its formula shows a total count of three Ca, two P, and eight O atoms.

Example 3.5.4: Predicting the Formula of a Compound with a Polyatomic Anion

Baking powder contains calcium dihydrogen phosphate, an ionic compound composed of the ions Ca^{2+} and $H_2PO_4^-$. What is the formula of this compound?

Solution

The positive and negative charges must balance, and this ionic compound must be electrically neutral. Thus, we must have two negative charges to balance the 2+ charge of the calcium ion. This requires a ratio of one Ca^{2+} ion to two $H_2PO_4^-$ ions. We designate this by enclosing the formula for the dihydrogen phosphate ion in parentheses and adding a subscript 2. The formula is $Ca(H_2PO_4)_2$.

Exercise 3.5.4

Predict the formula of the ionic compound formed between the lithium ion and the peroxide ion, O_2^{2-} (Hint: Use the periodic table to predict the sign and the charge on the lithium ion.)

Answer

Li_2O_2

Because an ionic compound is not made up of single, discrete molecules, it may not be properly symbolized using a *molecular* formula. Instead, ionic compounds must be symbolized by a formula indicating the *relative numbers* of its constituent ions. For compounds containing only monatomic ions (such as NaCl) and for many compounds containing polyatomic ions (such as $CaSO_4$), these formulas are just the empirical formulas introduced earlier in this chapter. However, the formulas for some ionic compounds containing polyatomic ions are not empirical formulas. For example, the ionic compound sodium oxalate is comprised of Na^+ and $C_2O_4^{2-}$ ions combined in a 2:1 ratio, and its formula is written as $Na_2C_2O_4$. The subscripts in this formula are not the smallest-possible whole numbers, as each can be divided by 2 to yield the empirical formula, $NaCO_2$. However, this is not the accepted formula for sodium oxalate, as it does not accurately represent the compound's polyatomic anion, $C_2O_4^{2-}$.

Molecular Compounds

Many compounds do not contain ions but instead consist solely of discrete, neutral molecules. These molecular compounds (covalent compounds) result when atoms share electrons, rather than transfer them (gain or lose). Covalent bonding is an important and extensive concept in chemistry, and it will be treated in considerable detail in a later chapter of this text. We can often identify molecular compounds on the basis of their physical properties. Under normal conditions, molecular compounds often exist as gases, low-boiling liquids, and low-melting solids, although many important exceptions exist.

Whereas ionic compounds are usually formed when a metal and a nonmetal combine, covalent compounds are usually formed by a combination of nonmetals. Thus, the periodic table can help us recognize many of the compounds that are covalent. While we can use the positions of a compound's elements in the periodic table to predict whether it is ionic or covalent at this point in our chemistry study, you should be aware that this is a very simplistic approach that does not account for several interesting exceptions. Shades of gray exist between ionic and molecular compounds, and you'll learn more about those later.

Example 3.5.5: Predicting the Type of Bonding in Compounds

Predict whether the following compounds are ionic or molecular:

a. KI, the compound used as a source of iodine in table salt
b. H_2O_2, the bleach and disinfectant hydrogen peroxide
c. $CHCl_3$, the anesthetic chloroform
d. Li_2CO_3, a source of lithium in antidepressants

Solution

a. Potassium (group 1) is a metal, and iodine (group 17) is a nonmetal; KI is predicted to be ionic.
b. Hydrogen (group 1) is a nonmetal, and oxygen (group 16) is a nonmetal; H_2O_2 is predicted to be molecular.

c. Carbon (group 14) is a nonmetal, hydrogen (group 1) is a nonmetal, and chlorine (group 17) is a nonmetal; $CHCl_3$ is predicted to be molecular.
d. Lithium (group 1) is a metal, and carbonate is a polyatomic ion; Li_2CO_3 is predicted to be ionic.

? Exercise 3.5.5

Using the periodic table, predict whether the following compounds are ionic or covalent:

a. SO_2
b. CaF_2
c. N_2H_4
d. $Al_2(SO_4)_3$

Answer a

molecular

Answer b

ionic

Answer c

molecular

Answer d

ionic

Summary

Metals (particularly those in groups 1 and 2) tend to lose the number of electrons that would leave them with the same number of electrons as in the preceding noble gas in the periodic table. By this means, a positively charged ion is formed. Similarly, nonmetals (especially those in groups 16 and 17, and, to a lesser extent, those in Group 15) can gain the number of electrons needed to provide atoms with the same number of electrons as in the next noble gas in the periodic table. Thus, nonmetals tend to form negative ions. Positively charged ions are called cations, and negatively charged ions are called anions. Ions can be either monatomic (containing only one atom) or polyatomic (containing more than one atom).

Compounds that contain ions are called ionic compounds. Ionic compounds generally form from metals and nonmetals. Compounds that do not contain ions, but instead consist of atoms bonded tightly together in molecules (uncharged groups of atoms that behave as a single unit), are called covalent compounds. Covalent compounds usually form from two or more nonmetals.

Glossary

covalent bond
attractive force between the nuclei of a molecule’s atoms and pairs of electrons between the atoms

covalent compound
(also, molecular compound) composed of molecules formed by atoms of two or more different elements

ionic bond
electrostatic forces of attraction between the oppositely charged ions of an ionic compound

ionic compound
compound composed of cations and anions combined in ratios, yielding an electrically neutral substance

molecular compound
(also, covalent compound) composed of molecules formed by atoms of two or more different elements

monatomic ion

ion composed of a single atom

polyatomic ion

ion composed of more than one atom

oxyanion

polyatomic anion composed of a central atom bonded to oxygen atoms

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3.6: Ionic Compounds- Formulas and Names

Learning Objectives

- Derive names for Type I ionic compounds using a systematic approach.
- Derive names for ionic compounds built from monoatomic or polyatomic ions.
- Derive names for Type II ionic compounds using a systematic approach.

Nomenclature, a collection of rules for naming things, is important in science and in many other situations. This module describes an approach that is used to name simple ionic and molecular compounds, such as NaCl, $CaCO_3$, and N_2O_4. The simplest of these are binary compounds, those containing only two elements, but we will also consider how to name ionic compounds containing polyatomic ions, and one specific, very important class of compounds known as acids (subsequent chapters in this text will focus on these compounds in great detail). We will limit our attention here to inorganic compounds, compounds that are composed principally of elements other than carbon, and will follow the nomenclature guidelines proposed by IUPAC. The rules for organic compounds, in which carbon is the principle element, will be treated in a later chapter on organic chemistry.

Ionic Compounds

To name an inorganic compound, we need to consider the answers to several questions. First, is the compound ionic or molecular? If the compound is ionic, does the metal form ions of only one type (fixed charge) or more than one type (variable charge)? Are the ions monatomic or polyatomic? If the compound is molecular, does it contain hydrogen? If so, does it also contain oxygen? From the answers we derive, we place the compound in an appropriate category and then name it accordingly.

Compounds Containing Only Monatomic Ions in which the Cation has a Fixed Charge

The name of a binary compound containing monatomic ions with cations with only one option for charge, consists of the name of the cation (the name of the metal or ammonium) followed by the name of the anion (the name of the nonmetallic element with its ending replaced by the suffix –*ide*). Some examples are given in Table 3.6.2.

Table 3.6.1: Names of Some Ionic Compounds

NaCl, sodium chloride	Na_2O, sodium oxide
KBr, potassium bromide	CdS, cadmium sulfide
CaI_2, calcium iodide	Mg_3N_2, magnesium nitride
CsF, cesium fluoride	Ca_3P_2, calcium phosphide
LiCl, lithium chloride	Al_4C_3, aluminum carbide

Compounds Containing Polyatomic Ions in which the Cation has a Fixed Charge

Compounds containing polyatomic ions are named similarly to those containing only monatomic ions, except there is no need to change to an –*ide* ending, since the suffix is already present in the name of the anion. You will find the names of the polyatomic ion in the previous section. Examples are shown in Table 3.6.2.

Table 3.6.2: Names of Some Polyatomic Ionic Compounds

$KC_2H_3O_2$, potassium acetate	$(NH_4)Cl$, ammonium chloride
$NaHCO_3$, sodium bicarbonate	$CaSO_4$, calcium sulfate
$Al_2(CO_3)_3$, aluminum carbonate	$Mg_3(PO_4)_2$, magnesium phosphate

Compounds Containing a Metal Ion with a Variable Charge

Most of the transition metals can form two or more cations with different charges. Compounds of these metals with nonmetals are named with the same method as compounds in the first category, except the charge of the metal ion is specified by a Roman numeral in parentheses after the name of the metal. The charge of the metal ion is determined from the formula of the compound

and the charge of the anion. For example, consider binary ionic compounds of iron and chlorine. Iron typically exhibits a charge of either 2+ or 3+ (see [link]), and the two corresponding compound formulas are $FeCl_2$ and $FeCl_3$. The simplest name, "iron chloride," will, in this case, be ambiguous, as it does not distinguish between these two compounds. In cases like this, the charge of the metal ion is included as a Roman numeral in parentheses immediately following the metal name. These two compounds are then unambiguously named iron(II) chloride and iron(III) chloride, respectively. Other examples are provided in Table 3.6.3.

Table 3.6.3: Names of Some Transition Metal Ionic Compounds

Transition Metal Ionic Compound	Name
$FeCl_3$	iron(III) chloride
Hg_2O	mercury(I) oxide
HgO	mercury(II) oxide
$Cu_3(PO_4)_2$	copper(II) phosphate

Out-of-date nomenclature used the suffixes *–ic* and *–ous* to designate metals with higher and lower charges, respectively: Iron(III) chloride, $FeCl_3$, was previously called ferric chloride, and iron(II) chloride, $FeCl_2$, was known as ferrous chloride. Though this naming convention has been largely abandoned by the scientific community, it remains in use by some segments of industry. For example, you may see the words *stannous fluoride* on a tube of toothpaste. This represents the formula SnF_2, which is more properly named tin(II) fluoride. The other fluoride of tin is SnF_4, which was previously called stannic fluoride but is now named tin(IV) fluoride.

Ionic Compounds in Your Cabinets

Every day, you encounter and use a large number of ionic compounds. Some of these compounds, where they are found, and what they are used for are listed in Table. Look at the label or ingredients list on the various products that you use during the next few days, and see if you run into any of those in this table, or find other ionic compounds that you could now name or write as a formula.

Everyday Ionic Compounds

Ionic Compound	Use
NaCl, sodium chloride	ordinary table salt
KI, potassium iodide	added to "iodized" salt for thyroid health
NaF, sodium fluoride	ingredient in toothpaste
$NaHCO_3$, sodium bicarbonate	baking soda; used in cooking (and as antacid)
Na_2CO_3, sodium carbonate	washing soda; used in cleaning agents
NaOCl, sodium hypochlorite	active ingredient in household bleach
$CaCO_3$ calcium carbonate	ingredient in antacids
$Mg(OH)_2$, magnesium hydroxide	ingredient in antacids
$Al(OH)_3$, aluminum hydroxide	ingredient in antacids
NaOH, sodium hydroxide	lye; used as drain cleaner
K_3PO_4, potassium phosphate	food additive (many purposes)
$MgSO_4$, magnesium sulfate	added to purified water
Na_2HPO_4, sodium hydrogen phosphate	anti-caking agent; used in powdered products
Na_2SO_3, sodium sulfite	preservative

Naming Ionic Compounds

Name the following ionic compounds which contain a metal that can have more than one ionic charge:

a. Fe_2S_3
b. CuSe
c. GaN
d. $CrCl_3$
e. $Ti_2(SO_4)_3$

Solution

The anions in these compounds have a fixed negative charge (S^{2-}, Se^{2-} , N^{3-}, Cl^-, and SO_4^{2-}), and the compounds must be neutral. Because the total number of positive charges in each compound must equal the total number of negative charges, the positive ions must be Fe^{3+}, Cu^{2+}, Ga^{3+}, Cr^{4+}, and Ti^{3+}. These charges are used in the names of the metal ions:

a. iron(III) sulfide
b. copper(II) selenide
c. gallium(III) nitride
d. chromium(III) chloride
e. titanium(III) sulfate

Exercise 3.6.1

Write the formulas of the following ionic compounds:

1. (a) chromium(III) phosphide
2. (b) mercury(II) sulfide
3. (c) manganese(II) phosphate
4. (d) copper(I) oxide
5. (e) chromium(VI) fluoride

Answer

(a) CrP; (b) HgS; (c) $Mn_3(PO_4)_2$; (d) Cu_2O; (e) CrF_6

Summary

Chemists use nomenclature rules to clearly name compounds. Ionic and molecular compounds are named using somewhat-different methods. Binary ionic compounds typically consist of a metal and a nonmetal. The name of the metal is written first, followed by the name of the nonmetal with its ending changed to *–ide*. For example, K_2O is called potassium oxide. If the metal can form ions with different charges, a Roman numeral in parentheses follows the name of the metal to specify its charge. Thus, $FeCl_2$ is iron(II) chloride and $FeCl_3$ is iron(III) chloride. Some compounds contain polyatomic ions; the names of common polyatomic ions should be memorized.

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3.7: Summary of Inorganic Nomenclature

Chemical **nomenclature** is the names we use for chemicals. For instance, H_2O is called "water", and CH_4 (the gas you burn in a stove) is called "methane." You should learn the chemical nomenclature here on this page now, so that you will be able to understand when it is used.

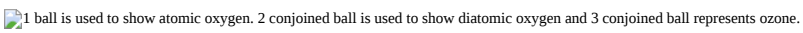
The Basics

Here is some important info about how we write chemicals.

1. Elements have symbols of one or two letters. The first is a capital letter (ABC). If there is a second letter, it is a lower-case letter (abc). For instance, "m" is one unit, and "M" is a different unit. "K" is the symbol for one type of constant, and "k" is the symbol for a different type. You need to remember that capital letter symbols are usually different from lower-case symbols. For instance, Co is cobalt, a metal element next to iron, and CO is carbon monoxide, a poisonous gas made of one carbon atom and one oxygen atom.

2. We write the charge of a chemical using a superscript, which looks like this: H^+or $H^–$. If we write just H, that means an H atom, which is one proton and one electron. H^+ means 1 H atom – 1 electron, so it means just one proton, also called hydrogen ion. If we write $H^–$ this means one hydrogen atom + one electron, so a proton and 2 electrons, also called hydride ion. If there's an number in the superscript, that says how many electrons are added or removed. For instance, Ca^{2+} is a calcium atom – 2 electrons, or calcium ion. $S^{2–}$ is sulfide, or sulfur + 2 electrons.

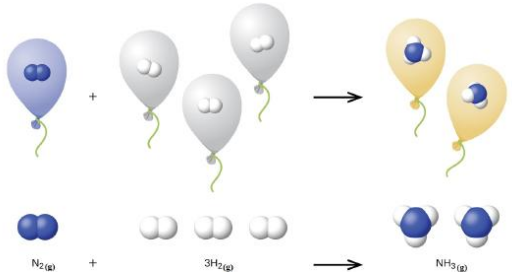
3. We indicate the number of atoms of a particular type using a subscript, like this: CO_2. This means one carbon atom and 2 oxygen atoms. If we write O_2 that means the oxygen molecule, which is two atoms of oxygen connected together. Sometimes people might write O2 to mean the same thing. If the number comes first, though, it has a different meaning. 2 O means 2 atoms of oxygen that aren't connected to anything.


1 ball is used to show atomic oxygen. 2 conjoined ball is used to show diatomic oxygen and 3 conjoined ball represents ozone.

4. If we want to show how many protons and neutrons are present in an atom, we can use the mass number, as a superscript *before* the element symbol, such as^{13}C. This means carbon with (protons + neutrons) = 13. You can tell that this is different from the charge, because the charge will always include + or – and come after the symbol.

5. Most molecules or ions that are stable have an even number of electrons. If they have an odd number of electrons, this is called a radical. For instance, H is a radical, because it has one electron. Because this is unusual, it might be indicated with a dot, like this: $H^•$. For instance, water is H_2O, and if you remove hydrogen ion, you are left with hydroxide ion, $OH^–$. If you remove $H^•$ from water, you are left with OH molecule, which is neutral. This is also called hydroxyl radical, written $OH^•$.

6. The phase of a substance is often indicated by a letter in () after the symbol. For instance, He is almost always a gas, written He(g). If it's a liquid (4.2K or below, less than -269° C) that is written He(l). You'll probably never hear about He(s), since it would be very hard to make it a solid. You might also see something written with (aq), which means "dissolved in water." For instance, NaCl(aq) means salt dissolved in water so there is no solid left. Or you might just see K^+(aq), meaning potassium ions dissolved in water.



Common Positive Ions (Cations)

"[element name](charge in Roman numerals if needed) ion"

Cation is another word for positive ion. The common positive ions are the ions of the alkali and alkaline earth metals and ammonium, NH_4^+. The alkali metals form +1 cations, such as Na^+ and K^+. The alkaline earth metals form +2 cations, such as Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+}. The hydrogen ion, H^+ is a very common cation. For these cations, you can call them "[element name] ion", such as sodium ion or calcium ion.

You'll also see transition metal cations or main group metal cations, but it is harder to predict what charge they will have, especially because some of them can have different charges, like iron, which is commonly Fe^{2+} or Fe^{3+}. The charge on a transition metal cation can also be indicated using Roman numerals in parentheses, which looks like Fe(II) or Fe(III). The Roman numerals you will need to know for chemistry are:

1	2	3	3	5	6	7	8	9	10
I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X

For cations that have uncertain charge, you should call them "[element name](charge in Roman numerals) ion." For instance, iron(II) ion or sometimes just Fe(II).

Sometimes people use special names for these ions, in which the higher charge ion is called "[name]-ic ion" and the lower charge ion is called "[name]-ous ion," such as ferrous for Fe(II) and ferric for Fe(III), or cuprous ion for Cu(I) and cupric ion for Cu(II). I think this is most common for Fe, and I've never heard anyone call nickel(II) nickelous ion because that sounds ridiculous.

Table 5.2 Common Type II Cations

Ion	Systematic Name	Older Name
Fe^{3+}	iron(III)	ferric
Fe^{2+}	iron(II)	ferrous
Cu^{2+}	copper(II)	cupric
Cu^{+}	copper(I)	cuprous
Co^{3+}	cobalt(III)	cobaltic
Co^{2+}	cobalt(II)	cobaltous
Sn^{4+}	tin(IV)	stannic
Sn^{2+}	tin(II)	stannous
Pb^{4+}	lead(IV)	plumbic
Pb^{2+}	lead(II)	plumbous
Hg^{2+}	mercury(II)	mercuric
Hg_2^{2+}*	mercury(I)	mercurous

*Mercury(I) ions always occur bound together in pairs to form Hg_2^{2+}.

Here's a list of common cations with less predictable charges:

- Ag^+
- Cu^+
- Cu^{2+}
- Fe^{2+}
- Fe^{3+}
- Hg_2^{2+}
- Hg^{2+}
- Pb^{2+}
- Sn^{2+}
- Al^{3+}

Elements not on the list above, that you may see soon anyway: zinc(II): Zn^{2+}, cadmium(II): Cd^{2+}, cobalt(II): Co^{2+}, manganese(II): Mn^{2+}, nickel(II): Ni^{2+}, chromium(III): Cr^{3+}.

Common Negative Ions (Anions)

"[base name] + (-ide,-ate, or -ite)"

Anion is another word for negative ion. Common negative ions are the halide ions, formed from the halogen elements: fluoride, F^-; chloride, Cl^-; bromide, Br^-; and iodide, I^-. As you may have noticed, the names of anions have "-ide" at the end when they are formed from elements. Other examples include oxide, O^{2-}, sulfide, S^{2-}, and nitride, N^{3-}.

Common Anions

Charge	Formula	Name
1−	H^-	Hydride ion
	F^-	Fluoride ion
	Cl^-	Chloride ion
	Br^-	Bromide ion
	I^-	Iodide ion
	CN^-	Cyanide ion
	OH^-	Hydroxide ion
2−	O^{2-}	Oxide ion
	O_2^{2-}	Peroxide ion
	S^{2-}	Sulfide ion
3−	N^{3-}	Nitride ion

There are also many important polyatomic anions, which means anions that include more than one atom. These include toxic cyanide ion, CN^-, common hydroxide ion, OH^-, and peroxide ion, O_2^{2-}. Other important anions include acetate ion ($C_2H_3O_2^-$), which is in vinegar, the chlorate ion (ClO_3^-), the perchlorate ion (ClO_4^-) which is often explosive, the nitrate ion (NO_3^-), the carbonate ion (CO_3^{2-}) found in shells, the sulfate ion (SO_4^{2-}), and the phosphate ion (PO_4^{3-}). All of these end in "-ate", which means that they have more oxygen. Also, notice that "per-___-ate" means more oxygen than just "-ate", as in perchlorate.

Less common but still important are some "-ite" anions, which have less oxygen, such as nitrite (NO_2^-), sulfite (SO_3^{2-}), chlorite (ClO_2^-) and hypochlorite (ClO^-). Notice that "hypo-___-ite" means less oxygen than just "-ite" as in hypochlorite. Sulfite and nitrite are used to preserve foods. Sulfite salts are used in wine, dried fruit and preserved radish (mu). Nitrite salts are used in preserved meats.

One more rule says that if you take an anion like carbonate or sulfate and add one hydrogen ion, then you call that "bicarbonate" (HCO_3^-) or "bisulfate" (HSO_4^-). Or you might see it called "hydrogen carbonate" or "hydrogen sulfate." Note that because we added a hydrogen ion, the charge on the bicarbonate ion is one less than the charge on the carbonate ion. Also, note that "disulfate" is $S_2O_7^{2-}$, quite different from bisulfate.

Chemical Nomenclature for Ionic Compounds

"[cation name] + [anion name]"

Ionic compounds are compounds that include at least two components, a positive ion and a negative ion. Often the positive ion is a metal element ion and the negative ion is a non-metal ion. To name an ionic compound, you usually just give the cation followed by the anion, such as "sodium chloride" or "ammonium nitrate." If the cation is the type that could have different charges, than you should say what the charge is, such as "mercury(I) iodide" or "cupric sulfate."

Chemical Nomenclature for Acids

"(hydro if -ide)[anion base name] + (-ic if -ide, -ate; -ous if -ite) + acid"

Acid usually means an anion combined with the hydrogen ion as the cation. For instance, HCl is a common acid, which is the hydrogen ion and the chloride anion. If the anion ends in "-ide" then usually the acid is called "hydro-___-ic acid" such as "hydrochloric acid" for HCl. You'll see this for all the "hydrohalic acids" which are H + a halogen, such as "hydrofluoric acid" or "hydroiodic acid." You might also see "hydrocyanic acid" for HCN. If the anion ends in "-ate" than you call the acid "___-ic acid," such as "sulfuric acid," which is H_2SO_4, or "nitric acid." HNO_3. If the anion ends in "-ite" than the acid name is "___-ous acid." such as "hypochlorous acid" for HClO. Notice that earlier "-ic" and "-ous" meant more and less charge for cations, such as ferric and ferrous ions of iron. Now it also means more and less oxygen in acids.

Chemical Nomenclature for Non-metal Compounds

"(prefix, not mono)[less anion-like atom name] + (prefix)[more anion-like atom name]-ide"

Non-metal compounds are often called covalent compounds. They are named following a different rule from ionic compounds. You will need these "prefixes" which indicate how many of each type of atom are present:

1	2	3	3	5	6	7	8	9	10

mono	di	tri	tetra	penta	hexa	hepta	octa	nona	deca

The prefixes come from Greek. You will put the element that is more left on the periodic table first, unless it is oxygen, which is always last unless it is in a compound with fluorine. This follows the same pattern as ionic compounds. In ionic compounds, the cation is written first, and you will notice that it is usually more to the left in the periodic table than the anion, which is written last. When you name covalent compounds, the atom that's more like an anion is written last. Fluorine is always most "anionic," and oxygen is next most "anionic," so they will always be last. (Fluorine is actually most electronegative, but we will study this concept much later, which is why right now I'm calling it "anion-like.") If both atoms are in the same group (same column of the periodic table) then the lower one is named first. Notice that the two most "anion-like," F and O, are in the upper right of the periodic table. The atom written second, that's more "anion-like" is named like an anion, with the "-ide" ending. For example, CO: carbon is on the left, so we can write "monocarbon monoxide." Actually people usually just call it "carbon monoxide." You can skip "mono" for the first element. For instance, SO_3 is called "sulfur trioxide" and N_2O_4 is called "dinitrogen tetroxide." XeO_2 is xenon dioxide, even though xenon is more to the right than oxygen, because oxygen is more like an anion than anything except fluorine. If the compound involves hydrogen, then you can leave out the prefixes, such as "hydrogen chloride" for HCl or "hydrogen sulfide" for H_2S, because the numbers of each atom can be predicted as if it were an ionic substance. But actually many compounds of hydrogen have special names, such as "ammonia" for NH_3, "methane" for CH_4, "borane" for BH_3, "silane" for SiH_4 and "phosphine" for PH_3. You should learn the first two of these now.

Summary

Key Info for Common Elements

Element name	Symbol	Atomic number	Commonly found as...
Hydrogen	H	1	H_2(g), water (H_2O), acid (H^+(aq))
Helium	He	2	He(g), He(l) if you want to make things very cold
Lithium	Li	3	Li^+ always, (aq) or in solids with anions, lithium metal Li(s) only in chem class
Carbon	C	6	Covalent compounds, making 4 bonds
Nitrogen	N	7	N_2(g) in air, in ammonia (NH_3(g or l)), in basic covalent compounds, in proteins
Oxygen	O	8	O_2(g) in air, in water, in rock and glass, usually combined with Si
Fluorine	F	9	F^-(aq) or with cations in rock, in covalent compounds with carbon (non-stick pans)
Sodium (Natrium)	Na	11	Na^+(aq) or with anions in salts, sodium metal (Na(s)) only in chem class
Magnesium	Mg	12	Mg^{2+}(aq) or with anions in salts and rocks

Element name	Symbol	Atomic number	Commonly found as...
Aluminum (Aluminium)	Al	13	Al^{3+} with anions in rocks and salts, industrially made Al(s) metal
Silicon	Si	14	Industrially made Si(s) in computer chips, Si(IV) oxides in sand, glass, most rocks
Phosphorus	P	15	Phosphates: PO_4^{3-}, $P_2O_7^{4-}$, etc. in rock, DNA
Sulfur	S	16	S_8(s), S^{2-} or sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) in salts or rocks
Chlorine	Cl	17	Cl^-(aq) or with cations in salts, Cl_2(g) or ClO^-(aq) in disinfectants
Potassium (kalium)	K	19	K^+(aq) or with anions in salts, potassium metal (K(s)) only in chem class
Calcium	Ca	20	Ca^{2+}(aq) or with anions in salts and rocks
Iron	Fe	26	Fe(s) metal industrially made, Fe(II) or Fe(III) oxides or sulfides and other minerals
Copper	Cu	29	Natural Cu(s) metal, Cu(I) or Cu(II) salts or minerals, usually blue or green
Bromine	Br	35	Br^-(aq) or with cations in salts
Silver	Ag	47	Natural Ag(s) metal, Ag(I) or Ag(II) in salts or sulfide minerals
Tin	Sn	50	Industrially made Sn(s) in alloys, Sn(II) or Sn(IV) salts and oxide or sulfide minerals
Iodine	I	53	I^-(aq) or with cations in salts
Gold	Au	79	Natural Au(s) metal, rarely Au(I) or Au(III) salts
Mercury	Hg	80	Natural (but rare) metal Hg(l), Hg(II) sulfides and halides, Hg(I) exists as Hg_2^{2+}
Lead	Pb	82	Pb(s) in alloys, Pb(II) sulfide, carbonate and sulfate minerals, sometimes Pb(IV) salts or minerals

Common Polyatomic Ions

Name	Formula	Where you find it

Name	Formula	Where you find it
Ammonium	NH_4^+	Soluble salts, fertilizer
Cyanide	CN^-	Toxic, in some plant products and dyes
Hydroxide	OH^-	In bases and some minerals
Peroxide	O_2^{2-}	In bleaches and disinfectants
Acetate	$C_2H_3O_2^-$	In vinegar
Perchlorate	ClO_4^-	Soluble salts and explosives, a strong acid
Chlorate	ClO_3^-	Similar to perchlorates but less stable
Chlorite	ClO_2^-	Disinfectants and bleaches, some explosive salts
Hypochlorite	ClO^-	Disinfectants and bleaches, most salts unstable
Nitrate	NO_3^-	Soluble salts, fertilizer, explosives, a strong acid
Nitrite	NO_2^-	Preservatives for food
Carbonate	CO_3^{2-}	In rock, seashells, cement; a base
Bicarbonate	HCO_3^-	A base (baking soda), in soda, in blood
Sulfate	SO_4^{2-}	In salts, plaster, detergent, a strong acid
Bisulfate	HSO_4^-	Food additives
Sulfite	SO_3^{2-}	Salts, food preservatives
Phosphate	PO_4^{3-}	Salts, rock, fertilizers, a strong acid, in ATP and DNA

Outside Link

- CrashCourse Chemistry: How to Speak Chemistrian (11 min)

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3.8: Molecular Compounds- Formulas and Names

Learning Objectives

- Derive names for common types of inorganic compounds using a systematic approach

The bonding characteristics of inorganic molecular compounds are different from ionic compounds, and they are named using a different system as well. The charges of cations and anions dictate their ratios in ionic compounds, so specifying the names of the ions provides sufficient information to determine chemical formulas. However, because covalent bonding allows for significant variation in the combination ratios of the atoms in a molecule, the names for molecular compounds must explicitly identify these ratios.

Compounds Composed of Two Elements

When two nonmetallic elements form a molecular compound, several combination ratios are often possible. For example, carbon and oxygen can form the compounds CO and CO_2. Since these are different substances with different properties, they cannot both have the same name (they cannot both be called carbon oxide). To deal with this situation, we use a naming method that is somewhat similar to that used for ionic compounds, but with added prefixes to specify the numbers of atoms of each element. The name of the more metallic element (the one farther to the left and/or bottom of the periodic table) is first, followed by the name of the more nonmetallic element (the one farther to the right and/or top) with its ending changed to the suffix *–ide*. The numbers of atoms of each element are designated by the Greek prefixes shown in Table 3.8.3.

Table 3.8.3: Nomenclature Prefixes

Number	Prefix	Number	Prefix
1 (sometimes omitted)	mono-	6	hexa-

Number	Prefix	Number	Prefix
2	di-	7	hepta-
3	tri-	8	octa-
4	tetra-	9	nona-
5	penta-	10	deca-

When only one atom of the first element is present, the prefix *mono-* is usually deleted from that part. Thus, CO is named carbon monoxide, and CO_2 is called carbon dioxide. When two vowels are adjacent, the *a* in the Greek prefix is usually dropped. Some other examples are shown in Table 3.8.4.

Table 3.8.4: Names of Some Molecular Compounds Composed of Two Elements

Compound	Name	Compound	Name

Compound	Name		Compound	Name
SO_2	sulfur dioxide		BCl_3	boron trichloride
SO_3	sulfur trioxide		SF_6	sulfur hexafluoride

Compound	Name	Compound	Name
NO_2	nitrogen dioxide	PF_5	phosphorus pentafluoride

Compound	Name	Compound	Name
N_2O_4	dinitrogen tetroxide	P_4O_{10}	tetraphosphorus decaoxide
N_2O_5	dinitrogen pentoxide	IF_7	iodine heptafluoride

There are a few common names that you will encounter as you continue your study of chemistry. For example, although NO is often called nitric oxide, its proper name is nitrogen monoxide. Similarly, N_2O is known as nitrous oxide even though our rules would specify the name dinitrogen monoxide. (And H_2O is usually called water, not dihydrogen monoxide.) You should commit to memory the common names of compounds as you encounter them.

Naming Covalent Compounds

Name the following covalent compounds:

a. SF_6
b. N_2O_3
c. Cl_2O_7
d. P_4O_6

Solution

Because these compounds consist solely of nonmetals, we use prefixes to designate the number of atoms of each element:

a. sulfur hexafluoride
b. dinitrogen trioxide
c. dichlorine heptoxide
d. tetraphosphorus hexoxide

Exercise 3.8.2

Write the formulas for the following compounds:

a. phosphorus pentachloride
b. dinitrogen monoxide
c. iodine heptafluoride
d. carbon tetrachloride

Answer:

(a) PCl_5; (b) N_2O; (c) IF_7; (d) CCl_4

Binary Acids

Some compounds containing hydrogen are members of an important class of substances known as acids. The chemistry of these compounds is explored in more detail in later chapters of this text, but for now, it will suffice to note that many acids release hydrogen ions, H^+, when dissolved in water. To denote this distinct chemical property, a mixture of water with an acid is given a name derived from the compound's name. If the compound is a binary acid (comprised of hydrogen and one other nonmetallic element):

1. The word "hydrogen" is changed to the prefix *hydro-*
2. The other nonmetallic element name is modified by adding the suffix *-ic*
3. The word "acid" is added as a second word

For example, when the gas HCl (hydrogen chloride) is dissolved in water, the solution is called *hydrochloric acid*. Several other examples of this nomenclature are shown in Table 3.8.5.

Table 3.8.5: Names of Some Simple Acids

Name of Gas	Name of Acid
HF(*g*), hydrogen fluoride	HF(*aq*), hydrofluoric acid
HCl(*g*), hydrogen chloride	HCl(*aq*), hydrochloric acid
HBr(*g*), hydrogen bromide	HBr(*aq*), hydrobromic acid
HI(*g*), hydrogen iodide	HI(*aq*), hydroiodic acid

Name of Gas	Name of Acid
$H_2S(g)$, hydrogen sulfide	$H_2S(aq)$, hydrosulfuric acid

Oxyacids

Many compounds containing three or more elements (such as organic compounds or coordination compounds) are subject to specialized nomenclature rules that you will learn later. However, we will briefly discuss the important compounds known as oxyacids, compounds that contain hydrogen, oxygen, and at least one other element, and are bonded in such a way as to impart acidic properties to the compound (you will learn the details of this in a later chapter). Typical oxyacids consist of hydrogen combined with a polyatomic, oxygen-containing ion. To name oxyacids:

1. Omit "hydrogen"
2. Start with the root name of the anion
3. Replace *–ate* with *–ic*, or *–ite* with *–ous*
4. Add "acid"

For example, consider H_2CO_3 (which you might be tempted to call "hydrogen carbonate"). To name this correctly, "hydrogen" is omitted; the *–ate* of carbonate is replace with *–ic*; and acid is added—so its name is carbonic acid. Other examples are given in Table 3.8.6. There are some exceptions to the general naming method (e.g., H_2SO_4 is called sulfuric acid, not sulfic acid, and H_2SO_3 is sulfurous, not sulfous, acid).

Table 3.8.6: Names of Common Oxyacids

Formula	Anion Name	Acid Name
$HC_2H_3O_2$	acetate	acetic acid
HNO_3	nitrate	nitric acid
HNO_2	nitrite	nitrous acid
$HClO_4$	perchlorate	perchloric acid
H_2CO_3	carbonate	carbonic acid
H_2SO_4	sulfate	sulfuric acid
H_2SO_3	sulfite	sulfurous acid
H_3PO_4	phosphate	phosphoric acid

Summary

Chemists use nomenclature rules to clearly name compounds. Ionic and molecular compounds are named using somewhat-different methods. Binary ionic compounds typically consist of a metal and a nonmetal. The name of the metal is written first, followed by the name of the nonmetal with its ending changed to *–ide*. For example, K_2O is called potassium oxide. If the metal can form ions with different charges, a Roman numeral in parentheses follows the name of the metal to specify its charge. Thus, $FeCl_2$ is iron(II) chloride and $FeCl_3$ is iron(III) chloride. Some compounds contain polyatomic ions; the names of common polyatomic ions should be memorized. Molecular compounds can form compounds with different ratios of their elements, so prefixes are used to specify the numbers of atoms of each element in a molecule of the compound. Examples include SF_6, sulfur hexafluoride, and N_2O_4, dinitrogen tetroxide. Acids are an important class of compounds containing hydrogen and having special nomenclature rules. Binary acids are named using the prefix *hydro-*, changing the *–ide* suffix to *–ic*, and adding "acid;" HCl is hydrochloric acid. Oxyacids are named by changing the ending of the anion to *–ic*, and adding "acid;" H_2CO_3 is carbonic acid.

Contributors and Attributions

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3.9: Formula Mass and the Molar Mass

Learning Objectives

- Calculate formula masses for covalent and ionic compounds
- Define the amount unit mole and the related quantity Avogadro's number
- Explain the relation between mass, moles, and numbers of atoms or molecules, and perform calculations deriving these quantities from one another

We can argue that modern chemical science began when scientists started exploring the quantitative as well as the qualitative aspects of chemistry. For example, Dalton's atomic theory was an attempt to explain the results of measurements that allowed him to calculate the relative masses of elements combined in various compounds. Understanding the relationship between the masses of atoms and the chemical formulas of compounds allows us to quantitatively describe the composition of substances.

Formula Mass

In an earlier chapter, we described the development of the atomic mass unit, the concept of average atomic masses, and the use of chemical formulas to represent the elemental makeup of substances. These ideas can be extended to calculate the formula mass of a substance by summing the average atomic masses of all the atoms represented in the substance's formula.

Formula Mass for Covalent Substances

For covalent substances, the formula represents the numbers and types of atoms composing a single molecule of the substance; therefore, the formula mass may be correctly referred to as a molecular mass. Consider chloroform ($CHCl_3$), a covalent compound once used as a surgical anesthetic and now primarily used in the production of tetrafluoroethylene, the building block for the "anti-stick" polymer, Teflon. The molecular formula of chloroform indicates that a single molecule contains one carbon atom, one hydrogen atom, and three chlorine atoms. The average molecular mass of a chloroform molecule is therefore equal to the sum of the average atomic masses of these atoms. Figure 3.9.1 outlines the calculations used to derive the molecular mass of chloroform, which is 119.37 amu.

Element	Quantity		Average atomic mass (amu)		Subtotal (amu)
C	1	×	12.01	=	12.01
H	1	×	1.008	=	1.008
Cl	3	×	35.45	=	106.35
				Molecular mass	119.37

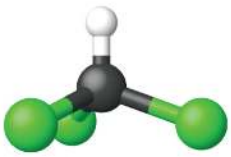


Figure 3.9.1: The average mass of a chloroform molecule, $CHCl_3$, is 119.37 amu, which is the sum of the average atomic masses of each of its constituent atoms. The model shows the molecular structure of chloroform.

A table and diagram are shown. The table is made up of six columns and five rows. The header row reads: "Element," "Quantity," a blank space, "Average atomic mass (a m u)," a blank space, and "Subtotal (a m u)." The first column contains the symbols "C," "H," "C l" and a blank, merged cell that runs the width of the first five columns. The second column contains the numbers "1," "1," and "3" as well as the merged cell. The third column contains the multiplication symbol in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The fourth column contains the numbers "12.01," "1.008," and "35.45" as well as the merged cell. The fifth column contains the symbol "=" in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The sixth column contains the values "12.01," "1.008," "106.35," and "119.37." There is a thick black line below the number 106.35. The merged cell under the first five columns reads "Molecular mass." To the left of the table is a diagram of a molecule. Three green spheres are attached to a slightly smaller black sphere, which is also attached to a smaller white sphere. The green spheres lie beneath and to the sides of the black sphere while the white sphere is located straight up from the black sphere.

Likewise, the molecular mass of an aspirin molecule, $C_9H_8O_4$, is the sum of the atomic masses of nine carbon atoms, eight hydrogen atoms, and four oxygen atoms, which amounts to 180.15 amu (Figure 3.9.2).

Element	Quantity		Average atomic mass (amu)		Subtotal (amu)
C	9	×	12.01	=	108.09
H	8	×	1.008	=	8.064
O	4	×	16.00	=	64.00
				Molecular mass	180.15

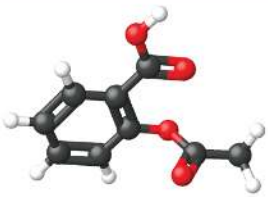


Figure 3.9.2: The average mass of an aspirin molecule is 180.15 amu. The model shows the molecular structure of aspirin, $C_9H_8O_4$.

A table and diagram are shown. The table is made up of six columns and five rows. The header row reads: “Element,” “Quantity,” a blank space, “Average atomic mass (a m u),” a blank space, and “Subtotal (a m u).” The first column contains the symbols “C,” “H,” “O,” and a merged cell. The merged cell runs the length of the first five columns. The second column contains the numbers “9,” “8,” and “4” as well as the merged, cell. The third column contains the multiplication symbol in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The fourth column contains the numbers “12.01,” “1.008,” and “16.00” as well as the merged cell. The fifth column contains the symbol “=” in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The sixth column contains the values: “108.09,” “8.064,” “64.00,” and “180.15.” There is a thick black line below the number 64.00. The merged cell under the first five columns reads “Molecular mass.” To the left of the table is a diagram of a molecule. Six black spheres are located in a six-sided ring and connected by alternating double and single black bonds. Attached to each of the four black spheres is one smaller white sphere. Attached to the farthest right black sphere is a red sphere, connected to two more black spheres, all in a row. Attached to the last black sphere of that row are two more white spheres. Attached to the first black sphere of that row is another red sphere. A black sphere, attached to two red spheres and a white sphere is attached to the black sphere on the top right of the six-sided ring.

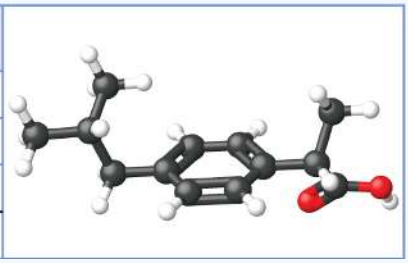
Example 3.9.1: Computing Molecular Mass for a Covalent Compound

Ibuprofen, $C_{13}H_{18}O_2$, is a covalent compound and the active ingredient in several popular nonprescription pain medications, such as Advil and Motrin. What is the molecular mass (amu) for this compound?

Solution

Molecules of this compound are comprised of 13 carbon atoms, 18 hydrogen atoms, and 2 oxygen atoms. Following the approach described above, the average molecular mass for this compound is therefore:

Element	Quantity		Average atomic mass (amu)		Subtotal (amu)
C	13	×	12.01	=	156.13
H	18	×	1.008	=	18.114
O	2	×	16.00	=	32.00
				Molecular mass	206.27



Exercise 3.9.1

Acetaminophen, $C_8H_9NO_2$, is a covalent compound and the active ingredient in several popular nonprescription pain medications, such as Tylenol. What is the molecular mass (amu) for this compound?

Answer

151.16 amu

Formula Mass for Ionic Compounds

Ionic compounds are composed of discrete cations and anions combined in ratios to yield electrically neutral bulk matter. The formula mass for an ionic compound is calculated in the same way as the formula mass for covalent compounds: by summing the average atomic masses of all the atoms in the compound’s formula. Keep in mind, however, that the formula for an ionic compound does not represent the composition of a discrete molecule, so it may not correctly be referred to as the “molecular mass.”

As an example, consider sodium chloride, NaCl, the chemical name for common table salt. Sodium chloride is an ionic compound composed of sodium cations, Na^+, and chloride anions, Cl^-, combined in a 1:1 ratio. The formula mass for this compound is computed as 58.44 amu (Figure 3.9.3).

Element	Quantity		Average atomic mass (amu)		Subtotal
Na	1	×	22.99	=	22.99
Cl	1	×	35.45	=	35.45
				Formula mass	58.44

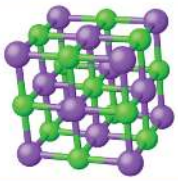


Figure 3.9.3: Table salt, NaCl, contains an array of sodium and chloride ions combined in a 1:1 ratio. Its formula mass is 58.44 amu.

A table and diagram are shown. The table is made up of six columns and four rows. The header row reads: “Element,” “Quantity,” a blank space, “Average atomic mass (a m u),” a blank space and “Subtotal (a m u).” The first column contains the symbols “N a”, “C l,” and a merged cell. The merged cell runs the length of the first five columns. The second column contains the numbers “1” and “1” as well as the merged cell. The third column contains the multiplication symbol in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The fourth column contains the numbers “22.99” and “35.45” as well as the merged cell. The fifth column contains the symbol “=” in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The sixth column contains the values “22.99,” “35.45,” and “58.44.” There is a thick black line below the number “35.45.” The merged cell under the first five columns reads “Formula mass.” To the left of the table is a diagram of a chemical structure. The diagram shows green and purple spheres placed in an alternating pattern, making up the corners of eight stacked cubes to form one larger cube. The green spheres are slightly smaller than the purple spheres.

Note that the average masses of neutral sodium and chlorine atoms were used in this computation, rather than the masses for sodium cations and chlorine anions. This approach is perfectly acceptable when computing the formula mass of an ionic compound. Even though a sodium cation has a slightly smaller mass than a sodium atom (since it is missing an electron), this difference will be offset by the fact that a chloride anion is slightly more massive than a chloride atom (due to the extra electron). Moreover, the mass of an electron is negligibly small with respect to the mass of a typical atom. Even when calculating the mass of an isolated ion, the missing or additional electrons can generally be ignored, since their contribution to the overall mass is negligible, reflected only in the nonsignificant digits that will be lost when the computed mass is properly rounded. The few exceptions to this guideline are very light ions derived from elements with precisely known atomic masses.

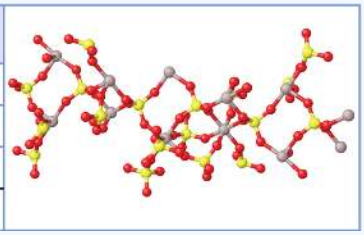
✔ Example 3.9.2: Computing Formula Mass for an Ionic Compound

Aluminum sulfate, $Al_2(SO_4)_3$, is an ionic compound that is used in the manufacture of paper and in various water purification processes. What is the formula mass (amu) of this compound?

Solution

The formula for this compound indicates it contains Al^{3+} and SO_4^{2-} ions combined in a 2:3 ratio. For purposes of computing a formula mass, it is helpful to rewrite the formula in the simpler format, $Al_2S_3O_{12}$. Following the approach outlined above, the formula mass for this compound is calculated as follows:

Element	Quantity		Average atomic mass (amu)		Subtotal (amu)
Al	2	×	26.98	=	53.96
S	3	×	32.06	=	96.18
O	12	×	16.00	=	192.00
				Molecular mass	342.14



? Exercise 3.9.2

Calcium phosphate, $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$, is an ionic compound and a common anti-caking agent added to food products. What is the formula mass (amu) of calcium phosphate?

Answer

310.18 amu

The Mole

According to the definition of the mole, 12 g of ^{12}C contains 1 mole of ^{12}C atoms (its molar mass is 12 g/mol). This relationship holds for all elements, since their atomic masses are measured relative to that of the amu-reference substance, ^{12}C. Extending this principle, the molar mass of a compound in grams is likewise numerically equivalent to its formula mass in amu (Figure 3.9.5).

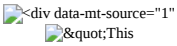


Figure 3.9.5: Each sample contains 6.022×10^{23} molecules or formula units—1.00 mol of the compound or element. Clock-wise from the upper left: 130.2 g of $C_8H_{17}OH$ (1-octanol, formula mass 130.2 amu), 454.4 g of HgI_2 (mercury(II) iodide, formula mass 454.4 amu), 32.0 g of CH_3OH (methanol, formula mass 32.0 amu) and 256.5 g of S_8 (sulfur, formula mass 256.5 amu). (credit: Sahar Atwa).

Table 3.9.1: Mass of one mole of elements

Element	Average Atomic Mass (amu)	Molar Mass (g/mol)	Atoms/Mole
C	12.01	12.01	6.022×10^{23}
H	1.008	1.008	6.022×10^{23}
O	16.00	16.00	6.022×10^{23}
Na	22.99	22.99	6.022×10^{23}
Cl	33.45	35.45	6.022×10^{23}

While atomic mass and molar mass are numerically equivalent, keep in mind that they are vastly different in terms of scale, as represented by the vast difference in the magnitudes of their respective units (amu versus g). To appreciate the enormity of the mole, consider a small drop of water after a rainfall. Although this represents just a tiny fraction of 1 mole of water (~18 g), it contains more water molecules than can be clearly imagined. If the molecules were distributed equally among the roughly seven billion people on earth, each person would receive more than 100 billion molecules.



Video 3.9.1: The mole is used in chemistry to represent 6.022×10^{23} of something, but it can be difficult to conceptualize such a large number. Watch this video and then complete the “Think” questions that follow. Explore more about the mole by reviewing the information under “Dig Deeper.”

The relationships between formula mass, the mole, and Avogadro’s number can be applied to compute various quantities that describe the composition of substances and compounds. For example, if we know the mass and chemical composition of a substance, we can determine the number of moles and calculate number of atoms or molecules in the sample. Likewise, if we know the number of moles of a substance, we can derive the number of atoms or molecules and calculate the substance’s mass.

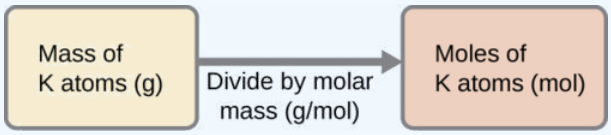
Example 3.9.3: Deriving Moles from Grams for an Element

According to nutritional guidelines from the US Department of Agriculture, the estimated average requirement for dietary potassium is 4.7 g. What is the estimated average requirement of potassium in moles?

Solution

The mass of K is provided, and the corresponding amount of K in moles is requested. Referring to the periodic table, the atomic mass of K is 39.10 amu, and so its molar mass is 39.10 g/mol. The given mass of K (4.7 g) is a bit more than one-tenth the molar mass (39.10 g), so a reasonable "ballpark" estimate of the number of moles would be slightly greater than 0.1 mol.

The molar amount of a substance may be calculated by dividing its mass (g) by its molar mass (g/mol):



The factor-label method supports this mathematical approach since the unit "g" cancels and the answer has units of "mol:"

$$4.7\ \cancel{\text{g}}\text{K}\left(\frac{\text{mol K}}{39.10\ \cancel{\text{g}}}\right) = 0.12\ \text{mol K}$$

The calculated magnitude (0.12 mol K) is consistent with our ballpark expectation, since it is a bit greater than 0.1 mol.

Exercise 3.9.3: Beryllium

Beryllium is a light metal used to fabricate transparent X-ray windows for medical imaging instruments. How many moles of Be are in a thin-foil window weighing 3.24 g?

Answer

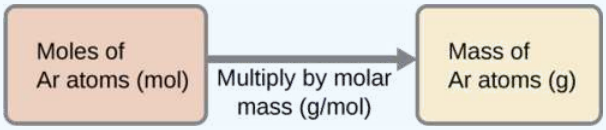
0.360 mol

Example 3.9.4: Deriving Grams from Moles for an Element

A liter of air contains 9.2×10^{-4} mol argon. What is the mass of Ar in a liter of air?

Solution

The molar amount of Ar is provided and must be used to derive the corresponding mass in grams. Since the amount of Ar is less than 1 mole, the mass will be less than the mass of 1 mole of Ar, approximately 40 g. The molar amount in question is approximately one-one thousandth (~10^{-3}) of a mole, and so the corresponding mass should be roughly one-one thousandth of the molar mass (~0.04 g):



In this case, logic dictates (and the factor-label method supports) multiplying the provided amount (mol) by the molar mass (g/mol):

$$9.2 \times 10^{-4}\ \cancel{\text{mol}}\ \text{Ar}\left(\frac{39.95\ \text{g}}{\cancel{\text{mol}}\ \text{Ar}}\right) = 0.037\ \text{g Ar}$$

The result is in agreement with our expectations, around 0.04 g Ar.

Exercise 3.9.4

What is the mass of 2.561 mol of gold?

Answer

504.4 g

Example 3.9.6: Deriving Number of Atoms from Mass for an Element

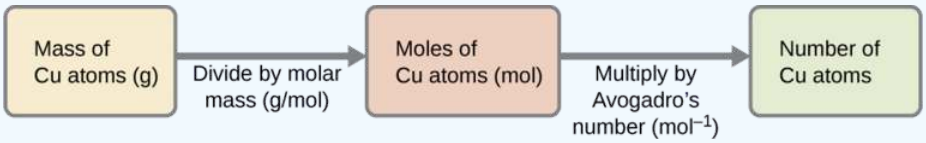
Copper is commonly used to fabricate electrical wire (Figure 3.9.6). How many copper atoms are in 5.00 g of copper wire?



Figure 3.9.6: Copper wire is composed of many, many atoms of Cu. (credit: Emilian Robert Vicol)

Solution

The number of Cu atoms in the wire may be conveniently derived from its mass by a two-step computation: first calculating the molar amount of Cu, and then using Avogadro's number (N_A) to convert this molar amount to number of Cu atoms:



Considering that the provided sample mass (5.00 g) is a little less than one-tenth the mass of 1 mole of Cu (~64 g), a reasonable estimate for the number of atoms in the sample would be on the order of one-tenth N_A, or approximately 10^{22} Cu atoms. Carrying out the two-step computation yields:

$$5.00\ \cancel{\text{g}}\ \text{Cu}\left(\frac{\cancel{\text{mol}}\ \text{Cu}}{63.55\ \cancel{\text{g}}}\right)\left(\frac{6.022\times10^{23}\ \text{atoms}}{\cancel{\text{mol}}}\right)=4.74\times10^{22}\ \text{atoms of copper}$$

The factor-label method yields the desired cancellation of units, and the computed result is on the order of 10^{22} as expected.

Exercise 3.9.6

A prospector panning for gold in a river collects 15.00 g of pure gold. How many Au atoms are in this quantity of gold?

Answer

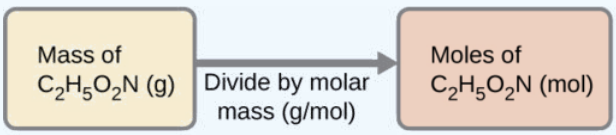
$4.586\times10^{22}\ Au$ atoms

Example 3.9.7: Deriving Moles from Grams for a Compound

Our bodies synthesize protein from amino acids. One of these amino acids is glycine, which has the molecular formula $C_2H_5O_2N$. How many moles of glycine molecules are contained in 28.35 g of glycine?

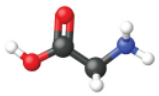
Solution

We can derive the number of moles of a compound from its mass following the same procedure we used for an element in Example 3.9.6:



The molar mass of glycine is required for this calculation, and it is computed in the same fashion as its molecular mass. One mole of glycine, $C_2H_5O_2N$, contains 2 moles of carbon, 5 moles of hydrogen, 2 moles of oxygen, and 1 mole of nitrogen:

Element	Quantity (mol element/ mol compound)		Molar mass (g/mol element)		Subtotal (g/mol compound)
C	2	×	12.01	=	24.02
H	5	×	1.008	=	5.040
O	2	×	16.00	=	32.00
N	1	×	14.007	=	14.007
Molecular mass (g/mol compound)					75.07



A table is shown that is made up of six columns and six rows. The header row reads: “Element,” “Quantity (mol element / mol compound,” a blank space, “Molar mass (g / mol element),” a blank space, and “Subtotal (a m u).” The first column contains the symbols “C,” “H,” “O,” “N,” and a merged cell. The merged cell runs the width of the first five columns. The second column contains the numbers “2,” “5,” “2,” and “1” as well as the merged cell. The third column contains the multiplication symbol in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The fourth column contains the numbers “12.01,” “1.008,” “16.00,” and “14.007” as well as the merged cell. The fifth column contains the symbol “=” in each cell except for the last, merged cell. The sixth column contains the values “24.02,” “5.040,” “32.00,” “14.007,” and “75.07.” There is a thick black line under the number 14.007. The merged cell under the first five columns reads “Molar mass (g / mol compound). There is a ball-and-stick drawing to the right of this table. It shows a black sphere that forms a double bond with a slightly smaller red sphere, a single bond with another red sphere, and a single bond with another black sphere. The red sphere that forms a single bond with the black sphere also forms a single bond with a smaller, white sphere. The second black sphere forms a single bond with a smaller, white sphere and a smaller blue sphere. The blue sphere forms a single bond with two smaller, white spheres each.

The provided mass of glycine (~28 g) is a bit more than one-third the molar mass (~75 g/mol), so we would expect the computed result to be a bit greater than one-third of a mole (~0.33 mol). Dividing the compound’s mass by its molar mass yields:

$$28.35\ \cancel{\text{g}}\ \text{glycine}\left(\frac{\text{mol glycine}}{75.07\ \cancel{\text{g}}}\right) = 0.378\ \text{mol glycine}$$

This result is consistent with our rough estimate.

Exercise 3.9.7

How many moles of sucrose, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$, are in a 25-g sample of sucrose?

Answer

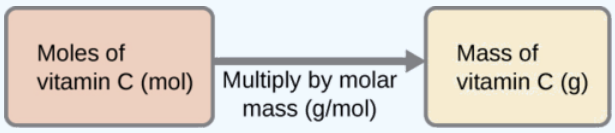
0.073 mol

Example 3.9.8: Deriving Grams from Moles for a Compound

Vitamin C is a covalent compound with the molecular formula $C_6H_8O_6$. The recommended daily dietary allowance of vitamin C for children aged 4–8 years is 1.42×10^{-4} mol. What is the mass of this allowance in grams?

Solution

As for elements, the mass of a compound can be derived from its molar amount as shown:



The molar mass for this compound is computed to be 176.124 g/mol. The given number of moles is a very small fraction of a mole (~10^{-4} or one-ten thousandth); therefore, we would expect the corresponding mass to be about one-ten thousandth of the molar mass (~0.02 g). Performing the calculation, we get:

$$1.42 \times 10^{-4}\ \cancel{\text{mol}}\ \text{vitamin C}\left(\frac{176.124\ \text{g}}{\cancel{\text{mol}}\ \text{vitamin C}}\right) = 0.0250\ \text{g vitamin C}$$

This is consistent with the anticipated result.

Exercise 3.9.8

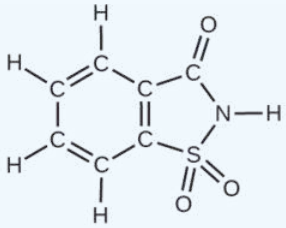
What is the mass of 0.443 mol of hydrazine, N_2H_4?

Answer

14.2 g

Example 3.9.9: Deriving the Number of Molecules from the Compound Mass

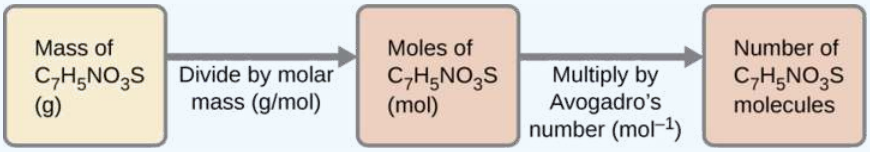
A packet of an artificial sweetener contains 40.0 mg of saccharin ($C_7H_5NO_3S$), which has the structural formula:



Given that saccharin has a molar mass of 183.18 g/mol, how many saccharin molecules are in a 40.0-mg (0.0400-g) sample of saccharin? How many carbon atoms are in the same sample?

Solution

The number of molecules in a given mass of compound is computed by first deriving the number of moles, as demonstrated in Example 3.9.8, and then multiplying by Avogadro's number:



Using the provided mass and molar mass for saccharin yields:

$$0.0400\ \cancel{\text{g}}\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S}\left(\frac{\cancel{\text{mol}}\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S}}{183.18\ \cancel{\text{g}}\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S}}\right)\left(\frac{6.022\times10^{23}\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S molecules}}{1\ \cancel{\text{mol}}\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S}}\right)$$
$$= 1.31\times10^{20}\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S molecules}$$

The compound's formula shows that each molecule contains seven carbon atoms, and so the number of C atoms in the provided sample is:

$$1.31\times10^{20}\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S molecules}\left(\frac{7\ \text{C atoms}}{1\ \text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{NO}_3\text{S molecule}}\right) = 9.20\times10^{21}\ \text{C atoms}$$

Exercise 3.9.9

How many C_4H_{10} molecules are contained in 9.213 g of this compound? How many hydrogen atoms?

Answer

- 9.545×10^{22} molecules C_4H_{10}
- 9.545×10^{23} atoms H

Summary

The formula mass of a substance is the sum of the average atomic masses of each atom represented in the chemical formula and is expressed in atomic mass units. The formula mass of a covalent compound is also called the molecular mass. A convenient amount unit for expressing very large numbers of atoms or molecules is the mole. Experimental measurements have determined the number of entities composing 1 mole of substance to be 6.022×10^{23}, a quantity called Avogadro's number. The mass in grams of 1 mole of substance is its molar mass. Due to the use of the same reference substance in defining the atomic mass unit and the mole, the formula mass (amu) and molar mass (g/mol) for any substance are numerically equivalent (for example, one H_2O molecule weighs approximately18 amu and 1 mole of H_2O molecules weighs approximately 18 g).

Footnotes

1. 1 Omiatek, Donna M., Amanda J. Bressler, Ann-Sofie Cans, Anne M. Andrews, Michael L. Heien, and Andrew G. Ewing. "The Real Catecholamine Content of Secretory Vesicles in the CNS Revealed by Electrochemical Cytometry." *Scientific Report* 3 (2013): 1447, accessed January 14, 2015, doi:10.1038/srep01447.

Glossary

Avogadro's number (N_A)
: experimentally determined value of the number of entities comprising 1 mole of substance, equal to 6.022×10^{23} mol^{-1}

formula mass
: sum of the average masses for all atoms represented in a chemical formula; for covalent compounds, this is also the molecular mass

mole
: amount of substance containing the same number of atoms, molecules, ions, or other entities as the number of atoms in exactly 12 grams of ^{12}C

molar mass
: mass in grams of 1 mole of a substance

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3.10: Composition of Compounds

Learning Objectives

- To understand the definition and difference between empirical formulas and chemical formulas
- To understand how combustion analysis can be used to identify chemical formulas

Chemical formulas tell you how many atoms of each element are in a compound, and empirical formulas tell you the simplest or most reduced ratio of elements in a compound. If a compound's chemical formula cannot be reduced any more, then the empirical formula is the same as the chemical formula. Combustion analysis can determine the empirical formula of a compound, but cannot determine the chemical formula (other techniques can though). Once known, the chemical formula can be calculated from the empirical formula.

Empirical Formulas

An empirical formula tells us the relative ratios of different atoms in a compound. The ratios hold true on the *molar* level as well. Thus, H_2O is composed of two atoms of hydrogen and 1 atom of oxygen. Likewise, **1.0 mole of H_2O** is composed **of 2.0 moles of hydrogen** and **1.0 mole of oxygen**. We can also work backwards from molar ratios since *if we know the molar amounts of each element in a compound we can determine the empirical formula*.

Example 3.10.1: Mercury Chloride

Mercury forms a compound with chlorine that is 73.9% mercury and 26.1% chlorine by mass. What is the empirical formula?

Solution

Let's say we had a 100 gram sample of this compound. The sample would therefore contain 73.9 grams of mercury and 26.1 grams of chlorine. How many moles of each atom do the individual masses represent?

For Mercury:

$$(73.9\ g) \times \left(\frac{1\ mol}{200.59\ g}\right) = 0.368\ moles$$

For Chlorine:

$$(26.1\ g) \times \left(\frac{1\ mol}{35.45\ g}\right) = 0.736\ mol$$

What is the molar ratio between the two elements?

$$\frac{0.736\ mol\ Cl}{0.368\ mol\ Hg} = 2.0$$

Thus, we have twice as many moles (i.e. atoms) of Cl as Hg. The empirical formula would thus be (remember to list cation first, anion last):

$$HgCl_2$$

Chemical Formula from Empirical Formula

The chemical formula for a compound obtained by composition analysis is always the empirical formula. We can obtain the chemical formula from the empirical formula if we know the molecular weight of the compound. The chemical formula will always be some *integer multiple* of the empirical formula (i.e. integer multiples of the subscripts of the empirical formula). The general flow for this approach is shown in Figure 3.10.1 and demonstrated in Example 3.10.2

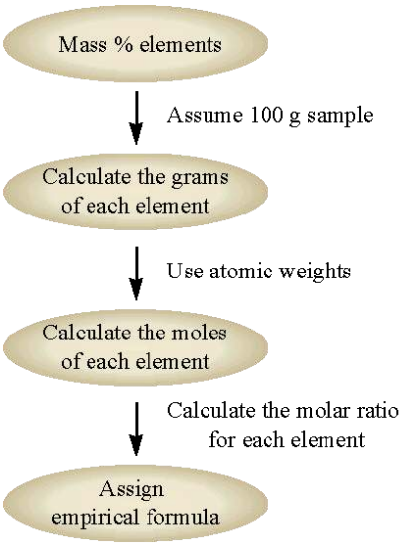


Figure 3.10.1: The general flow chart for solving empirical formulas from known mass percentages.

Flowchart. From mass % elements, calculate the grams of each element. Then, use atomic weights to calculate the moles of each element. Then, assign empirical formula by calculating the molar ratio for each element.

Example 3.10.2: Ascorbic Acid

Vitamin C (ascorbic acid) contains 40.92 % C, 4.58 % H, and 54.50 % O, by mass. The experimentally determined molecular mass is 176 amu. What is the empirical and chemical formula for ascorbic acid?

Solution

Consider an arbitrary amount of 100 grams of ascorbic acid, so we would have:

- 40.92 grams C
- 4.58 grams H
- 54.50 grams O

This would give us how many moles of each element?

- Carbon

$$(40.92\ \ g\,\cancel{C}) \times \left(\frac{1\ mol\ C}{12.011\ \ g\,\cancel{C}} \right) = 3.407\ mol\ C$$

- Hydrogen

$$(4.58\ \ g\,\cancel{H}) \times \left(\frac{1\ mol\ H}{1.008\ \ g\,\cancel{H}} \right) = 4.544\ mol\ H$$

- Oxygen

$$(54.50\ \ g\,\cancel{O}) \times \left(\frac{1\ mol\ O}{15.999\ \ g\,\cancel{O}} \right) = 3.406\ mol\ O$$

Determine the simplest whole number ratio by dividing by the smallest molar amount (3.406 moles in this case - see oxygen):

- Carbon

$$C = \frac{3.407\ mol}{3.406\ mol} \approx 1.0$$

- Hydrogen

$$C = \frac{4.544\ mol}{3.406\ mol} = 1.333$$

- Oxygen

$$C = \frac{3.406\ mol}{3.406\ mol} = 1.0$$

The relative molar amounts of carbon and oxygen appear to be equal, but the relative molar amount of hydrogen is higher. Since we cannot have "fractional" atoms in a compound, we need to normalize the relative amount of hydrogen to be equal to an integer. 1.333 would appear to be 1 and 1/3, so if we multiply the relative amounts of each atom by '3', we should be able to get integer values for each atom.

C = (1.0)*3 = 3

H = (1.333)*3 = 4

O = (1.0)*3 = 3

or

$$C_3H_4O_3$$

This is our ***empirical formula*** for ascorbic acid.

What about the chemical formula? We are told that the experimentally determined molecular mass is **176 *amu***. What is the molecular mass of our empirical formula?

(3*12.011) + (4*1.008) + (3*15.999) = 88.062 *amu*

The molecular mass from our empirical formula is significantly lower than the experimentally determined value. What is the ratio between the two values?

(176 *amu*/88.062 *amu*) = 2.0

Thus, it would appear that our empirical formula is essentially one half the mass of the actual molecular mass. If we multiplied our empirical formula by '2', then the molecular mass would be correct. Thus, the actual chemical formula is:

2* $C_3H_4O_3$ = **$C_6H_8O_6$**



Empirical Formulas: Empirical Formulas, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Combustion Analysis

When a compound containing carbon and hydrogen is subject to combustion with oxygen in a special combustion apparatus all the carbon is converted to CO_2 and the hydrogen to H_2O (Figure 3.10.2). The amount of carbon produced can be determined by measuring the amount of CO_2 produced. This is trapped by the sodium hydroxide, and thus we can monitor the mass of CO_2 produced by determining the increase in mass of the CO_2 trap. Likewise, we can determine the amount of H produced by the amount of H_2O trapped by the magnesium perchlorate.

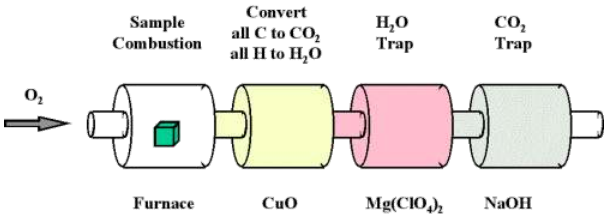


Figure 3.10.2: Combustion analysis apparatus

Diagram of a combustion chamber. O 2 enters the furnace and combusts the sample. All carbon is converted to C O 2 and all hydrogen is converted to H 2 O in the presence of C u O in the next chamber. The next chamber is an H 2 O trap with M g (C l O 4) 2 inside. The next chamber is a C O 2 trap with N a O H inside.

One of the most common ways to determine the elemental composition of an unknown hydrocarbon is an analytical procedure called combustion analysis. A small, carefully weighed sample of an unknown compound that may contain carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and/or sulfur is burned in an oxygen atmosphere,Other elements, such as metals, can be determined by other methods. and the quantities of the resulting gaseous products (CO_2, H_2O, N_2, and SO_2, respectively) are determined by one of several possible methods. One procedure used in combustion analysis is outlined schematically in Figure 3.10.3 and a typical combustion analysis is illustrated in Examples 3.10.3 and 3.10.4

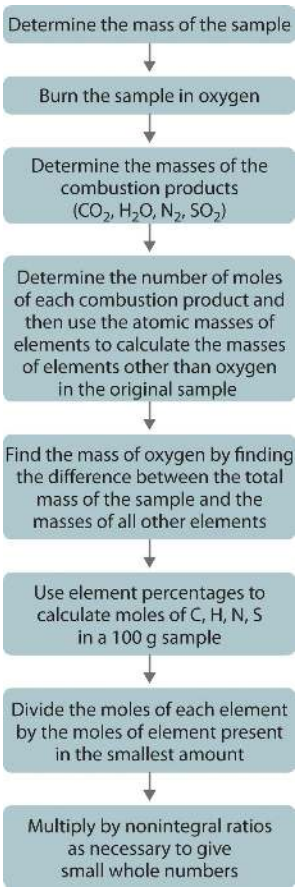


Figure 3.10.3: Steps for Obtaining an Empirical Formula from Combustion Analysis. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

Example 3.10.3: Combustion of Isopropyl Alcohol

What is the empirical formulate for isopropyl alcohol (which contains only C, H and O) if the combustion of a 0.255 grams isopropyl alcohol sample produces 0.561 grams of CO_2 and 0.306 grams of H_2O?

Solution

From this information quantitate the amount of C and H in the sample.

$$(0.561\ \ g\ \cancel{CO_2}) \left(\frac{1\ mol\ CO_2}{44.0\ \ g\ \cancel{CO_2}} \right) = 0.0128\ mol\ CO_2$$

Since one mole of CO_2 is made up of one mole of C and two moles of O, if we have 0.0128 moles of CO_2 in our sample, then we know we have 0.0128 moles of C in the sample. How many grams of C is this?

$$(0.0128\ \ \cancel{mol\ C}) \left(\frac{12.011\ g\ C}{1\ \ \cancel{mol\ C}} \right) = 0.154\ g\ C$$

How about the hydrogen?

$$(0.306\ \ g\ \cancel{H_2O}) \left(\frac{1\ mol\ H_2O}{18.0\ \ g\ \cancel{H_2O}} \right) = 0.017\ mol\ H_2O$$

Since one mole of H_2O is made up of one mole of oxygen and ***two*** moles of hydrogen, if we have 0.017 moles of H_2O, then we have 2*(0.017) = 0.034 moles of hydrogen. Since hydrogen is about 1 gram/mole, we must have **0.034 grams of hydrogen** in our original sample.

When we add our carbon and hydrogen together we get:

0.154 grams (C) + 0.034 grams (H) = **0.188 grams**

But we know we combusted *0.255 grams* of isopropyl alcohol. The 'missing' mass must be from the oxygen atoms in the isopropyl alcohol:

0.255 grams - 0.188 grams = 0.067 grams oxygen

This much oxygen is how many moles?

$$(0.067\ \ g\ \cancel{O}) \left(\frac{1\ mol\ O}{15.994\ \ g\ \cancel{O}} \right) = 0.0042\ mol\ O$$

Overall therefore, we have:

- 0.0128 moles Carbon
- 0.0340 moles Hydrogen
- 0.0042 moles Oxygen

Divide by the smallest molar amount to normalize:

- C = 3.05 atoms
- H = 8.1 atoms
- O = 1 atom

Within experimental error, the most likely empirical formula for propanol would be C_3H_8O

✔ Example 3.10.4: Combustion of Naphalene

Naphthalene, the active ingredient in one variety of mothballs, is an organic compound that contains carbon and hydrogen only. Complete combustion of a 20.10 mg sample of naphthalene in oxygen yielded 69.00 mg of CO_2 and 11.30 mg of H_2O. Determine the empirical formula of naphthalene.

Given: mass of sample and mass of combustion products

Asked for: empirical formula

Strategy:

A. Use the masses and molar masses of the combustion products, CO_2 and H_2O, to calculate the masses of carbon and hydrogen present in the original sample of naphthalene.
B. Use those masses and the molar masses of the elements to calculate the empirical formula of naphthalene.

Solution:

A Upon combustion, 1 mol of CO_2 is produced for each mole of carbon atoms in the original sample. Similarly, 1 mol of H_2O is produced for every 2 mol of hydrogen atoms present in the sample. The masses of carbon and hydrogen in the original sample can be calculated from these ratios, the masses of CO_2 and H_2O, and their molar masses. Because the units of molar mass are grams per mole, we must first convert the masses from milligrams to grams:

$$mass\,of\,C = 69.00\,mg\,CO_2 \times \frac{1\,g}{1000\,mg} \times \frac{1\,mol\,CO_2}{44.010\,g\,CO_2} \times \frac{1\,molC}{1\,mol\,CO_2} \times \frac{12.011\,g}{1\,mol\,C}$$

$$= 1.883 \times 10^{-2}\,g\,C$$

$$mass\,of\,H = 11.30\,mg\,H_2O \times \frac{1\,g}{1000\,mg} \times \frac{1\,mol\,H_2O}{18.015\,g\,H_2O} \times \frac{2\,molH}{1\,mol\,H_2O} \times \frac{1.0079\,g}{1\,mol\,H}$$

$$= 1.264 \times 10^{-3}\,g\,H$$

B To obtain the relative numbers of atoms of both elements present, we need to calculate the number of moles of each and divide by the number of moles of the element present in the smallest amount:

$$moles\,C = 1.883 \times 10^{-2}\,g\,C \times \frac{1\,mol\,C}{12.011\,g\,C} = 1.568 \times 10^{-3}\,molC$$

$$moles\,H = 1.264 \times 10^{-3}\,g\,H \times \frac{1\,mol\,H}{1.0079\,g\,H} = 1.254 \times 10^{-3}\,molH$$

Dividing each number by the number of moles of the element present in the smaller amount gives

$$H: \frac{1.254 \times 10^{-3}}{1.254 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.000 \quad C: \frac{1.568 \times 10^{-3}}{1.254 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.250$$

Thus naphthalene contains a 1.25:1 ratio of moles of carbon to moles of hydrogen: $C_{1.25}H_{1.0}$. Because the ratios of the elements in the empirical formula must be expressed as small whole numbers, multiply both subscripts by 4, which gives C_5H_4 as the empirical formula of naphthalene. In fact, the chemical formula of naphthalene is $C_{10}H_8$, which is consistent with our results.

? Exercise 3.10.4

a. Xylene, an organic compound that is a major component of many gasoline blends, contains carbon and hydrogen only. Complete combustion of a 17.12 mg sample of xylene in oxygen yielded 56.77 mg of CO_2 and 14.53 mg of H_2O. Determine the empirical formula of xylene.

b. The empirical formula of benzene is CH (its chemical formula is C_6H_6). If 10.00 mg of benzene is subjected to combustion analysis, what mass of CO_2 and H_2O will be produced?

Answer a

The empirical formula is C_4H_5. (The chemical formula of xylene is actually C_8H_{10}.)

Answer b

33.81 mg of CO_2; 6.92 mg of H_2O



Combustion Analysis: Combustion Analysis, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

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3.11: Determining a Chemical Formula from Experimental Data

In the previous section, we discussed the relationship between the bulk mass of a substance and the number of atoms or molecules it contains (moles). Given the chemical formula of the substance, we were able to determine the amount of the substance (moles) from its mass, and vice versa. But what if the chemical formula of a substance is unknown? In this section, we will explore how to apply these very same principles in order to derive the chemical formulas of unknown substances from experimental mass measurements.

Derivation of Molecular Formulas

Recall that empirical formulas are symbols representing the *relative* numbers of a compound's elements. Determining the *absolute* numbers of atoms that compose a single molecule of a covalent compound requires knowledge of both its empirical formula and its molecular mass or molar mass. These quantities may be determined experimentally by various measurement techniques. Molecular mass, for example, is often derived from the mass spectrum of the compound (see discussion of this technique in the previous chapter on atoms and molecules). Molar mass can be measured by a number of experimental methods, many of which will be introduced in later chapters of this text.

Molecular formulas are derived by comparing the compound's molecular or molar mass to its empirical formula mass. As the name suggests, an empirical formula mass is the sum of the average atomic masses of all the atoms represented in an empirical formula. If we know the molecular (or molar) mass of the substance, we can divide this by the empirical formula mass in order to identify the number of empirical formula units per molecule, which we designate as *n*:

$$\frac{\text{molecular or molar mass}\left(\text{amu or }\frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}}\right)}{\text{empirical formula mass}\left(\text{amu or }\frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}}\right)} = n\,\text{formula units/molecule} \tag{3.11.1}$$

The molecular formula is then obtained by multiplying each subscript in the empirical formula by *n*, as shown by the generic empirical formula A_xB_y:

$$(A_xB_y)_n = A_{nx}B_{nx} \tag{3.11.2}$$

For example, consider a covalent compound whose empirical formula is determined to be CH_2O. The empirical formula mass for this compound is approximately 30 amu (the sum of 12 amu for one C atom, 2 amu for two H atoms, and 16 amu for one O atom). If the compound's molecular mass is determined to be 180 amu, this indicates that molecules of this compound contain six times the number of atoms represented in the empirical formula:

$$\frac{180\ \text{amu/molecule}}{30\ \frac{\text{amu}}{\text{formula unit}}} = 6\ \text{formula units/molecule} \tag{3.11.3}$$

Molecules of this compound are then represented by molecular formulas whose subscripts are six times greater than those in the empirical formula:

$$(CH_2O)_6 = C_6H_{12}O_6 \tag{3.11.4}$$

Note that this same approach may be used when the molar mass (g/mol) instead of the molecular mass (amu) is used. In this case, we are merely considering one mole of empirical formula units and molecules, as opposed to single units and molecules.

Determination of the Molecular Formula for Nicotine

Nicotine, an alkaloid in the nightshade family of plants that is mainly responsible for the addictive nature of cigarettes, contains 74.02% C, 8.710% H, and 17.27% N. If 40.57 g of nicotine contains 0.2500 mol nicotine, what is the molecular formula?

Solution

Determining the molecular formula from the provided data will require comparison of the compound's empirical formula mass to its molar mass. As the first step, use the percent composition to derive the compound's empirical formula. Assuming a convenient, a 100-g sample of nicotine yields the following molar amounts of its elements:

$$(74.02\ \text{g C})\left(\frac{1\ \text{mol C}}{12.01\ \text{g C}}\right) = 6.163\ \text{mol C} \tag{3.11.5}$$

$$(8.710\ \text{g H})\left(\frac{1\ \text{mol H}}{1.01\ \text{g H}}\right) = 8.624\ \text{mol H} \tag{3.11.6}$$

$$(17.27\ \text{g N})\left(\frac{1\ \text{mol N}}{14.01\ \text{g N}}\right) = 1.233\ \text{mol N} \tag{3.11.7}$$

Next, we calculate the molar ratios of these elements.

The C-to-N and H-to-N molar ratios are adequately close to whole numbers, and so the empirical formula is C_5H_7N. The empirical formula mass for this compound is therefore 81.13 amu/formula unit, or 81.13 g/mol formula unit.

We calculate the molar mass for nicotine from the given mass and molar amount of compound:

$$\frac{40.57\ \text{g nicotine}}{0.2500\ \text{mol nicotine}} = \frac{162.3\ \text{g}}{\text{mol}}$$

Comparing the molar mass and empirical formula mass indicates that each nicotine molecule contains two formula units:

$$\frac{162.3\ \text{g/mol}}{81.13\ \dfrac{\text{g}}{\text{formula unit}}} = 2\ \text{formula units/molecule}$$

Thus, we can derive the molecular formula for nicotine from the empirical formula by multiplying each subscript by two:

$$(C_5H_7N)_6 = C_{10}H_{14}N_2$$

Exercise 3.11.5

What is the molecular formula of a compound with a percent composition of 49.47% C, 5.201% H, 28.84% N, and 16.48% O, and a molecular mass of 194.2 amu?

Answer

$C_8H_{10}N_4O_2$

Summary

The chemical identity of a substance is defined by the types and relative numbers of atoms composing its fundamental entities (molecules in the case of covalent compounds, ions in the case of ionic compounds). A compound's percent composition provides the mass percentage of each element in the compound, and it is often experimentally determined and used to derive the compound's empirical formula. The empirical formula mass of a covalent compound may be compared to the compound's molecular or molar mass to derive a molecular formula.

Combustion Analysis

When a compound containing carbon and hydrogen is subject to combustion with oxygen in a special combustion apparatus all the carbon is converted to CO_2 and the hydrogen to H_2O (Figure 3.11.2). The amount of carbon produced can be determined by measuring the amount of CO_2 produced. This is trapped by the sodium hydroxide, and thus we can monitor the mass of CO_2 produced by determining the increase in mass of the CO_2 trap. Likewise, we can determine the amount of H produced by the amount of H_2O trapped by the magnesium perchlorate.

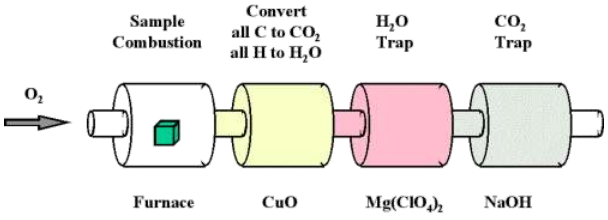


Figure* 3.11.2*: *Combustion analysis apparatus*

One of the most common ways to determine the elemental composition of an unknown hydrocarbon is an analytical procedure called combustion analysis. A small, carefully weighed sample of an unknown compound that may contain carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and/or sulfur is burned in an oxygen atmosphere,Other elements, such as metals, can be determined by other methods. and the quantities of the resulting gaseous products (CO_2, H_2O, N_2, and SO_2, respectively) are determined by one of several possible methods. One procedure used in combustion analysis is outlined schematically in Figure 3.11.3 and a typical combustion analysis is illustrated in Examples 3.11.3 and 3.11.4

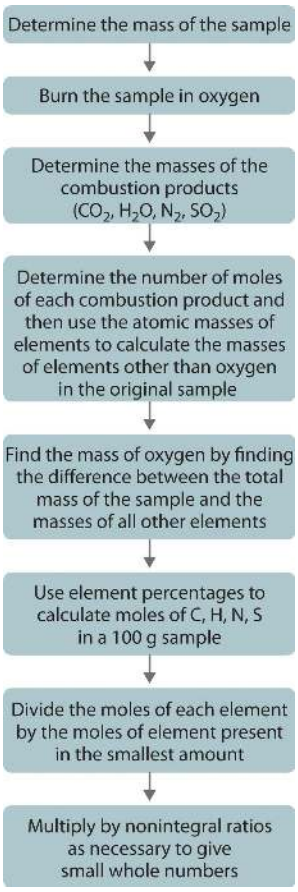


Figure 3.11.3: Steps for Obtaining an Empirical Formula from Combustion Analysis

Example 3.11.3: Combustion of Isopropyl Alcohol

What is the empirical formulate for isopropyl alcohol (which contains only C, H and O) if the combustion of a 0.255 grams isopropyl alcohol sample produces 0.561 grams of CO_2 and 0.306 grams of H_2O?

Solution

From this information quantitate the amount of C and H in the sample.

$$(0.561 \ \ g \ \cancel{CO_2}) \left(\frac{1 \ mol \ CO_2}{44.0 \ \ g \ \cancel{CO_2}} \right) = 0.0128 \ mol \ CO_2 \tag{3.11.8}$$

Since one mole of CO_2 is made up of one mole of C and two moles of O, if we have 0.0128 moles of CO_2 in our sample, then we know we have 0.0128 moles of C in the sample. How many grams of C is this?

$$(0.0128 \ \ \cancel{mol \ C}) \left(\frac{12.011 \ g \ C}{1 \ \ \cancel{mol \ C}} \right) = 0.154 \ g \ C \tag{3.11.9}$$

How about the hydrogen?

$$(0.306 \ \cancel{g\ H_2O}) \left(\frac{1\ mol\ H_2O}{18.0\ \cancel{g\ H_2O}} \right) = 0.017\ mol\ H_2O \tag{3.11.10}$$

Since one mole of H_2O is made up of one mole of oxygen and ***two*** moles of hydrogen, if we have 0.017 moles of H_2O, then we have 2*(0.017) = 0.034 moles of hydrogen. Since hydrogen is about 1 gram/mole, we must have **0.034 grams of hydrogen** in our original sample.

When we add our carbon and hydrogen together we get:

0.154 grams (C) + 0.034 grams (H) = **0.188 grams**

But we know we combusted *0.255 grams* of isopropyl alcohol. The 'missing' mass must be from the oxygen atoms in the isopropyl alcohol:

0.255 grams - 0.188 grams = 0.067 grams oxygen

This much oxygen is how many moles?

$$(0.067 \ \cancel{g\ O}) \left(\frac{1\ mol\ O}{15.994\ \cancel{g\ O}} \right) = 0.0042\ mol\ O \tag{3.11.11}$$

Overall therefore, we have:

- 0.0128 moles Carbon
- 0.0340 moles Hydrogen
- 0.0042 moles Oxygen

Divide by the smallest molar amount to normalize:

- C = 3.05 atoms
- H = 8.1 atoms
- O = 1 atom

Within experimental error, the most likely empirical formula for propanol would be C_3H_8O

Example 3.11.4: Combustion of Naphalene

Naphthalene, the active ingredient in one variety of mothballs, is an organic compound that contains carbon and hydrogen only. Complete combustion of a 20.10 mg sample of naphthalene in oxygen yielded 69.00 mg of CO_2 and 11.30 mg of H_2O. Determine the empirical formula of naphthalene.

Given: mass of sample and mass of combustion products

Asked for: empirical formula

Strategy:

A. Use the masses and molar masses of the combustion products, CO_2 and H_2O, to calculate the masses of carbon and hydrogen present in the original sample of naphthalene.
B. Use those masses and the molar masses of the elements to calculate the empirical formula of naphthalene.

Solution:

A Upon combustion, 1 mol of CO**2** is produced for each mole of carbon atoms in the original sample. Similarly, 1 mol of H_2O is produced for every 2 mol of hydrogen atoms present in the sample. The masses of carbon and hydrogen in the original sample can be calculated from these ratios, the masses of CO_2 and H_2O, and their molar masses. Because the units of molar mass are grams per mole, we must first convert the masses from milligrams to grams:

$$mass\ of\ C = 69.00\,mg\,CO_2 \times \frac{1\,g}{1000\,mg} \times \frac{1\,mol\,CO_2}{44.010\,g\,CO_2} \times \frac{1\,molC}{1\,mol\,CO_2} \times \frac{12.011\,g}{1\,mol\,C} \tag{3.11.12}$$

$$= 1.883 \times 10^{-2}\,g\,C \tag{3.11.13}$$

$$mass\,of\,H = 11.30\,mg\,H_2O \times \frac{1\,g}{1000\,mg} \times \frac{1\,mol\,H_2O}{18.015\,g\,H_2O} \times \frac{2\,molH}{1\,mol\,H_2O} \times \frac{1.0079\,g}{1\,mol\,H} \tag{3.11.14}$$

$$= 1.264 \times 10^{-3}\,g\,H \tag{3.11.15}$$

B To obtain the relative numbers of atoms of both elements present, we need to calculate the number of moles of each and divide by the number of moles of the element present in the smallest amount:

$$moles\,C = 1.883 \times 10^{-2}\,g\,C \times \frac{1\,mol\,C}{12.011\,g\,C} = 1.568 \times 10^{-3}\,molC \tag{3.11.16}$$

$$moles\,H = 1.264 \times 10^{-3}\,g\,H \times \frac{1\,mol\,H}{1.0079\,g\,H} = 1.254 \times 10^{-3}\,molH \tag{3.11.17}$$

Dividing each number by the number of moles of the element present in the smaller amount gives

$$H: \frac{1.254 \times 10^{-3}}{1.254 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.000 \quad C: \frac{1.568 \times 10^{-3}}{1.254 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.250 \tag{3.11.18}$$

Thus naphthalene contains a 1.25:1 ratio of moles of carbon to moles of hydrogen: $C_{1.25}H_{1.0}$. Because the ratios of the elements in the empirical formula must be expressed as small whole numbers, multiply both subscripts by 4, which gives C_5H_4 as the empirical formula of naphthalene. In fact, the molecular formula of naphthalene is $C_{10}H_8$, which is consistent with our results.

Exercise 3.11.4

a. Xylene, an organic compound that is a major component of many gasoline blends, contains carbon and hydrogen only. Complete combustion of a 17.12 mg sample of xylene in oxygen yielded 56.77 mg of CO_2 and 14.53 mg of H_2O. Determine the empirical formula of xylene.

b. The empirical formula of benzene is CH (its molecular formula is C_6H_6). If 10.00 mg of benzene is subjected to combustion analysis, what mass of CO_2 and H_2O will be produced?

Answer a

The empirical formula is C_4H_5. (The molecular formula of xylene is actually C_8H_{10}.)

Answer b

33.81 mg of CO_2; 6.92 mg of H_2O

Contributors and Attributions

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- Paul Flowers (University of North Carolina - Pembroke), Klaus Theopold (University of Delaware) and Richard Langley (Stephen F. Austin State University) with contributing authors. Textbook content produced by OpenStax College is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 license. Download for free at http://cnx.org/contents/85abf193-2bd...a7ac8df6@9.110).

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3.12: Organic Compounds

Learning Objectives

- To recognize the composition and properties typical of organic and inorganic compounds.

Organic substances have been used throughout this text to illustrate the differences between ionic and covalent bonding and to demonstrate the intimate connection between the structures of compounds and their chemical reactivity. You learned, for example, that even though NaOH and alcohols (ROH) both have OH in their formula, NaOH is an ionic compound that dissociates completely in water to produce a basic solution containing Na^+ and OH^- ions, whereas alcohols are covalent compounds that do not dissociate in water and instead form neutral aqueous solutions. You also learned that an amine (RNH_2), with its lone pairs of electrons, is a base, whereas a carboxylic acid (RCO_2H), with its dissociable proton, is an acid.

Scientists of the 18th and early 19th centuries studied compounds obtained from plants and animals and labeled them *organic* because they were isolated from "organized" (living) systems. Compounds isolated from nonliving systems, such as rocks and ores, the atmosphere, and the oceans, were labeled *inorganic*. For many years, scientists thought organic compounds could be made by only living organisms because they possessed a vital force found only in living systems. The vital force theory began to decline in 1828, when the German chemist Friedrich Wöhler synthesized urea from inorganic starting materials. He reacted silver cyanate (AgOCN) and ammonium chloride (NH_4Cl), expecting to get ammonium cyanate (NH_4OCN). What he expected is described by the following equation.

$$AgOCN + NH_4Cl \rightarrow AgCl + NH_4OCN \tag{3.12.1}$$

Instead, he found the product to be urea (NH_2CONH_2), a well-known organic material readily isolated from urine. This result led to a series of experiments in which a wide variety of organic compounds were made from inorganic starting materials. The vital force theory gradually went away as chemists learned that they could make many organic compounds in the laboratory.

Today **organic chemistry** is the study of the chemistry of the carbon compounds, and **inorganic chemistry** is the study of the chemistry of all other elements. It may seem strange that we divide chemistry into two branches—one that considers compounds of only one element and one that covers the 100-plus remaining elements. However, this division seems more reasonable when we consider that of tens of millions of compounds that have been characterized, the overwhelming majority are carbon compounds.

> The word *organic* has different meanings. Organic fertilizer, such as cow manure, is organic in the original sense; it is derived from living organisms. Organic foods generally are foods grown without synthetic pesticides or fertilizers. Organic chemistry is the chemistry of compounds of carbon.

Carbon is unique among the other elements in that its atoms can form stable covalent bonds with each other and with atoms of other elements in a multitude of variations. The resulting molecules can contain from one to millions of carbon atoms. We previously surveyed organic chemistry by dividing its compounds into families based on functional groups. We begin with the simplest members of a family and then move on to molecules that are organic in the original sense—that is, they are made by and found in living organisms. These complex molecules (all containing carbon) determine the forms and functions of living systems and are the subject of biochemistry.

Organic compounds, like inorganic compounds, obey all the natural laws. Often there is no clear distinction in the chemical or physical properties among organic and inorganic molecules. Nevertheless, it is useful to compare typical members of each class, as in Table 3.12.1.

Table 3.12.1: General Contrasting Properties and Examples of Organic and Inorganic Compounds

Organic	Hexane	Inorganic	NaCl
low melting points	−95°C	high melting points	801°C
low boiling points	69°C	high boiling points	1,413°C
low solubility in water; high solubility in nonpolar solvents	insoluble in water; soluble in gasoline	greater solubility in water; low solubility in nonpolar solvents	soluble in water; insoluble in gasoline
flammable	highly flammable	nonflammable	nonflammable

Organic	Hexane	Inorganic	NaCl
aqueous solutions do not conduct electricity	nonconductive	aqueous solutions conduct electricity	conductive in aqueous solution
exhibit covalent bonding	covalent bonds	exhibit ionic bonding	ionic bonds

Keep in mind, however, that there are exceptions to every category in this table. To further illustrate typical differences among organic and inorganic compounds, Table 3.12.1 also lists properties of the inorganic compound sodium chloride (common table salt, NaCl) and the organic compound hexane (C_6H_{14}), a solvent that is used to extract soybean oil from soybeans (among other uses). Many compounds can be classified as organic or inorganic by the presence or absence of certain typical properties, as illustrated in Table 3.12.1.

Key Takeaway

- Organic chemistry is the study of carbon compounds, nearly all of which also contain hydrogen atoms.

Hydrocarbons

Learning Objectives

- Identify alkanes, alkenes, alkynes, and aromatic compounds.
- List some properties of hydrocarbons.

The simplest organic compounds are those composed of only two elements: carbon and hydrogen. These compounds are called **hydrocarbons**. Hydrocarbons themselves are separated into two types: aliphatic hydrocarbons and aromatic hydrocarbons.

Aliphatic hydrocarbons are hydrocarbons based on chains of C atoms. There are three types of aliphatic hydrocarbons. **Alkanes** are aliphatic hydrocarbons with only single covalent bonds. **Alkenes** are hydrocarbons that contain at least one C–C double bond, and **Alkynes** are hydrocarbons that contain a C–C triple bond. Occasionally, we find an aliphatic hydrocarbon with a ring of C atoms; these hydrocarbons are called *cycloalkanes* (or *cycloalkenes* or *cycloalkynes*).

Aromatic hydrocarbons have a special six-carbon ring called a *benzene* ring. Electrons in the benzene ring have special energetic properties that give benzene physical and chemical properties that are markedly different from alkanes. Originally, the term *aromatic* was used to describe this class of compounds because they were particularly fragrant. However, in modern chemistry the term *aromatic* denotes the presence of a six-membered ring that imparts different and unique properties to a molecule.

The simplest alkanes have their C atoms bonded in a straight chain; these are called *normal* alkanes. They are named according to the number of C atoms in the chain. The smallest alkane is methane:

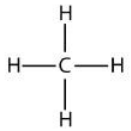


Figure 3.12.1 - Three-Dimensional Representation of Methane.

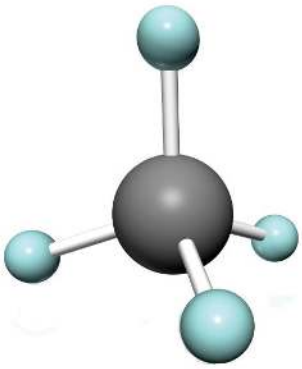
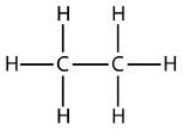
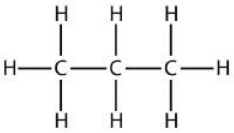


Figure 3.12.1 Three-Dimensional Representation of Methane © Thinkstock. The methane molecule is three dimensional, with the H atoms in the positions of the four corners of a tetrahedron.

The next-largest alkane has two C atoms that are covalently bonded to each other. For each C atom to make four covalent bonds, each C atom must be bonded to three H atoms. The resulting molecule, whose formula is C_2H_6, is ethane:



Propane has a backbone of three C atoms surrounded by H atoms. You should be able to verify that the molecular formula for propane is C_3H_8:



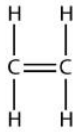
The diagrams representing alkanes are called **structural formulas** because they show the structure of the molecule. As molecules get larger, structural formulas become more and more complex. One way around this is to use a **condensed structural formula**, which lists the formula of each C atom in the backbone of the molecule. For example, the condensed structural formula for ethane is CH_3CH_3, while for propane it is $CH_3CH_2CH_3$. Table 3.12.1 - The First 10 Alkanes, gives the molecular formulas, the condensed structural formulas, and the names of the first 10 alkanes.

Table 3.12.1 The First 10 Alkanes

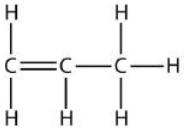
Molecular Formula	Condensed Structural Formula	Name
CH_4	CH_4	methane
C_2H_6	CH_3CH_3	ethane
C_3H_8	$CH_3CH_2CH_3$	propane
C_4H_{10}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_3$	butane
C_5H_{12}	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_3$	pentane
C_6H_{14}	$CH_3(CH_2)_4CH_3$	hexane
C_7H_{16}	$CH_3(CH_2)_5CH_3$	heptane
C_8H_{18}	$CH_3(CH_2)_6CH_3$	octane
C_9H_{20}	$CH_3(CH_2)_7CH_3$	nonane
$C_{10}H_{22}$	$CH_3(CH_2)_8CH_3$	decane

Because alkanes have the maximum number of H atoms possible according to the rules of covalent bonds, alkanes are also referred to as **saturated hydrocarbons**.

Alkenes have a C–C double bond. Because they have less than the maximum number of H atoms possible, they are **unsaturated hydrocarbons**. The smallest alkene—ethene—has two C atoms and is also known by its common name ethylene:

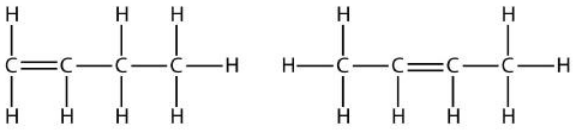


The next largest alkene—propene—has three C atoms with a C–C double bond between two of the C atoms. It is also known as propylene:



What do you notice about the names of alkanes and alkenes? The names of alkenes are the same as their corresponding alkanes except that the ending is *-ene*, rather than *-ane*. Using a stem to indicate the number of C atoms in a molecule and an ending to represent the type of organic compound is common in organic chemistry, as we shall see.

With the introduction of the next alkene, butene, we begin to see a major issue with organic molecules: choices. With four C atoms, the C–C double bond can go between the first and second C atoms or between the second and third C atoms:



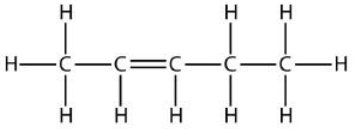
2 structural formulas for butene, with the first butene having the double bond on the first and second carbon from the left and the latter having its double bond on the second and third carbon from the left.

(A double bond between the third and fourth C atoms is the same as having it between the first and second C atoms, only flipped over.) The rules of naming in organic chemistry require that these two substances have different names. The first molecule is named *1-butene*, while the second molecule is named *2-butene*. The number at the beginning of the name indicates where the double bond originates. The lowest possible number is used to number a feature in a molecule; hence, calling the second molecule 3-butene would be incorrect. Numbers are common parts of organic chemical names because they indicate which C atom in a chain contains a distinguishing feature.

The compounds 1-butene and 2-butene have different physical and chemical properties, even though they have the same molecular formula—C_4H_8. Different molecules with the same molecular formula are called **isomers**. Isomers are common in organic chemistry and contribute to its complexity.

Example 3.12.1

Based on the names for the butene molecules, propose a name for this molecule.



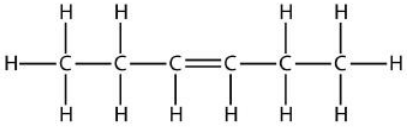
A structural formula of a five carbon molecule with a double bond on the third and fourth carbon from the left. There are ten hydrogen atoms in total.

Solution

With five C atoms, we will use the *pent-* stem, and with a C–C double bond, this is an alkene, so this molecule is a pentene. In numbering the C atoms, we use the number *2* because it is the lower possible label. So this molecule is named 2-pentene.

? Exercise 3.12.1

Based on the names for the butene molecules, propose a name for this molecule.



A structural formula of a six carbon molecule with a double bond on the third and fourth carbon from the left. There are twelve hydrogen atoms in total.

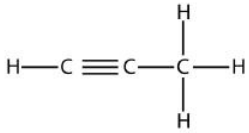
Answer

3-hexene

Alkynes, with a C–C triple bond, are named similarly to alkenes except their names end in *-yne*. The smallest alkyne is ethyne, which is also known as acetylene:

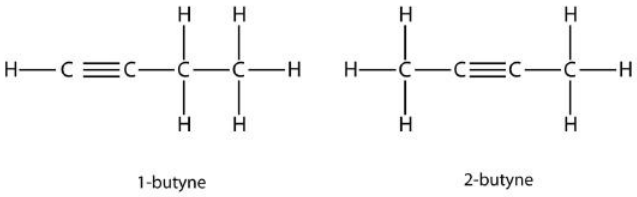


Propyne has the structure



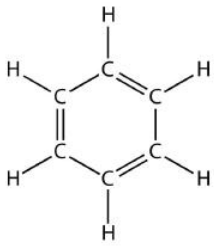
Structural formula showing three carbon molecules with a triple bond present between the first and second carbon atom. The appropriate number of hydrogen atoms is attached to each carbon atom.

With butyne, we need to start numbering the position of the triple bond, just as we did with alkenes:



Two structural formula of butyne. One butyne has a triple bond between the first and second carbon atom, while two butyne has the triple bond between the second and third carbon atom.

Aromatic compounds contain the benzene unit. Benzene itself is composed of six C atoms in a ring, with alternating single and double C–C bonds:



The six carbons are arranged in a hexagon pattern with one hydrogen atom emerging outwards from each carbon atom. The presence of a double bond is alternated between every other carbon atom.

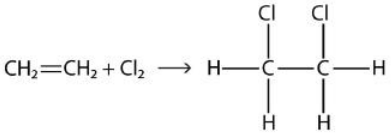
The alternating single and double C–C bonds give the benzene ring a special stability, and it does not react like an alkene as might be suspected. Benzene has the molecular formula C_6H_6; in larger aromatic compounds, a different atom replaces one or more of the H atoms.

As fundamental as hydrocarbons are to organic chemistry, their properties and chemical reactions are rather mundane. Most hydrocarbons are nonpolar because of the close electronegativities of the C and H atoms. As such, they dissolve only sparingly in H_2O and other polar solvents. Small hydrocarbons, such as methane and ethane, are gases at room temperature, while larger hydrocarbons, such as hexane and octane, are liquids. Even larger hydrocarbons are solids at room temperature and have a soft, waxy consistency.

Hydrocarbons are rather unreactive, but they do participate in some classic chemical reactions. One common reaction is substitution with a halogen atom by combining a hydrocarbon with an elemental halogen. Light is sometimes used to promote the reaction, such as this one between methane and chlorine:

$$CH_4 + Cl_2 \overset{light}{\rightarrow} CH_3Cl + HCl$$

Halogens can also react with alkenes and alkynes, but the reaction is different. In these cases, the halogen reacts with the C–C double or triple bond and inserts itself onto each C atom involved in the multiple bonds. This reaction is called an **addition reaction**. One example is



Structural formula showing the reaction of ethylene with a chlorine molecule to form ethylene dichloride.

The reaction conditions are usually mild; in many cases, the halogen reacts spontaneously with an alkene or an alkyne.

Hydrogen can also be added across a multiple bond; this reaction is called a **hydrogenation reaction**. In this case, however, the reaction conditions may not be mild; high pressures of H_2 gas may be necessary. A platinum or palladium catalyst is usually employed to get the reaction to proceed at a reasonable pace:

$$CH_2 = CH_2 + H_2 \overset{metal\ catalyst}{\rightarrow} CH_3CH_3$$

By far the most common reaction of hydrocarbons is **combustion**, which is the combination of a hydrocarbon with O_2 to make CO_2 and H_2O. The combustion of hydrocarbons is accompanied by a release of energy and is a primary source of energy production in our society (Figure $3.12.2$ - Combustion). The combustion reaction for gasoline, for example, which can be represented by C_8H_{18}, is as follows:

$$2C_8H_{18} + 25O_2 \rightarrow 16CO_2 + 18H_2O + \sim 5060kJ$$



Figure 3.12.2 Combustion © Thinkstock. The combustion of hydrocarbons is a primary source of energy in our society.

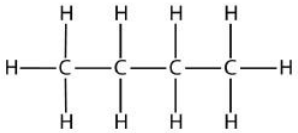
Key Takeaways

- The simplest organic compounds are hydrocarbons and are composed of carbon and hydrogen.
- Hydrocarbons can be aliphatic or aromatic; aliphatic hydrocarbons are divided into alkanes, alkenes, and alkynes.
- The combustion of hydrocarbons is a primary source of energy for our society.

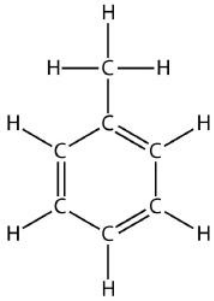
? Exercise 3.12.2

1. Define *hydrocarbon*. What are the two general types of hydrocarbons?
2. What are the three different types of aliphatic hydrocarbons? How are they defined?
3. Indicate whether each molecule is an aliphatic or an aromatic hydrocarbon; if aliphatic, identify the molecule as an alkane, an alkene, or an alkyne.

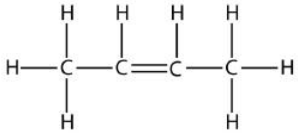
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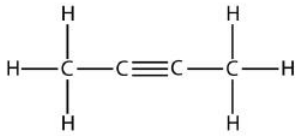
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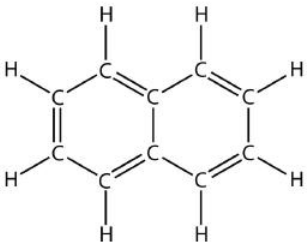


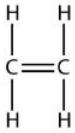
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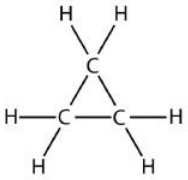
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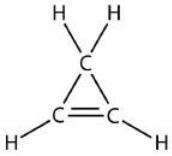
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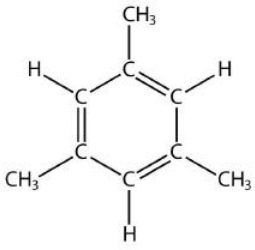
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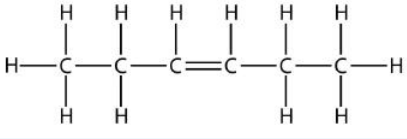
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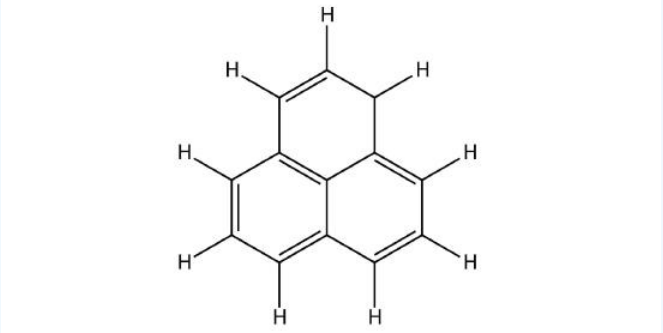
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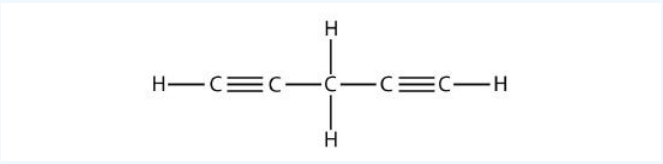
b. 

c. 

6. Indicate whether each molecule is an aliphatic or an aromatic hydrocarbon; if aliphatic, identify the molecule as an alkane, an alkene, or an alkyne.

a. 

b. 

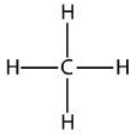
c. 

7. Name and draw the structural formulas for the four smallest alkanes.
8. Name and draw the structural formulas for the four smallest alkenes.
9. What does the term *aromatic* imply about an organic molecule?
10. What does the term *normal* imply when used for alkanes?
11. Explain why the name *1-propene* is incorrect. What is the proper name for this molecule?
12. Explain why the name *3-butene* is incorrect. What is the proper name for this molecule?
13. Name and draw the structural formula of each isomer of pentene.
14. Name and draw the structural formula of each isomer of hexyne.
15. Write a chemical equation for the reaction between methane and bromine.
16. Write a chemical equation for the reaction between ethane and chlorine.
17. Draw the structure of the product of the reaction of bromine with propene.
18. Draw the structure of the product of the reaction of chlorine with 2-butene.
19. Draw the structure of the product of the reaction of hydrogen with 1-butene.
20. Draw the structure of the product of the reaction of hydrogen with 1-butene.
21. Write the balanced chemical equation for the combustion of heptane.
22. Write the balanced chemical equation for the combustion of nonane.

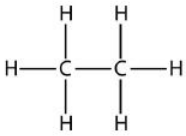
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Answers

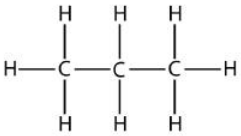
1. an organic compound composed of only carbon and hydrogen; aliphatic hydrocarbons and aromatic hydrocarbons
2.
3. a. aliphatic; alkane
   b. aromatic
   c. aliphatic; alkene
4.
5. a. aliphatic; alkane
   b. aliphatic; alkene
   c. aromatic
6.



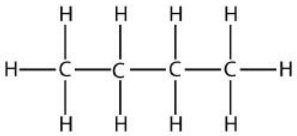
Methane



Ethane

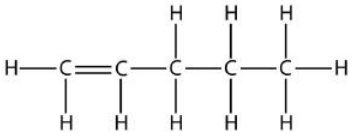


Propane

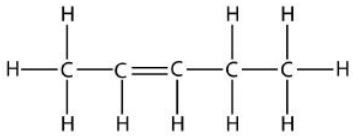


Butane

7.
8.
9. Aromatic means that the molecule has a benzene ring.
10.
11. The 1 is not necessary. The name of the compound is simply *propene*.
12.

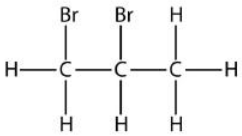


1-Pentene

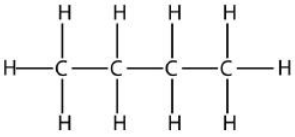


2-Pentene

13.
14.
15. $CH_4 + Br_2 \rightarrow CH_3Br + HBr$
16.



17.
18.



19.
20.
21. $C_7H_{16} + 11O_2 \rightarrow 7CO_2 + 8H_2O$

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3.13: Molecules, Compounds and Chemical Equations (Exercises)

Template:HideTOC

These are homework exercises to accompany the Textmap created for Chemistry: A Molecular Approach by Nivaldo Tro. Complementary General Chemistry question banks can be found for other Textmaps and can be accessed here. In addition to these publicly available questions, access to private problems bank for use in exams and homework is available to faculty only on an individual basis; please contact Delmar Larsen for an account with access permission.

Q5.29

Classify each compound as ionic or molecular

a. Fe_2O_3
b. SO_4
c. H_2O
d. $NaCl$

Strategy

A. First you need to have good understanding of the difference between Ionic and Molecular.
B. Ionic compound is formed between a metal and a non-metal
C. Molecular compound is formed between two non-metals
D. Then you need to figure out which elements are metals and non-metals by looking at the periodic table

Answers

a. Ionic
b. Molecular
c. Molecular
d. Ionic

Q5.33

Question: How many types of each atom are in each formula?

a. $(NH_4)_2SO_4$
b. $CaCO_3$
c. $Mg(OH)_2$
d. $NaHCO_3$

What We Know: A chemical formula gives the number of atoms in a compound and the element ratio within a compound.

What It's Asking For: Determine the number of each atom in the given compounds.

Strategy: The subscripts after each atom give the number of atoms in the compound. If the subscript is outside of the parenthesis, the subscript is applied to each atom within the parenthesis.

Solution:

a. 2 N, 8 H, 1 S, 4 O
b. 1 Ca, 1 C, 3 O
c. 1 Mg, 2 O, 2 H
d. 1 Na, 1 H, 1 C, 3 O

Q5.48

Write four different ionic compounds that can be formed using the following elements: Sodium, Chlorine, Aluminum and Sulfur.

Strategy:

A. Identify which elements are the metals and which are the nonmetals that will be arranged to form the ionic compounds.

B. Ionic compounds always contain positive and negative ions; therefore identify the positive charge of each metal identified in the above step and the negative charge of each nonmetal identified in the above step using the Periodic Table for reference.

C. Combine each metal with each nonmetal to form the initial foundation for the ionic compound. The sum of the positive charges must equal the sum of the negative charges within the compound which means that the number of each ion may have to be adjusted to achieve the balance of ions. If so, then the formula of the ionic compound will always reflect the smallest whole number ratio of ions. For example: 2:1, 2:3, etc.

Solution

- $NaCl$
- Na_2S
- $AlCl_3$
- Al_2S_3

Q5.49

Write the formula for the compound that forms between Potassium and each of the polyatomic ions listed below:

a. Sulfate
b. Perchlorate
c. Nitrate
d. Phosphate

Strategy

A. Identify the compound listed
B. Write out the chemical equation for each reaction
C. Balance the equations

Hints

- The formula for Sulfate is SO_4^{2-}
- The formula for Perchlorate is ClO_4^{-}
- The formula for Nitrate is NO_3^{-}
- The formula for Phosphate is PO_4^{3-}

Solution

a. $2K^+ + SO_4^{2-} \rightarrow K_2SO_4$
b. $K^+ + ClO_4^- \rightarrow K_2CLO_4$
c. $K^+ + NO_3^- \rightarrow KNO_3$
d. $3K^+ + PO_4^{3-} \rightarrow K_3PO_4$

Q5.60

Write the name from the formula of the formula from the name for each hydrated ionic compound

a. Iron(III) phosphate tetrahydrate
b. $CsBr \cdot 4H_2O$
c. Cobalt(II) chloride hexahydrate
d. $LiI \cdot 3H_2O$

Strategy

A. Name the cation and anion combination in the first part of the equation, or if the name is given, name the element combination with the anion first, then the cation. The anion is capitalized, while the cation remains lowercase.
B. If the compound involves a metal that forms more than one cation, the number of cations it forms goes in between parentheses in roman numeral form. If the compound does not involve a metal, than list cation charges as normal.
C. For each hydrate at the end of the compound, the prefix at the beginning indicates the number of hydrates. Name the appropriate prefix or number needed for each formula or compound name. Make sure the hydrate is lowercase.

Solutions

(1) Iron(III) phosphate tetrahydrate

A. Iron phosphate as an element is written as **$FePO_4$,** since both parts have a charge of 3, they are not needed in the equation.

B. The prefix tetra stands for "4", so therefore tetrahydrate as an element is written as **4H_2O**
C. The two parts combined make the final formula $FePO_4 \cdot 4H_2O$

(2) $CsBr \cdot 4H_2O$

A. Cs and Br with 1 charge stands for **Cesium Bromide**
B. 4 as a prefix is Tetra, so the end of the formula is **tetrahydrate**
C. The final name of the compound is **Cesium bromide tetrahydrate**

(3) Cobalt(II) chloride hexahydrate

A. Cobalt Chloride has a compound formula of $CoCl$, and with Cobalt's charge of 2 involved, a subscript of 2 is added to the end to make $CoCl_2$
B. The "hexa" prefix stands for 6, meaning there are 6 hydrates or **6H_2O**
C. The two parts put together makes the final compound, $CoCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$

(4) $LiI \cdot 3H_2O$

A. Li and I both with single charges make up the compound **Lithium iodide**
B. 3 as a prefix i labled as "tri", so with 3 hydrates, the compound is named as **trihydrate**
C. The final compound put together makes **Lithium iodide trihydrate**

Help with naming compounds: http://chemwiki.ucdavis.edu/Wikitext...onic_Compounds

Q5.65

Write the name for each molecular compound.

a. CO
b. H_2S
c. SF_6
d. N_2O_2

Strategy

First, you have to know how to name a molecular compound. To name a compound, its the prefix, name of first element, prefix and name of the second element with the suffix -ide. The prefixes are as follows:

- mono=1
- di=2
- tri=3
- tetra=4
- penta=5
- hexa=6
- hepta=7
- octa=8
- nona=9
- deca=10

After finding the elements and suffixes, just put it together and you have a molecular compound.

Solution

a. CO: Since we only have one of each, the carbon does not have a suffix, so we would just use Carbon and there is only one oxygen so the suffix is mono. So the answer is Carbon Monoxide
b. H_2S: The hydrogen has a coefficient of 2, so the suffix would be di and the sulfur has no coefficients. Therefore, the answer would be dihydrogen monosulfide.
c. SF_6: The sulfur has no coefficients, so it does not change. The fluoride has a coefficient of 6. Therefore, the answer is Sulfur Hexafluoride
d. N_2O_2: The nitrogen has a coefficient of 2, while the oxygen has a coefficient of 3. The compounds name is Dinitrogen trioxide.

Q5.75a

Find the amount of moles contained in each specimen.

a. 7.87 kg H_2O_2
b. 2.34 kg NaCl
c. 12.5 g C_2H_6O
d. 85.72 g NH_3

Strategy

A. First, determine the units that are given for each sample. In order to convert these measurements to moles, each sample should first be written in grams. Two of the given samples are measured in kilograms. Use the following conversion factor to convert kilograms to grams, with x representing the given mass:

$$x\ kg \cdot \frac{1000\ g}{1\ kg} \tag{3.13.1}$$

B. Next, find the atomic masses of all the atoms in each compound by using the Periodic Table. Then, add these atomic masses together for each compound. The resulting value will be the number of grams of each sample that make up one mole.

C. Convert the mass in grams of each sample to moles by multiplying it by the following conversion factor, called the molar mass, with *x* representing the mass of the given specimen and y representing the calculated atomic mass found in step B:

$$x\ g \cdot \frac{1\ mole}{y\ g} \tag{3.13.2}$$

A Numbers 1 and 2 first need to be converted into grams.

1. $$7.87\ kg\, H_2O_2 \cdot \frac{1000\ g}{1\ kg} = 7,870\ g\, H_2O_2 \tag{3.13.3}$$

2. $$2.34\ kg\, NaCl \cdot \frac{1000\ g}{1\ kg} = 2,340\ g\, NaCl \tag{3.13.4}$$

B The following are the calculated molar masses of each of the given compounds. The atomic mass of each element has been rounded to 4 significant figures in these calculations.

1. H_2O_2:

$$2\,(1.008\ g\, H) + 2\,(16.00\ g\, O) = \frac{34.02\ g}{1\ mole}\, H_2O_2 \tag{3.13.5}$$

2. NaCl:

$$(22.99\ g\, Na) + (35.45\ g\, Cl) = \frac{58.44\ g}{1\ mole}\, NaCl \tag{3.13.6}$$

3. C_2H_6O:

$$2\,(12.01\ g\, C) + 6\,(1.008\ g\, H) + (16.00\ g\, O) = \frac{46.07\ g}{1\ mole}\, C_2H_6O \tag{3.13.7}$$

4. NH_3:

$$(14.01\ g\, N) + 3\,(1.008\ g\, H) = \frac{17.03\ g}{1\ mole}\, NH_3 \tag{3.13.8}$$

C The number of moles in each specimen can now be calculated by multiplying the mass in grams of each sample by its molarity.

1. $$7,870\ g\, H_2O_2 \cdot \frac{1\ mole\, H_2O_2}{34.02\ g\, H_2O_2} = 231\ moles\, H_2O_2 \tag{3.13.9}$$

2. $$2,340\ g\, NaCl \cdot \frac{1\ mole\, NaCl}{58.44\ g\, NaCl} = 40.0\ moles\, NaCl \tag{3.13.10}$$

3. $$12.5\ g\,C_2H_6O \cdot \frac{1\ mole\,C_2H_6O}{46.07\ g\,C_2H_6O} = 0.271\ moles\,C_2H_6O \tag{3.13.11}$$

4. $$85.72\ g\,NH_3 \cdot \frac{1\ mole\,NH_3}{17.03\ g\,NH_3} = 5.033\ moles\,NH_3 \tag{3.13.12}$$

Q5.75b

Calculate the number of moles in each of the following examples.

a. 402.5 mg of NO_2
b. 2.7 kg of H_2O
c. 323 g of CBr_4
d. 2.9 kg of CaO

Solution

a)

First, calculate the molar mass of NO_2.

14.007g/mol N + 2 (15.999 g/mol O) = ***46.0055 g/mol***

Now, convert the sample from mg to g.

402.5 ~~mg~~ NO_2	1 g	**0.4025 g NO_2**
	1000 ~~mg~~	

Finally, use the molar mass to determine how many moles your sample size contains.

0.4025 g NO_2	1 mol	**0.0087 moles of NO_2**
	46.0055 g	

This gives us the final answer, **0.0087 moles of NO_2**.

From this, we can deduce that:

$$\text{Moles of substance} = \text{Mass of substance (g)} Molar mass of substance \tag{3.13.13}$$

b) 150 moles of H_2O

c) 0.974 moles of CBr_4

d) 52 moles of CaO

Q5.80

For each substance, convert the given molecules to mass in grams:

a. 3.2 x 10^{24} Cl_2 molecules
b. 8.25 x 10^{18} CH_2O molecules
c. 1 carbon dioxide molecule

Strategy:

Step 1: Convert the given molecules to moles by dividing by Avogadro's number.

Step 2: Multiply the number of moles by the Molar Mass of the substance to determine the grams.

Step 3: Through correct Dimensional Analysis, the molecules and moles will cancel to leave grams.

$$\frac{molecules}{Avogadro's} \rightarrow moles \rightarrow moles \cdot MM \rightarrow grams \tag{3.13.14}$$

Helpful Hints:

- Avogadro's number: 6.022 x 10^{23} mol of a substance
- Molar mass (MM): the weight of a substance in the units g/mol, found by adding the atomic masses of each element.
    - Example: MM of H_2O --> H(1.008 x 2) + O(15.999)= 18 g/mol

Solution

a) 3.8 x 10^{51} grams

b) 4.11 x 10^{45} grams

c) 7.31 x 10^{25} grams

Q5.105

Write the empirical formula and molecular formula for the compound with the given percent composition and molecular weight.

- 40.0% Carbon
- 6.70% Hydrogen
- 53.3% Oxygen

Molecular Weight ≈ 240 g/mol

Solution

Strategy:

A. Calculate amount of grams of each element we have.
B. Convert amount of grams into number of moles of each element.
C. Obtain molecular formula.
D. Find the common factor among the number of atoms each elements has, then obtain the empirical formula.

Solution:

1. Calculate amount of grams in each element:

$$Carbon = .40 \cdot 240g = 96g$$

$$Hydrogen = .067 \cdot 240g = 16.1g$$

$$Oxygen = .533 \cdot 240g = 127.9g$$

2. Convert amount of grams into number of moles of each elements:

Carbon-

$$96g \cdot \frac{1mol}{12.001g} = 8.00mols$$

Hydrogen-

$$16.1g \cdot \frac{1mol}{1.008g} = 16.0mols$$

Oxygen-

$$127.9g \cdot \frac{1mol}{16.0g} = 8mols$$

3. Obtain molecular formula:

$$C_8H_{16}O_8 \tag{3.13.15}$$

4. Find common factor and obtain empirical formula:

Common factor is 8

Empirical formula is

$$CH_2O \tag{3.13.16}$$

Q5.106

For several compounds both the molar mass and and empirical formulas are listed. What is the molecular formula for each compound.

a. C_2OH_4, 88 g/mol
b. C_2H_8N, 46 g/mol
c. NH_2, 32 g/mol

Strategy

1. A. Find the empirical formula mass of the compound
2. B. Determine the ratio between the empirical formula mass and the molar mass of the compound
3. C.Multiply the empirical formula by the factor found in part B.

Solution

C_2OH_4, 88 g/mol

A.

Carbon: 2(12.0g/mol)

Oxygen: 1(16.0g/mol)

Hydrogen: 4(1.0g/mol)

=44.0 g/mol

B.

$$\frac{88.0g/mol}{44.0g/mol} = 2 \tag{3.13.17}$$

C.

2(C_2OH_4)= $C_4O_2H_8$

C_2H_8N, 46 g/mol

A.

Carbon: 2(12.0g/mol)

Hydrogen: 8(1.0g/mol)

Nitrogen: 1(14.0g/mol)

=46.0 g/mol

B.

$$\frac{46.0g/mol}{46.0g/mol} = 1.0 \tag{3.13.18}$$

C.

1(C_2H_8N)=C_2H_8N

NH_2

A.

Nitrogen: 1(14.0g/mol)

Hydrogen: 2(1.0g/mol)

=16.0g/mol

B.

$$\frac{32.0g/mol}{16.0g/mol} = 2 \tag{3.13.19}$$

C.

2(NH_2)=N_2H_4

Q5.107

After the combustion of a hydrocarbon, we find 66.02g of CO_2 and 27.02g of H_2O. What is the empirical formula of this hydrocarbon?

Solutions

66.02 x 1 mol/ 44.0 g= 1.500 mol CO2= 1.5 mol C

27.02 x 1 mol/ 18g = 1.501 mol H20= 3 mol H

C1.5 H3= C3 H6

You start by taking both, divide by the molar mass, use the mol ratio of the compound and multiple to get rid of decimals.

~~Additional Question~~

~~Additional Questions 1. For the following molecules; write the chemical formula, determine how many atoms are present in one molecule, determine the molecular weight, determine the number of moles in exactly 1 gram, and the number of moles in exactly 10-6 gram. a. carbon dioxide b. iron (II) chloride c. dinitrogen pentoxide d. iron (III) sulfate 2. Name the following compounds, determine the molecular weight, determine the percent composition, and determine how many moles in 8.35 grams of the compound. a. KI b. CaF2 c. Cu2SO4 d. N2O e. LiOH 3. Give the chemical formula (or atomic symbol), molecular (or atomic) weight, and charge for the following ions: a. sulfate b. sulfite c. nitrate d. chloride e. nitride f. acetate g. carbonate 4. Calculate the number of moles in: a. 20.1797 g of Ne b. 45.3594 g of Ne c. 0.198669 g of Ne 5. Calculate the mass of: a. 2.00 mole of Fe b. 4.362 x 10-5 mol of Fe c. 4.362 x 10-5 mol of Li~~

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

4: Chemical Reactions and Quantities

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4.1: Carbon Dioxide and Climate Change
4.2: Writing and Balancing Chemical Equations
4.3: Limiting Reactant, Theoretical Yield, and Percent Yield
4.4: Reaction Stoichiometry- How Much Carbon Dioxide?
4.5: Examples of Chemical Reaction- Combustion, Alkali Metals, and Halogens
4.6: Combustion Reactions

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4.1: Carbon Dioxide and Climate Change

Learning Objectives

- Define global warming, climate change, the greenhouse effect, and greenhouse gases.
- Discuss strategies for reducing the intensity of the human influence on the greenhouse effect.

Global warming refers to the increase in the average temperature of the Earth's atmosphere due to elevated greenhouse gas concentrations, heightening the greenhouse effect. **Climate change** includes both global warming driven by human-induced emissions of greenhouse gases and the resulting large-scale shifts in weather patterns. Though there have been previous periods of climatic change, since the mid-20th century humans have had an unprecedented impact on Earth's climate system and caused change on a global scale.

The largest driver of warming is the emission of gases that create a greenhouse effect, of which more than 90% are carbon dioxide (CO_2) and methane. Fossil fuel burning (coal, oil, and natural gas) for energy consumption is the main source of these emissions, with additional contributions from agriculture, deforestation, and manufacturing. The human cause of climate change is not disputed by any scientific body of national or international standing. Temperature rise is accelerated or tempered by climate feedbacks, such as loss of sunlight-reflecting snow and ice cover, increased water vapour (a greenhouse gas itself), and changes to land and ocean carbon sinks.

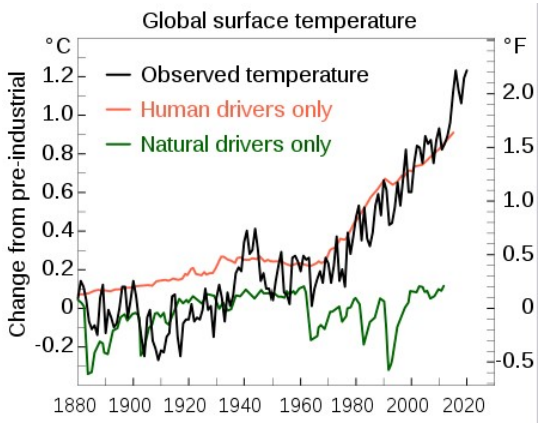


Figure 4.1.1 Observed temperature from NASA versus the 1850-1900 average as a pre-industrial baseline.

The **greenhouse effect** is the process by which radiation from a planet's atmosphere warms the planet's surface to a temperature above what it would be without this atmosphere (Figure 4.1.2). Radiatively active gases (i.e. greenhouse gases) in a planet's atmosphere radiate energy in all directions. Part of this radiation is directed towards the surface, thus warming it. The intensity of downward radiation – that is, the strength of the greenhouse effect – depends on the amount of greenhouse gases that the atmosphere contains. The temperature rises until the intensity of upward radiation from the surface, thus cooling it, balances the downward flow of energy.

Earth's natural greenhouse effect is critical to supporting life and initially was a precursor to life moving out of the ocean onto land. Human activities, mainly the burning of fossil fuels and clear cutting of forests, have increased the greenhouse effect and caused global warming.

The term *greenhouse effect* is a slight misnomer in the sense that physical greenhouses warm via a different mechanism. The greenhouse effect as an atmospheric mechanism functions through radiative heat loss while a traditional greenhouse as a built structure blocks convective heat loss. The result, however, is an increase in temperature in both cases.

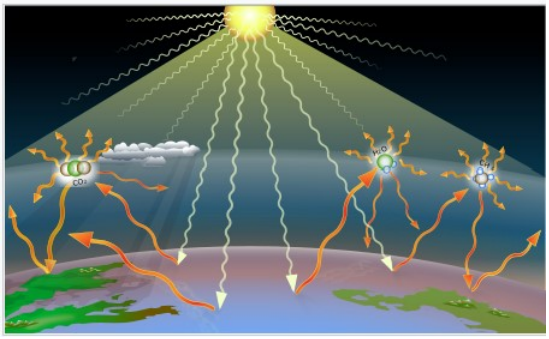


Figure 4.1.2 The greenhouse effect of solar radiation on the Earth's surface caused by emission of greenhouse gases. Source: Wikipedia

Greenhouse Gases and Global Warming

A **greenhouse gas** (sometimes abbreviated **GHG**) is a gas that absorbs and emits radiant energy within the thermal infrared range, causing the greenhouse effect. It's important to realize that **water vapor** (H_2O) is also a greenhouse gas. While humans have little direct impact on water vapor concentrations in the atmosphere, it is still an essential component of the natural greenhouse effect that occurs in our atmosphere. The four major categories of greenhouse gases that have been impacted by humans the most will be discussed in detail below. See Table 4.1.1 for a numeric comparison of these greenhouse gases.

• Carbon dioxide, CO_2

• Methane, CH_4

• Nitrous oxide, N_2O

• Synthetic **fluorinated gases**, including **hydrofluorocarbons** (HFCs), **perfluorocarbons** (PFCs), and **sulfur hexafluoride** (SF_6)

Carbon dioxide (CO_2) is the greenhouse gas responsible for most of the human-caused climate change in our atmosphere. It has the highest concentration in the atmosphere of any of the greenhouse gases that we'll discuss here. Remember that CO_2 is a direct product of both combustion and cellular respiration, causing it to be produced in great quantities both naturally and anthropogenically. Any time biomass or fossil fuels are burned, CO_2 is released. Major anthropogenic sources include: electricity production from coal-fired and natural gas power plants, transportation, and industry (Chapter 4). To get an idea of how CO_2 concentration has changed over time, watch this video compiled by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA): http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/trends/history.html. This video contains atmospheric CO_2 concentrations measured directly, dating back to 1958, as well as atmospheric CO_2 concentrations measured indirectly from ice core data, dating back to 800,000 BCE. By 1990, a quantity of over seven billion tons of carbon (equivalent to 26 billion tons of carbon dioxide when the weight of the oxygen atoms are also considered) was being emitted into the atmosphere every year, much of it from industrialized nations. Similar to the action of the naturally existing greenhouse gases, any additional greenhouse gases leads to an increase in the surface temperature of the Earth.

While CO_2 is produced by aerobic cellular respiration, gases such as CH_4 and N_2O are often the products of anaerobic metabolisms. Agriculture is a major contributor to CH_4 emissions. In addition to anaerobic bacteria, methane is also a significant component of natural gas, and is commonly emitted through the mining and use of natural gas and petroleum, in addition to coal mining. Finally, landfills contribute significantly to CH_4 emissions, as the waste put into the landfill largely undergoes anaerobic decomposition as it is buried under many layers of trash and soil. Natural sources of CH_4 include swamps and wetlands, and volcanoes.

The vast majority of N_2O production by humans comes from agricultural land management. While some N_2O is naturally emitted to the atmosphere from soil as part of the nitrogen cycle, human changes in land management, largely due to agricultural practices, have greatly increased N_2O emissions. Some N_2O is also emitted from transportation and industry.

Due to their relatively high concentrations in the atmosphere compared to synthetic gases, CO_2, CH_4, and N_2O, are responsible for most of the human-caused global climate change over the past century. Figure 4.1.2 shows the increases in all three gases since 1750. Ice core data shows us that the atmospheric CO_2 concentration never exceeded 300 ppm before the industrial revolution. As of early 2015, the current atmospheric CO_2 concentration is 400 ppm.

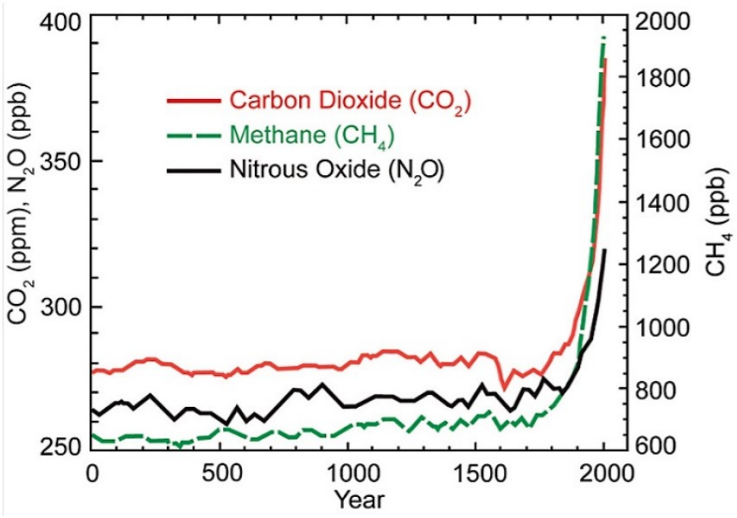


Figure 4.1.2: Increase in greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere over the last 2,000 years. Increases in concentrations of these gases since 1750 are due to human activities in the industrial era. Concentration units are parts per million (ppm) or parts per billion (ppb), indicating the number of molecules of the greenhouse gas per million or billion molecules of air. Source: USGCRP (2009)

One class of greenhouse gas chemicals that has no natural sources is the fluorinated gases. These include HFCs, PFCs, and SF6, among others. Because these are synthetic chemicals that are only created by humans, these gases were essentially non-existent before the industrial revolution. These synthetic gases are used for a wide variety of applications, from refrigerants to semiconductor manufacturing, and propellants to fire retardants. They tend to have a long lifetime in the atmosphere, as seen in Table 4.1.1. Some of these chemicals, as well as the older **chlorofluorocarbons** (CFCs), have been phased out by international environmental legislation under the Montreal Protocol. Due to their long lifespan, many of these now banned CFCs remain in the atmosphere. Newer chemical replacements, such as HFCs, provide many of the same industrial applications, but unfortunately have their own environmental consequences.

Just as greenhouse gases differ in their sources and their residence time in the atmosphere, they also differ in their ability to produce the greenhouse effect. This is measured by the **global warming potential**, or GWP, of each greenhouse gas. The GWP of a greenhouse gas is based on its ability to absorb and scatter energy, as well as its lifetime in the atmosphere. Since CO_2 is the most prevalent greenhouse gas, all other greenhouse gases are measured relative to it. As the reference point, CO_2 always has a GWP of 1. Note the very high GWP values of the synthetic fluorinated gases in Table 4.1.1. This is largely due to their very long residence time in the atmosphere. Also note the higher GWP values for CH_4 and N_2O compared to CO_2.

Table 4.1.1. Comparision of Greenhouse Gases.

Greenhouse gas	Chemical formula or abbreviation	Lifetime in atmosphere	Global warming potential (100-year)
Carbon dioxide	CO_2	Variable	1
Methane	CH_4	12 years	28-36
Nitrous oxide	N_2O	114 years	298
Hydrofluorocarbons	Abbreviation: HFCs	1-270 years	12-14,800
Perfluorocarbons	Abbreviation: PFCs	2,600-50,000 years	7,390
Sulfur hexafluoride	SF6	3,200 years	22,800

Other climate influencers

In addition to greenhouse gases, other manmade changes may be forcing climate change. Increases in near-surface ozone from internal combustion engines, aerosols such as carbon black, mineral dust and aviation-induced exhaust are acting to raise the surface temperature. This primarily occurs due to a decrease in the **albedo** of light-colored surfaces by the darker-colored carbon

black, soot, dust, or particulate matter. As you know, it is more comfortable to wear a white shirt on a hot summer day than a black shirt. Why is this? Because the lighter-colored material bounces more solar radiation back toward space than the darker-colored material does, allowing it to stay cooler. The darker-colored material absorbs more solar radiation, increasing its temperature. Just as the white shirt has a higher albedo than the black shirt, light-colored objects in nature (such as snow) have a higher albedo than dark-colored objects (such as soot or dust). As humans increase the amount of carbon black, soot, dust, and particulates in the atmosphere, we decrease the albedo of light-colored surfaces, causing them to absorb more solar radiation and become warmer than they would without human influence. An example of this can be seen in the snow on Figure 4.1.3.



Figure 4.1.3: A photograph of the extreme dust deposition from the deserts of the Colorado Plateau onto the Colorado Rockies snowpack in 2009. Taken from the high point of the Senator Beck Basin in the San Juan Mountains, it captures the extent of the impact of darkening in which the snow albedo dropped to about 30%, more than doubling the absorption of sunlight. Credit: S. McKenzie Skiles, Snow Optics Laboratory, NASA/JPL

Consequences of Climate Change

We will only discuss some of the consequences of climate change in this section, including changes in temperature, precipitation, ocean level, and ocean acidity. There are many more changes that have been seen, and are projected to continue in the future. These include: changes in the amount and distribution of ice and snow, changes in seasonality, ecosystem shift, and habitat changes of plant and animal populations, in addition to others. For more information about these consequence of climate change, visit this site: http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/sci...ors/index.html.

Temperature and precipitation

Temperature and **precipitation** are the two most direct impacts on the Earth's climate due to climate change. By now, you should already understand why an increase in greenhouse gas levels in the atmosphere causes an increase in temperature. But why does it also impact precipitation patterns? As you already know, water vapor is an important component of the Earth's atmosphere . As the air in the troposphere warms and cools, the amount of water vapor that it holds changes dramatically. Here in Georgia, we have very hot and humid summers. The high summer humidity in this region is possible due to the increased capability warm air has to hold water vapor. Simply put, warmer air can hold more water than cooler air. As air cools, its ability to hold water vapor decreases, and any excess water will leave the air as liquid water. A great example of this is the formation of dew on surfaces overnight. During the day, the temperature is warmer than it is at night, and the air has a relatively high holding capacity for water vapor. When the sun sets, the air cools, decreasing its capacity to hold water vapor. That extra water must go somewhere, and it does that by accumulating on surfaces. Similarly, when warm and cool air fronts collide, the chances for rain and thunderstorms

increase. Furthermore, an increase in temperature enhances evaporation occurring at the Earth's surface. This increased evaporation leads to greater concentrations of water vapor in the atmosphere which can lead to increased precipitation.

The change in temperature that we have already seen in the Earth's average atmospheric temperature is relatively small (about1.2 °C, according to Figure 7.5.1). However, as with many of the aspects of climate change, the potential for greater changes increases dramatically as time progresses in the future. This can be seen in Figure 4.1.4, which displays a model of the predicted temperature increase. Notice that these changes occur relatively rapidly, and are not uniform across the globe. What might be some of the reasons for this?

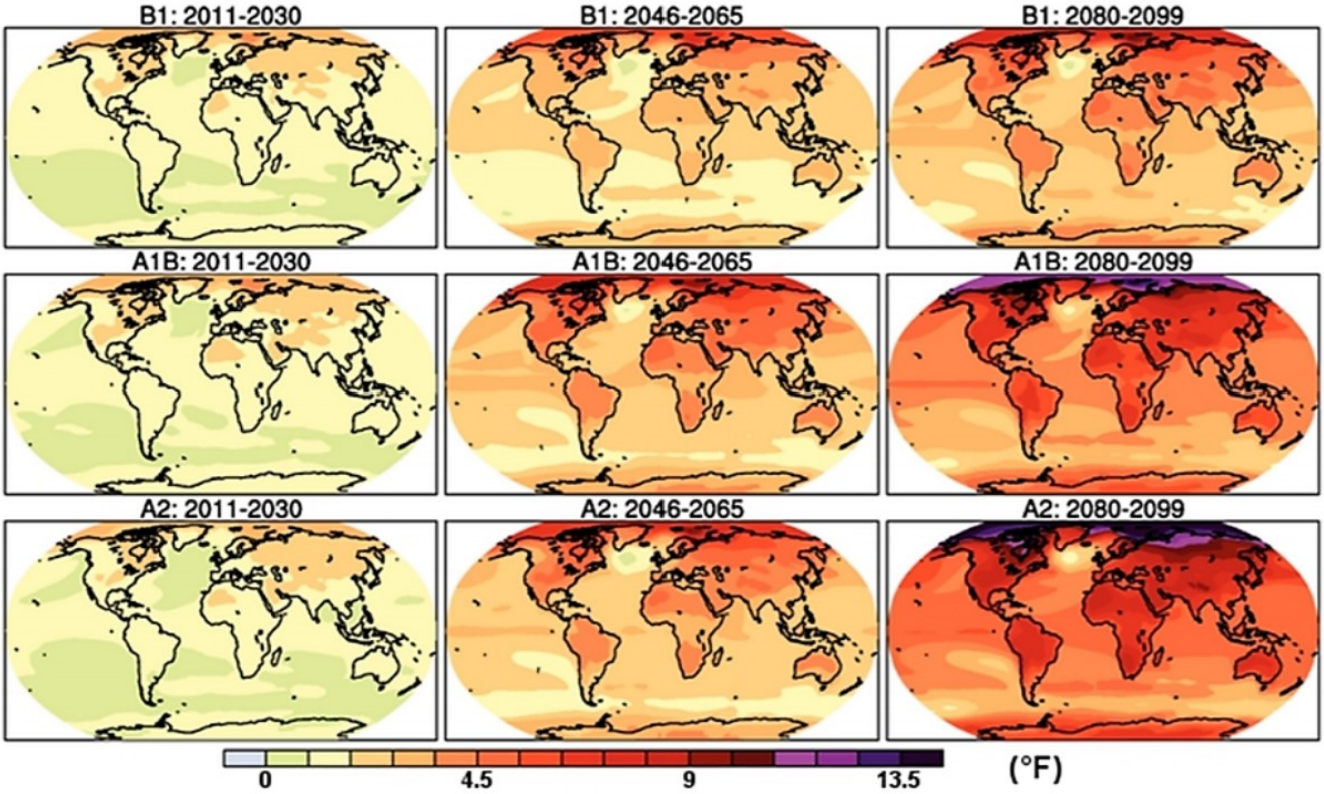


Figure 4.1.4: Projected changes in global average temperatures under three emissions scenarios (rows) for three different time periods (columns). Changes in temperatures are relative to 1961- 1990 averages. The scenarios come from the IPCC Special Report on Emissions Scenarios: B1 is a low emissions scenario, A1B is a medium-high emissions scenario, and A2 is a high emissions scenario. Source: IPCC Working Group I: The Physical Science Basis, 2007.

Changes in precipitation occur due to a variety of factors, including changes in atmospheric water vapor content due to changing temperature, as discussed above. Also at play is the heightened **evaporation** rate of water on Earth's surface under warmer temperatures. More evaporation leads to more precipitation. Finally, shifts in wind patterns impact the distribution of precipitation events. As you can see in Figure 4.1.5, there are some areas of the globe that are expected to have an increase in precipitation, while others are expected to have a dramatic decrease. Some major population centers projected to have a moderate to severe precipitation increase include (population estimates of the metropolitan area given in parentheses): New York, United States (20.1 million); Bogotá, Colombia (12.1 m.); and Manila, Philippines (11.9 m.). What sort of challenges might these cities face in the future as they deal with this change in their climate?

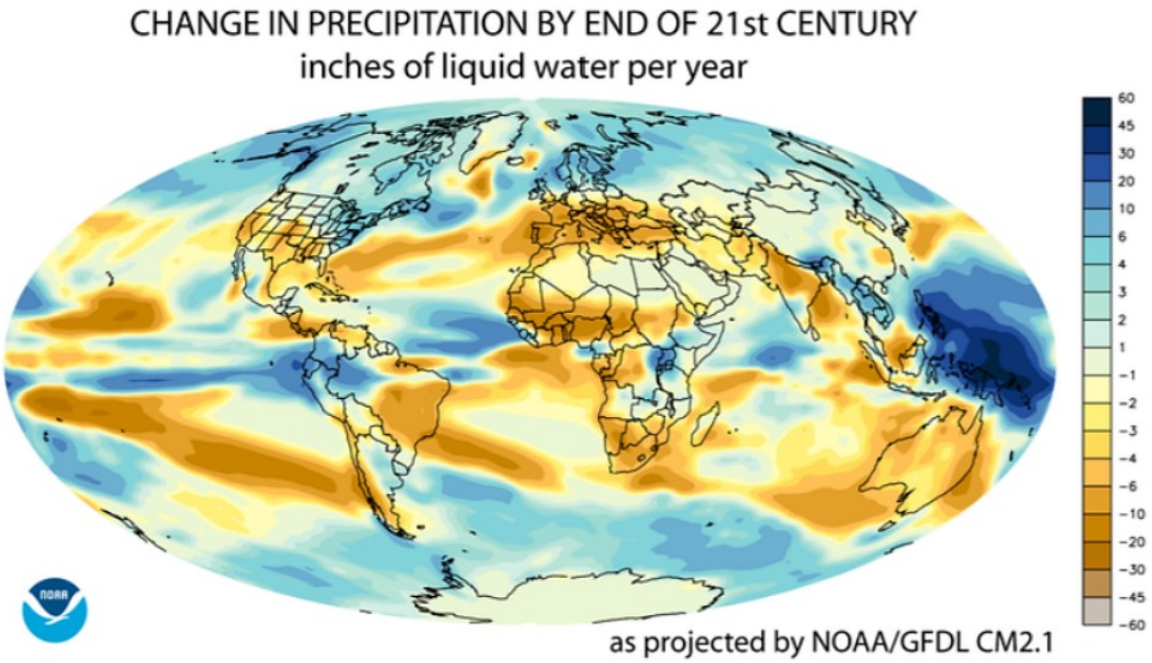


Figure 4.1.5 The plotted precipitation differences were computed as the difference between the 2081 to 2100 20-year averages minus the 1951 to 2000 50-year average. Blue areas project increases in precipitation; brown areas project decreases.

In contrast, many more major metropolitan areas are projected to have a moderate to severe precipitation decrease (droughts) by the end of the 21st century. These include Delhi, India (21.8 m.); Lagos, Nigeria (21 m.); São Paulo, Brazil (20.9 m.); Kolkata, India (14.6 m.); Istanbul, Turkey (14.4 m.); Los Angeles, United States (13.3 m.); Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (12 m.); Paris, France (12 m.); and Lahore, Pakistan (11.3 m.). The largest challenge that these areas are likely to face is a dwindling water supply for drinking and agriculture. See Chapter 8 for more detail on challenges faced by societies to supply clean, reliable water to their populations and farms.

Additional challenges may be felt by all areas of the world with regard to changes in the seasonality or timing of precipitation, as well the form in which precipitation falls (e.g., mist or downpour; rain, ice, or snow). All of these factors affect the availability of soil water for plants, the flow of rivers and streams, and the overall accessibility of water worldwide. Furthermore, scientists predict an increase in the number and severity of storms as climate change progresses. For a full discussion of the potential impacts of this, see the assigned article.

Sea level rise While we know that water continuously cycles around the world, and that the overall quantity of water on Earth will not change due to global climate change, the distribution of this water is changing. In particular, oceans are increasing in volume while land ice stores (such as **glaciers**) are decreasing. This contributes to an increase in sea level worldwide (Figure 4.1.6).

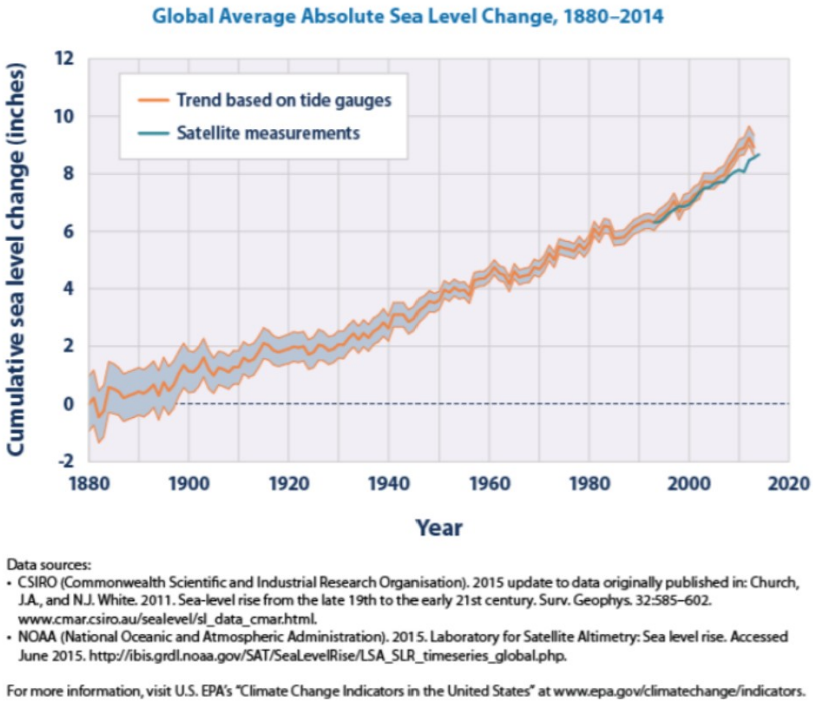


Figure 4.1.6: *This graph shows average absolute cumulative changes in sea level for the world's oceans since 1880, based on a combination of tide gauge measurements and recent satellite measurements. The shaded band shows the likely range of values, based on the number of measurements collected and the precision of the methods used.*

From the data in Figure 4.1.6, we see that sea level has increased at an average of 0.06 inches (0.15 cm) per year over the time period shown above. Most of this rise, however, has occurred within the most recent decades. The rate of increase has gone up to between 0.11 to 0.14 inches (0.28 to 0.36 cm) per year since 1993. There are two forces causing sea level to rise, both caused by climate change. First, the increased global temperature has caused increased ice melting in many regions of the globe. Melting **land ice** (such as the glacier shown in Figure 4.1.7) contributes to sea level rise because water that used to be stored in ice sitting on top of land becomes running water which reaches the ocean through **runoff.** We also observe **sea ice** melting (see http://www.epa.gov/climatechange/sci ence/indicators/index.html for data and figures). Sea ice, such as the ice that covers the arctic regions of the Northern Hemisphere, has no land underneath it. When it melts, the water stays in the same locations, and the overall sea level does not change.



Figure 4.1.7: Glacier Retreat

The second factor that influences sea level rise is a phenomenon called thermal expansion. Due to the physical properties of water, as water warms, its density decreases. A less dense substance will have fewer molecules in a given area than a more dense substance (see Chapter 1 supplemental material). This means that as the overall temperature of the oceans increases due to global climate change, the same amount of water molecules will now occupy a slightly larger volume. This may not seem significant, but considering the 1.3 billion trillion liters (264 billion gallons) of water in the ocean, even a small change in density can have large effects on sea level as a whole.

Scientists have already documented sea level rise in some areas of the world, including one familiar to most of us: the Southeastern United States. Figure 4.1.8 depicts the measured land area lost due to increasing sea level since 1996. Note that the Southeast

(defined here as the Atlantic coast of North Carolina south to Florida) is particularly susceptible to land area loss due to the gently sloping nature of our coastline. Moving northward into the Mid-Atlantic States (defined here as Virginia north to Long Island, New York), coastal habitats tend to have a steeper geography, which protects against some losses.

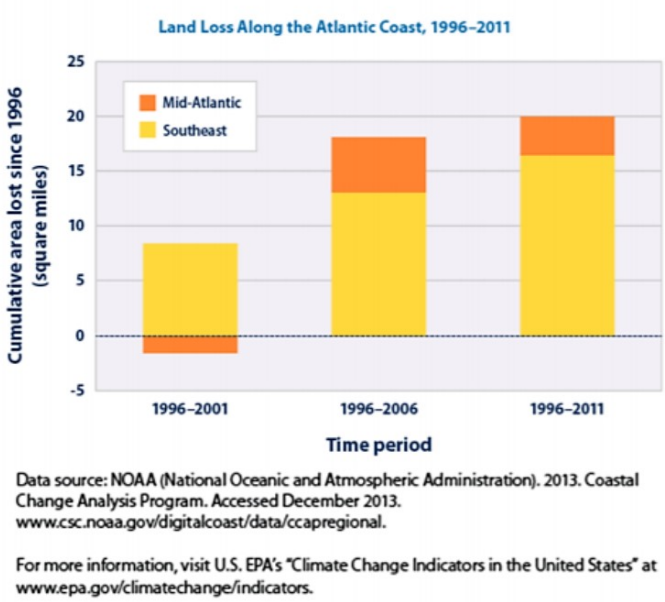


Figure 4.1.8: This graph shows the net amount of land converted to open water along the Atlantic coast during three time periods: 1996–2001, 1996–2006, and 1996–2011. The results are divided into two regions: the Southeast and the Mid-Atlantic. Negative numbers show where land loss is outpaced by the accumulation of new land.

While the ecological effects of sea level rise remain in the United States, we don't project any catastrophic loss of life, property, or livelihood for some time. This is, in part, due to large investments that we have made in infrastructure to protect our cities and farmlands. This is not the case in many areas of the world. For a discussion of the impacts of sea level rise on less industrialized nations of Bangladesh, Maldives, Kiribati, and Fiji, review the required article reading.

Ocean acidification

Dissolved CO_2 is essential for many organisms, including shell-building animals and other organisms that form a hard coating on their exterior (e.g., shellfish, corals, Haptophyte algae). This hard coating is built out of aragonite, a mineral form of the molecule calcium carbonate, $CaCO_3$. These organisms rely on the formation of carbonate ions (see Chapter 1 supplemental material for information on ions), CO_3^{2-}, from dissolved CO_2, through a natural, chemical reaction that occurs. This takes place through a chain-reaction equation, where bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) is formed as an intermediate, and hydrogen ions (H^+) are generated (equations 4.1.1 and 4.1.2).

$$CO_2 + H_2O \leftrightarrow H^+ + HCO_3^- \tag{4.1.1}$$

$$HCO_3^- \leftrightarrow H^+ + CO_3^{2-} \tag{4.1.2}$$

To have a better visualization of this process, follow along with the interactive graphic at: http://www.whoi.edu/home/oceanus_ima...ification.html.

As you can see, both equations 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 each produce one H^+. This is significant to water chemistry because an increase in H+ concentration means a decrease in the pH of the water. You can see in Figure 4.1.9 that a lower pH means that the liquid is more acidic. As shown in the interactive graphic, an increase in CO_2 in the atmosphere causes additional CO_2 to be dissolved in the ocean. This means that more CO_2 in the atmosphere leads to more acidic ocean environments.

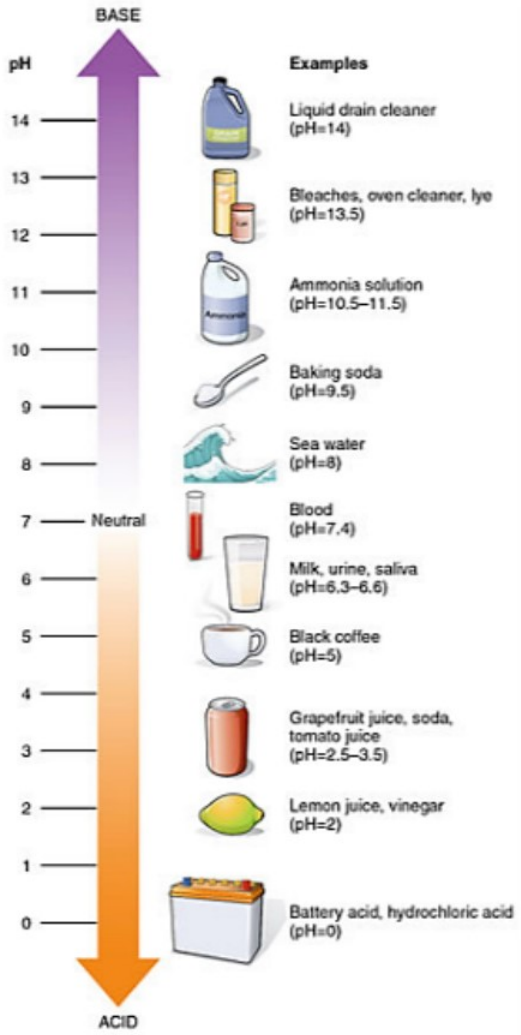


Figure 4.1.9: The pH scale and relative acidity. Illustration from Anatomy & Physiology, Connexions Web site. http://cnx.org/content/col11496/1.6/, Jun 19, 2013.

Unfortunately for shell-building animals, the buildup of H^+ in the more acidic ocean environment blocks the absorption of calcium and CO_3^{2-}, and makes the formation of aragonite more difficult. An aragonite deficit is already being documented in many of the world's oceans, as shown in Figure 4.1.10.

The increasing acidity of the world's oceans is resulting in habitat changes across the globe. This is only expected to worsen as atmospheric CO_2 levels continue to increase. Many organisms, including the corals that are the foundation species of the beautiful coral reefs, are very sensitive to changes in ocean pH. Scientists have documented cases of ecosystem destruction through coral bleaching, caused by the effects of climate change including ocean acidification and increased temperature. For more information, visit the NOAA Coral Reef Conservation Program website: coralreef.noaa.gov/threats/climate/.

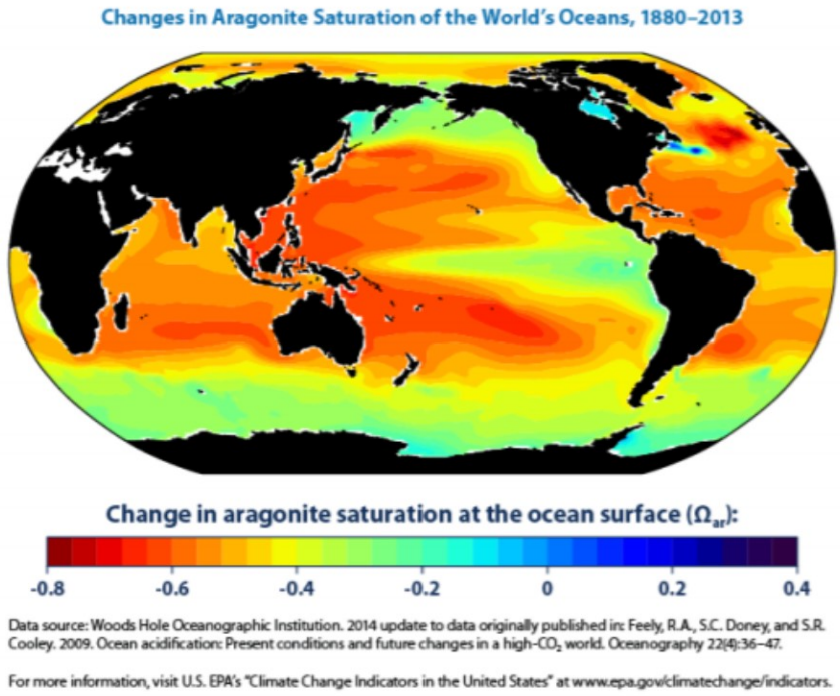


Figure 4.1.10: This map shows changes in the aragonite saturation level of ocean surface waters between the 1880s and the most recent decade (2004–2013). Aragonite is a form of calcium carbonate that many marine animals use to build their skeletons and shells. A negative change represents a decrease in saturation.

Climate Strategies

While the situation surrounding global climate change is in serious need of our attention, it is important to realize that many scientists, leaders, and concerned citizens are making solutions to climate change part of their life's work. The two solutions to the problems caused by climate change are **mitigation** and **adaptation**, and we will likely need a combination of both in order to prosper in the future.

Adaptation strategies

We know that climate change is already occurring, as we can see and feel the effects of it. For this reason, it is essential to also adapt to our changing environment. This means that we must change our behaviors in response to the changing environment around us. Some adaptation strategies are discussed in the required article reading.

Adaption strategies will vary greatly by region, depending on the largest specific impacts in that area. For example, in the city of Delhi, India, a dramatic decrease in rainfall is projected over the next century (Figure 7.6.2). This city will likely need to implement policies and practices relating to conservation of water, for example: rainwater harvesting, water re-use, and increased irrigation efficiency. Rain-limited cities near oceans, such as Los Angeles, California may choose to use desalination to provide drinking water to their citizens. **Desalination** involves taking the salt out of seawater to make it potable (Chapter 14).

Cities with low elevations near oceans may need to implement adaptation strategies to rising sea levels, from seawalls and levees to relocation of citizens. One adaptations strategy gaining use is the creation or conservation of **wetlands**, which provide natural protection against storm surges and flooding.

Mitigation strategies

In general, a strategy to mitigate climate change is one that reduces the amount of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere or prevents additional emissions. Mitigations strategies attempt to "fix" the problems caused by climate change. Governmental regulations regarding fuel efficiency of vehicles is one example of an institutionalized mitigation strategy already in place in the United States and in many other countries around the world. Unlike some other countries, there are no **carbon taxes** or charges on burning fossil fuels in the United States. This is another governmental mitigation strategy that has been shown to be effective in many countries including India, Japan, France, Costa Rica, Canada, and the United Kingdom.

In addition to government measures and incentives, technology can also be harnessed to mitigate climate change. One strategy for this is the use of **carbon capture and sequestration** (CCS). Through CCS, 80-90% of the CO_2 that would have been emitted to the atmosphere from sources such as a coal-fired power plant is instead captured and then stored deep beneath the Earth's surface. The CO_2 is often injected and sequestered hundreds of miles underground into porous rock formations sealed below an impermeable layer, where it is stored permanently (Figure 4.1.11).

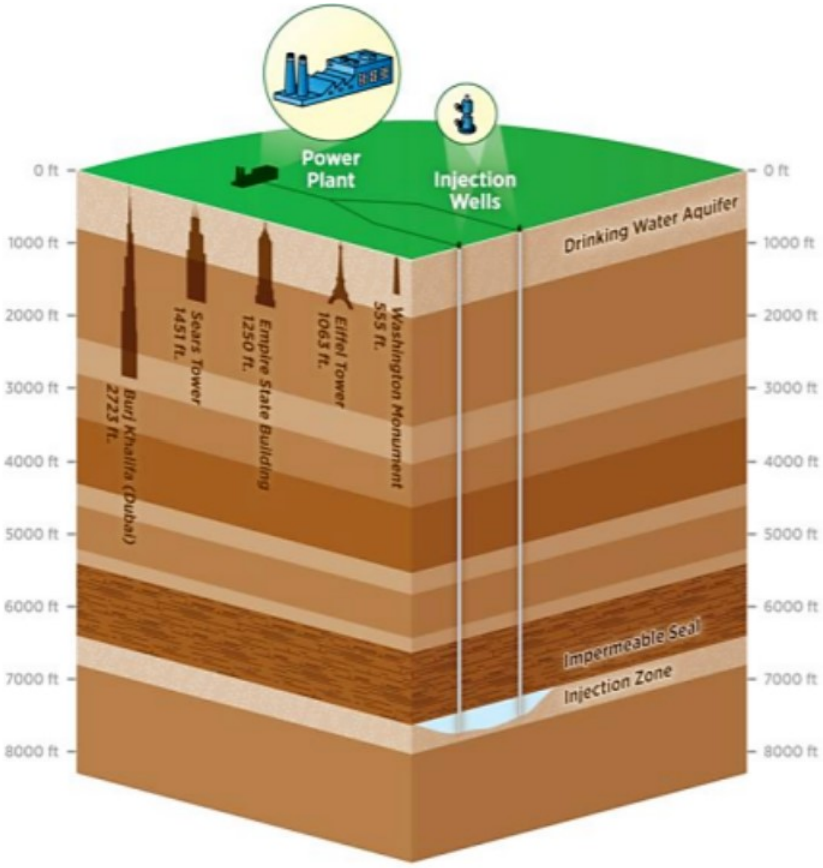


Figure 4.1.11: Carbon capture and sequestration schematic with landmarks shown to scale for depth reference. Source: US EPA.

Scientists are also looking into the use of soils and vegetation for carbon storage potential. Proper management of soil and forest ecosystems has been shown to create additional carbon sinks for atmospheric carbon, reducing the overall atmospheric CO_2 burden. Increasing soil carbon further benefits communities by providing better-quality soil for agriculture and cultivation.

Technologies related to alternative energy sources (Chapter 15) mitigate climate change by providing people with energy not derived from the combustion of fossil fuels. Finally, simple activities such as energy conservation, choosing to walk or bike instead of driving, and disposing of waste properly are activities that, when done by large numbers of people, actively mitigate climate change by preventing carbon emissions.

Take a moment to identify ways that you personally can be involved in the mitigation of or adaptation to climate change. What changes can you make in your own life to prevent excess carbon emissions? Similar to your ecological footprint, which you should have already calculated in lab, you can also calculate your carbon footprint. Use the EPA's carbon footprint calculator to do so, and investigate the Reduce Your Emissions section to find ways to decrease your carbon footprint.

Recommendations from the US Environmental Protection Agency

Figure 4.1.12 list various technologies and approaches that companies and individuals can adapt to reduce greenhouse gases. Technologies related to alternative energy sources mitigate climate change by providing people with energy not derived from the combustion of fossil fuels. Finally, simple activities such as energy conservation, choosing to walk or bike instead of driving, and disposing of waste properly are activities that, when done by large numbers of people, actively mitigate climate change by preventing carbon emissions.

Solutions for Transportation Air Pollution

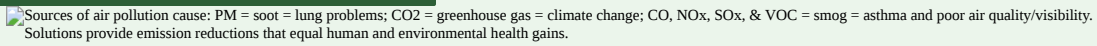


Figure 4.1.6 *Sources and solutions for transportation air pollution. Image: EPA*

Solutions for transportation air pollution, emission reductions, can lead to cleaner air and better health.

- Catalytic converters in conjunction with unleaded gasoline and low sulfur levels significantly reduce hydrocarbon and nitrogen oxide emissions.
- Fuel standards reduce exposure to pollutants like lead and benzene. Renewable fuels reduce CO_2 emissions.
- Engine technologies like computer controls, variable valve timing, multi-valve engines, turbo charging and gasoline direct injection improve fuel economy and reduce CO_2 emissions.
- Transmission technologies like 7+ speeds, dual clutch transmissions, (DCTs), and continuously variable transmissions (CVTs) improve fuel economy and reduce CO_2 emissions.
- Diesel filters reduce particulate matter from on road and off road diesel engines. Alternative vehicle technologies like plug-in electric vehicles and fuel cells equals zero tailpipe emissions.
- Better transportation planning for passengers and freight reduce emissions and fuel use.

Summary

- Gases that trap heat in the atmosphere are called greenhouse gases.
- The greenhouse effect is the process by which radiation from a planet's atmosphere warms the planet's surface to a temperature above what it would be without this atmosphere.
- Global warming refers to the increase in the average temperature of the Earth’s atmosphere due to elevated greenhouse gas concentrations, heightening the greenhouse effect.
- Climate change includes both global warming driven by human-induced emissions of greenhouse gasesand the resulting large-scale shifts in weather patterns.
- Greenhouse gases differ in their ability to produce the greenhouse effect as measured by the global warming potential, or GWP. A molecule of CH_4 is about 28 times more effective than one of CO_2 at absorbing infrared radiation, while N_2O is 298 times more effective . The synthetic fluorinated gases are evn much higher (in the thousands). This is largely due to their very long residence time in the atmosphere.
- Different technologies and approaches recommended by the US EPA to to reduce human greenhouse emmissions were provided.

Contributors and Attributions

- Marisa Alviar-Agnew (Sacramento City College)

- Libretext: Introduction to Environmental Science (Zendher et al.)
- US EPA
- Wikipedia

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4.2: Writing and Balancing Chemical Equations

Learning Objectives

- To describe a chemical reaction.
- To calculate the quantities of compounds produced or consumed in a chemical reaction

What happens to matter when it undergoes chemical changes? The Law of conservation of mass says that "***Atoms are neither created, nor destroyed, during any chemical reaction***." Thus, the same collection of atoms is present after a reaction as before the reaction. The changes that occur during a reaction just involve the *rearrangement* of atoms. In this section we will discuss ***stoichiometry*** (the "measurement of elements").

Chemical Equations

As shown in Figure 4.2.1, applying a small amount of heat to a pile of orange ammonium dichromate powder results in a vigorous reaction known as the ammonium dichromate volcano. Heat, light, and gas are produced as a large pile of fluffy green chromium(III) oxide forms. This reaction is described with a chemical equation, an expression that gives the identities and quantities of the substances in a chemical reaction.



Figure 4.2.1: An Ammonium Dichromate Volcano: Change during a Chemical Reaction. The starting material is solid ammonium dichromate. A chemical reaction transforms it to solid chromium(III) oxide, depicted showing a portion of its chained structure, nitrogen gas, and water vapor (in addition, energy in the form of heat and light is released). During the reaction, the distribution of atoms changes, but the number of atoms of each element does not change. Because the numbers of each type of atom are the same in the reactants and the products, the chemical equation is balanced. (CC BY-SA 3.0; Mikk Mihkel Vaabel via Wikipedia). See video here: www.youtube.com/watch?v=CW4hN0dYnkM

Chemical reactions are represented on paper by ***chemical equations***. For example, hydrogen gas (H_2) can react (burn) with oxygen gas (O_2) to form water (H_2O). The *chemical equation* for this *reaction* is written as:

$$2\,H_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2\,H_2O$$

Chemical formulas and other symbols are used to indicate the starting materials, or reactants, which by convention are written on the left side of the equation, and the final compounds, or products, which are written on the right. An arrow points from the reactant to the products. The chemical reaction for the ammonium dichromate volcano in Figure 4.2.1 is

$$\underbrace{(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7}_{reactant} \rightarrow \underbrace{Cr_2O_3 + N_2 + 4\,H_2O}_{products} \tag{4.2.1}$$

The arrow is read as “yields” or “reacts to form.” Equation 4.2.1 indicates that ammonium dichromate (the reactant) yields chromium(III) oxide, nitrogen, and water (the products). The equation for this reaction is even more informative when written as follows:

$$(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7(s) \rightarrow Cr_2O_3(s) + N_2(g) + 4\,H_2O(g) \tag{4.2.2}$$

Equation 4.2.2 is identical to Equation 4.2.1 except for the addition of abbreviations in parentheses to indicate the physical state of each species. The abbreviations are (s) for solid, (l) for liquid, (g) for gas, and (aq) for an aqueous solution, a solution of the substance in water.

Consistent with the law of conservation of mass, the numbers of each type of atom are the same on both sides of Equations 4.2.1 and 4.2.2. Each side of the reaction has two chromium atoms, seven oxygen atoms, two nitrogen atoms, and eight hydrogen atoms.

In a balanced chemical equation, both the numbers of each type of atom and the total charge are the same on both sides. Equations 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 are balanced chemical equations. What is different on each side of the equation is how the atoms are arranged to make molecules or ions. A chemical reaction represents a change in the distribution of atoms, but not in the number of atoms. In this reaction, and in most chemical reactions, bonds are broken in the reactants (here, Cr–O and N–H bonds), and new bonds are formed to create the products (here, O–H and N≡N bonds). If the numbers of each type of atom are different on the two sides of a chemical equation, then the equation is unbalanced, and it cannot correctly describe what happens during the reaction. To proceed, the equation must first be balanced.

A chemical reaction changes only the distribution of atoms, not the number of atoms.



Introduction to Chemical Reaction Equations: Introduction to Chemical Reaction Equations, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Balancing Simple Chemical Equations

When a chemist encounters a new reaction, it does not usually come with a label that shows the balanced chemical equation. Instead, the chemist must identify the reactants and products and then write them in the form of a chemical equation that may or may not be balanced as first written. Consider, for example, the combustion of n-heptane (C_7H_{16}), an important component of gasoline:

$$\mathrm{C_7H_{16}(l) + O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g) + H_2O(g)} \tag{4.2.3}$$

The complete combustion of any hydrocarbon with sufficient oxygen always yields carbon dioxide and water.



Figure 4.2.2: An Example of a Combustion Reaction. The wax in a candle is a high-molecular-mass hydrocarbon, which produces gaseous carbon dioxide and water vapor in a combustion reaction (Equation 4.2.3).

Equation 4.2.3 is not balanced: the numbers of each type of atom on the reactant side of the equation (7 carbon atoms, 16 hydrogen atoms, and 2 oxygen atoms) is not the same as the numbers of each type of atom on the product side (1 carbon atom, 2 hydrogen atoms, and 3 oxygen atoms). Consequently, the coefficients of the reactants and products must be adjusted to give the same numbers of atoms of each type on both sides of the equation. Because the identities of the reactants and products are fixed, the equation cannot be balanced by changing the subscripts of the reactants or the products. To do so would change the chemical identity of the species being described, as illustrated in Figure 4.2.3.

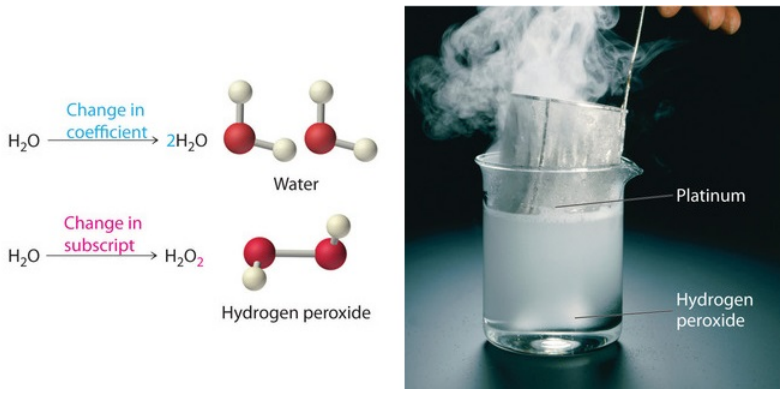


Figure 4.2.3: Balancing Equations. You cannot change subscripts in a chemical formula to balance a chemical equation; you can change only the coefficients. Changing subscripts changes the ratios of atoms in the molecule and the resulting chemical properties. For example, water (H_2O) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) are chemically distinct substances. H_2O_2 decomposes to H_2O and O_2 gas when it comes in contact with the metal platinum, whereas no such reaction occurs between water and platinum.

Left: Example of changing coefficients or subscripts. Right: Platinum dissolving in hydrogen peroxide.



Balancing Combustion Reactions: Balancing Combustions Reactions, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

The simplest and most generally useful method for balancing chemical equations is “inspection,” better known as trial and error. The following is an efficient approach to balancing a chemical equation using this method.

Steps in Balancing a Chemical Equation

1. Identify the most complex substance.
2. Beginning with that substance, choose an element that appears in only one reactant and one product, if possible. Adjust the coefficients to obtain the same number of atoms of this element on both sides.
3. Balance polyatomic ions (if present) as a unit.
4. Balance the remaining atoms, usually ending with the least complex substance and using fractional coefficients if necessary. If a fractional coefficient has been used, multiply both sides of the equation by the denominator to obtain whole numbers for the coefficients.
5. Check your work by counting the numbers of atoms of each kind on both sides of the equation to be sure that the chemical equation is balanced.

Example 4.2.1A: Combustion of Heptane

To demonstrate this approach, let’s use the combustion of n-heptane (Equation 4.2.3) as an example.

1. **Identify the most complex substance**. The most complex substance is the one with the largest number of different atoms, which is C_7H_{16}. We will assume initially that the final balanced chemical equation contains 1 molecule or formula unit of this substance.

2. **Adjust the coefficients**. Try to adjust the coefficients of the molecules on the other side of the equation to obtain the same numbers of atoms on both sides. Because one molecule of n-heptane contains 7 carbon atoms, we need 7 CO_2 molecules, each of which contains 1 carbon atom, on the right side:

$$C_7H_{16} + O_2 \rightarrow 7\,CO_2 + H_2O \tag{4.2.4}$$

3. **Balance polyatomic ions as a unit**. There are no polyatomic ions to be considered in this reaction.
4. **Balance the remaining atoms**. Because one molecule of n-heptane contains 16 hydrogen atoms, we need 8 H2O molecules, each of which contains 2 hydrogen atoms, on the right side:

$$C_7H_{16} + O_2 \rightarrow 7\,CO_2 + 8\,H_2O \tag{4.2.5}$$

The carbon and hydrogen atoms are now balanced, but we have 22 oxygen atoms on the right side and only 2 oxygen atoms on the left. We can balance the oxygen atoms by adjusting the coefficient in front of the least complex substance, O_2, on the reactant side:

$$C_7H_{16}(l) + 11\,O_2(g) \rightarrow 7\,CO_2(g) + 8\,H_2O(g) \tag{4.2.6}$$

5. **Check your work**. The equation is now balanced, and there are no fractional coefficients: there are 7 carbon atoms, 16 hydrogen atoms, and 22 oxygen atoms on each side. Always check to be sure that a chemical equation is balanced.The assumption that the final balanced chemical equation contains only one molecule or formula unit of the most complex substance is not always valid, but it is a good place to start.

Example 4.2.1B: Combustion of Isooctane

Consider, for example, a similar reaction, the combustion of isooctane (C_8H_{18}). Because the combustion of any hydrocarbon with oxygen produces carbon dioxide and water, the unbalanced chemical equation is as follows:

$$C_8H_{18}(l) + O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g) + H_2O(g) \tag{4.2.7}$$

1. **Identify the most complex substance**. Begin the balancing process by assuming that the final balanced chemical equation contains a single molecule of isooctane.
2. **Adjust the coefficients**. The first element that appears only once in the reactants is carbon: 8 carbon atoms in isooctane means that there must be 8 CO_2 molecules in the products:

$$C_8H_{18} + O_2 \rightarrow 8\,CO_2 + H_2O \tag{4.2.8}$$

3. **Balance polyatomic ions as a unit**. This step does not apply to this equation.
4. **Balance the remaining atoms**. Eighteen hydrogen atoms in isooctane means that there must be 9 H_2O molecules in the products:

$$C_8H_{18} + O_2 \rightarrow 8\,CO_2 + 9\,H_2O \tag{4.2.9}$$

The carbon and hydrogen atoms are now balanced, but we have 25 oxygen atoms on the right side and only 2 oxygen atoms on the left. We can balance the least complex substance, O_2, but because there are 2 oxygen atoms per O_2 molecule, we must use a fractional coefficient (25/2) to balance the oxygen atoms:

$$C_8H_{18} + \tfrac{25}{2}O_2 \rightarrow 8\,CO_2 + 9\,H_2O \tag{4.2.10}$$

Equation 4.2.10is now balanced, but we usually write equations with whole-number coefficients. We can eliminate the fractional coefficient by multiplying all coefficients on both sides of the chemical equation by 2:

$$2\,C_8H_{18}(l) + 25\,O_2(g) \rightarrow 16\,CO_2(g) + 18\,H_2O(g) \tag{4.2.11}$$

5. **Check your work**. The balanced chemical equation has 16 carbon atoms, 36 hydrogen atoms, and 50 oxygen atoms on each side.



Balancing Complex Chemical Equations: Balancing Complex Chemical Equations, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Balancing equations requires some practice on your part as well as some common sense. If you find yourself using very large coefficients or if you have spent several minutes without success, go back and make sure that you have written the formulas of the reactants and products correctly.

Example 4.2.1C: Hydroxyapatite

The reaction of the mineral hydroxyapatite ($\mathrm{Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH)}$) with phosphoric acid and water gives $\mathrm{Ca(H_2PO_4)_2 \bullet H_2O}$ (calcium dihydrogen phosphate monohydrate). Write and balance the equation for this reaction.



Hydroxyapatite ($(Ca5(PO4)3(OH)$) crystal

Given: reactants and product

Asked for: balanced chemical equation

Strategy:

A. Identify the product and the reactants and then write the unbalanced chemical equation.
B. Follow the steps for balancing a chemical equation.

Solution:

A We must first identify the product and reactants and write an equation for the reaction. The formulas for hydroxyapatite and calcium dihydrogen phosphate monohydrate are given in the problem (recall that phosphoric acid is H_3PO_4). The initial (unbalanced) equation is as follows:

$$\mathrm{Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH)(s) + H_3PO_4(aq) + H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow Ca(H_2PO_4)_2 \cdot H_2O_{(s)}}$$

1. **B Identify the most complex substance**. We start by assuming that only one molecule or formula unit of the most complex substance, $\mathrm{Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH)}$, appears in the balanced chemical equation.

2. **Adjust the coefficients**. Because calcium is present in only one reactant and one product, we begin with it. One formula unit of $\mathrm{Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH)}$ contains 5 calcium atoms, so we need 5 $Ca(H_2PO_4)_2$•H_2O on the right side:

$$\mathrm{Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH) + H_3PO_4 + H_2O \rightarrow 5\,Ca(H_2PO_4)_2 \cdot H_2O}$$

3. **Balance polyatomic ions as a unit**. It is usually easier to balance an equation if we recognize that certain combinations of atoms occur on both sides. In this equation, the polyatomic phosphate ion (PO_4^{3-}), shows up in three places. In H_3PO_4, the phosphate ion is combined with three H^+ ions to make phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4), whereas in $Ca(H_2PO_4)_2 \cdot H_2O$ it is combined with two H^+ ions to give the dihydrogen phosphate ion. Thus it is easier to balance PO_4 as a unit rather than counting individual phosphorus and oxygen atoms. There are 10 PO_4 units on the right side but only 4 on the left. The simplest way to balance the PO_4 units is to place a coefficient of 7 in front of H_3PO_4:

$$\mathrm{Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH) + 7\,H_3PO_4 + H_2O \rightarrow 5\,Ca(H_2PO_4)_2 \cdot H_2O}$$

Although OH^- is also a polyatomic ion, it does not appear on both sides of the equation. So oxygen and hydrogen must be balanced separately.

4. **Balance the remaining atoms**. We now have 30 hydrogen atoms on the right side but only 24 on the left. We can balance the hydrogen atoms using the least complex substance, H_2O, by placing a coefficient of 4 in front of H_2O on the left side, giving a total of 4 H_2O molecules:

$$\mathrm{Ca_5(PO_4)_3(OH)(s) + 7\,H_3PO_4(aq) + 4\,H_2O(l) \rightarrow 5\,Ca(H_2PO_4)_2 \cdot H_2O(s)}$$

The equation is now balanced. Even though we have not explicitly balanced the oxygen atoms, there are 41 oxygen atoms on each side.

5. **Check your work**. Both sides of the equation contain 5 calcium atoms, 10 phosphorus atoms, 30 hydrogen atoms, and 41 oxygen atoms.

? Exercise 4.2.1: Fermentation

Fermentation is a biochemical process that enables yeast cells to live in the absence of oxygen. Humans have exploited it for centuries to produce wine and beer and make bread rise. In fermentation, sugars such as glucose are converted to ethanol (CH_3CH_2OH and carbon dioxide CO_2. Write a balanced chemical reaction for the fermentation of glucose.



Commercial use of fermentation. *(a) Microbrewery vats are used to prepare beer. (b) The fermentation of glucose by yeast cells is the reaction that makes beer production possible.*

Answer

$$C_6H_{12}O_6(s) \rightarrow 2C_2H_5OH(l) + 2CO_2(g)$$



Balancing Reactions Which Contain Polyatomics: Balancing Reactions Which Contain Polyatomics, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Interpreting Chemical Equations

In addition to providing qualitative information about the identities and physical states of the reactants and products, a balanced chemical equation provides quantitative information. Specifically, it gives the relative amounts of reactants and products consumed or produced in a reaction. The number of atoms, molecules, or formula units of a reactant or a product in a balanced chemical equation is the coefficient of that species (e.g., the 4 preceding H_2O in Equation 4.2.1). When no coefficient is written in front of a species, the coefficient is assumed to be 1. As illustrated in Figure 4.2.4, the coefficients allow Equation 4.2.1 to be interpreted in any of the following ways:

- Two NH_4^+ ions and one $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ion yield 1 formula unit of Cr_2O_3, 1 N_2 molecule, and 4 H_2O molecules.
- One mole of $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$ yields 1 mol of Cr_2O_3, 1 mol of N_2, and 4 mol of H_2O.
- A mass of 252 g of $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$ yields 152 g of Cr_2O_3, 28 g of N_2, and 72 g of H_2O.
- A total of 6.022×10^{23} formula units of $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$ yields 6.022×10^{23} formula units of Cr_2O_3, 6.022×10^{23} molecules of N_2, and 24.09×10^{23} molecules of H_2O.

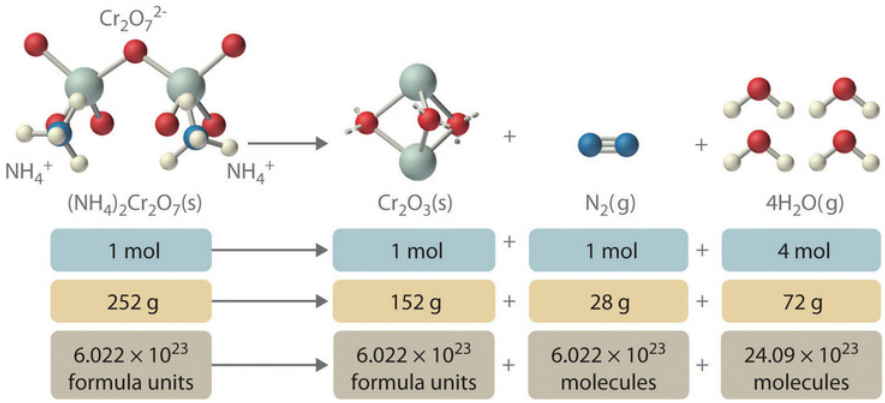


Figure 4.2.4: The Relationships among Moles, Masses, and Formula Units of Compounds in the Balanced Chemical Reaction for the Ammonium Dichromate Volcano

Chemical equation: (N H 4) 2 C r 2 O 7 dissociates into C r 2 O 3, N 2, and H 2 O. Conversions are given between moles, mass, and molecules.

These are all chemically equivalent ways of stating the information given in the balanced chemical equation, using the concepts of the mole, molar or formula mass, and Avogadro's number. The ratio of the number of moles of one substance to the number of moles of another is called the mole ratio. For example, the mole ratio of H_2O to N_2 in Equation 4.2.1 is 4:1. The total mass of reactants equals the total mass of products, as predicted by Dalton's law of conservation of mass:

$$252\ g \text{ of } (\mathrm{NH_4})_2\mathrm{Cr_2O_7}$$

yield

$$152 + 28 + 72 = 252\ g \text{ of products.}$$

The chemical equation does not, however, show the rate of the reaction (rapidly, slowly, or not at all) or whether energy in the form of heat or light is given off. These issues are considered in more detail in later chapters.

An important chemical reaction was analyzed by Antoine Lavoisier, an 18th-century French chemist, who was interested in the chemistry of living organisms as well as simple chemical systems. In a classic series of experiments, he measured the carbon dioxide and heat produced by a guinea pig during respiration, in which organic compounds are used as fuel to produce energy, carbon dioxide, and water. Lavoisier found that the ratio of heat produced to carbon dioxide exhaled was similar to the ratio observed for the reaction of charcoal with oxygen in the air to produce carbon dioxide—a process chemists call combustion. Based on these experiments, he proposed that "Respiration is a combustion, slow it is true, but otherwise perfectly similar to that of charcoal." Lavoisier was correct, although the organic compounds consumed in respiration are substantially different from those found in charcoal. One of the most important fuels in the human body is glucose ($C_6H_{12}O_6$), which is virtually the only fuel used in the brain. Thus combustion and respiration are examples of chemical reactions.

Example 4.2.2: Combustion of Glucose

The balanced chemical equation for the combustion of glucose in the laboratory (or in the brain) is as follows:

$$\mathrm{C_6H_{12}O_6(s) + 6\ O_2(g) \rightarrow 6\ CO_2(g) + 6\ H_2O(l)}$$

Construct a table showing how to interpret the information in this equation in terms of

a. a single molecule of glucose.
b. moles of reactants and products.
c. grams of reactants and products represented by 1 mol of glucose.
d. numbers of molecules of reactants and products represented by 1 mol of glucose.



The combustion of a sugar cube consisting of sucrose with a similar reaction to the combustion of glucose. from Wikipedia.

Given: balanced chemical equation

Asked for: molecule, mole, and mass relationships

Strategy:

A. Use the coefficients from the balanced chemical equation to determine both the molecular and mole ratios.
B. Use the molar masses of the reactants and products to convert from moles to grams.
C. Use Avogadro's number to convert from moles to the number of molecules.

Solution:

This equation is balanced as written: each side has 6 carbon atoms, 18 oxygen atoms, and 12 hydrogen atoms. We can therefore use the coefficients directly to obtain the desired information.

a. One molecule of glucose reacts with 6 molecules of O_2 to yield 6 molecules of CO_2 and 6 molecules of H_2O.
b. One mole of glucose reacts with 6 mol of O_2 to yield 6 mol of CO_2 and 6 mol of H_2O.
c. To interpret the equation in terms of masses of reactants and products, we need their molar masses and the mole ratios from part b. The molar masses in grams per mole are as follows: glucose, 180.16; O_2, 31.9988; CO_2, 44.010; and H_2O, 18.015.

$$\text{mass of reactants} = \text{mass of products}$$

$$g\,glucose + g\,O_2 = g\,CO_2 + g\,H_2O$$

$$1\,mol\,glucose\left(\frac{180.16\,g}{1\,mol\,glucose}\right) + 6\,mol\,O_2\left(\frac{31.9988\,g}{1\,mol\,O_2}\right)$$

$$= 6\,mol\,CO_2\left(\frac{44.010\,g}{1\,mol\,CO_2}\right) + 6\,mol\,H_2O\left(\frac{18.015\,g}{1\,mol\,H_2O}\right)$$

$$372.15\,g = 372.15\,g$$

C One mole of glucose contains Avogadro's number (6.022×10^{23}) of glucose molecules. Thus 6.022×10^{23} glucose molecules react with ($6 \times 6.022 \times 10^{23}$) = 3.613×10^{24} oxygen molecules to yield ($6 \times 6.022 \times 10^{23}$) = 3.613×10^{24} molecules each of CO_2 and H_2O.

In tabular form:

Solution to Example 3.1.2

	$C_6H_{12}O_{6\ (s)}$	+	$6O_{2\ (g)}$	→	$6CO_{2\ (g)}$		$6H_2O_{(l)}$
a.	1 molecule		6 molecules		6 molecules		6 molecules
b.	1 mol		6 mol		6 mol		6 mol
c.	180.16 g		191.9928 g		264.06 g		108.09 g
d.	6.022×10^{23} molecules		3.613×10^{24} molecules		3.613×10^{24} molecules		3.613×10^{24} molecule

? Exercise 4.2.2: Ammonium Nitrate Explosion

Ammonium nitrate is a common fertilizer, but under the wrong conditions it can be hazardous. In 1947, a ship loaded with ammonium nitrate caught fire during unloading and exploded, destroying the town of Texas City, Texas.



Ammonium nitrate can be hazardous. This aerial photograph of Texas City, Texas, shows the devastation caused by the explosion of a shipload of ammonium nitrate on April 16, 1947. For a video click here.

The explosion resulted from the following reaction:

$$2NH_4NO_{3\ (s)} \rightarrow 2N_{2\ (g)} + 4H_2O_{(g)} + O_{2\ (g)}$$

Construct a table showing how to interpret the information in the equation in terms of

a. individual molecules and ions.
b. moles of reactants and products.
c. grams of reactants and products given 2 mol of ammonium nitrate.
d. numbers of molecules or formula units of reactants and products given 2 mol of ammonium nitrate.

Answer:

Answer to Exercise 3.1.2

	$2NH_4NO_{3\ (s)}$	→	$2N_{2\ (g)}$	+	$4H_2O_{(g)}$	+	$O_{2\ (g)}$
a.	$2NH_4^+$ ions and $2NO_3^-$ ions		2 molecules		4 molecules		1 molecule
b.	2 mol		2 mol		4 mol		1 mol
c.	160.0864 g		56.0268 g		72.0608 g		31.9988 g
d.	1.204×10^{24} formula units		1.204×10^{24} molecules		2.409×10^{24} molecules		6.022×10^{23} molecules



Finding Mols and Masses of Reactants and Products Using Stoichiometric Factors (Mol Ratios): Finding Mols and Masses of Reactants and Products Using Stoichiometric Factors, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Summary

A chemical reaction is described by a chemical equation that gives the identities and quantities of the reactants and the products. In a chemical reaction, one or more substances are transformed to new substances. A chemical reaction is described by a **chemical equation**, an expression that gives the identities and quantities of the substances involved in a reaction. A chemical equation shows the starting compound(s)—the **reactants**—on the left and the final compound(s)—the **products**—on the right, separated by an arrow. In a balanced chemical equation, the numbers of atoms of each element and the total charge are the same on both sides of the equation. The number of atoms, molecules, or formula units of a reactant or product in a balanced chemical equation is the **coefficient** of that species. The **mole ratio** of two substances in a chemical reaction is the ratio of their coefficients in the balanced chemical equation.

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4.3: Limiting Reactant, Theoretical Yield, and Percent Yield

Learning Objectives

- To understand the concept of limiting reactants and quantify incomplete reactions

In all the examples discussed thus far, the reactants were assumed to be present in stoichiometric quantities. Consequently, none of the reactants was left over at the end of the reaction. This is often desirable, as in the case of a space shuttle, where excess oxygen or hydrogen was not only extra freight to be hauled into orbit but also an explosion hazard. More often, however, reactants are present in mole ratios that are not the same as the ratio of the coefficients in the balanced chemical equation. As a result, one or more of them will not be used up completely but will be left over when the reaction is completed. In this situation, the amount of product that can be obtained is limited by the amount of only one of the reactants. The reactant that restricts the amount of product obtained is called the limiting reactant. The reactant that remains after a reaction has gone to completion is in excess.

Consider a nonchemical example. Assume you have invited some friends for dinner and want to bake brownies for dessert. You find two boxes of brownie mix in your pantry and see that each package requires two eggs. The balanced equation for brownie preparation is thus

$$1\ \text{box mix} + 2\ \text{eggs} \rightarrow 1\ \text{batch brownies} \tag{4.3.1}$$

If you have a dozen eggs, which ingredient will determine the number of batches of brownies that you can prepare? Because each box of brownie mix requires two eggs and you have two boxes, you need four eggs. Twelve eggs is eight more eggs than you need. Although the ratio of eggs to boxes in is 2:1, the ratio in your possession is 6:1. Hence the eggs are the ingredient (reactant) present in excess, and the brownie mix is the limiting reactant. Even if you had a refrigerator full of eggs, you could make only two batches of brownies.

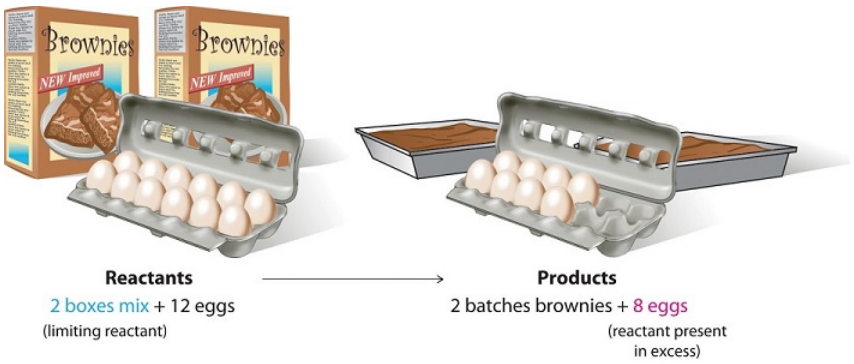


Figure 4.3.1: The Concept of a Limiting Reactant in the Preparation of Brownies

Reactants: 2 boxes of brownie mix + 12 eggs produces 2 batches of brownies + 8 eggs. Brownie mix is the limiting reactant. Eggs are the reactant present in excess.



Introduction to Limiting Reactant Problems: Introduction to Limiting Reactant Problems, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Now consider a chemical example of a limiting reactant: the production of pure titanium. This metal is fairly light (45% lighter than steel and only 60% heavier than aluminum) and has great mechanical strength (as strong as steel and twice as strong as aluminum). Because it is also highly resistant to corrosion and can withstand extreme temperatures, titanium has many applications in the aerospace industry. Titanium is also used in medical implants and portable computer housings because it is light and resistant to corrosion. Although titanium is the ninth most common element in Earth's crust, it is relatively difficult to extract from its ores. In the first step of the extraction process, titanium-containing oxide minerals react with solid carbon and chlorine gas to form titanium tetrachloride ($\mathrm{TiCl_4}$) and carbon dioxide.

$$\mathrm{TiO_2(s) + Cl_2(g) \rightarrow TiCl_4(g) + CO_2(g)}$$

Titanium tetrachloride is then converted to metallic titanium by reaction with molten magnesium metal at high temperature:

$$\mathrm{TiCl_4(g) + 2\ Mg(l) \rightarrow Ti(s) + 2\ MgCl_2(l)} \tag{4.3.2}$$

Because titanium ores, carbon, and chlorine are all rather inexpensive, the high price of titanium (about $100 per kilogram) is largely due to the high cost of magnesium metal. Under these circumstances, magnesium metal is the limiting reactant in the production of metallic titanium.



Figure 4.3.2: Medical use of titanium. Here is an example of its successful use in joint replacement implants. An A-P X-ray of a pelvis showing a total hip joint replacement. The right hip joint (on the left in the photograph) has been replaced. A metal prostheses is cemented in the top of the right femur and the head of the femur has been replaced by the rounded head of the prosthesis. Figure courtesy of NIH (NIADDK) 9AO4 (Connie Raab)

With 1.00 kg of titanium tetrachloride and 200 g of magnesium metal, how much titanium metal can be produced according to Equation 4.3.2?

Solving this type of problem requires that you carry out the following steps

1. Determine the number of moles of each reactant.
2. Compare the mole ratio of the reactants with the ratio in the balanced chemical equation to determine which reactant is limiting.
3. Calculate the number of moles of product that can be obtained from the limiting reactant.
4. Convert the number of moles of product to mass of product.

Step 1: To determine the number of moles of reactants present, calculate or look up their molar masses: 189.679 g/mol for titanium tetrachloride and 24.305 g/mol for magnesium. The number of moles of each is calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{moles } \mathrm{TiCl_4} &= \frac{\text{mass } \mathrm{TiCl_4}}{\text{molar mass } \mathrm{TiCl_4}} \\ &= 1000 \ \cancel{g} \ \mathrm{TiCl_4} \times \frac{1 \, mol \ TiCl_4}{189.679 \ \cancel{g} \ \mathrm{TiCl_4}} \\ &= 5.272 \, mol \ \mathrm{TiCl_4} \end{aligned} \tag{4.3.3}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{moles Mg} &= \frac{\text{mass Mg}}{\text{molar mass Mg}} \\ &= 200 \ \cancel{g} \ \mathrm{Mg} \times \frac{1 \, mol \, \mathrm{Mg}}{24.305 \ \cancel{g} \ \mathrm{Mg}} \\ &= 8.23 \, \mathrm{mol \ Mg} \end{aligned} \tag{4.3.4}$$

Step 2: There are more moles of magnesium than of titanium tetrachloride, but the ratio is only the following:

$$\frac{mol \, \mathrm{Mg}}{mol \, \mathrm{TiCl_4}} = \frac{8.23 \, mol}{5.272 \, mol} = 1.56$$

Because the ratio of the coefficients in the balanced chemical equation is,

$$\frac{2 \, mol \, \mathrm{Mg}}{1 \, mol \, \mathrm{TiCl_4}} = 2$$

there is not have enough magnesium to react with all the titanium tetrachloride. If this point is not clear from the mole ratio, calculate the number of moles of one reactant that is required for complete reaction of the other reactant. For example, there are 8.23 mol of Mg, so (8.23 ÷ 2) = 4.12 mol of $\mathrm{TiCl_4}$ are required for complete reaction. Because there are 5.272 mol of $\mathrm{TiCl_4}$, titanium tetrachloride is present in excess. Conversely, 5.272 mol of $\mathrm{TiCl_4}$ requires 2 × 5.272 = 10.54 mol of Mg, but there are only 8.23 mol. Therefore, magnesium is the limiting reactant.

Step 3: Because magnesium is the limiting reactant, the number of moles of magnesium determines the number of moles of titanium that can be formed:

$$mol \ \mathrm{Ti} = 8.23 \, mol \ \mathrm{Mg} = \frac{1 \, mol \ \mathrm{Ti}}{2 \, mol \ \mathrm{Mg}} = 4.12 \, mol \ \mathrm{Ti}$$

Thus only 4.12 mol of Ti can be formed.

Step 4. To calculate the mass of titanium metal that can obtain, multiply the number of moles of titanium by the molar mass of titanium (47.867 g/mol):

$$\begin{aligned}\text{moles Ti} &= \text{mass Ti} \times \text{molar mass Ti} \\ &= 4.12 \, mol \ \mathrm{Ti} \times \frac{47.867 \, g \ \mathrm{Ti}}{1 \, mol \ \mathrm{Ti}} \\ &= 197 \, g \ \mathrm{Ti} \end{aligned}$$

Here is a simple and reliable way to identify the limiting reactant in any problem of this sort:

1. Calculate the number of moles of each reactant present: 5.272 mol of $\mathrm{TiCl_4}$ and 8.23 mol of Mg.
2. Divide the actual number of moles of each reactant by its stoichiometric coefficient in the balanced chemical equation:

$$TiCl_4 : \frac{5.272 \, mol \, (actual)}{1 \, mol \, (stoich)} = 5.272$$

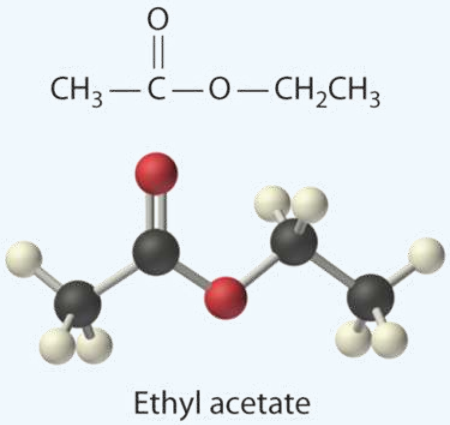
$$Mg : \frac{8.23 \, mol \, (actual)}{2 \, mol \, (stoich)} = 4.12$$

3. The reactant with the smallest mole ratio is limiting. Magnesium, with a calculated stoichiometric mole ratio of 4.12, is the limiting reactant.

Density is the mass per unit volume of a substance. If we are given the density of a substance, we can use it in stoichiometric calculations involving liquid reactants and/or products, as Example 4.3.1 demonstrates.

Example 4.3.1: Fingernail Polish Remover

Ethyl acetate ($CH_3CO_2C_2H_5$) is the solvent in many fingernail polish removers and is used to decaffeinate coffee beans and tea leaves. It is prepared by reacting ethanol (C_2H_5OH) with acetic acid (CH_3CO_2H); the other product is water. A small amount of sulfuric acid is used to accelerate the reaction, but the sulfuric acid is not consumed and does not appear in the balanced chemical equation. Given 10.0 mL each of acetic acid and ethanol, how many grams of ethyl acetate can be prepared from this reaction? The densities of acetic acid and ethanol are 1.0492 g/mL and 0.7893 g/mL, respectively.



Given: reactants, products, and volumes and densities of reactants

Asked for: mass of product

Strategy:

A. Balance the chemical equation for the reaction.
B. Use the given densities to convert from volume to mass. Then use each molar mass to convert from mass to moles.
C. Using mole ratios, determine which substance is the limiting reactant. After identifying the limiting reactant, use mole ratios based on the number of moles of limiting reactant to determine the number of moles of product.
D. Convert from moles of product to mass of product.

Solution:

A Always begin by writing the balanced chemical equation for the reaction:

$$C_2H_5OH(l) + CH_3CO_2H(aq) \rightarrow CH_3CO_2C_2H_5(aq) + H_2O(l)$$

B We need to calculate the number of moles of ethanol and acetic acid that are present in 10.0 mL of each. Recall that the density of a substance is the mass divided by the volume:

$$\text{density} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}}$$

Rearranging this expression gives mass = (density)(volume). We can replace mass by the product of the density and the volume to calculate the number of moles of each substance in 10.0 mL (remember, 1 mL = 1 cm^3):

$$\text{moles } C_2H_5OH = \frac{\text{mass } C_2H_5OH}{\text{molar mass } C_2H_5OH}$$

$$= \frac{(\text{volume } C_2H_5OH) \times (\text{density } C_2H_5OH)}{\text{molar mass } C_2H_5OH}$$

$$= 10.0 \cancel{ml}\ C_2H_5OH \times \frac{0.7893 \cancel{g}\ C_2H_5OH}{1 \cancel{ml}\ C_2H_5OH} \times \frac{1\,mol\ C_2H_5OH}{46.07 \cancel{g}\ C_2H_5OH}$$

$$= 0.171\,mol\ C_2H_5OH$$

$$\text{moles } CH_3CO_2H = \frac{\text{mass } CH_3CO_2H}{\text{molar mass } CH_3CO_2H}$$

$$= \frac{(\text{volume } CH_3CO_2H) \times (\text{density } CH_3CO_2H)}{\text{molar mass } CH_3CO_2H}$$

$$= 10.0 \cancel{ml}\ CH_3CO_2H \times \frac{1.0492 \cancel{g}\ CH_3CO_2H}{1 \cancel{ml}\ CH_3CO_2H} \times \frac{1\,mol\ CH_3CO_2H}{60.05 \cancel{g}\ CH_3CO_2H}$$

$$= 0.175\,mol\ CH_3CO_2H$$

C The number of moles of acetic acid exceeds the number of moles of ethanol. Because the reactants both have coefficients of 1 in the balanced chemical equation, the mole ratio is 1:1. We have 0.171 mol of ethanol and 0.175 mol of acetic acid, so ethanol is the limiting reactant and acetic acid is in excess. The coefficient in the balanced chemical equation for the product (ethyl acetate) is also 1, so the mole ratio of ethanol and ethyl acetate is also 1:1. This means that given 0.171 mol of ethanol, the amount of ethyl acetate produced must also be 0.171 mol:

$$moles \text{ ethyl acetate} = mol \text{ ethanol} \times \frac{1\,mol \text{ ethyl acetate}}{1\,mol \text{ ethanol}}$$

$$= 0.171\,mol\ C_2H_5OH \times \frac{1\,mol\ CH_3CO_2C_2H_5}{1\,mol\ C_2H_5OH}$$

$$= 0.171\,mol\ CH_3CO_2C_2H_5$$

D The final step is to determine the mass of ethyl acetate that can be formed, which we do by multiplying the number of moles by the molar mass:

$$\text{mass of ethyl acetate} = mol \text{ ethyl acetate} \times \text{molar mass ethyl acetate}$$

$$= 0.171\,mol\,CH_3CO_2C_2H_5 \times \frac{88.11\,g\,CH_3CO_2C_2H_5}{1\,mol\,CH_3CO_2C_2H_5}$$

$$= 15.1\,g\,CH_3CO_2C_2H_5$$

Thus 15.1 g of ethyl acetate can be prepared in this reaction. If necessary, you could use the density of ethyl acetate (0.9003 g/cm3) to determine the volume of ethyl acetate that could be produced:

$$\text{volume of ethyl acetate} = 15.1\,g\,CH_3CO_2C_2H_5 \times \frac{1\,ml\ CH_3CO_2C_2H_5}{0.9003\,g\ CH_3CO_2C_2H_5}$$

$$= 16.8\,ml\,CH_3CO_2C_2H_5$$

? Exercise 4.3.1

Under appropriate conditions, the reaction of elemental phosphorus and elemental sulfur produces the compound P_4S_{10}. How much P_4S_{10} can be prepared starting with 10.0 g of P_4 and 30.0 g of S_8?

Answer

35.9 g



Determining the Limiting Reactant and Theoretical Yield for a Reaction: Determining the Limiting Reactant and Theoretical Yield for a Reaction, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Limiting Reactants in Solutions

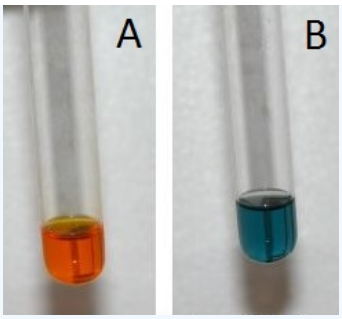
The concept of limiting reactants applies to reactions carried out in solution as well as to reactions involving pure substances. If all the reactants but one are present in excess, then the amount of the limiting reactant may be calculated as illustrated in Example 4.3.2.

Example 4.3.2: Breathalyzer reaction

Because the consumption of alcoholic beverages adversely affects the performance of tasks that require skill and judgment, in most countries it is illegal to drive while under the influence of alcohol. In almost all US states, a blood alcohol level of 0.08% by volume is considered legally drunk. Higher levels cause acute intoxication (0.20%), unconsciousness (about 0.30%), and even death (about 0.50%). The Breathalyzer is a portable device that measures the ethanol concentration in a person's breath, which is directly proportional to the blood alcohol level. The reaction used in the Breathalyzer is the oxidation of ethanol by the dichromate ion:

$$3\,CH_3CH_2OH(aq) + \underset{yellow-orange}{2\,Cr_2O_7^{2-}}(aq) + 16\,H^+(aq) \xrightarrow[H_2SO_4(aq)]{Ag^+} 3\,CH_3CO_2H(aq) + 4\,\underset{green}{Cr^{3+}}(aq) + 11\,H_2O(l)$$

When a measured volume (52.5 mL) of a suspect's breath is bubbled through a solution of excess potassium dichromate in dilute sulfuric acid, the ethanol is rapidly absorbed and oxidized to acetic acid by the dichromate ions. In the process, the chromium atoms in some of the $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ions are reduced from Cr^{6+} to Cr^{3+}. In the presence of Ag^+ ions that act as a catalyst, the reaction is complete in less than a minute. Because the $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ion (the reactant) is yellow-orange and the Cr^{3+} ion (the product) forms a green solution, the amount of ethanol in the person's breath (the limiting reactant) can be determined quite accurately by comparing the color of the final solution with the colors of standard solutions prepared with known amounts of ethanol.



A Breathalyzer reaction with a test tube before (a) and after (b) ethanol is added. When a measured volume of a suspect's breath is bubbled through the solution, the ethanol is oxidized to acetic acid, and the solution changes color from yellow-orange to green. The intensity of the green color indicates the amount of ethanol in the sample.

A typical Breathalyzer ampul contains 3.0 mL of a 0.25 mg/mL solution of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ in 50% H_2SO_4 as well as a fixed concentration of $AgNO_3$ (typically 0.25 mg/mL is used for this purpose). How many grams of ethanol must be present in 52.5 mL of a person's breath to convert all the Cr^{6+} to Cr^{3+}?

Given: volume and concentration of one reactant

Asked for: mass of other reactant needed for complete reaction

Strategy:

A. Calculate the number of moles of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ion in 1 mL of the Breathalyzer solution by dividing the mass of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ by its molar mass.

B. Find the total number of moles of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ion in the Breathalyzer ampul by multiplying the number of moles contained in 1 mL by the total volume of the Breathalyzer solution (3.0 mL).

C. Use the mole ratios from the balanced chemical equation to calculate the number of moles of C_2H_5OH needed to react completely with the number of moles of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ions present. Then find the mass of C_2H_5OH needed by multiplying the number of moles of C_2H_5OH by its molar mass.

Solution:

A In any stoichiometry problem, the first step is always to calculate the number of moles of each reactant present. In this case, we are given the mass of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ in 1 mL of solution, which can be used to calculate the number of moles of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ contained in 1 mL:

$$\frac{moles\ K_2Cr_2O_7}{1\ mL} = \frac{(0.25\ \cancel{mg}\ K_2Cr_2O_7)}{mL}\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{g}}{1000\ \cancel{mg}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ mol}{294.18\ \cancel{g}\ K_2Cr_2O_7}\right) = 8.5 \times 10^{-7}\ moles$$

B Because 1 mol of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ produces 1 mol of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ when it dissolves, each milliliter of solution contains 8.5×10^{-7} mol of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$. The total number of moles of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ in a 3.0 mL Breathalyzer ampul is thus

$$moles\ Cr_2O_7^{2-} = \left(\frac{8.5 \times 10^{-7}\ mol}{1\ \cancel{mL}}\right)(3.0\ \cancel{mL}) = 2.6 \times 10^{-6}\ mol\ Cr_2O_7^{2-}$$

C The balanced chemical equation tells us that 3 mol of C_2H_5OH is needed to consume 2 mol of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ion, so the total number of moles of C_2H_5OH required for complete reaction is

$$moles\ of\ C_2H_5OH = (2.6 \times 10^{-6}\ \cancel{mol\ Cr_2O_7^{2-}})\left(\frac{3\ mol\ C_2H_5OH}{2\ \cancel{mol\ Cr_2O_7^{2-}}}\right) = 3.9 \times 10^{-6}\ mol\ C_2H_5OH$$

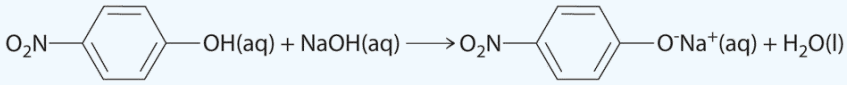
As indicated in the strategy, this number can be converted to the mass of C_2H_5OH using its molar mass:

$$mass\ C_2H_5OH = (3.9 \times 10^{-6}\ \cancel{mol\ C_2H_5OH})\left(\frac{46.07\ g}{\cancel{mol\ C_2H_5OH}}\right) = 1.8 \times 10^{-4}\ g\ C_2H_5OH$$

Thus 1.8×10^{-4} g or 0.18 mg of C_2H_5OH must be present. Experimentally, it is found that this value corresponds to a blood alcohol level of 0.7%, which is usually fatal.

Exercise 4.3.2

The compound *para*-nitrophenol (molar mass = 139 g/mol) reacts with sodium hydroxide in aqueous solution to generate a yellow anion via the reaction



***para*-Nitrophenol** **Yellow**

Chemical equation showing conversion of para-nitrophenol to its yellow-colored form with aqueous sodium hydroxide.

Because the amount of *para*-nitrophenol is easily estimated from the intensity of the yellow color that results when excess NaOH is added, reactions that produce *para*-nitrophenol are commonly used to measure the activity of enzymes, the catalysts in biological systems. What volume of 0.105 M NaOH must be added to 50.0 mL of a solution containing 7.20×10^{-4} g of *para*-nitrophenol to ensure that formation of the yellow anion is complete?

Answer

4.93×10^{-5} L or 49.3 µL

In Examples 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, the identities of the limiting reactants are apparent: $[Au(CN)_2]^-$, $LaCl_3$, ethanol, and *para*-nitrophenol. When the limiting reactant is not apparent, it can be determined by comparing the molar amounts of the reactants with their coefficients in the balanced chemical equation. The only difference is that the volumes and concentrations of solutions of reactants, rather than the masses of reactants, are used to calculate the number of moles of reactants, as illustrated in Example 4.3.3.

Example 4.3.3

When aqueous solutions of silver nitrate and potassium dichromate are mixed, an exchange reaction occurs, and silver dichromate is obtained as a red solid. The overall chemical equation for the reaction is as follows:

$$2\,AgNO_3(aq) + K_2Cr_2O_7(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + 2\,KNO_3(aq)$$

What mass of $Ag_2Cr_2O_7$ is formed when 500 mL of 0.17 M $K_2Cr_2O_7$ are mixed with 250 mL of 0.57 M $AgNO_3$?

Given: balanced chemical equation and volume and concentration of each reactant

Asked for: mass of product

Strategy:

A. Calculate the number of moles of each reactant by multiplying the volume of each solution by its molarity.

B. Determine which reactant is limiting by dividing the number of moles of each reactant by its stoichiometric coefficient in the balanced chemical equation.

C. Use mole ratios to calculate the number of moles of product that can be formed from the limiting reactant. Multiply the number of moles of the product by its molar mass to obtain the corresponding mass of product.

Solution:

A The balanced chemical equation tells us that 2 mol of $AgNO_3$(aq) reacts with 1 mol of $K_2Cr_2O_7$(aq) to form 1 mol of $Ag_2Cr_2O_7$(s) (Figure 8.3.2). The first step is to calculate the number of moles of each reactant in the specified volumes:

$$moles\ K_2Cr_2O_7 = 500\ \cancel{mL}\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{L}}{1000\ \cancel{mL}}\right)\left(\frac{0.17\ mol\ K_2Cr_2O_7}{1\ \cancel{L}}\right) = 0.085\ mol\ K_2Cr_2O_7$$

$$moles\ AgNO_3 = 250\ \cancel{mL}\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{L}}{1000\ \cancel{mL}}\right)\left(\frac{0.57\ mol\ AgNO_3}{1\ \cancel{L}}\right) = 0.14\ mol\ AgNO_3$$

B Now determine which reactant is limiting by dividing the number of moles of each reactant by its stoichiometric coefficient:

$$\mathrm{K_2Cr_2O_7}: \frac{0.085\ mol}{1\ mol} = 0.085$$

$$\mathrm{AgNO_3}: \frac{0.14\ mol}{2\ mol} = 0.070$$

Because 0.070 < 0.085, we know that $\mathrm{AgNO_3}$ is the *limiting reactant*.

C Each mole of $\mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7}$ formed requires 2 mol of the limiting reactant ($\mathrm{AgNO_3}$), so we can obtain only 0.14/2 = 0.070 mol of $\mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7}$. Finally, convert the number of moles of $\mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7}$ to the corresponding mass:

$$mass\ of\ Ag_2Cr_2O_7 = 0.070\ \cancel{mol}\left(\frac{431.72\ g}{1\ \cancel{mol}}\right) = 30\ g\ Ag_2Cr_2O_7$$

The Ag^+ and $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ions form a red precipitate of solid $\mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7}$, while the K^+ and NO_3^- ions remain in solution. (Water molecules are omitted from molecular views of the solutions for clarity.)

? Exercise 4.3.3

Aqueous solutions of sodium bicarbonate and sulfuric acid react to produce carbon dioxide according to the following equation:

$$\mathrm{2\,NaHCO_3(aq) + H_2SO_4(aq) \rightarrow 2\,CO_2(g) + Na_2SO_4(aq) + 2\,H_2O(l)}$$

If 13.0 mL of 3.0 M H_2SO_4 are added to 732 mL of 0.112 M $NaHCO_3$, what mass of CO_2 is produced?

Answer

3.4 g



Limiting Reactant Problems Using Molarities: Limiting Reactant Problems Using Molarities, YouTube(opens in new window)
[youtu.be]eOXTliL-gNw (opens in new window)

Theoretical Yields

When reactants are not present in stoichiometric quantities, the limiting reactant determines the maximum amount of product that can be formed from the reactants. The amount of product calculated in this way is the theoretical yield, the amount obtained if the reaction occurred perfectly and the purification method were 100% efficient.

In reality, less product is always obtained than is theoretically possible because of mechanical losses (such as spilling), separation procedures that are not 100% efficient, competing reactions that form undesired products, and reactions that simply do not run to completion, resulting in a mixture of products and reactants; this last possibility is a common occurrence. Therefore, the actual yield, the measured mass of products obtained from a reaction, is almost always less than the theoretical yield (often much less). The percent yield of a reaction is the ratio of the actual yield to the theoretical yield, multiplied by 100 to give a percentage:

$$\text{percent yield} = \frac{\text{actual yield } (g)}{\text{theoretical yield } (g)} \times 100\% \tag{4.3.5}$$

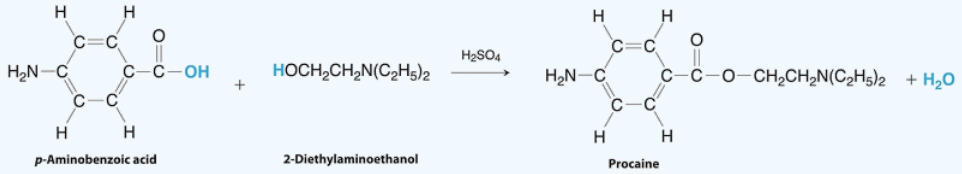
The method used to calculate the percent yield of a reaction is illustrated in Example 4.3.4.

Example 4.3.4: Novocain

Procaine is a key component of Novocain, an injectable local anesthetic used in dental work and minor surgery. Procaine can be prepared in the presence of H2SO4 (indicated above the arrow) by the reaction

$$\underset{\text{p-amino benzoic acid}}{C_7H_7NO_2} + \underset{\text{2-diethylaminoethanol}}{C_6H_{15}NO} \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} \underset{\text{procaine}}{C_{13}H_{20}N_2O_2} + H_2O$$

If this reaction were carried out with 10.0 g of p-aminobenzoic acid and 10.0 g of 2-diethylaminoethanol, and 15.7 g of procaine were isolated, what is the percent yield?



The preparation of procaine. A reaction of p-aminobenzoic acid with 2-diethylaminoethanol yields procaine and water.

Given: masses of reactants and product

Asked for: percent yield

Strategy:

A. Write the balanced chemical equation.
B. Convert from mass of reactants and product to moles using molar masses and then use mole ratios to determine which is the limiting reactant. Based on the number of moles of the limiting reactant, use mole ratios to determine the theoretical yield.
C. Calculate the percent yield by dividing the actual yield by the theoretical yield and multiplying by 100.

Solution:

A From the formulas given for the reactants and the products, we see that the chemical equation is balanced as written. According to the equation, 1 mol of each reactant combines to give 1 mol of product plus 1 mol of water.

B To determine which reactant is limiting, we need to know their molar masses, which are calculated from their structural formulas: p-aminobenzoic acid ($C_7H_7NO_2$), 137.14 g/mol; 2-diethylaminoethanol ($C_6H_{15}NO$), 117.19 g/mol. Thus the reaction used the following numbers of moles of reactants:

$$mol \text{ p-aminobenzoic acid} = 10.0\,g \times \frac{1\,mol}{137.14\,g} = 0.0729\,mol \text{ p-aminbenzoic acid}$$

$$mol \text{ 2-diethylaminoethanol} = 10.0\,g \times \frac{1\,mol}{117.19\,g} = 0.0853\,mol \text{ 2-diethylaminoethanol}$$

The reaction requires a 1:1 mole ratio of the two reactants, so p-aminobenzoic acid is the limiting reactant. Based on the coefficients in the balanced chemical equation, 1 mol of p-aminobenzoic acid yields 1 mol of procaine. We can therefore obtain only a maximum of 0.0729 mol of procaine. To calculate the corresponding mass of procaine, we use its structural formula (C13H20N2O2) to calculate its molar mass, which is 236.31 g/mol.

$$\text{theoretical yield of procaine} = 0.0729\,mol \times \frac{236.31\,g}{1\,mol} = 17.2\,g$$

C The actual yield was only 15.7 g of procaine, so the percent yield (via Equation 4.3.5) is

$$\text{percent yield} = \frac{15.7\,g}{17.2\,g} \times 100 = 91.3\%$$

(If the product were pure and dry, this yield would indicate very good lab technique!)

? Exercise 4.3.4: Extraction of Lead

Lead was one of the earliest metals to be isolated in pure form. It occurs as concentrated deposits of a distinctive ore called galena (PbS), which is easily converted to lead oxide (PbO) in 100% yield by roasting in air via the following reaction:

$$2\,PbS(s) + 3\,O_2 \rightarrow 2\,PbO(s) + 2\,SO_2(g)$$

The resulting PbO is then converted to the pure metal by reaction with charcoal. Because lead has such a low melting point (327°C), it runs out of the ore-charcoal mixture as a liquid that is easily collected. The reaction for the conversion of lead oxide to pure lead is as follows:

$$PbO(s) + C(s) \rightarrow Pb(l) + CO(g)$$

If 93.3 kg of PbO is heated with excess charcoal and 77.3 kg of pure lead is obtained, what is the percent yield?



Electrolytically refined pure (99.989 %) superficially oxidized lead nodules and a high purity (99.989 %) 1 cm^3 lead cube for comparison. Figure used with permission from Wikipedia.

Answer

89.2%

Percent yield can range from 0% to 100%. In the laboratory, a student will occasionally obtain a yield that appears to be greater than 100%. This usually happens when the product is impure or is wet with a solvent such as water. If this is not the case, then the student must have made an error in weighing either the reactants or the products. The law of conservation of mass applies even to undergraduate chemistry laboratory experiments. A 100% yield means that everything worked perfectly, and the chemist obtained all the product that could have been produced. Anyone who has tried to do something as simple as fill a salt shaker or add oil to a car's engine without spilling knows the unlikelihood of a 100% yield. At the other extreme, a yield of 0% means that no product was obtained. A percent yield of 80%–90% is usually considered good to excellent; a yield of 50% is only fair. In part because of the problems and costs of waste disposal, industrial production facilities face considerable pressures to optimize the yields of products and make them as close to 100% as possible.

Summary

The stoichiometry of a balanced chemical equation identifies the maximum amount of product that can be obtained. The stoichiometry of a reaction describes the relative amounts of reactants and products in a balanced chemical equation. A stoichiometric quantity of a reactant is the amount necessary to react completely with the other reactant(s). If a quantity of a reactant remains unconsumed after complete reaction has occurred, it is in excess. The reactant that is consumed first and limits the amount of product(s) that can be obtained is the limiting reactant. To identify the limiting reactant, calculate the number of moles of each reactant present and compare this ratio to the mole ratio of the reactants in the balanced chemical equation. The maximum

amount of product(s) that can be obtained in a reaction from a given amount of reactant(s) is the theoretical yield of the reaction. The actual yield is the amount of product(s) actually obtained in the reaction; it cannot exceed the theoretical yield. The percent yield of a reaction is the ratio of the actual yield to the theoretical yield, expressed as a percentage.

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4.4: Reaction Stoichiometry- How Much Carbon Dioxide?

Learning Objectives

- Explain the concept of stoichiometry as it pertains to chemical reactions
- Use balanced chemical equations to derive stoichiometric factors relating amounts of reactants and products
- Perform stoichiometric calculations involving mass, moles, and solution molarity

A balanced chemical equation provides a great deal of information in a very succinct format. Chemical formulas provide the identities of the reactants and products involved in the chemical change, allowing classification of the reaction. Coefficients provide the relative numbers of these chemical species, allowing a quantitative assessment of the relationships between the amounts of substances consumed and produced by the reaction. These quantitative relationships are known as the reaction's stoichiometry, a term derived from the Greek words *stoicheion* (meaning "element") and *metron* (meaning "measure"). In this module, the use of balanced chemical equations for various stoichiometric applications is explored.

The general approach to using stoichiometric relationships is similar in concept to the way people go about many common activities. Cooking, for example, offers an appropriate comparison. Suppose a recipe for making eight pancakes calls for 1 cup pancake mix, $\frac{3}{4}$ cup milk, and one egg. The "equation" representing the preparation of pancakes per this recipe is

$$1 \text{ cup mix} + \frac{3}{4} \text{ cup milk} + 1 \text{ egg} \rightarrow 8 \text{ pancakes} \tag{4.4.1}$$

If two dozen pancakes are needed for a big family breakfast, the ingredient amounts must be increased proportionally according to the amounts given in the recipe. For example, the number of eggs required to make 24 pancakes is

$$24 \ \cancel{\text{pancakes}} \times \frac{1 \text{ egg}}{8 \ \cancel{\text{pancakes}}} = 3 \text{ eggs} \tag{4.4.2}$$

Balanced chemical equations are used in much the same fashion to determine the amount of one reactant required to react with a given amount of another reactant, or to yield a given amount of product, and so forth. The coefficients in the balanced equation are used to derive stoichiometric factors that permit computation of the desired quantity. To illustrate this idea, consider the production of ammonia by reaction of hydrogen and nitrogen:

$$\mathrm{N_2}(g) + 3\,\mathrm{H_2}(g) \rightarrow 2\,\mathrm{NH_3}(g) \tag{4.4.3}$$

This equation shows that ammonia molecules are produced from hydrogen molecules in a 2:3 ratio, and stoichiometric factors may be derived using any amount (number) unit:

$$\frac{2\,\mathrm{NH_3} \text{ molecules}}{3\,\mathrm{H_2} \text{ molecules}} \text{ or } \frac{2 \text{ doz } \mathrm{NH_3} \text{ molecules}}{3 \text{ doz } \mathrm{H_2} \text{ molecules}} \text{ or } \frac{2 \text{ mol } \mathrm{NH_3} \text{ molecules}}{3 \text{ mol } \mathrm{H_2} \text{ molecules}} \tag{4.4.4}$$

These stoichiometric factors can be used to compute the number of ammonia molecules produced from a given number of hydrogen molecules, or the number of hydrogen molecules required to produce a given number of ammonia molecules. Similar factors may be derived for any pair of substances in any chemical equation.

Example 4.4.1: Moles of Reactant Required in a Reaction

How many moles of $\mathrm{I_2}$ are required to react with 0.429 mol of Al according to the following equation (see Figure 4.4.2)?

$$2\,\mathrm{Al} + 3\,\mathrm{I_2} \rightarrow 2\,\mathrm{AlI_3} \tag{4.4.5}$$

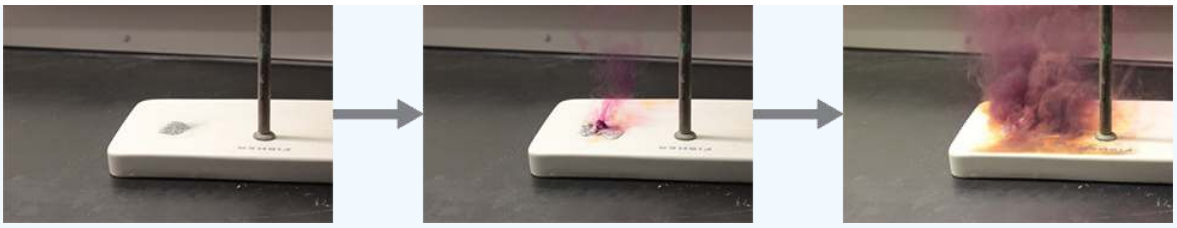
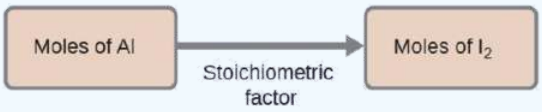


Figure 4.4.1: Aluminum and iodine react to produce aluminum iodide. The heat of the reaction vaporizes some of the solid iodine as a purple vapor. (credit: modification of work by Mark Ott)

Three pictures showing the progression of the reaction between iodine and aluminum. The first diagram shows only a pile of silver powder while the second diagram shows small amount of vapor forming. The final picture shows a large release of purple vapor.

Solution

Referring to the balanced chemical equation, the stoichiometric factor relating the two substances of interest is $\frac{3\ \text{mol}\ \text{I}_2}{2\ \text{mol}\ \text{Al}}$. The molar amount of iodine is derived by multiplying the provided molar amount of aluminum by this factor:



$$\begin{aligned}\text{mol I}_2 &= 0.429\ \cancel{\text{mol Al}} \times \frac{3\ \text{mol I}_2}{2\ \cancel{\text{mol Al}}} \\ &= 0.644\ \text{mol I}_2\end{aligned}$$

? Exercise 4.4.1

How many moles of $Ca(OH)_2$ are required to react with 1.36 mol of H_3PO_4 to produce $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ according to the equation $3\,Ca(OH)_2 + 2\,H_3PO_4 \rightarrow Ca_3(PO_4)_2 + 6\,H_2O$?

Answer

2.04 mol

✔ Example 4.4.2: Number of Product Molecules Generated by a Reaction

How many carbon dioxide molecules are produced when 0.75 mol of propane is combusted according to this equation?

$$C_3H_8 + 5\,O_2 \rightarrow 3\,CO_2 + 4\,H_2O \tag{4.4.6}$$

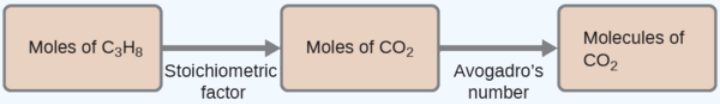
Solution

The approach here is the same as for Example 4.4.1, though the absolute number of molecules is requested, not the number of moles of molecules. This will simply require use of the moles-to-numbers conversion factor, Avogadro's number.

The balanced equation shows that carbon dioxide is produced from propane in a 3:1 ratio:

\[\ce{\dfrac{3\: mol\: CO2}{1\: mol\: C3H8}} \label{4.4.7} \]

Using this stoichiometric factor, the provided molar amount of propane, and Avogadro's number,



$$0.75\ \cancel{\text{mol C}_3\text{H}_8} \times \frac{3\ \cancel{\text{mol CO}_2}}{1\ \cancel{\text{mol C}_3\text{H}_8}} \times \frac{6.022 \times 10^{23}\ \text{CO}_2\ \text{molecules}}{\cancel{\text{mol CO}_2}} = 1.4 \times 10^{24}\ \text{CO}_2\ \text{molecules} \tag{4.4.7}$$

Exercise 4.4.1

How many NH_3 molecules are produced by the reaction of 4.0 mol of $Ca(OH)_2$ according to the following equation:

$$(NH_4)_2SO_4 + Ca(OH)_2 \rightarrow 2\,NH_3 + CaSO_4 + 2\,H_2O \tag{4.4.8}$$

Answer

4.8×10^{24} NH_3 molecules

These examples illustrate the ease with which the amounts of substances involved in a chemical reaction of known stoichiometry may be related. Directly measuring numbers of atoms and molecules is, however, not an easy task, and the practical application of stoichiometry requires that we use the more readily measured property of mass.

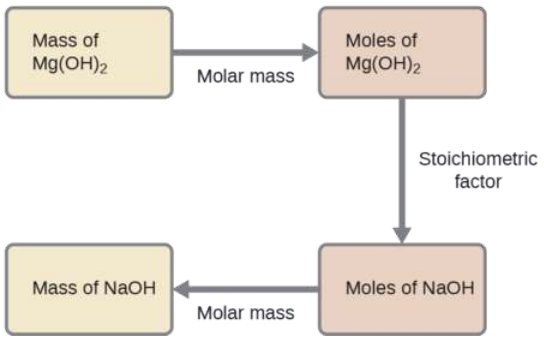
Example 4.4.3: Relating Masses of Reactants and Products

What mass of sodium hydroxide, NaOH, would be required to produce 16 g of the antacid milk of magnesia [magnesium hydroxide, $Mg(OH)_2$] by the following reaction?

$$MgCl_2(aq) + 2\,NaOH(aq) \rightarrow Mg(OH)_2(s) + 2\,NaCl(aq)$$

Solution

The approach used previously in Examples 4.4.1 and 4.4.2 is likewise used here; that is, we must derive an appropriate stoichiometric factor from the balanced chemical equation and use it to relate the amounts of the two substances of interest. In this case, however, masses (not molar amounts) are provided and requested, so additional steps of the sort learned in the previous chapter are required. The calculations required are outlined in this flowchart:



$$16\ \text{g}\ \cancel{Mg(OH)_2} \times \frac{1\ \text{mol}\ \cancel{Mg(OH)_2}}{58.3\ \text{g}\ \cancel{Mg(OH)_2}} \times \frac{2\ \text{mol}\ \cancel{NaOH}}{1\ \text{mol}\ \cancel{Mg(OH)_2}} \times \frac{40.0\ \text{g NaOH}}{\text{mol}\ \cancel{NaOH}} = 22\ \text{g NaOH}$$

Exercise 4.4.3

What mass of gallium oxide, Ga_2O_3, can be prepared from 29.0 g of gallium metal? The equation for the reaction is $4\,Ga + 3\,O_2 \rightarrow 2\,Ga_2O_3$.

Answer

39.0 g

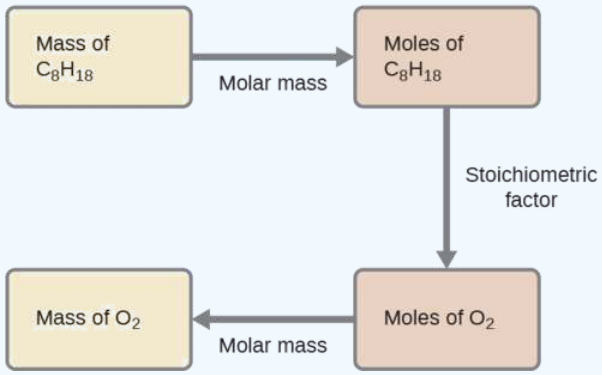
Example 4.4.4: Relating Masses of Reactants

What mass of oxygen gas, O_2, from the air is consumed in the combustion of 702 g of octane, C_8H_{18}, one of the principal components of gasoline?

$$2\,C_8H_{18} + 25\,O_2 \rightarrow 16\,CO_2 + 18\,H_2O$$

Solution

The approach required here is the same as for the Example 4.4.3, differing only in that the provided and requested masses are both for reactant species.



$$702\ \text{g}\ \cancel{\text{C}_8\text{H}_{18}} \times \frac{1\ \text{mol}\ \cancel{\text{C}_8\text{H}_{18}}}{114.23\ \text{g}\ \cancel{\text{C}_8\text{H}_{18}}} \times \frac{25\ \text{mol}\ \cancel{\text{O}_2}}{2\ \text{mol}\ \cancel{\text{C}_8\text{H}_{18}}} \times \frac{32.00\ \text{g}\ \text{O}_2}{\cancel{\text{mol}\ \text{O}_2}} = 2.46 \times 10^3\ \text{g}\ \text{O}_2$$

? Exercise 4.4.4

What mass of CO is required to react with 25.13 g of Fe_2O_3 according to the equation $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + 3\,\text{CO} \rightarrow 2\,\text{Fe} + 3\,\text{CO}_2$?

Answer

13.22 g

These examples illustrate just a few instances of reaction stoichiometry calculations. Numerous variations on the beginning and ending computational steps are possible depending upon what particular quantities are provided and sought (volumes, solution concentrations, and so forth). Regardless of the details, all these calculations share a common essential component: the use of stoichiometric factors derived from balanced chemical equations. Figure 4.4.2 provides a general outline of the various computational steps associated with many reaction stoichiometry calculations.

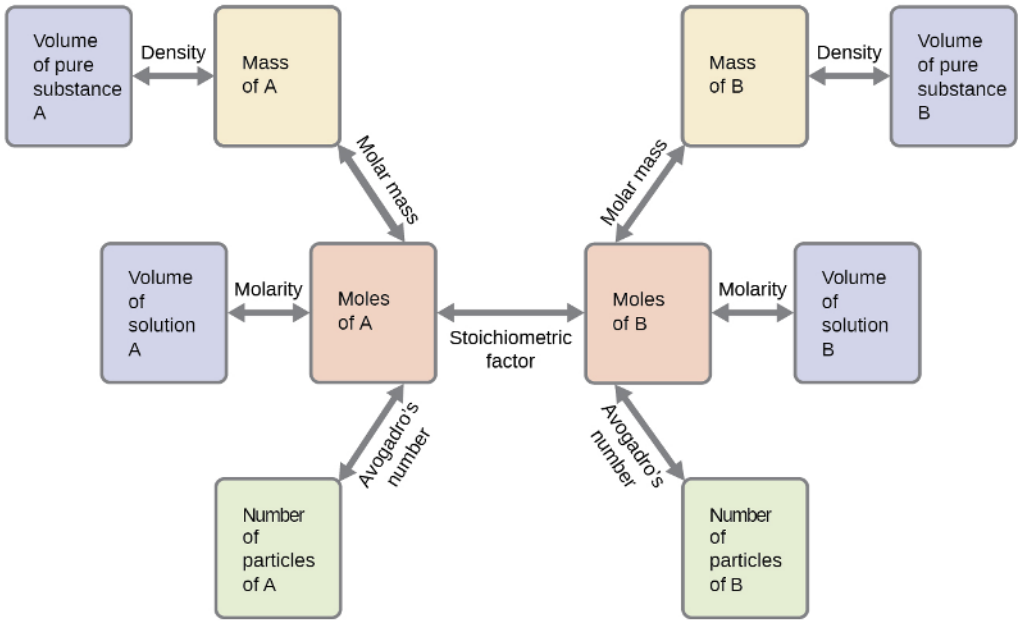


Figure 4.4.2: The flowchart depicts the various computational steps involved in most reaction stoichiometry calculations.
Schematic flowchart showing how density is used for converting volume of pure substance to mass, molar mass for mass and moles, molarity for moles and volume of solution, Avogadro's number for moles and number of particles, and stoichiometric factor for relating moles of one substance to another.

Airbags

Airbags (Figure 4.4.3) are a safety feature provided in most automobiles since the 1990s. The effective operation of an airbag requires that it be rapidly inflated with an appropriate amount (volume) of gas when the vehicle is involved in a collision. This requirement is satisfied in many automotive airbag systems through use of explosive chemical reactions, one common choice being the decomposition of sodium azide, NaN_3. When sensors in the vehicle detect a collision, an electrical current is passed through a carefully measured amount of NaN_3 to initiate its decomposition:

$$2\,\mathrm{NaN_3}(s) \rightarrow 3\,\mathrm{N_2}(g) + 2\,\mathrm{Na}(s)$$

This reaction is very rapid, generating gaseous nitrogen that can deploy and fully inflate a typical airbag in a fraction of a second (~0.03–0.1 s). Among many engineering considerations, the amount of sodium azide used must be appropriate for generating enough nitrogen gas to fully inflate the air bag and ensure its proper function. For example, a small mass (~100 g) of NaN_3 will generate approximately 50 L of N_2.



Figure 4.4.3: Airbags deploy upon impact to minimize serious injuries to passengers. (credit: Jon Seidman)

Summary

A balanced chemical equation may be used to describe a reaction's stoichiometry (the relationships between amounts of reactants and products). Coefficients from the equation are used to derive stoichiometric factors that subsequently may be used for computations relating reactant and product masses, molar amounts, and other quantitative properties.

Glossary

stoichiometric factor
ratio of coefficients in a balanced chemical equation, used in computations relating amounts of reactants and products

stoichiometry
relationships between the amounts of reactants and products of a chemical reaction

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4.5: Examples of Chemical Reaction- Combustion, Alkali Metals, and Halogens

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4.6: Combustion Reactions

⚙ Learning Objectives

- Recognize a reaction as a combustion reaction.
- Complete and balance chemical equations for combustion reactions.

A **combustion reaction** is a reaction in which a substance reacts with oxygen gas, releasing energy in the form of light and heat. Combustion reactions involve O_2 as one reactant. The combustion of hydrogen gas producing water vapor qualifies as a combustion reaction:

$$2\ H_2\ (g) + O_2\ (g) \rightarrow 2\ H_2O\ (g)$$

The *Hindenberg* was a hydrogen-filled airship that suffered an accident upon its attempted landing in New Jersey in 1937. The hydrogen immediately combusted in a huge fireball, destroying the airship and killing 36 people. The chemical reaction was a simple one: hydrogen combining with oxygen to produce water.

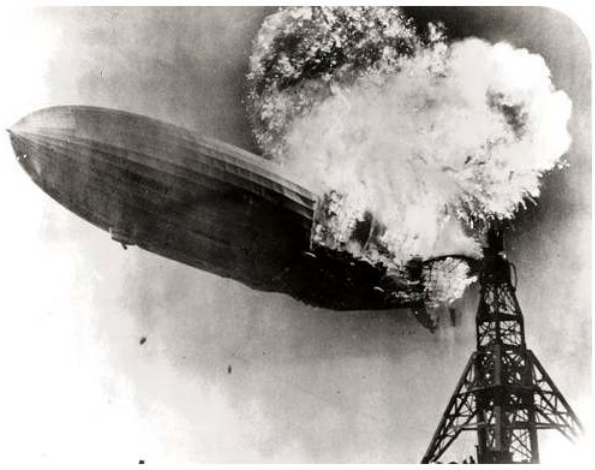


Figure 4.6.1: Explosion of the Hindenberg.

Many combustion reactions occur with a hydrocarbon, a compound comprised solely of carbon and hydrogen. The products of the complete combustion of hydrocarbons are carbon dioxide and water. Many hydrocarbons are used as fuel because their combustion releases very large amounts of heat energy. Propane, C_3H_8, is a gaseous hydrocarbon that is commonly used as the fuel source in gas grills.

$$C_3H_8\ (g) + 5\ O_2\ (g) \rightarrow 3\ CO_2\ (g) + 4\ H_2O\ (g)$$

As a general rule, combustion of a reactant that contains:

- carbon will yield carbon dioxide, CO_2, as one of the products.
- hydrogen will yield water, H_2O, as one of the products.
- sulfur will yield sulfur dioxide, SO_2, as one of the products.

When the supply of oxygen becomes limited, incomplete combustion typically occurs. The incomplete combustion carbon or carbon-containing compounds leads to the production of carbon monoxide, CO, in addition to carbon dioxide. In this text, however, complete combustion will always be assumed to occur unless otherwise specified.



✓ Example 4.6.1: Combustion of Ethanol

Ethanol (C_2H_5OH) may be used as a fuel source in an alcohol lamp. Write the balanced chemical equation that shows the combustion of ethanol.

Solution

Combustion is a reaction in which a substance reacts with oxygen gas.

$$C_2H_5OH\ (l) + O_2\ (g) \rightarrow$$

Since C_2H_5OH contains carbon, CO_2 will be one of the products. Since it also contains hydrogen, H_2O will be another product. H_2O is produced in the gaseous phase due to the high temperatures that accompany combustion reactions.

$$C_2H_5OH\ (l) + O_2\ (g) \rightarrow CO_2\ (g) + H_2O\ (g)$$

Carbon atoms are balanced by placing a coefficient of "2" in front of CO_2 (g). Hydrogen atoms are balanced by placing a "3" in front of H_2O (g).

$$C_2H_5OH\ (l) + O_2\ (g) \rightarrow 2\ CO_2\ (g) + 3\ H_2O\ (g)$$

The simplest formula, O_2 (g), is balanced last using a coefficient of "3".

$$C_2H_5OH\ (l) + 3\ O_2\ (g) \rightarrow 2\ CO_2\ (g) + 3\ H_2O\ (g)$$

✏ Exercise 4.6.1: Combustion of Hexane

Write the balanced equation for the combustion of hexane, C_6H_{14}, which is a liquid at room temperature.

Answer

$2\ C_6H_{14}\ (l) + 19\ O_2\ (g) \rightarrow 12\ CO_2\ (g) + 14\ H_2O\ (g)$

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

5: Introduction to Solutions and Aqueous Reactions

5.1: Prelude to Solutions
5.2: Solution Concentration and Solution Stoichiomentry
5.3: Solution Stoichiometry
5.4: Types of Aqueous Solutions and Solubility
5.5: Precipitation Reactions
5.6: Representing Aqueous Reactions- Molecular, Ionic, and Complete Ionic Equations
5.7: Acid-Base Reactions
5.8: Gas Evolution Reactions
5.9: Oxidation-Reduction Reactions

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5.1: Prelude to Solutions

If you watch any of the medical dramas on television, you may have heard a doctor (actually an actor) call for an intravenous solution of “Ringer’s lactate” (or “lactated Ringer’s” or "Ri-Lac"). So what is Ringer’s lactate?

Intravenous (IV) solutions are administered for two main reasons:

1. to introduce necessary substances into the bloodstream, such as ions for proper body function, sugar and other food substances for energy, or drugs to treat a medical condition, and
2. to increase the volume of the bloodstream.

Many people with acute or long-term medical conditions have received some type of an IV solution.

Solutions

Solutions are homogenous mixtures of two or more compounds. In the case of liquid phase solutions, the solvent is typically the compound in greater quantity and it is in a liquid state, and the solute is lesser quantity, where the solute is dissolved into the solvent. In aqueous solutions, water is the solvent, even if it is in lesser quantities, and in this class, we will be dealing mostly with aqueous solutions. The solute can be of a different phase than the solvent.

Solutions in Health Science

One basic IV solution, called a *normal saline solution*, is simply a dilute solution of NaCl dissolved in water. Normal saline is 9.0 g of NaCl dissolved in each liter of solution. *Ringer’s lactate* is a normal saline solution that also has small amounts of potassium and calcium ions mixed in. In addition, it contains about 2.5 g of lactate ions ($C_3H_5O_3^-$) per liter of solution. The liver metabolizes lactate ions into bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) ions, which help maintain the acid-base balance of blood. Many medical problems, such as heart attacks and shock, affect the acid-base balance of blood, and the presence of lactate in the IV solution eases problems caused by this imbalance.

Physicians can select from a range of premade IV solutions, in accordance with a patient’s particular needs. Ringer’s lactate is commonly used when a patient’s blood volume must be increased quickly. Another frequently used IV solution, called D5W, is a 5% solution of dextrose (a form of sugar) in water.



Figure *Ringer’s lactate Solution*

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5.2: Solution Concentration and Solution Stoichiomentry

Learning Objectives

- To describe the concentrations of solutions quantitatively

Many people have a qualitative idea of what is meant by *concentration*. Anyone who has made instant coffee or lemonade knows that too much powder gives a strongly flavored, highly concentrated drink, whereas too little results in a dilute solution that may be hard to distinguish from water. In chemistry, the concentration of a solution is the quantity of a **solute** that is contained in a particular quantity of **solvent** or solution. Knowing the concentration of solutes is important in controlling the stoichiometry of reactants for solution reactions. Chemists use many different methods to define concentrations, some of which are described in this section.

Molarity

The most common unit of concentration is *molarity*, which is also the most useful for calculations involving the stoichiometry of reactions in solution. The molarity (M) is defined as the number of moles of solute present in exactly 1 L of solution. It is, equivalently, the number of millimoles of solute present in exactly 1 mL of solution:

$$molarity = \frac{moles\ of\ solute}{liters\ of\ solution} = \frac{mmoles\ of\ solute}{milliliters\ of\ solution} \tag{5.2.1}$$

The units of molarity are therefore moles per liter of solution (mol/L), abbreviated as M. An aqueous solution that contains 1 mol (342 g) of sucrose in enough water to give a final volume of 1.00 L has a sucrose concentration of 1.00 mol/L or 1.00 M. In chemical notation, square brackets around the name or formula of the solute represent the molar concentration of a solute. Therefore,

$$[\text{sucrose}] = 1.00\ \text{M} \tag{5.2.2}$$

is read as “the concentration of sucrose is 1.00 molar.” The relationships between volume, molarity, and moles may be expressed as either

$$V_L M_{mol/L} = \cancel{L}\left(\frac{mol}{\cancel{L}}\right) = moles \tag{5.2.3}$$

or

$$V_{mL} M_{mmol/mL} = \cancel{mL}\left(\frac{mmol}{\cancel{mL}}\right) = mmoles \tag{5.2.4}$$

Figure 5.2.1 illustrates the use of Equations 5.2.3 and 5.2.4.

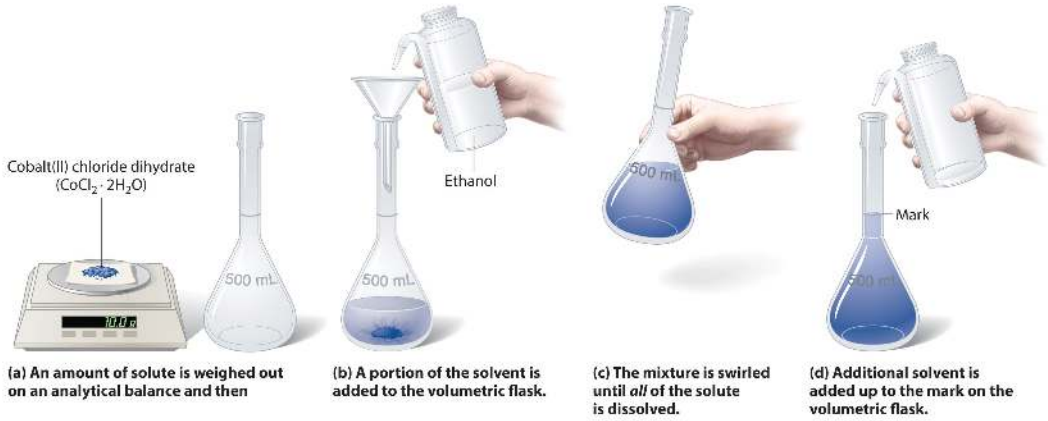


Figure 5.2.1: Preparation of a Solution of Known Concentration Using a Solid Solute

Example 5.2.1: Calculating Moles from Concentration of NaOH

Calculate the number of moles of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) in 2.50 L of 0.100 M NaOH.

Given: identity of solute and volume and molarity of solution

Asked for: amount of solute in moles

Strategy:

Use either Equation 5.2.3 or Equation 5.2.4, depending on the units given in the problem.

Solution:

Because we are given the volume of the solution in liters and are asked for the number of moles of substance, Equation 5.2.3 is more useful:

$$moles\ NaOH = V_L M_{mol/L} = (2.50\ \cancel{L}) \left(\frac{0.100\ mol}{\cancel{L}} \right) = 0.250\ mol\ NaOH$$

Exercise 5.2.1: Calculating Moles from Concentration of Alanine

Calculate the number of millimoles of alanine, a biologically important molecule, in 27.2 mL of 1.53 M alanine.

Answer

41.6 mmol



Calculations Involving Molarity (M): https://youtu.be/TVTCvKoSR-Q

Concentrations are also often reported on a mass-to-mass (m/m) basis or on a mass-to-volume (m/v) basis, particularly in clinical laboratories and engineering applications. A concentration expressed on an m/m basis is equal to the number of grams of solute per gram of solution; a concentration on an m/v basis is the number of grams of solute per milliliter of solution. Each measurement can be expressed as a percentage by multiplying the ratio by 100; the result is reported as percent m/m or percent m/v. The concentrations of very dilute solutions are often expressed in *parts per million* (*ppm*), which is grams of solute per 10^6 g of solution, or in *parts per billion* (*ppb*), which is grams of solute per 10^9 g of solution. For aqueous solutions at 20°C, 1 ppm corresponds to 1 µg per milliliter, and 1 ppb corresponds to 1 ng per milliliter. These concentrations and their units are summarized in Table 5.2.1.

Table 5.2.1: Common Units of Concentration

Concentration	Units
m/m	g of solute/g of solution
m/v	g of solute/mL of solution

Concentration	Units
ppm	g of solute/10^6 g of solution
	µg/mL
ppb	g of solute/10^9 g of solution
	ng/mL

The Preparation of Solutions

To prepare a solution that contains a specified concentration of a substance, it is necessary to dissolve the desired number of moles of solute in enough solvent to give the desired final volume of solution. Figure 5.2.1 illustrates this procedure for a solution of cobalt(II) chloride dihydrate in ethanol. Note that the volume of the *solvent* is not specified. Because the solute occupies space in the solution, the volume of the solvent needed is almost always *less* than the desired volume of solution. For example, if the desired volume were 1.00 L, it would be incorrect to add 1.00 L of water to 342 g of sucrose because that would produce more than 1.00 L of solution. As shown in Figure 5.2.2, for some substances this effect can be significant, especially for concentrated solutions.

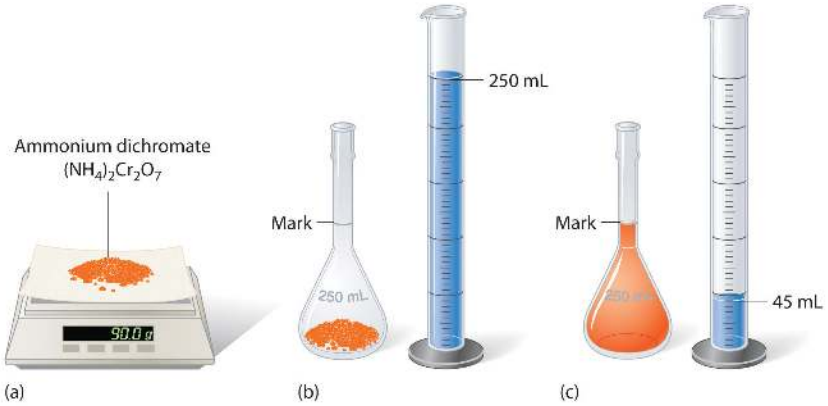


Figure 5.2.2: Preparation of 250 mL of a Solution of $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$ in Water. The solute occupies space in the solution, so less than 250 mL of water are needed to make 250 mL of solution.

Example 5.2.2

The solution contains 10.0 g of cobalt(II) chloride dihydrate, $CoCl_2$•$2H_2O$, in enough ethanol to make exactly 500 mL of solution. What is the molar concentration of $\mathrm{CoCl_2 \bullet 2\,H_2O}$?

Given: mass of solute and volume of solution

Asked for: concentration (M)

Strategy:

To find the number of moles of $\mathrm{CoCl_2 \bullet 2\,H_2O}$, divide the mass of the compound by its molar mass. Calculate the molarity of the solution by dividing the number of moles of solute by the volume of the solution in liters.

Solution:

The molar mass of $CoCl_2$•$2H_2O$ is 165.87 g/mol. Therefore,

$$moles\ CoCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O = \left(\frac{10.0\ \cancel{g}}{165.87\ \cancel{g}/mol}\right) = 0.0603\ mol$$

The volume of the solution in liters is

$$volume = 500\ \cancel{mL}\left(\frac{1\ L}{1000\ \cancel{mL}}\right) = 0.500\ L$$

Molarity is the number of moles of solute per liter of solution, so the molarity of the solution is

$$molarity = \frac{0.0603\ mol}{0.500\ L} = 0.121\ M = CoCl_2 \cdot H_2O$$

Exercise 5.2.2

The solution shown in Figure 5.2.2 contains 90.0 g of $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$ in enough water to give a final volume of exactly 250 mL. What is the molar concentration of ammonium dichromate?

Answer

$$(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7 = 1.43\ M$$

To prepare a particular volume of a solution that contains a specified concentration of a solute, we first need to calculate the number of moles of solute in the desired volume of solution using the relationship shown in Equation 5.2.3. We then convert the number of moles of solute to the corresponding mass of solute needed. This procedure is illustrated in Example 5.2.3.

Example 5.2.3: D5W Solution

The so-called D5W solution used for the intravenous replacement of body fluids contains 0.310 M glucose. (D5W is an approximately 5% solution of dextrose [the medical name for glucose] in water.) Calculate the mass of glucose necessary to prepare a 500 mL pouch of D5W. Glucose has a molar mass of 180.16 g/mol.

Given: molarity, volume, and molar mass of solute

Asked for: mass of solute

Strategy:

A. Calculate the number of moles of glucose contained in the specified volume of solution by multiplying the volume of the solution by its molarity.
B. Obtain the mass of glucose needed by multiplying the number of moles of the compound by its molar mass.

Solution:

A We must first calculate the number of moles of glucose contained in 500 mL of a 0.310 M solution:

$$V_L M_{mol/L} = moles$$

$$500\ \cancel{mL}\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{L}}{1000\ \cancel{mL}}\right)\left(\frac{0.310\ mol\ glucose}{1\ \cancel{L}}\right) = 0.155\ mol\ glucose$$

B We then convert the number of moles of glucose to the required mass of glucose:

$$mass\ of\ glucose = 0.155\ \cancel{mol\ glucose}\left(\frac{180.16\ g\ glucose}{1\ \cancel{mol\ glucose}}\right) = 27.9\ g\ glucose$$

Exercise 5.2.3

Another solution commonly used for intravenous injections is normal saline, a 0.16 M solution of sodium chloride in water. Calculate the mass of sodium chloride needed to prepare 250 mL of normal saline solution.

Answer

2.3 g NaCl

A solution of a desired concentration can also be prepared by diluting a small volume of a more concentrated solution with additional solvent. A stock solution is a commercially prepared solution of known concentration and is often used for this purpose. Diluting a stock solution is preferred because the alternative method, weighing out tiny amounts of solute, is difficult to carry out

with a high degree of accuracy. Dilution is also used to prepare solutions from substances that are sold as concentrated aqueous solutions, such as strong acids.

The procedure for preparing a solution of known concentration from a stock solution is shown in Figure 5.2.3. It requires calculating the number of moles of solute desired in the final volume of the more dilute solution and then calculating the volume of the stock solution that contains this amount of solute. Remember that diluting a given quantity of stock solution with solvent does *not* change the number of moles of solute present. The relationship between the volume and concentration of the stock solution and the volume and concentration of the desired diluted solution is therefore

$$(V_s)(M_s) = moles\ of\ solute = (V_d)(M_d) \tag{5.2.5}$$

where the subscripts *s* and *d* indicate the stock and dilute solutions, respectively. Example 5.2.4 demonstrates the calculations involved in diluting a concentrated stock solution.

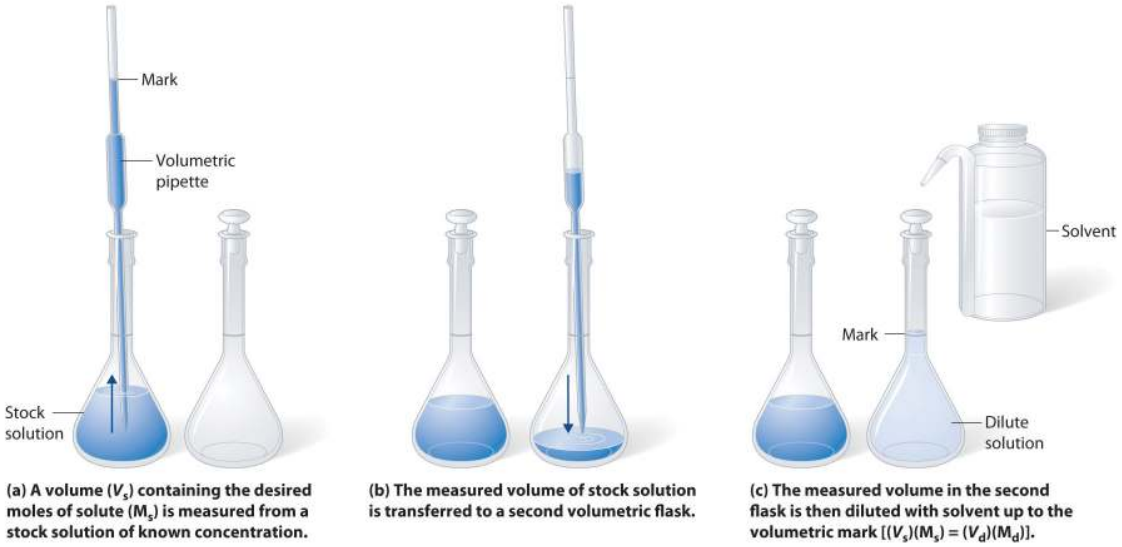


Figure 5.2.3: Preparation of a Solution of Known Concentration by Diluting a Stock Solution. (a) A volume (V_s) containing the desired moles of solute (M_s) is measured from a stock solution of known concentration. (b) The measured volume of stock solution is transferred to a second volumetric flask. (c) The measured volume in the second flask is then diluted with solvent up to the volumetric mark [$(V_s)(M_s) = (V_d)(M_d)$].

Example 5.2.4

What volume of a 3.00 M glucose stock solution is necessary to prepare 2500 mL of the D5W solution in Example 5.2.3?

Given: volume and molarity of dilute solution

Asked for: volume of stock solution

Strategy:

A. Calculate the number of moles of glucose contained in the indicated volume of dilute solution by multiplying the volume of the solution by its molarity.
B. To determine the volume of stock solution needed, divide the number of moles of glucose by the molarity of the stock solution.

Solution:

A The D5W solution in Example 4.5.3 was 0.310 M glucose. We begin by using Equation 4.5.4 to calculate the number of moles of glucose contained in 2500 mL of the solution:

$$moles\ glucose = 2500\ \cancel{mL}\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{L}}{1000\ \cancel{mL}}\right)\left(\frac{0.310\ mol\ glucose}{1\ \cancel{L}}\right) = 0.775\ mol\ glucose \tag{5.2.6}$$

B We must now determine the volume of the 3.00 M stock solution that contains this amount of glucose:

$$volume\ of\ stock\ soln = 0.775\ \cancel{mol\ glucose}\left(\frac{1\ L}{3.00\ \cancel{mol\ glucose}}\right) = 0.258\ L\ or\ 258\ mL \tag{5.2.7}$$

In determining the volume of stock solution that was needed, we had to divide the desired number of moles of glucose by the concentration of the stock solution to obtain the appropriate units. Also, the number of moles of solute in 258 mL of the stock solution is the same as the number of moles in 2500 mL of the more dilute solution; *only the amount of solvent has changed*. The answer we obtained makes sense: diluting the stock solution about tenfold increases its volume by about a factor of 10 (258 mL → 2500 mL). Consequently, the concentration of the solute must decrease by about a factor of 10, as it does (3.00 M → 0.310 M).

We could also have solved this problem in a single step by solving Equation 4.5.4 for V_s and substituting the appropriate values:

$$V_s = \frac{(V_d)(M_d)}{M_s} = \frac{(2.500\ L)(0.310\ \cancel{M})}{3.00\ \cancel{M}} = 0.258\ L \tag{5.2.8}$$

As we have noted, there is often more than one correct way to solve a problem.

? Exercise 5.2.4

What volume of a 5.0 M NaCl stock solution is necessary to prepare 500 mL of normal saline solution (0.16 M NaCl)?

Answer

16 mL

Ion Concentrations in Solution

In Example 5.2.2, the concentration of a solution containing 90.00 g of ammonium dichromate in a final volume of 250 mL were calculated to be 1.43 M. Let's consider in more detail exactly what that means. Ammonium dichromate is an ionic compound that contains two NH_4^+ ions and one $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ion per formula unit. Like other ionic compounds, it is a strong electrolyte that dissociates in aqueous solution to give hydrated NH_4^+ and $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ions:

$$(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7(s) \xrightarrow{H_2O(l)} 2NH_4^+(aq) + Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq) \tag{5.2.9}$$

Thus 1 mol of ammonium dichromate formula units dissolves in water to produce 1 mol of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ anions and 2 mol of NH_4^+ cations (see Figure 5.2.4).

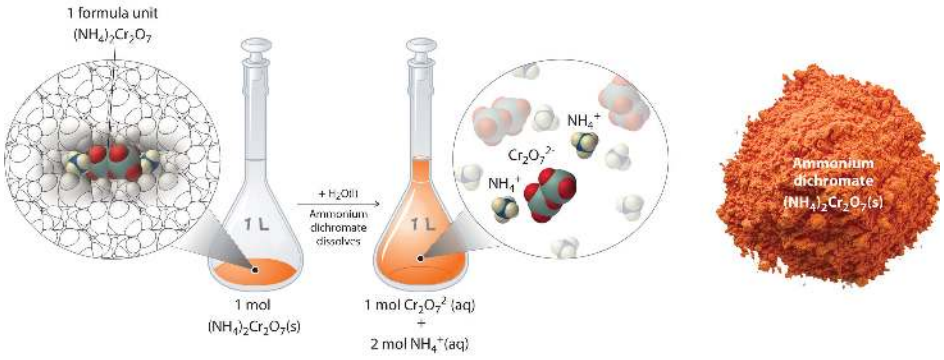


Figure 5.2.4: Dissolution of 1 mol of an Ionic Compound. In this case, dissolving 1 mol of $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$ produces a solution that contains 1 mol of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ions and 2 mol of NH_4^+ ions. (Water molecules are omitted from a molecular view of the solution for clarity.)

When carrying out a chemical reaction using a solution of a salt such as ammonium dichromate, it is important to know the concentration of each ion present in the solution. If a solution contains 1.43 M $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$, then the concentration of $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ must also be 1.43 M because there is one $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$ ion per formula unit. However, there are two NH_4^+ ions per formula unit, so the

concentration of NH_4^+ ions is 2 × 1.43 M = 2.86 M. Because each formula unit of $(NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7$ produces *three* ions when dissolved in water ($2NH_4^+ + 1Cr_2O_7^{2-}$), the *total* concentration of ions in the solution is 3 × 1.43 M = 4.29 M.



Concentration of Ions in Solution from a Soluble Salt: https://youtu.be/qsekSJBLemc

Example 5.2.5

What are the concentrations of all species derived from the solutes in these aqueous solutions?

a. 0.21 M NaOH
b. 3.7 M $(CH_3)_2CHOH$
c. 0.032 M $In(NO_3)_3$

Given: molarity

Asked for: concentrations

Strategy:

A Classify each compound as either a strong electrolyte or a nonelectrolyte.

B If the compound is a nonelectrolyte, its concentration is the same as the molarity of the solution. If the compound is a strong electrolyte, determine the number of each ion contained in one formula unit. Find the concentration of each species by multiplying the number of each ion by the molarity of the solution.

Solution:

1. Sodium hydroxide is an ionic compound that is a strong electrolyte (and a strong base) in aqueous solution:

   $$NaOH(s) \xrightarrow{H_2O(l)} Na^+(aq) + OH^-(aq)$$

   B Because each formula unit of NaOH produces one Na^+ ion and one OH^- ion, the concentration of each ion is the same as the concentration of NaOH: $[Na^+]$ = 0.21 M and $[OH^-]$ = 0.21 M.

2. **A** The formula $(CH_3)_2CHOH$ represents 2-propanol (isopropyl alcohol) and contains the –OH group, so it is an alcohol. Recall from Section 4.1 that alcohols are covalent compounds that dissolve in water to give solutions of neutral molecules. Thus alcohols are nonelectrolytes.

   B The only solute species in solution is therefore $(CH_3)_2CHOH$ molecules, so $[(CH_3)_2CHOH]$ = 3.7 M.

3. **A** Indium nitrate is an ionic compound that contains In^{3+} ions and NO_3^- ions, so we expect it to behave like a strong electrolyte in aqueous solution:

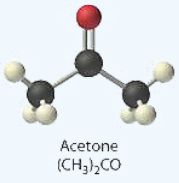
   $$In(NO_3)_3(s) \xrightarrow{H_2O(l)} In^{3+}(aq) + 3NO_3^-(aq)$$

   B One formula unit of $In(NO_3)_3$ produces one In^{3+} ion and three NO_3^- ions, so a 0.032 M $In(NO_3)_3$ solution contains 0.032 M In^{3+} and 3 × 0.032 M = 0.096 M NO_3^-—that is, $[In^{3+}]$ = 0.032 M and $[NO_3^-]$ = 0.096 M.

? Exercise 5.2.5

What are the concentrations of all species derived from the solutes in these aqueous solutions?

a. 0.0012 M $Ba(OH)_2$
b. 0.17 M Na_2SO_4
c. 0.50 M $(CH_3)_2CO$, commonly known as acetone



Answer a

$[Ba^{2+}] = 0.0012\ M;\ [OH^-] = 0.0024\ M$

Answer b

$[Na^+] = 0.34\ M;\ [SO_4^{2-}] = 0.17\ M$

Answer c

$[(CH_3)_2CO] = 0.50\ M$

Summary

Solution concentrations are typically expressed as molarities and can be prepared by dissolving a known mass of solute in a solvent or diluting a stock solution.

- **definition of molarity:**

$$molarity = \frac{moles\ of\ solute}{liters\ of\ solution} = \frac{mmoles\ of\ solute}{milliliters\ of\ solution} \tag{5.2.10}$$

- **relationship among volume, molarity, and moles**:

$$V_L M_{mol/L} = \cancel{L}\left(\frac{mol}{\cancel{L}}\right) = moles \tag{5.2.11}$$

- **relationship between volume and concentration of stock and dilute solutions**:

$$(V_s)(M_s) = moles\ of\ solute = (V_d)(M_d) \tag{5.2.12}$$

The **concentration** of a substance is the quantity of solute present in a given quantity of solution. Concentrations are usually expressed in terms of **molarity**, defined as the number of moles of solute in 1 L of solution. Solutions of known concentration can be prepared either by dissolving a known mass of solute in a solvent and diluting to a desired final volume or by diluting the appropriate volume of a more concentrated solution (a **stock solution**) to the desired final volume.

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5.3: Solution Stoichiometry

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5.4: Types of Aqueous Solutions and Solubility

8.9A: Electrolytes and Electrolytic Solutions

8.9B: The nature of ions in aqueous solution

https://chem.libretexts.org/Textbook...A_Electrolytes

In Binary Ionic Compounds and Their Properties we point out that when an ionic compound dissolves in water, the positive and negative ions originally present in the crystal lattice persist in solution. Their ability to move nearly independently through the solution permits them to carry positive or negative electrical charges from one place to another. Hence the solution conducts an electrical current.

Electrolytes

Substances whose solutions conduct electricity are called electrolytes. All soluble ionic compounds are strong electrolytes. They conduct very well because they provide a plentiful supply of ions in solution. Some polar covalent compounds are also strong electrolytes. Common examples are HCl, HBr, HI and H_2SO_4, all of which react with H_2O to form large concentrations of ions. A solution of HCl, for example, conducts even better than one of NaCl having the same concentration.

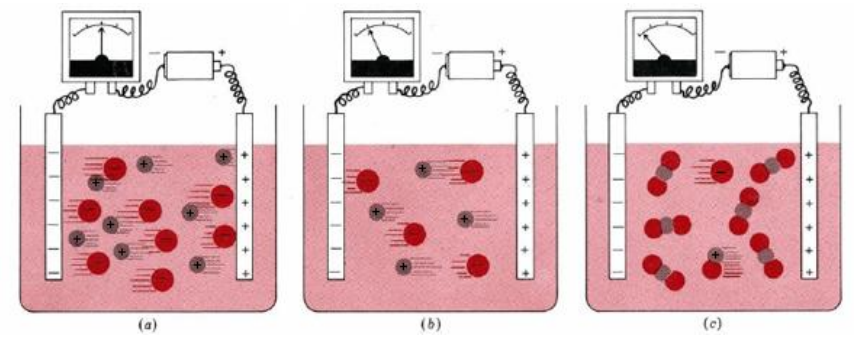


Figure 5.4.1: The conductivity of electrolyte solutions: (a) 0.1 M NaCl (b) 0.05 M NaCl (c) 0.1 M $HgCl_2$. An electrolyte solution conducts electricity because of the movement of ions in the solution (see above). The larger the concentration of ions, the better the solutions conducts. Weak electrolytes, such as $HgCl_2$, conduct badly because they produce few ions when dissolved (low concentration of ions) and exist mainly in the form of molecules.

The effect of the concentration of ions on the electrical current flowing through a solution is illustrated in Figure 5.4.1. Part *a* of the figure shows what happens when a battery is connected through an electrical meter to two inert metal strips (**electrodes**) dipping in ethanol. Each cubic decimeter of such a solution contains 0.10 mol NaCl (that is, 0.10 mol Na^+ and 0.10 mol Cl^-). An electrical current is carried through the solution both by the Na^+ ions moving toward the negative electrode and by the Cl^- ions which are attracted toward the positive electrode. The dial on the meter indicates the quantity of current.

Figure 1*b* shows that if we replace the 0.10-*M* NaCl solution with a 0.05-*M* NaCl solution, the meter reading falls to about one-half its former value. Halving the concentration of NaCl halves the number of ions between the electrodes, and half as many ions can only carry half as much electrical charge. Therefore the current is half as great. Because it responds in such a direct way to the concentration of ions, conductivity of electrical current is a useful tool in the study of solutions.

Conductivity measurements reveal that most covalent compounds, if they dissolve in water at all, retain their original molecular structures. Neutral molecules cannot carry electrical charges through the solution, and so no current flows. A substance whose aqueous solution conducts no better than water itself is called a **nonelectrolyte**. Some examples are oxygen, O_2, ethanol, C_2H_5OH, and sugar, $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11}$.

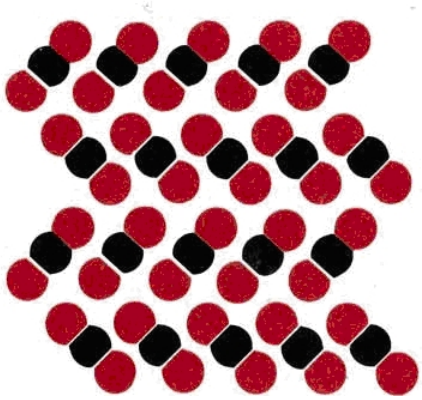


Figure 5.4.2: Mercury Bromide Crystals.

Some covalent substances behave as **weak electrolytes**—their solutions allow only a small current flow, but it is greater than that of the pure solvent. An example is mercury(II) chloride (seen in the Figure above). For a 100-*M* $HgCl_2$ solution the meter reading shows only about 0.2 percent as much current as for 0.10 *M* NaCl. A crystal of $HgCl_2$ consists of discrete molecules, like those shown for $HgBr_2$ in Figure 5.4.2. When the solid dissolves, most of these molecules remain intact, but a few dissociate into ions according to the equation

$$\underbrace{HgCl_2}_{99.8\%} \rightleftharpoons \underbrace{HgCl^+}_{0.2\%} + Cl^-$$

(The double arrows indicate that the ionization proceeds only to a limited extent and an equilibrium state is attained.) Since only 0.2 percent of the $HgCl_2$ forms ions, the 0.10 *M* solution can conduct only about 0.2 percent as much current as 0.10 *M* NaCl.

Conductivity measurements can tell us more than whether a substance is a strong, a weak, or a nonelectrolyte. Consider, for instance, the data in Table 5.4.1 which shows the electrical current conducted through various aqueous solutions under identical conditions. At the rather low concentration of 0.001 *M*, the strong electrolyte solutions conduct between 2500 and 10 000 times as much current as pure H_2O and about 10 times as much as the weak electrolytes $HC_2H_3O_2$ (acetic acid) and NH_3 (ammonia).

Closer examination of the data for strong electrolytes reveals that some compounds which contain H or OH groups [such as HCl or $Ba(OH)_2$] conduct unusually well. If these compounds are excluded, we find that 1:1 electrolytes (compounds which consist of equal numbers of +1 ions and –1 ions) usually conduct about half as much current as 2:2 electrolytes (+2 and -2 ions), 1:2 electrolytes (+1 and -2 ions), or 2:1 electrolytes (+2 and -1 ions).

TABLE 5.4.1: Electrical Current Conducted Through Various 0.001 M Aqueous Solutions at 18°C.*

Substance	*Current /mA*	Substance	*Current /mA*
Pure Water		**1:2 Electrolytes**	
H_2O	3.69×10^{-4}	Na_2SO_4	2.134
Weak Electrolytes		Na_2CO_3	2.24
$HC_2H_3O_2$	0.41	K_2CO_3	2.660
NH_3	0.28	**2:1 Electrolytes**	
1:1 Electrolytes		$MgCl_2$	2.128
NaCl	1.065	$CaCl_2$	2.239
NaI	1.069	$SrCl_2$	2.290
KCl	1.273	$BaCl_2$	2.312
KI	1,282	$Ba(OH)_2$	4.14
$AgNO_3$	1.131	**2:2 Electrolytes**	
HCl	3.77	$MgSO_4$	2.00

Substance	*Current /mA*	Substance	*Current /mA*
HNO_3	3.75	$CaSO_4$	2.086
NaOH	2.08	$CuSO_4$	1.97
KOH	2.34	$ZnSO_4$	1.97

* All measurements refer to a cell in which the distance between the electrodes is 1.0 mm and the area of each electrode is 1.0 cm^2. A potential difference of 1.0 V is applied to produce the tabulated currents.

There is a simple reason for this behavior. Under similar conditions, most ions move through water at comparable speeds. This means that ions like Mg^{2+} or SO_4^{2-}, which are doubly charged, will carry twice as much current through the solution as will singly charged ions like Na^+ or Cl^-. Consequently, a 0.001 *M* solution of a 2:2 electrolyte like $MgSO_4$ will conduct about twice as well as a 0.001 M solution of a 1:1 electrolyte like NaCl.

A similar argument applies to solutions of 1:2 and 2:1 electrolytes. A solution like 0.001 *M* Na_2SO_4 conducts about twice as well as 0.001 *M* NaCl partly because there are twice as many Na^- ions available to move when a battery is connected, but also because SO_4^{2-} ions carry twice as much charge as Cl^- ions when moving at the same speed. These differences in conductivity between different types of strong electrolytes can sometimes be very useful in deciding what ions are actually present in a given electrolyte solution as the following example makes clear.

A second, slightly more subtle, conclusion can be drawn from the data in Table 5.4.1. When an electrolyte dissolves, each type of ion makes an independent contribution to the current the solution conducts. This can be seen by comparing NaCl with KCl, and NaI with KI. In each case the compound containing K^+ conducts about 0.2 mA more than the one containing Na^+. If we apply this observation to Na_2CO_3 and K_2CO_3, each of which produces twice as many Na^+ or K^+ ions in solution, we find that the difference in current is also twice as great—about 0.4 mA.

Thus conductivity measurements confirm our statement that each ion exhibits its own characteristic properties in aqueous solutions, independent of the presence of other ions. One such characteristic property is the quantity of electrical current that a given concentration of a certain type of ion can carry.

Example 5.4.1: Ions

At 18°C a 0.001-*M* aqueous solution of potassium hydrogen carbonate, $KHCO_3$, conducts a current of 1.10 mA in a cell of the same design as that used to obtain the data in Table 11.1. What ions are present in solution?

Solution

Referring to Table 6.2 which lists possible polyatomic ions, we can arrive at three possibilities for the ions from which $KHCO_3$ is made:

a. K^+ and H^+ and C^{4+} and three O^{2-}
b. K^+ and H^+ and CO_3^{2-}
c. K^+ and HCO_3^-

Since the current conducted by the solution falls in the range of 1.0 to 1.3 mA characteristic of 1:1 electrolytes, possibility *c* is the only reasonable choice.

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5.5: Precipitation Reactions

Learning Objectives

- To identify a precipitation reaction and predict solubilities.

Exchange (Double-Displacement) Reactions

A precipitation reaction is a reaction that yields an insoluble product—a precipitate—when two solutions are mixed. We described a precipitation reaction in which a colorless solution of silver nitrate was mixed with a yellow-orange solution of potassium dichromate to give a reddish precipitate of silver dichromate:

$$\mathrm{AgNO_3(aq) + K_2Cr_2O_7(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + KNO_3(aq)} \tag{5.5.1}$$

This unbalanced equation has the general form of an exchange reaction:

$$\overbrace{\mathrm{AC}}^{\text{soluble}} + \overbrace{\mathrm{BD}}^{\text{soluble}} \rightarrow \underbrace{\mathrm{AD}}_{\text{insoluble}} + \overbrace{\mathrm{BC}}^{\text{soluble}} \tag{5.5.2}$$

The solubility and insoluble annotations are specific to the reaction in Equation 5.5.1 and not characteristic of all exchange reactions (e.g., both products can be soluble or insoluble). *Precipitation reactions* are a subclass of exchange reactions that occur between ionic compounds when one of the products is insoluble. Because both components of each compound change partners, such reactions are sometimes called *double-displacement reactions*. Two important uses of precipitation reactions are to isolate metals that have been extracted from their ores and to recover precious metals for recycling.



Video* 5.5.1*: *Mixing Potassium Chromate and Silver Nitrate together to initiate a precipitation reaction (Equation 5.5.1).*

While full chemical equations show the identities of the reactants and the products and give the stoichiometries of the reactions, they are less effective at describing what is actually occurring in solution. In contrast, equations that show only the hydrated species focus our attention on the chemistry that is taking place and allow us to see similarities between reactions that might not otherwise be apparent.

Let's consider the reaction of silver nitrate with potassium dichromate above. When aqueous solutions of silver nitrate and potassium dichromate are mixed, silver dichromate forms as a red solid. The overall balanced chemical equation for the reaction shows each reactant and product as undissociated, electrically neutral compounds:

$$\mathrm{2\,AgNO_3(aq) + K_2Cr_2O_7(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + 2\,KNO_3(aq)} \tag{5.5.3}$$

Although Equation 5.5.3 gives the identity of the reactants and the products, it does not show the identities of the actual species in solution. Because ionic substances such as $\mathrm{AgNO_3}$ and $\mathrm{K_2Cr_2O_7}$ are *strong electrolytes (*i.e., they dissociate completely in aqueous solution to form ions). In contrast, because $\mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7}$ is not very soluble, it separates from the solution as a solid. To find out what is actually occurring in solution, it is more informative to write the reaction as a complete ionic equation showing which ions and molecules are hydrated and which are present in other forms and phases:

$$2\,\mathrm{Ag^+(aq)} + 2\,\mathrm{NO_3^-(aq)} + 2\,\mathrm{K^+(aq)} + \mathrm{Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq)} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s)} + 2\,\mathrm{K^+(aq)} + 2\,\mathrm{NO_3^-(aq)} \tag{5.5.4}$$

Note that $\mathrm{K^+(aq)}$ and $\mathrm{NO_3^-(aq)}$ ions are present on both sides of Equation 5.5.4 and their coefficients are the same on both sides. These ions are called *spectator ions* because they do not participate in the actual reaction. Canceling the spectator ions gives the net ionic equation, which shows only those species that participate in the chemical reaction:

$$2Ag^+(aq) + Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) \tag{5.5.5}$$

Both mass and charge must be conserved in chemical reactions because the numbers of electrons and protons do not change. For charge to be conserved, the sum of the charges of the ions multiplied by their coefficients must be the same on both sides of the equation. In Equation 5.5.5, the charge on the left side is 2(+1) + 1(−2) = 0, which is the same as the charge of a neutral $\mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7}$ formula unit on the right side.

By eliminating the spectator ions, we can focus on the chemistry that takes place in a solution. For example, the overall chemical equation for the reaction between silver fluoride and ammonium dichromate is as follows:

$$2AgF(aq) + (NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + 2NH_4F(aq) \tag{5.5.6}$$

The complete ionic equation for this reaction is as follows:

$$2\,\mathrm{Ag^+(aq)} + \cancel{2\,\mathrm{F^-(aq)}} + \cancel{2\,\mathrm{NH_4^+(aq)}} + \mathrm{Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq)} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s)} + \cancel{2\,\mathrm{NH_4^+(aq)}} + \cancel{2\,\mathrm{F^-(aq)}} \tag{5.5.7}$$

Because two $\mathrm{NH_4^+(aq)}$ and two $\mathrm{F^-(aq)}$ ions appear on both sides of Equation 5.5.7, they are spectator ions. They can therefore be canceled to give the **net ionic equation** (Equation 5.5.8), which is identical to Equation 5.5.5:

$$2\,\mathrm{Ag^+(aq)} + \mathrm{Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq)} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s)} \tag{5.5.8}$$

If we look at net ionic equations, it becomes apparent that many different combinations of reactants can result in the same net chemical reaction. For example, we can predict that silver fluoride could be replaced by silver nitrate in the preceding reaction without affecting the outcome of the reaction.



Determining the Products for Precipitation Reactions: Determining the Products for Precipitation Reactions, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Example 5.5.1: Balancing Precipitation Equations

Write the overall chemical equation, the complete ionic equation, and the net ionic equation for the reaction of aqueous barium nitrate with aqueous sodium phosphate to give solid barium phosphate and a solution of sodium nitrate.

Given: reactants and products

Asked for: overall, complete ionic, and net ionic equations

Strategy:

Write and balance the overall chemical equation. Write all the soluble reactants and products in their dissociated form to give the complete ionic equation; then cancel species that appear on both sides of the complete ionic equation to give the net ionic

equation.

Solution:

From the information given, we can write the unbalanced chemical equation for the reaction:

$$\mathrm{Ba(NO_3)_2(aq) + Na_3PO_4(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s) + NaNO_3(aq)}$$

Because the product is $Ba_3(PO_4)_2$, which contains three Ba^{2+} ions and two PO_4^{3-} ions per formula unit, we can balance the equation by inspection:

$$\mathrm{3\,Ba(NO_3)_2(aq) + 2\,Na_3PO_4(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s) + 6\,NaNO_3(aq)}$$

This is the overall balanced chemical equation for the reaction, showing the reactants and products in their undissociated form. To obtain the complete ionic equation, we write each soluble reactant and product in dissociated form:

$$\mathrm{3\,Ba^{2+}(aq) + \cancel{6\,NO_3^-(aq)} + \cancel{6\,Na^+(aq)} + 2\,PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s) + \cancel{6\,Na^+(aq)} + \cancel{6\,NO_3^-(aq)}}$$

The six $NO_3^-(aq)$ ions and the six $Na^+(aq)$ ions that appear on both sides of the equation are spectator ions that can be canceled to give the net ionic equation:

$$\mathrm{3\,Ba^{2+}(aq) + 2\,PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s)}$$

? Exercise 5.5.1: Mixing Silver Fluoride with Sodium Phosphate

Write the overall chemical equation, the complete ionic equation, and the net ionic equation for the reaction of aqueous silver fluoride with aqueous sodium phosphate to give solid silver phosphate and a solution of sodium fluoride.

Answer

overall chemical equation:

$$\mathrm{3\,AgF(aq) + Na_3PO_4(aq) \rightarrow Ag_3PO_4(s) + 3\,NaF(aq)}$$

complete ionic equation:

$$\mathrm{3\,Ag^+(aq) + 3\,F^-(aq) + 3\,Na^+(aq) + PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_3PO_4(s) + 3\,Na^+(aq) + 3\,F^-(aq)}$$

net ionic equation:

$$\mathrm{3\,Ag^+(aq) + PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_3PO_4(s)}$$

So far, we have always indicated whether a reaction will occur when solutions are mixed and, if so, what products will form. As you advance in chemistry, however, you will need to predict the results of mixing solutions of compounds, anticipate what kind of reaction (if any) will occur, and predict the identities of the products. Students tend to think that this means they are supposed to "just know" what will happen when two substances are mixed. Nothing could be further from the truth: an infinite number of chemical reactions is possible, and neither you nor anyone else could possibly memorize them all. Instead, you must begin by identifying the various reactions that *could* occur and then assessing which is the most probable (or least improbable) outcome.

The most important step in analyzing an unknown reaction is to *write down all the species—whether molecules or dissociated ions—that are actually present in the solution* (not forgetting the solvent itself) so that you can assess which species are most likely to react with one another. The easiest way to make that kind of prediction is to attempt to place the reaction into one of several familiar classifications, refinements of the five general kinds of reactions (acid–base, exchange, condensation, cleavage, and oxidation–reduction reactions). In the sections that follow, we discuss three of the most important kinds of reactions that occur in aqueous solutions: precipitation reactions (also known as exchange reactions), acid–base reactions, and oxidation–reduction reactions.

Predicting Solubilities

Table 5.5.1 gives guidelines for predicting the solubility of a wide variety of ionic compounds. To determine whether a precipitation reaction will occur, we identify each species in the solution and then refer to Table 5.5.1 to see which, if any,

combination(s) of cation and anion are likely to produce an insoluble salt. In doing so, it is important to recognize that *soluble* and *insoluble* are relative terms that span a wide range of actual solubilities. We will discuss solubilities in more detail later, where you will learn that very small amounts of the constituent ions remain in solution even after precipitation of an "insoluble" salt. For our purposes, however, we will assume that precipitation of an insoluble salt is complete.

Table 5.5.1: Guidelines for Predicting the Solubility of Ionic Compounds in Water

Soluble			**Exceptions**
Rule 1	most salts that contain an alkali metal (Li^+, Na^+, K^+, Rb^+, and Cs^+) and ammonium (NH_4^+)		
Rule 2	most salts that contain the nitrate (NO_3^-) anion		
Rule 3	most salts of anions derived from monocarboxylic acids (e.g., $CH_3CO_2^-$)	but not	silver acetate and salts of long-chain carboxylates
Rule 4	most chloride, bromide, and iodide salts	but not	salts of metal ions located on the lower right side of the periodic table (e.g., Cu^+, Ag^+, Pb^{2+}, and Hg_2^{2+}).
	Insoluble		**Exceptions**
Rule 5	most salts that contain the hydroxide (OH^-) and sulfide (S^{2-}) anions	but not	salts of the alkali metals (group 1), the heavier alkaline earths (Ca^{2+}, Sr^{2+}, and Ba^{2+} in group 2), and the NH_4^+ ion.
Rule 6	most carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) and phosphate (PO_4^{3-}) salts	but not	salts of the alkali metals or the NH_4^+ ion.
Rule 7	most sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) salts that contain main group cations with a charge ≥ +2	but not	salts of +1 cations, Mg^{2+}, and dipositive transition metal cations (e.g., Ni^{2+})

Just as important as predicting the product of a reaction is knowing when a chemical reaction will *not* occur. Simply mixing solutions of two different chemical substances does *not* guarantee that a reaction will take place. For example, if 500 mL of a 1.0 M aqueous NaCl solution is mixed with 500 mL of a 1.0 M aqueous KBr solution, the final solution has a volume of 1.00 L and contains 0.50 M $Na^+(aq)$, 0.50 M $Cl^-(aq)$, 0.50 M $K^+(aq)$, and 0.50 M $Br^-(aq)$. As you will see in the following sections, none of these species reacts with any of the others. When these solutions are mixed, the only effect is to dilute each solution with the other (Figure 5.5.1).

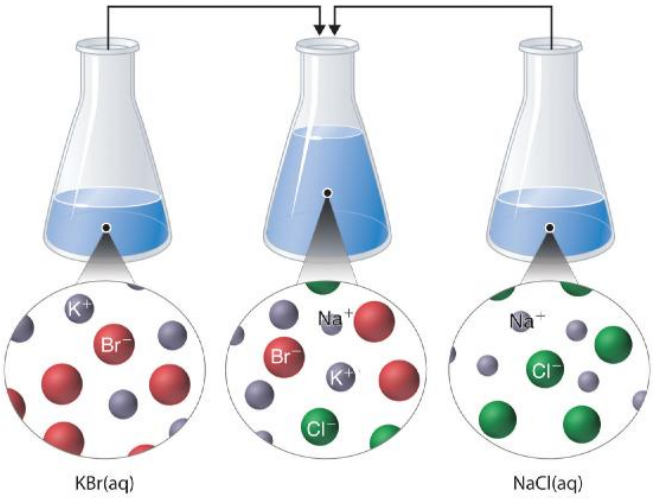


Figure 5.5.1: The Effect of Mixing Aqueous KBr and NaCl Solutions. Because no net reaction occurs, the only effect is to dilute each solution with the other. (Water molecules are omitted from molecular views of the solutions for clarity.)

Example 5.5.2

Using the information in Table 5.5.1, predict what will happen in each case involving strong electrolytes. Write the net ionic equation for any reaction that occurs.

a. Aqueous solutions of barium chloride and lithium sulfate are mixed.
b. Aqueous solutions of rubidium hydroxide and cobalt(II) chloride are mixed.
c. Aqueous solutions of strontium bromide and aluminum nitrate are mixed.
d. Solid lead(II) acetate is added to an aqueous solution of ammonium iodide.

Given: reactants

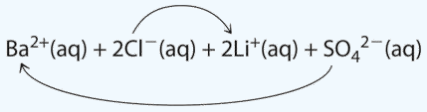
Asked for: reaction and net ionic equation

Strategy:

A. Identify the ions present in solution and write the products of each possible exchange reaction.
B. Refer to Table 5.5.1 to determine which, if any, of the products is insoluble and will therefore form a precipitate. If a precipitate forms, write the net ionic equation for the reaction.

Solution:

A Because barium chloride and lithium sulfate are strong electrolytes, each dissociates completely in water to give a solution that contains the constituent anions and cations. Mixing the two solutions *initially* gives an aqueous solution that contains Ba^{2+}, Cl^-, Li^+, and SO_4^{2-} ions. The only possible exchange reaction is to form LiCl and $BaSO_4$:



B We now need to decide whether either of these products is insoluble. Table 5.5.1 shows that LiCl is soluble in water (rules 1 and 4), but $BaSO_4$ is not soluble in water (rule 5). Thus $BaSO_4$ will precipitate according to the net ionic equation

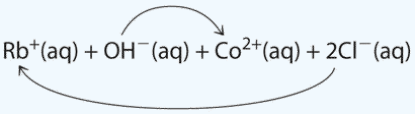
$$Ba^{2+}(aq) + SO_4^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow BaSO_4(s)$$

Although soluble barium salts are toxic, $BaSO_4$ is so insoluble that it can be used to diagnose stomach and intestinal problems without being absorbed into tissues. An outline of the digestive organs appears on x-rays of patients who have been given a "barium milkshake" or a "barium enema"—a suspension of very fine $BaSO_4$ particles in water.



An x-ray of the digestive organs of a patient who has swallowed a “barium milkshake.” A barium milkshake is a suspension of very fine $BaSO_4$ particles in water; the high atomic mass of barium makes it opaque to x-rays. from Wikipedia.

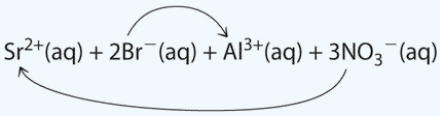
1. **A** Rubidium hydroxide and cobalt(II) chloride are strong electrolytes, so when aqueous solutions of these compounds are mixed, the resulting solution initially contains Rb^+, OH^-, Co^{2+}, and Cl^- ions. The possible products of an exchange reaction are rubidium chloride and cobalt(II) hydroxide):



   B According to Table 5.5.1, RbCl is soluble (rules 1 and 4), but $Co(OH)_2$ is not soluble (rule 5). Hence $Co(OH)_2$ will precipitate according to the following net ionic equation:

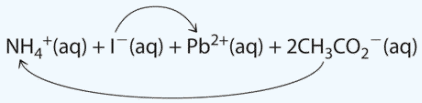
$$Co^{2+}(aq) + 2OH^-(aq) \rightarrow Co(OH)_2(s)$$

2. **A** When aqueous solutions of strontium bromide and aluminum nitrate are mixed, we initially obtain a solution that contains Sr^{2+}, Br^-, Al^{3+}, and NO_3^- ions. The two possible products from an exchange reaction are aluminum bromide and strontium nitrate:



B According to Table 5.5.1, both $AlBr_3$ (rule 4) and $Sr(NO_3)_2$ (rule 2) are soluble. Thus no net reaction will occur.

1. **A** According to Table 5.5.1, lead acetate is soluble (rule 3). Thus solid lead acetate dissolves in water to give Pb^{2+} and $CH_3CO_2^-$ ions. Because the solution also contains NH_4^+ and I^- ions, the possible products of an exchange reaction are ammonium acetate and lead(II) iodide:



   B According to Table 5.5.1, ammonium acetate is soluble (rules 1 and 3), but PbI_2 is insoluble (rule 4). Thus $Pb(C_2H_3O_2)_2$ will dissolve, and PbI_2 will precipitate. The net ionic equation is as follows:

$$Pb^{2+}(aq) + 2I^-(aq) \rightarrow PbI_2(s)$$

? Exercise 5.5.2

Using the information in Table 5.5.1, predict what will happen in each case involving strong electrolytes. Write the net ionic equation for any reaction that occurs.

a. An aqueous solution of strontium hydroxide is added to an aqueous solution of iron(II) chloride.
b. Solid potassium phosphate is added to an aqueous solution of mercury(II) perchlorate.
c. Solid sodium fluoride is added to an aqueous solution of ammonium formate.
d. Aqueous solutions of calcium bromide and cesium carbonate are mixed.

Answer a

$Fe^{2+}(aq) + 2OH^{-}(aq) \rightarrow Fe(OH)_2(s)$

Answer b

$2PO_4^{3-}(aq) + 3Hg^{2+}(aq) \rightarrow Hg_3(PO_4)_2(s)$

Answer c

$NaF(s)$ dissolves; no net reaction

Answer d

$Ca^{2+}(aq) + CO_3^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow CaCO_3(s)$



Predicting the Solubility of Ionic Compounds: Predicting the Solubility of Ionic Compounds, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be] (opens in new window)

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5.6: Representing Aqueous Reactions- Molecular, Ionic, and Complete Ionic Equations

Learning Objectives

- To understand what information is obtained by each type of ionic equation

The chemical equations discussed before showed the identities of the reactants and the products and gave the stoichiometries of the reactions, but they told us very little about what was occurring in the solution. In contrast, equations that show only the hydrated species focus our attention on the chemistry that is taking place and allow us to see similarities between reactions that might not otherwise be apparent.

Let's consider the reaction of silver nitrate with potassium dichromate. As you learned in Example 9, when aqueous solutions of silver nitrate and potassium dichromate are mixed, silver dichromate forms as a red solid. The overall chemical equationA chemical equation that shows all the reactants and products as undissociated, electrically neutral compounds. for the reaction shows each reactant and product as undissociated, electrically neutral compounds:

$$2AgNO_3(aq) + K_2Cr_2O_7(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + 2KNO_3(aq) \tag{5.6.1}$$

Although Equation 5.6.1 gives the identity of the reactants and the products, it does not show the identities of the actual species in solution. Because ionic substances such as $AgNO_3$ and $K_2Cr_2O_7$ are strong electrolytes, they dissociate completely in aqueous solution to form ions. In contrast, because $Ag_2Cr_2O_7$ is not very soluble, it separates from the solution as a solid. To find out what is actually occurring in solution, it is more informative to write the reaction as a complete ionic equation, showing which ions and molecules are hydrated and which are present in other forms and phases:

$$2Ag^+(aq) + 2NO_3^-(aq) + 2K^+(aq) + Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + 2K^+(aq) + 2NO_3^-(aq) \tag{5.6.2}$$

Note that K^+(aq) and NO_3^-(aq) ions are present on both sides of the equation, and their coefficients are the same on both sides. These ions are called spectator ions because they do not participate in the actual reaction. Canceling the spectator ions gives the net ionic equation, which shows only those species that participate in the chemical reaction:

$$2Ag^+(aq) + Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) \tag{5.6.3}$$

Both mass and charge must be conserved in chemical reactions because the numbers of electrons and protons do not change. For charge to be conserved, the sum of the charges of the ions multiplied by their coefficients must be the same on both sides of the equation. In Equation 5.6.3, the charge on the left side is 2(+1) + 1(−2) = 0, which is the same as the charge of a neutral $Ag_2Cr_2O_7$ formula unit.

By eliminating the spectator ions, we can focus on the chemistry that takes place in a solution. For example, the overall chemical equation for the reaction between silver fluoride and ammonium dichromate is as follows:

$$2AgF(aq) + (NH_4)_2Cr_2O_7(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + 2NH_4F(aq) \tag{5.6.4}$$

The complete ionic equation for this reaction is as follows:

$$2Ag^+(aq) + 2F^-(aq) + 2NH_4^+(aq) + Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) + 2NH_4^+(aq) + 2F^-(aq) \tag{5.6.5}$$

Because two NH_4^+(aq) and two F^-(aq) ions appear on both sides of Equation 5.6.5, they are spectator ions. They can therefore be canceled to give the net ionic equation (Equation 5.6.6), which is identical to Equation 5.6.3:

$$2Ag^+(aq) + Cr_2O_7^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_2Cr_2O_7(s) \tag{5.6.6}$$

If we look at net ionic equations, it becomes apparent that many different combinations of reactants can result in the same net chemical reaction. For example, we can predict that silver fluoride could be replaced by silver nitrate in the preceding reaction without affecting the outcome of the reaction.

Example 5.6.1

Write the overall chemical equation, the complete ionic equation, and the net ionic equation for the reaction of aqueous barium nitrate with aqueous sodium phosphate to give solid barium phosphate and a solution of sodium nitrate.

Given: reactants and products

Asked for: overall, complete ionic, and net ionic equations

Strategy:

Write and balance the overall chemical equation. Write all the soluble reactants and products in their dissociated form to give the complete ionic equation; then cancel species that appear on both sides of the complete ionic equation to give the net ionic equation.

Solution:

From the information given, we can write the unbalanced chemical equation for the reaction:

$$Ba(NO_3)_2(aq) + Na_3PO_4(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s) + NaNO_3(aq) \tag{5.6.7}$$

Because the product is $Ba_3(PO_4)_2$, which contains three Ba^{2+} ions and two PO_4^{3-} ions per formula unit, we can balance the equation by inspection:

$$3Ba(NO_3)_2(aq) + 2Na_3PO_4(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s) + 6NaNO_3(aq) \tag{5.6.8}$$

This is the overall balanced chemical equation for the reaction, showing the reactants and products in their undissociated form. To obtain the complete ionic equation, we write each soluble reactant and product in dissociated form:

$$3Ba^{2+}(aq) + 6NO_3^-(aq) + 6Na^+(aq) + 2PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s) + 6Na^+(aq) + 6NO_3^-(aq) \tag{5.6.9}$$

The six NO_3^-(aq) ions and the six Na^+(aq) ions that appear on both sides of the equation are spectator ions that can be canceled to give the net ionic equation:

$$3Ba^{2+}(aq) + 2PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ba_3(PO_4)_2(s) \tag{5.6.10}$$

Exercise 5.6.1

Write the overall chemical equation, the complete ionic equation, and the net ionic equation for the reaction of aqueous silver fluoride with aqueous sodium phosphate to give solid silver phosphate and a solution of sodium fluoride.

Answer:

overall chemical equation:

$$3AgF(aq) + Na_3PO_4(aq) \rightarrow Ag_3PO_4(s) + 3NaF(aq) \tag{5.6.11}$$

complete ionic equation:

$$3Ag^+(aq) + 3F^-(aq) + 3Na^+(aq) + PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_3PO_4(s) + 3Na^+(aq) + 3F^-(aq) \tag{5.6.12}$$

net ionic equation:

$$3Ag^+(aq) + PO_4^{3-}(aq) \rightarrow Ag_3PO_4(s) \tag{5.6.13}$$

So far, we have always indicated whether a reaction will occur when solutions are mixed and, if so, what products will form. As you advance in chemistry, however, you will need to predict the results of mixing solutions of compounds, anticipate what kind of reaction (if any) will occur, and predict the identities of the products. Students tend to think that this means they are supposed to "just know" what will happen when two substances are mixed. Nothing could be further from the truth: an infinite number of chemical reactions is possible, and neither you nor anyone else could possibly memorize them all. Instead, you must begin by identifying the various reactions that *could* occur and then assessing which is the most probable (or least improbable) outcome.

The most important step in analyzing an unknown reaction is to *write down all the species—whether molecules or dissociated ions—that are actually present in the solution* (not forgetting the solvent itself) so that you can assess which species are most likely to react with one another. The easiest way to make that kind of prediction is to attempt to place the reaction into one of several familiar classifications, refinements of the five general kinds of reactions introduced in Chapter 3 (acid–base, exchange, condensation, cleavage, and oxidation–reduction reactions). In the sections that follow, we discuss three of the most important kinds of reactions that occur in aqueous solutions: precipitation reactions (also known as exchange reactions), acid–base reactions, and oxidation–reduction reactions.

Summary

The chemical equation for a reaction in solution can be written in three ways. The **overall chemical equation** shows all the substances present in their undissociated forms; the **complete ionic equation** shows all the substances present in the form in which they actually exist in solution; and the **net ionic equation** is derived from the complete ionic equation by omitting all **spectator ions**, ions that occur on both sides of the equation with the same coefficients. Net ionic equations demonstrate that many different combinations of reactants can give the same net chemical reaction.

Key Takeaway

- A complete ionic equation consists of the net ionic equation and spectator ions.

Conceptual Problem

1. What information can be obtained from a complete ionic equation that cannot be obtained from the overall chemical equation?

Contributors

- Modified by Joshua Halpern (Howard University)

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5.7: Acid-Base Reactions

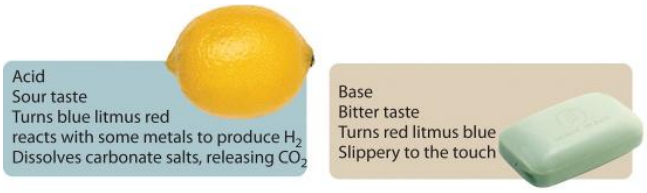
Learning Objectives

- To know the characteristic properties of acids and bases.

Acid–base reactions are essential in both biochemistry and industrial chemistry. Moreover, many of the substances we encounter in our homes, the supermarket, and the pharmacy are acids or bases. For example, aspirin is an acid (acetylsalicylic acid), and antacids are bases. In fact, every amateur chef who has prepared mayonnaise or squeezed a wedge of lemon to marinate a piece of fish has carried out an acid–base reaction. Before we discuss the characteristics of such reactions, let's first describe some of the properties of acids and bases.

Definitions of Acids and Bases

We can define **acids** as substances that dissolve in water to produce H^+ ions, whereas **bases** are defined as substances that dissolve in water to produce OH^- ions. In fact, this is only one possible set of definitions. Although the general properties of acids and bases have been known for more than a thousand years, the definitions of *acid* and *base* have changed dramatically as scientists have learned more about them. In ancient times, an acid was any substance that had a sour taste (e.g., vinegar or lemon juice), caused consistent color changes in dyes derived from plants (e.g., turning blue litmus paper red), reacted with certain metals to produce hydrogen gas and a solution of a salt containing a metal cation, and dissolved carbonate salts such as limestone ($CaCO_3$) with the evolution of carbon dioxide. In contrast, a base was any substance that had a bitter taste, felt slippery to the touch, and caused color changes in plant dyes that differed diametrically from the changes caused by acids (e.g., turning red litmus paper blue). Although these definitions were useful, they were entirely descriptive.



The Arrhenius Definition of Acids and Bases

The first person to define acids and bases in detail was the Swedish chemist Svante Arrhenius (1859–1927; Nobel Prize in Chemistry, 1903). According to the *Arrhenius definition*, an acid is a substance like hydrochloric acid that dissolves in water to produce H^+ ions (protons; Equation 5.7.1), and a base is a substance like sodium hydroxide that dissolves in water to produce hydroxide (OH^-) ions (Equation 5.7.2):

$$\underset{an\ Arrhenius\ acid}{HCl_{(g)}} \xrightarrow{H_2O_{(l)}} H^+_{(aq)} + Cl^-_{(aq)} \tag{5.7.1}$$

$$\underset{an\ Arrhenius\ base}{NaOH_{(s)}} \xrightarrow{H_2O_{(l)}} Na^+_{(aq)} + OH^-_{(aq)} \tag{5.7.2}$$

According to Arrhenius, the characteristic properties of acids and bases are due exclusively to the presence of H^+ and OH^- ions, respectively, in solution. Although Arrhenius's ideas were widely accepted, his definition of acids and bases had two major limitations:

1. First, because acids and bases were defined in terms of ions obtained from water, the Arrhenius concept applied only to substances in aqueous solution.
2. Second, and more important, the Arrhenius definition predicted that *only* substances that dissolve in water to produce H^+ and OH^- ions should exhibit the properties of acids and bases, respectively. For example, according to the Arrhenius definition, the reaction of ammonia (a base) with gaseous HCl (an acid) to give ammonium chloride (Equation 5.7.3) is not an acid–base reaction because it does not involve H^+ and OH^-:

$$NH_{3\ (g)} + HCl_{(g)} \rightarrow NH_4Cl_{(s)} \tag{5.7.3}$$

The Brønsted–Lowry Definition of Acids and Bases

Because of the limitations of the Arrhenius definition, a more general definition of acids and bases was needed. One was proposed independently in 1923 by the Danish chemist J. N. Brønsted (1879–1947) and the British chemist T. M. Lowry (1874–1936), who defined acid–base reactions in terms of the transfer of a proton (H^+ ion) from one substance to another.

According to Brønsted and Lowry, an acid (A substance with at least one hydrogen atom that can dissociate to form an anion and an H^+ ion (a proton) in aqueous solution, thereby forming an acidic solution) is any substance that can donate a proton, and a base (a substance that produces one or more hydroxide ions (OH^- and a cation when dissolved in aqueous solution, thereby forming a basic solution) is any substance that can accept a proton. The Brønsted–Lowry definition of an acid is essentially the same as the Arrhenius definition, except that it is not restricted to aqueous solutions. The Brønsted–Lowry definition of a base, however, is far more general because the hydroxide ion is just one of many substances that can accept a proton. Ammonia, for example, reacts with a proton to form NH_4^+, so in Equation 5.7.3, NH_3 is a Brønsted–Lowry base and HCl is a Brønsted–Lowry acid. Because of its more general nature, the Brønsted–Lowry definition is used throughout this text unless otherwise specified.

Polyprotic Acids

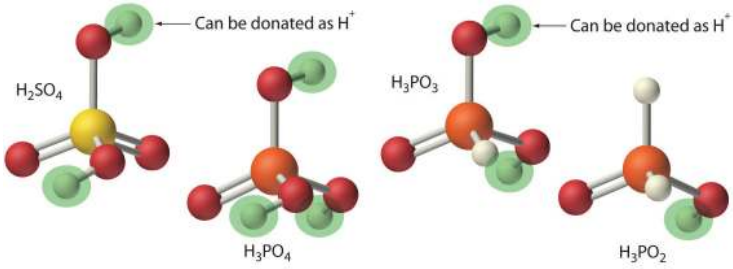
Acids differ in the number of protons they can donate. For example, monoprotic acids (a compound that is capable of donating one proton per molecule) are compounds that are capable of donating a single proton per molecule. Monoprotic acids include HF, HCl, HBr, HI, HNO_3, and HNO_2. All carboxylic acids that contain a single $-CO_2H$ group, such as acetic acid (CH_3CO_2H), are monoprotic acids, dissociating to form RCO_2^- and H^+. A compound that can donate more than one proton per molecule is known as a **polyprotic acid**. For example, H_2SO_4 can donate two H^+ ions in separate steps, so it is a diprotic acid (a compound that can donate two protons per molecule in separate steps) and H_3PO_4, which is capable of donating three protons in successive steps, is a triprotic acid (a compound that can donate three protons per molecule in separate steps), (Equation 5.7.4, Equation 5.7.5, and Equation 5.7.6):

$$H_3PO_4(l) \overset{H_2O(l)}{\rightleftharpoons} H^+(aq) + H_2PO_4^-(aq) \tag{5.7.4}$$

$$H_2PO_4^-(aq) \rightleftharpoons H^+(aq) + HPO_4^{2-}(aq) \tag{5.7.5}$$

$$HPO_4^{2-}(aq) \rightleftharpoons H^+(aq) + PO_4^{3-}(aq) \tag{5.7.6}$$

In chemical equations such as these, a double arrow is used to indicate that both the forward and reverse reactions occur simultaneously, so the forward reaction does not go to completion. Instead, the solution contains significant amounts of both reactants and products. Over time, the reaction reaches a state in which the concentration of each species in solution remains constant. The reaction is then said to be in **equilibrium** (the point at which the rates of the forward and reverse reactions become the same, so that the net composition of the system no longer changes with time).



Ball and stick diagram of sulfuric acid, phosporic acid, phosphorous acid, and hypophosphorous acid with all of the hydrogen atoms highlighted to show availability to be donated as H positive ion.

Strengths of Acids and Bases

We will not discuss the strengths of acids and bases quantitatively until next semester. Qualitatively, however, we can state that **strong acids** react essentially completely with water to give H^+ and the corresponding anion. Similarly, **strong bases** dissociate essentially completely in water to give OH^- and the corresponding cation. Strong acids and strong bases are both strong electrolytes. In contrast, only a fraction of the molecules of weak acids and weak bases react with water to produce ions, so weak acids and weak bases are also weak electrolytes. Typically less than 5% of a weak electrolyte dissociates into ions in solution, whereas more than 95% is present in undissociated form.

In practice, only a few strong acids are commonly encountered: HCl, HBr, HI, HNO_3, $HClO_4$, and H_2SO_4 (H_3PO_4 is only moderately strong). The most common strong bases are ionic compounds that contain the hydroxide ion as the anion; three examples are NaOH, KOH, and $Ca(OH)_2$. Common weak acids include HCN, H_2S, HF, oxoacids such as HNO_2 and HClO, and carboxylic acids such as acetic acid. The ionization reaction of acetic acid is as follows:

$$CH_3CO_2H(l) \overset{H_2O(l)}{\rightleftharpoons} H^+(aq) + CH_3CO_2^-(aq) \tag{5.7.7}$$

Although acetic acid is *very* soluble in water, almost all of the acetic acid in solution exists in the form of neutral molecules (less than 1% dissociates). Sulfuric acid is unusual in that it is a strong acid when it donates its first proton (Equation 5.7.8) but a weak acid when it donates its second proton (Equation 5.7.9) as indicated by the single and double arrows, respectively:

$$\underset{strong\ acid}{H_2SO_4(l)} \xrightarrow{H_2O(l)} H^+(aq) + HSO_4^-(aq) \tag{5.7.8}$$

$$\underset{weak\ acid}{HSO_4^-(aq)} \rightleftharpoons H^+(aq) + SO_4^{2-}(aq) \tag{5.7.9}$$

Consequently, an aqueous solution of sulfuric acid contains $H^+_{(aq)}$ ions and a mixture of $HSO^-_{4\ (aq)}$ and $SO^{2-}_{4\ (aq)}$ ions, but no H_2SO_4 molecules. All other polyprotic acids, such as H_3PO_4, are weak acids.

The most common weak base is ammonia, which reacts with water to form small amounts of hydroxide ion:

$$NH_3(g) + H_2O(l) \rightleftharpoons NH_4^+(aq) + OH^-(aq) \tag{5.7.10}$$

Most of the ammonia (>99%) is present in the form of NH_3(g). Amines, which are organic analogues of ammonia, are also weak bases, as are ionic compounds that contain anions derived from weak acids (such as S^{2-}).

> *There is no correlation between the solubility of a substance and whether it is a strong electrolyte, a weak electrolyte, or a nonelectrolyte.*



Definition of Strong/Weak Acids & Bases: Definition of Strong/Weak Acids & Bases, YouTube (opens in new window) [Definition of Strong] [Definition of Strong] [youtu.be] (opens in new window)

Table 5.7.1 lists some common strong acids and bases. Acids other than the six common strong acids are almost invariably weak acids. The only common strong bases are the hydroxides of the alkali metals and the heavier alkaline earths (Ca, Sr, and Ba); any other bases you encounter are most likely weak. Remember that *there is no correlation between solubility and whether a substance is a strong or a weak electrolyte!* Many weak acids and bases are extremely soluble in water.

Table 5.7.1: Common Strong Acids and Bases

Strong Acids		Strong Bases	
Hydrogen Halides	Oxoacids	Group 1 Hydroxides	Hydroxides of Heavy Group 2 Elements

Strong Acids		Strong Bases	
Hydrogen Halides	Oxoacids	Group 1 Hydroxides	Hydroxides of Heavy Group 2 Elements
HCl	HNO_3	LiOH	$Ca(OH)_2$
HBr	H_2SO_4	NaOH	$Sr(OH)_2$
HI	$HClO_4$	KOH	$Ba(OH)_2$
		RbOH	
		CsOH	

Example 5.7.1: Acid Strength

Classify each compound as a strong acid, a weak acid, a strong base, a weak base, or none of these.

a. $CH_3CH_2CO_2H$
b. CH_3OH
c. $Sr(OH)_2$
d. $CH_3CH_2NH_2$
e. $HBrO_4$

Given: compound

Asked for: acid or base strength

Strategy:

A Determine whether the compound is organic or inorganic.

B If inorganic, determine whether the compound is acidic or basic by the presence of dissociable H^+ or OH^- ions, respectively. If organic, identify the compound as a weak base or a weak acid by the presence of an amine or a carboxylic acid group, respectively. Recall that all polyprotic acids except H_2SO_4 are weak acids.

Solution:

a. **A** This compound is propionic acid, which is organic. **B** It contains a carboxylic acid group analogous to that in acetic acid, so it must be a weak acid.
b. **A** CH_3OH is methanol, an organic compound that contains the −OH group. **B** As a covalent compound, it does not dissociate to form the OH^- ion. Because it does not contain a carboxylic acid ($-CO_2H$) group, methanol also cannot dissociate to form $H^+(aq)$ ions. Thus we predict that in aqueous solution methanol is neither an acid nor a base.
c. **A** $Sr(OH)_2$ is an inorganic compound that contains one Sr^{2+} and two OH^- ions per formula unit. **B** We therefore expect it to be a strong base, similar to $Ca(OH)_2$.
d. **A** $CH_3CH_2NH_2$ is an amine (ethylamine), an organic compound in which one hydrogen of ammonia has been replaced by an R group. **B** Consequently, we expect it to behave similarly to ammonia (Equation 5.7.7), reacting with water to produce small amounts of the OH^- ion. Ethylamine is therefore a weak base.
e. **A** $HBrO_4$ is perbromic acid, an inorganic compound. **B** It is not listed in Table 5.7.1 as one of the common strong acids, but that does not necessarily mean that it is a weak acid. If you examine the periodic table, you can see that Br lies directly below Cl in group 17. We might therefore expect that $HBrO_4$ is chemically similar to $HClO_4$, a strong acid—and, in fact, it is.

Exercise 5.7.1: Acid Strength

Classify each compound as a strong acid, a weak acid, a strong base, a weak base, or none of these.

a. $Ba(OH)_2$
b. HIO_4
c. $CH_3CH_2CH_2CO_2H$

d. $(CH_3)_2NH$
e. CH_2O

Answer a

strong base

Answer b

strong acid

Answer c

weak acid

Answer d

weak base

Answer e

none of these; formaldehyde is a neutral molecule

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5.8: Gas Evolution Reactions

Learning Objectives

- Identify when a reaction will evolve a gas.

Gas Evolving Reactions

A gas evolution reaction is a chemical process that produces a gas, such as oxygen or carbon dioxide. In the following examples, an acid reacts with a carbonate, producing salt, carbon dioxide, and water, respectively. For example, nitric acid reacts with sodium carbonate to form sodium nitrate, carbon dioxide, and water (Table 5.8.1):

$$2\,HNO_3(aq) + Na_2CO_3(aq) \rightarrow 2\,NaNO_3(aq) + CO_2(g) + H_2O(l) \tag{5.8.1}$$

Sulfuric acid reacts with calcium carbonate to form calcium sulfate, carbon dioxide, and water:

$$H_2SO_4(aq) + CaCO_3(aq) \rightarrow CaSO_4(aq) + CO_2(g) + H_2O(l) \tag{5.8.2}$$

Hydrochloric acid reacts with calcium carbonate to form calcium chloride, carbon dioxide, and water:

$$2\,HCl(aq) + CaCO_3(aq) \rightarrow CaCl_2(aq) + CO_2(g) + H_2O(l) \tag{5.8.3}$$

Figure 5.8.1 demonstrates this type of reaction:

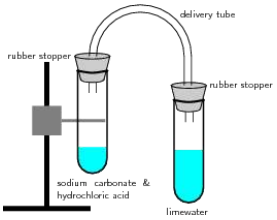


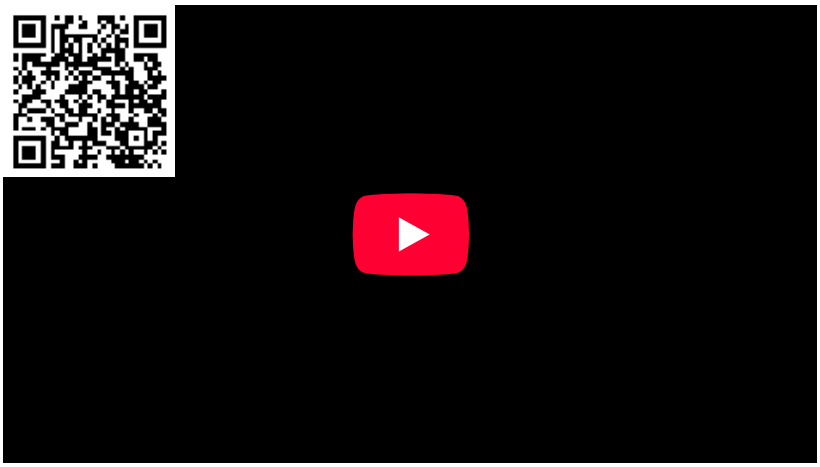
Figure 5.8.1: Reaction of acids with carbonates. In this reaction setup, lime water (water + calcium hydroxide) is poured into one of the test tubes and sealed with a stopper. A small amount of hydrochloric acid is carefully poured into the remaining test tube. A small amount of sodium carbonate is added to the acid, and the tube is sealed with a rubber stopper. The two tubes are connected. As a result of the acid-carbonate reaction, carbon dioxide is produced and the lime water turns milky.

In this reaction setup, lime water, a dilute calcium hydroxide ($Ca(OH)_2$) solution, is poured into one of the test tubes and sealed with a stopper. A small amount of hydrochloric acid is carefully poured into the remaining test tube. A small amount of sodium carbonate is added to the acid, and the tube is sealed with a rubber stopper. The two tubes are connected. As a result of the acid-carbonate reaction, carbon dioxide is produced and the lime water turns milky.

Table 5.8.1: Types of Compounds That Undergo Gas-Evolution Reactions

Reactant Type	Intermediate Product	Gas Evolved	Example
sulfide	none	H_2S	$2\,HCl(aq) + K_2S \rightarrow H_2S(g) + 2\,KCl(a$
carbonates and bicarbonates	H_2CO_3	CO_2	$2\,HCl(aq) + K_2CO_2 \rightarrow H_2O(l) + CO_2$
sulfites and bisulfites	H_2SO_3	SO_2	$2\,HCl(aq) + K_2SO_2 \rightarrow H_2O(l) + SO_2($
ammonia	NH_4OH	NH_3	$NH_4Cl(aq) + KOH \rightarrow H_2O(l) + NH_3($

The gas-evolving experiment lime water is illustrated in the following video:



***Video* 5.8.1:** *Carbon Dioxide (CO_2) & Limewater (Chemical Reaction). As the reaction proceeds, the limewater on the turns from clear to milky; this is due to the $CO_2(g)$ reacting with the aqueous calcium hydroxide to form calcium carbonate, which is only slightly soluble in water.*

When this experiment is repeated with nitric or sulfuric acid instead of HCl, it yields the same results: the clear limewater turns milky, indicating the production of carbon dioxide. Another method to chemically generate gas is the oxidation of metals in acidic solutions. This reaction will yield a metal salt and hydrogen gas.

$$2\,\mathrm{HCl(aq)} + \mathrm{Zn(s)} \rightarrow \mathrm{ZnCl_2(aq)} + \mathrm{H_2(g)} \tag{5.8.4}$$

Here, hydrochloric acid oxidizes zinc to produce an aqueous metal salt and hydrogen gas bubbles. Recall that oxidation refers to a loss of electrons, and reduction refers to the gain of electrons. In the above redox reaction, neutral zinc is oxidized to Zn^{2+}, and the acid, H^+, is reduced to $H_2(g)$. The oxidation of metals by strong acids is another common example of a gas evolution reaction.

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5.9: Oxidation-Reduction Reactions

Learning Objectives

- To identify oxidation–reduction reactions in solution.

The term oxidation was first used to describe reactions in which metals react with oxygen in air to produce metal oxides. When iron is exposed to air in the presence of water, for example, the iron turns to rust—an iron oxide. When exposed to air, aluminum metal develops a continuous, transparent layer of aluminum oxide on its surface. In both cases, the metal acquires a positive charge by transferring electrons to the neutral oxygen atoms of an oxygen molecule. As a result, the oxygen atoms acquire a negative charge and form oxide ions (O^{2-}). Because the metals have lost electrons to oxygen, they have been oxidized; oxidation is therefore the loss of electrons. Conversely, because the oxygen atoms have gained electrons, they have been reduced, so reduction is the gain of electrons. For every oxidation, there must be an associated reduction. Therefore, these reactions are known as oxidation-reduction reactions, or "redox" reactions for short.

> *Any oxidation must ALWAYS be accompanied by a reduction and vice versa.*

Originally, the term reduction referred to the decrease in mass observed when a metal oxide was heated with carbon monoxide, a reaction that was widely used to extract metals from their ores. When solid copper(I) oxide is heated with hydrogen, for example, its mass decreases because the formation of pure copper is accompanied by the loss of oxygen atoms as a volatile product (water vapor). The reaction is as follows:

$$\mathrm{Cu_2O(s) + H_2(g) \rightarrow 2\,Cu(s) + H_2O(g)} \tag{5.9.1}$$

Oxidation-reduction reactions are now defined as reactions that exhibit a change in the oxidation states of one or more elements in the reactants by a transfer of electrons, which follows the mnemonic "oxidation is loss, reduction is gain", or **"oil rig"**. The **oxidation state** of each atom in a compound is the charge an atom would have if all its bonding electrons were transferred to the atom with the greater attraction for electrons. Atoms in their elemental form, such as O_2 or H_2, are assigned an oxidation state of zero. For example, the reaction of aluminum with oxygen to produce aluminum oxide is

$$\mathrm{4\,Al(s) + 3\,O_2 \rightarrow 2\,Al_2O_3(s)} \tag{5.9.2}$$

Each neutral oxygen atom gains two electrons and becomes negatively charged, forming an oxide ion; thus, oxygen has an oxidation state of −2 in the product and has been reduced. Each neutral aluminum atom loses three electrons to produce an aluminum ion with an oxidation state of +3 in the product, so aluminum has been oxidized. In the formation of Al_2O_3, electrons are transferred as follows (the small overset number emphasizes the oxidation state of the elements):

$$\mathrm{4\overset{0}{Al} + 3\overset{0}{O_2} \rightarrow 4\,Al^{3+} + 6\,O^{2-}} \tag{5.9.3}$$

Equation 5.9.1 and Equation 5.9.2 are examples of oxidation–reduction (redox) reactions. In redox reactions, there is a net transfer of electrons from one reactant to another. In any redox reaction, the total number of electrons lost must equal the total of electrons gained to preserve electrical neutrality. In Equation 5.9.3, for example, the total number of electrons lost by aluminum is equal to the total number gained by oxygen:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{electrons lost} &= 4\ \text{Al atoms} \times \frac{3\,e^- \text{ lost}}{\text{Al atom}} \\ &= 12\,e^-\ \text{lost}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{electrons gained} &= 6\ \text{O atoms} \times \frac{2\,e^- \text{ gained}}{\text{O atom}} \\ &= 12\,e^-\ \text{gained}\end{aligned}$$

The same pattern is seen in all oxidation–reduction reactions: the number of electrons lost must equal the number of electrons gained. An additional example of a redox reaction, the reaction of sodium metal with chlorine is illustrated in Figure 5.9.1.

> *In all oxidation–reduction (redox) reactions, the number of electrons lost equals the number of electrons gained.*

Assigning Oxidation States

Assigning oxidation states to the elements in binary ionic compounds is straightforward: the oxidation states of the elements are identical to the charges on the monatomic ions. Previously, you learned how to predict the formulas of simple ionic compounds based on the sign and magnitude of the charge on monatomic ions formed by the neutral elements. Examples of such compounds are sodium chloride (NaCl; Figure 5.9.1), magnesium oxide (MgO), and calcium chloride ($CaCl_2$). In covalent compounds, in contrast, atoms share electrons. However, we can still assign oxidation states to the elements involved by treating them as if they were ionic (that is, as if all the bonding electrons were transferred to the more attractive element). Oxidation states in covalent compounds are somewhat arbitrary, but they are useful bookkeeping devices to help you understand and predict many reactions.

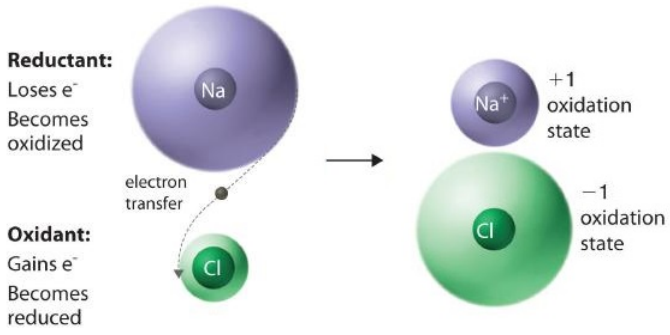


Figure 5.9.1: The Reaction of a Neutral Sodium Atom with a Neutral Chlorine Atom. The result is the transfer of one electron from sodium to chlorine, forming the ionic compound NaCl.

Sodium atom acts as the reductant and chlorine as the oxidant. The result is an oxidation state of positive 1 and negative 1 for sodium and chloride ion respectively.

A set of rules for assigning oxidation states to atoms in chemical compounds follows.

Rules for Assigning Oxidation States

1. The oxidation state of an atom in any pure element, whether monatomic, diatomic, or polyatomic, is zero.
2. The oxidation state of a monatomic ion is the same as its charge—for example, $Na^+ = +1$, $Cl^- = -1$.
3. The oxidation state of fluorine in chemical compounds is always −1. Other halogens usually have oxidation states of −1 as well, except when combined with oxygen or other halogens.
4. Hydrogen is assigned an oxidation state of +1 in its compounds with nonmetals and −1 in its compounds with metals.
5. Oxygen is normally assigned an oxidation state of −2 in compounds, with two exceptions: in compounds that contain oxygen–fluorine or oxygen–oxygen bonds, the oxidation state of oxygen is determined by the oxidation states of the other elements present.
6. The sum of the oxidation states of all the atoms in a neutral molecule or ion must equal the charge on the molecule or ion.

> *Nonintegral (fractional) oxidation states are encountered occasionally. They are usually due to the presence of two or more atoms of the same element with different oxidation states.*

In any chemical reaction, the net charge must be conserved; that is, in a chemical reaction, the total number of electrons is constant, just like the total number of atoms. Consistent with this, rule 1 states that the sum of the individual oxidation states of the atoms in a molecule or ion must equal the net charge on that molecule or ion. In NaCl, for example, Na has an oxidation state of +1 and Cl is −1. The net charge is zero, as it must be for any compound.

Rule 3 is required because fluorine attracts electrons more strongly than any other element, for reasons you will discover in Chapter 6. Hence fluorine provides a reference for calculating the oxidation states of other atoms in chemical compounds. Rule 4 reflects the difference in chemistry observed for compounds of hydrogen with nonmetals (such as chlorine) as opposed to compounds of hydrogen with metals (such as sodium). For example, NaH contains the H^- ion, whereas HCl forms H^+ and Cl^- ions when dissolved in water. Rule 5 is necessary because fluorine has a greater attraction for electrons than oxygen does; this rule also prevents violations of rule 2. So the oxidation state of oxygen is +2 in OF_2 but −½ in KO_2. Note that an oxidation state of −½ for O in KO_2 is perfectly acceptable.

The reduction of copper(I) oxide shown in Equation 5.9.4 demonstrates how to apply these rules. Rule 1 states that atoms in their elemental form have an oxidation state of zero, which applies to H_2 and Cu. From rule 4, hydrogen in H_2O has an oxidation state of +1, and from rule 5, oxygen in both Cu_2O and H_2O has an oxidation state of −2. Rule 6 states that the sum of the oxidation states in a molecule or formula unit must equal the net charge on that compound. This means that each Cu atom in Cu_2O must have a charge of +1: 2(+1) + (−2) = 0. So the oxidation states are as follows:

$$\overset{+1}{\mathrm{Cu}}_2\overset{-2}{\mathrm{O}}(s) + \overset{0}{\mathrm{H}}_2(g) \rightarrow 2\overset{0}{\mathrm{Cu}}(s) + \overset{+1}{\mathrm{H}}_2\overset{-2}{\mathrm{O}}(g) \tag{5.9.4}$$

Assigning oxidation states allows us to see that there has been a net transfer of electrons from hydrogen (0 → +1) to copper (+1 → 0). Thus, this is a redox reaction. Once again, the number of electrons lost equals the number of electrons gained, and there is a net conservation of charge:

$$\text{electrons lost} = 2\ H\ \text{atoms} \times \frac{1\ e^-\ \text{lost}}{H\ \text{atom}} = 2\ e^-\ \text{lost} \tag{5.9.5}$$

$$\text{electrons gained} = 2\ Cu\ \text{atoms} \times \frac{1\ e^-\ \text{gained}}{Cu\ \text{atom}} = 2\ e^-\ \text{gained} \tag{5.9.6}$$

Remember that oxidation states are useful for visualizing the transfer of electrons in oxidation–reduction reactions, but the oxidation state of an atom and its actual charge are the same only for simple ionic compounds. Oxidation states are a convenient way of assigning electrons to atoms, and they are useful for predicting the types of reactions that substances undergo.

Example 5.9.1: Oxidation States

Assign oxidation states to all atoms in each compound.

a. sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6)
b. methanol (CH_3OH)
c. ammonium sulfate [$(NH_4)2SO_4$]
d. magnetite (Fe_3O_4)
e. ethanoic (acetic) acid (CH_3CO_2H)

Given: molecular or empirical formula

Asked for: oxidation states

Strategy:

Begin with atoms whose oxidation states can be determined unambiguously from the rules presented (such as fluorine, other halogens, oxygen, and monatomic ions). Then determine the oxidation states of other atoms present according to rule 1.

Solution:

a. We know from rule 3 that fluorine always has an oxidation state of −1 in its compounds. The six fluorine atoms in sulfur hexafluoride give a total negative charge of −6. Because rule 1 requires that the sum of the oxidation states of all atoms be zero in a neutral molecule (here SF_6), the oxidation state of sulfur must be +6:

[(6 F atoms)(−1)] + [(1 S atom) (+6)] = 0

b. According to rules 4 and 5, hydrogen and oxygen have oxidation states of +1 and −2, respectively. Because methanol has no net charge, carbon must have an oxidation state of −2:

[(4 H atoms)(+1)] + [(1 O atom)(−2)] + [(1 C atom)(−2)] = 0

c. Note that $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ is an ionic compound that consists of both a polyatomic cation (NH_4^+) and a polyatomic anion (SO_4^{2-}) (see Table 2.4). We assign oxidation states to the atoms in each polyatomic ion separately. For NH_4^+, hydrogen has an oxidation state of +1 (rule 4), so nitrogen must have an oxidation state of −3:

[(4 H atoms)(+1)] + [(1 N atom)(−3)] = +1, the charge on the NH_4^+ ion

For SO42−, oxygen has an oxidation state of −2 (rule 5), so sulfur must have an oxidation state of +6:

[(4 O atoms) (−2)] + [(1 S atom)(+6)] = −2, the charge on the sulfate ion

d. Oxygen has an oxidation state of −2 (rule 5), giving an overall charge of −8 per formula unit. This must be balanced by the positive charge on three iron atoms, giving an oxidation state of +8/3 for iron:

$$[(4\text{ O atoms})(-2)]+[(3\text{ Fe atoms})\left(+\tfrac{8}{3}\right)]= 0$$

Fractional oxidation states are allowed because oxidation states are a somewhat arbitrary way of keeping track of electrons. In fact, Fe_3O_4 can be viewed as having two Fe^{3+} ions and one Fe^{2+} ion per formula unit, giving a net positive charge of +8 per formula unit. Fe_3O_4 is a magnetic iron ore commonly called magnetite. In ancient times, magnetite was known as lodestone because it could be used to make primitive compasses that pointed toward Polaris (the North Star), which was called the "lodestar."

e. Initially, we assign oxidation states to the components of CH_3CO_2H in the same way as any other compound. Hydrogen and oxygen have oxidation states of +1 and −2 (rules 4 and 5, respectively), resulting in a total charge for hydrogen and oxygen of

$$[(4\text{ H atoms})(+1)] + [(2\text{ O atoms})(-2)] = 0$$

So the oxidation state of carbon must also be zero (rule 6). This is, however, an average oxidation state for the two carbon atoms present. Because each carbon atom has a different set of atoms bonded to it, they are likely to have different oxidation states. To determine the oxidation states of the individual carbon atoms, we use the same rules as before but with the additional assumption that bonds between atoms of the same element do not affect the oxidation states of those atoms. The carbon atom of the methyl group ($-CH_3$) is bonded to three hydrogen atoms and one carbon atom. We know from rule 4 that hydrogen has an oxidation state of +1, and we have just said that the carbon–carbon bond can be ignored in calculating the oxidation state of the carbon atom. For the methyl group to be electrically neutral, its carbon atom must have an oxidation state of −3. Similarly, the carbon atom of the carboxylic acid group ($-CO_2H$) is bonded to one carbon atom and two oxygen atoms. Again ignoring the bonded carbon atom, we assign oxidation states of −2 and +1 to the oxygen and hydrogen atoms, respectively, leading to a net charge of

$$[(2\text{ O atoms})(-2)] + [(1\text{ H atom})(+1)] = -3$$

To obtain an electrically neutral carboxylic acid group, the charge on this carbon must be +3. The oxidation states of the individual atoms in acetic acid are thus

$$\overset{-3}{C}\overset{+1}{H_3}\overset{+3}{C}\overset{-2}{O_2}\overset{+1}{H}$$

Thus the sum of the oxidation states of the two carbon atoms is indeed zero.

? Exercise 5.9.1: Oxidation States

Assign oxidation states to all atoms in each compound.

a. barium fluoride (BaF_2)
b. formaldehyde (CH_2O)
c. potassium dichromate ($K_2Cr_2O_7$)
d. cesium oxide (CsO_2)
e. ethanol (CH_3CH_2OH)

Answer a

Ba, +2; F, −1

Answer b

C, 0; H, +1; O, −2

Answer c

K, +1; Cr, +6; O, −2

Answer d

Cs, +1; O, −½

Answer e

C, −3; H, +1; C, −1; H, +1; O, −2; H, +1

Types of Redox Reactions

Many types of chemical reactions are classified as redox reactions, and it would be impossible to memorize all of them. However, there are a few important types of redox reactions that you are likely to encounter and should be familiar with. These include:

- **Synthesis** reactions: The formation of any compound directly from the elements is a redox reaction, for example, the formation of water from hydrogen and oxygen:

$$2\,H_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2\,H_2O(g)$$

- **Decomposition** reactions: Conversely, the decomposition of a compound to its elements is also a redox reaction, as in the electrolysis of water:

$$2\,H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2\,H_2(g) + O_2(g)$$

- **Combustion** reactions: Many chemicals combust (burn) with oxygen. In particular, organic chemicals such as hydrocarbons burn in the presence of oxygen to produce carbon dioxide and water as the products:

$$CH_4(g) + 2\,O_2(g) \rightarrow CO_2(g) + 2\,H_2O(g)$$

The following sections describe another important class of redox reactions: single-displacement reactions of metals in solution.

Redox Reactions of Solid Metals in Aqueous Solution

- A widely encountered class of oxidation–reduction reactions is the reaction of aqueous solutions of acids or metal salts with solid metals. An example is the corrosion of metal objects, such as the rusting of an automobile (Figure 5.9.2). Rust is formed from a complex oxidation–reduction reaction involving dilute acid solutions that contain Cl^- ions (effectively, dilute HCl), iron metal, and oxygen. When an object rusts, iron metal reacts with HCl(aq) to produce iron(II) chloride and hydrogen gas:

$$Fe(s) + 2\,HCl(aq) \rightarrow FeCl_2(aq) + H_2(g) \tag{5.9.7}$$

  In subsequent steps, $FeCl_2$ undergoes oxidation to form a reddish-brown precipitate of $Fe(OH)_3$.



Figure 5.9.2: Rust Formation. The corrosion process involves an oxidation–reduction reaction in which metallic iron is converted to $Fe(OH)_3$, a reddish-brown solid.

Many metals dissolve through reactions of this type, which have the general form

$$\text{metal} + \text{acid} \rightarrow \text{salt} + \text{hydrogen} \tag{5.9.8}$$

Some of these reactions have important consequences. For example, it has been proposed that one factor that contributed to the fall of the Roman Empire was the widespread use of lead in cooking utensils and pipes that carried water. Rainwater, as we

have seen, is slightly acidic, and foods such as fruits, wine, and vinegar contain organic acids. In the presence of these acids, lead dissolves:

$$\mathrm{Pb(s) + 2\,H^+(aq) \rightarrow Pb^{2+}(aq) + H_2(g)} \tag{5.9.9}$$

Consequently, it has been speculated that both the water and the food consumed by Romans contained toxic levels of lead, which resulted in widespread lead poisoning and eventual madness. Perhaps this explains why the Roman Emperor Caligula appointed his favorite horse as consul!

- ## Single-Displacement Reactions

Certain metals are oxidized by aqueous acid, whereas others are oxidized by aqueous solutions of various metal salts. Both types of reactions are called single-displacement reactions, in which the ion in solution is displaced through oxidation of the metal. Two examples of single-displacement reactions are the reduction of iron salts by zinc (Equation 5.9.10) and the reduction of silver salts by copper (Equation 5.9.11 and Figure 5.9.3):

$$\mathrm{Zn(s) + Fe^{2+}(aq) \rightarrow Zn^{2+}(aq) + Fe(s)} \tag{5.9.10}$$

$$\mathrm{Cu(s) + 2\,Ag^+(aq) \rightarrow Cu^{2+}(aq) + 2\,Ag(s)} \tag{5.9.11}$$

The reaction in Equation 5.9.10 is widely used to prevent (or at least postpone) the corrosion of iron or steel objects, such as nails and sheet metal. The process of “galvanizing” consists of applying a thin coating of zinc to the iron or steel, thus protecting it from oxidation as long as zinc remains on the object.



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- ## The Activity Series

By observing what happens when samples of various metals are placed in contact with solutions of other metals, chemists have arranged the metals according to the relative ease or difficulty with which they can be oxidized in a single-displacement reaction. For example, metallic zinc reacts with iron salts, and metallic copper reacts with silver salts. Experimentally, it is found that zinc reacts with both copper salts and silver salts, producing $\mathrm{Zn_2^+}$. Zinc therefore has a greater tendency to be oxidized than does iron, copper, or silver. Although zinc will not react with magnesium salts to give magnesium metal, magnesium metal will react with zinc salts to give zinc metal:

$$\mathrm{Zn(s) + Mg^{2+}(aq) \not\rightarrow Zn^{2+}(aq) + Mg(s)} \tag{5.9.12}$$

$$\mathrm{Mg(s) + Zn^{2+}(aq) \rightarrow Mg^{2+}(aq) + Zn(s)} \tag{5.9.13}$$

Magnesium has a greater tendency to be oxidized than zinc does.

Pairwise reactions of this sort are the basis of the activity series (Figure 5.9.4), which lists metals and hydrogen in order of their relative tendency to be oxidized. The metals at the top of the series, which have the greatest tendency to lose electrons, are the alkali metals (group 1), the alkaline earth metals (group 2), and Al (group 13). In contrast, the metals at the bottom of the series, which have the lowest tendency to be oxidized, are the precious metals or coinage metals—platinum, gold, silver, and copper, and mercury, which are located in the lower right portion of the metals in the periodic table. You should be generally familiar with which kinds of metals are active metals, which have the greatest tendency to be oxidized. (located at the top of the series) and which are inert metals, which have the least tendency to be oxidized. (at the bottom of the series).

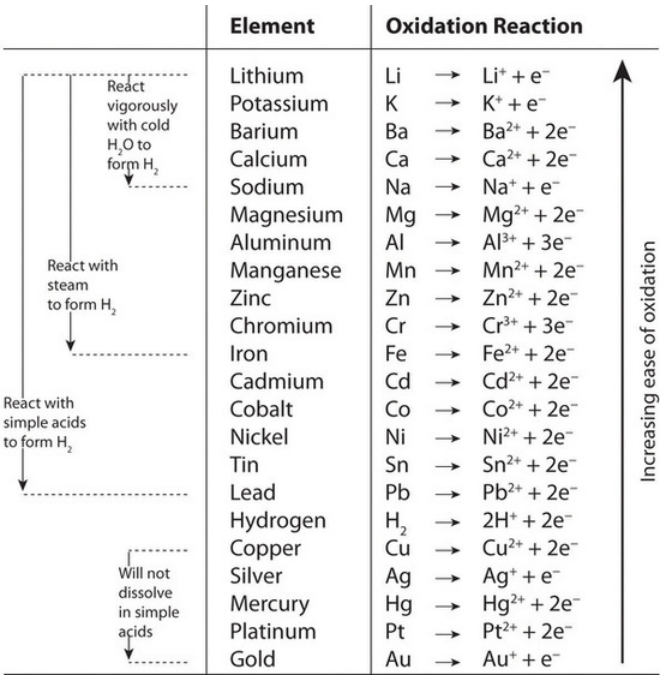


Figure 5.9.4: The Activity Series

When using the activity series to predict the outcome of a reaction, keep in mind that *any element will reduce compounds of the elements below it in the series*. Because magnesium is above zinc in Figure 5.9.4, magnesium metal will reduce zinc salts but not vice versa. Similarly, the precious metals are at the bottom of the activity series, so virtually any other metal will reduce precious metal salts to the pure precious metals. Hydrogen is included in the series, and the tendency of a metal to react with an acid is indicated by its position relative to hydrogen in the activity series. *Only those metals that lie above hydrogen in the activity series dissolve in acids to produce H_2.* Because the precious metals lie below hydrogen, they do not dissolve in dilute acid and therefore do not corrode readily. Example 5.9.2 demonstrates how a familiarity with the activity series allows you to predict the products of many single-displacement reactions.

✔ Example 5.9.2: Activity

Using the activity series, predict what happens in each situation. If a reaction occurs, write the net ionic equation.

a. A strip of aluminum foil is placed in an aqueous solution of silver nitrate.
b. A few drops of liquid mercury are added to an aqueous solution of lead(II) acetate.
c. Some sulfuric acid from a car battery is accidentally spilled on the lead cable terminals.

Given: reactants

Asked for: overall reaction and net ionic equation

Strategy:

A. Locate the reactants in the activity series in Figure 5.9.4 and from their relative positions, predict whether a reaction will occur. If a reaction does occur, identify which metal is oxidized and which is reduced.
B. Write the net ionic equation for the redox reaction.

Solution:

1. **A** Aluminum is an active metal that lies above silver in the activity series, so we expect a reaction to occur. According to their relative positions, aluminum will be oxidized and dissolve, and silver ions will be reduced to silver metal. **B** The net ionic equation is as follows:

$$\mathrm{Al(s) + 3\,Ag^+(aq) \rightarrow Al^{3+}(aq) + 3\,Ag(s)}$$

Recall from our discussion of solubilities that most nitrate salts are soluble. In this case, the nitrate ions are spectator ions and are not involved in the reaction.

2. **A** Mercury lies below lead in the activity series, so no reaction will occur.
3. **A** Lead is above hydrogen in the activity series, so the lead terminals will be oxidized, and the acid will be reduced to form H_2. **B** From our discussion of solubilities, recall that Pb^{2+} and SO_4^{2-} form insoluble lead(II) sulfate. In this case, the sulfate ions are *not* spectator ions, and the reaction is as follows:

$$\mathrm{Pb(s) + 2\,H^+(aq) + SO_4^{2-}(aq) \rightarrow PbSO_4(s) + H_2(g)}$$

Lead(II) sulfate is the white solid that forms on corroded battery terminals.



Corroded battery terminals. *The white solid is lead(II) sulfate, formed from the reaction of solid lead with a solution of sulfuric acid.*

? Exercise 5.9.2

Using the activity series, predict what happens in each situation. If a reaction occurs, write the net ionic equation.

a. A strip of chromium metal is placed in an aqueous solution of aluminum chloride.
b. A strip of zinc is placed in an aqueous solution of chromium(III) nitrate.
c. A piece of aluminum foil is dropped into a glass that contains vinegar (the active ingredient is acetic acid).

Answer a

$no\,reaction$

Answer b

$3Zn(s) + 2Cr^{3+}(aq) \rightarrow 3Zn^{2+}(aq) + 2Cr(s)$

Answer c

\(2Al(s) + 6CH_3CO_2H(aq) \rightarrow 2Al^{3+}(aq) + 6CH_3CO_2^-(aq) + 3H_2(g)\

Summary

Oxidation–reduction reactions are balanced by separating the overall chemical equation into an oxidation equation and a reduction equation. In oxidation–reduction reactions, electrons are transferred from one substance or atom to another. We can balance oxidation–reduction reactions in solution using the **oxidation state method** (Table 5.9.1), in which the overall reaction is separated into an oxidation equation and a reduction equation. There are many types of redox reactions. **Single-displacement reactions** are reactions of metals with either acids or another metal salt that result in dissolution of the first metal and precipitation of a second (or evolution of hydrogen gas). The outcome of these reactions can be predicted using the **activity series** (Figure 5.9.4), which arranges metals and H_2 in decreasing order of their tendency to be oxidized. Any metal will reduce metal ions below it in the activity series. **Active metals** lie at the top of the activity series, whereas **inert metals** are at the bottom of the activity series.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

6: Gases

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6.1: Water from Wells- Atmospheric Pressure at Work

A water well is an excavation or structure created in the ground by digging, driving, boring, or drilling to access groundwater in underground aquifers. The well water is often drawn by a pump (Figure 6.1.1). Unfortunately, it impossible to pump water from very deep in the ground with just a surface pump. The key to understanding why is realizing that suction generated by the pump is not a force, but simply removing an opposing force to the force of air pressure which is already there. When you stick a pipe down a deep hole into a pool of water at the bottom of a well, air inside the pipe is pushing down on the water in the pipe, and air outside the pipe is pushing down on the water outside the pipe, which in turn pushes up on water inside the pipe - all is in a balance.



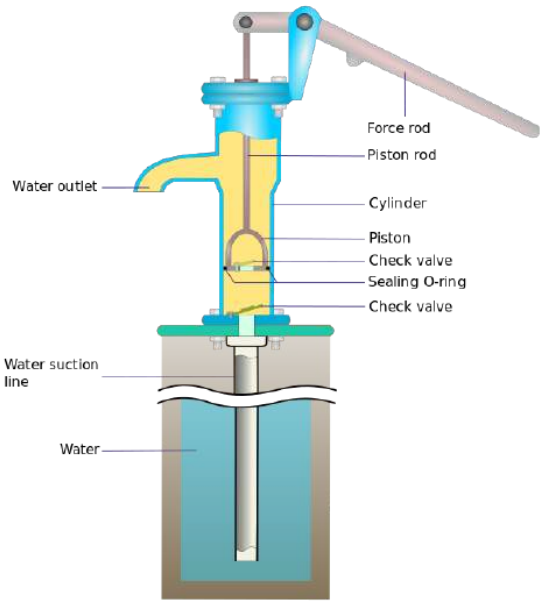
A man operating a hand pump with his left hand while his right hand is holding a basin to collect water.

Figure* 6.1.1*: *The manual water pump draws water up from a well by creating a vacuum that water rushes in to fill. Hand pump to pump water from a well in a village near Chennai in India. (CC by 2.0; Sustainable Sanitation Alliance).*

Let's say you suck out the air inside the pipe. The water is pushed up the the same as it was before, but there is no counter acting force pushing the water down, so it begins to rise inside the pipe (Figure 6.1.2). So far so good, but the water stops rising at some height since the water is pulled down by gravity (i.e., the more water in the pipe, the more it weighs). Since the force of the air outside the pipe is not changing, eventually the weight of the water is equal to the air pressure outside the pipe. When this happens, the system is in balance again and water stops flowing.

> *Suction is not a force, the atmospheric pressure is.*

Water is pumped from a well by creating a partial vacuum above the water by the pump. The amount of vacuum is equal to the weight of the column of water from the water table to the surface. Atmospheric pressure at sea level is 760 mm of mercury ($1.01 \times 10^5\ Pascals$), which is equivalent to a 10.3-meter column of water. This is how deep water can be pumped from (with a surface pump; other pressurized pumps can go deeper).



The parts listed are force rod, piston rod, cylinder, piston, check valve, sealing O-ring, check valve, water outlet, water suction line and the actual water itself.

***Figure* 6.1.2:** *Cross section and details of a surface pump used in a well. (CC BY-SA 3.0; Manco Capac).*

6.1: Water from Wells- Atmospheric Pressure at Work is shared under a not declared license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by LibreTexts.

6.2: Pressure- The Result of Particle Collisions

Learning Objectives

- Define the property of pressure
- Define and convert among the units of pressure measurements
- Describe the operation of common tools for measuring gas pressure
- Calculate pressure from manometer data

The earth's atmosphere exerts a pressure, as does any other gas. Although we do not normally notice atmospheric pressure, we are sensitive to pressure changes—for example, when your ears "pop" during take-off and landing while flying, or when you dive underwater. Gas pressure is caused by the force exerted by gas molecules colliding with the surfaces of objects (Figure 6.2.1). Although the force of each collision is very small, any surface of appreciable area experiences a large number of collisions in a short time, which can result in a high pressure. In fact, normal air pressure is strong enough to crush a metal container when not balanced by equal pressure from inside the container.

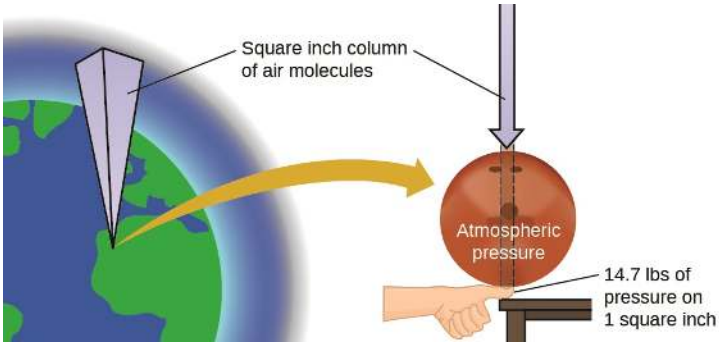


Figure 6.2.1: The atmosphere above us exerts a large pressure on objects at the surface of the earth, roughly equal to the weight of a bowling ball pressing on an area the size of a human thumbnail.
Diagram of Earth with a square inch column of air molecules extending to the atmosphere. This column points to an arrow pointing down on a bowling ball resting on a human thumbnail placed on top of a table.

Atmospheric pressure is caused by the weight of the column of air molecules in the atmosphere above an object, such as the tanker car. At sea level, this pressure is roughly the same as that exerted by a full-grown African elephant standing on a doormat, or a typical bowling ball resting on your thumbnail. These may seem like huge amounts, and they are, but life on earth has evolved under such atmospheric pressure. If you actually perch a bowling ball on your thumbnail, the pressure experienced is twice the usual pressure, and the sensation is unpleasant.



A dramatic illustration of atmospheric pressure is provided in this brief video, which shows a railway tanker car imploding when its internal pressure is decreased.

Pressure is defined as the force exerted on a given area:

$$P = \frac{F}{A} \tag{6.2.1}$$

Since pressure is directly proportional to force and inversely proportional to area (Equation 6.2.1), pressure can be increased either by either **increasing** the amount of force or by **decreasing** the area over which it is applied. Correspondingly, pressure can be decreased by either **decreasing** the force or **increasing** the area.

Let's apply the definition of pressure (Equation 6.2.1) to determine which would be more likely to fall through thin ice in Figure 6.2.2—the elephant or the figure skater?



Figure 6.2.2: Although (a) an elephant's weight is large, creating a very large force on the ground, (b) the figure skater exerts a much higher pressure on the ice due to the small surface area of her skates. (credit a: modification of work by Guido da Rozze; credit b: modification of work by Ryosuke Yagi).

Figure a is a photo of a large gray elephant on grassy, beige terrain. Figure b is a photo of a figure skater with her right skate on the ice, upper torso lowered, arms extended upward behind her chest, and left leg extended upward behind her.

A large African elephant can weigh 7 tons, supported on four feet, each with a diameter of about 1.5 ft (footprint area of 250 in^2), so the pressure exerted by each foot is about 14 lb/in^2:

$$\text{pressure per elephant foot} = 14,000 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{elephant}} \times \frac{1 \text{ elephant}}{4 \text{ feet}} \times \frac{1 \text{ foot}}{250 \text{ in}^2} = 14 \text{ lb/in}^2 \tag{6.2.2}$$

The figure skater weighs about 120 lbs, supported on two skate blades, each with an area of about 2 in^2, so the pressure exerted by each blade is about 30 lb/in^2:

$$\text{pressure per skate blade} = 120 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{skater}} \times \frac{1 \text{ skater}}{2 \text{ blades}} \times \frac{1 \text{ blade}}{2 \text{ in}^2} = 30 \text{ lb/in}^2 \tag{6.2.3}$$

Even though the elephant is more than one hundred times heavier than the skater, it exerts less than one-half of the pressure and would therefore be less likely to fall through thin ice. On the other hand, if the skater removes her skates and stands with bare feet (or regular footwear) on the ice, the larger area over which her weight is applied greatly reduces the pressure exerted:

$$\text{pressure per human foot} = 120 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{skater}} \times \frac{1 \text{ skater}}{2 \text{ feet}} \times \frac{1 \text{ foot}}{30 \text{ in}^2} = 2 \text{ lb/in}^2 \tag{6.2.4}$$

The SI unit of pressure is the pascal (Pa), with 1 Pa = 1 N/m^2, where N is the newton, a unit of force defined as 1 kg m/s^2. One pascal is a small pressure; in many cases, it is more convenient to use units of kilopascal (1 kPa = 1000 Pa) or bar (1 bar = 100,000 Pa). In the United States, pressure is often measured in pounds of force on an area of one square inch—pounds per square inch (psi)—for example, in car tires. Pressure can also be measured using the unit atmosphere (atm), which originally represented the average sea level air pressure at the approximate latitude of Paris (45°). Table 6.2.1 provides some information on these and a few other common units for pressure measurements

Table 6.2.1: Pressure Units

Unit Name and Abbreviation	Definition or Relation to Other Unit	Comment
pascal (Pa)	1 Pa = 1 N/m^2	recommended IUPAC unit
kilopascal (kPa)	1 kPa = 1000 Pa	
pounds per square inch (psi)	air pressure at sea level is ~14.7 psi	
atmosphere (atm)	1 atm = 101,325 Pa	air pressure at sea level is ~1 atm

Unit Name and Abbreviation	Definition or Relation to Other Unit	Comment
bar (bar, or b)	1 bar = 100,000 Pa (exactly)	commonly used in meteorology
millibar (mbar, or mb)	1000 mbar = 1 bar	
inches of mercury (in. Hg)	1 in. Hg = 3386 Pa	used by aviation industry, also some weather reports
torr	$1\text{ torr} = \frac{1}{760}\text{ atm}$	named after Evangelista Torricelli, inventor of the barometer
millimeters of mercury (mm Hg)	1 mm Hg ~1 torr	

Example 6.2.1: Conversion of Pressure Units

The United States National Weather Service reports pressure in both inches of Hg and millibars. Convert a pressure of 29.2 in. Hg into:

a. torr
b. atm
c. kPa
d. mbar

Solution

This is a unit conversion problem. The relationships between the various pressure units are given in Table 9.2.1.

a. $29.2\ \cancel{\text{in Hg}} \times \frac{25.4\ \cancel{\text{mm}}}{1\ \cancel{\text{in}}} \times \frac{1\text{ torr}}{1\ \cancel{\text{mm Hg}}} = 742\text{ torr}$

b. $742\ \cancel{\text{torr}} \times \frac{1\text{ atm}}{760\ \cancel{\text{torr}}} = 0.976\text{ atm}$

c. $742\ \cancel{\text{torr}} \times \frac{101.325\text{ kPa}}{760\ \cancel{\text{torr}}} = 98.9\text{ kPa}$

d. $98.9\ \cancel{\text{kPa}} \times \frac{1000\ \cancel{\text{Pa}}}{1\ \cancel{\text{kPa}}} \times \frac{1\ \cancel{\text{bar}}}{100,000\ \cancel{\text{Pa}}} \times \frac{1000\text{ mbar}}{1\ \cancel{\text{bar}}} = 989\text{ mbar}$

Exercise 6.2.1

A typical barometric pressure in Kansas City is 740 torr. What is this pressure in atmospheres, in millimeters of mercury, in kilopascals, and in bar?

Answer

0.974 atm; 740 mm Hg; 98.7 kPa; 0.987 bar

We can measure atmospheric pressure, the force exerted by the atmosphere on the earth's surface, with a barometer (Figure 6.2.3). A barometer is a glass tube that is closed at one end, filled with a nonvolatile liquid such as mercury, and then inverted and immersed in a container of that liquid. The atmosphere exerts pressure on the liquid outside the tube, the column of liquid exerts pressure inside the tube, and the pressure at the liquid surface is the same inside and outside the tube. The height of the liquid in the tube is therefore proportional to the pressure exerted by the atmosphere.

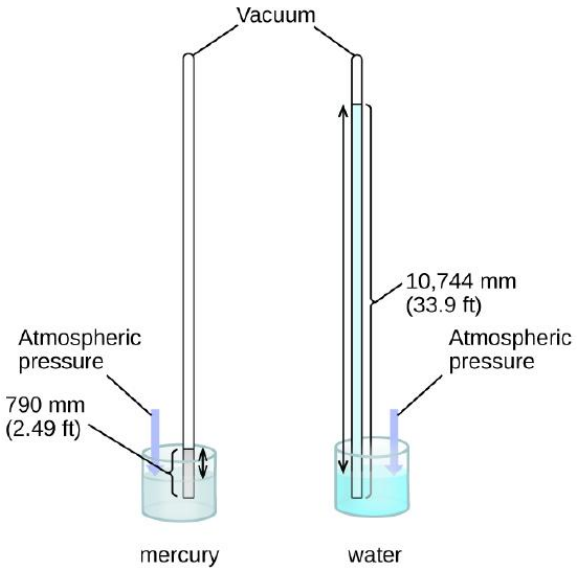


Figure 6.2.3: In a barometer, the height, h, of the column of liquid is used as a measurement of the air pressure. Using very dense liquid mercury (left) permits the construction of reasonably sized barometers, whereas using water (right) would require a barometer more than 30 feet tall.

Two barometers are in vacuum. One utilizes mercury while the other uses water in the capillary tube. Both barometers are exposed to atmospheric pressure. The barometer with mercury shows mercury levels of 2.49 feet. The barometer with water has a much greater level of 33.9 feet.

If the liquid is water, normal atmospheric pressure will support a column of water over 10 meters high, which is rather inconvenient for making (and reading) a barometer. Because mercury (Hg) is about 13.6-times denser than water, a mercury barometer only needs to be $\frac{1}{13.6}$ as tall as a water barometer—a more suitable size. Standard atmospheric pressure of 1 atm at sea level (101,325 Pa) corresponds to a column of mercury that is about 760 mm (29.92 in.) high. The torr was originally intended to be a unit equal to one millimeter of mercury, but it no longer corresponds exactly. The pressure exerted by a fluid due to gravity is known as hydrostatic pressure, p:

$$p = h\rho g \tag{6.2.5}$$

where

- h is the height of the fluid,
- ρ is the density of the fluid, and
- g is acceleration due to gravity.

Example 6.2.2: Calculation of Barometric Pressure

Show the calculation supporting the claim that atmospheric pressure near sea level corresponds to the pressure exerted by a column of mercury that is about 760 mm high. The density of mercury = $13.6\ g/cm^3$.

Solution

The hydrostatic pressure is given by Equation 6.2.5, with $h = 760\ mm$, $\rho = 13.6\ g/cm^3$, and $g = 9.81\ m/s^2$. Plugging these values into the Equation 6.2.5 and doing the necessary unit conversions will give us the value we seek. (Note: We are expecting to find a pressure of ~101,325 Pa:)

$$101,325\ N/\mathrm{m}^2 = 101,325\ \frac{\mathrm{kg}\cdot\mathrm{m/s}^2}{\mathrm{m}^2} = 101,325\ \frac{\mathrm{kg}}{\mathrm{m}\cdot\mathrm{s}^2}$$

$$p = \left(760\ \mathrm{mm}\times\frac{1\ \mathrm{m}}{1000\ \mathrm{mm}}\right)\times\left(\frac{13.6\ \mathrm{g}}{1\ \mathrm{cm}^3}\times\frac{1\ \mathrm{kg}}{1000\ \mathrm{g}}\times\frac{(100\ \mathrm{cm})^3}{(1\ \mathrm{m})^3}\right)\times\left(\frac{9.81\ \mathrm{m}}{1\ \mathrm{s}^2}\right)$$

$$= (0.760\ \mathrm{m})(13,600\ \mathrm{kg/m}^3)(9.81\ \mathrm{m/s}^2) = 1.01\times10^5\ \mathrm{kg/ms}^2 = 1.01\times10^5 N/\mathrm{m}^2$$

$$= 1.01\times10^5\ \mathrm{Pa}$$

Exercise 6.2.2

Calculate the height of a column of water at 25 °C that corresponds to normal atmospheric pressure. The density of water at this temperature is 1.0 g/cm^3.

Answer

10.3 m

A manometer is a device similar to a barometer that can be used to measure the pressure of a gas trapped in a container. A closed-end manometer is a U-shaped tube with one closed arm, one arm that connects to the gas to be measured, and a nonvolatile liquid (usually mercury) in between. As with a barometer, the distance between the liquid levels in the two arms of the tube (*h* in the diagram) is proportional to the pressure of the gas in the container. An open-end manometer (Figure 6.2.3) is the same as a closed-end manometer, but one of its arms is open to the atmosphere. In this case, the distance between the liquid levels corresponds to the difference in pressure between the gas in the container and the atmosphere.

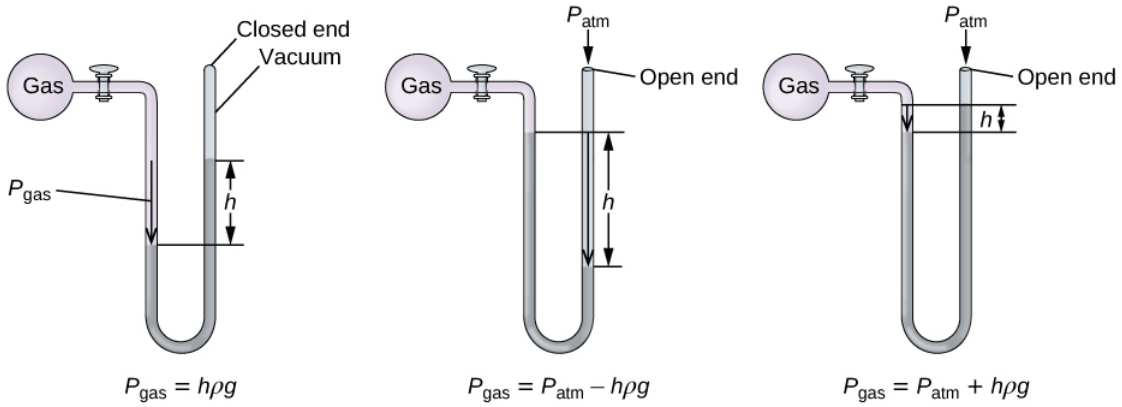


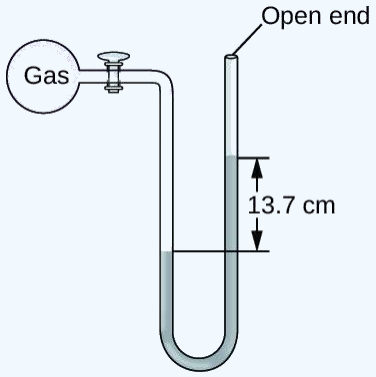
Figure 6.2.4: A manometer can be used to measure the pressure of a gas. The (difference in) height between the liquid levels (h) is a measure of the pressure. Mercury is usually used because of its large density.

The first manometer is closed end. The gas in the bulb exerts a certain pressure on the liquid in the tube so that the height, h, between the two levels of liquid on both sides of the U tube is proportional to the pressure. The equation is P subscript gas equals to h rho g. The second manometer has an open end. The equation for P subscript gas is equals to P subscript atm minus h rho g. The final manometer is also open ended and has equation of P subscript gas equals to P subscript atm plus h rho g for cases where pressure of the gas is greater than atmospheric pressure.

Example 6.2.3: Calculation of Pressure Using an Open-End Manometer

The pressure of a sample of gas is measured at sea level with an open-end Hg (mercury) manometer, as shown below. Determine the pressure of the gas in:

a. mm Hg
b. atm
c. kPa



The height is the difference between the two levels of mercury on each side of the U tube and has a value of 13.7 centimeters. The level on the right side is higher than the left.

Solution

The pressure of the gas equals the hydrostatic pressure due to a column of mercury of height 13.7 cm plus the pressure of the atmosphere at sea level. (The pressure at the bottom horizontal line is equal on both sides of the tube. The pressure on the left is due to the gas and the pressure on the right is due to 13.7 cm of Hg plus atmospheric pressure.)

a. In mm Hg, this is: 137 mm Hg + 760 mm Hg = 897 mm Hg

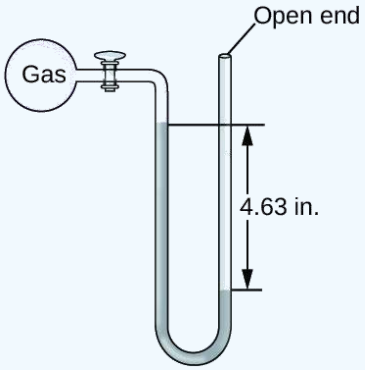
b. $897\ \cancel{\text{mmHg}} \times \dfrac{1\ \text{atm}}{760\ \cancel{\text{mmHg}}} = 1.18\ \text{atm}$

c. $1.18\ \cancel{\text{atm}} \times \dfrac{101.325\ \text{kPa}}{1\ \cancel{\text{atm}}} = 1.20 \times 10^2\ \text{kPa}$

Exercise 6.2.3

The pressure of a sample of gas is measured at sea level with an open-end Hg manometer, as shown below Determine the pressure of the gas in:

a. mm Hg
b. atm
c. kPa



The height is the difference between the two levels of mercury on each side of the U tube and has a value of 4.63 inches. The level on the left side is higher than the right.

Answer a

642 mm Hg

Answer b

0.845 atm

Answer c

85.6 kPa

Application: Measuring Blood Pressure

Blood pressure is measured using a device called a sphygmomanometer (Greek *sphygmos* = “pulse”). It consists of an inflatable cuff to restrict blood flow, a manometer to measure the pressure, and a method of determining when blood flow begins and when it becomes impeded (Figure 6.2.5). Since its invention in 1881, it has been an essential medical device. There are many types of sphygmomanometers: manual ones that require a stethoscope and are used by medical professionals; mercury ones, used when the most accuracy is required; less accurate mechanical ones; and digital ones that can be used with little training but that have limitations. When using a sphygmomanometer, the cuff is placed around the upper arm and inflated until blood flow is completely blocked, then slowly released. As the heart beats, blood forced through the arteries causes a rise in pressure. This rise in pressure at which blood flow begins is the *systolic pressure*—the peak pressure in the cardiac cycle. When the cuff’s pressure equals the arterial systolic pressure, blood flows past the cuff, creating audible sounds that can be heard using a stethoscope. This is followed by a decrease in pressure as the heart’s ventricles prepare for another beat. As cuff pressure continues to decrease, eventually sound is no longer heard; this is the *diastolic pressure*—the lowest pressure (resting phase) in the cardiac cycle. Blood pressure units from a sphygmomanometer are in terms of millimeters of mercury (mm Hg).



Figure 6.2.5: (a) A medical technician prepares to measure a patient’s blood pressure with a sphygmomanometer. (b) A typical sphygmomanometer uses a valved rubber bulb to inflate the cuff and a diaphragm gauge to measure pressure. (credit a: modification of work by Master Sgt. Jeffrey Allen)

Meteorology, Climatology, and Atmospheric Science

Throughout the ages, people have observed clouds, winds, and precipitation, trying to discern patterns and make predictions: when it is best to plant and harvest; whether it is safe to set out on a sea voyage; and much more. We now face complex weather and atmosphere-related challenges that will have a major impact on our civilization and the ecosystem. Several different scientific disciplines use chemical principles to help us better understand weather, the atmosphere, and climate. These are meteorology, climatology, and atmospheric science. Meteorology is the study of the atmosphere, atmospheric phenomena, and atmospheric effects on earth’s weather. Meteorologists seek to understand and predict the weather in the short term, which can save lives and benefit the economy. Weather forecasts (Figure 6.2.5) are the result of thousands of measurements of air pressure, temperature, and the like, which are compiled, modeled, and analyzed in weather centers worldwide.

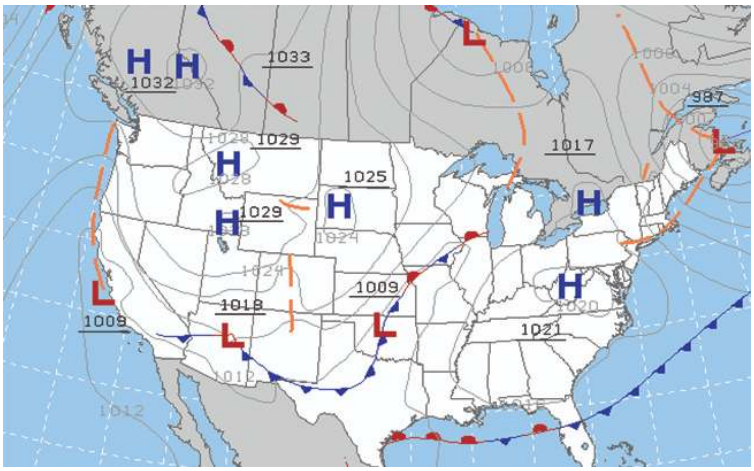


Figure 6.2.6: Meteorologists use weather maps to describe and predict weather. Regions of high (H) and low (L) pressure have large effects on weather conditions. The gray lines represent locations of constant pressure known as isobars. (credit: modification of work by National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration)

A weather map of the United States is shown which points out areas of high and low pressure with the letters H in blue and L in red. There are curved grey lines throughout the United States region as well as beyond it around area of Canada and the oceans.

In terms of weather, low-pressure systems occur when the earth's surface atmospheric pressure is lower than the surrounding environment: Moist air rises and condenses, producing clouds. Movement of moisture and air within various weather fronts instigates most weather events.

The atmosphere is the gaseous layer that surrounds a planet. Earth's atmosphere, which is roughly 100–125 km thick, consists of roughly 78.1% nitrogen and 21.0% oxygen, and can be subdivided further into the regions shown in Figure 6.2.7: the exosphere (furthest from earth, > 700 km above sea level), the thermosphere (80–700 km), the mesosphere (50–80 km), the stratosphere (second lowest level of our atmosphere, 12–50 km above sea level), and the troposphere (up to 12 km above sea level, roughly 80% of the earth's atmosphere by mass and the layer where most weather events originate). As you go higher in the troposphere, air density and temperature both decrease.

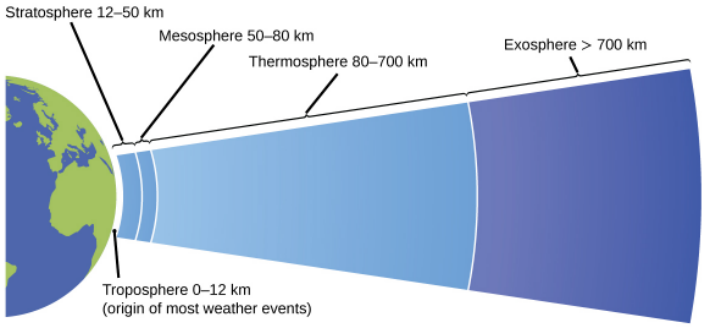


Figure 6.2.7: Earth's atmosphere has five layers: the troposphere, the stratosphere, the mesosphere, the thermosphere, and the exosphere.

The different layers of the atmosphere is illustrated as a cross sectional slice of the Earth's atmosphere. The different thickness of each layer is shown. The thermosphere has the largest portion, followed by the exosphere, stratosphere, mesosphere, and troposphere.

Climatology is the study of the climate, averaged weather conditions over long time periods, using atmospheric data. However, climatologists study patterns and effects that occur over decades, centuries, and millennia, rather than shorter time frames of hours, days, and weeks like meteorologists. Atmospheric science is an even broader field, combining meteorology, climatology, and other scientific disciplines that study the atmosphere.

Summary

Gases exert pressure, which is force per unit area. The pressure of a gas may be expressed in the SI unit of pascal or kilopascal, as well as in many other units including torr, atmosphere, and bar. Atmospheric pressure is measured using a barometer; other gas pressures can be measured using one of several types of manometers.

Key Equations

- $P = \frac{F}{A}$
- $p = h\rho g$

Glossary

atmosphere (atm)
unit of pressure; 1 atm = 101,325 Pa

bar
(bar or b) unit of pressure; 1 bar = 100,000 Pa

barometer
device used to measure atmospheric pressure

hydrostatic pressure
pressure exerted by a fluid due to gravity

manometer
device used to measure the pressure of a gas trapped in a container

pascal (Pa)
SI unit of pressure; 1 Pa = 1 N/m^2

pounds per square inch (psi)
unit of pressure common in the US

pressure
force exerted per unit area

torr
unit of pressure; $1\ \text{torr} = \frac{1}{760}\ \text{atm}$

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6.3: The Simple Gas Laws- Boyle's Law, Charles's Law and Avogadro's Law

Learning Objectives

- To understand the relationships among pressure, temperature, volume, and the amount of a gas.

Early scientists explored the relationships among the pressure of a gas (P) and its temperature (T), volume (V), and amount (n) by holding two of the four variables constant (amount and temperature, for example), varying a third (such as pressure), and measuring the effect of the change on the fourth (in this case, volume). The history of their discoveries provides several excellent examples of the scientific method.

The Relationship between Pressure and Volume: Boyle's Law

As the pressure on a gas increases, the volume of the gas decreases because the gas particles are forced closer together. Conversely, as the pressure on a gas decreases, the gas volume increases because the gas particles can now move farther apart. Weather balloons get larger as they rise through the atmosphere to regions of lower pressure because the volume of the gas has increased; that is, the atmospheric gas exerts less pressure on the surface of the balloon, so the interior gas expands until the internal and external pressures are equal.

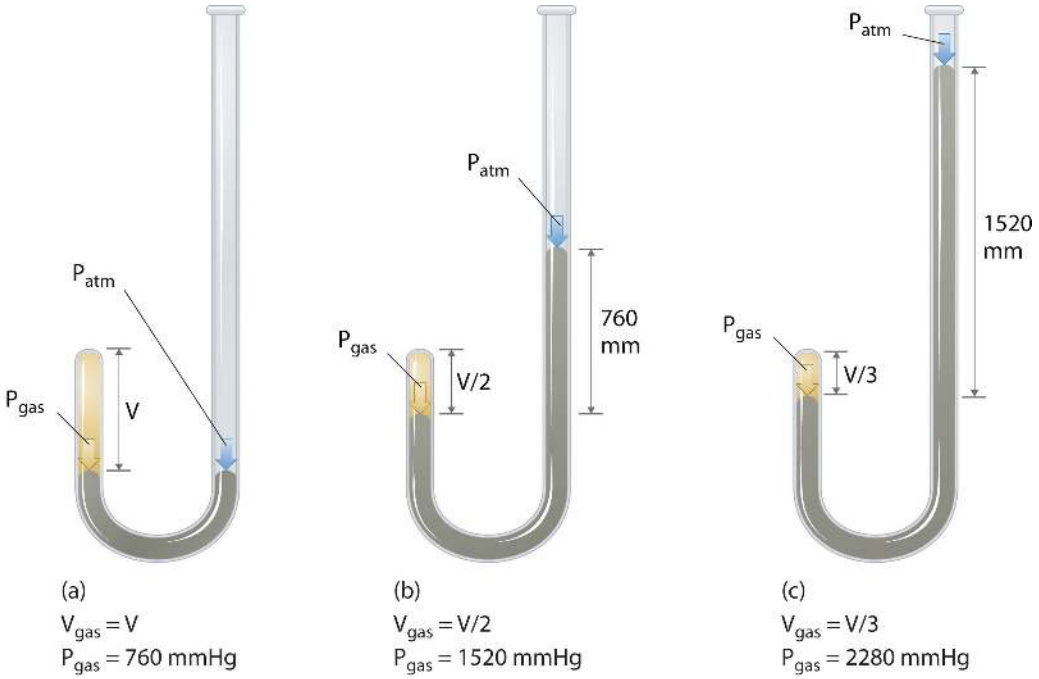


Figure 6.3.1: Boyle's Experiment Using a J-Shaped Tube to Determine the Relationship between Gas Pressure and Volume. (a) Initially the gas is at a pressure of 1 atm = 760 mmHg (the mercury is at the same height in both the arm containing the sample and the arm open to the atmosphere); its volume is V. (b) If enough mercury is added to the right side to give a difference in height of 760 mmHg between the two arms, the pressure of the gas is 760 mmHg (atmospheric pressure) + 760 mmHg = 1520 mmHg and the volume is $V/2$. (c) If an additional 760 mmHg is added to the column on the right, the total pressure on the gas increases to 2280 mmHg, and the volume of the gas decreases to $V/3$ (CC BY-SA-NC; anonymous).

The Irish chemist Robert Boyle (1627–1691) carried out some of the earliest experiments that determined the quantitative relationship between the pressure and the volume of a gas. Boyle used a J-shaped tube partially filled with mercury, as shown in Figure 6.3.1. In these experiments, a small amount of a gas or air is trapped above the mercury column, and its volume is measured at atmospheric pressure and constant temperature. More mercury is then poured into the open arm to increase the pressure on the gas sample. The pressure on the gas is atmospheric pressure plus the difference in the heights of the mercury columns, and the resulting volume is measured. This process is repeated until either there is no more room in the open arm or the volume of the gas is too small to be measured accurately. Data such as those from one of Boyle's own experiments may be plotted in several ways (Figure 6.3.2). A simple plot of V versus P gives a curve called a hyperbola and reveals an inverse relationship between pressure and volume: as the pressure is doubled, the volume decreases by a factor of two. This relationship between the two quantities is described as follows:

$$PV = \text{constant} \tag{6.3.1}$$

Dividing both sides by P gives an equation illustrating the inverse relationship between P and V:

$$V = \frac{\text{const.}}{P} = \text{const.} \left(\frac{1}{P}\right) \tag{6.3.2}$$

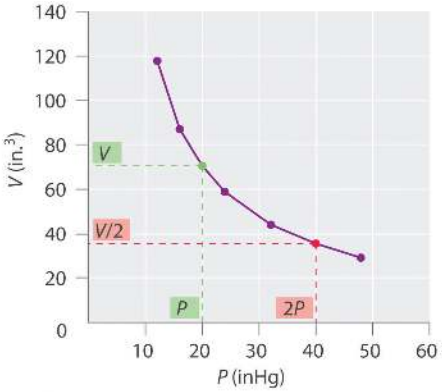
or

$$V \propto \frac{1}{P} \tag{6.3.3}$$

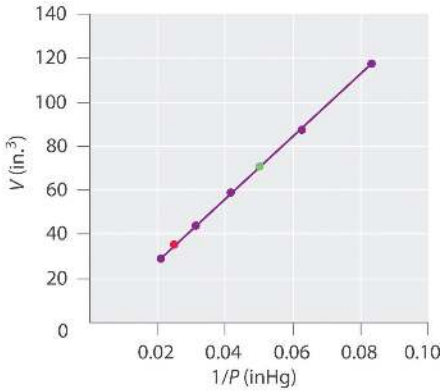
where the $\propto$ symbol is read "is proportional to." A plot of V versus $1/P$ is thus a straight line whose slope is equal to the constant in Equations 6.3.1 and 6.3.3. Dividing both sides of Equation 6.3.1 by V instead of P gives a similar relationship between P and $1/V$. The numerical value of the constant depends on the amount of gas used in the experiment and on the temperature at which the experiments are carried out. This relationship between pressure and volume is known as Boyle's law, after its discoverer, and can be stated as follows: *At constant temperature, the volume of a fixed amount of a gas is inversely proportional to its pressure.* This law in practice is shown in Figure 6.3.2.

P (inHg)	*V* (in.^{3})	*PV*
12.0	117.5	1410
16.0	87.2	1400
20.0	70.7	1410
24.0	58.8	1410
32.0	44.2	1410
40.0	35.3	1410
48.0	29.1	1400

(a) Data from Boyle's experiment



(b) Volume vs. pressure



(c) Volume vs. 1/pressure

Figure 6.3.2: Plots of Boyle's Data. (a) Here are actual data from a typical experiment conducted by Boyle. Boyle used non-SI units to measure the volume (in.^{3} rather than cm^3) and the pressure (in. Hg rather than mmHg). (b) This plot of pressure versus volume is a hyperbola. Because PV is a constant, decreasing the pressure by a factor of two results in a twofold increase in volume and vice versa. (c) A plot of volume versus 1/pressure for the same data shows the inverse linear relationship between the two quantities, as expressed by the equation V = constant/P (CC BY-SA-NC; anonymous).

> *At constant temperature, the volume of a fixed amount of a gas is inversely proportional to its pressure*



The Relationship between Temperature and Volume: Charles's Law

Hot air rises, which is why hot-air balloons ascend through the atmosphere and why warm air collects near the ceiling and cooler air collects at ground level. Because of this behavior, heating registers are placed on or near the floor, and vents for air-conditioning

are placed on or near the ceiling. The fundamental reason for this behavior is that gases expand when they are heated. Because the same amount of substance now occupies a greater volume, hot air is less dense than cold air. The substance with the lower density—in this case hot air—rises through the substance with the higher density, the cooler air.

The first experiments to quantify the relationship between the temperature and the volume of a gas were carried out in 1783 by an avid balloonist, the French chemist Jacques Alexandre César Charles (1746–1823). Charles's initial experiments showed that a plot of the volume of a given sample of gas versus temperature (in degrees Celsius) at constant pressure is a straight line. Similar but more precise studies were carried out by another balloon enthusiast, the Frenchman Joseph-Louis Gay-Lussac (1778–1850), who showed that a plot of V versus T was a straight line that could be extrapolated to a point at zero volume, a theoretical condition now known to correspond to −273.15°C (Figure 6.3.3).A sample of gas cannot really have a volume of zero because any sample of matter must have some volume. Furthermore, at 1 atm pressure all gases liquefy at temperatures well above −273.15°C. Note from part (a) in Figure 6.3.3 that the slope of the plot of V versus T varies for the same gas at different pressures but that the intercept remains constant at −273.15°C. Similarly, as shown in part (b) in Figure 6.3.3, plots of V versus T for different amounts of varied gases are straight lines with different slopes but the same intercept on the T axis.

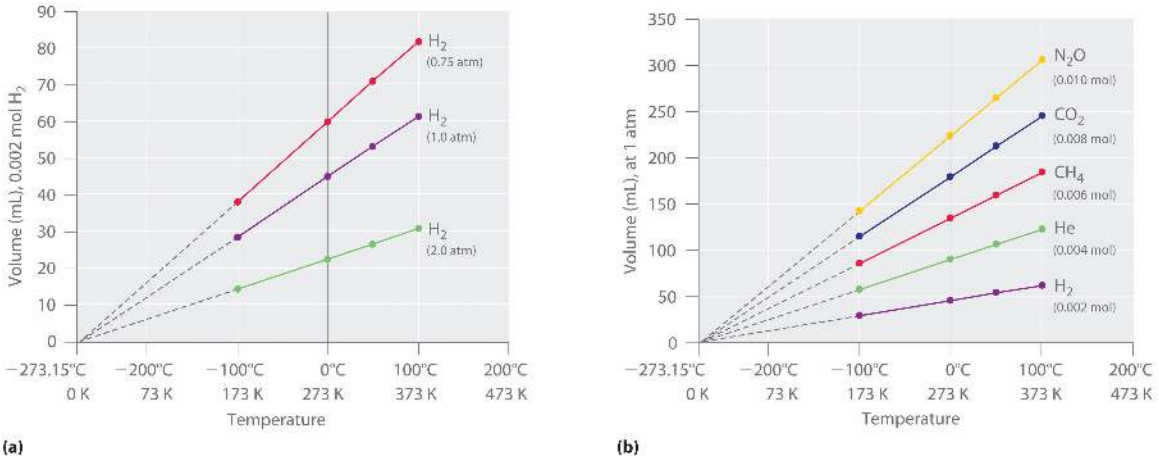


Figure 6.3.3: The Relationship between Volume and Temperature. (a) In these plots of volume versus temperature for equal-sized samples of H_2 at three different pressures, the solid lines show the experimentally measured data down to −100°C, and the broken lines show the extrapolation of the data to $V = 0$. The temperature scale is given in both degrees Celsius and kelvins. Although the slopes of the lines decrease with increasing pressure, all of the lines extrapolate to the same temperature at $V = 0$ (−273.15°C = 0 K). (b) In these plots of volume versus temperature for different amounts of selected gases at 1 atm pressure, all the plots extrapolate to a value of $V = 0$ at −273.15°C, regardless of the identity or the amount of the gas (CC BY-SA-NC; anonymous).

The significance of the invariant T intercept in plots of V versus T was recognized in 1848 by the British physicist William Thomson (1824–1907), later named Lord Kelvin. He postulated that −273.15°C was the lowest possible temperature that could theoretically be achieved, for which he coined the term absolute zero (0 K).

We can state Charles's and Gay-Lussac's findings in simple terms: At constant pressure, the volume of a fixed amount of gas is directly proportional to its absolute temperature (in kelvins). This relationship, illustrated in part (b) in Figure 6.3.3 is often referred to as Charles's law and is stated mathematically as

$$V = \text{const. } T \tag{6.3.4}$$

or

$$V \propto T \tag{6.3.5}$$

with *temperature expressed in kelvins*, not *in degrees Celsius.* Charles's law is valid for virtually all gases at temperatures well above their boiling points.



The Relationship between Amount and Volume: Avogadro's Law

We can demonstrate the relationship between the volume and the amount of a gas by filling a balloon; as we add more gas, the balloon gets larger. The specific quantitative relationship was discovered by the Italian chemist Amedeo Avogadro, who recognized the importance of Gay-Lussac's work on combining volumes of gases. In 1811, Avogadro postulated that, at the same temperature and pressure, equal volumes of gases contain the same number of gaseous particles (Figure 6.3.4). This is the historic "Avogadro's hypothesis."

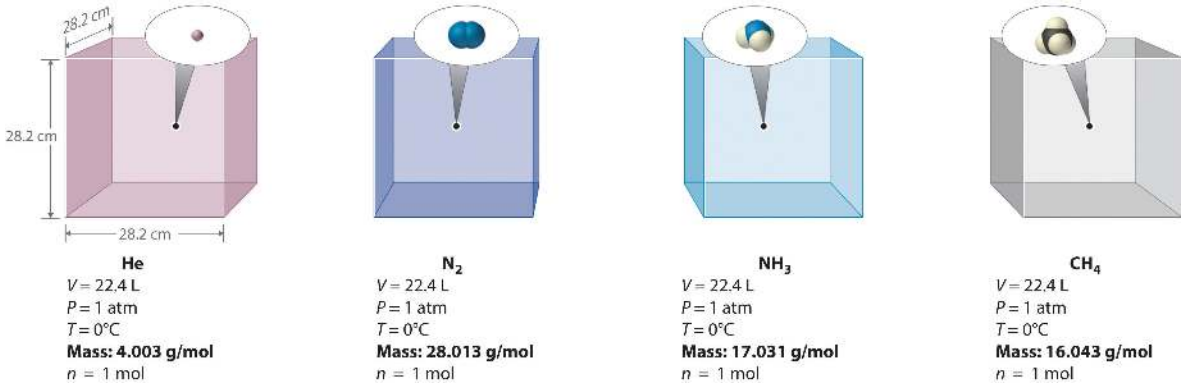


Figure 6.3.4: Avogadro's Hypothesis. Equal volumes of four different gases at the same temperature and pressure contain the same number of gaseous particles. Because the molar mass of each gas is different, the *mass* of each gas sample is different even though all contain 1 mol of gas (CC BY-SA-NC; anonymous).

A logical corollary to Avogadro's hypothesis (sometimes called Avogadro's law) describes the relationship between the volume and the amount of a gas: *At constant temperature and pressure, the volume of a sample of gas is directly proportional to the number of moles of gas in the sample.* Stated mathematically,

$$V = \text{const. } (n) \tag{6.3.6}$$

or

$$V \propto . \, n @ \text{ constant T and P} \tag{6.3.7}$$

This relationship is valid for most gases at relatively low pressures, but deviations from strict linearity are observed at elevated pressures.



For a sample of gas,

- V increases as P decreases (and vice versa)
- V increases as T increases (and vice versa)
- V increases as n increases (and vice versa)

The relationships among the volume of a gas and its pressure, temperature, and amount are summarized in Figure 6.3.5. Volume *increases* with increasing temperature or amount, but *decreases* with increasing pressure.

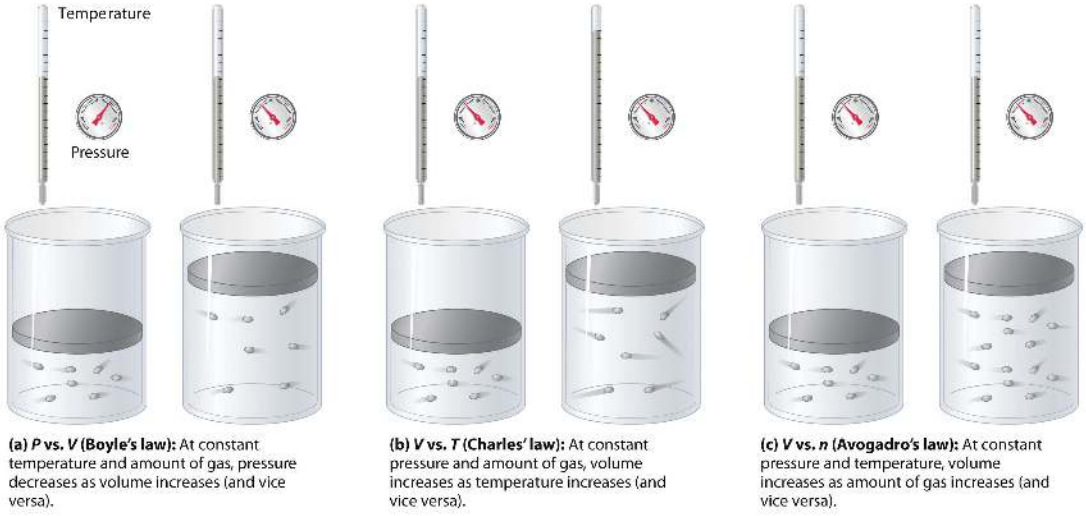


Figure 6.3.5: The Empirically Determined Relationships among Pressure, Volume, Temperature, and Amount of a Gas. The thermometer and pressure gauge indicate the temperature and the pressure qualitatively, the level in the flask indicates the volume, and the number of particles in each flask indicates relative amounts (CC BY-SA-NC; anonymous).

Summary

The volume of a gas is inversely proportional to its pressure and directly proportional to its temperature and the amount of gas. Boyle showed that the volume of a sample of a gas is inversely proportional to its pressure (**Boyle's law**), Charles and Gay-Lussac demonstrated that the volume of a gas is directly proportional to its temperature (in kelvins) at constant pressure (**Charles's law**), and Avogadro postulated that the volume of a gas is directly proportional to the number of moles of gas present (**Avogadro's law**). Plots of the volume of gases versus temperature extrapolate to zero volume at −273.15°C, which is **absolute zero (0 K)**, the lowest temperature possible. Charles's law implies that the volume of a gas is directly proportional to its absolute temperature.

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6.4: The Ideal Gas Law

Learning Objectives

- Derive the ideal gas law from the constituent gas laws
- To use the ideal gas law to describe the behavior of a gas.

In this module, the relationship between pressure, temperature, volume, and amount of a gas are described and how these relationships can be combined to give a general expression that describes the behavior of a gas.

Deriving the Ideal Gas Law

Any set of relationships between a single quantity (such as V) and several other variables (P, T, and n) can be combined into a single expression that describes all the relationships simultaneously. The three individual expressions were derived previously:

- **Boyle's law**

$$V \propto \frac{1}{P} \quad @ \text{ constant n and T}$$

- **Charles's law**

$$V \propto T \quad @ \text{ constant n and P}$$

- **Avogadro's law**

$$V \propto n \quad @ \text{ constant T and P}$$

Combining these three expressions gives

$$V \propto \frac{nT}{P} \tag{6.4.1}$$

which shows that the volume of a gas is proportional to the number of moles and the temperature and inversely proportional to the pressure. This expression can also be written as

$$V = \text{Cons.} \left(\frac{nT}{P} \right) \tag{6.4.2}$$

By convention, the proportionality constant in Equation 6.4.1 is called the gas constant, which is represented by the letter R. Inserting R into Equation 6.4.2 gives

$$V = \frac{RnT}{P} = \frac{nRT}{P} \tag{6.4.3}$$

Clearing the fractions by multiplying both sides of Equation 6.4.4 by P gives

$$PV = nRT \tag{6.4.4}$$

This equation is known as the **ideal gas law**.

An ideal gas is defined as a hypothetical gaseous substance whose behavior is independent of attractive and repulsive forces and can be completely described by the ideal gas law. In reality, there is no such thing as an ideal gas, but an ideal gas is a useful conceptual model that allows us to understand how gases respond to changing conditions. As we shall see, under many conditions, most real gases exhibit behavior that closely approximates that of an ideal gas. The ideal gas law can therefore be used to predict the behavior of real gases under most conditions. The ideal gas law does not work well at very low temperatures or very high pressures, where deviations from ideal behavior are most commonly observed.

> *Significant deviations from ideal gas behavior commonly occur at low temperatures and very high pressures.*

Before we can use the ideal gas law, however, we need to know the value of the gas constant R. Its form depends on the units used for the other quantities in the expression. If V is expressed in liters (L), P in atmospheres (atm), T in kelvins (K), and n in moles

(mol), then

$$R = 0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{K} \cdot \text{mol}} \tag{6.4.5}$$

Because the product PV has the units of energy, R can also have units of J/(K•mol):

$$R = 8.3145 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{K} \cdot \text{mol}} \tag{6.4.6}$$

Standard Conditions of Temperature and Pressure

Scientists have chosen a particular set of conditions to use as a reference: 0°C (273.15 K) and 1 bar = 100 kPa = 10^5 Pa pressure, referred to as standard temperature and pressure (**STP**).

$$\text{STP:} \qquad T = 273.15 \text{ K and } P = 1 \text{ bar} = 10^5 \text{ Pa}$$

Please note that STP was defined differently in the past. The old definition was based on a standard pressure of 1 atm.

We can calculate the volume of 1.000 mol of an ideal gas under standard conditions using the variant of the ideal gas law given in Equation 6.4.4:

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} \tag{6.4.7}$$

Thus the volume of 1 mol of an ideal gas is **22.71 L at STP** and **22.41 L at 0°C and 1 atm**, approximately equivalent to the volume of three basketballs. The molar volumes of several real gases at 0°C and 1 atm are given in Table 10.3, which shows that the deviations from ideal gas behavior are quite small. Thus the ideal gas law does a good job of approximating the behavior of real gases at 0°C and 1 atm. The relationships described in Section 10.3 as Boyle's, Charles's, and Avogadro's laws are simply special cases of the ideal gas law in which two of the four parameters (P, V, T, and n) are held fixed.

Table 6.4.1: Molar Volumes of Selected Gases at 0°C and 1 atm

Gas	Molar Volume (L)
He	22.434
Ar	22.397
H_2	22.433
N_2	22.402
O_2	22.397
CO_2	22.260
NH_3	22.079

Applying the Ideal Gas Law

The ideal gas law allows us to calculate the value of the fourth variable for a gaseous sample if we know the values of any three of the four variables (*P*, *V*, *T*, and *n*). It also allows us to predict the *final state* of a sample of a gas (i.e., its final temperature, pressure, volume, and amount) following any changes in conditions if the parameters (*P*, *V*, *T*, and *n*) are specified for an *initial state*. Some applications are illustrated in the following examples. The approach used throughout is always to start with the same equation—the ideal gas law—and then determine which quantities are given and which need to be calculated. Let's begin with simple cases in which we are given three of the four parameters needed for a complete physical description of a gaseous sample.

Example 6.4.1

The balloon that Charles used for his initial flight in 1783 was destroyed, but we can estimate that its volume was 31,150 L (1100 ft^3), given the dimensions recorded at the time. If the temperature at ground level was 86°F (30°C) and the atmospheric pressure was 745 mmHg, how many moles of hydrogen gas were needed to fill the balloon?

Given: volume, temperature, and pressure

Asked for: amount of gas

Strategy:

A. Solve the ideal gas law for the unknown quantity, in this case *n*.

B. Make sure that all quantities are given in units that are compatible with the units of the gas constant. If necessary, convert them to the appropriate units, insert them into the equation you have derived, and then calculate the number of moles of hydrogen gas needed.

Solution:

A We are given values for *P*, *T*, and *V* and asked to calculate *n*. If we solve the ideal gas law (Equation 6.4.4) for n, we obtain

$$745 \text{ mmHg} \times \frac{1 \text{ atm}}{760 \text{ mmHg}} = 0.980 \text{ atm}$$

B *P* and *T* are given in units that are not compatible with the units of the gas constant [*R* = 0.08206 (L•atm)/(K•mol)]. We must therefore convert the temperature to kelvins and the pressure to atmospheres:

$$T = 273 + 30 = 303\text{K}$$

Substituting these values into the expression we derived for *n*, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \frac{PV}{RT} \\ &= \frac{0.980 \text{ atm} \times 31150 \text{ L}}{0.08206 \frac{\text{atm} \cdot \text{L}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 303 \text{ K}} \\ &= 1.23 \times 10^3 \ mol \end{aligned}$$

? Exercise 6.4.1

Suppose that an “empty” aerosol spray-paint can has a volume of 0.406 L and contains 0.025 mol of a propellant gas such as CO_2. What is the pressure of the gas at 25°C?

Answer

1.5 atm

In Example 6.4.1, we were given three of the four parameters needed to describe a gas under a particular set of conditions, and we were asked to calculate the fourth. We can also use the ideal gas law to calculate the effect of *changes* in any of the specified conditions on any of the other parameters, as shown in Example 6.4.5.

General Gas Equation

When a gas is described under two different conditions, the ideal gas equation must be applied twice - to an initial condition and a final condition. This is:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Initial condition } (i) & \text{Final condition} (f) \\ P_i V_i = n_i R T_i & P_f V_f = n_f R T_f \end{array}$$

Both equations can be rearranged to give:

$$R = \frac{P_i V_i}{n_i T_i} \qquad R = \frac{P_f V_f}{n_f T_f}$$

The two equations are equal to each other since each is equal to the same constant R. Therefore, we have:

$$\frac{P_i V_i}{n_i T_i} = \frac{P_f V_f}{n_f T_f} \tag{6.4.8}$$

The equation is called the **general gas equation**. The equation is particularly useful when one or two of the gas properties are held constant between the two conditions. In such cases, the equation can be simplified by eliminating these constant gas properties.



Example 6.4.2

Suppose that Charles had changed his plans and carried out his initial flight not in August but on a cold day in January, when the temperature at ground level was −10°C (14°F). How large a balloon would he have needed to contain the same amount of hydrogen gas at the same pressure as in Example 6.4.1?

Given: temperature, pressure, amount, and volume in August; temperature in January

Asked for: volume in January

Strategy:

A. Use the results from Example 6.4.1 for August as the initial conditions and then calculate the *change in volume* due to the change in temperature from 30°C to −10°C. Begin by constructing a table showing the initial and final conditions.
B. Simplify the general gas equation by eliminating the quantities that are held constant between the initial and final conditions, in this case P and n.
C. Solve for the unknown parameter.

Solution:

A To see exactly which parameters have changed and which are constant, prepare a table of the initial and final conditions:

Solution to Example 10.4.2

Initial (August)	Final (January)
$T_i = 30\ ^\circ C = 303\ K$	$T_f = -10\ ^\circ C = 263\ K$
$P_i = 0.980\ atm$	$P_f = 0.980\ atm$
$n_i = 1.23 \times 10^3\ mol$	$n_f = 1.23 \times 10^3\ mol$
$V_i = 31150\ L$	$V_f = ?$

B Both n and P are the same in both cases ($n_i = n_f$, $P_i = P_f$). Therefore, Equation 6.4.8 can be simplified to:

$$\frac{V_i}{T_i} = \frac{V_f}{T_f}$$

This is the relationship first noted by Charles.

C Solving the equation for V_f, we get:

$$V_f = V_i \times \frac{T_f}{T_i}$$

$$= 31150 \text{ L} \times \frac{263 \text{ K}}{303 \text{ K}}$$

$$= 2.70 \times 10^4 \ L$$

It is important to check your answer to be sure that it makes sense, just in case you have accidentally inverted a quantity or multiplied rather than divided. In this case, the temperature of the gas decreases. Because we know that gas volume decreases with decreasing temperature, the final volume must be less than the initial volume, so the answer makes sense. We could have calculated the new volume by plugging all the given numbers into the ideal gas law, but it is generally much easier and faster to focus on only the quantities that change.

? Exercise 6.4.2

At a laboratory party, a helium-filled balloon with a volume of 2.00 L at 22°C is dropped into a large container of liquid nitrogen (T = −196°C). What is the final volume of the gas in the balloon?

Answer

0.52 L

Example 6.4.1 illustrates the relationship originally observed by Charles. We could work through similar examples illustrating the inverse relationship between pressure and volume noted by Boyle (*PV* = constant) and the relationship between volume and amount observed by Avogadro (*V*/*n* = constant). We will not do so, however, because it is more important to note that the historically important gas laws are only special cases of the ideal gas law in which two quantities are varied while the other two remain fixed. The method used in Example 6.4.1 can be applied in *any* such case, as we demonstrate in Example 6.4.2 (which also shows why heating a closed container of a gas, such as a butane lighter cartridge or an aerosol can, may cause an explosion).

✓ Example 6.4.3

Aerosol cans are prominently labeled with a warning such as “Do not incinerate this container when empty.” Assume that you did not notice this warning and tossed the “empty” aerosol can in Exercise 6.4.1 (0.025 mol in 0.406 L, initially at 25°C and 1.5 atm internal pressure) into a fire at 750°C. What would be the pressure inside the can (if it did not explode)?

Given: initial volume, amount, temperature, and pressure; final temperature

Asked for: final pressure

Strategy:

Follow the strategy outlined in Example 6.4.2.

Solution:

Prepare a table to determine which parameters change and which are held constant:

Solution to Example 10.4.3

Initial	Final
$V_i = 0.406 \text{ L}$	$V_f = 0.406 \text{ L}$
$n_i = 0.025 \text{ mol}$	$n_f = 0.025 \text{ mol}$
$T_i = 25 \text{ °C} = 298 \text{ K}$	$T_i = 750 \text{ °C} = 1023 \text{ K}$
$P_i = 1.5 \text{ atm}$	$P_f = ?$

Both V and n are the same in both cases ($V_i = V_f, n_i = n_f$). Therefore, Equation can be simplified to:

$$\frac{P_i}{T_i} = \frac{P_f}{T_f}$$

By solving the equation for P_f, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} P_f &= P_i \times \frac{T_f}{T_i} \\ &= 1.5 \text{ atm} \times \frac{1023 \text{ K}}{298 \text{ K}} \\ &= 5.1 \ atm \end{aligned}$$

This pressure is more than enough to rupture a thin sheet metal container and cause an explosion!

? Exercise 6.4.3

Suppose that a fire extinguisher, filled with CO_2 to a pressure of 20.0 atm at 21°C at the factory, is accidentally left in the sun in a closed automobile in Tucson, Arizona, in July. The interior temperature of the car rises to 160°F (71.1°C). What is the internal pressure in the fire extinguisher?

Answer

23.4 atm

In Examples 6.4.1 and 6.4.2, two of the four parameters (*P*, *V*, *T*, and *n*) were fixed while one was allowed to vary, and we were interested in the effect on the value of the fourth. In fact, we often encounter cases where two of the variables *P*, *V*, and *T* are allowed to vary for a given sample of gas (hence *n* is constant), and we are interested in the change in the value of the third under the new conditions.



✓ Example 6.4.4

We saw in Example 6.4.1 that Charles used a balloon with a volume of 31,150 L for his initial ascent and that the balloon contained 1.23×10^3 mol of H_2 gas initially at 30°C and 745 mmHg. Suppose that Gay-Lussac had also used this balloon for his record-breaking ascent to 23,000 ft and that the pressure and temperature at that altitude were 312 mmHg and −30°C, respectively. To what volume would the balloon have had to expand to hold the same amount of hydrogen gas at the higher altitude?

Given: initial pressure, temperature, amount, and volume; final pressure and temperature

Asked for: final volume

Strategy:

Follow the strategy outlined in Example 6.4.3.

Solution:

Begin by setting up a table of the two sets of conditions:

Solution to Example 10.4.4

Initial	Final
$P_i = 745\ \text{mmHg} = 0.980\ \text{atm}$	$P_f = 312\ \text{mmHg} = 0.411\ \text{atm}$
$T_i = 30\ ^\circ\text{C} = 303\ \text{K}$	$T_f = 750 - 30\ ^\circ\text{C} = 243\ \text{K}$
$n_i = 1.2 \times 10^3\ \text{mol}$	$n_i = 1.2 \times 10^3\ \text{mol}$
$V_i = 31150\ \text{L}$	$V_f = ?$

By eliminating the constant property (n) of the gas, Equation 6.4.8 is simplified to:

$$\frac{P_i V_i}{T_i} = \frac{P_f V_f}{T_f}$$

By solving the equation for V_f, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} V_f &= V_i \times \frac{P_i}{P_f}\frac{T_f}{T_i} \\ &= 3.115 \times 10^4\ \text{L} \times \frac{0.980\ \text{atm}}{0.411\ \text{atm}}\frac{243\ \text{K}}{303\ \text{K}} \\ &= 5.96 \times 10^4\ L \end{aligned}$$

Does this answer make sense? Two opposing factors are at work in this problem: decreasing the pressure tends to *increase* the volume of the gas, while decreasing the temperature tends to *decrease* the volume of the gas. Which do we expect to predominate? The pressure drops by more than a factor of two, while the absolute temperature drops by only about 20%. Because the volume of a gas sample is directly proportional to both *T* and 1/*P*, the variable that changes the most will have the greatest effect on *V*. In this case, the effect of decreasing pressure predominates, and we expect the volume of the gas to increase, as we found in our calculation.

We could also have solved this problem by solving the ideal gas law for *V* and then substituting the relevant parameters for an altitude of 23,000 ft:

Except for a difference caused by rounding to the last significant figure, this is the same result we obtained previously. *There is often more than one "right" way to solve chemical problems.*

? Exercise 6.4.4

A steel cylinder of compressed argon with a volume of 0.400 L was filled to a pressure of 145 atm at 10°C. At 1.00 atm pressure and 25°C, how many 15.0 mL incandescent light bulbs could be filled from this cylinder? (Hint: find the number of moles of argon in each container.)

Answer

4.07×10^3

Using the Ideal Gas Law to Calculate Gas Densities and Molar Masses

The ideal gas law can also be used to calculate molar masses of gases from experimentally measured gas densities. To see how this is possible, we first rearrange the ideal gas law to obtain

$$\frac{n}{V} = \frac{P}{RT} \tag{6.4.9}$$

The left side has the units of moles per unit volume (mol/L). The number of moles of a substance equals its mass (m, in grams) divided by its molar mass (M, in grams per mole):

$$n = \frac{m}{M} \tag{6.4.10}$$

Substituting this expression for n into Equation 6.4.9 gives

$$\frac{m}{MV} = \frac{P}{RT} \tag{6.4.11}$$

Because m/V is the density d of a substance, we can replace m/V by d and rearrange to give

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{MP}{RT} \tag{6.4.12}$$

The distance between particles in gases is large compared to the size of the particles, so their densities are much lower than the densities of liquids and solids. Consequently, gas density is usually measured in grams per liter (g/L) rather than grams per milliliter (g/mL).



Example 6.4.5

Calculate the density of butane at 25°C and a pressure of 750 mmHg.

Given: compound, temperature, and pressure

Asked for: density

Strategy:

A. Calculate the molar mass of butane and convert all quantities to appropriate units for the value of the gas constant.

B. Substitute these values into Equation 6.4.12 to obtain the density.

Solution:

A The molar mass of butane (C_4H_{10}) is

$$M = (4)(12.011) + (10)(1.0079) = 58.123 \text{g/mol}$$

Using 0.08206 (L•atm)/(K•mol) for *R* means that we need to convert the temperature from degrees Celsius to kelvins (*T* = 25 + 273 = 298 K) and the pressure from millimeters of mercury to atmospheres:

$$P = 750 \text{ mmHg} \times \frac{1 \text{ atm}}{760 \text{ mmHg}} = 0.987 \text{ atm}$$

B Substituting these values into Equation 6.4.12 gives

$$\rho = \frac{58.123 \text{ g/mol} \times 0.987 \text{ atm}}{0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{K} \cdot \text{mol}} \times 298 \text{ K}} = 2.35 \text{ g/L}$$

Exercise 6.4.5: Density of Radon

Radon (Rn) is a radioactive gas formed by the decay of naturally occurring uranium in rocks such as granite. It tends to collect in the basements of houses and poses a significant health risk if present in indoor air. Many states now require that houses be tested for radon before they are sold. Calculate the density of radon at 1.00 atm pressure and 20°C and compare it with the density of nitrogen gas, which constitutes 80% of the atmosphere, under the same conditions to see why radon is found in basements rather than in attics.

Answer

radon, 9.23 g/L; N_2, 1.17 g/L

A common use of Equation 6.4.12 is to determine the molar mass of an unknown gas by measuring its density at a known temperature and pressure. This method is particularly useful in identifying a gas that has been produced in a reaction, and it is not difficult to carry out. A flask or glass bulb of known volume is carefully dried, evacuated, sealed, and weighed empty. It is then filled with a sample of a gas at a known temperature and pressure and reweighed. The difference in mass between the two readings is the mass of the gas. The volume of the flask is usually determined by weighing the flask when empty and when filled with a liquid of known density such as water. The use of density measurements to calculate molar masses is illustrated in Example 6.4.6.

Example 6.4.6

The reaction of a copper penny with nitric acid results in the formation of a red-brown gaseous compound containing nitrogen and oxygen. A sample of the gas at a pressure of 727 mmHg and a temperature of 18°C weighs 0.289 g in a flask with a volume of 157.0 mL. Calculate the molar mass of the gas and suggest a reasonable chemical formula for the compound.

Given: pressure, temperature, mass, and volume

Asked for: molar mass and chemical formula

Strategy:

A. Solve Equation 6.4.12 for the molar mass of the gas and then calculate the density of the gas from the information given.

B. Convert all known quantities to the appropriate units for the gas constant being used. Substitute the known values into your equation and solve for the molar mass.

C. Propose a reasonable empirical formula using the atomic masses of nitrogen and oxygen and the calculated molar mass of the gas.

Solution:

A Solving Equation 6.4.12 for the molar mass gives

$$M = \frac{mRT}{PV} = \frac{dRT}{P}$$

Density is the mass of the gas divided by its volume:

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{0.289\text{g}}{0.157\text{L}} = 1.84\text{g/L}$$

B We must convert the other quantities to the appropriate units before inserting them into the equation:

$$T = 18 + 273 = 291K$$

$$P = 727\,mmHg \times \frac{1\text{atm}}{760\text{mmHg}} = 0.957\text{atm}$$

The molar mass of the unknown gas is thus

$$M = \frac{1.84\text{ g/L} \times 0.08206\dfrac{\text{L}\cdot\text{atm}}{\text{K}\cdot\text{mol}} \times 291\text{ K}}{0.957\text{ atm}} = 45.9\text{g/mol}$$

C The atomic masses of N and O are approximately 14 and 16, respectively, so we can construct a list showing the masses of possible combinations:

$$M(\text{NO}) = 14 + 16 = 30 \text{ g/mol}$$

$$M(\text{N}_2\text{O}) = (2)(14) + 16 = 44 \text{ g/mol}$$

$$M(\text{NO}_2) = 14 + (2)(16) = 46 \text{ g/mol}$$

The most likely choice is NO_2 which is in agreement with the data. The red-brown color of smog also results from the presence of NO_2 gas.

? Exercise 6.4.6

You are in charge of interpreting the data from an unmanned space probe that has just landed on Venus and sent back a report on its atmosphere. The data are as follows: pressure, 90 atm; temperature, 557°C; density, 58 g/L. The major constituent of the atmosphere (>95%) is carbon. Calculate the molar mass of the major gas present and identify it.

Answer

44 g/mol; CO_2

Summary

The ideal gas law is derived from empirical relationships among the pressure, the volume, the temperature, and the number of moles of a gas; it can be used to calculate any of the four properties if the other three are known.

Ideal gas equation: $PV = nRT$,

where $R = 0.08206 \dfrac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{K} \cdot \text{mol}} = 8.3145 \dfrac{\text{J}}{\text{K} \cdot \text{mol}}$

General gas equation: $\dfrac{P_i V_i}{n_i T_i} = \dfrac{P_f V_f}{n_f T_f}$

Density of a gas: $\rho = \dfrac{MP}{RT}$

The empirical relationships among the volume, the temperature, the pressure, and the amount of a gas can be combined into the **ideal gas law**, *PV* = *nRT*. The proportionality constant, *R*, is called the **gas constant** and has the value 0.08206 (L•atm)/(K•mol), 8.3145 J/(K•mol), or 1.9872 cal/(K•mol), depending on the units used. The ideal gas law describes the behavior of an **ideal gas**, a hypothetical substance whose behavior can be explained quantitatively by the ideal gas law and the kinetic molecular theory of gases. **Standard temperature and pressure (STP)** is 0°C and 1 atm. The volume of 1 mol of an ideal gas at STP is 22.41 L, the **standard molar volume**. All of the empirical gas relationships are special cases of the ideal gas law in which two of the four parameters are held constant. The ideal gas law allows us to calculate the value of the fourth quantity (*P*, *V*, *T*, or *n*) needed to describe a gaseous sample when the others are known and also predict the value of these quantities following a change in conditions if the original conditions (values of *P*, *V*, *T*, and *n*) are known. The ideal gas law can also be used to calculate the density of a gas if its molar mass is known or, conversely, the molar mass of an unknown gas sample if its density is measured.

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6.5: Applications of the Ideal Gas Law- Molar Volume, Density and Molar Mass of a Gas

Learning Objectives

- To relate the amount of gas consumed or released in a chemical reaction to the stoichiometry of the reaction.
- To understand how the ideal gas equation and the stoichiometry of a reaction can be used to calculate the volume of gas produced or consumed in a reaction.

With the ideal gas law, we can use the relationship between the amounts of gases (in moles) and their volumes (in liters) to calculate the stoichiometry of reactions involving gases, if the pressure and temperature are known. This is important for several reasons. Many reactions that are carried out in the laboratory involve the formation or reaction of a gas, so chemists must be able to quantitatively treat gaseous products and reactants as readily as they quantitatively treat solids or solutions. Furthermore, many, if not most, industrially important reactions are carried out in the gas phase for practical reasons. Gases mix readily, are easily heated or cooled, and can be transferred from one place to another in a manufacturing facility via simple pumps and plumbing.

Gas Densities and Molar Mass

The ideal-gas equation can be manipulated to solve a variety of different types of problems. For example, the density, ρ, of a gas, depends on the number of gas molecules in a constant volume. To determine this value, we rearrange the ideal gas equation to

$$\frac{n}{V} = \frac{P}{RT} \tag{6.5.1}$$

Density of a gas is generally expressed in g/L (mass over volume). Multiplication of the left and right sides of Equation 6.5.1 by the molar mass in g/mol (M) of the gas gives

$$\rho = \frac{g}{L} = \frac{PM}{RT} \tag{6.5.2}$$

This allows us to determine the density of a gas when we know the molar mass, or vice versa.

> *The density of a gas INCREASES with increasing pressure and DECREASES with increasing temperature*



Example 6.5.1

What is the density of nitrogen gas (N_2) at 248.0 Torr and 18º C?

Solution

Step 1: Write down your given information

- P = 248.0 Torr

- V = ?
- n = ?
- R = 0.0820574 L•atm•mol^{-1} K^{-1}
- T = 18º C

Step 2: Convert as necessary.

$$(248\ \text{Torr}) \times \frac{1\ \text{atm}}{760\ \text{Torr}} = 0.3263\ \text{atm}$$

$$18\,^{o}C + 273 = 291K$$

Step 3: This one is tricky. We need to manipulate the Ideal Gas Equation to incorporate density into the equation.

Write down all known equations:

$$PV = nRT$$

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}$$

where ρ is density, m is mass, and V is volume.

$$m = M \times n$$

where M is molar mass and n is the number of moles.

Now take the definition of density (Equation 6.5.1)

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V}$$

Keeping in mind $m = M \times n$ ...replace $(M \times n)$ for $mass$ within the density formula.

$$\rho = \frac{M \times n}{V}$$

$$\frac{\rho}{M} = \frac{n}{V}$$

Now manipulate the Ideal Gas Equation

\[\begin{align*} PV &= nRT \\

4pt] \dfrac{n}{V} &= \dfrac{P}{RT} \end{align*} \nonumber

(n/V) is in both equations.

$$\frac{n}{V} = \frac{\rho}{M}$$

$$= \frac{P}{RT}$$

Now combine them please.

$$\frac{\rho}{M} = \frac{P}{RT}$$

Isolate density.

$$\rho = \frac{PM}{RT}$$

Step 4: Now plug in the information you have.

$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= \frac{PM}{RT} \\ &= \frac{(0.3263\ \text{atm})(2 * 14.01\ \text{g/mol})}{(0.08206\ L\,atm/Kmol)(291\ \text{K})} \\ &= 0.3828\ g/L\end{aligned}$$

An example of varying density for a useful purpose is the hot air balloon, which consists of a bag (called the envelope) that is capable of containing heated air. As the air in the envelope is heated, it becomes less dense than the surrounding cooler air (Equation 6.5.2), which is has enough lifting power (due to buoyancy) to cause the balloon to float and rise into the air. Constant heating of the air is required to keep the balloon aloft. As the air in the balloon cools, it contracts, allowing outside cool air to enter, and the density increases. When this is carefully controlled by the pilot, the balloon can land as gently as it rose.



Figure 6.5.1: A hot air balloon is inflated partially with cold air from a gas-powered fan, before the propane burners are used for final inflation.

Determining Gas Volumes in Chemical Reactions

The ideal gas law can be used to calculate volume of gases consumed or produced. The ideal-gas equation frequently is used to interconvert between volumes and molar amounts in chemical equations.



Example 6.5.2A

What volume of carbon dioxide gas is produced at STP by the decomposition of 0.150 g $\mathrm{CaCO_3}$ via the equation:

$$\mathrm{CaCO_3(s) \rightarrow CaO(s) + CO_2(g)}$$

Solution

Begin by converting the mass of calcium carbonate to moles.

$$\frac{0.150\ g}{100.1\ g/mol} = 0.00150\ mol$$

The stoichiometry of the reaction dictates that the number of moles $CaCO_3$ decomposed equals the number of moles CO_2 produced. Use the ideal-gas equation to convert moles of CO_2 to a volume.

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{nRT}{PR} \\ &= \frac{(0.00150\ mol)\left(0.08206\ \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K}\right)(273.15\ K)}{1\ atm} \\ &= 0.0336\ L\ or\ 33.6\ mL \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.5.2B

A 3.00 L container is filled with Ne(g) at 770 mmHg at 27°C. A 0.633 gsample of CO_2 vapor is then added.

- What is the partial pressure of CO_2 and Ne in atm?
- What is the total pressure in the container in atm?

Solution

Step 1: Write down all given information, and convert as necessary.

Before:

- \(P = 770\,mmHg \rigtharrow 1.01 \,atm \nonumber \]
- $V = 3.00\ L$
- $n_{\text{Ne}} = ?$
- $T = 27^oC \rightarrow 300\ K$

Other Unknowns: n_{CO_2} = ?

$$n_{CO_2} = 0.633\ \text{g CO}_2 \times \frac{1\ \text{mol}}{44\ \text{g}} = 0.0144\ \text{mol CO}_2$$

Step 2: After writing down all your given information, find the unknown moles of Ne.

$$\begin{aligned} n_{Ne} &= \frac{PV}{RT} \\ &= \frac{(1.01\ \text{atm})(3.00\ \text{L})}{(0.08206\ atm\ L/mol\ K)(300\ \text{K})} \\ &= 0.123\ \text{mol} \end{aligned}$$

Because the pressure of the container before the CO_2 was added contained only Ne, that is your partial pressure of Ne. After converting it to atm, you have already answered part of the question!

$$P_{Ne} = 1.01\ \text{atm}$$

Step 3: Now that have pressure for Ne, you must find the partial pressure for CO_2. Use the ideal gas equation.

$$\frac{P_{Ne}\ \cancel{V}}{n_{Ne}\ \cancel{RT}} = \frac{P_{CO_2}\ \cancel{V}}{n_{CO_2}\ \cancel{RT}}$$

but because both gases share the same Volume (V) and Temperature (T) and since the Gas Constant (R) is constants, all three terms cancel.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P}{n_{Ne}} &= \frac{P}{n_{CO_2}} \\ \frac{1.01\ \text{atm}}{0.123\ \text{mol Ne}} &= \frac{P_{CO_2}}{0.0144\ \text{mol CO}_2} \\ P_{CO_2} &= 0.118\ \text{atm} \end{aligned}$$

This is the partial pressure CO_2.

Step 4: Now find total pressure.

$$\begin{aligned} P_{total} &= P_{Ne} + P_{CO_2} \\ &= 1.01 \text{ atm} + 0.118 \text{ atm} \\ &= 1.128 \text{ atm} \\ &\approx 1.13 \text{ atm (with appropriate significant figures)} \end{aligned}$$

Example 6.5.2C: Sulfuric Acid

Sulfuric acid, the industrial chemical produced in greatest quantity (almost 45 million tons per year in the United States alone), is prepared by the combustion of sulfur in air to give SO_2, followed by the reaction of SO_2 with O_2 in the presence of a catalyst to give SO_3, which reacts with water to give H_2SO_4. The overall chemical equation is as follows:

$$2\,S(s) + 3\,O_2(g) + 2\,H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2\,H_2SO_4(aq)$$

What volume of O_2 (in liters) at 22°C and 745 mmHg pressure is required to produce 1.00 ton (907.18 kg) of H_2SO_4?

Given: reaction, temperature, pressure, and mass of one product

Asked for: volume of gaseous reactant

Strategy:

A Calculate the number of moles of H_2SO_4 in 1.00 ton. From the stoichiometric coefficients in the balanced chemical equation, calculate the number of moles of O_2 required.

B Use the ideal gas law to determine the volume of O_2 required under the given conditions. Be sure that all quantities are expressed in the appropriate units.

Solution:

$$\text{mass of } H_2SO_4 \rightarrow \text{moles } H_2SO_4 \rightarrow \text{moles } O_2 \rightarrow \text{liters } O_2$$

A We begin by calculating the number of moles of H_2SO_4 in 1.00 ton:

$$\frac{907.18 \times 10^3 \text{ g } H_2SO_4}{(2 \times 1.008 + 32.06 + 4 \times 16.00) \text{ g/mol}} = 9250 \text{ mol } H_2SO_4$$

We next calculate the number of moles of O_2 required:

$$9250 \text{ mol } H_2SO_4 \times \frac{3 \text{mol } O_2}{2 \text{mol } H_2SO_4} = 1.389 \times 10^4 \text{ mol } O_2$$

B After converting all quantities to the appropriate units, we can use the ideal gas law to calculate the volume of O_2:

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{nRT}{P} \\ &= \frac{1.389 \times 10^4 \text{ mol} \times 0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times (273 + 22) \text{ K}}{745 \text{ mmHg} \times \frac{1 \text{ atm}}{760 \text{ mmHg}}} \\ &= 3.43 \times 10^5 \text{ L} \end{aligned}$$

The answer means that more than 300,000 L of oxygen gas are needed to produce 1 ton of sulfuric acid. These numbers may give you some appreciation for the magnitude of the engineering and plumbing problems faced in industrial chemistry.

Exercise 6.5.2

Charles used a balloon containing approximately 31,150 L of H_2 for his initial flight in 1783. The hydrogen gas was produced by the reaction of metallic iron with dilute hydrochloric acid according to the following balanced chemical equation:

$$\mathrm{Fe(s) + 2\,HCl(aq) \rightarrow H_2(g) + FeCl_2(aq)}$$

How much iron (in kilograms) was needed to produce this volume of $\mathrm{H_2}$ if the temperature were 30°C and the atmospheric pressure was 745 mmHg?

Answer

68.6 kg of Fe (approximately 150 lb)

Example 6.5.3: Emergency Air bags

Sodium azide ($\mathrm{NaN_3}$) decomposes to form sodium metal and nitrogen gas according to the following balanced chemical equation:

$$\mathrm{2\,NaN_3 \rightarrow 2\,Na(s) + 3\,N_2(g)}$$

This reaction is used to inflate the air bags that cushion passengers during automobile collisions. The reaction is initiated in air bags by an electrical impulse and results in the rapid evolution of gas. If the $\mathrm{N_2}$ gas that results from the decomposition of a 5.00 g sample of $\mathrm{NaN_3}$ could be collected by displacing water from an inverted flask, what volume of gas would be produced at 21°C and 762 mmHg?

Given: reaction, mass of compound, temperature, and pressure

Asked for: volume of nitrogen gas produced

Strategy:

A Calculate the number of moles of $\mathrm{N_2}$ gas produced. From the data in Table S3, determine the partial pressure of $\mathrm{N_2}$ gas in the flask.

B Use the ideal gas law to find the volume of $\mathrm{N_2}$ gas produced.

Solution:

A Because we know the mass of the reactant and the stoichiometry of the reaction, our first step is to calculate the number of moles of $\mathrm{N_2}$ gas produced:

$$\frac{5.00\text{ g NaN}_3}{(22.99 + 3 \times 14.01)\text{ g/mol}} \times \frac{3\text{mol N}_2}{2\text{mol NaN}_3} = 0.115\text{ mol N}_2$$

The pressure given (762 mmHg) is the *total* pressure in the flask, which is the sum of the pressures due to the $\mathrm{N_2}$ gas and the water vapor present. Table S3 tells us that the vapor pressure of water is 18.65 mmHg at 21°C (294 K), so the partial pressure of the $\mathrm{N_2}$ gas in the flask is only

$$(762 - 18.65)\text{ mmHg} \times \frac{1\text{ atm}}{760\text{ mmHg}} = 743.4\ \cancel{mmHg} \times \frac{1\ atm}{760\ \cancel{mmHg}}$$

$$= 0.978\ atm.$$

B Solving the ideal gas law for *V* and substituting the other quantities (in the appropriate units), we get

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} = \frac{0.115\text{ mol} \times 0.08206\dfrac{\text{atm}\cdot\text{L}}{\text{mol}\cdot\text{K}} \times 294\text{ K}}{0.978\text{ atm}} = 2.84\text{ L}$$

Exercise6.5.3

A 1.00 g sample of zinc metal is added to a solution of dilute hydrochloric acid. It dissolves to produce $\mathrm{H_2}$ gas according to the equation

$$\mathrm{Zn(s) + 2\,HCl(aq) \rightarrow H_2(g) + ZnCl_2(aq).}$$

The resulting H_2 gas is collected in a water-filled bottle at 30°C and an atmospheric pressure of 760 mmHg. What volume does it occupy?

Answer

0.397 L

Summary

The relationship between the amounts of products and reactants in a chemical reaction can be expressed in units of moles or masses of pure substances, of volumes of solutions, or of volumes of gaseous substances. The ideal gas law can be used to calculate the volume of gaseous products or reactants as needed. In the laboratory, gases produced in a reaction are often collected by the displacement of water from filled vessels; the amount of gas can then be calculated from the volume of water displaced and the atmospheric pressure. A gas collected in such a way is not pure, however, but contains a significant amount of water vapor. The measured pressure must therefore be corrected for the vapor pressure of water, which depends strongly on the temperature.

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6.6: Mixtures of Gases and Partial Pressures

Learning Objectives

- To determine the contribution of each component gas to the total pressure of a mixture of gases

In our use of the ideal gas law thus far, we have focused entirely on the properties of pure gases with only a single chemical species. But what happens when two or more gases are mixed? In this section, we describe how to determine the contribution of each gas present to the total pressure of the mixture.

Partial Pressures

The ideal gas law *assumes* that all gases behave identically and that their behavior is independent of attractive and repulsive forces. If volume and temperature are held constant, the ideal gas equation can be rearranged to show that the pressure of a sample of gas is directly proportional to the number of moles of gas present:

$$P = n\left(\frac{RT}{V}\right) = n \times \text{const.} \tag{6.6.1}$$

Nothing in the equation depends on the *nature* of the gas—only the amount.

With this assumption, let's suppose we have a mixture of two ideal gases that are present in equal amounts. What is the total pressure of the mixture? Because the pressure depends on only the total number of particles of gas present, the total pressure of the mixture will simply be twice the pressure of either component. More generally, the total pressure exerted by a mixture of gases at a given temperature and volume is the sum of the pressures exerted by each gas alone. Furthermore, if we know the volume, the temperature, and the number of moles of each gas in a mixture, then we can calculate the pressure exerted by each gas individually, which is its partial pressure, the pressure the gas would exert if it were the only one present (at the same temperature and volume).

To summarize, ***the total pressure exerted by a mixture of gases is the sum of the partial pressures of component gases***. This law was first discovered by John Dalton, the father of the atomic theory of matter. It is now known as *Dalton's law of partial pressures*. We can write it mathematically as

$$P_{tot} = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4 \ldots \tag{6.6.2}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i \tag{6.6.3}$$

where P_{tot} is the total pressure and the other terms are the partial pressures of the individual gases (up to n component gases).

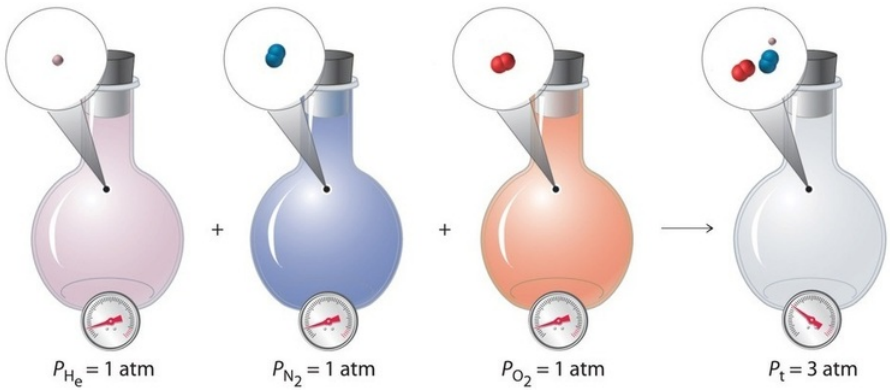


Figure 6.6.1: Dalton's Law. The total pressure of a mixture of gases is the sum of the partial pressures of the individual gases.

For a mixture of two ideal gases, A and B, we can write an expression for the total pressure:

$$P_{tot} = P_A + P_B \tag{6.6.4}$$

$$= n_A \left(\frac{RT}{V}\right) + n_B \left(\frac{RT}{V}\right) \tag{6.6.5}$$

$$= (n_A + n_B) \left(\frac{RT}{V}\right) \tag{6.6.6}$$

More generally, for a mixture of n component gases, the total pressure is given by

$$P_{tot} = (n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + \cdots + n_n) \left(\frac{RT}{V}\right) \tag{6.6.7}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} n_i \left(\frac{RT}{V}\right) \tag{6.6.8}$$

Equation 6.6.8 restates Equation 6.6.6 in a more general form and makes it explicitly clear that, at constant temperature and volume, the pressure exerted by a gas depends on only the total number of moles of gas present, whether the gas is a single chemical species or a mixture of dozens or even hundreds of gaseous species. For Equation 6.6.8 to be valid, the identity of the particles present cannot have an effect. Thus an ideal gas must be one whose properties are not affected by either the size of the particles or their intermolecular interactions because both will vary from one gas to another. The calculation of total and partial pressures for mixtures of gases is illustrated in Example 6.6.1.

Example 6.6.1: The Bends

Deep-sea divers must use special gas mixtures in their tanks, rather than compressed air, to avoid serious problems, most notably a condition called “the bends.” At depths of about 350 ft, divers are subject to a pressure of approximately 10 atm. A typical gas cylinder used for such depths contains 51.2 g of O_2 and 326.4 g of He and has a volume of 10.0 L. What is the partial pressure of each gas at 20.00°C, and what is the total pressure in the cylinder at this temperature?

Given: masses of components, total volume, and temperature

Asked for: partial pressures and total pressure

Strategy:

A. Calculate the number of moles of He and O_2 present.

B. Use the ideal gas law to calculate the partial pressure of each gas. Then add together the partial pressures to obtain the total pressure of the gaseous mixture.

Solution:

A The number of moles of He is

$$n_{\text{He}} = \frac{326.4\ \text{g}}{4.003\ \text{g/mol}} = 81.54\ \text{mol}$$

The number of moles of O_2 is

$$n_{\text{O}_2} = \frac{51.2\ \text{g}}{32.00\ \text{g/mol}} = 1.60\ \text{mol}$$

B We can now use the ideal gas law to calculate the partial pressure of each:

$$P_{\text{He}} = \frac{n_{\text{He}}\,RT}{V} = \frac{81.54\ \text{mol} \times 0.08206\ \frac{\text{atm}\cdot\text{L}}{\text{mol}\cdot\text{K}} \times 293.15\ \text{K}}{10.0\ \text{L}} = 196.2\ \text{atm}$$

$$P_{\text{O}_2} = \frac{n_{\text{O}_2}\,RT}{V} = \frac{1.60\ \text{mol} \times 0.08206\ \frac{\text{atm}\cdot\text{L}}{\text{mol}\cdot\text{K}} \times 293.15\ \text{K}}{10.0\ \text{L}} = 3.85\ \text{atm}$$

The total pressure is the sum of the two partial pressures:

$$P_{\text{tot}} = P_{\text{He}} + P_{\text{O}_2} = (196.2 + 3.85)\ \text{atm} = 200.1\ \text{atm}$$

? Exercise 6.6.1

A cylinder of compressed natural gas has a volume of 20.0 L and contains 1813 g of methane and 336 g of ethane. Calculate the partial pressure of each gas at 22.0°C and the total pressure in the cylinder.

Answer

$P_{CH_4} = 137\ atm$; $P_{C_2H_6} = 13.4\ atm$; $P_{tot} = 151\ atm$

Mole Fractions of Gas Mixtures

The composition of a gas mixture can be described by the mole fractions of the gases present. The mole fraction (χ) of any component of a mixture is the ratio of the number of moles of that component to the total number of moles of all the species present in the mixture (n_{tot}):

$$\chi_A = \frac{\text{moles of A}}{\text{total moles}} = \frac{n_A}{n_{tot}} = \frac{n_A}{n_A + n_B + \cdots} \tag{6.6.9}$$

The mole fraction is a dimensionless quantity between 0 and 1. If $\chi_A = 1.0$, then the sample is pure A, not a mixture. If $\chi_A = 0$, then no A is present in the mixture. The sum of the mole fractions of all the components present must equal 1.

To see how mole fractions can help us understand the properties of gas mixtures, let's evaluate the ratio of the pressure of a gas A to the total pressure of a gas mixture that contains A. We can use the ideal gas law to describe the pressures of both gas A and the mixture: $P_A = n_A RT/V$ and $P_{tot} = n_t RT/V$. The ratio of the two is thus

$$\frac{P_A}{P_{tot}} = \frac{n_A RT/V}{n_{tot} RT/V} = \frac{n_A}{n_{tot}} = \chi_A \tag{6.6.10}$$

Rearranging this equation gives

$$P_A = \chi_A P_{tot} \tag{6.6.11}$$

That is, the partial pressure of any gas in a mixture is the total pressure multiplied by the mole fraction of that gas. This conclusion is a direct result of the ideal gas law, which assumes that all gas particles behave ideally. Consequently, the pressure of a gas in a mixture depends on only the percentage of particles in the mixture that are of that type, not their specific physical or chemical properties. By volume, Earth's atmosphere is about 78% N_2, 21% O_2, and 0.9% Ar, with trace amounts of gases such as CO_2, H_2O, and others. This means that 78% of the particles present in the atmosphere are N_2; hence the mole fraction of N_2 is 78%/100% = 0.78. Similarly, the mole fractions of O_2 and Ar are 0.21 and 0.009, respectively. Using Equation 6.6.11, we therefore know that the partial pressure of N_2 is 0.78 atm (assuming an atmospheric pressure of exactly 760 mmHg) and, similarly, the partial pressures of O_2 and Ar are 0.21 and 0.009 atm, respectively.



Example 6.6.2: Exhaling Composition

We have just calculated the partial pressures of the major gases in the air we inhale. Experiments that measure the composition of the air we *exhale* yield different results, however. The following table gives the measured pressures of the major gases in both inhaled and exhaled air. Calculate the mole fractions of the gases in exhaled air.

the mole fractions of the gases

	Inhaled Air / mmHg	Exhaled Air / mmHg
P_{N_2}	597	568
P_{O_2}	158	116
P_{H_2O}	0.3	28
P_{CO_2}	5	48
P_{Ar}	8	8
P_{tot}	767	767

Given: pressures of gases in inhaled and exhaled air

Asked for: mole fractions of gases in exhaled air

Strategy:

Calculate the mole fraction of each gas using Equation 6.6.11.

Solution:

The mole fraction of any gas A is given by

$$\chi_A = \frac{P_A}{P_{tot}}$$

where P_A is the partial pressure of A and P_{tot} is the total pressure. For example, the mole fraction of CO_2 is given as:

$$\chi_{CO_2} = \frac{48 \text{ mmHg}}{767 \text{ mmHg}} = 0.063$$

The following table gives the values of χ_A for the gases in the exhaled air.

Solutions to Example 10.6.2

Gas	Mole Fraction
N_2	0.741
O_2	0.151
H_2O	0.037
CO_2	0.063
Ar	0.010

Exercise 6.6.2

Venus is an inhospitable place, with a surface temperature of 560°C and a surface pressure of 90 atm. The atmosphere consists of about 96% CO_2 and 3% N_2, with trace amounts of other gases, including water, sulfur dioxide, and sulfuric acid. Calculate the partial pressures of CO_2 and N_2.

Answer

$$P_{CO_2} = 86 \text{ atm}$$

$$P_{N_2} = 2.7 \text{ atm}$$

Summary

The partial pressure of each gas in a mixture is proportional to its mole fraction. The pressure exerted by each gas in a gas mixture (its **partial pressure**) is independent of the pressure exerted by all other gases present. Consequently, the total pressure exerted by a mixture of gases is the sum of the partial pressures of the components (**Dalton's law of partial pressures**). The amount of gas present in a mixture may be described by its partial pressure or its mole fraction. The **mole fraction** of any component of a mixture is the ratio of the number of moles of that substance to the total number of moles of all substances present. In a mixture of gases, the partial pressure of each gas is the product of the total pressure and the mole fraction of that gas.

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6.7: Gases in Chemical Reactions- Stoichiometry Revisited

Earlier in the course we performed stoichiometric calculations with chemical reactions using quantities of moles and mass (typically in grams). These same principles can be applied to chemical reactions involving gases except that we first have to convert volumes of gases into moles.

Example 5.7

Example

Hydrogen gas reacts with oxygen gas to produce water vapor via the following balanced chemical equation:
$2H_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2H_2O_{(g)}$
If the temperature is 320 K and pressure is 1.34 atm, what volume of oxygen is required to produce 65.0 g of water?
Strategy: Since we are given the temperature and pressure, to find the volume of oxygen using the ideal gas law we need to first calculate the moles of oxygen. To find the moles of oxygen required, we can first calculate the moles of water in 65.0g.

$$n_{water} = \frac{m_{water}}{mm_{water}} = \frac{65.0\text{ g}}{18.0\text{g/mol}} = 3.61\text{ mol of water} \tag{6.7.1}$$

From the balanced chemical equation, we can see that 1 equivalent of oxygen produces 2 equivalents of water. We can therefore write the following ratio:
1 mol O_2 : 2 mol H_2O
We can now solve for the amount of oxygen:

$$(3.61\text{ mol } H_2O) \times (\frac{1\text{ mol } O_2}{2\text{ mol } H_2O}) = 1.81\text{ mol } O_2 \tag{6.7.2}$$

Finally, now that we know how many moles of oxygen are required, we can calculate the volume of the oxygen using the ideal gas law and the temperature&pressure provided in question:

$$PV = nRT \tag{6.7.3}$$

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} \tag{6.7.4}$$

$$V = \frac{1.81\text{mol} \cdot 0.08206\frac{\text{Latm}}{\text{molK}} \cdot 320\text{K}}{1.34\text{atm}} \tag{6.7.5}$$

$$V = 35.5\text{L} \tag{6.7.6}$$

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6.8: Kinetic Molecular Theory- A Model for Gases

Learning Objectives

- To understand the significance of the kinetic molecular theory of gases.

The laws that describe the behavior of gases were well established long before anyone had developed a coherent model of the properties of gases. In this section, we introduce a theory that describes why gases behave the way they do. The theory we introduce can also be used to derive laws such as the ideal gas law from fundamental principles and the properties of individual particles.

A Molecular Description

The kinetic molecular theory of gases explains the laws that describe the behavior of gases. Developed during the mid-19th century by several physicists, including the Austrian Ludwig Boltzmann (1844–1906), the German Rudolf Clausius (1822–1888), and the Englishman James Clerk Maxwell (1831–1879), who is also known for his contributions to electricity and magnetism, this theory is based on the properties of individual particles as defined for an ideal gas and the fundamental concepts of physics. Thus the kinetic molecular theory of gases provides a molecular explanation for observations that led to the development of the ideal gas law. The kinetic molecular theory of gases is based on the following five postulates:

five postulates of Kinetic Molecular Theory

1. A gas is composed of a large number of particles called molecules (whether monatomic or polyatomic) that are in constant random motion.
2. Because the distance between gas molecules is much greater than the size of the molecules, the volume of the molecules is negligible.
3. Intermolecular interactions, whether repulsive or attractive, are so weak that they are also negligible.
4. Gas molecules collide with one another and with the walls of the container, but these collisions are perfectly elastic; that is, they do not change the average kinetic energy of the molecules.
5. The average kinetic energy of the molecules of any gas depends on only the temperature, and at a given temperature, all gaseous molecules have exactly the same average kinetic energy.

Although the molecules of real gases have nonzero volumes and exert both attractive and repulsive forces on one another, for the moment we will focus on how the kinetic molecular theory of gases relates to the properties of gases we have been discussing. In the following sections, we explain how this theory must be modified to account for the behavior of real gases.

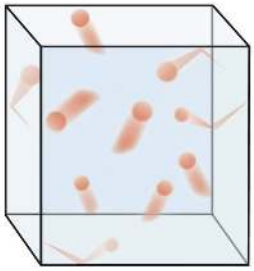


Figure 6.8.1: Visualizing molecular motion. Molecules of a gas are in constant motion and collide with one another and with the container wall.

Postulates 1 and 4 state that gas molecules are in constant motion and collide frequently with the walls of their containers. The collision of molecules with their container walls results in a **momentum transfer** (impulse) from molecules to the walls (Figure 6.8.2).

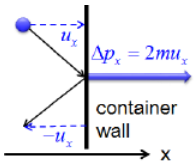


Figure 6.8.2: Momentum transfer (impulse) from a molecule to the container wall as it bounces off the wall. u_x and Δp_x are the x component of the molecular velocity and the momentum transferred to the wall, respectively. The wall is perpendicular to x axis. Since the collisions are elastic, the molecule bounces back with the same velocity in the opposite direction.

The **momentum transfer** to the wall perpendicular to x axis as a molecule with an initial velocity u_x in x direction hits is expressed as:

$$\Delta p_x = 2mu_x \tag{6.8.1}$$

The **collision frequency**, a number of collisions of the molecules to the wall per unit area and per second, increases with the molecular speed and the number of molecules per unit volume.

$$f \propto (u_x) \times \left(\frac{N}{V}\right) \tag{6.8.2}$$

The pressure the gas exerts on the wall is expressed as the product of impulse and the collision frequency.

$$P \propto (2mu_x) \times (u_x) \times \left(\frac{N}{V}\right) \propto \left(\frac{N}{V}\right) mu_x^2 \tag{6.8.3}$$

At any instant, however, the molecules in a gas sample are traveling at different speed. Therefore, we must replace u_x^2 in the expression above with the average value of u_x^2, which is denoted by $\overline{u_x^2}$. The overbar designates the average value over all molecules.

The exact expression for pressure is given as :

$$P = \frac{N}{V} m\overline{u_x^2} \tag{6.8.4}$$

Finally, we must consider that there is nothing special about x direction. We should expect that

$$\overline{u_x^2} = \overline{u_y^2} = \overline{u_z^2} = \frac{1}{3}\overline{u^2}.$$

Here the quantity $\overline{u^2}$ is called the **mean-square speed** defined as the average value of square-speed (u^2) over all molecules. Since

$$u^2 = u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2$$

for each molecule, then

$$\overline{u^2} = \overline{u_x^2} + \overline{u_y^2} + \overline{u_z^2}.$$

By substituting $\frac{1}{3}\overline{u^2}$ for $\overline{u_x^2}$ in the expression above, we can get the final expression for the pressure:

$$P = \frac{1}{3}\frac{N}{V} m\overline{u^2} \tag{6.8.5}$$

Because volumes and intermolecular interactions are negligible, postulates 2 and 3 state that all gaseous particles behave identically, regardless of the chemical nature of their component molecules. This is the essence of the ideal gas law, which treats all gases as collections of particles that are identical in all respects except mass. Postulate 2 also explains why it is relatively easy to compress a gas; you simply decrease the distance between the gas molecules.

Postulate 5 provides a molecular explanation for the temperature of a gas. Postulate 5 refers to the *average translational* kinetic energy of the molecules of a gas ($\overline{e_K}$), which can be represented as *and states that at a given Kelvin temperature* (T), *all gases have the same value of*

$$\overline{e_K} = \frac{1}{2} m\overline{u^2} = \frac{3}{2}\frac{R}{N_A} T \tag{6.8.6}$$

where N_A is the Avogadro's constant. The total translational kinetic energy of 1 mole of molecules can be obtained by multiplying the equation by N_A:

$$N_A\overline{e_K} = \frac{1}{2}M\overline{u^2} = \frac{3}{2}RT \tag{6.8.7}$$

where M is the molar mass of the gas molecules and is related to the molecular mass by $M = N_A m$. By rearranging the equation, we can get the relationship between the root-mean square speed (u_{rms}) and the temperature. The rms speed (u_{rms}) is the square root of the sum of the squared speeds divided by the number of particles:

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\overline{u^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \cdots u_N^2}{N}} \tag{6.8.8}$$

where N is the number of particles and u_i is the speed of particle i.

The relationship between u_{rms} and the temperature is given by:

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}} \tag{6.8.9}$$

In Equation 6.8.9, u_{rms} has units of meters per second; consequently, the units of molar mass M are kilograms per mole, temperature T is expressed in kelvins, and the ideal gas constant R has the value 8.3145 J/(K•mol). Equation 6.8.9 shows that u_{rms} of a gas is proportional to the square root of its Kelvin temperature and inversely proportional to the square root of its molar mass. The root mean-square speed of a gas increase with increasing temperature. At a given temperature, heavier gas molecules have slower speeds than do lighter ones.

The rms speed and the average speed do not differ greatly (typically by less than 10%). The distinction is important, however, because the rms speed is the speed of a gas particle that has average kinetic energy. Particles of different gases at the same temperature have the same average kinetic energy, not the same average speed. In contrast, the most probable speed (vp) is the speed at which the greatest number of particles is moving. If the average kinetic energy of the particles of a gas increases linearly with increasing temperature, then Equation 6.8.8 tells us that the rms speed must also increase with temperature because the mass of the particles is constant. At higher temperatures, therefore, the molecules of a gas move more rapidly than at lower temperatures, and vp increases.

> *At a given temperature, all gaseous particles have the same average kinetic energy but not the same average speed.*

Example 6.8.1

The speeds of eight particles were found to be 1.0, 4.0, 4.0, 6.0, 6.0, 6.0, 8.0, and 10.0 m/s. Calculate their average speed (v_{av}) root mean square speed (v_{rms}), and most probable speed (v_{m}).

Given: particle speeds

Asked for: average speed (v_{av}), root mean square speed (v_{rms}), and most probable speed (v_{m})

Strategy:

Use Equation 6.8.6 to calculate the average speed and Equation 6.8.8 to calculate the rms speed. Find the most probable speed by determining the speed at which the greatest number of particles is moving.

Solution:

The average speed is the sum of the speeds divided by the number of particles:

$$v_{\text{av}} = \frac{(1.0 + 4.0 + 4.0 + 6.0 + 6.0 + 6.0 + 8.0 + 10.0)\ \text{m/s}}{8} = 5.6\ \text{m/s}$$

The rms speed is the square root of the sum of the squared speeds divided by the number of particles:

$$v_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{(1.0^2 + 4.0^2 + 4.0^2 + 6.0^2 + 6.0^2 + 6.0^2 + 8.0^2 + 10.0^2)\ \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2}{8}} = 6.2\ \text{m/s}$$

The most probable speed is the speed at which the greatest number of particles is moving. Of the eight particles, three have speeds of 6.0 m/s, two have speeds of 4.0 m/s, and the other three particles have different speeds. Hence $v_{\text{m}} = 6.0$ m/s. The v_{rms} of the particles, which is related to the average kinetic energy, is greater than their average speed.

Boltzmann Distributions

At any given time, what fraction of the molecules in a particular sample has a given speed? Some of the molecules will be moving more slowly than average, and some will be moving faster than average, but how many in each situation? Answers to questions such as these can have a substantial effect on the amount of product formed during a chemical reaction. This problem was solved mathematically by Maxwell in 1866; he used statistical analysis to obtain an equation that describes the distribution of molecular speeds at a given temperature. Typical curves showing the distributions of speeds of molecules at several temperatures are displayed in Figure 6.8.3. Increasing the temperature has two effects. First, the peak of the curve moves to the right because the most probable speed increases. Second, the curve becomes broader because of the increased spread of the speeds. Thus increased temperature increases the *value* of the most probable speed but decreases the relative number of molecules that have that speed. Although the mathematics behind curves such as those in Figure 6.8.3 were first worked out by Maxwell, the curves are almost universally referred to as Boltzmann distributions, after one of the other major figures responsible for the kinetic molecular theory of gases.

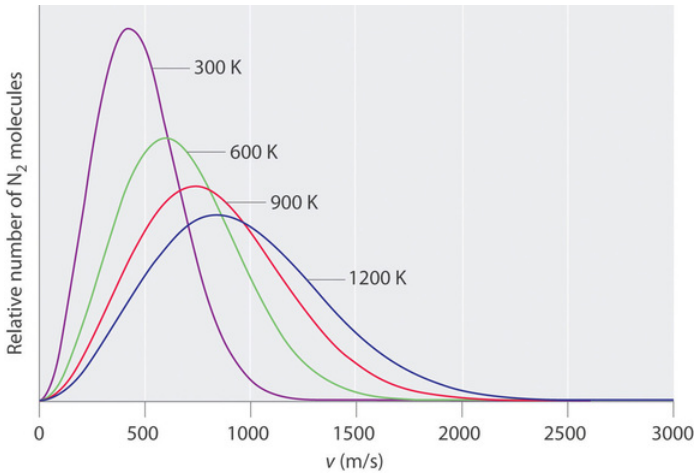


Figure 6.8.3: The Distributions of Molecular Speeds for a Sample of Nitrogen Gas at Various Temperatures. Increasing the temperature increases both the most probable speed (given at the peak of the curve) and the width of the curve.

The Relationships among Pressure, Volume, and Temperature

We now describe how the kinetic molecular theory of gases explains some of the important relationships we have discussed previously.

- **Pressure versus Volume**: At constant temperature, the kinetic energy of the molecules of a gas and hence the rms speed remain unchanged. If a given gas sample is allowed to occupy a larger volume, then the speed of the molecules does not change, but the density of the gas (number of particles per unit volume) decreases, and the average distance between the molecules increases. Hence the molecules must, on average, travel farther between collisions. They therefore collide with one another and with the walls of their containers less often, leading to a decrease in pressure. Conversely, increasing the pressure forces the molecules closer together and increases the density, until the collective impact of the collisions of the molecules with the container walls just balances the applied pressure.
- **Volume versus Temperature**: Raising the temperature of a gas increases the average kinetic energy and therefore the rms speed (and the average speed) of the gas molecules. Hence as the temperature increases, the molecules collide with the walls of their containers more frequently and with greater force. This increases the pressure, *unless* the volume increases to reduce the pressure, as we have just seen. Thus an increase in temperature must be offset by an increase in volume for the net impact (pressure) of the gas molecules on the container walls to remain unchanged.
- **Pressure of Gas Mixtures**: Postulate 3 of the kinetic molecular theory of gases states that gas molecules exert no attractive or repulsive forces on one another. If the gaseous molecules do not interact, then the presence of one gas in a gas mixture will have no effect on the pressure exerted by another, and Dalton's law of partial pressures holds.

Example 6.8.2

The temperature of a 4.75 L container of N_2 gas is increased from 0°C to 117°C. What is the qualitative effect of this change on the

a. average kinetic energy of the N_2 molecules?
b. rms speed of the N_2 molecules?
c. average speed of the N_2 molecules?
d. impact of each N_2 molecule on the wall of the container during a collision with the wall?
e. total number of collisions per second of N_2 molecules with the walls of the entire container?
f. number of collisions per second of N_2 molecules with each square centimeter of the container wall?
g. pressure of the N_2 gas?

Given: temperatures and volume

Asked for: effect of increase in temperature

Strategy:

Use the relationships among pressure, volume, and temperature to predict the qualitative effect of an increase in the temperature of the gas.

Solution:

a. Increasing the temperature increases the average kinetic energy of the N_2 molecules.
b. An increase in average kinetic energy can be due only to an increase in the rms speed of the gas particles.
c. If the rms speed of the N_2 molecules increases, the average speed also increases.
d. If, on average, the particles are moving faster, then they strike the container walls with more energy.
e. Because the particles are moving faster, they collide with the walls of the container more often per unit time.
f. The number of collisions per second of N_2 molecules with each square centimeter of container wall increases because the total number of collisions has increased, but the volume occupied by the gas and hence the total area of the walls are unchanged.
g. The pressure exerted by the N_2 gas increases when the temperature is increased at constant volume, as predicted by the ideal gas law.

Exercise 6.8.2

A sample of helium gas is confined in a cylinder with a gas-tight sliding piston. The initial volume is 1.34 L, and the temperature is 22°C. The piston is moved to allow the gas to expand to 2.12 L at constant temperature. What is the qualitative effect of this change on the

a. average kinetic energy of the He atoms?
b. rms speed of the He atoms?
c. average speed of the He atoms?
d. impact of each He atom on the wall of the container during a collision with the wall?
e. total number of collisions per second of He atoms with the walls of the entire container?
f. number of collisions per second of He atoms with each square centimeter of the container wall?
g. pressure of the He gas?

Answer a

no change

Answer b

no change

Answer c

no change

Answer d

no change

Answer e

decreases

Answer f

decreases

Answer g

decreases



Summary

- The kinetic molecular theory of gases provides a molecular explanation for the observations that led to the development of the ideal gas law.
- **Average kinetic energy:**

$$\overline{e_K} = \frac{1}{2} m {u_{\text{rms}}}^2 = \frac{3}{2} \frac{R}{N_A} T n$$

- **Root mean square speed:**

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \cdots u_N^2}{N}}$$

- **Kinetic molecular theory of gases:**

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}$$

The behavior of ideal gases is explained by the **kinetic molecular theory of gases**. Molecular motion, which leads to collisions between molecules and the container walls, explains pressure, and the large intermolecular distances in gases explain their high compressibility. Although all gases have the same average kinetic energy at a given temperature, they do not all possess the same **root mean square (rms) speed (v_{rms})**. The actual values of speed and kinetic energy are not the same for all particles of a gas but are given by a **Boltzmann distribution**, in which some molecules have higher or lower speeds (and kinetic energies) than average.

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6.9: Mean Free Path, Diffusion, and Effusion of Gases

Learning Objectives

- To understand the significance of the kinetic molecular theory of gases

We now describe how the kinetic molecular theory of gases explains some of the important relationships we have discussed previously.

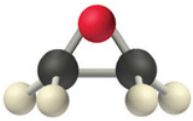
Diffusion and Effusion

As you have learned, the molecules of a gas are *not* stationary but in constant and random motion. If someone opens a bottle of perfume in the next room, for example, you are likely to be aware of it soon. Your sense of smell relies on molecules of the aromatic substance coming into contact with specialized olfactory cells in your nasal passages, which contain specific receptors (protein molecules) that recognize the substance. How do the molecules responsible for the aroma get from the perfume bottle to your nose? You might think that they are blown by drafts, but, in fact, molecules can move from one place to another even in a draft-free environment.

Diffusion is the gradual mixing of gases due to the motion of their component particles even in the absence of mechanical agitation such as stirring. The result is a gas mixture with uniform composition. Diffusion is also a property of the particles in liquids and liquid solutions and, to a lesser extent, of solids and solid solutions. The related process, **effusion**, is the escape of gaseous molecules through a small (usually microscopic) hole, such as a hole in a balloon, into an evacuated space.

The phenomenon of effusion had been known for thousands of years, but it was not until the early 19th century that quantitative experiments related the rate of effusion to molecular properties. The rate of effusion of a gaseous substance is inversely proportional to the square root of its molar mass. This relationship *is referred to as Graham's law*, after the Scottish chemist Thomas Graham (1805–1869). The ratio of the effusion rates of two gases is the square root of the inverse ratio of their molar masses*:*

$$\frac{\text{rate of effusion A}}{\text{rate of effusion B}} = \sqrt{\frac{M_B}{M_A}} \tag{6.9.1}$$



Ethylene oxide

Helium (M = 4.00 g/mol) effuses much more rapidly than ethylene oxide (M = 44.0 g/mol). Because helium is less dense than air, helium-filled balloons "float" at the end of a tethering string. Unfortunately, rubber balloons filled with helium soon lose their buoyancy along with much of their volume. In contrast, rubber balloons filled with air tend to retain their shape and volume for a much longer time. Because helium has a molar mass of 4.00 g/mol, whereas air has an average molar mass of about 29 g/mol, pure helium effuses through the microscopic pores in the rubber balloon $\sqrt{\frac{29}{4.00}} = 2.7$ times faster than air. For this reason, high-quality helium-filled balloons are usually made of Mylar, a dense, strong, opaque material with a high molecular mass that forms films that have many fewer pores than rubber. Hence, mylar balloons can retain their helium for days.

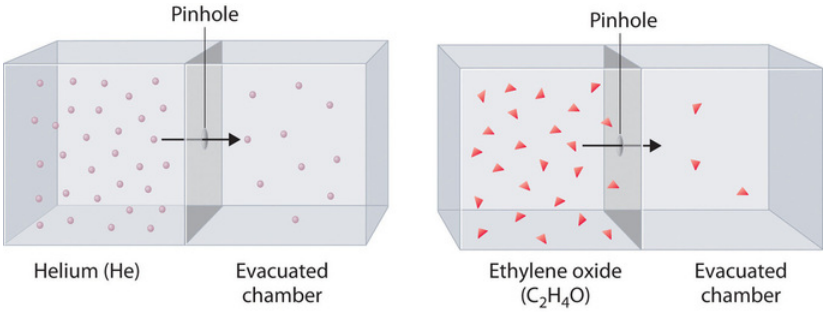


Figure 6.9.1: The Relative Rates of Effusion of Two Gases with Different Masses. The lighter He atoms (M = 4.00 g/mol) effuse through the small hole more rapidly than the heavier ethylene oxide (C_2H_4O) molecules (M = 44.0 g/mol), as predicted by Graham's law (Equation 6.9.1).

> *At a given temperature, heavier molecules move more slowly than lighter molecules.*



Example 6.9.1

During World War II, scientists working on the first atomic bomb were faced with the challenge of finding a way to obtain large amounts of ^{235}U. Naturally occurring uranium is only 0.720% ^{235}U, whereas most of the rest (99.275%) is ^{238}U, which is not fissionable (i.e., it will not break apart to release nuclear energy) and also actually poisons the fission process. Because both isotopes of uranium have the same reactivity, they cannot be separated chemically. Instead, a process of gaseous effusion was developed using the volatile compound UF_6 (boiling point = 56°C).

1. Calculate the ratio of the rates of effusion of $^{235}UF_6$ and $^{238}UF_6$ for a single step in which UF_6 is allowed to pass through a porous barrier. (The atomic mass of ^{235}U is 235.04, and the atomic mass of ^{238}U is 238.05.)
2. If n identical successive separation steps are used, the overall separation is given by the separation in a single step (in this case, the ratio of effusion rates) raised to the nth power. How many effusion steps are needed to obtain 99.0% pure $^{235}UF_6$?

Given: isotopic content of naturally occurring uranium and atomic masses of ^{235}U and ^{238}U

Asked for: ratio of rates of effusion and number of effusion steps needed to obtain 99.0% pure $^{235}UF_6$

Strategy:

A. Calculate the molar masses of $^{235}UF_6$ and $^{238}UF_6$, and then use Graham's law to determine the ratio of the effusion rates. Use this value to determine the isotopic content of $^{235}UF_6$ after a single effusion step.
B. Divide the final purity by the initial purity to obtain a value for the number of separation steps needed to achieve the desired purity. Use a logarithmic expression to compute the number of separation steps required.

Solution:

A The first step is to calculate the molar mass of UF_6 containing ^{235}U and ^{238}U. Luckily for the success of the separation method, fluorine consists of a single isotope of atomic mass 18.998. The molar mass of $^{235}UF_6$ is

$$234.04 + (6)(18.998) = 349.03 \text{ g/mol}$$

The molar mass of $^{238}UF_6$ is

$$238.05 + (6)(18.998) = 352.04 \text{ g/mol}$$

The difference is only 3.01 g/mol (less than 1%). The ratio of the effusion rates can be calculated from Graham's law using Equation 6.9.1:

$$\frac{\text{rate } ^{235}UF_6}{\text{rate } ^{238}UF_6} = \sqrt{\frac{352.04 \text{ g/mol}}{349.03 \text{ g/mol}}} = 1.0043$$

B To obtain 99.0% pure $^{235}UF_6$ requires many steps. We can set up an equation that relates the initial and final purity to the number of times the separation process is repeated:

final purity = (initial purity)(separation)^n

In this case, 0.990 = (0.00720)(1.0043)^n, which can be rearranged to give

$$1.0043^n = \frac{0.990}{0.00720} = 137.50$$

Taking the logarithm of both sides gives

$$n \ln(1.0043) = \ln(137.50) \tag{6.9.2}$$

$$n = \frac{\ln(137.50)}{\ln(1.0043)} \tag{6.9.3}$$

$$= 1148 \tag{6.9.4}$$

Thus at least a thousand effusion steps are necessary to obtain highly enriched ^{235}U. Below is a small part of a system that is used to prepare enriched uranium on a large scale.



A Portion of a Plant for Separating Uranium Isotopes by Effusion of UF_6. The large cylindrical objects (note the human for scale) are so-called diffuser (actually effuser) units, in which gaseous UF_6 is pumped through a porous barrier to partially separate the isotopes. The UF_6 must be passed through multiple units to become substantially enriched in ^{235}U.

? Exercise 6.9.1

Helium consists of two isotopes: ^3He (natural abundance = 0.000134%) and ^4He (natural abundance = 99.999866%). Their atomic masses are 3.01603 and 4.00260, respectively. Helium-3 has unique physical properties and is used in the study of ultralow temperatures. It is separated from the more abundant ^4He by a process of gaseous effusion.

a. Calculate the ratio of the effusion rates of ^3He and ^4He and thus the enrichment possible in a single effusion step.
b. How many effusion steps are necessary to yield 99.0% pure ^3He?

Answer a

ratio of effusion rates = 1.15200; one step gives 0.000154% ^3He

Answer b

96 steps

Rates of Diffusion or Effusion

Graham's law is an empirical relationship that states that the ratio of the rates of diffusion or effusion of two gases is the square root of the inverse ratio of their molar masses. The relationship is based on the postulate that all gases at the same temperature have the same average kinetic energy. We can write the expression for the average kinetic energy of two gases with different molar masses:

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}\frac{M_{\text{A}}}{N_A}v_{\text{rms,A}}^2 = \frac{1}{2}\frac{M_{\text{B}}}{N_A}v_{\text{rms,B}}^2 \tag{6.9.5}$$

Multiplying both sides by 2 and rearranging give

$$\frac{v_{\text{rms,B}}^2}{v_{\text{rms,A}}^2} = \frac{M_{\text{A}}}{M_{\text{B}}} \tag{6.9.6}$$

Taking the square root of both sides gives

$$\frac{v_{\text{rms,B}}}{v_{\text{rms,A}}} = \sqrt{\frac{M_{\text{A}}}{M_{\text{B}}}} \tag{6.9.7}$$

Thus the rate at which a molecule, or a mole of molecules, diffuses or effuses is directly related to the speed at which it moves. Equation 6.9.7 shows that Graham's law is a direct consequence of the fact that gaseous molecules at the same temperature have the same average kinetic energy.

Typically, gaseous molecules have a speed of hundreds of meters per second (hundreds of miles per hour). The effect of molar mass on these speeds is dramatic, as illustrated in Figure 6.9.3 for some common gases. Because all gases have the same average kinetic energy, according to the Boltzmann distribution, molecules with lower masses, such as hydrogen and helium, have a wider distribution of speeds.

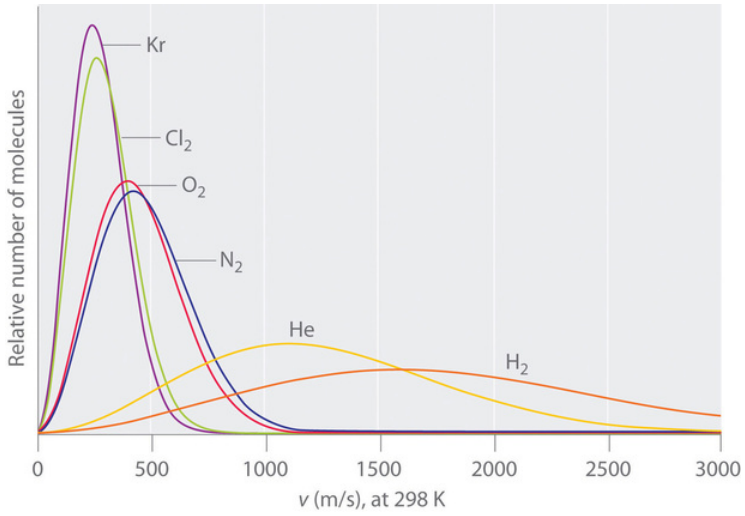


Figure 6.9.3: The Wide Variation in Molecular Speeds Observed at 298 K for Gases with Different Molar Masses

The lightest gases have a wider distribution of speeds and the highest average speeds.

> *Molecules with lower masses have a wider distribution of speeds and a higher average speed.*

Gas molecules do not diffuse nearly as rapidly as their very high speeds might suggest. If molecules actually moved through a room at hundreds of miles per hour, we would detect odors faster than we hear sound. Instead, it can take several minutes for us to detect an aroma because molecules are traveling in a medium with other gas molecules. Because gas molecules collide as often as 10^{10} times per second, changing direction and speed with each collision, they do not diffuse across a room in a straight line, as illustrated schematically in Figure 6.9.4.

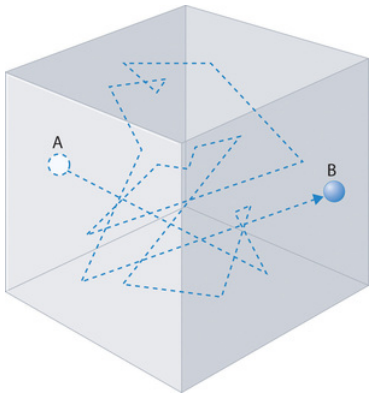


Figure 6.9.4: The Path of a Single Particle in a Gas Sample. The frequent changes in direction are the result of collisions with other gas molecules and with the walls of the container.

The average distance traveled by a molecule between collisions is the mean free path. The denser the gas, the shorter the mean free path; conversely, as density decreases, the mean free path becomes longer because collisions occur less frequently. At 1 atm pressure and 25°C, for example, an oxygen or nitrogen molecule in the atmosphere travels only about 6.0×10^{-8} m (60 nm) between collisions. In the upper atmosphere at about 100 km altitude, where gas density is much lower, the mean free path is about 10 cm; in space between galaxies, it can be as long as 1×10^{10} m (about 6 million miles).

> *The **denser** the gas, the **shorter** the mean free path.*

Example 6.9.2

Calculate the rms speed of a sample -butene (C_4H_8) at 20°C.

Given: compound and temperature

Asked for: rms speed

Strategy:

Calculate the molar mass of cis-2-butene. Be certain that all quantities are expressed in the appropriate units and then use Equation 10.8.5 to calculate the rms speed of the gas.

Solution:

To use Equation 10.8.4, we need to calculate the molar mass of *cis*-2-butene and make sure that each quantity is expressed in the appropriate units. Butene is C_4H_8, so its molar mass is 56.11 g/mol. Thus

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}} \tag{6.9.8}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{3 \times 8.3145 \ \dfrac{\text{J}}{\text{K} \cdot \text{mol}} \times (20 + 273) \ \text{K}}{56.11 \times 10^{-3} \ \text{kg}}} \tag{6.9.9}$$

$$= 361 \ m/s \tag{6.9.10}$$

or approximately 810 mi/h.

Exercise 6.9.1

Calculate the rms speed of a sample of radon gas at 23°C.

Answer

$1.82 \times 10^2 \ m/s$ (about 410 mi/h)

The kinetic molecular theory of gases demonstrates how a successful theory can explain previously observed empirical relationships (laws) in an intuitively satisfying way. Unfortunately, the actual gases that we encounter are not “ideal,” although their behavior usually approximates that of an ideal gas.

Summary

- The kinetic molecular theory of gases provides a molecular explanation for the observations that led to the development of the ideal gas law.
- **Average kinetic energy:**

$$\overline{e_K} = \frac{1}{2} m {u_{\text{rms}}}^2 = \frac{3}{2} \frac{R}{N_A} T,$$

- **Root mean square speed:**

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \cdots u_N^2}{N}},$$

- **Kinetic molecular theory of gases**:

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}.$$

- **Graham’s law for effusion:**

$$\frac{v_{\text{rms,B}}}{v_{\text{rms,A}}} = \sqrt{\frac{M_{\text{A}}}{M_{\text{B}}}}$$

Diffusion is the gradual mixing of gases to form a sample of uniform composition even in the absence of mechanical agitation. In contrast, **effusion** is the escape of a gas from a container through a tiny opening into an evacuated space. The rate of effusion of a gas is inversely proportional to the square root of its molar mass (**Graham’s law**), a relationship that closely approximates the rate of diffusion. As a result, light gases tend to diffuse and effuse much more rapidly than heavier gases. The **mean free path** of a molecule is the average distance it travels between collisions.

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6.10: Real Gases- The Effects of Size and Intermolecular Forces

Learning Objectives

- To recognize the differences between the behavior of an ideal gas and a real gas
- To understand how molecular volumes and intermolecular attractions cause the properties of real gases to deviate from those predicted by the ideal gas law.

The postulates of the kinetic molecular theory of gases ignore both the volume occupied by the molecules of a gas and all interactions between molecules, whether attractive or repulsive. In reality, however, all gases have nonzero molecular volumes. Furthermore, the molecules of real gases interact with one another in ways that depend on the structure of the molecules and therefore differ for each gaseous substance. In this section, we consider the properties of real gases and how and why they differ from the predictions of the ideal gas law. We also examine liquefaction, a key property of real gases that is not predicted by the kinetic molecular theory of gases.

Pressure, Volume, and Temperature Relationships in Real Gases

For an ideal gas, a plot of PV/nRT versus P gives a horizontal line with an intercept of 1 on the PV/nRT axis. Real gases, however, show significant deviations from the behavior expected for an ideal gas, particularly at high pressures (Figure $6.10.1a$). Only at relatively low pressures (less than 1 atm) do real gases approximate ideal gas behavior (Figure $6.10.1b$).

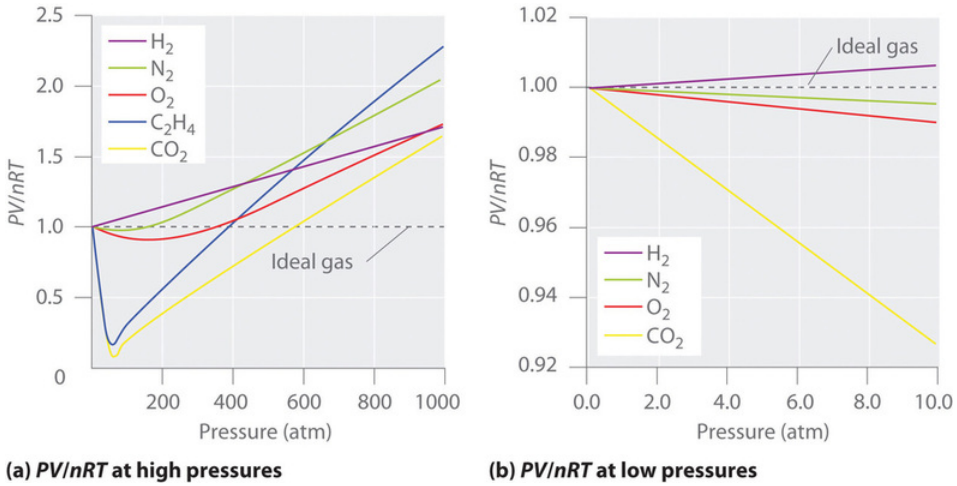


Figure 6.10.1: Real Gases Do Not Obey the Ideal Gas Law, Especially at High Pressures. (a) In these plots of *PV*/*nRT* versus *P* at 273 K for several common gases, there are large negative deviations observed for C_2H_4 and CO_2 because they liquefy at relatively low pressures. (b) These plots illustrate the relatively good agreement between experimental data for real gases and the ideal gas law at low pressures.

Real gases also approach ideal gas behavior more closely at higher temperatures, as shown in Figure $6.10.2$ for N_2. Why do real gases behave so differently from ideal gases at high pressures and low temperatures? Under these conditions, the two basic assumptions behind the ideal gas law—namely, that gas molecules have negligible volume and that intermolecular interactions are negligible—are no longer valid.

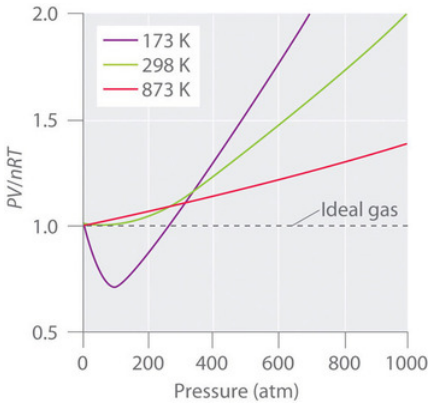


Figure 6.10.2: The Effect of Temperature on the Behavior of Real Gases. A plot of PV/nRT versus P for nitrogen gas at three temperatures shows that the approximation to ideal gas behavior becomes better as the temperature increases.

Because the molecules of an ideal gas are assumed to have zero volume, the volume available to them for motion is always the same as the volume of the container. In contrast, the molecules of a real gas have small but measurable volumes. At low pressures, the gaseous molecules are relatively far apart, but as the pressure of the gas increases, the intermolecular distances become smaller and smaller (Figure 6.10.3). As a result, the volume occupied by the molecules becomes significant compared with the volume of the container. Consequently, the total volume occupied by the gas is greater than the volume predicted by the ideal gas law. Thus at very high pressures, the experimentally measured value of *PV*/*nRT* is greater than the value predicted by the ideal gas law.

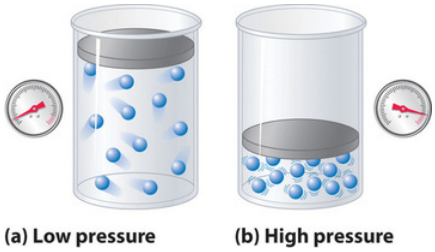


Figure 6.10.3: The Effect of Nonzero Volume of Gas Particles on the Behavior of Gases at Low and High Pressures. (a) At low pressures, the volume occupied by the molecules themselves is small compared with the volume of the container. (b) At high pressures, the molecules occupy a large portion of the volume of the container, resulting in significantly decreased space in which the molecules can move.

Moreover, all molecules are attracted to one another by a combination of forces. These forces become particularly important for gases at low temperatures and high pressures, where intermolecular distances are shorter. Attractions between molecules reduce the number of collisions with the container wall, an effect that becomes more pronounced as the number of attractive interactions increases. Because the average distance between molecules decreases, the pressure exerted by the gas on the container wall decreases, and the observed pressure is *less* than expected (Figure 6.10.4). Thus as shown in Figure 6.10.2, at low temperatures, the ratio of \(PV/nRT\) is lower than predicted for an ideal gas, an effect that becomes particularly evident for complex gases and for simple gases at low temperatures. At very high pressures, the effect of nonzero molecular volume predominates. The competition between these effects is responsible for the minimum observed in the PV/nRT versus P plot for many gases.

> *Nonzero molecular volume makes the actual volume greater than predicted at high pressures; intermolecular attractions make the pressure less than predicted.*

At high temperatures, the molecules have sufficient kinetic energy to overcome intermolecular attractive forces, and the effects of nonzero molecular volume predominate. Conversely, as the temperature is lowered, the kinetic energy of the gas molecules decreases. Eventually, a point is reached where the molecules can no longer overcome the intermolecular attractive forces, and the gas liquefies (condenses to a liquid).

The van der Waals Equation

The Dutch physicist Johannes van der Waals (1837–1923; Nobel Prize in Physics, 1910) modified the ideal gas law to describe the behavior of real gases by explicitly including the effects of molecular size and intermolecular forces. In his description of gas behavior, the so-called *van der Waals* equation,

$$\underbrace{\left(P+\frac{an^2}{V^2}\right)}_{\text{Pressure Term}}\overbrace{(V-nb)}^{\text{Pressure Term}}=nRT \tag{6.10.1}$$

a and *b* are empirical constants that are different for each gas. The values of a and b are listed in Table $6.10.1$ for several common gases.

Table 6.10.1:: van der Waals Constants for Some Common Gases (see Table A8 for more complete list)

Gas	*a* ($L^2 \cdot atm/mol^2$)	*b* (L/mol)
He	0.03410	0.0238
Ne	0.205	0.0167
Ar	1.337	0.032
H_2	0.2420	0.0265
N_2	1.352	0.0387
O_2	1.364	0.0319
Cl_2	6.260	0.0542
NH_3	4.170	0.0371
CH_4	2.273	0.0430
CO_2	3.610	0.0429

The pressure term in Equation 6.10.1 corrects for intermolecular attractive forces that tend to reduce the pressure from that predicted by the ideal gas law. Here, n^2/V^2 represents the concentration of the gas (n/V) squared because it takes two particles to engage in the pairwise intermolecular interactions of the type shown in Figure $6.10.4$ The volume term corrects for the volume occupied by the gaseous molecules.

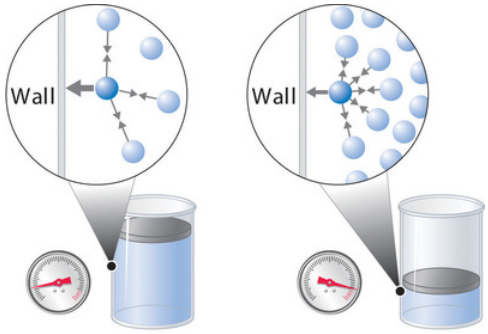


Figure 6.10.4: The Effect of Intermolecular Attractive Forces on the Pressure a Gas Exerts on the Container Walls. (a) At low pressures, there are relatively few attractive intermolecular interactions to lessen the impact of the molecule striking the wall of the container, and the pressure is close to that predicted by the ideal gas law. (b) At high pressures, with the average intermolecular distance relatively small, the effect of intermolecular interactions is to lessen the impact of a given molecule striking the container wall, resulting in a lower pressure than predicted by the ideal gas law.

The correction for volume is negative, but the correction for pressure is positive to reflect the effect of each factor on *V* and *P*, respectively. Because nonzero molecular volumes produce a measured volume that is *larger* than that predicted by the ideal gas law, we must subtract the molecular volumes to obtain the actual volume available. Conversely, attractive intermolecular forces produce a pressure that is *less* than that expected based on the ideal gas law, so the an^2/V^2 term must be added to the measured pressure to correct for these effects.

Example 6.10.1

You are in charge of the manufacture of cylinders of compressed gas at a small company. Your company president would like to offer a 4.00 L cylinder containing 500 g of chlorine in the new catalog. The cylinders you have on hand have a rupture pressure of 40 atm. Use both the ideal gas law and the van der Waals equation to calculate the pressure in a cylinder at 25°C. Is this cylinder likely to be safe against sudden rupture (which would be disastrous and certainly result in lawsuits because chlorine gas is highly toxic)?

Given: volume of cylinder, mass of compound, pressure, and temperature

Asked for: safety

Strategy:

A Use the molar mass of chlorine to calculate the amount of chlorine in the cylinder. Then calculate the pressure of the gas using the ideal gas law.

B Obtain *a* and *b* values for Cl_2 from Table 6.10.1. Use the van der Waals equation (6.10.1) to solve for the pressure of the gas. Based on the value obtained, predict whether the cylinder is likely to be safe against sudden rupture.

Solution:

A We begin by calculating the amount of chlorine in the cylinder using the molar mass of chlorine (70.906 g/mol):

$$n = \frac{m}{M} \tag{6.10.2}$$

$$= \frac{500\ \text{g}}{70.906\ \text{g/mol}} \tag{6.10.3}$$

$$= 7.052\ mol$$

Using the ideal gas law and the temperature in kelvin (298 K), we calculate the pressure:

$$P = \frac{nRT}{V} \tag{6.10.4}$$

$$= \frac{7.052\ \text{mol} \times 0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 298\ \text{K}}{4.00\ \text{L}} \tag{6.10.5}$$

$$= 43.1\ atm \tag{6.10.6}$$

If chlorine behaves like an ideal gas, you have a real problem!

B Now let's use the van der Waals equation with the *a* and *b* values for Cl_2 from Table 6.10.1. Solving for P gives

$$P = \frac{nRT}{V - nb} - \frac{an^2}{V^2} \tag{6.10.7}$$

$$= \frac{7.052\ \text{mol} \times 0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 298\ \text{K}}{4.00\ \text{L} - 7.052\ \text{mol} \times 0.0542 \frac{\text{L}}{\text{mol}}} - \frac{6.260 \frac{\text{L}^2\text{atm}}{\text{mol}^2} \times (7.052\ \text{mol})^2}{(4.00\ \text{L})^2} \tag{6.10.8}$$

$$= 28.2\ \text{atm} \tag{6.10.9}$$

This pressure is well within the safety limits of the cylinder. The ideal gas law predicts a pressure 15 atm higher than that of the van der Waals equation.

Exercise 6.10.1

A 10.0 L cylinder contains 500 g of methane. Calculate its pressure to two significant figures at 27°C using the

a. ideal gas law.
b. van der Waals equation.

Answer a

77 atm

Answer b

67 atm

Liquefaction of Gases

Liquefaction of gases is the condensation of gases into a liquid form, which is neither anticipated nor explained by the kinetic molecular theory of gases. Both the theory and the ideal gas law predict that gases compressed to very high pressures and cooled to very low temperatures should still behave like gases, albeit cold, dense ones. As gases are compressed and cooled, however, they invariably condense to form liquids, although very low temperatures are needed to liquefy light elements such as helium (for He, 4.2 K at 1 atm pressure).

Liquefaction can be viewed as an extreme deviation from ideal gas behavior. It occurs when the molecules of a gas are cooled to the point where they no longer possess sufficient kinetic energy to overcome intermolecular attractive forces. The precise combination of temperature and pressure needed to liquefy a gas depends strongly on its molar mass and structure, with heavier and more complex molecules usually liquefying at higher temperatures. In general, substances with large van der Waals *a* coefficients are relatively easy to liquefy because large *a* coefficients indicate relatively strong intermolecular attractive interactions. Conversely, small molecules with only light elements have small *a* coefficients, indicating weak intermolecular interactions, and they are relatively difficult to liquefy. Gas liquefaction is used on a massive scale to separate O_2, N_2, Ar, Ne, Kr, and Xe. After a sample of air is liquefied, the mixture is warmed, and the gases are separated according to their boiling points.

> *A large value of a in the van der Waals equation indicates the presence of relatively strong intermolecular attractive interactions.*

The ultracold liquids formed from the liquefaction of gases are called cryogenic liquids, from the Greek *kryo*, meaning “cold,” and *genes*, meaning “producing.” They have applications as refrigerants in both industry and biology. For example, under carefully controlled conditions, the very cold temperatures afforded by liquefied gases such as nitrogen (boiling point = 77 K at 1 atm) can preserve biological materials, such as semen for the artificial insemination of cows and other farm animals. These liquids can also be used in a specialized type of surgery called *cryosurgery*, which selectively destroys tissues with a minimal loss of blood by the use of extreme cold.



Figure 6.10.5: A Liquid Natural Gas Transport Ship.

Moreover, the liquefaction of gases is tremendously important in the storage and shipment of fossil fuels (Figure 6.10.5). Liquefied natural gas (LNG) and liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) are liquefied forms of hydrocarbons produced from natural gas or petroleum reserves. LNG consists mostly of methane, with small amounts of heavier hydrocarbons; it is prepared by cooling natural gas to below about −162°C. It can be stored in double-walled, vacuum-insulated containers at or slightly above atmospheric pressure. Because LNG occupies only about 1/600 the volume of natural gas, it is easier and more economical to transport. LPG is typically a mixture of propane, propene, butane, and butenes and is primarily used as a fuel for home heating. It is also used as a feedstock for chemical plants and as an inexpensive and relatively nonpolluting fuel for some automobiles.

Summary

No real gas exhibits ideal gas behavior, although many real gases approximate it over a range of conditions. Deviations from ideal gas behavior can be seen in plots of *PV*/*nRT* versus *P* at a given temperature; for an ideal gas, *PV*/*nRT* versus *P* = 1 under all

conditions. At high pressures, most real gases exhibit larger *PV*/*nRT* values than predicted by the ideal gas law, whereas at low pressures, most real gases exhibit *PV*/*nRT* values close to those predicted by the ideal gas law. Gases most closely approximate ideal gas behavior at high temperatures and low pressures. Deviations from ideal gas law behavior can be described by the **van der Waals equation**, which includes empirical constants to correct for the actual volume of the gaseous molecules and quantify the reduction in pressure due to intermolecular attractive forces. If the temperature of a gas is decreased sufficiently, **liquefaction** occurs, in which the gas condenses into a liquid form. Liquefied gases have many commercial applications, including the transport of large amounts of gases in small volumes and the uses of ultracold **cryogenic liquids**.

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6.11: Gases (Exercises)

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These are homework exercises to accompany the Textmap created for Chemistry: A Molecular Approach by Nivaldo Tro. Complementary General Chemistry question banks can be found for other Textmaps and can be accessed here. In addition to these publicly available questions, access to private problems bank for use in exams and homework is available to faculty only on an individual basis; please contact Delmar Larsen for an account with access permission.

Q5.38

What volume does 41.2 g of sodium gas at a pressure of 6.9 atm and a temperature of 514 K occupy? Would the volume be different if the sample were 41.2 g of calcium (under identical conditions)?

Strategy

A. Know the equation of Ideal Gas Law.
B. Rewrite the equation to V=nRT/P
C. Write down all of the known data with units.
D. Find out the atomic mass.
E. Transfer grams to mols.
F. Put all numbers into the equation and calculate.

Hints

- PV=nRT, so V=nRT/P
- Mol= mass/ atomic mass

Solution

Based on $PV = nRT$, and we need to know V, so the equation is rearranged to $V = nRT/P$.

- R = 0.08206 L (atm)/K (mol).
- P = 6.9 atm.
- T = 514 K

Then, the atomic mass of Sodium =22.99 g/mol

$$n = 41.2\ g = \frac{mass}{atomic\ mass} = \frac{41.2\ g}{22.99\ g/mol} = 1.79\ mol \tag{6.11.1}$$

Finally, put every number into the equation

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} = \frac{(1.79\ mol)(0.0820\ 6L(atm)/(Kmol))(514\ K}{6.9\ atm} = 10.94\ L \tag{6.11.2}$$

Because Calcium has different atomic mass than Sodium, so the volume is different.

Q5.40

We have a 20.0 L cylinder that is filled with 28.6 g of oxygen gas at the temperature of 401 K. What is the pressure that the oxygen gas is exerting on the cylinder?

What we know:

- Molar mass of O_2= 32 g/mol
- Temperature is 401 K
- There is 28.6 g of Oxygen
- The volume is 20.0 L

What its asking for: The pressure of the gas

Strategy

A. Find an equation that goes with what information you are given
B. plug in the information into the formula and get your answer

Solution

Molar mass of O_2= 32 g/mol

Moles of O_2 in 28.6 g= $\frac{28.6g}{32\frac{g}{mol}}$ = 0.894 mol O_2

PV=nRT

$$R = 0.08206 \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K}$$

$$P(20.0L) = (0.894 molO_2) \cdot (0.08406 \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K}) \cdot (401K)$$

$$P(20.0L) = (30.14L \cdot atm)$$

$$P = \frac{(30.14L \cdot atm)}{20.0L}$$

$$P = 1.51atm$$

Q5.43

A car tire has a maximum rating of 37.0 psi (gauge pressure). While at the temperature of $11.0^{\circ}C$, the tire is inflated to a volume of 10.4 L and a gauge pressure of 31.0 psi. When driving on a hot day, the tire warms to $62.0^{\circ}C$ and its volume expands to 10.9 L. Does the pressure in the tire exceed its maximum rating on the hot day? Note: Gauge pressure is defined as the absolute pressure minutes the atmospheric pressure (14.7 psi).

Solution

- Ideal Gas Law $PV = nRT$
- P=pressure, V=volume, n=number of moles, R=gas constant, T=temperature

What we know

- Cold tire: gauge pressure (31.0 psi), volume (10.4 L), temperature ($11^{\circ}C$)
- Hot tire: volume (10.9), temperature ($62^{\circ}C$)
- Both- gas constant ($0.082057 \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K}$)

What we need to find:

- Number of moles (same amount in cold and hot tire)
- Pressure in the hot tire

Strategy

A. Convert gauge pressure to total pressure (must be total pressure for Ideal Gas Law). Convert total pressure from psi to atm. Convert temperature from Celsius to Kelvin. Keep volume in L.
B. Find the number of moles in the cold tire by using the Ideal Gas Law equation.

$$n = \frac{PV}{RT} \tag{6.11.3}$$

C. Find the pressure of the hot tire by plugging in the number of moles found in part B.
D. Convert the total pressure to gauge pressure.
E. Determine if the pressure exceeds its maximum rating.

Solution

A.

Cold tire:

Gauge pressure=total pressure-atmospheric pressure

31.0 psi= X -14.7 psi

X= 45.7 psi

$$P = 45.7psi \cdot \frac{1atm}{14.7psi} = 3.11atm \tag{6.11.4}$$

$$T = 11^{\circ}C + 273 = 284K \tag{6.11.5}$$

V=10.4 L

$$R = 0.082057 \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K} \tag{6.11.6}$$

Hot tire:

$$T = 62^{\circ}C + 273 = 335K \tag{6.11.7}$$

V=10.9 L

$$R = 0.082057 \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K} \tag{6.11.8}$$

B.

$$n = \frac{3.11 atm \cdot 10.4 L}{0.082057 \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K} \cdot 284 K} \tag{6.11.9}$$

n= 1.39 mol

C.

$$P = \frac{1.39 mol \cdot 0.082057 \frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K} \cdot 335 K}{10.9 L} \tag{6.11.10}$$

P= 3.51 atm

D.

$$3.51 atm \cdot \frac{14.7 psi}{1 atm} = 51.6 psi \tag{6.11.11}$$

51.6 psi-14.7 psi= 36.9 psi

The gauge pressure is 36.9 psi and since the maximum rating is 37.0 psi, the pressure does not exceed the maximum rating (although close).

Q5.44

A balloon is floating on top of an ocean at a volume of 2.04 L at a pressure of 730 mmHg and a temperature at 20 °C. A sea creature then gets hungry and pulls the balloon down to the bottom of the ocean where the temperature decreases to 5°C while the pressure increases to 1510 mmHg. Suppose the balloon can freely increase, calculate the volume of the balloon.

Strategy

A. Figure out which formula corresponds with the Ideal Gas Law
B. Write down everything that is given to you in the problem
C. Convert If you need to
D. Solve for what you're looking for

Solution

Step 1. Equation for Ideal Gas Law:

$$PV = nRT \tag{6.11.12}$$

- P: Pressure
- V: Volume
- n: Moles
- R: Ideal Gas Constant (0.08206 atm. mol / (L K)
- T: Temperature

Step 2. What do we know ?

$P_1 = 730 mmHg \; P_2 = 1510 mmHg$

$V_1 = 2.04 L \; V_2 = ?$

$N = ? \; R = 0.08206 \frac{atm * mol}{L * K}$

$T_1 = 20\# \; T_2 = 5\#$

Step 3. Convert. The first thing we need to do is to convert the Pressure and the Temperature.

$730 mmHg * \frac{1 atm}{760 mmHg} = 0.961 atm \; 1510 mmHg * \frac{1 atm}{760 mmHg} = 1.97 atm$

$20\# + 273K = 293K \; 5\# + 273K = 278K$

Step 4. The next thing we need to do is find n and cancel out units.

Invalid Equation ---------> Invalid Equation $= 0.082 mol$

Step 5. Now that we have found our moles, we can now plug it into our equation to find the volume. Don't forget to cancel out your units.

$$PV - nRT \rightarrow V = \frac{nRT}{P} = 0.950\ L \tag{6.11.13}$$

Answer

$$V_2 = 0.950\ L \tag{6.11.14}$$

Q5.55

Calculate the density of Ne gas at 143 ºC and 4.3 atm.

What we know

- Pressure (4.3 atm),
- temperature (143 ºC),
- the identity of the gas (Ne),
- the molar mass of Ne from the periodic table (20.2 g/mol).

Asked for

- Density (ρ) of Ne under specific pressure and temperature conditions

Strategy:

A. The temperature is given in degrees Celsius, which must be converted to Kelvin.
B. Solve for the density.

$$\rho = \frac{mass}{volume} \tag{6.11.15}$$

Solution:

A Calculate Temperature in Kelvin:

$$T = 143\ ^{\circ}C + 273 = 416\ K \tag{6.11.16}$$

B Calculate the density of Ne

$$\rho = \frac{MM \cdot P}{RT} \tag{6.11.17}$$

$$\rho = \frac{20.2\text{g/mol} \cdot 4.3\text{atm}}{(0.08206\frac{\text{Latm}}{\text{molK}})416\text{K}} \tag{6.11.18}$$

$$\rho = 2.54\text{g/L} \tag{6.11.19}$$

Q.11.56

Determine the volume in liters occupied by 64.5 grams of Argon at STP.

Hint

- Use the molar volume of a gas at STP to help determine the answer.

Strategy

A. Determine the molar volume using the condition of standard temperature and pressure, or STP. The standard temperature is 273 K and the standard pressure is 1 atm. We need to determine what formula would be best for the problem.
B. After we figure out the formula to use for this problem, we need to figure out what numbers to plug in. We already know the standard temperature of pressure of a gas which are the letters P and T. We are trying to find V, so that leaves us to figure out n and R.
C. Last, we plug in the numbers we have found and work out the equation to determine the volume.

Solution

A. The formula to use to determine the molar volume for this problem is $PV = nRT$.

B. Since we know the numbers to plug in for P and T, we need to find numbers for n and R. The rate, R, is $0.08206\frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K}$. This will always be the R for this equation. To determine n, the number of moles, we must use what is given to us, which is the grams or Ar.mol of

$$Ar = 64.5\ g\ of\ Ar \cdot \frac{1\ mol\ of\ Ar}{39.948\ g\ of\ Ar} = 1.61\ mol\ of Ar \tag{6.11.20}$$

C. Now, we have all the numbers except the one we are looking for, which is V. Plug them in and work out the equation.

$$1atm \cdot V = 1.61 mol of Ar \cdot 0.08206\frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K} \cdot 273K \tag{6.11.21}$$

Q5.61

What is the total pressure in (atm) of a mixture of gases in a closed container with the partial pressures as indicated: H, 115 torr; Ar, 105 torr; and N_2, 204 torr? What is the mass of H, Ar, and N_2 at 28°C and 1.45 L?

Solution and Strategy

A. Find total pressure of the system by adding all of the partial pressures.

$$115\ torr + 105\ torr + 204\ torr = totalpressure \tag{6.11.22}$$

$$424\ torr = totalpressure \tag{6.11.23}$$

B. Convert total pressure to atmospheres through dimensional analysis.

$$\left(\frac{424torr}{1}\right) \times \left(\frac{1atm}{760\ torr})\right) = 0.558atm \tag{6.11.24}$$

C. Now we must try and find the masses of each of the substances, to do this we must first find the fractional pressures, and convert them to atmospheres by multiplying by the total pressure.

$$H = (\frac{115\ torr}{424\ torr}) = 0.2712 \tag{6.11.25}$$

$$Ar = (\frac{105\ torr}{424\ torr}) = 0.2476 \tag{6.11.26}$$

$$N_2 = (\frac{204\ torr}{424\ torr}) = 0.4811 \tag{6.11.27}$$

D. Next we multiply by the total pressure to get our fractional pressures in atmospheres.

$$H = (0.2712)(0.558\ atm) = 0.151\ atm \tag{6.11.28}$$

$$Ar = (0.2476)(0.558\ atm) = 0.138\ atm \tag{6.11.29}$$

$$N_2 = (0.4811)(0.558\ atm) = 0.268\ atm \tag{6.11.30}$$

E. Before we plug in our numbers we must find the volume for each element, to do this we multiply our fractional pressures by the total volume.

$$H = (0.2712)(1.45\ L) = 0.393L \tag{6.11.31}$$

$$Ar = (0.2476)(1.45\ L) = 0.359L \tag{6.11.32}$$

$$N_2 = (0.4811)(1.45\ L) = 0.698L \tag{6.11.33}$$

F. The final step before we can use our equation is to convert our temperature from Celsius to Kelvin.

$$28^\circ C + 273 = 30\ 1K \tag{6.11.34}$$

G. Now we must utilize the equation

$$PV = nRT, where P = pressure(atm), V = volume(L), n = moles, R = .0821\frac{L*atm}{mol*K}, T = Temperature(K)) \tag{6.11.35}$$

to find mole of the substance. We modify this equation to give us.

$$n = \frac{PV}{RT} \tag{6.11.36}$$

H. Now we use this equation to find our moles of each gas.

$$n(H) = \frac{(0.151atm)(0.393L)}{(0.0821\frac{L*atm}{mol*K})(301K)} = 0.0024mol \tag{6.11.37}$$

$$n(Ar) = \frac{(0.138atm)(0.359L)}{(0.0821\frac{L*atm}{mol*K})(301K)} = 0.0020mol \tag{6.11.38}$$

$$n(N_2) = \frac{(0.268atm)(0.698L)}{(0.0821\frac{L*atm}{mol*K})(301K)} = 0.0076mol \tag{6.11.39}$$

H. Now that we have the moles we must multiply this by the molar mass of each gas to find its value in grams.

$$H = (0.0024mol)(1.008\frac{g}{mol}) = 0.0024g \tag{6.11.40}$$

$$Ar = (0.0020mol)(39.95\frac{g}{mol}) = 0.0799g \tag{6.11.41}$$

$$N_2 = (0.0076mol)(28.02\frac{g}{mol}) = 0.2130g \tag{6.11.42}$$

Answer:

$$TotalPressure = 0.558atm \tag{6.11.43}$$

$$H = 0.0024g \tag{6.11.44}$$

$$Ar = 0.0799g \tag{6.11.45}$$

$$N_2 = 0.2130g \tag{6.11.46}$$

Q5.67a

Hydrogen gas produced by a chemical reaction is collected in the vapor space of a container holding water. The hydrogen partial pressure is 605 mmHg and the system temperature is 55 °C. What is the total pressure in the container? If 0.1 mole of H_2 was produced in the reaction, what is the total volume of the gas above the water in the container in L? Use the gas constant R of 62.3637

$$\frac{L \cdot mmHg}{mol \cdot K} \tag{6.11.47}$$

Solution

Answer, Part 1

Knowing the system temperature is 55 °C, the vapor pressure of the water in the hydrogen/water vapor mixture can be determined. Using Table 11.3 on page 412, the water partial pressure is found to be 118.2 mmHg.

From Equation 11.8 we know that

$$P_{Total} = P_{H_2O} + P_{H_2} \tag{6.11.48}$$

P_{H2} is given as 605 mmHg and P_{H2O} was found to be 118.2 mmHg

P_{Total} = 605 mmHg + 118.2 mmHg = 723.2 mmHg

Answer, Part 2

It is given there is 0.1 mole of H_2 and hydrogen partial pressure 605 mmHg. In the first part of this problem, the total system pressure was found to be 723.2 mmHg.

Solving Equation 11.10 for the total number of moles, we find

$$n_{total} = \left(\frac{n_{H_2}}{P_{H_2}}\right) \cdot P_{total} \tag{6.11.49}$$

Therefore

$$\boxed{\text{n_\{total\}=\textbackslash left (\textbackslash dfrac\{0.1 mol_\{H_\{2\}\}\}\{605mmHg_\} \textbackslash right)\textbackslash cdot 723.2 mmHg_=0.12 mol}}$$

From the Ideal Gas Law, we know $PV = n_{total}RT$

Solving for V, we find

$$V = n_{total}\left(\frac{RT}{P}\right) \tag{6.11.50}$$

Convert the system temperature to Kelvin. K = 55 °C + 273.2 = 328.2 K

Therefore V is:

$$V = 0.12mol\left(\frac{62.3637\frac{L \cdot mmHg}{mol \cdot K} \cdot 328.2K}{723.2mmHg}\right) = 3.4L \tag{6.11.51}$$

Q5.67b

Hydrogen gas is collected over water at 35 °C at a total pressure of 745 mmHg. What is the partial pressure of the hydrogen gas collected? Given that the total volume of the gas collected is 750 ml, calculate the mass of the hydrogen gas collected.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

7: Thermochemistry

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All chemical changes are accompanied by the absorption or release of heat. The intimate connection between matter and energy has been a source of wonder and speculation from the most primitive times; it is no accident that fire was considered one of the four basic elements (along with earth, air, and water) as early as the fifth century BCE. In this unit, we will review some of the fundamental concepts of energy and heat and the relation between them. We will begin the study of *thermodynamics*, which treats the energetic aspects of change in general, and we will finally apply this specifically to the chemical change. Our purpose will be to provide you with the tools to predict the energy changes associated with chemical processes. This will build the groundwork for a more ambitious goal: to predict the direction and extent of change itself.

7.1: Light the Furnace- The Nature of Energy and Its Transformations
7.2: The Nature and Types of Energy
7.3: The First Law of Thermodynamics
7.4: Quantifying Heat and Work
7.5: Constant Volume Calorimetry- Measuring ΔU for Chemical Reactions
7.6: Enthalpy- The Heat Evolved in a Chemical Reaction at Constant Pressure
7.7: Constant Pressure Calorimetry- Measuring ΔH for Chemical Reactions
7.8: Relationships Involving Enthalpy of Reactions
7.9: Enthalpies of Reaction from Standard Heats of Formation
7.10: Energy Sources and the Environment

Thumbnail: Dancing Flames of burning charcoal in the dark (CC BY-SA 3.0; Oscar via Wikipedia).

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7.1: Light the Furnace- The Nature of Energy and Its Transformations

Chemical changes and their accompanying changes in energy are important parts of our everyday world (Figure 7.1.1). The macronutrients in food (proteins, fats, and carbohydrates) undergo metabolic reactions that provide the energy to keep our bodies functioning. We burn a variety of fuels (gasoline, natural gas, coal) to produce energy for transportation, heating, and the generation of electricity. Industrial chemical reactions use enormous amounts of energy to produce raw materials (such as iron and aluminum). Energy is then used to manufacture those raw materials into useful products, such as cars, skyscrapers, and bridges.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.1.1: The energy involved in chemical changes is important to our daily lives: (a) A cheeseburger for lunch provides the energy you need to get through the rest of the day; (b) the combustion of gasoline provides the energy that moves your car (and you) between home, work, and school; and (c) coke, a processed form of coal, provides the energy needed to convert iron ore into iron, which is essential for making many of the products we use daily. (credit a: modification of work by "Pink Sherbet Photography"/Flickr; credit b: modification of work by Jeffery Turner).

Three pictures are shown and labeled a, b, and c. Picture a is a cheeseburger. Picture b depicts a highway that is full of traffic. Picture c is a view into an industrial metal furnace. The view into the furnace shows a hot fire burning inside.

Over 90% of the energy we use comes originally from the sun. Every day, the sun provides the earth with almost 10,000 times the amount of energy necessary to meet all of the world's energy needs for that day. Our challenge is to find ways to convert and store incoming solar energy so that it can be used in reactions or chemical processes that are both convenient and nonpolluting. Plants and many bacteria capture solar energy through photosynthesis. We release the energy stored in plants when we burn wood or plant products such as ethanol. We also use this energy to fuel our bodies by eating food that comes directly from plants or from animals that got their energy by eating plants. Burning coal and petroleum also releases stored solar energy: These fuels are fossilized plant and animal matter.

This chapter will introduce the basic ideas of an important area of science concerned with the amount of heat absorbed or released during chemical and physical changes—an area called thermochemistry. The concepts introduced in this chapter are widely used in almost all scientific and technical fields. Food scientists use them to determine the energy content of foods. Biologists study the energetics of living organisms, such as the metabolic combustion of sugar into carbon dioxide and water. The oil, gas, and transportation industries, renewable energy providers, and many others endeavor to find better methods to produce energy for our commercial and personal needs. Engineers strive to improve energy efficiency, find better ways to heat and cool our homes, refrigerate our food and drinks, and meet the energy and cooling needs of computers and electronics, among other applications. Understanding thermochemical principles is essential for chemists, physicists, biologists, geologists, every type of engineer, and just about anyone who studies or does any kind of science.

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7.2: The Nature and Types of Energy

Skills to Develop

- Define energy, distinguish types of energy, and describe the nature of energy changes that accompany chemical and physical changes
- Distinguish the related properties of heat, thermal energy, and temperature
- Define and distinguish specific heat and heat capacity, and describe the physical implications of both
- Perform calculations involving heat, specific heat, and temperature change

Energy can be defined as the capacity to supply heat or do work. One type of work (w) is the process of causing matter to move against an opposing force. For example, we do work when we inflate a bicycle tire—we move matter (the air in the pump) against the opposing force of the air already in the tire. Like matter, energy comes in different types. One scheme classifies energy into two types: potential energy, the energy an object has because of its relative position, composition, or condition, and kinetic energy, the energy that an object possesses because of its motion. Water at the top of a waterfall or dam has potential energy because of its position; when it flows downward through generators, it has kinetic energy that can be used to do work and produce electricity in a hydroelectric plant (Figure 7.2.2). A battery has potential energy because the chemicals within it can produce electricity that can do work.



Figure 7.2.2*: (a) Water that is higher in elevation, for example, at the top of Victoria Falls, has a higher potential energy than water at a lower elevation. As the water falls, some of its potential energy is converted into kinetic energy. (b) If the water flows through generators at the bottom of a dam, such as the Hoover Dam shown here, its kinetic energy is converted into electrical energy. (credit a: modification of work by Steve Jurvetson; credit b: modification of work by "curimedia"/Wikimedia commons).*

Energy can be converted from one form into another, but all of the energy present before a change occurs always exists in some form after the change is completed. This observation is expressed in the law of conservation of energy: during a chemical or physical change, energy can be neither created nor destroyed, although it can be changed in form. (This is also one version of the first law of thermodynamics, as you will learn later.)

When one substance is converted into another, there is always an associated conversion of one form of energy into another. Heat is usually released or absorbed, but sometimes the conversion involves light, electrical energy, or some other form of energy. For example, chemical energy (a type of potential energy) is stored in the molecules that compose gasoline. When gasoline is combusted within the cylinders of a car's engine, the rapidly expanding gaseous products of this chemical reaction generate mechanical energy (a type of kinetic energy) when they move the cylinders' pistons.

According to the law of conservation of matter (seen in an earlier chapter), there is no detectable change in the total amount of matter during a chemical change. When chemical reactions occur, the energy changes are relatively modest and the mass changes are too small to measure, so the laws of conservation of matter and energy hold well. However, in nuclear reactions, the energy changes are much larger (by factors of a million or so), the mass changes are measurable, and matter-energy conversions are significant. This will be examined in more detail in a later chapter on nuclear chemistry. To encompass both chemical and nuclear changes, we combine these laws into one statement: The total quantity of matter and energy in the universe is fixed.

Skills to Develop

Make sure you thoroughly understand the following essential ideas:

- The *potential energy* of an object relates to its location, but there is one additional requirement that must be satisfied for potential energy be present. Explain and give an example.
- Distinguish between the nature of *kinetic energy* that is associated with macroscopic bodies and that is found in microscopic objects such as atoms and molecules.
- Describe the meaning and origins of *"chemical" energy*.
- Define the *calorie*.
- *Heat and work* are both expressed in energy units, but they differ from "plain" energy in a fundamental way. Explain.
- ... and state the distinction between heat and work.

All chemical changes are accompanied by the absorption or release of heat. The intimate connection between matter and energy has been a source of wonder and speculation from the most primitive times; it is no accident that fire was considered one of the four basic elements (along with earth, air, and water) as early as the fifth century BCE. In this unit we will review some of the fundamental concepts of energy and heat and the relation between them. We will begin the study of *thermodynamics*, which treats the energetic aspects of change in general, and we will finally apply this specifically to chemical change. Our purpose will be to provide you with the tools to predict the energy changes associated with chemical processes. This will build the groundwork for a more ambitious goal: to predict the direction and extent of change itself.

Energy is one of the most fundamental and universal concepts of physical science, but one that is remarkably difficult to define in way that is meaningful to most people. This perhaps reflects the fact that energy is not a “thing” that exists by itself, but is rather an attribute of matter (and also of electromagnetic radiation) that can manifest itself in different ways. It can be observed and measured only indirectly through its effects on matter that acquires, loses, or possesses it.

History of Energy

The concept that we call energy was very slow to develop; it took more than a hundred years just to get people to agree on the definitions of many of the terms we use to describe energy and the interconversion between its various forms. But even now, most people have some difficulty in explaining what it is; somehow, the definition we all learned in elementary science ("the capacity to do work") seems less than adequate to convey its meaning.

Although the term "energy" was not used in science prior to 1802, it had long been suggested that certain properties related to the motions of objects exhibit an endurance which is incorporated into the modern concept of "conservation of energy". René Descartes (1596-1650) stated it explicitly: In the 17th Century, the great mathematician Gottfried Leibniz (1646-1716) suggested the distinction between *vis viva* ("live force") and *vis mortua* ("dead force"), which later became known as kinetic energy (1829) and potential energy (1853).

Kinetic Energy and Potential Energy

Whatever energy may be, there are basically two kinds. Kinetic energy is associated with the **motion** of an object, and its direct consequences are part of everyone's daily experience; the faster the ball you catch in your hand, and the heavier it is, the more you feel it. Quantitatively, a body with a mass m and moving at a velocity v possesses the kinetic energy $mv^2/2$.

Example 7.2.1

A rifle shoots a 4.25 g bullet at a velocity of 965 m s^{-1}. What is its kinetic energy?

Solution

The only additional information you need here is that

$$1\ J = 1\ kg\ m^2\ s^{-2}:$$

$$KE = ½ \times (.00425\ kg)\ (965\ m\ s^{-1})^2 = 1980\ J$$

Potential energy is energy a body has by virtue of its *location*. But there is more: the body must be subject to a "restoring force" of some kind that tends to move it to a location of lower potential energy. Think of an arrow that is subjected to the force from a stretched bowstring; the more tightly the arrow is pulled back against the string, the more potential energy it has. More generally, the restoring force comes from what we call a *force field*— a gravitational, electrostatic, or magnetic field. We observe the consequences of *gravitationa*l potential energy all the time, such as when we walk, but seldom give it any thought.

If an object of mass m is raised off the floor to a height h, its potential energy increases by mgh, where g is a proportionality constant known as the *acceleration of gravity*; its value at the earth's surface is 9.8 m s^{-2}.

Example 7.2.2

Find the change in potential energy of a 2.6 kg textbook that falls from the 66-cm height of a table top onto the floor.

Solution

$$PE = m\,g\,h = (2.6\text{ kg})(9.8\text{ m s}^{-2})(0.66\text{ m}) = 16.8\text{ kg m}^2\text{ s}^{-2} = 16.8\text{ J}$$

Similarly, the potential energy of a particle having an electric charge q depends on its location in an electrostatic field.

"Chemical energy"

Electrostatic potential energy plays a major role in chemistry; the potential energies of electrons in the force field created by atomic nuclei lie at the heart of the chemical behavior of atoms and molecules. "Chemical energy" usually refers to the energy that is stored in the chemical bonds of molecules. These bonds form when electrons are able to respond to the force fields created by two or more atomic nuclei, so they can be regarded as manifestations of electrostatic potential energy. In an exothermic chemical reaction, the electrons and nuclei within the reactants undergo rearrangement into products possessing lower energies, and the difference is released to the environment in the form of heat.

Interconversion of potential and kinetic energy

Transitions between potential and kinetic energy are such an intimate part of our daily lives that we hardly give them a thought. It happens in walking as the body moves up and down. Our bodies utilize the chemical energy in glucose to keep us warm and to move our muscles. In fact, life itself depends on the conversion of chemical energy to other forms.



Energy is conserved: it can neither be created nor destroyed. So when you go uphill, your kinetic energy is transformed into potential energy, which gets changed back into kinetic energy as you coast down the other side. And where did the kinetic energy you expended in peddling uphill come from? By conversion of some of the chemical potential energy in your breakfast cereal.

- When drop a book, its potential energy is transformed into kinetic energy. When it strikes the floor, this transformation is complete. What happens to the energy then? The kinetic energy that at the moment of impact was formerly situated exclusively in the moving book, now becomes shared between the book and the floor, and in the form of randomized thermal motions of the molecular units of which they are made; we can observe this effect as a rise in temperature.
- ← Much of the potential energy of falling water can be captured by a water wheel or other device that transforms the kinetic energy of the exit water into kinetic energy. The output of a hydroelectric power is directly proportional to its height above the level of the generator turbines in the valley below. At this point, the kinetic energy of the exit water is transferred to that of the turbine, most of which (up to 90 percent in the largest installations) is then converted into electrical energy.
- Will the temperature of the water at the bottom of a water fall be greater than that at the top? James Joule himself predicted that it would be. It has been calculated that at Niagra falls, that complete conversion of the potential energy of 1 kg of water at the top into kinetic energy when it hits the plunge pool 58 meters below will result in a temperature increase of about 0.14 C°. (But there are lots of complications. For example, some of the water breaks up into tiny droplets as it falls, and water evaporates from droplets quite rapidly, producing a cooling effect.)
- Chemical energy can also be converted, at least partially, into electrical energy: this is what happens in a battery. If a highly exothermic reaction also produces gaseous products, the latter may expand so rapidly that the result is an explosion — a net conversion of chemical energy into kinetic energy (including sound).

Thermal energy

Kinetic energy is associated with motion, but in two different ways. For a macroscopic object such as a book or a ball, or a parcel of flowing water, it is simply given by $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$.

But as we mentioned above, when an object is dropped onto the floor, or when an exothermic chemical reaction heats surrounding matter, the kinetic energy gets dispersed into the molecular units in the environment. This "microscopic" form of kinetic energy, unlike that of a speeding bullet, is completely random in the kinds of motions it exhibits and in its direction. We refer to this as

"thermalized" kinetic energy, or more commonly simply as *thermal energy*. We observe the effects of this as a rise in the temperature of the surroundings. The temperature of a body is direct measure of the quantity of thermal energy is contains.

Thermal energy is never completely recoverable

Once kinetic energy is thermalized, only a portion of it can be converted back into potential energy. The remainder simply gets dispersed and diluted into the environment, and is effectively lost.

To summarize, then:

- Potential energy can be converted entirely into kinetic energy..
- Potential energy can also be converted, with varying degrees of efficiency,into electrical energy.
- The kinetic energy of macroscopic objects can be transferred between objects (barring the effects of friction).
- Once kinetic energy becomes thermalized, only a portion of it can be converted back into either potential energy or be concentrated back into the kinetic energy of a macroscopic. This limitation, which has nothing to do with technology but is a fundamental property of nature, is the subject of the second law of thermodynamics.
- A device that is intended to accomplish the partial transformation of thermal energy into organized kinetic energy is known as a *heat engine*.

Energy scales and Units

You might at first think that a book sitting on the table has zero kinetic energy since it is not moving. But if you think about it, the earth itself is moving; it is spinning on its axis, it is orbiting the sun, and the sun itself is moving away from the other stars in the general expansion of the universe. Since these motions are normally of no interest to us, we are free to adopt an arbitrary scale in which the velocity of the book is measured with respect to the table; on this so-called *laboratory coordinate system*, the kinetic energy of the book can be considered zero.

We do the same thing with potential energy. If the book is on the table, its potential energy with respect to the surface of the table will be zero. If we adopt this as our zero of potential energy, and then push the book off the table, its potential energy will be negative after it reaches the floor. Energy is measured in terms of its ability to perform work or to transfer heat. Mechanical work is done when a force f displaces an object by a distance *d*:

$$w = f \times d.$$

The basic unit of energy is the *joule*. One joule is the amount of work done when a force of 1 newton acts over a distance of 1 m; thus 1 J = 1 N-m. The newton is the amount of force required to accelerate a 1-kg mass by 1 m/sec^2, so the basic dimensions of the joule are kg m^2 s^{-2}. The other two units in wide use. the *calorie* and the *BTU* (British thermal unit) are defined in terms of the heating effect on water. Because of the many forms that energy can take, there are a correspondingly large number of units in which it can be expressed, a few of which are summarized below.

1 calorie will raise the temperature of 1 g of water by 1 C°. The “dietary” calorie is actually 1 kcal. An average young adult expends about 1800 kcal per day just to stay alive. (you should know this definition)	1 cal = 4.184 J
1 BTU (British Thermal Unit) will raise the temperature of 1 lb of water by 1F°.	1 BTU = 1055 J
The **erg** is the c.g.s. unit of energy and a very small one; the work done when a 1-dyne force acts over a distance of 1 cm.	1 J = 10^7 ergs 1 erg = 1 d-cm = 1 g cm^2 s^{-2}
The **electron-volt** is even tinier: 1 e-v is the work required to move a unit electric charge (1 C) through a potential difference of 1 volt.	1 J = 6.24 × 10^{18} e-v
The watt is a unit of power, which measures the rate of energy flow in J sec^{-1}. Thus the **watt-hour** is a unit of energy. An average human consumes energy at a rate of about 100 watts; the brain alone runs at about 5 watts.	1 J = 2.78 × 10^{-4} watt-hr 1 w-h = 3.6 kJ

1 calorie will raise the temperature of 1 g of water by 1 C°. The "dietary" calorie is actually 1 kcal. An average young adult expends about 1800 kcal per day just to stay alive. (you should know this definition)	1 cal = 4.184 J
The **liter-atmosphere** is a variant of force-displacement work associated with volume changes in gases.	1 L-atm = 101.325 J
The huge quantities of energy consumed by cities and countries are expressed in **quads**; the **therm** is a similar but smaller unit.	1 quad = 10^{15} Btu = 1.05×10^{18} J
If the object is to obliterate cities or countries with nuclear weapons, the energy unit of choice is the **ton of TNT equivalent**.	1 ton of TNT = 4.184 GJ (by definition)
In terms of **fossil fuels**, we have barrel-of-oil equivalent, cubic-meter-of-natural gas equivalent, and ton-of-coal equivalent.	1 bboe = 6.1 GJ 1 cmge = 37-39 mJ 1 toce = 29 GJ

Summary

Energy is the capacity to do work (applying a force to move matter). Kinetic energy (KE) is the energy of motion; potential energy is energy due to relative position, composition, or condition. When energy is converted from one form into another, energy is neither created nor destroyed (law of conservation of energy or first law of thermodynamics). Matter has thermal energy due to the KE of its molecules and temperature that corresponds to the average KE of its molecules. Heat is energy that is transferred between objects at different temperatures; it flows from a high to a low temperature. Chemical and physical processes can absorb heat (endothermic) or release heat (exothermic). The SI unit of energy, heat, and work is the joule (J).

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7.3: The First Law of Thermodynamics

Learning Objectives

- To calculate changes in internal energy

To study the flow of energy during a chemical reaction, we need to distinguish between a system, the small, well-defined part of the universe in which we are interested (such as a chemical reaction), and its surroundings, the rest of the universe, including the container in which the reaction is carried out (Figure 7.3.1). In the discussion that follows, the mixture of chemical substances that undergoes a reaction is always the system, and the flow of heat can be from the system to the surroundings or vice versa.

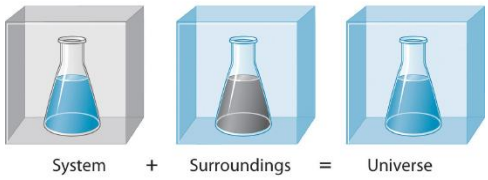


Figure 7.3.1: A System and Its Surroundings. The system is that part of the universe we are interested in studying, such as a chemical reaction inside a flask. The surroundings are the rest of the universe, including the container in which the reaction is carried out.

Three kinds of systems are important in chemistry. An **open system** can exchange both matter and energy with its surroundings. A pot of boiling water is an open system because a burner supplies energy in the form of heat, and matter in the form of water vapor is lost as the water boils. A **closed system** can exchange energy but not matter with its surroundings. The sealed pouch of a ready-made dinner that is dropped into a pot of boiling water is a closed system because thermal energy is transferred to the system from the boiling water but no matter is exchanged (unless the pouch leaks, in which case it is no longer a closed system). An **isolated system** exchanges neither energy nor matter with the surroundings. Energy is always exchanged between a system and its surroundings, although this process may take place very slowly. A truly isolated system does not actually exist. An insulated thermos containing hot coffee approximates an isolated system, but eventually the coffee cools as heat is transferred to the surroundings. In all cases, the amount of heat lost by a system is equal to the amount of heat gained by its surroundings and vice versa. That is, *the total energy of a system plus its surroundings is constant*, which must be true if *energy is conserved*.

The state of a system is a complete description of a system at a given time, including its temperature and pressure, the amount of matter it contains, its chemical composition, and the physical state of the matter. A state function is a property of a system whose magnitude depends on only the present state of the system, not its previous history. Temperature, pressure, volume, and potential energy are all state functions. The temperature of an oven, for example, is independent of however many steps it may have taken for it to reach that temperature. Similarly, the pressure in a tire is independent of how often air is pumped into the tire for it to reach that pressure, as is the final volume of air in the tire. Heat and work, on the other hand, are not state functions because they are *path dependent*. For example, a car sitting on the top level of a parking garage has the same potential energy whether it was lifted by a crane, set there by a helicopter, driven up, or pushed up by a group of students (Figure 7.3.2). The amount of work expended to get it there, however, can differ greatly depending on the path chosen. If the students decided to carry the car to the top of the ramp, they would perform a great deal more work than if they simply pushed the car up the ramp (unless, of course, they neglected to release the parking brake, in which case the work expended would increase substantially!). The potential energy of the car is the same, however, no matter which path they choose.



Figure 7.3.2: Elevation as an Example of a State Function. The change in elevation between state 1 (at the bottom of the parking garage) and state 2 (at the top level of the parking garage) is the same for both paths A and B; it does not depend on which path is taken from the bottom to the top. In contrast, the distance traveled and the work needed to reach the top do depend on which path is taken. Elevation is a state function, but distance and work are *not* state functions.

Direction of Heat Flow

The reaction of powdered aluminum with iron(III) oxide, known as the thermite reaction, generates an enormous amount of heat—enough, in fact, to melt steel (Figure 7.3.3). The balanced chemical equation for the reaction is as follows:

$$2\,\mathrm{Al(s)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s)} \longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s)} \tag{7.3.1}$$



Figure 7.3.3: The thermite reaction produces so much heat that the iron it produces comes out molten, a property that makes this reaction useful in welding. Image by Kingfisher [CC BY-SA 3.0 (Creative Commons [creativecommons.org])], from Wikimedia Commons.

We can also write this chemical equation as

$$2\,\mathrm{Al(s)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s)} \rightarrow 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s)} + \mathrm{heat} \tag{7.3.2}$$

to indicate that heat is one of the products. Chemical equations in which heat is shown as either a reactant or a product are called *thermochemical equations*. In this reaction, the system consists of aluminum, iron, and oxygen atoms; everything else, including the container, makes up the surroundings. During the reaction, so much heat is produced that the iron liquefies. Eventually, the system cools; the iron solidifies as heat is transferred to the surroundings. A process in which heat (q) is transferred *from* a system *to* its surroundings is described as exothermic. By convention, $q < 0$ for an exothermic reaction.

When you hold an ice cube in your hand, heat from the surroundings (including your hand) is transferred to the system (the ice), causing the ice to melt and your hand to become cold. We can describe this process by the following thermochemical equation:

$$\mathrm{heat} + \mathrm{H_2O(s)} \rightarrow \mathrm{H_2O(l)} \tag{7.3.3}$$

When heat is transferred *to* a system *from* its surroundings, the process is endothermic. By convention, $q > 0$ for an endothermic reaction.

Heat is technically not a component in Chemical Reactions

Technically, it is poor form to have a $heat$ term in the chemical reaction like in Equations 7.3.2 and 7.3.3 since is it not a true species in the reaction. However, this is a convenient approach to represent exothermic and endothermic behavior and is commonly used by chemists.

The First Law

The relationship between the energy change of a system and that of its surroundings is given by the **first law of thermodynamics**, which states that the energy of the universe is constant. We can express this law mathematically as follows:

$$U_{univ} = \Delta U_{sys} + \Delta U_{surr} = 0 \tag{7.3.4}$$

$$\Delta U_{sys} = -\Delta U_{surr} \tag{7.3.5}$$

where the subscripts univ, sys, and surr refer to the universe, the system, and the surroundings, respectively. Thus the change in energy of a system is identical in magnitude but opposite in sign to the change in energy of its surroundings.

> The tendency of all systems, chemical or otherwise, is to move toward the state with the lowest possible energy.

An important factor that determines the outcome of a chemical reaction is the tendency of all systems, chemical or otherwise, to move toward the lowest possible overall energy state. As a brick dropped from a rooftop falls, its potential energy is converted to kinetic energy; when it reaches ground level, it has achieved a state of lower potential energy. Anyone nearby will notice that energy is transferred to the surroundings as the noise of the impact reverberates and the dust rises when the brick hits the ground. Similarly, if a spark ignites a mixture of isooctane and oxygen in an internal combustion engine, carbon dioxide and water form spontaneously, while potential energy (in the form of the relative positions of atoms in the molecules) is released to the surroundings as heat and work. The internal energy content of the CO_2/H_2O product mixture is less than that of the isooctane/ O_2 reactant mixture. The two cases differ, however, in the form in which the energy is released to the surroundings. In the case of the falling brick, the energy is transferred as work done on whatever happens to be in the path of the brick; in the case of burning isooctane, the energy can be released as solely heat (if the reaction is carried out in an open container) or as a mixture of heat and work (if the reaction is carried out in the cylinder of an internal combustion engine). Because heat and work are the only two ways in which energy can be transferred between a system and its surroundings, any change in the internal energy of the system is the sum of the heat transferred (q) and the work done (w):

$$\Delta U_{sys} = q + w \tag{7.3.6}$$

Although q and w are not state functions on their own, their sum (ΔU_{sys}) is independent of the path taken and is therefore a state function. A major task for the designers of any machine that converts energy to work is to maximize the amount of work obtained and minimize the amount of energy released to the environment as heat. An example is the combustion of coal to produce electricity. Although the maximum amount of energy available from the process is fixed by the energy content of the reactants and the products, the fraction of that energy that can be used to perform useful work is not fixed.

Because we focus almost exclusively on the changes in the energy of a system, we will not use “sys” as a subscript unless we need to distinguish explicitly between a system and its surroundings.

> Although q and w are not state functions, their sum (ΔU_{sys}) is independent of the path taken and therefore is a state function.

Thus, because of the first law, we can determine ΔU for any process if we can measure both q and w. Heat, q, may be calculated by measuring a change in temperature of the surroundings. Work, w, may come in different forms, but it too can be measured. One important form of work for chemistry is *pressure-volume work* done by an expanding gas. At a constant external pressure (for example, atmospheric pressure)

$$w = -P\Delta V \tag{7.3.7}$$

The negative sign associated with PV work done indicates that the system loses energy when the volume increases. That is, an expanding gas does work on its surroundings, while a gas that is compressed has work done on it by the surroundings.

Example 7.3.1

A sample of an ideal gas in the cylinder of an engine is compressed from 400 mL to 50.0 mL during the compression stroke against a constant pressure of 8.00 atm. At the same time, 140 J of energy is transferred from the gas to the surroundings as heat. What is the total change in the internal energy (ΔU) of the gas in joules?

Given: initial volume, final volume, external pressure, and quantity of energy transferred as heat

Asked for: total change in internal energy

Strategy:

A. Determine the sign of q to use in Equation 7.3.6.

B. From Equation 7.3.7 calculate w from the values given. Substitute this value into Equation 7.3.6 to calculate ΔU.

Solution

A From Equation 7.3.6, we know that ΔU = q + w. We are given the magnitude of q (140 J) and need only determine its sign. Because energy is transferred from the system (the gas) to the surroundings, q is negative by convention.

B Because the gas is being compressed, we know that work is being done on the system, so w must be positive. From Equation 7.3.6,

$$w = -P_{\text{ext}}\Delta V = -8.00\ \text{atm}(0.0500\ \text{L} - 0.400\ \text{L})\left(\frac{101.3\ \text{J}}{\text{L}\cdot\text{atm}}\right) = 284\ \text{J}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta U &= q + w \\ &= -140\ J + 284\ J \\ &= 144\ J\end{aligned}$$

In this case, although work is done on the gas, increasing its internal energy, heat flows from the system to the surroundings, decreasing its internal energy by 144 J. The work done and the heat transferred can have opposite signs.

? Exercise 7.3.1

A sample of an ideal gas is allowed to expand from an initial volume of 0.200 L to a final volume of 3.50 L against a constant external pressure of 0.995 atm. At the same time, 117 J of heat is transferred from the surroundings to the gas. What is the total change in the internal energy (ΔU) of the gas in joules?

Answer

−216 J

By convention (to chemists), both heat flow and work have a negative sign when energy is transferred from a system to its surroundings and vice versa.

Summary

In chemistry, the small part of the universe that we are studying is the **system**, and the rest of the universe is the **surroundings**. **Open systems** can exchange both matter and energy with their surroundings, **closed systems** can exchange energy but not matter with their surroundings, and **isolated systems** can exchange neither matter nor energy with their surroundings. A **state function** is a property of a system that depends on only its present **state**, not its history. A reaction or process in which heat is transferred from a system to its surroundings is **exothermic**. A reaction or process in which heat is transferred to a system from its surroundings is **endothermic**. The first law of thermodynamics states that the energy of the universe is constant. The change in the internal energy of a system is the sum of the heat transferred and the work done. The heat flow is equal to the change in the internal energy of the system plus the PV work done. When the volume of a system is constant, changes in its internal energy can be calculated by substituting the ideal gas law into the equation for ΔU.

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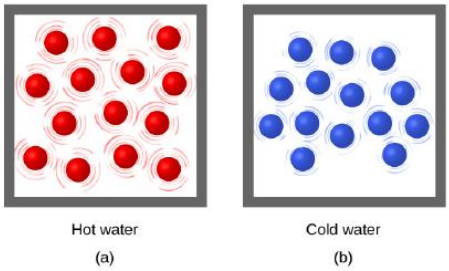
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7.4: Quantifying Heat and Work

Learning Objectives

- To calculate changes in internal energy
- Distinguish the related properties of heat, thermal energy, and temperature
- Define and distinguish specific heat and heat capacity, and describe the physical implications of both
- Perform calculations involving heat, specific heat, and temperature change

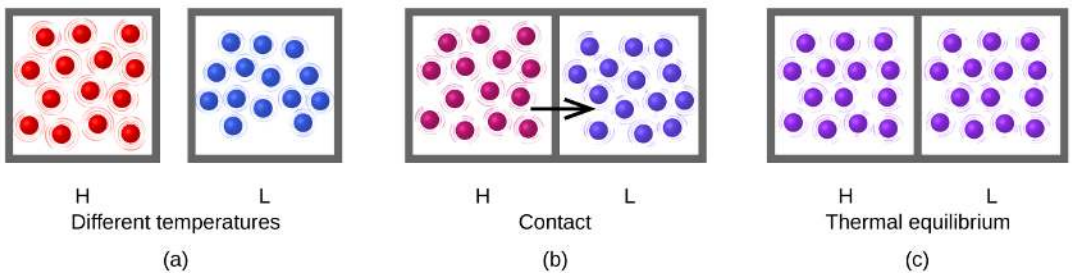
Thermal energy is kinetic energy associated with the random motion of atoms and molecules. Temperature is a quantitative measure of “hot” or “cold.” When the atoms and molecules in an object are moving or vibrating quickly, they have a higher average kinetic energy (KE), and we say that the object is “hot.” When the atoms and molecules are moving slowly, they have lower KE, and we say that the object is “cold” (Figure 7.4.1). Assuming that no chemical reaction or phase change (such as melting or vaporizing) occurs, increasing the amount of thermal energy in a sample of matter will cause its temperature to increase. And, assuming that no chemical reaction or phase change (such as condensation or freezing) occurs, decreasing the amount of thermal energy in a sample of matter will cause its temperature to decrease.



Drawing a is a box containing red spheres that are surrounded by lines indicating that the particles are moving rapidly. Drawing b depicts another box which also contains spheres, but these are blue. They are all surrounded by smaller lines that depict a slower motion compared to drawing a.

Figure 7.4.1: (a) The molecules in a sample of hot water move more rapidly than (b) those in a sample of cold water.

Heat (q) is the transfer of thermal energy between two bodies at different temperatures. Heat flow (a redundant term, but one commonly used) increases the thermal energy of one body and decreases the thermal energy of the other. Suppose we initially have a high temperature (and high thermal energy) substance (H) and a low temperature (and low thermal energy) substance (L). The atoms and molecules in H have a higher average KE than those in L. If we place substance H in contact with substance L, the thermal energy will flow spontaneously from substance H to substance L. The temperature of substance H will decrease, as will the average KE of its molecules; the temperature of substance L will increase, along with the average KE of its molecules. Heat flow will continue until the two substances are at the same temperature (Figure 7.4.2).



Drawing a shows two separated boxes with red and blue spheres respectively. The radial lines along each sphere are more concentrated for the box containing hotter molecules. Drawing b shows the two boxes in contact as well as the direction of heat transfer from the hotter to colder region. The colors of the two molecules are turning into two different shades of maroon. The final drawing depicts two boxes where molecules in each box are exactly identical in terms of color and motion.

Figure 7.4.2: (a) Substances H and L are initially at different temperatures, and their atoms have different average kinetic energies. (b) When they are put into contact with each other, collisions between the molecules result in the transfer of kinetic (thermal)

energy from the hotter to the cooler matter. (c) The two objects reach “thermal equilibrium” when both substances are at the same temperature, and their molecules have the same average kinetic energy.

Matter undergoing chemical reactions and physical changes can release or absorb heat. A change that releases heat is called an exothermic process. For example, the combustion reaction that occurs when using an oxyacetylene torch is an exothermic process—this process also releases energy in the form of light as evidenced by the torch’s flame (Figure 7.4.3*a*). A reaction or change that absorbs heat is an endothermic process. A cold pack used to treat muscle strains provides an example of an endothermic process. When the substances in the cold pack (water and a salt like ammonium nitrate) are brought together, the resulting process absorbs heat, leading to the sensation of cold.



Two pictures are shown and labeled a and b. Picture a shows a metal railroad tie being cut with the flame of an acetylene torch. Picture b shows a chemical cold pack containing ammonium nitrate.

Figure 7.4.3: (a) An oxyacetylene torch produces heat by the combustion of acetylene in oxygen. The energy released by this exothermic reaction heats and then melts the metal being cut. The sparks are tiny bits of the molten metal flying away. (b) A cold pack uses an endothermic process to create the sensation of cold. (credit a: modification of work by “Skatebiker”/Wikimedia commons).

Historically, energy was measured in units of *calories* (cal). A calorie is the amount of energy required to raise one gram of water by 1 degree C (1 kelvin). However, this quantity depends on the atmospheric pressure and the starting temperature of the water. The ease of measurement of energy changes in calories has meant that the calorie is still frequently used. The Calorie (with a capital C), or large calorie, commonly used in quantifying food energy content, is a kilocalorie. The SI unit of heat, work, and energy is the joule. A joule (J) is defined as the amount of energy used when a force of 1 newton moves an object 1 meter. It is named in honor of the English physicist James Prescott Joule. One joule is equivalent to 1 kg m^2/s^2, which is also called 1 newton–meter. A kilojoule (kJ) is 1000 joules. To standardize its definition, 1 calorie has been set to equal 4.184 joules.

$$1\ cal \equiv 4.184\ J \tag{7.4.1}$$

Application: Heat can do more than increase temperature

Most substances expand as their temperature increases and contract as their temperature decreases. This property can be used to measure temperature changes, as shown in Figure 7.4.4. The operation of many thermometers depends on the expansion and contraction of substances in response to temperature changes.

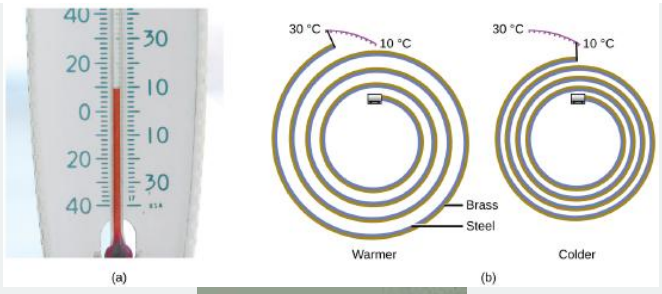




Figure 7.4.4: (a) In an alcohol or mercury thermometer, the liquid (dyed red for visibility) expands when heated and contracts when cooled, much more so than the glass tube that contains the liquid. (b) In a bimetallic thermometer, two different metals (such as brass and steel) form a two-layered strip. When heated or cooled, one of the metals (brass) expands or contracts more than the other metal (steel), causing the strip to coil or uncoil. Both types of thermometers have a calibrated scale that indicates the temperature. (credit a: modification of work by “dwstucke”/Flickr). (c) The demonstration allows one to view the effects of heating and cooling a coiled bimetallic strip.A bimetallic coil from a thermometer reacts to the heat from a lighter, by uncoiling and then coiling back up when the lighter is removed. Animation used with permission from Hustvedt (via Wikipedia)

Picture a shows the lower portion of an alcohol thermometer. The two images labeled b both depict a metal strip coiled into a spiral and composed of brass and steel. The left coil, which is loosely coiled, is labeled along its upper edge with the 30 degrees C and 10 degrees C. The end of the coil is near the 30 degrees C label. The right hand coil is much more tightly wound and the end is near the 10 degree C label.

Direction of Heat Flow: Endothermic vs. Exothermic Processes

The reaction of powdered aluminum with iron(III) oxide, known as the thermite reaction, generates an enormous amount of heat—enough, in fact, to melt steel. The balanced chemical equation for the reaction is as follows:

$$2\,\mathrm{Al(s)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s)} \rightarrow 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s)} \tag{7.4.2}$$

We can also write this chemical equation as

$$2\,\mathrm{Al(s)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s)} \rightarrow 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s)} + \mathrm{heat} \tag{7.4.3}$$

to indicate that heat is one of the products. Chemical equations in which heat is shown as either a reactant or a product are called *thermochemical equations*. In this reaction, the system consists of aluminum, iron, and oxygen atoms; everything else, including the container, makes up the surroundings. During the reaction, so much heat is produced that the iron liquefies. Eventually, the system cools; the iron solidifies as heat is transferred to the surroundings. A process in which heat (q) is transferred *from* a system *to* its surroundings is described as exothermic. By convention, $q < 0$ for an exothermic reaction.



When you hold an ice cube in your hand, heat from the surroundings (including your hand) is transferred to the system (the ice), causing the ice to melt and your hand to become cold. We can describe this process by the following thermochemical equation:

$$\text{heat} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(s)} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)} \tag{7.4.4}$$

When heat is transferred *to* a system *from* its surroundings, the process is endothermic. By convention, $q > 0$ for an endothermic reaction.

> *By convention, $q < 0$ for an exothermic reaction and $q > 0$ for an endothermic reaction.*

Exercise 7.4.1

Decide whether the following are endothermic or exothermic processes

a. water evaporates off a shower door
b. an acid tablet being added to a pool and the surrounding water heats up
c. NH_4Cl is dissolved in water and the solution cools
d. the burning of a log in a campfire

Hint

During an endothermic process heat is absorbed from surroundings, causing them to cool, so in every case where there is cooling there is most likely an endothermic process taking place. For exothermic reactions energy is being released to the surroundings and so the surroundings feel like they have been heated by the process.

Answer a

endothermic

Answer b

exothermic

Answer c

endothermic

Answer d

exothermic

Heat is technically not a component in Chemical Reactions

Technically, it is poor form to have a $heat$ term in the chemical reaction like in Equations 7.4.3 and 7.4.4 since is it not a true species in the reaction. However, this is a convenient approach to represent exothermic and endothermic behavior and is commonly used by chemists.

Contributors and Attributions

- Paul Flowers (University of North Carolina - Pembroke), Klaus Theopold (University of Delaware) and Richard Langley (Stephen F. Austin State University) with contributing authors. Textbook content produced by OpenStax College is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 license. Download for free at http://cnx.org/contents/85abf193-2bd...a7ac8df6@9.110).

Learning Objectives

- To know the relationship between energy, work, and heat.

One definition of energy is the capacity to do work. There are many kinds of work, including mechanical work, electrical work, and work against a gravitational or a magnetic field. Here we will consider only mechanical work and focus on the work done during changes in the pressure or the volume of a gas.

Mechanical Work

The easiest form of work to visualize is mechanical work (Figure 7.4.5), which is the energy required to move an object a distance d when *opposed* by a force F, such as gravity:

$$w = F\,d \tag{7.4.5}$$

with w is work, F is opposing force, and d is distance.



GIF

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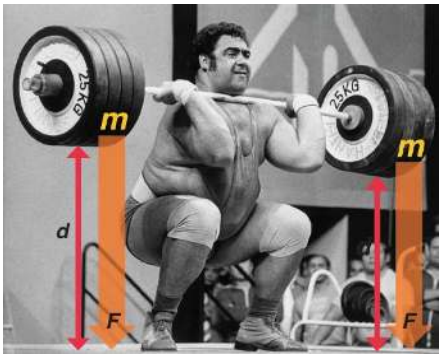


Figure 7.4.5: One form of energy is mechanical work, the energy required to move an object of mass m through distance d when opposed by a force F, i.e., as gravity.

A powerlifter in the middle of lifting a barbell bar with multiple weights attached on each side. The weights are labeled m and an arrow labeled F is shown pointing downwards. The height of the weights from the ground is labeled d.

Because the force (F) that opposes the action is equal to the mass (m) of the object times its acceleration (a), Equation 7.4.5 can be rewritten to:

$$w = m\,a\,d \tag{7.4.6}$$

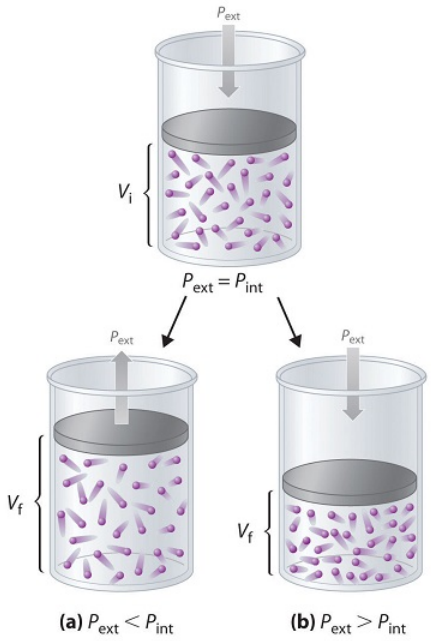
with w is work, m is mass, a is acceleration, and d is distance.

Recall from that weight is a force caused by the gravitational attraction between two masses, such as you and Earth. Hence for works against gravity (on Earth), a can be set to $g = 9.8\ m/s^2$). Consider the mechanical work required for you to travel from the first floor of a building to the second. Whether you take an elevator or an escalator, trudge upstairs, or leap up the stairs two at a time, energy is expended to overcome the opposing force of gravity. The amount of work done (w) and thus the energy required depends on three things:

1. the height of the second floor (the distance d);
2. your mass, which must be raised that distance against the downward acceleration due to gravity; and
3. your path.

Pressure-Volume (PV) Work

To describe this pressure–volume work (PV work), we will use such imaginary oddities as frictionless pistons, which involve no component of resistance, and ideal gases, which have no attractive or repulsive interactions. Imagine, for example, an ideal gas, confined by a frictionless piston, with internal pressure P_{int} and initial volume V_i (Figure 7.4.6). If $P_{ext} = P_{int}$, the system is at equilibrium; the piston does not move, and no work is done. If the external pressure on the piston (P_{ext}) is less than P_{int}, however, then the ideal gas inside the piston will expand, forcing the piston to perform work on its surroundings; that is, the final volume (V_f) will be greater than V_i. If $P_{ext} > P_{int}$, then the gas will be compressed, and the surroundings will perform work on the system.



The three diagrams which represents the different cases show gaseos molecules shown as spheres in motion in an enclosed cylinder with piston acting from above. The top diagram shows the equilibrium case while the two diagram below it shows cases where external pressure is not equal to internal pressure.

Figure 7.4.6: PV Work demonstrated with a frictionless piston. (a) if the external pressure is less than P_{int}, the ideal gas inside the piston will expand, forcing the piston to perform work on its surroundings. The final volume (V_f) will be greater than V_i. (b) Alternatively, if the external pressure is greater than P_{int}, the gas will be compressed, and the surroundings will perform work on the system.

If the piston has cross-sectional area A, the external pressure exerted by the piston is, by definition, the force per unit area:

$$P_{ext} = \frac{F}{A} \tag{7.4.7}$$

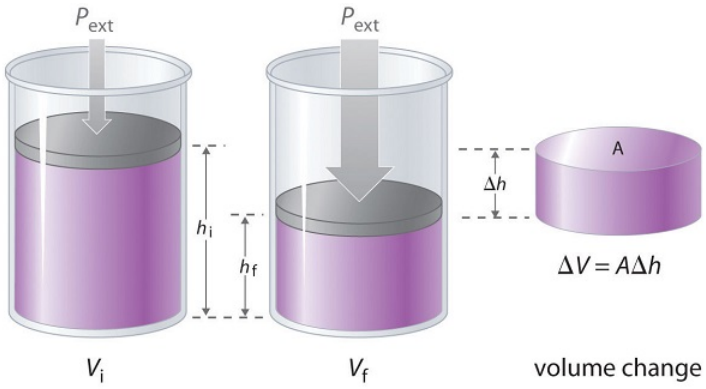
The volume of any three-dimensional object with parallel sides (such as a cylinder) is the cross-sectional area times the height ($V = Ah$). Rearranging Equation 7.4.7 to give

$$F = P_{ext} A \tag{7.4.8}$$

and defining the distance the piston moves (d) as Δh, we can calculate the magnitude of the work performed by the piston by substituting into Equation 7.4.5:

$$w = Fd = P_{ext} A \Delta h \tag{7.4.9}$$

The change in the volume of the cylinder (ΔV) as the piston moves a distance d is $\Delta V = A\Delta h$, as shown in Figure 7.4.7.



A cylinder containing an initial volume of fluid has a height labeled h subscript i and volume V subscript i. The following diagram shows a compressed volume labeled V subscript f and height of fluid h subscript f. The diagram on the right shows the cylindrical portion of fluid which represents the change in volume as a result of the piston pushing down. It has height of delta h and area A.

Figure 7.4.7: Work Performed with a change in volume. The change in the volume (ΔV) of the cylinder housing a piston is $\Delta V = A\Delta h$ as the piston moves. The work performed by the surroundings on the system as the piston moves inward is given by Equation 7.4.10.

The PV work performed is thus

$$w = P_{ext}\,\Delta V \tag{7.4.10}$$

The units of work obtained using this definition are correct for energy: pressure is force per unit area (newton/m^2) and volume has units of cubic meters, so

$$w = \left(\frac{F}{A}\right)_{\text{ext}}(\Delta V) = \frac{\text{newton}}{\text{m}^2} \times \text{m}^3 = \text{newton}\cdot\text{m} = \text{joule} \tag{7.4.11}$$

If we use atmospheres for P and liters for V, we obtain units of L·atm for work. These units correspond to units of energy, as shown in the different values of the ideal gas constant R:

$$R = \frac{0.08206\ \text{L}\cdot\text{atm}}{\text{mol}\cdot\text{K}} = \frac{8.314\ \text{J}}{\text{mol}\cdot\text{K}} \tag{7.4.12}$$

Thus 0.08206 L·atm = 8.314 J and 1 L·atm = 101.3 J.

Exercise: Expansion (PV) work

a. How much work is done by a gas that expands from 2 liters to 5 liters against an external pressure of 750 mmHg?
b. How much work is done by 0.54 moles of a gas that has an initial volume of 8 liters and expands under the following conditions: 30 ºC and 1.3 atm?
c. How much work is done by a gas (P=1.7 atm, V=1.56 L) that expands against an external pressure of 1.8 atm?

Solution a

$$w = -P\Delta V \tag{7.4.13}$$

$$\Delta V = V_{final} - V_{Initial} = 5\ L - 2\ L = 3L \tag{7.4.14}$$

Convert 750 mmHg to atm:

$$750 mmHg * 1/760 (atm/mmHg) = 0.9868 atm. \tag{7.4.15}$$

$$W = -p\Delta V = -(.9868\ atm)(3\ L) = -2.96\ L\,atm. \tag{7.4.16}$$

Solution b

First we must find the final volume using the ideal gas law:

$$pV = nRT \tag{7.4.17}$$

or

$$V = \frac{nRT}{P} = \frac{[(0.54\,moles)(0.082057(L\,atm)/(mol\,K))(303\,K)]}{1.3\,atm} = 10.33\,L \tag{7.4.18}$$

$$\Delta V = V_{final} - V_{initial} = 10.3\,L - 8\,L = 2.3\,L \tag{7.4.19}$$

$$w = -p\Delta V = -(1.3\,atm)(2.3\,L) = -3\,L\,atm. \tag{7.4.20}$$

Solution c

$$w = -p * \Delta V\backslash) = -(1.8\,atm)\,\Delta V. \tag{7.4.21}$$

Given p_1, V_1, and p_2, find V_2: $p_1V_1 = p_2V_2$ (at constant T and n)

$V_2 = (V_1 * P_1)/P_2$ = (1.56 L * 1.7 atm) / 1.8 atm = 1.47 L

Now,

$$\Delta V = V_2 - V_1 = 1.47\,L - 1.56\,L = -0.09 \tag{7.4.22}$$

$$w = -(1.8atm) * (-0.09L) = 0.162Latm. \tag{7.4.23}$$

Whether work is defined as having a positive sign or a negative sign is a matter of convention. Heat flow is defined from a system to its surroundings as negative; using that same sign convention, we define work done by a system on its surroundings as having a negative sign because it results in a transfer of energy from a system to its surroundings. This is an arbitrary convention and one that is not universally used. Some engineering disciplines are more interested in the work done on the surroundings than in the work done by the system and therefore use the opposite convention. Because ΔV > 0 for an expansion, Equation 7.4.10 must be written with a negative sign to describe PV work done by the system as negative:

$$w = -P_{ext}\,\Delta V \tag{7.4.24}$$

The work done by a gas expanding against an external pressure is therefore negative, corresponding to work done by a system on its surroundings. Conversely, when a gas is compressed by an external pressure, ΔV < 0 and the work is positive because work is being done on a system by its surroundings.

A Matter of Convention

- Heat flow is defined from the system to its surroundings as **negative**
- Work is defined as by the system on its surroundings as **negative**

Suppose, for example, that the system under study is a mass of steam heated by the combustion of several hundred pounds of coal and enclosed within a cylinder housing a piston attached to the crankshaft of a large steam engine. The gas is not ideal, and the cylinder is not frictionless. Nonetheless, as steam enters the engine chamber and the expanding gas pushes against the piston, the piston moves, so useful work is performed. In fact, PV work launched the Industrial Revolution of the 19th century and powers the internal combustion engine on which most of us still rely for transportation.

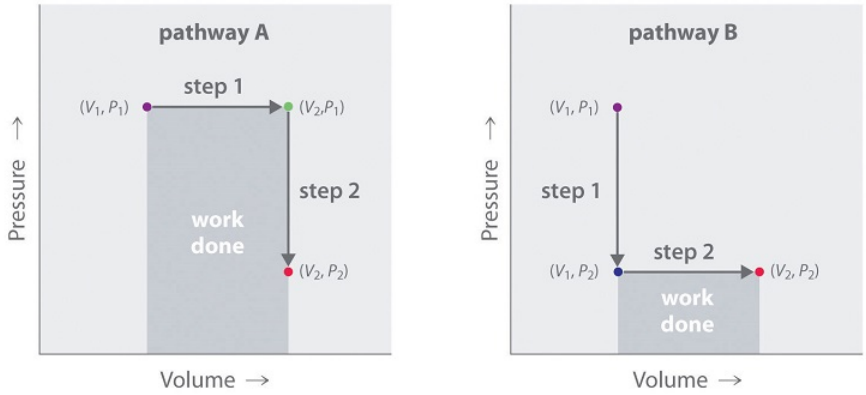


Figure 7.4.8: Work Is Not a State Function. In pathway A, the volume of a gas is initially increased while its pressure stays constant (step 1). Its pressure is then decreased while the volume remains constant (step 2). Pathway B reverses these steps. Although (V_1, P_1) and (V_2, P_2) are identical in both cases, the amount of work done (shaded area) depends on the pathway taken.

Two graphs are shown with pressure on the vertical axis and volume on the horizontal axis. Pathway A with arrow pointing right then step 2 has arrow which points from the first arrow straight down. Pathway B has step 1 with arrow pointing straight down then step 2 with an arrow pointing from step 1 straight to the right. The area in pathway A is encompassed by the two arrows. The area in pathway B is found under the step 2 arrow.

In contrast to internal energy, work is not a state function. We can see this by examining Figure 7.4.8, in which two different, two-step pathways take a gaseous system from an initial state to a final state with corresponding changes in temperature. In pathway A, the volume of a gas is initially increased while its pressure stays constant (step 1); then its pressure is decreased while the volume remains constant (step 2). In pathway B, the order of the steps is reversed. The temperatures, pressures, and volumes of the initial and final states are identical in both cases, but the amount of work done, indicated by the shaded areas in the figure, is substantially different. As we can see, the amount of work done depends on the pathway taken from (V_1, P_1) to (V_2, P_2), which means that work is **not** a state function.

> *Internal energy is a state function, whereas work is not.*

Example 7.4.1: Internal Combustion Engine

A small high-performance internal combustion engine has six cylinders with a total nominal displacement (volume) of 2.40 L and a 10:1 compression ratio (meaning that the volume of each cylinder decreases by a factor of 10 when the piston compresses the air–gas mixture inside the cylinder prior to ignition). How much work in joules is done when a gas in one cylinder of the engine expands at constant temperature against an opposing pressure of 40.0 atm during the engine cycle? Assume that the gas is ideal, the piston is frictionless, and no energy is lost as heat.

Given: final volume, compression ratio, and external pressure

Asked for: work done

Strategy:

Calculate the final volume of gas in a single cylinder. Then compute the initial volume of gas in a single cylinder from the compression ratio. Use Equation 7.4.24to calculate the work done in liter-atmospheres. Convert from liter-atmospheres to joules.

Solution:

A To calculate the work done, we need to know the initial and final volumes. The final volume is the volume of one of the six cylinders with the piston all the way down: V_f = 2.40 L/6 = 0.400 L. With a 10:1 compression ratio, the volume of the same cylinder with the piston all the way up is V_i = 0.400 L/10 = 0.0400 L. Work is done by the system on its surroundings, so work is negative.

$$\begin{aligned} w &= -P_{ext}\,\Delta V \\ &= -(40.0\,atm)(0.400\,L - 0.0400\,L) \\ &= -14.4\,L\cdot atm \end{aligned}$$

Converting from liter-atmospheres to joules,

$$\begin{aligned} w &= -(14.4\ \text{L}\cdot\text{atm})[101.3\ \text{J}/(\text{L}\cdot\text{atm})] \\ &= -1.46\times10^{3}\ \text{J} \end{aligned}$$

In the following exercise, you will see that the concept of work is not confined to engines and pistons. It is found in other applications as well.

Exercise 7.4.1: Work to Breath

Breathing requires work, even if you are unaware of it. The lung volume of a 70 kg man at rest changed from 2200 mL to 2700 mL when he inhaled, while his lungs maintained a pressure of approximately 1.0 atm. How much work in liter-atmospheres and joules was required to take a single breath? During exercise, his lung volume changed from 2200 mL to 5200 mL on each in-breath. How much additional work in joules did he require to take a breath while exercising?

Answer

−0.500 L·atm, or −50.7 J; −304 J; if he takes a breath every three seconds, this corresponds to 1.4 Calories per minute (1.4 kcal).

Work and Chemical Reactions

We have stated that the change in energy (ΔU) is equal to the sum of the heat produced and the work performed. Work done by an expanding gas is called *pressure-volume work*, (or just *PV work)*. Consider, for example, a reaction that produces a gas, such as dissolving a piece of copper in concentrated nitric acid. The chemical equation for this reaction is as follows:

$$Cu_{(s)} + 4HNO_{3(aq)} \rightarrow Cu(NO_3)_{2(aq)} + 2H_2O_{(l)} + 2NO_{2(g)} \tag{7.4.25}$$

If the reaction is carried out in a closed system that is maintained at constant pressure by a movable piston, the piston will rise as nitrogen dioxide gas is formed (Figure 7.4.9). The system is performing work by lifting the piston against the downward force exerted by the atmosphere (i.e., *atmospheric pressure*). We find the amount of *PV* work done by multiplying the external pressure *P* by the change in volume caused by movement of the piston (Δ*V*). At a constant external pressure (here, atmospheric pressure)

$$w = -P\Delta V \tag{7.4.26}$$

The negative sign associated with PV work done indicates that the system loses energy. If the volume increases at constant pressure ($\Delta V > 0$), the work done by the system is negative, indicating that a system has lost energy by performing work on its surroundings. Conversely, if the volume decreases ($\Delta V < 0$), the work done by the system is positive, which means that the surroundings have performed work on the system, thereby increasing its energy.

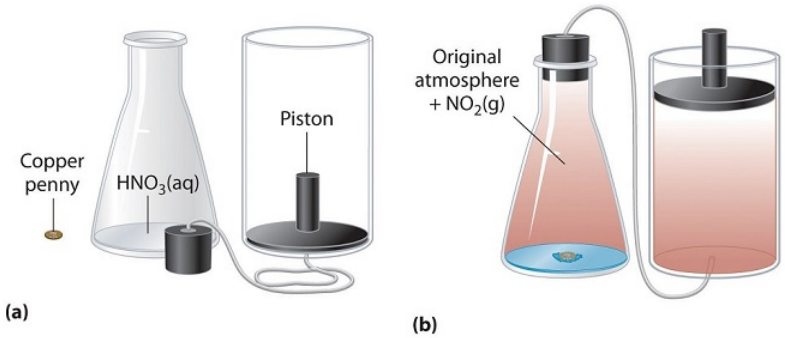


Figure 7.4.9: An Example of Work Performed by a Reaction Carried Out at Constant Pressure. (a) Initially, the system (a copper penny and concentrated nitric acid) is at atmospheric pressure. (b) When the penny is added to the nitric acid, the volume of NO_2 gas that is formed causes the piston to move upward to maintain the system at atmospheric pressure. In doing so, the system is performing work on its surroundings.

Diagram a shows an Erlenmeyer flask with nitric acid in it and a copper penny beside the flask. A cylidrical container with a piston is shown connected by a tube to a flask stopper. The second diagram shows the copper penny inside the flask and the stopper placed on the neck of the flask. The flask and the cylindrical container is filled with a brownish vapor. The piston is at an elevated position compared to the first diagram since it's pushed upwards by the vapor.

The symbol U represents the internal energy of a system, which is the sum of the kinetic energy and potential energy of all its components. It is the change in internal energy that produces heat plus work. To measure the energy changes that occur in chemical reactions, chemists usually use a related thermodynamic quantity called enthalpy (H) (from the Greek *enthalpein*, meaning “to warm”). The enthalpy of a system is defined as the sum of its internal energy U plus the product of its pressure P and volume V:

$$H = U + PV \tag{7.4.27}$$

Because internal energy, pressure, and volume are all state functions, enthalpy is also a state function.

If a chemical change occurs at constant pressure (i.e., for a given *P*, Δ*P* = 0), the change in enthalpy (Δ*H*) is

$$\Delta H = \Delta(U + PV) = \Delta U + \Delta PV = \Delta U + P\Delta V \tag{7.4.28}$$

Substituting $q + w$ for ΔU (Equation 7.4.28) and $-w$ for $P\Delta V$ (Equation 7.4.26), we obtain

$$\Delta H = \Delta U + P\Delta V = q_p + w - w = q_p \tag{7.4.29}$$

The subscript p is used here to emphasize that this equation is true only for a process that occurs at constant pressure. From Equation 7.4.29 we see that at constant pressure the change in enthalpy, ΔH of the system, defined as $H_{final} - H_{initial}$, is equal to the heat gained or lost.

$$\Delta H = H_{final} - H_{initial} = q_p \tag{7.4.30}$$

Just as with ΔU, because enthalpy is a state function, the magnitude of ΔH depends on only the initial and final states of the system, not on the path taken. Most important, the enthalpy change is the same even if the process does *not* occur at constant pressure.

> *To find ΔH for a reaction, measure q_p under constant pressure.*

Summary

All forms of energy can be interconverted. Three things can change the energy of an object: the transfer of heat, work performed on or by an object, or some combination of heat and work.

Outside Links

- Gasparro, Frances P. "Remembering the sign conventions for q and w in deltaU = q - w." J. Chem. Educ. 1976: 53, 389.
- Koubek, E. "PV work demonstration (TD)." J. Chem. Educ. 1980: 57, 374. '

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7.5: Constant Volume Calorimetry- Measuring ΔU for Chemical Reactions

Constant-pressure calorimeters are not very well suited for studying reactions in which one or more of the reactants is a gas, such as a combustion reaction. The enthalpy changes that accompany combustion reactions are therefore measured using a constant-volume calorimeter, such as the bomb calorimeter(A device used to measure energy changes in chemical processes. shown schematically in Figure 7.5.1). The reactant is placed in a steel cup inside a steel vessel with a fixed volume (the “bomb”). The bomb is then sealed, filled with excess oxygen gas, and placed inside an insulated container that holds a known amount of water. Because combustion reactions are exothermic, the temperature of the bath and the calorimeter increases during combustion. If the heat capacity of the bomb and the mass of water are known, the heat released can be calculated.

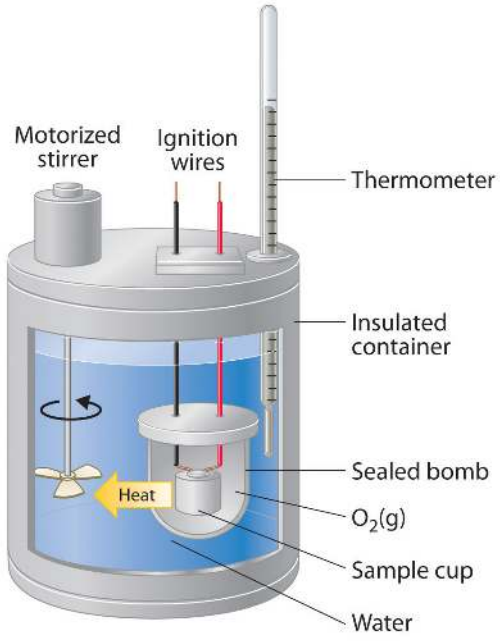


Figure 7.5.1: A Bomb Calorimeter. After the temperature of the water in the insulated container has reached a constant value, the combustion reaction is initiated by passing an electric current through a wire embedded in the sample. Because this calorimeter operates at constant volume, the heat released is not precisely the same as the enthalpy change for the reaction.

Because the volume of the system (the inside of the bomb) is fixed, the combustion reaction occurs under conditions in which the volume, but not the pressure, is constant. The heat released by a reaction carried out at constant volume is identical to the change in *internal energy* (ΔE) rather than the enthalpy change (ΔH); ΔE is related to ΔH by an expression that depends on the change in the number of moles of gas during the reaction. The difference between the heat flow measured at constant volume and the enthalpy change is usually quite small, however (on the order of a few percent). Assuming that $\Delta E < \Delta H$, the relationship between the measured temperature change and ΔH_{comb} is given in Equation 7.5.1, where C_{bomb} is the total heat capacity of the steel bomb and the water surrounding it:

$$\Delta H_{comb} < q_{comb} = q_{calorimater} = C_{bomb}\Delta T \tag{7.5.1}$$

To measure the heat capacity of the calorimeter, we first burn a carefully weighed mass of a standard compound whose enthalpy of combustion is accurately known. Benzoic acid ($C_6H_5CO_2H$) is often used for this purpose because it is a crystalline solid that can be obtained in high purity. The combustion of benzoic acid in a bomb calorimeter releases 26.38 kJ of heat per gram (i.e., its ΔH_{comb} = −26.38 kJ/g). This value and the measured increase in temperature of the calorimeter can be used in Equation ??? to determine C_{bomb}. The use of a bomb calorimeter to measure the ΔH_{comb} of a substance is illustrated in Example 7.5.4.

Example 7.5.4: Combustion of Glucose

The combustion of 0.579 g of benzoic acid in a bomb calorimeter caused a 2.08°C increase in the temperature of the calorimeter. The chamber was then emptied and recharged with 1.732 g of glucose and excess oxygen. Ignition of the glucose resulted in a temperature increase of 3.64°C. What is the ΔH_{comb} of glucose?



Given: mass and ΔT for combustion of standard and sample

Asked for: ΔH_{comb} of glucose

Strategy:

A. Calculate the value of q_{rxn} for benzoic acid by multiplying the mass of benzoic acid by its ΔH_{comb}. Then use Equation $ref 5.5.9$ to determine the heat capacity of the calorimeter (C_{bomb}) from q_{comb} and ΔT.

B. Calculate the amount of heat released during the combustion of glucose by multiplying the heat capacity of the bomb by the temperature change. Determine the ΔH_{comb} of glucose by multiplying the amount of heat released per gram by the molar mass of glucose.

Solution:

The first step is to use Equation 7.5.1 and the information obtained from the combustion of benzoic acid to calculate C_{bomb}. We are given ΔT, and we can calculate q_{comb} from the mass of benzoic acid:

$$qcomb = \left(0.579 \ \cancel{g}\right)\left(-26.38 \ kJ/\cancel{g}\right) = -15.3 \ kJ \tag{7.5.2}$$

From Equation 7.5.1,

$$-Cbomb = \frac{q_{comb}}{\Delta T} = \frac{-15.3 \ kJ}{2.08 \ ^oC} = -7.34 \ kJ/^oC \tag{7.5.3}$$

B According to the strategy, we can now use the heat capacity of the bomb to calculate the amount of heat released during the combustion of glucose:

$$q_{comb} = -C_{bomb}\Delta T = \left(-7.34 \ kJ/^oC\right)\left(3.64 \ ^oC\right) = -26.7 \ kJ \tag{7.5.4}$$

Because the combustion of 1.732 g of glucose released 26.7 kJ of energy, the ΔH_{comb} of glucose is

$$\Delta H_{comb} = \left(\frac{-26.7 \ kJ}{1.732 \ \cancel{g}}\right)\left(\frac{180.16 \ \cancel{g}}{mol}\right) = -2780 \ kJ/mol = 2.78 \times 10^3 \ kJ/mol \tag{7.5.5}$$

This result is in good agreement (< 1% error) with the value of ΔH_{comb} = −2803 kJ/mol that calculated using enthalpies of formation.

Exercise 7.5.4: Combustion of Benzoic Acid

When 2.123 g of benzoic acid is ignited in a bomb calorimeter, a temperature increase of 4.75°C is observed. When 1.932 g of methylhydrazine (CH_3NHNH_2) is ignited in the same calorimeter, the temperature increase is 4.64°C. Calculate the ΔH_{comb} of methylhydrazine, the fuel used in the maneuvering jets of the US space shuttle.



Answer

-1.30×10^3 kJ/mol

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7.6: Enthalpy- The Heat Evolved in a Chemical Reaction at Constant Pressure

Learning Objectives

- To understand how enthalpy pertains to chemical reactions

We have stated that the change in energy (ΔU) is equal to the sum of the heat produced and the work performed. Work done by an expanding gas is called *pressure-volume work*, (or just PV *work)*. Consider, for example, a reaction that produces a gas, such as dissolving a piece of copper in concentrated nitric acid. The chemical equation for this reaction is as follows:

$$\mathrm{Cu(s) + 4\,HNO_3(aq) \rightarrow Cu(NO_3)_2(aq) + 2\,H_2O(l) + 2\,NO_2(g)}$$

If the reaction is carried out in a closed system that is maintained at constant pressure by a movable piston, the piston will rise as nitrogen dioxide gas is formed (Figure 7.6.1). The system is performing work by lifting the piston against the downward force exerted by the atmosphere (i.e., *atmospheric pressure*). We find the amount of PV work done by multiplying the external pressure P by the change in volume caused by movement of the piston (ΔV). At a constant external pressure (here, atmospheric pressure),

$$w = -P\Delta V \tag{7.6.1}$$

The negative sign associated with PV work done indicates that the system loses energy when the volume increases. If the volume increases at constant pressure ($\Delta V > 0$), the work done by the system is negative, indicating that a system has lost energy by performing work on its surroundings. Conversely, if the volume decreases ($\Delta V < 0$), the work done by the system is positive, which means that the surroundings have performed work on the system, thereby increasing its energy.

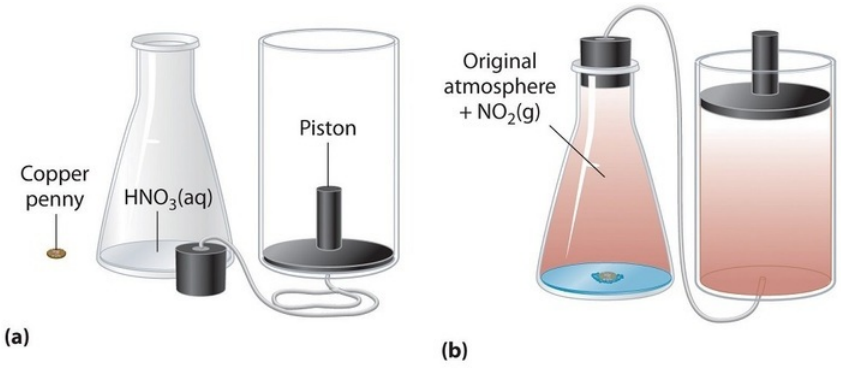


Figure 7.6.1: An Example of Work Performed by a Reaction Carried Out at Constant Pressure. (a) Initially, the system (a copper penny and concentrated nitric acid) is at atmospheric pressure. (b) When the penny is added to the nitric acid, the volume of NO_2 gas that is formed causes the piston to move upward to maintain the system at atmospheric pressure. In doing so, the system is performing work on its surroundings. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

The internal energy U of a system is the sum of the kinetic energy and potential energy of all its components. It is the change in internal energy that produces heat plus work. To measure the energy changes that occur in chemical reactions, chemists usually use a related thermodynamic quantity called **enthalpy** (H) (from the Greek *enthalpein*, meaning "to warm"). The enthalpy of a system is defined as the sum of its internal energy U plus the product of its pressure P and volume V:

\[H =U + PV \label{5.4.3} \]

Because internal energy, pressure, and volume are all state functions, enthalpy is also a state function. So we can define a change in enthalpy (ΔH) accordingly

$$\Delta H = H_{final} - H_{initial}$$

If a chemical change occurs at constant pressure (i.e., for a given P, $\Delta P = 0$), the change in enthalpy (ΔH) is

$$\Delta H = \Delta(U + PV) \tag{7.6.2}$$

$$= \Delta U + \Delta PV \tag{7.6.3}$$

$$= \Delta U + P\Delta V \tag{7.6.4}$$

Substituting $q + w$ for ΔU (First Law of Thermodynamics) and $-w$ for $P\Delta V$ (Equation 7.6.1) into Equation 7.6.4, we obtain

$$\Delta H = \Delta U + P\Delta V \tag{7.6.5}$$

$$= q_p + \cancel{w} - \cancel{w} \tag{7.6.6}$$

$$= q_p \tag{7.6.7}$$

The subscript p is used here to emphasize that this equation is true only for a process that occurs at constant pressure. From Equation 7.6.7 we see that at constant pressure the change in enthalpy, ΔH of the system, is equal to the heat gained or lost.

$$\Delta H = H_{final} - H_{initial} \tag{7.6.8}$$

$$= q_p \tag{7.6.9}$$

Just as with ΔU, because enthalpy is a state function, the magnitude of ΔH depends on only the initial and final states of the system, not on the path taken. Most important, the enthalpy change is the same even if the process does *not* occur at constant pressure.

> *To find ΔH for a reaction, measure q_p.*

When we study energy changes in chemical reactions, the most important quantity is usually the enthalpy of reaction (ΔH_{rxn}), the change in enthalpy that occurs during a reaction (such as the dissolution of a piece of copper in nitric acid). If heat flows from a system to its surroundings, the enthalpy of the system decreases, so ΔH_{rxn} is negative. Conversely, if heat flows from the surroundings to a system, the enthalpy of the system increases, so ΔH_{rxn} is positive. Thus:

- $\Delta H_{rxn} < 0$ for an *exothermic reaction*, and
- $\Delta H_{rxn} > 0$ for an *endothermic reaction*.

In chemical reactions, bond breaking requires an input of energy and is therefore an endothermic process, whereas bond making releases energy, which is an exothermic process. The sign conventions for heat flow and enthalpy changes are summarized in the following table:

sign conventions for heat flow and enthalpy changes

Reaction Type	q	ΔH_{rxn}
exothermic	< 0	< 0 (heat flows from a system to its surroundings)
endothermic	> 0	> 0 (heat flows from the surroundings to a system)

If ΔH_{rxn} is negative, then the enthalpy of the products is less than the enthalpy of the reactants; that is, *an exothermic reaction is energetically downhill* (Figure 7.6.2*a*). Conversely, if ΔH_{rxn} is positive, then the enthalpy of the products is greater than the enthalpy of the reactants; thus, *an endothermic reaction is energetically uphill* (Figure 7.6.2*b*). Two important characteristics of enthalpy and changes in enthalpy are summarized in the following discussion.

> *Bond breaking **ALWAYS** requires an input of energy; bond making **ALWAYS** releases energy.y.*

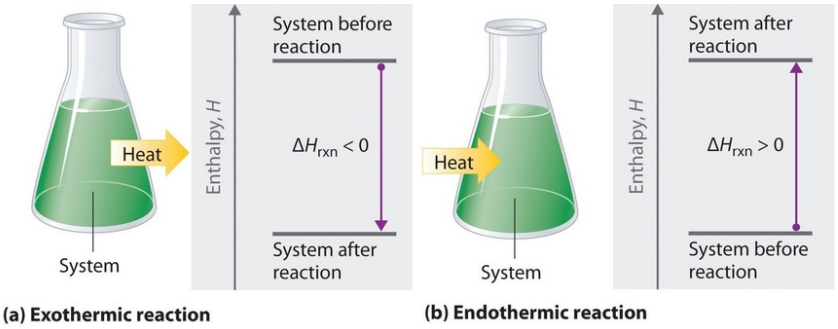


Figure 7.6.2: The Enthalpy of Reaction. Energy changes in chemical reactions are usually measured as changes in enthalpy. (a) If heat flows from a system to its surroundings, the enthalpy of the system decreases, ΔH_{rxn} is negative, and the reaction is exothermic; it is energetically downhill. (b) Conversely, if heat flows from the surroundings to a system, the enthalpy of the system increases, ΔH_{rxn} is positive, and the reaction is endothermic; it is energetically uphill. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

- **Reversing a reaction or a process changes the sign of Δ*H*.** Ice *absorbs* heat when it melts (electrostatic interactions are broken), so liquid water must *release* heat when it freezes (electrostatic interactions are formed):

$$heat + H_2O(s) \rightarrow H_2O(l) \qquad \Delta H > 0$$
$$H_2O(l) \rightarrow H_2O(s) + heat \qquad \Delta H < 0$$

  In both cases, the *magnitude* of the enthalpy change is the same; only the *sign* is different.

- **Enthalpy is an extensive property (like mass).** The magnitude of ΔH for a reaction is proportional to the amounts of the substances that react. For example, a large fire produces more heat than a single match, even though the chemical reaction—the combustion of wood—is the same in both cases. For this reason, the enthalpy change for a reaction is usually given in kilojoules per mole of a particular reactant or product. Consider Equation 7.6.10, which describes the reaction of aluminum with iron(III) oxide (Fe_2O_3) at constant pressure. According to the reaction stoichiometry, 2 mol of Fe, 1 mol of Al_2O_3, and 851.5 kJ of heat are produced for every 2 mol of Al and 1 mol of Fe_2O_3 consumed:

$$2\,\mathrm{Al(s)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s)} \longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s)} + 815.5\ kJ \tag{7.6.10}$$

  Thus Δ*H* = −851.5 kJ/mol of Fe_2O_3. We can also describe Δ*H* for the reaction as −425.8 kJ/mol of Al: because 2 mol of Al are consumed in the balanced chemical equation, we divide −851.5 kJ by 2. When a value for Δ*H*, in kilojoules rather than kilojoules per mole, is written after the reaction, as in Equation 7.6.11, it is the value of Δ*H* corresponding to the reaction of the molar quantities of reactants as given in the balanced chemical equation:

$$2\,\mathrm{Al(s)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s)} \longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s)} \quad \Delta H_{rxn} = -851.5\ kJ \tag{7.6.11}$$

  If 4 mol of Al and 2 mol of Fe_2O_3 react, the change in enthalpy is 2 × (−851.5 kJ) = −1703 kJ. We can summarize the relationship between the amount of each substance and the enthalpy change for this reaction as follows:

$$-\frac{851.5\ kJ}{2\ mol\ Al} = -\frac{425.8\ kJ}{1\ mol\ Al} = -\frac{1703\ kJ}{4\ mol\ Al} \tag{7.6.12}$$

The relationship between the magnitude of the enthalpy change and the mass of reactants is illustrated in Example 7.6.1.

✔ Example 7.6.1: Melting Icebergs

Certain parts of the world, such as southern California and Saudi Arabia, are short of freshwater for drinking. One possible solution to the problem is to tow icebergs from Antarctica and then melt them as needed. If ΔH is 6.01 kJ/mol for the reaction at 0°C and constant pressure:

$$\mathrm{H_2O(s)} \rightarrow \mathrm{H_2O(l)}$$

How much energy would be required to melt a moderately large iceberg with a mass of 1.00 million metric tons (1.00×10^6 metric tons)? (A metric ton is 1000 kg.)

Given: energy per mole of ice and mass of iceberg

Asked for: energy required to melt iceberg

Strategy:

A. Calculate the number of moles of ice contained in 1 million metric tons (1.00×10^6 metric tons) of ice.

B. Calculate the energy needed to melt the ice by multiplying the number of moles of ice in the iceberg by the amount of energy required to melt 1 mol of ice.

Solution:

A Because enthalpy is an extensive property, the amount of energy required to melt ice depends on the amount of ice present. We are given ΔH for the process—that is, the amount of energy needed to melt 1 mol (or 18.015 g) of ice—so we need to calculate the number of moles of ice in the iceberg and multiply that number by ΔH (+6.01 kJ/mol):

$$moles\ H_2O = 1.00 \times 10^6\ \cancel{\text{metric ton}}\ \text{H}_2\text{O} \left(\frac{1000\ \cancel{kg}}{1\ \cancel{\text{metric ton}}}\right)\left(\frac{1000\ \cancel{g}}{1\ \cancel{kg}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ mol\ H_2O}{18.015\ \cancel{g\ H_2O}}\right)$$

$$= 5.55 \times 10^{10}\ mol\,\text{H}_2\text{O}$$

B The energy needed to melt the iceberg is thus

$$\left(\frac{6.01\ kJ}{\cancel{mol\ H_2O}}\right)\left(5.55 \times 10^{10}\ \cancel{mol\ H_2O}\right) = 3.34 \times 10^{11}\ kJ$$

Because so much energy is needed to melt the iceberg, this plan would require a relatively inexpensive source of energy to be practical. To give you some idea of the scale of such an operation, the amounts of different energy sources equivalent to the amount of energy needed to melt the iceberg are shown below.

Possible sources of the approximately $3.34 \times 10^{11}\ kJ$ needed to melt a 1.00×10^6 metric ton iceberg

- Combustion of 3.8×10^3 ft^3 of natural gas
- Combustion of 68,000 barrels of oil
- Combustion of 15,000 tons of coal
- 1.1×10^8 kilowatt-hours of electricity

Alternatively, we can rely on ambient temperatures to slowly melt the iceberg. The main issue with this idea is the cost of dragging the iceberg to the desired place.

? Exercise 7.6.1: Thermite Reaction

If 17.3 g of powdered aluminum are allowed to react with excess Fe_2O_3, how much heat is produced?

Answer

273 kJ

Enthalpies of Reaction

One way to report the heat absorbed or released would be to compile a massive set of reference tables that list the enthalpy changes for all possible chemical reactions, which would require an incredible amount of effort. Fortunately, since enthalpy is a state function, all we have to know is the initial and final states of the reaction. This allows us to calculate the enthalpy change for virtually any conceivable chemical reaction using a relatively small set of tabulated data, such as the following:

- Enthalpy of combustion (ΔH_{comb}) The change in enthalpy that occurs during a combustion reaction. Enthalpy changes have been measured for the combustion of virtually any substance that will burn in oxygen; these values are usually reported as the enthalpy of combustion per mole of substance.
- Enthalpy of fusion (ΔH_{fus}) The enthalpy change that acompanies the melting (fusion) of 1 mol of a substance. The enthalpy change that accompanies the melting, or fusion, of 1 mol of a substance; these values have been measured for almost all the elements and for most simple compounds.
- Enthalpy of vaporization (ΔH_{vap}) The enthalpy change that accompanies the vaporization of 1 mol of a substance. The enthalpy change that accompanies the vaporization of 1 mol of a substance; these values have also been measured for nearly all the

elements and for most volatile compounds.

- Enthalpy of solution (ΔH_{soln}) The change in enthalpy that occurs when a specified amount of solute dissolves in a given quantity of solvent. The enthalpy change when a specified amount of solute dissolves in a given quantity of solvent.

Table 7.6.1: Enthalpies of Vaporization and Fusion for Selected Substances at Their Boiling Points and Melting Points

Substance	ΔH_{vap} (kJ/mol)	ΔH_{fus} (kJ/mol)
argon (Ar)	6.3	1.3
methane (CH_4)	9.2	0.84
ethanol (CH_3CH_2OH)	39.3	7.6
benzene (C_6H_6)	31.0	10.9
water (H_2O)	40.7	6.0
mercury (Hg)	59.0	2.29
iron (Fe)	340	14

The sign convention is the same for all enthalpy changes: negative if heat is released by the system and positive if heat is absorbed by the system.



Enthalpy of Reaction: Enthalpy of Reaction, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Summary

For a chemical reaction, the **enthalpy of reaction** (ΔH_{rxn}) is the difference in enthalpy between products and reactants; the units of ΔH_{rxn} are kilojoules per mole. Reversing a chemical reaction reverses the sign of ΔH_{rxn}.

Contributors and Attributions

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7.7: Constant Pressure Calorimetry- Measuring ΔH for Chemical Reactions

Because Δ*H* is defined as the heat flow at constant pressure, measurements made using a constant-pressure calorimeter (a device used to measure enthalpy changes in chemical processes at constant pressure) give Δ*H* values directly. This device is particularly well suited to studying reactions carried out in solution at a constant atmospheric pressure. A "student" version, called a *coffee-cup calorimeter* (Figure 7.7.1), is often encountered in general chemistry laboratories. Commercial calorimeters operate on the same principle, but they can be used with smaller volumes of solution, have better thermal insulation, and can detect a change in temperature as small as several millionths of a degree (10^{-6} °C). Because the heat released or absorbed at constant pressure is equal to Δ*H*, the relationship between heat and ΔH_{rxn} is

$$\Delta H_{rxn} = q_{rxn} = -q_{calorimater} = -mC_s\Delta T \tag{7.7.1}$$

The use of a constant-pressure calorimeter is illustrated in Example 7.7.3.

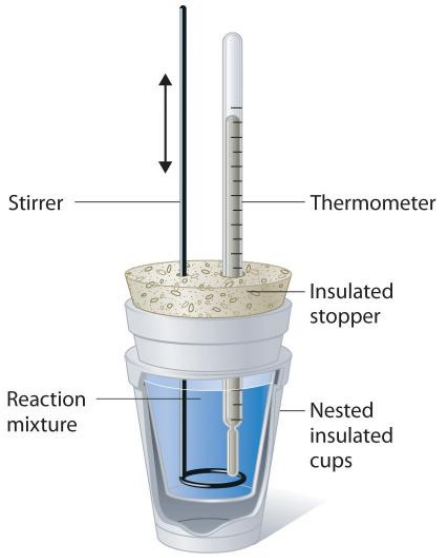


Figure 7.7.1: A Coffee-Cup Calorimeter. This simplified version of a constant-pressure calorimeter consists of two Styrofoam cups nested and sealed with an insulated stopper to thermally isolate the system (the solution being studied) from the surroundings (the air and the laboratory bench). Two holes in the stopper allow the use of a thermometer to measure the temperature and a stirrer to mix the reactants. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

Example 7.7.1

When 5.03 g of solid potassium hydroxide are dissolved in 100.0 mL of distilled water in a coffee-cup calorimeter, the temperature of the liquid increases from 23.0°C to 34.7°C. The density of water in this temperature range averages 0.9969 g/cm^3. What is ΔH_{soln} (in kilojoules per mole)? Assume that the calorimeter absorbs a negligible amount of heat and, because of the large volume of water, the specific heat of the solution is the same as the specific heat of pure water.

Given: mass of substance, volume of solvent, and initial and final temperatures

Asked for: ΔH_{soln}

Strategy:

A. Calculate the mass of the solution from its volume and density and calculate the temperature change of the solution.
B. Find the heat flow that accompanies the dissolution reaction by substituting the appropriate values into Equation 5.5.8.
C. Use the molar mass of KOH to calculate ΔH_{soln}.

Solution:

A To calculate ΔH_{soln}, we must first determine the amount of heat released in the calorimetry experiment. The mass of the solution is

$$(100.0\ mL\ H2O)\left(0.9969\ g/\ \cancel{mL}\right) + 5.03\ g\ KOH = 104.72\ g \tag{7.7.2}$$

The temperature change is (34.7°C − 23.0°C) = +11.7°C.

B Because the solution is not very concentrated (approximately 0.9 M), we assume that the specific heat of the solution is the same as that of water. The heat flow that accompanies dissolution is thus

$$q_{calorimater} = mC_s\Delta T = \left(104.72\ \cancel{g}\right)\left(\frac{4.184\ J}{\cancel{g}\cdot\ ^oC}\right)(11.7\ ^oC) = 5130\ J = 5.13\ lJ \tag{7.7.3}$$

The temperature of the solution increased because heat was absorbed by the solution ($q > 0$). Where did this heat come from? It was released by KOH dissolving in water. From Equation 7.7.1, we see that

$$\Delta H_{rxn} = -q_{calorimeter} = -5.13\ kJ$$

This experiment tells us that dissolving 5.03 g of KOH in water is accompanied by the *release* of 5.13 kJ of energy. Because the temperature of the solution increased, the dissolution of KOH in water must be exothermic.

C The last step is to use the molar mass of KOH to calculate ΔH_{soln}—the heat released when dissolving 1 mol of KOH:

$$\Delta H_{soln} = \left(\frac{5.13\ kJ}{5.03\ \cancel{g}}\right)\left(\frac{56.11\ \cancel{g}}{1\ mol}\right) = -57.2\ kJ/mol \tag{7.7.4}$$

Exercise 7.7.1

A coffee-cup calorimeter contains 50.0 mL of distilled water at 22.7°C. Solid ammonium bromide (3.14 g) is added and the solution is stirred, giving a final temperature of 20.3°C. Using the same assumptions as in Example 7.7.1, find ΔH_{soln} for NH_4Br (in kilojoules per mole).

Answer

16.6 kJ/mol

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7.8: Relationships Involving Enthalpy of Reactions

Learning Objectives

- To use Hess's law and thermochemical cycles to calculate enthalpy changes of chemical reactions.

Because enthalpy is a state function, the enthalpy change for a reaction depends on only two things: (1) the masses of the reacting substances and (2) the physical states of the reactants and products. It does not depend on the path by which reactants are converted to products. If you climbed a mountain, for example, the altitude change would not depend on whether you climbed the entire way without stopping or you stopped many times to take a break. If you stopped often, the overall change in altitude would be the sum of the changes in altitude for each short stretch climbed. Similarly, when we add two or more balanced chemical equations to obtain a net chemical equation, ΔH for the net reaction is the sum of the ΔH values for the individual reactions. This principle is called Hess's law, after the Swiss-born Russian chemist Germain Hess (1802–1850), a pioneer in the study of thermochemistry. Hess's law allows us to calculate ΔH values for reactions that are difficult to carry out directly by adding together the known ΔH values for individual steps that give the overall reaction, even though the overall reaction may not actually occur via those steps.

> *Hess's Law argues that ΔH for the net reaction is the sum of the ΔH values for the individual reactions. This is nothing more than arguing that ΔH is a state function.*

We can illustrate Hess's law using the thermite reaction. The overall reaction shown in Equation 5.6.1 can be viewed as occurring in three distinct steps with known ΔH values. As shown in Figure 5.6.1, the first reaction produces 1 mol of solid aluminum oxide (Al_2O_3) and 2 mol of liquid iron at its melting point of 1758°C (part (a) in Equation 5.6.1); the enthalpy change for this reaction is −732.5 kJ/mol of Fe_2O_3. The second reaction is the conversion of 2 mol of liquid iron at 1758°C to 2 mol of solid iron at 1758°C (part (b) in Equation 5.6.1); the enthalpy change for this reaction is −13.8 kJ/mol of Fe (−27.6 kJ per 2 mol Fe). In the third reaction, 2 mol of solid iron at 1758°C is converted to 2 mol of solid iron at 25°C (part (c) in Equation 5.6.1); the enthalpy change for this reaction is −45.5 kJ/mol of Fe (−91.0 kJ per 2 mol Fe). As you can see in Figure 5.6.1, the overall reaction is given by the longest arrow (shown on the left), which is the sum of the three shorter arrows (shown on the right). Adding parts (a), (b), and (c) in Equation 5.6.1 gives the overall reaction, shown in part (d):

$$\begin{array}{rcll} 2\,\mathrm{Al(s,25\,^\circ C)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s,25\,^\circ C)} & \longrightarrow & 2\,\mathrm{Fe(l,1758\,^\circ C)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s,1758\,^\circ C)} & \Delta H = -732.5\,\mathrm{kJ} \quad \text{(a)} \\ 2\,\mathrm{Fe(l,1758\,^\circ C)} & \longrightarrow & 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s,1758\,^\circ C)} & \Delta H = -\ 27.6\,\mathrm{kJ} \quad \text{(b)} \\ 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s,1758\,^\circ C)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s,1758\,^\circ C)} & \longrightarrow & 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s,25\,^\circ C)} + \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s,25\,^\circ C)} & \Delta H = -\ 91.0\,\mathrm{kJ} \quad \text{(c)} \\ \hline 2\,\mathrm{Al(s,25\,^\circ C)} + \mathrm{Fe_2O_3(s,25\,^\circ C)} & \longrightarrow & \mathrm{Al_2O_3(s,25\,^\circ C)} + 2\,\mathrm{Fe(s,25\,^\circ C)} & \Delta H = -851.1\,\mathrm{kJ} \quad \text{(d)} \end{array} \tag{5.6.1}$$

The net reaction in part (d) in Equation 5.6.1 is identical to the equation for the thermite reaction that we saw in a previous section. By Hess's law, the enthalpy change for part (d) is the sum of the enthalpy changes for parts (a), (b), and (c). In essence, Hess's law enables us to calculate the enthalpy change for the sum of a series of reactions without having to draw a diagram like that in Figure 7.8.1.

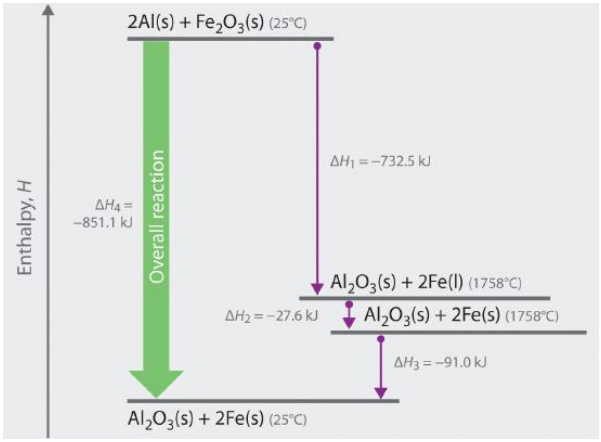


Figure 7.8.1: Energy Changes accompanying the thermite reaction. Because enthalpy is a state function, the overall enthalpy change for the reaction of 2 mol of Al(s) with 1 mol of Fe_2O_3(s) is −851.1 kJ, whether the reaction occurs in a single step (ΔH_4, shown on the left) or in three hypothetical steps (shown on the right) that involve the successive formation of solid Al_2O_3 and liquid iron (ΔH_1), solid iron at 1758°C (ΔH_2), and solid iron at 25°C (ΔH_3). Thus $\Delta H_4 = \Delta H_1 + \Delta H_2 + \Delta H_3$, as stated by Hess's law.

Comparing parts (a) and (d) in Equation 5.6.1 also illustrates an important point: The magnitude of ΔH for a reaction depends on the physical states of the reactants and the products (gas, liquid, solid, or solution). When the product is liquid iron at its melting point (part (a) in Equation 5.6.1), only 732.5 kJ of heat are released to the surroundings compared with 852 kJ when the product is solid iron at 25°C (part (d) in Equation 5.6.1). The difference, 120 kJ, is the amount of energy that is released when 2 mol of liquid iron solidifies and cools to 25°C. It is important to specify the physical state of all reactants and products when writing a thermochemical equation.

When using Hess's law to calculate the value of ΔH for a reaction, follow this procedure:

1. Identify the equation whose ΔH value is unknown and write individual reactions with known ΔH values that, when added together, will give the desired equation. We illustrate how to use this procedure in Example 7.8.1.
2. Arrange the chemical equations so that the reaction of interest is the sum of the individual reactions.
3. If a reaction must be reversed, change the sign of ΔH for that reaction. Additionally, if a reaction must be multiplied by a factor to obtain the correct number of moles of a substance, multiply its ΔH value by that same factor.
4. Add together the individual reactions and their corresponding ΔH values to obtain the reaction of interest and the unknown ΔH.

✔ Example 7.8.1

When carbon is burned with limited amounts of oxygen gas (O_2), carbon monoxide (CO) is the main product:

$$(1)\ 2\,C(s) + O_2(g) \longrightarrow 2\,CO(g) \quad \Delta H = -221.0\ kJ$$

When carbon is burned in excess O_2, carbon dioxide (CO_2) is produced:

$$(2)\ C(s) + O_2(g) \longrightarrow CO_2(g) \quad \Delta H = -393.5\ kJ$$

Use this information to calculate the enthalpy change per mole of CO for the reaction of CO with O_2 to give CO_2.

Given: two balanced chemical equations and their ΔH values

Asked for: enthalpy change for a third reaction

Strategy:

A. After balancing the chemical equation for the overall reaction, write two equations whose ΔH values are known and that, when added together, give the equation for the overall reaction. (Reverse the direction of one or more of the equations as necessary, making sure to also reverse the sign of ΔH.)

B. Multiply the equations by appropriate factors to ensure that they give the desired overall chemical equation when added together. To obtain the enthalpy change per mole of CO, write the resulting equations as a sum, along with the enthalpy change for each.

Solution:

A We begin by writing the balanced chemical equation for the reaction of interest:

$$(3)\ \ \mathrm{CO(g)} + \tfrac{1}{2}\mathrm{O_2(g)} \longrightarrow \mathrm{CO_2(g)} \quad \Delta H_{rxn} = ?$$

There are at least two ways to solve this problem using Hess's law and the data provided. The simplest is to write two equations that can be added together to give the desired equation and for which the enthalpy changes are known. Observing that CO, a reactant in Equation 3, is a product in Equation 1, we can reverse Equation (1) to give

$$2\,\mathrm{CO(g)} \longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{C(s)} + \mathrm{O_2(g)} \quad \Delta H = +221.0\ \mathrm{kJ}$$

Because we have reversed the direction of the reaction, the sign of ΔH is changed. We can use Equation 2 as written because its product, CO_2, is the product we want in Equation 3:

$$\mathrm{C(s)} + \mathrm{O_2(g)} \longrightarrow \mathrm{CO_2(s)} \quad \Delta H = -393.5\ \mathrm{kJ}$$

B Adding these two equations together does not give the desired reaction, however, because the numbers of C(s) on the left and right sides do not cancel. According to our strategy, we can multiply the second equation by 2 to obtain 2 mol of C(s) as the reactant:

$$2\,\mathrm{C(s)} + 2\,\mathrm{O_2(g)} \longrightarrow 2\,\mathrm{CO_2(s)} \quad \Delta H = -787.0\ \mathrm{kJ}$$

Writing the resulting equations as a sum, along with the enthalpy change for each, gives

$$\begin{array}{rcll} 2\,\mathrm{CO(g)} & \longrightarrow & 2\,\cancel{\mathrm{C(s)}} + \cancel{\mathrm{O_2(g)}} & \Delta H = -\Delta H_1 = +221.0\ \mathrm{kJ} \\ \cancel{2\,\mathrm{C(s)}} + \cancel{2}\,\mathrm{O_2(g)} & \longrightarrow & 2\,\mathrm{CO_2(g)} & \Delta H = -2\Delta H_2 = -787.0\ \mathrm{kJ} \\ \hline 2\,\mathrm{CO(g)} + \mathrm{O_2(g)} & \longrightarrow & 2\,\mathrm{CO_2(g)} & \Delta H = -566.0\ \mathrm{kJ} \end{array}$$

Note that the overall chemical equation and the enthalpy change for the reaction are both for the reaction of 2 mol of CO with O_2, and the problem asks for the amount per mole of CO. Consequently, we must divide both sides of the final equation and the magnitude of ΔH by 2:

$$\mathrm{CO(g)} + \tfrac{1}{2}\mathrm{O_2(g)} \longrightarrow \mathrm{CO_2(g)} \quad \Delta H = -283.0\ \mathrm{kJ}$$

An alternative and equally valid way to solve this problem is to write the two given equations as occurring in steps. Note that we have multiplied the equations by the appropriate factors to allow us to cancel terms:

$$\begin{array}{lrll} \mathrm{(A)} & 2\,\mathrm{C(s)} + \mathrm{O_2(g)} \longrightarrow & 2\,\cancel{\mathrm{CO(g)}} & \Delta H_A = \Delta H_1 = +221.0\ \mathrm{kJ} \\ \mathrm{(B)} & \cancel{2\,\mathrm{CO(g)}} + \mathrm{O_2(g)} \longrightarrow & 2\,\mathrm{CO_2(g)} & \Delta H_B = ? \\ \mathrm{(C)} & 2\,\mathrm{C(s)} + 2\,\mathrm{O_2(g)} \longrightarrow & 2\,\mathrm{CO_2(g)} & \Delta H = 2\Delta H_2 = 2 \times (-393.5\ \mathrm{kJ}) = -787.0\ \mathrm{kJ} \end{array}$$

The sum of reactions A and B is reaction C, which corresponds to the combustion of 2 mol of carbon to give CO_2. From Hess's law, $\Delta H_A + \Delta H_B = \Delta H_C$, and we are given ΔH for reactions A and C. Substituting the appropriate values gives

$$-221.0\ kJ + \Delta H_B = -787.0\ kJ$$
$$\Delta H_B = -566.0$$

This is again the enthalpy change for the conversion of 2 mol of CO to CO_2. The enthalpy change for the conversion of 1 mol of CO to CO_2 is therefore −566.0 ÷ 2 = −283.0 kJ/mol of CO, which is the same result we obtained earlier. As you can see, there may be more than one correct way to solve a problem.

? Exercise 7.8.1

The reaction of acetylene (C_2H_2) with hydrogen (H_2) can produce either ethylene (C_2H_4) or ethane (C_2H_6):

$$C_2H_2\,(g) + H_2\,(g) \rightarrow C_2H_4\,(g) \quad \Delta H = -175.7\ kJ/mol\ C_2H_2$$
$$C_2H_2\,(g) + 2H_2\,(g) \rightarrow C_2H_6\,(g) \quad \Delta H = -312.0\ kJ/mol\ C_2H_2$$

What is ΔH for the reaction of C_2H_4 with H_2 to form C_2H_6?

Answer

−136.3 kJ/mol of C_2H_4



Hess’s Law: Hess's Law, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Summary

Hess's law is arguing the overall enthalpy change for a series of reactions is the sum of the enthalpy changes for the individual reactions. For a chemical reaction, the **enthalpy of reaction (ΔH_{rxn})** is the difference in enthalpy between products and reactants; the units of ΔH_{rxn} are kilojoules per mole. Reversing a chemical reaction reverses the sign of ΔH_{rxn}. The magnitude of ΔH_{rxn} also depends on the physical state of the reactants and the products because processes such as melting solids or vaporizing liquids are also accompanied by enthalpy changes: the **enthalpy of fusion (ΔH_{fus})** and the **enthalpy of vaporization (ΔH_{vap})**, respectively. The overall enthalpy change for a series of reactions is the sum of the enthalpy changes for the individual reactions, which is **Hess’s law**. The **enthalpy of combustion (ΔH_{comb})** is the enthalpy change that occurs when a substance is burned in excess oxygen.

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7.9: Enthalpies of Reaction from Standard Heats of Formation

Learning Objectives

- To understand Enthalpies of Formation and be able to use them to calculate Enthalpies of Reaction

One way to report the heat absorbed or released by chemical reactions would be to compile a massive set of reference tables that list the enthalpy changes for all possible chemical reactions, which would require an incredible amount of effort. Fortunately, Hess's law allows us to calculate the enthalpy change for virtually any conceivable chemical reaction using a relatively small set of tabulated data, starting from the elemental forms of each atom at 25 °C and 1 atm pressure.

Enthalpy of formation (ΔH_f) is the enthalpy change for the formation of 1 mol of a compound from its component elements, such as the formation of carbon dioxide from carbon and oxygen. The formation of any chemical can be as a reaction from the corresponding elements:

$$\text{elements} \rightarrow \text{compound}$$

which in terms of the the Enthalpy of formation becomes

$$\Delta H_{rxn} = \Delta H_f \tag{7.9.1}$$

For example, consider the combustion of carbon:

$$\mathrm{C(s) + O_2(g) \longrightarrow CO_2(g)}$$

then

$$\Delta H_{rxn} = \Delta H_f \left[CO_2\left(g\right)\right]$$

The sign convention for ΔH_f is the same as for any enthalpy change: $\Delta H_f < 0$ if heat is released when elements combine to form a compound and $\Delta H_f > 0$ if heat is absorbed.

> The sign convention is the same for all enthalpy changes: negative if heat is released by the system and positive if heat is absorbed by the system.

Standard Enthalpies of Formation

The magnitude of ΔH for a reaction depends on the physical states of the reactants and the products (gas, liquid, solid, or solution), the pressure of any gases present, and the temperature at which the reaction is carried out. To avoid confusion caused by differences in reaction conditions and ensure uniformity of data, the scientific community has selected a specific set of conditions under which enthalpy changes are measured. These standard conditions serve as a reference point for measuring differences in enthalpy, much as sea level is the reference point for measuring the height of a mountain or for reporting the altitude of an airplane.

The standard conditions for which most thermochemical data are tabulated are a *pressure* of 1 atmosphere (atm) for all gases and a *concentration* of 1 M for all species in solution (1 mol/L). In addition, each pure substance must be in its standard state, which is usually its most stable form at a pressure of 1 atm at a specified temperature. We assume a temperature of 25°C (298 K) for all enthalpy changes given in this text, unless otherwise indicated. Enthalpies of formation measured under these conditions are called **standard enthalpies of formation** (ΔH_f^o) The enthalpy change for the formation of 1 mol of a compound from its component elements when the component elements are each in their standard states. The standard enthalpy of formation of any element in its most stable form is zero by definition.

> *The standard enthalpy of formation of any element in its standard state is zero by definition.*

For example, although oxygen can exist as ozone (O_3), atomic oxygen (O), and molecular oxygen (O_2), O_2 is the most stable form at 1 atm pressure and 25°C. Similarly, hydrogen is H_2(g), not atomic hydrogen (H). Graphite and diamond are both forms of elemental carbon, but because graphite is more stable at 1 atm pressure and 25°C, the standard state of carbon is graphite (Figure 7.9.1). Therefore, $\mathrm{O_2(g)}$, $\mathrm{H_2(g)}$, and graphite have ΔH_f^o values of zero.

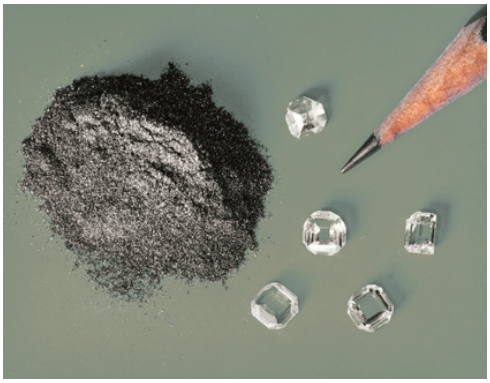


Figure 7.9.1: Elemental Carbon. Although graphite and diamond are both forms of elemental carbon, graphite is slightly more stable at 1 atm pressure and 25°C than diamond is. Given enough time, diamond will revert to graphite under these conditions. Hence graphite is the standard state of carbon.

The standard enthalpy of formation of glucose from the elements at 25°C is the enthalpy change for the following reaction:

$$6C\left(s, graphite\right) + 6H_2\left(g\right) + 3O_2\left(g\right) \rightarrow C_6H_{12}O_6\left(s\right) \quad \Delta H_f^o = -1273.3\ kJ \tag{7.9.2}$$

It is not possible to measure the value of $\Delta H^o o_f$ for glucose, −1273.3 kJ/mol, by simply mixing appropriate amounts of graphite, O_2, and H_2 and measuring the heat evolved as glucose is formed since the reaction shown in Equation 7.9.2 does not occur at a measurable rate under any known conditions. Glucose is not unique; most compounds cannot be prepared by the chemical equations that define their standard enthalpies of formation. Instead, values of $\Delta H^o o_f$ are obtained using **Hess's law** and standard enthalpy changes that have been measured for other reactions, such as combustion reactions. Values of ΔH_f^o for an extensive list of compounds are given in Table T1. Note that ΔH_f^o values are always reported in kilojoules per mole of the substance of interest. Also notice in Table T1 that the standard enthalpy of formation of O_2(g) is zero because it is the most stable form of oxygen in its standard state.

Example 7.9.1: Enthalpy of Formation

For the formation of each compound, write a balanced chemical equation corresponding to the standard enthalpy of formation of each compound.

a. $\mathrm{HCl(g)}$
b. $\mathrm{MgCO_3(s)}$
c. $\mathrm{CH_3(CH_2)_{14}CO_2H(s)}$ (*palmitic acid*)

Given:

compound formula and phase.

Asked for:

balanced chemical equation for its formation from elements in standard states

Strategy:

Use Table T1 to identify the standard state for each element. Write a chemical equation that describes the formation of the compound from the elements in their standard states and then balance it so that 1 mol of product is made.

Solution:

To calculate the standard enthalpy of formation of a compound, we must start with the elements in their standard states. The standard state of an element can be identified in Table T1: by a ΔH_f^o value of 0 kJ/mol.

Hydrogen chloride contains one atom of hydrogen and one atom of chlorine. Because the standard states of elemental hydrogen and elemental chlorine are $\mathrm{H_2(g)}$ and $\mathrm{Cl_2(g)}$, respectively, the unbalanced chemical equation is

$$\mathrm{H_2(g) + Cl_2(g) \rightarrow HCl(g)}$$

Fractional coefficients are required in this case because $\mathrm{\Delta H^o_f}$ values are reported for *1 mol* of the product, HCl. Multiplying both $\mathrm{H_2(g)}$ and $\mathrm{Cl_2(g)}$ by 1/2 balances the equation:

$$\mathrm{\tfrac{1}{2}H_2(g) + \tfrac{1}{2}Cl_2(g) \rightarrow HCl(g)}$$

The standard states of the elements in this compound are $\mathrm{Mg(s)}$, $\mathrm{C(s,\,graphite)}$, and $\mathrm{O_2(g)}$. The unbalanced chemical equation is thus

$$\mathrm{Mg(s) + C(s,\,graphite) + O_2(g) \rightarrow MgCO_3(s)}$$

This equation can be balanced by inspection to give

$$\mathrm{Mg(s) + C(s,\,graphite) + \tfrac{3}{2}O_2(g) \rightarrow MgCO_3(s)}$$

Palmitic acid, the major fat in meat and dairy products, contains hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen, so the unbalanced chemical equation for its formation from the elements in their standard states is as follows:

$$\mathrm{C(s,\,graphite) + H_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow CH_3(CH_2)_{14}CO_2H(s)}$$

There are 16 carbon atoms and 32 hydrogen atoms in 1 mol of palmitic acid, so the balanced chemical equation is

$$\mathrm{16\,C(s,\,graphite) + 16\,H_2(g) + O_2(g) \longrightarrow CH_3(CH_2)_{14}CO_2H(s)}$$

? Exercise 7.9.1

For the formation of each compound, write a balanced chemical equation corresponding to the standard enthalpy of formation of each compound.

a. $\mathrm{NaCl(s)}$
b. $\mathrm{H_2SO_4(l)}$
c. $\mathrm{CH_3CO_2H(l)}$ (*acetic acid*)

Answer a

$$\mathrm{Na(s) + \tfrac{1}{2}Cl_2(g) \rightarrow NaCl(s)}$$

Answer b

$$\mathrm{H_2(g) + \tfrac{1}{8}S_8(s) + 2\,O_2(g) \rightarrow H_2SO_4(l)}$$

Answer c

$$\mathrm{2\,C(s) + O_2(g) + 2\,H_2(g) \longrightarrow CH_3CO_2H(l)}$$



Definition of Heat of Formation Reactions: https://youtu.be/A20k0CK4doI

Standard Enthalpies of Reaction

Tabulated values of standard enthalpies of formation can be used to calculate enthalpy changes for *any* reaction involving substances whose ΔH_f^o values are known. The standard enthalpy of reaction ΔH_{rxn}^o is the enthalpy change that occurs when a reaction is carried out with all reactants and products in their standard states. Consider the general reaction

$$aA + bB \rightarrow cC + dD \tag{7.9.3}$$

where A, B, C, and D are chemical substances and a, b, c, and d are their stoichiometric coefficients. The magnitude of ΔH^o is the sum of the standard enthalpies of formation of the products, each multiplied by its appropriate coefficient, minus the sum of the standard enthalpies of formation of the reactants, also multiplied by their coefficients:

$$\Delta H^o_{rxn} = \underbrace{\left[c\Delta H^o_f(C) + d\Delta H^o_f(D)\right]}_{\text{products}} - \underbrace{\left[a\Delta H^o_f(A) + b\Delta H^o_f(B)\right]}_{\text{reactants}} \tag{7.9.4}$$

More generally, we can write

$$\Delta H^o_{rxn} = \sum m\Delta H^o_f(products) - \sum n\Delta H^o_f(reactants) \tag{7.9.5}$$

where the symbol $\sum$ means "sum of" and m and n are the stoichiometric coefficients of each of the products and the reactants, respectively. "Products minus reactants" summations such as Equation 7.9.5 arise from the fact that enthalpy is a state function. Because many other thermochemical quantities are also state functions, "products minus reactants" summations are very common in chemistry; we will encounter many others in subsequent chapters.

> "Products minus reactants" summations are typical of state functions.

To demonstrate the use of tabulated ΔH^o values, we will use them to calculate ΔH_{rxn} for the combustion of glucose, the reaction that provides energy for your brain:

$$\mathrm{C_6H_{12}O_6(s) + 6\,O_2(g) \rightarrow 6\,CO_2(g) + 6\,H_2O(l)} \tag{7.9.6}$$

Using Equation 7.9.5, we write

$$\Delta H^o_f = \left\{6\Delta H^o_f\left[CO_2(g)\right] + 6\Delta H^o_f\left[H_2O(g)\right]\right\} - \left\{\Delta H^o_f\left[C_6H_{12}O_6(s)\right] + 6\Delta H^o_f\left[O_2(g)\right]\right\} \tag{7.9.7}$$

From Table T1, the relevant ΔH^o_f values are $\Delta H^o_f\,[CO_2(g)]$ = -393.5 kJ/mol, $\Delta H^o_f\,[H_2O(l)]$ = -285.8 kJ/mol, and $\Delta H^o_f\,[C_6H_{12}O_6(s)]$ = -1273.3 kJ/mol. Because $O_2(g)$ is a pure element in its standard state, $\Delta H^o_f\,[O_2(g)]$ = 0 kJ/mol. Inserting these values into Equation 7.9.7 and changing the subscript to indicate that this is a combustion reaction, we obtain

$$\Delta H^o_{comb} = \left[6\left(-393.5\ kJ/mol\right) + 6\left(-285.8\ kJ/mol\right)\right] - \left[-1273.3 + 6\left(0\ kJ\ mol\right)\right] \tag{7.9.8}$$

$$= -2802.5\ kJ/mol \tag{7.9.9}$$

As illustrated in Figure 7.9.2, we can use Equation 7.9.8 to calculate ΔH^o_f for glucose because enthalpy is a state function. The figure shows two pathways from reactants (middle left) to products (bottom). The more direct pathway is the downward green arrow labeled ΔH^o_{comb}. The alternative hypothetical pathway consists of **four separate reactions** that convert the reactants to the elements in their standard states (upward purple arrow at left) and then convert the elements into the desired products (downward purple arrows at right). The reactions that convert the reactants to the elements are the reverse of the equations that define the ΔH^o_f values of the reactants. Consequently, the enthalpy changes are

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta H^o_1 &= \Delta H^o_f\left[glucose\,(s)\right] \\
&= -1\ \cancel{mol\ glucose}\left(\frac{1273.3\ kJ}{1\ \cancel{mol\ glucose}}\right) \\
&= +1273.3\ kJ \\
\Delta H^o_2 &= 6\Delta H^o_f\left[O_2\,(g)\right] \\
&= 6\ \cancel{mol\ O_2}\left(\frac{0\ kJ}{1\ \cancel{mol\ O_2}}\right) \\
&= 0\ kJ
\end{aligned} \tag{7.9.10}$$

> *Recall that when we reverse a reaction, we must also reverse the **sign** of the accompanying enthalpy change (Equation 7.9.4 since the products are now reactants and vice versa.*

The overall enthalpy change for conversion of the reactants (1 mol of glucose and 6 mol of O_2) to the elements is therefore +1273.3 kJ.

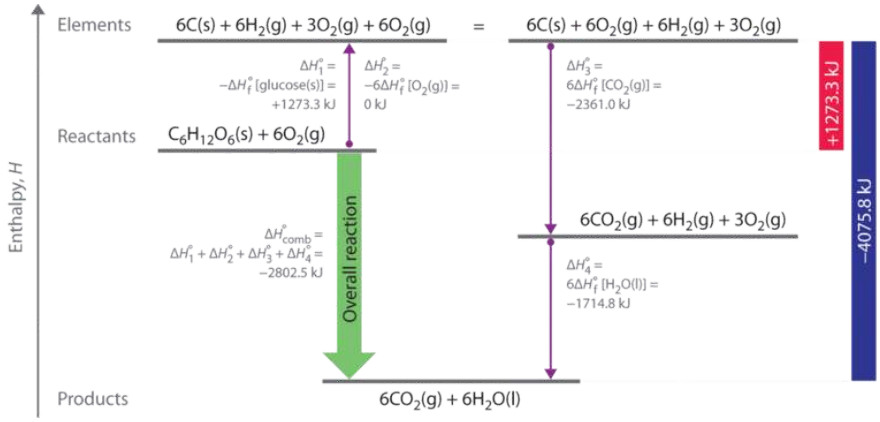


Figure 7.9.1: A Thermochemical Cycle for the Combustion of Glucose. Two hypothetical pathways are shown from the reactants to the products. The green arrow labeled ΔH^o_{comb} indicates the combustion reaction. Alternatively, we could first convert the reactants to the elements via the reverse of the equations that define their standard enthalpies of formation (the upward arrow, labeled ΔH^o_1 and ΔH^o_2). Then we could convert the elements to the products via the equations used to define their standard enthalpies of formation (the downward arrows, labeled ΔH^o_3 and ΔH^o_4). Because enthalpy is a state function, ΔH^o_{comb} is equal to the sum of the enthalpy changes $\Delta H^o_1 + \Delta H^o_2 + \Delta H^o_3 + \Delta H^o_4$.

The reactions that convert the elements to final products (downward purple arrows in Figure 7.9.2) are identical to those used to define the ΔH^o_f values of the products. Consequently, the enthalpy changes (from Table T1) are

$$\Delta H^o_3 = \Delta H^o_f\,[CO_2\,(g)] = 6\ \cancel{mol\ CO_2}\left(\frac{393.5\ kJ}{1\ \cancel{mol\ CO_2}}\right) = -2361.0\ kJ$$

$$\Delta H^o_4 = 6\Delta H^o_f\,[H_2O\,(l)] = 6\ \cancel{mol\ H_2O}\left(\frac{-285.8\ kJ}{1\ \cancel{mol\ H_2O}}\right) = -1714.8\ kJ \tag{7.9.11}$$

The overall enthalpy change for the conversion of the elements to products (6 mol of carbon dioxide and 6 mol of liquid water) is therefore −4075.8 kJ. Because enthalpy is a state function, the difference in enthalpy between an initial state and a final state can be computed using *any* pathway that connects the two. Thus the enthalpy change for the combustion of glucose to carbon dioxide and water is the sum of the enthalpy changes for the conversion of glucose and oxygen to the elements (+1273.3 kJ) and for the conversion of the elements to carbon dioxide and water (−4075.8 kJ):

$$\Delta H^o_{comb} = +1273.3\ kJ + (-4075.8\ kJ) = -2802.5\ kJ \tag{7.9.12}$$

This is the same result we obtained using the "products minus reactants" rule (Equation 7.9.5) and ΔH^o_f values. The two results must be the same because Equation 7.9.12 is just a more compact way of describing the thermochemical cycle shown in Figure 7.9.1.

✔ Example 7.9.2: Heat of Combustion

Long-chain fatty acids such as palmitic acid ($CH_3(CH_2)_{14}CO_2H$) are one of the two major sources of energy in our diet (ΔH^o_f =−891.5 kJ/mol). Use the data in Table T1 to calculate ΔH^o_{comb} for the combustion of palmitic acid. Based on the energy released in combustion *per gram*, which is the better fuel — glucose or palmitic acid?

Given: compound and ΔH^o_f values

Asked for: ΔH^o_{comb} per mole and per gram

Strategy:

A. After writing the balanced chemical equation for the reaction, use Equation 7.9.5 and the values from Table T1 to calculate ΔH^o_{comb} the energy released by the combustion of 1 mol of palmitic acid.

B. Divide this value by the molar mass of palmitic acid to find the energy released from the combustion of 1 g of palmitic acid. Compare this value with the value calculated in Equation 7.9.8 for the combustion of glucose to determine which is the better fuel.

Solution:

A To determine the energy released by the combustion of palmitic acid, we need to calculate its ΔH^o_f. As always, the first requirement is a balanced chemical equation:

$$C_{16}H_{32}O_{2(s)} + 23O_{2(g)} \rightarrow 16CO_{2(g)} + 16H_2O_{(l)}$$

Using Equation 7.9.5 ("products minus reactants") with ΔH^o_f values from Table T1 (and omitting the physical states of the reactants and products to save space) gives

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta H^o_{comb} &= \sum m\Delta H^o_f\,(products) - \sum n\Delta H^o_f\,(reactants)\\ &= [16\,(-393.5\ kJ/mol\ CO_2) + 16\,(-285.8\ kJ/mol\ H_2O\,)]\\ &\quad - [-891.5\ kJ/mol\ C_{16}H_{32}O_2 + 23\,(0\ kJ/mol\ O_2\,)]\\ &= -9977.3\ kJ/mol\end{aligned}$$

This is the energy released by the combustion of 1 mol of palmitic acid.

B The energy released by the combustion of 1 g of palmitic acid is

$$\Delta H^o_{comb}\ per\ gram = \left(\frac{9977.3\ kJ}{1\ \cancel{mol}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{mol}}{256.42\ g}\right) = -38.910\ kJ/g$$

As calculated in Equation 7.9.8, \(ΔH^o_f\) of glucose is −2802.5 kJ/mol. The energy released by the combustion of 1 g of glucose is therefore

$$\Delta H^o_{comb}\ per\ gram = \left(\frac{-2802.5\ kJ}{1\ \cancel{mol}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{mol}}{180.16\ g}\right) = -15.556\ kJ/g$$

The combustion of fats such as palmitic acid releases more than twice as much energy per gram as the combustion of sugars such as glucose. This is one reason many people try to minimize the fat content in their diets to lose weight.

? Exercise 7.9.2: Water–gas shift reaction

Use Table T1 to calculate ΔH^o_{rxn} for the *water–gas shift reaction*, which is used industrially on an enormous scale to obtain H_2(g):

$$\mathrm{CO(g) + H_2O(g) \longrightarrow CO_2(g) + H_2(g)}$$

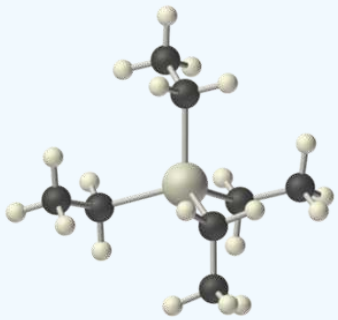
Answer

−41.2 kJ/mol

We can also measure the enthalpy change for another reaction, such as a combustion reaction, and then use it to calculate a compound's ΔH^o_f which we cannot obtain otherwise. This procedure is illustrated in Example 7.9.3.

✓ Example 7.9.3: Tetraethyllead

Beginning in 1923, tetraethyllead $[(C_2H_5)_4Pb]$ was used as an antiknock additive in gasoline in the United States. Its use was completely phased out in 1986 because of the health risks associated with chronic lead exposure. Tetraethyllead is a highly poisonous, colorless liquid that burns in air to give an orange flame with a green halo. The combustion products are CO_2(g), H_2O(l), and red PbO(s). What is the standard enthalpy of formation of tetraethyllead, given that ΔH^o_f is −19.29 kJ/g for the combustion of tetraethyllead and ΔH^o_f of red PbO(s) is −219.0 kJ/mol?



Tetraethyllead

Given: reactant, products, and ΔH^o_{comb} values

Asked for: ΔH_f^o of the reactants

Strategy:

A. Write the balanced chemical equation for the combustion of tetraethyl lead. Then insert the appropriate quantities into Equation 7.9.5 to get the equation for ΔH^o_f of tetraethyl lead.

B. Convert ΔH_{comb}^o per gram given in the problem to ΔH_{comb}^o per mole by multiplying ΔH_{comb}^o per gram by the molar mass of tetraethyllead.

C. Use Table T1 to obtain values of ΔH_f^o for the other reactants and products. Insert these values into the equation for ΔH_f^o of tetraethyl lead and solve the equation.

Solution:

A The balanced chemical equation for the combustion reaction is as follows:

$$2\,(\mathrm{C_2H_5})_4\mathrm{Pb(l)} + 27\,\mathrm{O_2(g)} \rightarrow 2\,\mathrm{PbO(s)} + 16\,\mathrm{CO_2(g)} + 20\,\mathrm{H_2O(l)}$$

Using Equation 7.9.5 gives

$$\Delta H_{comb}^o = \left[2\Delta H_f^o\,(PbO) + 16\Delta H_f^o\,(CO_2) + 20\Delta H_f^o\,(H_2O)\right] - \left[2\Delta H_f^o\,((C_2H_5)_4Pb) + 27\Delta H_f^o\,(O_2)\right]$$

Solving for $\Delta H_f^o[(\mathrm{C_2H_5})_4\mathrm{Pb}]$ gives

$$\Delta H_f^o\,((C_2H_5)_4Pb) = \Delta H_f^o\,(PbO) + 8\Delta H_f^o\,(CO_2) + 10\Delta H_f^o\,(H_2O) - \frac{27}{2}\Delta H_f^o\,(O_2) - \frac{\Delta H_{comb}^o}{2}$$

The values of all terms other than $\Delta H_f^o[(\mathrm{C_2H_5})_4\mathrm{Pb}]$ are given in Table T1.

B The magnitude of ΔH_{comb}^o is given in the problem in kilojoules per *gram* of tetraethyl lead. We must therefore multiply this value by the molar mass of tetraethyl lead (323.44 g/mol) to get ΔH_{comb}^o for 1 mol of tetraethyl lead:

$$\Delta H_{comb}^o = \left(\frac{-19.29\ kJ}{\cancel{g}}\right)\left(\frac{323.44\ \cancel{g}}{mol}\right)$$
$$= -6329\ kJ/mol$$

Because the balanced chemical equation contains 2 mol of tetraethyllead, ΔH_{rxn}^o is

$$\Delta H_{rxn}^o = 2\ \ mol\ \cancel{(C_2H5)_4Pb}\left(\frac{-6329\ kJ}{1\ \ mol\ \cancel{(C_2H5)_4Pb}}\right)$$
$$= -12,480\ kJ$$

C Inserting the appropriate values into the equation for $\Delta H_f^o[(\mathrm{C_2H_5})_4\mathrm{Pb}]$ gives

$$\Delta H_f^o\,[(C_2H_4)_4Pb] = [1\ mol\ PbO\ \times 219.0\ kJ/mol] + [8\ mol\ CO_2 \times (-393.5\ kJ/mol)] + [10\ mol\ H_2O \times (-285.8\ kJ/mol)]$$
$$+ [-27/2\ mol\ O_2) \times 0\ kJ/mol\ O_2]\,[12,480.2\ kJ/mol\ (C_2H_5)_4Pb]$$
$$= -219.0\ kJ - 3148\ kJ - 2858kJ - 0kJ + 6240\ kJ = 15kJ/mol$$

? Exercise 7.9.3

Ammonium sulfate, $(\mathrm{NH_4})_2\mathrm{SO_4}$, is used as a fire retardant and wood preservative; it is prepared industrially by the highly exothermic reaction of gaseous ammonia with sulfuric acid:

$$2\,\mathrm{NH_3(g)} + \mathrm{H_2SO_4(aq)} \rightarrow (\mathrm{NH_4})_2\mathrm{SO_4(s)}$$

The value of ΔH_{rxn}^o is -179.4 kJ/mole $\mathrm{H_2SO_4}$. Use the data in Table T1 to calculate the standard enthalpy of formation of ammonium sulfate (in kilojoules per mole).

Answer

−1181 kJ/mol



Calculating DH° using DHf°: https://youtu.be/Y3aJJno9W2c

Summary

- The standard state for measuring and reporting enthalpies of formation or reaction is 25 ^{o}C and 1 atm.
- The elemental form of each atom is that with the lowest enthalpy in the standard state.
- The standard state heat of formation for the elemental form of each atom is zero.

The **enthalpy of formation** (ΔH_f) is the enthalpy change that accompanies the formation of a compound from its elements. **Standard enthalpies of formation** (ΔH_f^o) are determined under **standard conditions**: a pressure of 1 atm for gases and a concentration of 1 M for species in solution, with all pure substances present in their **standard states** (their most stable forms at 1 atm pressure and the temperature of the measurement). The standard heat of formation of any element in its most stable form is defined to be zero. The **standard enthalpy of reaction** (ΔH_{rxn}^o) can be calculated from the sum of the **standard enthalpies of formation** of the products (each multiplied by its stoichiometric coefficient) minus the sum of the standard enthalpies of formation of the reactants (each multiplied by its stoichiometric coefficient)—the "products minus reactants" rule. The **enthalpy of solution** (ΔH_{soln}) is the heat released or absorbed when a specified amount of a solute dissolves in a certain quantity of solvent at constant pressure.

Contributors and Attributions

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7.10: Energy Sources and the Environment

A general chemistry Libretexts Textmap organized around the textbook

Chemistry: Principles, Patterns, and Applications

by Bruce A. Averill

I II III IV V VI VII VIII IX X XI XII XIII XIV XV XVI XVII XVIII XIX XX XXI XXII XXIII XXIV • **Homework**

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Learning Objectives

- To use thermochemical concepts to discuss environmental issues.

Our contemporary society requires the constant expenditure of huge amounts of energy to heat our homes, provide telephone and cable service, transport us from one location to another, provide light when it is dark outside, and run the machinery that manufactures material goods. The United States alone consumes almost 10^6 kJ per person per day, which is about 100 times the normal required energy content of the human diet. This figure is about 30% of the world's total energy usage, although only about 5% of the total population of the world lives in the United States.

In contrast, the average energy consumption elsewhere in the world is about 10^5 kJ per person per day, although actual values vary widely depending on a country's level of industrialization. In this section, we describe various sources of fossil fuel energy and their impact on the environment.

Driven by environmental concerns about climate change and pollution, the world is undergoing a transformation from fossil fuels to renewable resources such as solar, and wind. The role that hydro and nuclear energy will play is uncertain and especially in the later case a policy rather than a scientific issue.

Fossil Fuels

According to the law of conservation of energy, energy can never actually be "consumed"; it can only be changed from one form to another.

Fossil fuels, coal, oil and natural gas are the result of anaerobic decay of dead plants and animals laid down hundreds of millions of years ago, most of which took place well before the dinosaurs strode the earth. Fossil fuels slowly formed as further geological layers compressed and heated the dead organic matter. The energy content of fossil fuels results from the transformation of sunlight into vegetation and the chemical transformation brought about by anaerobic cooking at high pressures and temperatures over geological times.

Figure 7.10.1 represents a plant for generating electricity using oil or coal where the fuel is burned in a boiler, superheating steam which then powers a turbine for electrical generation. Oil derived fuels are seldom used in large power plants but diesel is used commonly in small electrical generators either in remote locations or as back up for when electrical distribution systems fail. Natural gas fueled power plants burn the fuel directly in the turbine which is similar to a jet engine. Coal power plants can convert ~40% of the energy released from combustion to electricity. In comparison, nuclear power plants can be more than 50% efficient and gas turbines can approach 60% mostly due to higher operating temperatures. Co-generation, using the plant to produce not only electricity but also heat for industrial or other purposes can raise overall efficiency by 10 - 15 % or so.

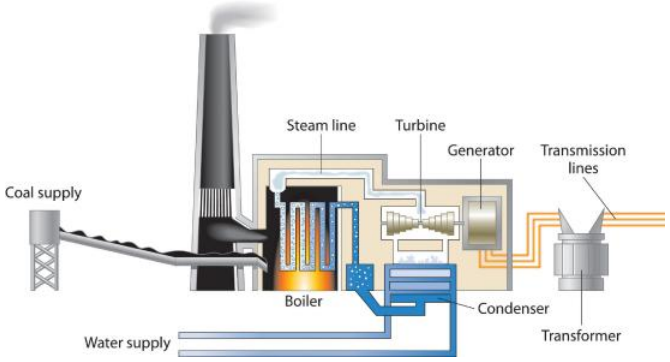


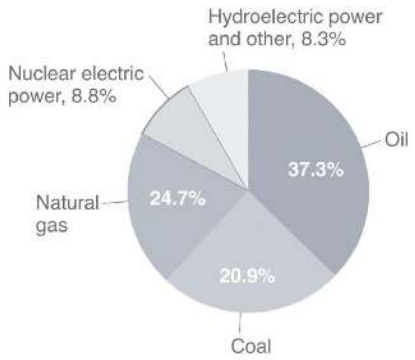
Figure 7.10.1 Electricity from Coal *A coal-powered electric power plant uses the combustion of coal to produce steam, which drives a turbine to produce electricity.*

The total expenditure of energy in the world each year is about 3×10^{17} kJ. Today, more than 80% of this energy is provided by the combustion of fossil fuels: oil, coal, and natural gas (The sources of the energy consumed in the United States in 2009 are shown in Figure 7.10.2) but as Table 7.10.1 from the Wikipedia shows, energy usage is a complex issue. Petroleum dominates as a source of energy for transportation because gasoline is easy to transport, but is very little used for electrical generation, whereas 91% of coal is used for electrical generation. The other major use of coal is as a reducing agent for metal refining from ores. The former is called thermal coal, the latter metallurgical coal.

Table 7.10.1 : Energy useage in the United States for 2008

Supply Sources	Percent of Source	Demand Sectors	Percent of Sector
Petroleum 37.1%	71% Transportation 23% Industrial 5% Residential and Commercial 1% Electric Power	Transportation 27.8%	95% Petroleum 2% Natural Gas 3% Renewable Energy
Natural Gas 23.8%	3% Transportation 34% Industrial 34% Residential and Commercial 29% Electric Power	Industrial 20.6%	42% Petroleum 40% Natural Gas 9% Coal 10% Renewable Energy
Coal 22.5%	8% Industrial <1% Residential and Commercial 91% Electric Power	Residential and Commercial 10.8%	16% Petroleum 76% Natural Gas 1% Coal 1% Renewable Energy
Renewable Energy 7.3%	11% Transportation 28% Industrial 10% Residential and Commercial 51% Electric Power	Electric Power 40.1%	1% Petroleum 17% Natural Gas 51% Coal 9% Renewable Energy 21% Nuclear Electric Power
Nuclear Electric Power 8.5%	100% Electric Power		

Figure 7.10.2 Energy Consumption in the United States by Source, 2009



More than 80% of the total energy expended is provided by the combustion of fossil fuels, such as oil, coal, and natural gas.

Converting Coal to Gaseous and Liquid Fuels

As a solid, coal is much more difficult to mine and ship than petroleum (a liquid) or natural gas. Consequently, more than 75% of the coal produced each year is simply burned in power plants to produce electricity. Methods to convert coal to gaseous fuels (*coal gasification*) or liquid fuels (*coal liquefaction*) exist, but are not particularly economical unless the prices of oil and natural gas are high. With the development of fracking and the subsequent fall in oil and natural gas prices interest in these processes has fallen however they have played an important role in the past. In the most common approach to coal gasification, coal reacts with steam to produce a mixture of CO and H_2 known as *synthesis gas*, or *syngas*:Because coal is 70%–90% carbon by mass, it is approximated as C in Equation 7.10.1

$$C\,(s) + H_2O\,(g) \rightarrow CO\,(g) + H_2\,(g) \qquad \Delta H = 131\ kJ \tag{7.10.1}$$

Converting coal to syngas removes any sulfur present and produces a clean-burning mixture of gases. Syngas or town gas was used for cooking until the 1960s when natural gas pipelines were built. Because syngas contains carbon monoxide (CO) it is poisonous, which accounts for scenes in old movies where people were killed by sticking their heads into an oven and allowing the gas to flow.

Syngas is can also used as a reactant to produce methane and methanol. A promising approach is to convert coal directly to methane through a series of reactions:

$$\begin{array}{lll}
2C\,(s) + 2H_2O\,(g) \rightarrow\ 2\cancel{CO\,(g)} + \cancel{2H_2\,(g)} & \Delta H_1 = 262\ kJ \\
\cancel{CO\,(g)} + \cancel{H_2O\,(g)} \rightarrow CO_2\,(g) + \cancel{H_2\,(g)} & \Delta H_2 = -41\ kJ \\
\cancel{CO\,(g)} + \cancel{3H_2\,(g)} \rightarrow CH_4\,(g) + \cancel{H_2O\,(g)} & \Delta H_3 = -206\ kJ \\
\text{---------------------} & \text{---------} \\
2C\,(s) + 2H_2O\,(g) \rightarrow CH_4\,(g) + CO_2\,(g) & \Delta H_3 = 15\ kJ
\end{array} \tag{7.10.2}$$

Techniques available for converting coal to liquid fuels are not economically competitive with the production of liquid fuels from petroleum. Current approaches to coal liquefaction use a catalyst to break the complex network structure of coal into more manageable fragments. The products are then treated with hydrogen (from syngas or other sources) under high pressure to produce a liquid more like petroleum. Subsequent distillation, cracking, and reforming can be used to create products similar to those obtained from petroleum.

Petroleum

The petroleum that is pumped out of the ground is a complex mixture of several thousand organic compounds including straight-chain alkanes, cycloalkanes, alkenes, and aromatic hydrocarbons with four to several hundred carbon atoms. The identities and relative abundances of the components vary depending on the source. So Texas crude oil is somewhat different from Saudi Arabian crude oil. In fact, the analysis of petroleum from different deposits can produce a “fingerprint” of each, which is useful in tracking down the sources of spilled crude oil. For example, Texas crude oil is “sweet,” meaning that it contains a small amount of sulfur-containing molecules, whereas Saudi Arabian crude oil is “sour,” meaning that it contains a relatively large amount of sulfur-containing molecules.

Gasoline

Petroleum is converted to useful products such as gasoline in three steps: distillation, cracking, and reforming. Recall that distillation separates compounds on the basis of their relative volatility, which is usually inversely proportional to their boiling points. Part (a) in Figure 7.10.5 shows a cutaway drawing of a column used in the petroleum industry for separating the components of crude oil. The petroleum is heated to approximately 400°C (750°F), at which temperature it has become a mixture of liquid and vapor. This mixture, called the feedstock, is introduced into the refining tower. The most volatile components (those with the lowest boiling points) condense at the top of the column where it is cooler, while the less volatile components condense nearer the bottom. Some materials are so nonvolatile that they collect at the bottom without evaporating at all. Thus the composition of the liquid condensing at each level is different. These different fractions, each of which usually consists of a mixture of compounds with similar numbers of carbon atoms, are drawn off separately. Part (b) in Figure 9.8.5 shows the typical fractions collected at refineries, the number of carbon atoms they contain, their boiling points, and their ultimate uses. These products range from gases used in natural and bottled gas to liquids used in fuels and lubricants to gummy solids used as tar on roads and roofs.

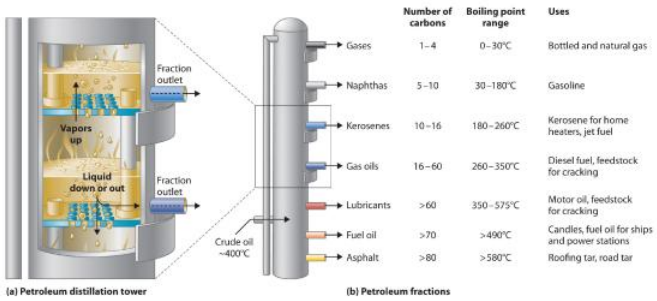


Figure \boldsymbol{\PageIndex{5}} *:* **The Distillation of Petroleum.** *(a) This is a diagram of a distillation column used for separating petroleum fractions. (b) Petroleum fractions condense at different temperatures, depending on the number of carbon atoms in the molecules, and are drawn off from the column. The most volatile components (those with the lowest boiling points) condense at the top of the column, and the least volatile (those with the highest boiling points) condense at the bottom.*

The economics of petroleum refining are complex. For example, the market demand for kerosene and lubricants is much lower than the demand for gasoline, yet all three fractions are obtained from the distillation column in comparable amounts. Furthermore, most gasolines and jet fuels are blends with very carefully controlled compositions that cannot vary as their original feedstocks did. To make petroleum refining more profitable, the less volatile, lower-value fractions must be converted to more volatile, higher-value mixtures that have carefully controlled formulas. The first process used to accomplish this transformation is cracking, in which the larger and heavier hydrocarbons in the kerosene and higher-boiling-point fractions are heated to temperatures as high as 900°C. High-temperature reactions cause the carbon–carbon bonds to break, which converts the compounds to lighter molecules similar to those in the gasoline fraction. Thus in cracking, a straight-chain alkane with a number of carbon atoms corresponding to the kerosene fraction is converted to a mixture of hydrocarbons with a number of carbon atoms corresponding to the lighter gasoline fraction. The second process used to increase the amount of valuable products is called reforming; it is the chemical conversion of straight-chain alkanes to either branched-chain alkanes or mixtures of aromatic hydrocarbons. Metal catalysts such as platinum are used to drive the necessary chemical reactions. The mixtures of products obtained from cracking and reforming are separated by fractional distillation.

Natural Gas

Natural gas is a (mostly) combustible gas found underground. While primarily composed of methane (70-90%) the gas from each well has a different composition and the value of the other components affects the value of the gas. The gas from wells that are rich in methane is called dry and wells that have a considerable amount of higher hydrocarbons produce wet gas. The higher hydrocarbons have value above that of methane so stripping them out is important. Some wells are sour because their gas has hydrogen sulfide which must be removed before the gas can be used for heating or generating electricity.

Finally, a few wells in Texas and nearby Oklahoma have a relatively high amount of helium (0.3 - 2.7%). The Helium Act of 1925 established a national helium reserve at Cliffside near Amarillo TX. Political pressure and costs pushed laws to privatize the reserve, but other policy considerations including the need for helium for scientific research has slowed the process.

Table 7.10.4 : Composition of Natural Gas

Gas	Molecular Formula	Composition
Methane	CH_4	70-95%
Ethane	C_2H_6	0-20%
Carbon Dioxide	CO_2	0-8%
Nitrogen	N_2	0-5%
Hydrogen Sulfide	H_2S	0-5%
Propane	C_3H_8	Traces
Butane	C_4H_{10}	Traces
Rare Gases	He (also Ne)	0-3% (only in Texas)

Gas turbine power plants to generate electricity are coming increasingly into use as fracking and other advanced drilling technologies have driven the cost of natural gas down and the supply up. While on a continental scale natural gas is transported by pipelines, natural gas can be cooled and compressed to be transported as liquified natural gas. Gas turbine power plants are small and quickly built. They can be rapidly spun up to meet peak demand. More detailed information can be found at the Department of Energy Fossil Fuel web site

The Carbon Cycle and the Greenhouse Effect

Since 1850 the burning of fossil fuels has increased the concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere from 280 to just over 400 ppmV. A continued increase in the CO_2 burden in the atmosphere will have serious negative effects and this requires shifting our entire energy producing economy from fossil fuels to non-carbon sources such as hydro, solar, wind and nuclear. These include sea level rise that will threaten low lying cities including but not limited to Miami Beach and Norfolk in the US, even a meter or more coupled with storm surge and high tides can cause massive damage as was seen during Hurricane Sandy. Increased carbon dioxide in the atmosphere has already measurably decreased the pH of the oceans. Sea life is adapted to a narrow range of pH.

Higher global temperatures of 2 or 3 C may not seem much, but one should keep in mind that the average global temperature during the ice ages was only ~6 C lower than it is today. During the Eemian interglacial the average temperature was only a few degrees higher than the present and the sea level was 6-9 m higher. Finally, humans are mammals who maintain a core temperature within a few degrees of 37.0 C. In hot weather we do so by evaporation of sweat however there are limits to this and by 2100 there is a significant probability even in the US that at least a few days a year will reach this limit by 2100. Given that most people on earth do not have access to air conditioning, parts of the planet may become uninhabitable. Indeed a worst case and a serious problem that merits attention.

Given the constraints of this text it is difficult to provide the level of detail needed to understand why this is so. A good source for those interested in learning more is David Archer's Global Warming, Understanding the Forecast and An Introduction to Modern Climate Change by Andrew Dessler

There are a few basic facts that anyone starting to learn about the issue need to know. First, that the Earth gains energy from the Sun, and that it must radiate the energy at the same rate. If more energy is absorbed than radiated the Earth will warm up, if less energy is absorbed than radiated it will cool. Solar radiation follows a 5500 K blackbody distribution while radiation from the surface of the earth is also black body but at ~290K. This is shown schematically in Figure 7.10.9

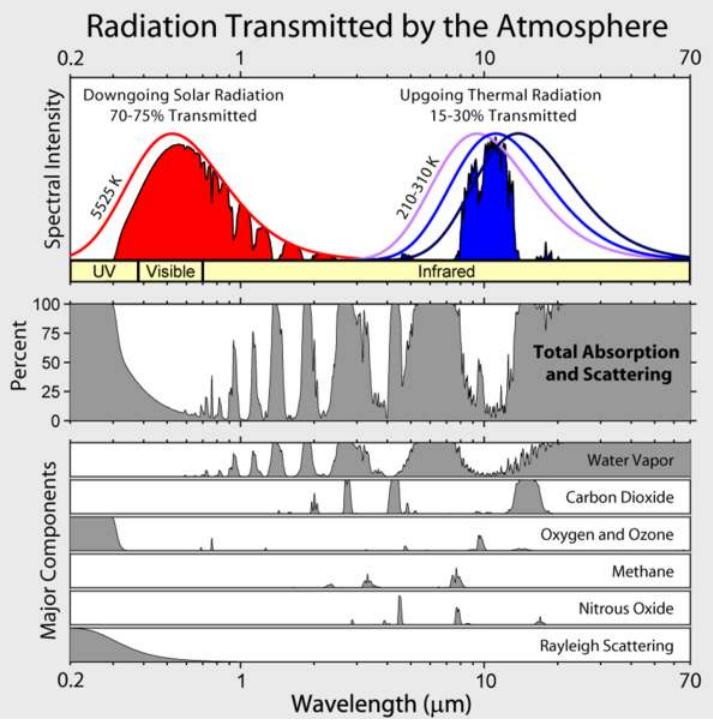


Figure 7.10.9 **: Origin of the greenhouse effect**. *The top box show the intensity of solar radiation at the top of the Earth's atmosphere to the left and the infrared emission from the atmosphere to the left. The next shows the net absorption in the atmosphere across the spectrum. The bottom show the absorption by different atmospheric species at their current concentrations.* *Figure from the Wikipedia*

The atmosphere cools with altitude up to about 15 km where it starts warming again because of absorption of UV radiation by ozone in the stratosphere. The transition between the troposphere and the stratosphere is called the tropopause and is the coldest part of the atmosphere.

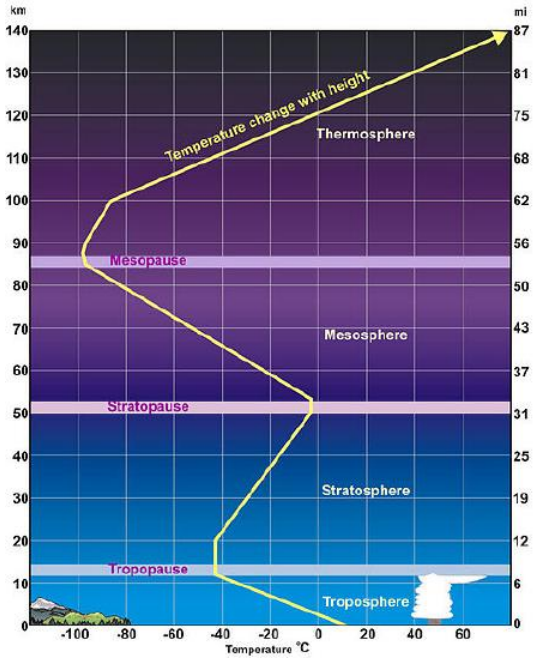


Figure 7.10.10 *The thermal structure of the atmosphere. The troposphere is the lowest level,extending from the the surface to the tropopause which is at 12-15 km altitude, more in the tropics and less less at the poles. The troposphere is the section of the atmosphere relevant to the greenhouse effect. The ozone layer is found in the stratosphere and one observes the aurora borealis or northern lights in the mesosphere Taken from Wikimedia*

Figure 7.10.11shows the IR emission spectrum observed looking down on the earth from a high altitude balloon



Figure 7.10.11 : High resolution far infrared emission spectrum of the atmosphere looking down from a high altitude balloon at 35 km. *The strong band between 600 and 700 cm^{-1} is associated with CO_2, the sharp band at ~ 1100 cm^{-1} is associated with ozone and the feature near 1300 cm^{-1} is due to methane. The sharp lines (the hair) are due to water vapor. Spectrum is from the Federal Earth Observation Portal and was taken by an instrument operated by NASA/Langeley Research Center*

The dotted lines in Figure 7.10.11 are blackbody curves. The IR window shown schematically in blue in Figure 7.10.9 is the region between the ozone and the carbon dioxide band, where the emission from the hot, 320 K ground follows the blackbody curve with a few sharp water vapor absorption lines. At those wavelengths, in the IR window, the emission comes directly from the surface. The CO_2 band extends down to about a 220 K blackbody curve. What this means is that radiation from CO_2 only escapes to space from the level in the troposphere where that is the temperature. The rate of emission is proportional to T^4 so the rate of emission from higher, therefore colder levels, is slower. Radiation in this area of the spectrum from the surface is blocked and only the greatly reduced emission from the upper troposphere escapes to space. The same is true for the ozone and methane bands as well as the water lines.

The net effect is that the surface must warm in order to maintain the balance between incoming solar radiation and the outgoing emission. There is a simple calculation which models the atmosphere as a one dimensional problem and calculates what the temperature of the surface would be if there were no greenhouse gases. The result is 255 K, rather cold. In fact if one attempts a more complex calculation the effective temperature without greenhouse gases would be even colder.

What happens if we increase the carbon dioxide in the atmosphere? The altitude at which the atmosphere can emit radiation to space will rise because of increased absorption by the CO_2. Since in the troposphere the temperature decreases with altitude, the rate of emission from a higher level must decrease. Again, in order to maintain the balance between incoming solar radiation and the outgoing emission the surface will have to warm even more, thus the term global warming. The change is not linear with increasing CO_2 but logarithmic. But, of course it is not so simple, because increasing the surface temperature will increase the water vapor pressure in the atmosphere, which will increase the temperature further.

We also have to understand the flow of carbon between the atmosphere, the biosphere, the upper oceans and the deep. Observations to date show that natural emissions of CO_2 from these reservoirs are in balance with absorption, while only about half of fossil fuel emissions remain in the atmosphere, the rest being absorbed by the upper ocean and the biosphere. The three upper reservoirs equilibrate in a decade or less, but flow into the deep ocean requires roughly a thousand years.

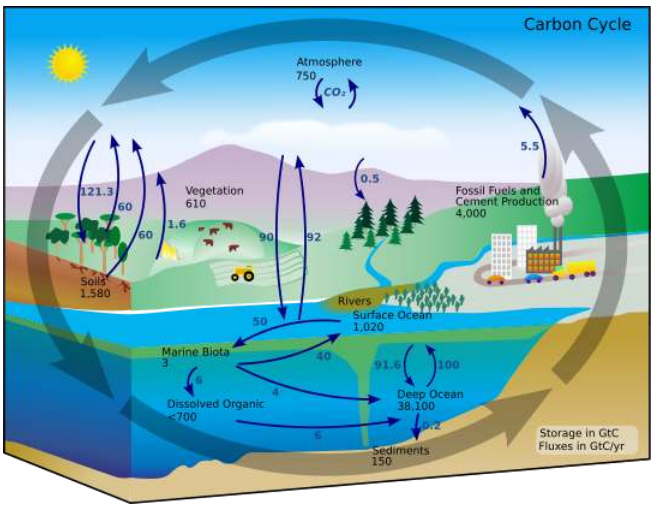


Figure 7.10.12 : The carbon cycle. *Figure from the Wikipedia*

There is no doubt that atmospheric CO_2 levels are increasing, and the major reason for this increase is the combustion of fossil fuels. An extremely conservative statement of the situation today can be found in the 2014 Synthesis Report from the IPCC, a consensus between scientists and policymakers. The report starkly states that

> Cumulative emissions of CO_2 largely determine global mean surface warming by the late 21st century and beyond.

and concludes that

> Continued emission of greenhouse gases will cause further warming and long-lasting changes in all components of the climate system, increasing the likelihood of severe, pervasive and irreversible impacts for people and ecosystems. Limiting climate change would require substantial and sustained reductions in greenhouse gas emissions which, together with adaptation, can limit climate change risks.

The situation is serious, but we can work together to limit and even reverse damage while maintaining our standard of living in the developed world while helping the developing world to a better future. However, the issues are complex and we can only touch on some of the basics here.

Summary

More than 80% of the energy used by modern society (about 3×10^{17} kJ/yr) is from the combustion of fossil fuels. Because of their availability, ease of transport, and facile conversion to convenient fuels, natural gas and petroleum are currently the preferred fuels. Coal is primarily used for electricity generation. The combustion of fossil fuels releases large amounts of CO_2 that upset the balance of the **carbon cycle** and result in a steady increase in atmospheric CO_2 levels. Because CO_2 is a **greenhouse gas**, which absorbs heat before it can be radiated from Earth into space, CO_2 in the atmosphere results in increased surface temperatures (the **greenhouse effect**).

Key Takeaway

- Thermochemical concepts can be used to calculate the efficiency of various forms of fuel, which can then be applied to environmental issues.

Conceptual Problems

1. What is meant by the term *greenhouse gases*? List three greenhouse gases that have been implicated in global warming.
2. Name three factors that determine the rate of planetary CO_2 uptake.
3. The structure of coal is quite different from the structure of gasoline. How do their structural differences affect their enthalpies of combustion? Explain your answer.

Numerical Problems

1. One of the side reactions that occurs during the burning of fossil fuels is

   $4FeS_2(s) + 11O_2(g) \rightarrow 2Fe_2O_3(s) + 8SO_2(g)$

   1. How many kilojoules of energy are released during the combustion of 10 lb of FeS_2?
   2. How many pounds of SO_2 are released into the atmosphere?
   3. Discuss the potential environmental impacts of this combustion reaction.
2. How many kilograms of CO_2 are released during the combustion of 16 gal of gasoline? Assume that gasoline is pure isooctane with a density of 0.6919 g/mL. If this combustion was used to heat 4.5×10^3 L of water from an initial temperature of 11.0°C, what would be the final temperature of the water assuming 42% efficiency in the energy transfer?
3. A 60 W light bulb is burned for 6 hours. If we assume an efficiency of 38% in the conversion of energy from oil to electricity, how much oil must be consumed to supply the electrical energy needed to light the bulb? (1 W = 1 J/s)
4. How many liters of cyclohexane must be burned to release as much energy as burning 10.0 lb of pine logs? The density of cyclohexane is 0.7785 g/mL, and its $\Delta H_{comb} = -46.6$ kJ/g.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

8: The Quantum-Mechanical Model of the Atom

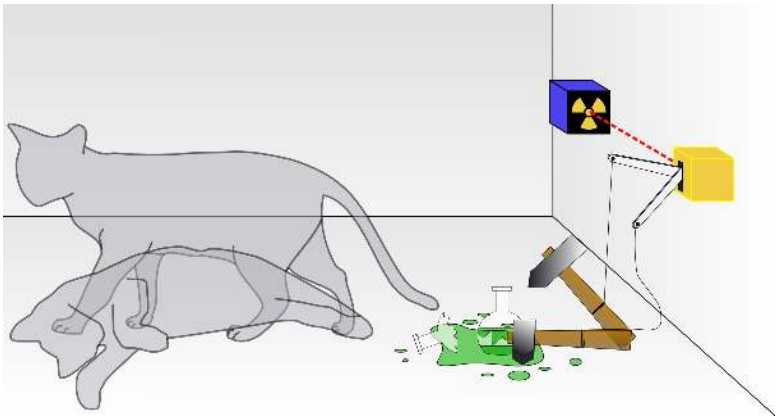
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8.1: Schrödinger's Cat
8.2: The Nature of Light
8.3: Atomic Spectroscopy and The Bohr Model
8.4: The Wavelength Nature of Matter
8.5: Quantum Mechanics and The Atom
8.6: The Shape of Atomic Orbitals
8.7: The Quantum-Mechanical Model of the Atom (Exercises)

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8.1: Schrödinger's Cat

In the early 1930's Erwin Schrödinger published a way of thinking about the circumstance of radioactive decay that is still useful. We imagine an apparatus containing just one Nitrogen-13 atom and a detector that will respond when the atom decays. Connected to the detector is a relay connected to a hammer, and when the atom decays the relay releases the hammer which then falls on a glass vial containing poison gas. We take the entire apparatus and put it in a box. We also place a cat in the box, close the lid, and wait 10 minutes.



Schrödinger's cat: a cat, a flask of poison, and a radioactive source are placed in a sealed box. If an internal monitor detects radioactivity (i.e., a single atom decaying), the flask is shattered, releasing the poison, which kills the cat. The Copenhagen interpretation of quantum mechanics implies that after a while, the cat is simultaneously alive and dead. Yet, when one looks in the box, one sees the cat either alive or dead, not both alive and dead. This poses the question of when exactly quantum superposition ends and reality collapses into one possibility or the other. (CC BY-SA 3.0; Dhatfield).

A diagram of a box which has the superposition of both states. The diagram of both the dead and alive cat are present, along with the intact and broken flask, as well as the released and unreleased hammer attached to the radioactive sensor.

We then ask: Is the cat alive or dead? The answer according to quantum mechanics is that it is 50% dead and 50% alive.

Quantum Mechanics describes the world in terms of a *wave function*. DeWitt wrote about the cat that "at the end of [one half-life] the total wave function for the system will have a form in which the living cat and dead cat are mixed in equal portions." (Reference: B.S. DeWitt and N. Graham, eds., **The Many-Worlds Interpretation of Quantum Mechanics** (Princeton, 1973), pg. 156.) When we open the box, we "collapse the wave function" or "collapse the state" and have either a live cat or a dead cat.

Of course, this is just a thought experiment. So far as I know nobody has actually every done this experiment. In a sense the cat is a "red herring" [sorry!]. The paradox is just an illuminating way of thinking about the consequences of radioactive decay being totally random. Imagine we have a friend waiting outside when we open the box. For us the wave function collapses and we have, say, a live cat. But our friend's wave function does not collapse until he comes into the room. This leads to a strong solipsism, since our friend can they say that we owe our objective existence to his kind intervention in coming into the room and collapsing our state.

As Heisenberg said, then, "The wave function represents partly a fact and partly our knowledge of a fact." Our friend needn't have come into the room to collapse his wave function: if we have a cell phone we can call him and tell him the result of the experiment. Of course, this assumes that we don't lie to him and tell him the cat is dead when it is alive. Unexplained but apparently true is the fact that when a state collapses, it collapses into the same state for everybody. If we see a live cat everybody sees a live cat (unless they or us are hallucinating).

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8.2: The Nature of Light

Skills to Develop

- Explain the basic behavior of waves, including traveling waves and standing waves
- Describe the wave nature of light
- Use appropriate equations to calculate related light-wave properties such as period, frequency, wavelength, and energy



Video* 8.2.1*: *Is light a particle or a wave? This section will explore the answers to this question.*

The nature of light has been a subject of inquiry since antiquity. In the seventeenth century, Isaac Newton performed experiments with lenses and prisms and was able to demonstrate that white light consists of the individual colors of the rainbow combined together. Newton explained his optics findings in terms of a "corpuscular" view of light, in which light was composed of streams of extremely tiny particles travelling at high speeds according to Newton's laws of motion. Others in the seventeenth century, such as Christiaan Huygens, had shown that optical phenomena such as reflection and refraction could be equally well explained in terms of light as waves travelling at high speed through a medium called "luminiferous aether" that was thought to permeate all space. Early in the nineteenth century, Thomas Young demonstrated that light passing through narrow, closely spaced slits produced interference patterns that could not be explained in terms of Newtonian particles but could be easily explained in terms of waves. Later in the nineteenth century, after James Clerk Maxwell developed his theory of electromagnetic radiation and showed that light was the visible part of a vast spectrum of electromagnetic waves, the particle view of light became thoroughly discredited. By the end of the nineteenth century, scientists viewed the physical universe as roughly comprising two separate domains: matter composed of particles moving according to Newton's laws of motion, and electromagnetic radiation consisting of waves governed by Maxwell's equations. Today, these domains are referred to as classical mechanics and classical electrodynamics (or classical electromagnetism). Although there were a few physical phenomena that could not be explained within this framework, scientists at that time were so confident of the overall soundness of this framework that they viewed these aberrations as puzzling paradoxes that would ultimately be resolved somehow within this framework. As we shall see, these paradoxes led to a contemporary framework that intimately connects particles and waves at a fundamental level called wave-particle duality, which has superseded the classical view.

Visible light and other forms of electromagnetic radiation play important roles in chemistry, since they can be used to infer the energies of electrons within atoms and molecules. Much of modern technology is based on electromagnetic radiation. For example, radio waves from a mobile phone, X-rays used by dentists, the energy used to cook food in your microwave, the radiant heat from red-hot objects, and the light from your television screen are forms of electromagnetic radiation that all exhibit wavelike behavior.

Waves



Video* 8.2.2*: *An exploration of light as a wave.*

A wave is an oscillation or periodic movement that can transport energy from one point in space to another. Common examples of waves are all around us. Shaking the end of a rope transfers energy from your hand to the other end of the rope, dropping a pebble into a pond causes waves to ripple outward along the water's surface, and the expansion of air that accompanies a lightning strike generates sound waves (thunder) that can travel outward for several miles. In each of these cases, kinetic energy is transferred through matter (the rope, water, or air) while the matter remains essentially in place. An insightful example of a wave occurs in sports stadiums when fans in a narrow region of seats rise simultaneously and stand with their arms raised up for a few seconds before sitting down again while the fans in neighboring sections likewise stand up and sit down in sequence. While this wave can quickly encircle a large stadium in a few seconds, none of the fans actually travel with the wave-they all stay in or above their seats.

Waves need not be restricted to travel through matter. As Maxwell showed, electromagnetic waves consist of an electric field oscillating in step with a perpendicular magnetic field, both of which are perpendicular to the direction of travel. These waves can travel through a vacuum at a constant speed of 2.998×10^8 m/s, the speed of light (denoted by c).

All waves, including forms of electromagnetic radiation, are characterized by, a wavelength (denoted by λ, the lowercase Greek letter lambda), a frequency (denoted by ν, the lowercase Greek letter nu), and an amplitude. As can be seen in Figure 8.2.1, the wavelength is the distance between two consecutive peaks or troughs in a wave (measured in meters in the SI system). Electromagnetic waves have wavelengths that fall within an enormous range-wavelengths of kilometers (10^3 m) to picometers (10^{-12} m) have been observed. The frequency is the number of wave cycles that pass a specified point in space in a specified amount of time (in the SI system, this is measured in seconds). A cycle corresponds to one complete wavelength. The unit for frequency, expressed as cycles per second [s^{-1}], is the hertz (Hz). Common multiples of this unit are megahertz, (1 MHz = 1×10^6 Hz) and gigahertz (1 GHz = 1×10^9 Hz). The amplitude corresponds to the magnitude of the wave's displacement and so, in Figure, this corresponds to one-half the height between the peaks and troughs. The amplitude is related to the intensity of the wave, which for light is the brightness, and for sound is the loudness.

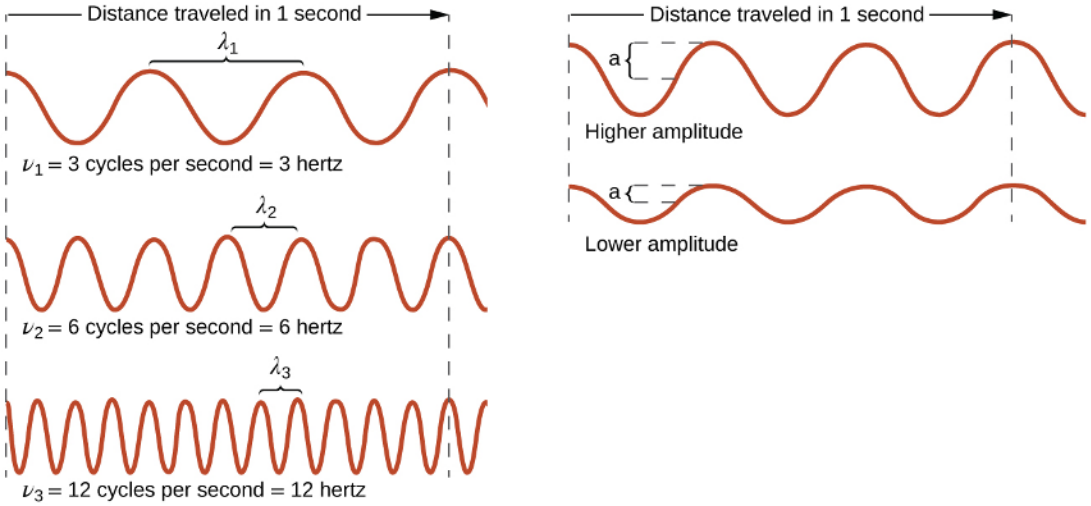


Figure* 8.2.1*: *One-dimensional sinusoidal waves show the relationship among wavelength, frequency, and speed. The wave with the shortest wavelength has the highest frequency. Amplitude is one-half the height of the wave from peak to trough.*

The product of a wave's wavelength (λ) and its frequency (ν), $\lambda\nu$, is the speed of the wave. Thus, for electromagnetic radiation in a vacuum:

$$c = 2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1} = \lambda\nu \tag{8.2.1}$$

Wavelength and frequency are inversely proportional: As the wavelength increases, the frequency decreases. The inverse proportionality is illustrated in Figure 8.2.2. This figure also shows the electromagnetic spectrum, the range of all types of electromagnetic radiation. Each of the various colors of visible light has specific frequencies and wavelengths associated with them, and you can see that visible light makes up only a small portion of the electromagnetic spectrum. Because the technologies developed to work in various parts of the electromagnetic spectrum are different, for reasons of convenience and historical legacies, different units are typically used for different parts of the spectrum. For example, radio waves are usually specified as frequencies (typically in units of MHz), while the visible region is usually specified in wavelengths (typically in units of nm or angstroms).

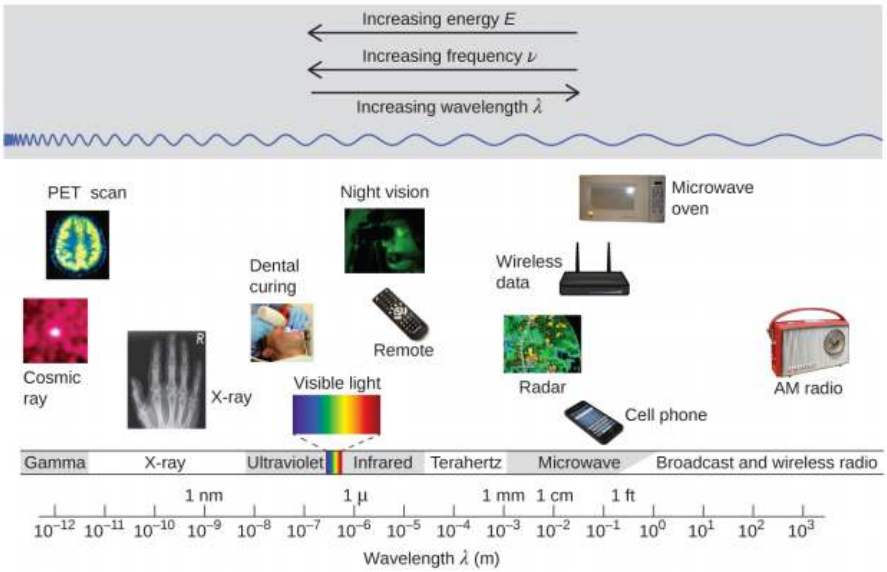


Figure* 8.2.2*: *Portions of the electromagnetic spectrum are shown in order of decreasing frequency and increasing wavelength. Examples of some applications for various wavelengths include positron emission tomography (PET) scans, X-ray imaging, remote controls, wireless Internet, cellular telephones, and radios.*

The TeraHertz Region

Terahertz radiation is a region of the electromagnetic spectrum with frequencies of 0.3 to 3 THz (or 1 mm to 0.1 mm), and was previously defined as microwave radio waves or the far IR. Because of its seat into between microwaves and IR, scientists have begun referring to the region as the "TeraHertz gap" Due to the ability of several atmospheric gases to absorb energy in this region of the spectrum, it is unsuitable for radio communications, but a lot of research into uses of technology in this area of the spectrum have emerged over the last decade. To read more about it, visit here or here.

Example 8.2.1: Determining the Frequency and Wavelength of Radiation

A sodium streetlight gives off yellow light that has a wavelength of 589 nm (1 nm = 1×10^{-9} m). What is the frequency of this light?

Solution

We can rearrange the Equation 8.2.1 to solve for the frequency:

$$\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda} \tag{8.2.2}$$

Since *c* is expressed in meters per second, we must also convert 589 nm to meters.

$$\nu = \left(\frac{2.998 \times 10^{8} \ \text{m}\cancel{\text{s}^{-1}}}{589 \ \cancel{\text{nm}}}\right)\left(\frac{1 \times 10^{9} \ \cancel{\text{nm}}}{1 \ \cancel{\text{m}}}\right) = 5.09 \times 10^{14} \ \text{s}^{-1} \tag{8.2.3}$$

Exercise 8.2.1

One of the frequencies used to transmit and receive cellular telephone signals in the United States is 850 MHz. What is the wavelength in meters of these radio waves?

Answer

0.353 m = 35.3 cm



Video* 8.2.3*: *A summary of light's behavior as a wave.*

Wireless Communication

Many valuable technologies operate in the radio (3 kHz-300 GHz) frequency region of the electromagnetic spectrum. At the low frequency (low energy, long wavelength) end of this region are AM (amplitude modulation) radio signals (540-2830 kHz) that can travel long distances. FM (frequency modulation) radio signals are used at higher frequencies (87.5-108.0 MHz). In AM radio, the information is transmitted by varying the amplitude of the wave (Figure 8.2.5). In FM radio, by contrast, the amplitude is constant and the instantaneous frequency varies.



Figure 8.2.3: *Radio and cell towers are typically used to transmit long-wavelength electromagnetic radiation. Increasingly, cell towers are designed to blend in with the landscape, as with the Tucson, Arizona, cell tower (right) disguised as a palm tree. (credit left: modification of work by Sir Mildred Pierce; credit middle: modification of work by M.O. Stevens)*

Other technologies also operate in the radio-wave portion of the electromagnetic spectrum. For example, 4G cellular telephone signals are approximately 880 MHz, while Global Positioning System (GPS) signals operate at 1.228 and 1.575 GHz, local area wireless technology (Wi-Fi) networks operate at 2.4 to 5 GHz, and highway toll sensors operate at 5.8 GHz. The frequencies associated with these applications are convenient because such waves tend not to be absorbed much by common building materials.

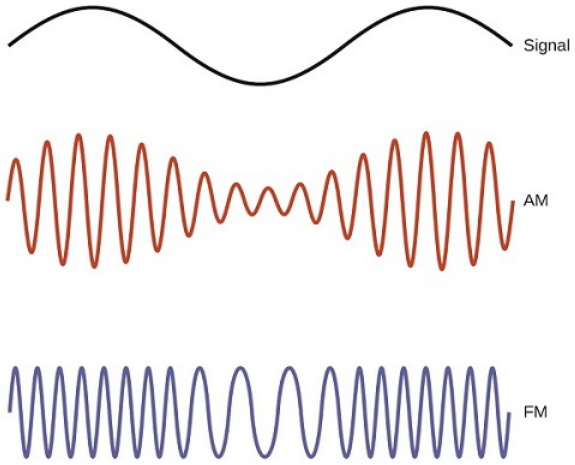


Figure 8.2.4: *This schematic depicts how amplitude modulation (AM) and frequency modulation (FM) can be used to transmit a radio wave.*

One particularly characteristic phenomenon of waves results when two or more waves come into contact: They interfere with each other. Figure 8.2.5 shows the interference patterns that arise when light passes through narrow slits closely spaced about a wavelength apart. The fringe patterns produced depend on the wavelength, with the fringes being more closely spaced for shorter wavelength light passing through a given set of slits. When the light passes through the two slits, each slit effectively acts as a new source, resulting in two closely spaced waves coming into contact at the detector (the camera in this case). The dark regions in Figure 8.2.5 correspond to regions where the peaks for the wave from one slit happen to coincide with the troughs for the wave from the other slit (destructive interference), while the brightest regions correspond to the regions where the peaks for the two waves (or their two troughs) happen to coincide (constructive interference). Likewise, when two stones are tossed close together into a pond, interference patterns are visible in the interactions between the waves produced by the stones. Such interference patterns cannot be explained by particles moving according to the laws of classical mechanics.

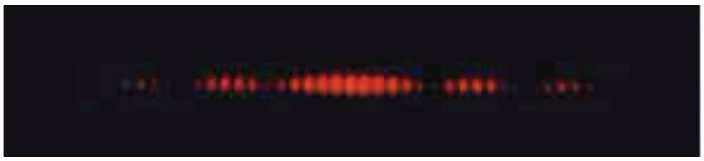


Figure 8.2.5: *Interference fringe patterns are shown for light passing through two closely spaced, narrow slits. The spacing of the fringes depends on the wavelength, with the fringes being more closely spaced for the shorter-wavelength blue light. (credit: PASCO)*

Dorothy Hodgkin

Because the wavelengths of X-rays (10-10,000 picometers [pm]) are comparable to the size of atoms, X-rays can be used to determine the structure of molecules. When a beam of X-rays is passed through molecules packed together in a crystal, the X-rays collide with the electrons and scatter. Constructive and destructive interference of these scattered X-rays creates a specific diffraction pattern. Calculating backward from this pattern, the positions of each of the atoms in the molecule can be determined very precisely. One of the pioneers who helped create this technology was Dorothy Crowfoot Hodgkin.

She was born in Cairo, Egypt, in 1910, where her British parents were studying archeology. Even as a young girl, she was fascinated with minerals and crystals. When she was a student at Oxford University, she began researching how X-ray crystallography could be used to determine the structure of biomolecules. She invented new techniques that allowed her and her students to determine the structures of vitamin B_{12}, penicillin, and many other important molecules. Diabetes, a disease that affects 382 million people worldwide, involves the hormone insulin. Hodgkin began studying the structure of insulin in 1934, but it required several decades of advances in the field before she finally reported the structure in 1969. Understanding the structure has led to better understanding of the disease and treatment options.

Not all waves are travelling waves. Standing waves (also known as stationary waves) remain constrained within some region of space. As we shall see, standing waves play an important role in our understanding of the electronic structure of atoms and molecules. The simplest example of a standing wave is a one-dimensional wave associated with a vibrating string that is held fixed at its two end points. Figure 8.2.6 shows the four lowest-energy standing waves (the fundamental wave and the lowest three harmonics) for a vibrating string at a particular amplitude. Although the string's motion lies mostly within a plane, the wave itself is considered to be one dimensional, since it lies along the length of the string. The motion of string segments in a direction perpendicular to the string length generates the waves and so the amplitude of the waves is visible as the maximum displacement of the curves seen in Figure 8.2.6. The key observation from the figure is that only those waves having an integer number, n, of half-wavelengths between the end points can form. A system with fixed end points such as this restricts the number and type of the possible waveforms. This is an example of quantization, in which only discrete values from a more general set of continuous values of some property are observed. Another important observation is that the harmonic waves (those waves displaying more than one-half wavelength) all have one or more points between the two endpoints that are not in motion. These special points are nodes. The energies of the standing waves with a given amplitude in a vibrating string increase with the number of half-wavelengths *n*. Since the number of nodes is $n - 1$, the energy can also be said to depend on the number of nodes, generally increasing as the number of nodes increases.

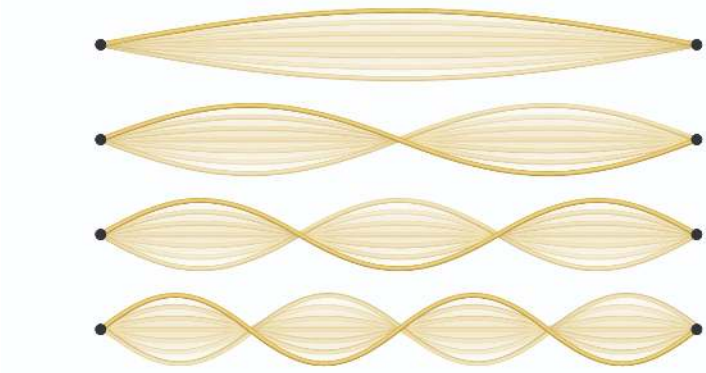


Figure 8.2.6: A vibrating string shows some one-dimensional standing waves. Since the two end points of the string are held fixed, only waves having an integer number of half-wavelengths can form. The points on the string between the end points that are

not moving are called the nodes.

An example of two-dimensional standing waves is shown in Figure 8.2.7 which shows the vibrational patterns on a flat surface. Although the vibrational amplitudes cannot be seen like they could in the vibrating string, the nodes have been made visible by sprinkling the drum surface with a powder that collects on the areas of the surface that have minimal displacement. For one-dimensional standing waves, the nodes were points on the line, but for two-dimensional standing waves, the nodes are lines on the surface (for three-dimensional standing waves, the nodes are two-dimensional surfaces within the three-dimensional volume). Because of the circular symmetry of the drum surface, its boundary conditions (the drum surface being tightly constrained to the circumference of the drum) result in two types of nodes: radial nodes that sweep out all angles at constant radii and, thus, are seen as circles about the center, and angular nodes that sweep out all radii at constant angles and, thus, are seen as lines passing through the center. The upper left image in Figure 8.2.7 shows two radial nodes, while the image in the lower right shows the vibrational pattern associated with three radial nodes and two angular nodes.

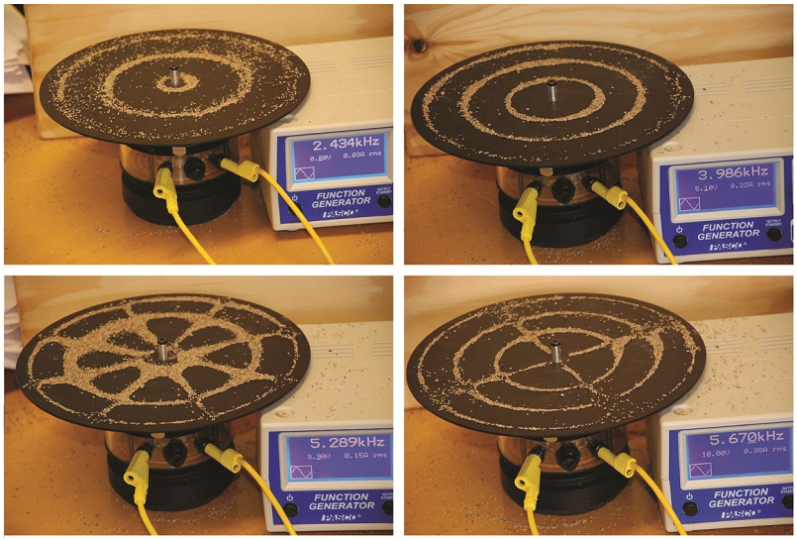


***Figure* 8.2.7:** *Two-dimensional standing waves can be visualized on a vibrating surface. The surface has been sprinkled with a powder that collects near the nodal lines. There are two types of nodes visible: radial nodes (circles) and angular nodes (radii).*
For a more animated video, check this link out.

Radial Nodes & Imogen Heap

You can watch the formation of various radial nodes below as singer Imogen Heap projects her voice across a kettle drum.



***Video* 8.2.4:** *Singer Imogen Heap projects her voice across a kettle drum.*

The Photoelectric Effect

The next paradox in the classical theory to be resolved is concerned the photoelectric effect (Figure 8.2.10). It had been observed that electrons could be ejected from the clean surface of a metal when light having a frequency greater than some threshold frequency was shone on it. Surprisingly, the kinetic energy of the ejected electrons did not depend on the brightness of the light, but increased with increasing frequency of the light. Since the electrons in the metal had a certain amount of binding energy keeping them there, the incident light needed to have more energy to free the electrons. According to classical wave theory, a wave's energy depends on its intensity (which depends on its amplitude), not its frequency. One part of these observations was that the number of electrons ejected within in a given time period was seen to increase as the brightness increased. In 1905, Albert Einstein was able to resolve the paradox by incorporating Planck's quantization findings into the discredited particle view of light (Einstein actually won his Nobel prize for this work, and not for his theories of relativity for which he is most famous).

Einstein argued that the quantized energies that Planck had postulated in his treatment of blackbody radiation could be applied to the light in the photoelectric effect so that the light striking the metal surface should not be viewed as a wave, but instead as a stream of particles (later called photons) whose energy depended on their frequency, according to Planck's formula, $E = h\nu$ (or, in terms of wavelength using $c = \nu\lambda$, $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$). Electrons were ejected when hit by photons having sufficient energy (a frequency greater than the threshold). The greater the frequency, the greater the kinetic energy imparted to the escaping electrons by the collisions. Einstein also argued that the light intensity did not depend on the amplitude of the incoming wave, but instead corresponded to the number of photons striking the surface within a given time period. This explains why the number of ejected electrons increased with increasing brightness, since the greater the number of incoming photons, the greater the likelihood that they would collide with some of the electrons.

With Einstein's findings, the nature of light took on a new air of mystery. Although many light phenomena could be explained either in terms of waves or particles, certain phenomena, such as the interference patterns obtained when light passed through a double slit, were completely contrary to a particle view of light, while other phenomena, such as the photoelectric effect, were completely contrary to a wave view of light. Somehow, at a deep fundamental level still not fully understood, light is both wavelike and particle-like. This is known as wave-particle duality.

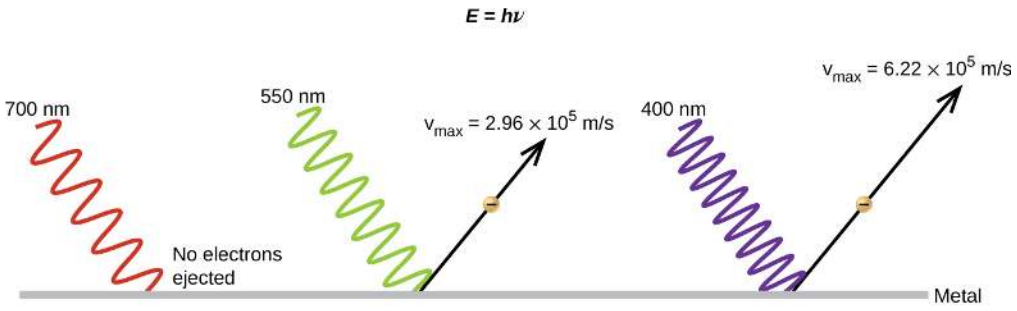


Figure* 8.2.10*: *Photons with low frequencies do not have enough energy to cause electrons to be ejected via the photoelectric effect. For any frequency of light above the threshold frequency, the kinetic energy of an ejected electron will increase linearly with the energy of the incoming photon.*

Example 8.2.2: Calculating the Energy of Radiation

When we see light from a neon sign, we are observing radiation from excited neon atoms. If this radiation has a wavelength of 640 nm, what is the energy of the photon being emitted?

Solution

We use the part of Planck's equation that includes the wavelength, λ, and convert units of nanometers to meters so that the units of λ and c are the same.

$$E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

$$E = \frac{(6.626 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J}\ \cancel{\text{s}})(2.998 \times 10^{8}\ \text{m}\ \cancel{\text{s}}^{-1})}{(640\ \cancel{\text{nm}}) \left(\frac{1\ \text{m}}{10^{9}\ \cancel{\text{nm}}} \right)}$$

$$E = 3.10 \times 10^{-19}\ \text{J}$$

Exercise 8.2.2

The microwaves in an oven are of a specific frequency that will heat the water molecules contained in food. (This is why most plastics and glass do not become hot in a microwave oven-they do not contain water molecules.) This frequency is about 3×10^9 Hz. What is the energy of one photon in these microwaves?

Answer

2×10^{-24} J

Example 8.2.3: Photoelectric Effect

Identify which of the following statements are false and, where necessary, change the italicized word or phrase to make them true, consistent with Einstein's explanation of the photoelectric effect.

a. Increasing the brightness of incoming light *increases* the kinetic energy of the ejected electrons.
b. Increasing the *wavelength* of incoming light increases the kinetic energy of the ejected electrons.
c. Increasing the brightness of incoming light *increases* the number of ejected electrons.
d. Increasing the *frequency* of incoming light can increase the number of ejected electrons.

Solution

a. False. Increasing the brightness of incoming light *has no effect* on the kinetic energy of the ejected electrons. Only energy, not the number or amplitude, of the photons influences the kinetic energy of the electrons.
b. False. Increasing the *frequency* of incoming light increases the kinetic energy of the ejected electrons. Frequency is proportional to energy and inversely proportional to wavelength. Frequencies above the threshold value transfer the excess energy into the kinetic energy of the electrons.
c. True. Because the number of collisions with photons increases with brighter light, the number of ejected electrons increases.
d. True with regard to the threshold energy binding the electrons to the metal. Below this threshold, electrons are not emitted, and above it they are. Once over the threshold value, further increasing the frequency does not increase the number of ejected electrons.

Exercise 8.2.3

Calculate the threshold energy in kJ/mol of electrons in aluminum, given that the lowest frequency photon for which the photoelectric effect is observed is $9.87 \times 10^{14}\ Hz$.

Answer

$3.94\ kJ/mol$



Video* 8.2.6*: *An overview of the photoelectric effect.*

Summary



Video* 8.2.7*: *An overview of the wave nature of light.*

Light and other forms of electromagnetic radiation move through a vacuum with a constant speed, c, of 2.998×10^8 m s^{-1}. This radiation shows wavelike behavior, which can be characterized by a frequency, ν, and a wavelength, λ, such that $c = \lambda\nu$. Light is an example of a travelling wave. Other important wave phenomena include standing waves, periodic oscillations, and vibrations. Standing waves exhibit quantization, since their wavelengths are limited to discrete integer multiples of some characteristic lengths. Electromagnetic radiation that passes through two closely spaced narrow slits having dimensions roughly similar to the wavelength will show an interference pattern that is a result of constructive and destructive interference of the waves. Electromagnetic radiation also demonstrates properties of particles called photons. The energy of a photon is related to the frequency (or alternatively, the wavelength) of the radiation as $E = h\nu$ (or $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$), where h is Planck's constant. That light demonstrates both wavelike and particle-like behavior is known as wave-particle duality. All forms of electromagnetic radiation share these properties, although various forms including X-rays, visible light, microwaves, and radio waves interact differently with matter and have very different practical applications. Electromagnetic radiation can be generated by exciting matter to higher energies, such as by heating it. The emitted light can be either continuous (incandescent sources like the sun) or discrete (from specific types of excited atoms). Continuous spectra often have distributions that can be approximated as blackbody radiation at some appropriate temperature. The line spectrum of hydrogen can be obtained by passing the light from an electrified tube of hydrogen gas through a prism. This line spectrum was simple enough that an empirical formula called the Rydberg formula could be derived from the spectrum. Three historically important paradoxes from the late 19th and early 20th centuries that could not be explained within the existing framework of classical mechanics and classical electromagnetism were the blackbody problem, the photoelectric effect, and the discrete spectra of atoms. The resolution of these paradoxes ultimately led to quantum theories that superseded classical theories.

Key Equations

- $c = \lambda\nu$
- $E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$, where $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34}$ J s

Glossary

amplitude
extent of the displacement caused by a wave (for sinusoidal waves, it is one-half the difference from the peak height to the trough depth, and the intensity is proportional to the square of the amplitude)

blackbody
idealized perfect absorber of all incident electromagnetic radiation; such bodies emit electromagnetic radiation in characteristic continuous spectra called blackbody radiation

continuous spectrum
electromagnetic radiation given off in an unbroken series of wavelengths (e.g., white light from the sun)

electromagnetic radiation
energy transmitted by waves that have an electric-field component and a magnetic-field component

electromagnetic spectrum
range of energies that electromagnetic radiation can comprise, including radio, microwaves, infrared, visible, ultraviolet, X-rays, and gamma rays; since electromagnetic radiation energy is proportional to the frequency and inversely proportional to the wavelength, the spectrum can also be specified by ranges of frequencies or wavelengths

frequency (ν)
number of wave cycles (peaks or troughs) that pass a specified point in space per unit time

hertz (Hz)
the unit of frequency, which is the number of cycles per second, s^{-1}

intensity
property of wave-propagated energy related to the amplitude of the wave, such as brightness of light or loudness of sound

interference pattern
pattern typically consisting of alternating bright and dark fringes; it results from constructive and destructive interference of waves

node
any point of a standing wave with zero amplitude

photon
smallest possible packet of electromagnetic radiation, a particle of light

quantization
occurring only in specific discrete values, not continuous

standing wave
(also, stationary wave) localized wave phenomenon characterized by discrete wavelengths determined by the boundary conditions used to generate the waves; standing waves are inherently quantized

wave
oscillation that can transport energy from one point to another in space

wavelength (λ)

distance between two consecutive peaks or troughs in a wave

wave-particle duality

term used to describe the fact that elementary particles including matter exhibit properties of both particles (including localized position, momentum) and waves (including nonlocalization, wavelength, frequency)

Contributors

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Credit: Figure 8.2.2: *Portions of the electromagnetic spectrum are shown in order of decreasing frequency and increasing wavelength. (credit "Cosmic ray": modification of work by NASA; credit "PET scan": modification of work by the National Institute of Health; credit "X-ray": modification of work by Dr. Jochen Lengerke; credit "Dental curing": modification of work by the Department of the Navy; credit "Night vision": modification of work by the Department of the Army; credit "Remote": modification of work by Emilian Robert Vicol; credit "Cell phone": modification of work by Brett Jordan; credit "Microwave oven": modification of work by Billy Mabray; credit "Ultrasound": modification of work by Jane Whitney; credit "AM radio": modification of work by Dave Clausen)*

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8.3: Atomic Spectroscopy and The Bohr Model

Learning Objectives

- To know the relationship between atomic spectra and the electronic structure of atoms.

The concept of the photon emerged from experimentation with *thermal radiation*, electromagnetic radiation emitted as the result of a source's temperature, which produces a continuous spectrum of energies.The photoelectric effect provided indisputable evidence for the existence of the photon and thus the particle-like behavior of electromagnetic radiation. However, more direct evidence was needed to verify the quantized nature of energy in all matter. In this section, we describe how observation of the interaction of atoms with visible light provided this evidence.

Line Spectra

Although objects at high temperature emit a continuous spectrum of electromagnetic radiation, a different kind of spectrum is observed when pure samples of individual elements are heated. For example, when a high-voltage electrical discharge is passed through a sample of hydrogen gas at low pressure, the resulting individual isolated hydrogen atoms caused by the dissociation of H_2 emit a red light. Unlike blackbody radiation, the color of the light emitted by the hydrogen atoms does not depend greatly on the temperature of the gas in the tube. When the emitted light is passed through a prism, only a few narrow lines of particular wavelengths, called a **line spectrum**, are observed rather than a continuous range of wavelengths (Figure 8.3.1). The light emitted by hydrogen atoms is red because, of its four characteristic lines, the most intense line in its spectrum is in the red portion of the visible spectrum, at 656 nm. With sodium, however, we observe a yellow color because the most intense lines in its spectrum are in the yellow portion of the spectrum, at about 589 nm.

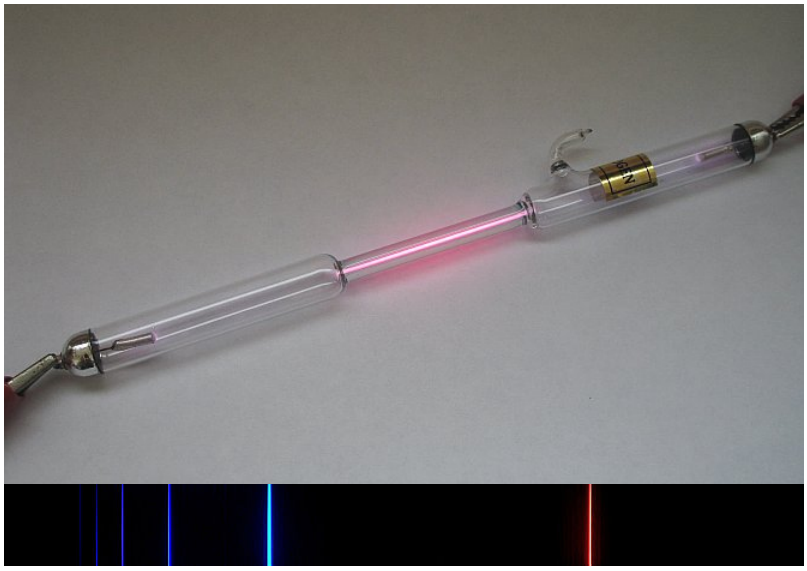


Figure 8.3.1: The Emission of Light by Hydrogen Atoms. (a) A sample of excited hydrogen atoms emits a characteristic red light. (CC BY-SA 3.0 Unported; Science Made Alive via Wikipedia) (b) When the light emitted by a sample of excited hydrogen atoms is split into its component wavelengths by a prism, four characteristic violet, blue, green, and red emission lines can be observed, the most intense of which is at 656 nm. (CC BY-SA 3.0; Jan Homann via Wikipedia)

Such *emission spectra* were observed for many other elements in the late 19th century, which presented a major challenge because classical physics was unable to explain them. Part of the explanation is provided by Planck's equation: the observation of only a few values of λ (or u) in the line spectrum meant that only a few values of E were possible. Thus *the energy levels of a hydrogen atom had to be quantized*; in other words, only states that had certain values of energy were possible, or *allowed*. If a hydrogen atom could have *any* value of energy, then a continuous spectrum would have been observed, similar to blackbody radiation.

In 1885, a Swiss mathematics teacher, Johann Balmer (1825–1898), showed that the frequencies of the lines observed in the visible region of the spectrum of hydrogen fit a simple equation that can be expressed as follows:

$$u = constant \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{n^2}\right) \tag{8.3.1}$$

where n = 3, 4, 5, 6. As a result, these lines are known as the *Balmer series*. The Swedish physicist Johannes Rydberg (1854–1919) subsequently restated and expanded Balmer's result in the *Rydberg equation*:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \Re \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right) \tag{8.3.2}$$

where n_1 and n_2 are positive integers, $n_2 > n_1$, and $\Re$ the *Rydberg constant*, has a value of 1.09737 × 10^7 m^{-1}.

Johann Balmer (1825–1898)

A mathematics teacher at a secondary school for girls in Switzerland, Balmer was 60 years old when he wrote the paper on the spectral lines of hydrogen that made him famous.



Balmer published only one other paper on the topic, which appeared when he was 72 years old.

Like Balmer's equation, Rydberg's simple equation described the wavelengths of the visible lines in the emission spectrum of hydrogen (with n_1 = 2, n_2 = 3, 4, 5,…). More important, Rydberg's equation also predicted the wavelengths of other series of lines that would be observed in the emission spectrum of hydrogen: one in the ultraviolet (n_1 = 1, n_2 = 2, 3, 4,…) and one in the infrared (n_1 = 3, n_2 = 4, 5, 6). Unfortunately, scientists had not yet developed any theoretical justification for an equation of this form.

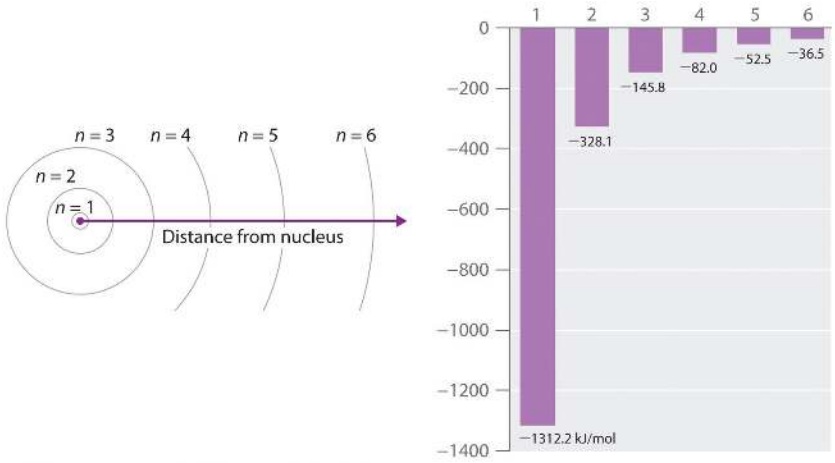
Bohr's Model

In 1913, a Danish physicist, Niels Bohr (1885–1962; Nobel Prize in Physics, 1922), proposed a theoretical model for the hydrogen atom that explained its emission spectrum. Bohr's model required only one assumption: *The electron moves around the nucleus in circular orbits that can have only certain allowed radii*. Rutherford's earlier model of the atom had also assumed that electrons moved in circular orbits around the nucleus and that the atom was held together by the electrostatic attraction between the positively charged nucleus and the negatively charged electron. Although we now know that the assumption of circular orbits was incorrect, Bohr's insight was to propose that *the electron could occupy only certain regions of space*.

Using classical physics, Niels Bohr showed that the energy of an electron in a particular orbit is given by

$$E_n = \frac{-\Re hc}{n^2} \tag{8.3.3}$$

where $\Re$ is the Rydberg constant, h is Planck's constant, c is the speed of light, and n is a positive integer corresponding to the number assigned to the orbit, with n = 1 corresponding to the orbit closest to the nucleus. In this model $n = \infty$ corresponds to the level where the energy holding the electron and the nucleus together is zero. In that level, the electron is unbound from the nucleus and the atom has been separated into a negatively charged (the electron) and a positively charged (the nucleus) ion. In this state the radius of the orbit is also infinite. The atom has been ionized.



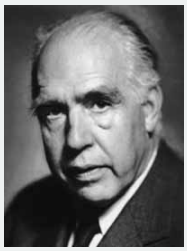
(a) Hydrogen orbits (Bohr model). Orbits are not drawn to scale.

(b) Hydrogen orbit energy (kJ/mol) vs. *n*

Figure 8.3.2: The Bohr Model of the Hydrogen Atom (a) The distance of the orbit from the nucleus increases with increasing *n*. (b) The energy of the orbit becomes increasingly less negative with increasing *n*.

Niels Bohr (1885–1962)

During the Nazi occupation of Denmark in World War II, Bohr escaped to the United States, where he became associated with the Atomic Energy Project.



In his final years, he devoted himself to the peaceful application of atomic physics and to resolving political problems arising from the development of atomic weapons.

As n decreases, the energy holding the electron and the nucleus together becomes increasingly negative, the radius of the orbit shrinks and more energy is needed to ionize the atom. The orbit with n = 1 is the lowest lying and most tightly bound. The negative sign in Equation 8.3.3 indicates that the electron-nucleus pair is more tightly bound (i.e. at a lower potential energy) when they are near each other than when they are far apart. Because a hydrogen atom with its one electron in this orbit has the lowest possible energy, this is the **ground state** (the most stable arrangement of electrons for an element or a compound) for a hydrogen atom. As n increases, the radius of the orbit increases; the electron is farther from the proton, which results in a less stable arrangement with higher potential energy (Figure 8.3.2*a*). A hydrogen atom with an electron in an orbit with n > 1 is therefore in an **excited state**, defined as any arrangement of electrons that is higher in energy than the ground state. When an atom in an excited state undergoes a transition to the ground state in a process called decay, it loses energy by emitting a photon whose energy corresponds to the *difference* in energy between the two states (Figure 8.3.1).

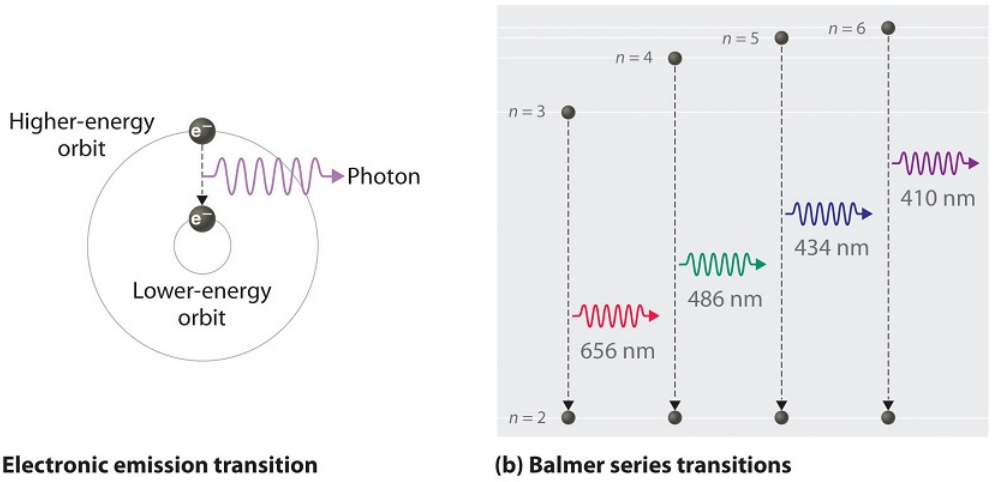


Figure 8.3.3: The Emission of Light by a Hydrogen Atom in an Excited State. (a) Light is emitted when the electron undergoes a transition from an orbit with a higher value of *n* (at a higher energy) to an orbit with a lower value of *n* (at lower energy). (b) The Balmer series of emission lines is due to transitions from orbits with $n \geq 3$ to the orbit with $n = 2$. The differences in energy between these levels corresponds to light in the visible portion of the electromagnetic spectrum.

So the difference in energy (ΔE) between any two orbits or energy levels is given by $\Delta E = E_{n_1} - E_{n_2}$ where n_1 is the final orbit and n_2 the initial orbit. Substituting from Bohr's equation (Equation 8.3.3) for each energy value gives

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta E &= E_{final} - E_{initial} \\ &= -\frac{\Re hc}{n_2^2} - \left(-\frac{\Re hc}{n_1^2}\right) \\ &= -\Re hc\left(\frac{1}{n_2^2} - \frac{1}{n_1^2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

If $n_2 > n_1$, the transition is from a higher energy state (larger-radius orbit) to a lower energy state (smaller-radius orbit), as shown by the dashed arrow in part (a) in Figure 8.3.3. Substituting hc/λ for ΔE gives

$$\Delta E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = -\Re hc\left(\frac{1}{n_2^2} - \frac{1}{n_1^2}\right) \tag{8.3.4}$$

Canceling hc on both sides gives

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = -\Re\left(\frac{1}{n_2^2} - \frac{1}{n_1^2}\right) \tag{8.3.5}$$

Except for the negative sign, this is the same equation that Rydberg obtained experimentally. The negative sign in Equations 8.3.4 and 8.3.5 indicates that energy is released as the electron moves from orbit n_2 to orbit n_1 because orbit n_2 is at a higher energy than orbit n_1. Bohr calculated the value of $\Re$ from fundamental constants such as the charge and mass of the electron and Planck's constant and obtained a value of 1.0974×10^7 m^{-1}, the same number Rydberg had obtained by analyzing the emission spectra.

We can now understand the physical basis for the Balmer series of lines in the emission spectrum of hydrogen (8.3.3*b*); the lines in this series correspond to transitions from higher-energy orbits (n > 2) to the second orbit (n = 2). Thus the hydrogen atoms in the sample have absorbed energy from the electrical discharge and decayed from a higher-energy excited state (n > 2) to a lower-energy state (n = 2) by emitting a photon of electromagnetic radiation whose energy corresponds exactly to the difference in energy between the two states (Figure 8.3.3*a*). The n = 3 to n = 2 transition gives rise to the line at 656 nm (red), the n = 4 to n = 2 transition to the line at 486 nm (green), the n = 5 to n = 2 transition to the line at 434 nm (blue), and the n = 6 to n = 2 transition to the line at 410 nm (violet). Because a sample of hydrogen contains a large number of atoms, the intensity of the various lines in a line spectrum depends on the number of atoms in each excited state. At the temperature in the gas discharge tube, more atoms are in the n = 3 than the n ≥ 4 levels. Consequently, the n = 3 to n = 2 transition is the most intense line, producing the characteristic

red color of a hydrogen discharge (Figure 8.3.1*a*). Other families of lines are produced by transitions from excited states with n > 1 to the orbit with n = 1 or to orbits with n ≥ 3. These transitions are shown schematically in Figure 8.3.4



The Bohr Atom: The Bohr Atom, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

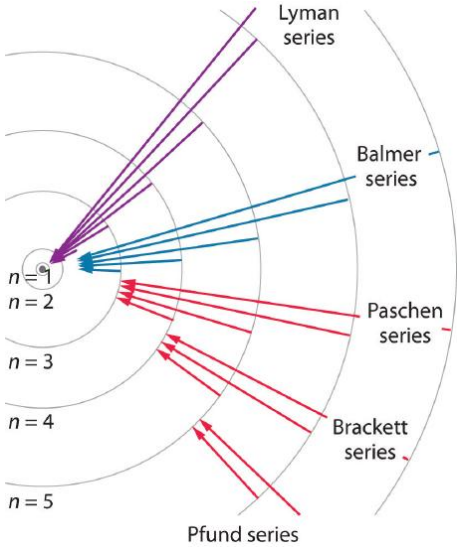


Figure 8.3.4: Electron Transitions Responsible for the Various Series of Lines Observed in the Emission Spectrum of Hydrogen. The Lyman series of lines is due to transitions from higher-energy orbits to the lowest-energy orbit (n = 1); these transitions release a great deal of energy, corresponding to radiation in the ultraviolet portion of the electromagnetic spectrum. The Paschen, Brackett, and Pfund series of lines are due to transitions from higher-energy orbits to orbits with n = 3, 4, and 5, respectively; these transitions release substantially less energy, corresponding to infrared radiation. (Orbits are not drawn to scale.)

Using Atoms to Time

In contemporary applications, electron transitions are used in timekeeping that needs to be exact. Telecommunications systems, such as cell phones, depend on timing signals that are accurate to within a millionth of a second per day, as are the devices that control the US power grid. Global positioning system (GPS) signals must be accurate to within a billionth of a second per day, which is equivalent to gaining or losing no more than one second in 1,400,000 years. Quantifying time requires finding an event with an interval that repeats on a regular basis.

To achieve the accuracy required for modern purposes, physicists have turned to the atom. The current standard used to calibrate clocks is the cesium atom. Supercooled cesium atoms are placed in a vacuum chamber and bombarded with microwaves whose frequencies are carefully controlled. When the frequency is exactly right, the atoms absorb enough energy to undergo an electronic transition to a higher-energy state. Decay to a lower-energy state emits radiation. The microwave frequency is continually adjusted, serving as the clock's pendulum.

In 1967, the second was defined as the duration of 9,192,631,770 oscillations of the resonant frequency of a cesium atom, called the *cesium clock*. Research is currently under way to develop the next generation of atomic clocks that promise to be even more accurate. Such devices would allow scientists to monitor vanishingly faint electromagnetic signals produced by nerve pathways in the brain and geologists to measure variations in gravitational fields, which cause fluctuations in time, that would aid in the discovery of oil or minerals.

Example 8.3.1: The Lyman Series

The so-called Lyman series of lines in the emission spectrum of hydrogen corresponds to transitions from various excited states to the n = 1 orbit. Calculate the wavelength of the lowest-energy line in the Lyman series to three significant figures. In what region of the electromagnetic spectrum does it occur?

Given: lowest-energy orbit in the Lyman series

Asked for: wavelength of the lowest-energy Lyman line and corresponding region of the spectrum

Strategy:

A. Substitute the appropriate values into Equation 8.3.2 (the Rydberg equation) and solve for λ.

B. Use Figure 2.2.1 to locate the region of the electromagnetic spectrum corresponding to the calculated wavelength.

Solution:

We can use the Rydberg equation to calculate the wavelength:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = -\Re\left(\frac{1}{n_2^2} - \frac{1}{n_1^2}\right)$$

A For the Lyman series, n_1 = 1. The lowest-energy line is due to a transition from the n = 2 to n = 1 orbit because they are the closest in energy.

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = -\Re\left(\frac{1}{n_2^2} - \frac{1}{n_1^2}\right) = 1.097 \times m^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4}\right) = 8.228 \times 10^6\ m^{-1}$$

It turns out that spectroscopists (the people who study spectroscopy) use cm^{-1} rather than m^{-1} as a common unit. Wavelength is inversely proportional to energy but frequency is directly proportional as shown by Planck's formula, $E = hu$.

Spectroscopists often talk about energy and frequency as equivalent. The cm^{-1} unit is particularly convenient. The infrared range is roughly 200 - 5,000 cm^{-1}, the visible from 11,000 to 25.000 cm^{-1} and the UV between 25,000 and 100,000 cm^{-1}. The units of cm^{-1} are called wavenumbers, although people often verbalize it as inverse centimeters. We can convert the answer in part A to cm^{-1}.

$$\tilde{u} = \frac{1}{\lambda} = 8.228 \times 10^6\ \cancel{m^{-1}}\left(\frac{\cancel{m}}{100\ cm}\right) = 82,280\ cm^{-1}$$

and

$$\lambda = 1.215 \times 10^{-7}\ m = 122\ nm$$

This emission line is called Lyman alpha. It is the strongest atomic emission line from the sun and drives the chemistry of the upper atmosphere of all the planets, producing ions by stripping electrons from atoms and molecules. It is completely absorbed by oxygen in the upper stratosphere, dissociating O_2 molecules to O atoms which react with other O_2 molecules to form stratospheric ozone.

B This wavelength is in the ultraviolet region of the spectrum.

Exercise 8.3.1: The Pfund Series

The Pfund series of lines in the emission spectrum of hydrogen corresponds to transitions from higher excited states to the n = 5 orbit. Calculate the wavelength of the *second* line in the Pfund series to three significant figures. In which region of the spectrum does it lie?

Answer

4.65×10^3 nm; infrared

Bohr's model of the hydrogen atom gave an exact explanation for its observed emission spectrum. The following are his key contributions to our understanding of atomic structure:

Unfortunately, Bohr could not explain *why* the electron should be restricted to particular orbits. Also, despite a great deal of tinkering, such as assuming that orbits could be ellipses rather than circles, his model could not quantitatively explain the emission spectra of any element other than hydrogen (Figure 8.3.5). In fact, Bohr's model worked only for species that contained just one electron: H, He^+, Li^{2+}, and so forth. Scientists needed a fundamental change in their way of thinking about the electronic structure of atoms to advance beyond the Bohr model.

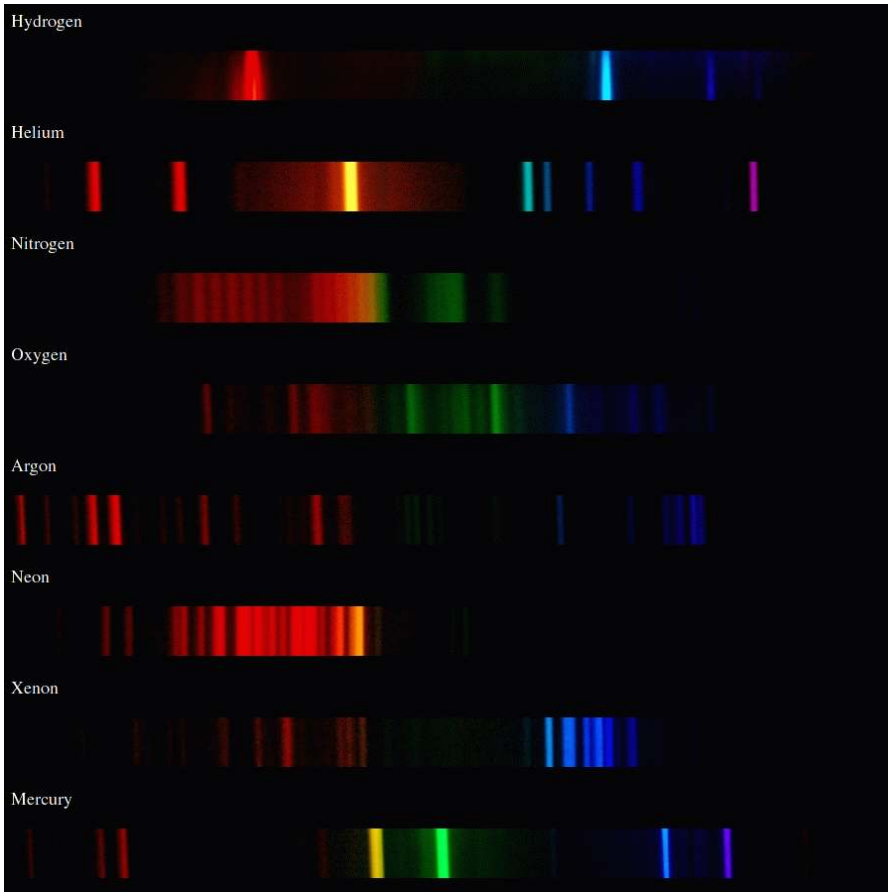


Figure 8.3.5: The atomic emission spectra for various elements. Each thin band in each spectrum corresponds to a single, unique transition between energy levels in an atom. Astronomical spectra image(opens in new window) from the Rochester Institute of Technology, CC BY-NC-SA 2.0(opens in new window).

The Energy States of the Hydrogen Atom

Thus far we have explicitly considered only the emission of light by atoms in excited states, which produces an emission spectrum (a spectrum produced by the emission of light by atoms in excited states). The converse, absorption of light by ground-state atoms to produce an excited state, can also occur, producing an absorption spectrum (a spectrum produced by the absorption of light by ground-state atoms).

> When an atom emits light, it decays to a lower energy state; when an atom absorbs light, it is excited to a higher energy state.

If white light is passed through a sample of hydrogen, hydrogen atoms absorb energy as an electron is excited to higher energy levels (orbits with $n \geq 2$). If the light that emerges is passed through a prism, it forms a continuous spectrum with *black* lines (corresponding to no light passing through the sample) at 656, 468, 434, and 410 nm. These wavelengths correspond to the $n = 2$ to

n = 3, n = 2 to n = 4, n = 2 to n = 5, and n = 2 to n = 6 transitions. Any given element therefore has both a characteristic emission spectrum and a characteristic absorption spectrum, which are essentially complementary images.

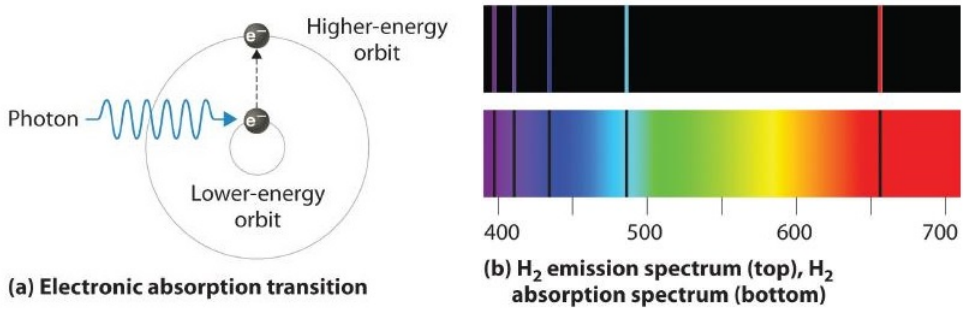


Figure 8.3.6: Absorption and Emission Spectra. Absorption of light by a hydrogen atom. (a) When a hydrogen atom absorbs a photon of light, an electron is excited to an orbit that has a higher energy and larger value of n. (b) Images of the emission and absorption spectra of hydrogen are shown here. (CC BY-NC-SA 3.0; anonymous)

Emission and absorption spectra form the basis of *spectroscopy*, which uses spectra to provide information about the structure and the composition of a substance or an object. In particular, astronomers use emission and absorption spectra to determine the composition of stars and interstellar matter. As an example, consider the spectrum of sunlight shown in Figure 8.3.7 Because the sun is very hot, the light it emits is in the form of a continuous emission spectrum. Superimposed on it, however, is a series of dark lines due primarily to the absorption of specific frequencies of light by cooler atoms in the outer atmosphere of the sun. By comparing these lines with the spectra of elements measured on Earth, we now know that the sun contains large amounts of hydrogen, iron, and carbon, along with smaller amounts of other elements. During the solar eclipse of 1868, the French astronomer Pierre Janssen (1824–1907) observed a set of lines that did not match those of any known element. He suggested that they were due to the presence of a new element, which he named *helium*, from the Greek *helios*, meaning “sun.” Helium was finally discovered in uranium ores on Earth in 1895. Alpha particles are helium nuclei. Alpha particles emitted by the radioactive uranium pick up electrons from the rocks to form helium atoms.

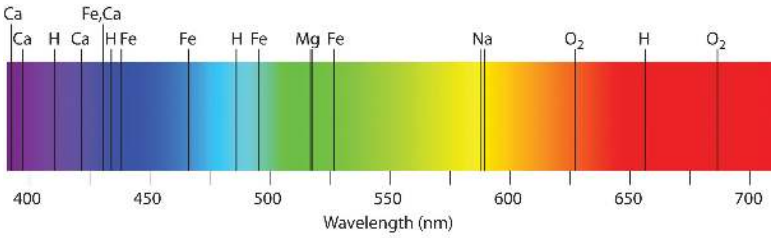


Figure 8.3.7: The Visible Spectrum of Sunlight. The characteristic dark lines are mostly due to the absorption of light by elements that are present in the cooler outer part of the sun’s atmosphere; specific elements are indicated by the labels. The lines at 628 and 687 nm, however, are due to the absorption of light by oxygen molecules in Earth’s atmosphere. (CC BY-NC-SA 3.0; anonymous)

The familiar red color of neon signs used in advertising is due to the emission spectrum of neon shown in part (b) in Figure 8.3.5. Similarly, the blue and yellow colors of certain street lights are caused, respectively, by mercury and sodium discharges. In all these cases, an electrical discharge excites neutral atoms to a higher energy state, and light is emitted when the atoms decay to the ground state. In the case of mercury, most of the emission lines are below 450 nm, which produces a blue light (part (c) in Figure 8.3.5). In the case of sodium, the most intense emission lines are at 589 nm, which produces an intense yellow light.

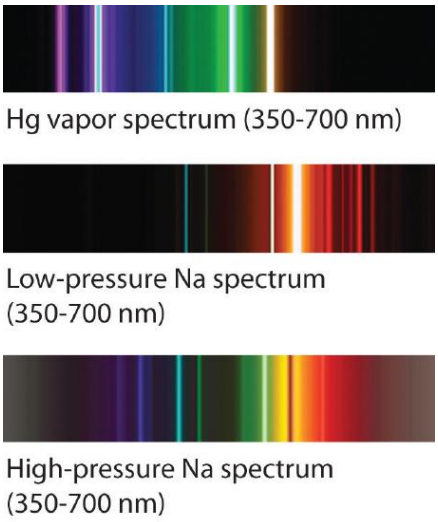


Figure 8.3.8: The emission spectra of sodium and mercury. Sodium and mercury spectra. Many street lights use bulbs that contain sodium or mercury vapor. Due to the very different emission spectra of these elements, they emit light of different colors. The lines in the sodium lamp are broadened by collisions. The dark line in the center of the high pressure sodium lamp where the low pressure lamp is strongest is cause by absorption of light in the cooler outer part of the lamp.

Summary

There is an intimate connection between the atomic structure of an atom and its spectral characteristics. Atoms of individual elements emit light at only specific wavelengths, producing a **line spectrum** rather than the continuous spectrum of all wavelengths produced by a hot object. Niels Bohr explained the line spectrum of the hydrogen atom by assuming that the electron moved in circular orbits and that orbits with only certain radii were allowed. Lines in the spectrum were due to transitions in which an electron moved from a higher-energy orbit with a larger radius to a lower-energy orbit with smaller radius. The orbit closest to the nucleus represented the **ground state** of the atom and was most stable; orbits farther away were higher-energy **excited states**. Transitions from an excited state to a lower-energy state resulted in the emission of light with only a limited number of wavelengths. Atoms can also absorb light of certain energies, resulting in a transition from the ground state or a lower-energy excited state to a higher-energy excited state. This produces an **absorption spectrum**, which has dark lines in the same position as the bright lines in the **emission spectrum** of an element. Bohr's model revolutionized the understanding of the atom but could not explain the spectra of atoms heavier than hydrogen.

Key Concepts

- Electrons can occupy only certain regions of space, called *orbits*.
- Orbits closer to the nucleus are lower in energy.
- Electrons can move from one orbit to another by absorbing or emitting energy, giving rise to characteristic spectra.

Contributors and Attributions

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8.4: The Wavelength Nature of Matter

Learning Objectives

- To understand the wave–particle duality of matter.

Einstein's photons of light were individual packets of energy having many of the characteristics of particles. Recall that the collision of an electron (a particle) with a sufficiently energetic photon can eject a *photoelectron* from the surface of a metal. Any excess energy is transferred to the electron and is converted to the kinetic energy of the ejected electron. Einstein's hypothesis that energy is concentrated in localized bundles, however, was in sharp contrast to the classical notion that energy is spread out uniformly in a wave. We now describe Einstein's theory of the relationship between energy and mass, a theory that others built on to develop our current model of the atom.

The Wave Character of Matter

Einstein initially assumed that photons had zero mass, which made them a peculiar sort of particle indeed. In 1905, however, he published his special theory of relativity, which related energy and mass according to the famous equation:

$$E = hu = h\frac{c}{\lambda} = mc^2 \tag{8.4.1}$$

According to this theory, a photon of wavelength λ and frequency u has a nonzero mass, which is given as follows:

$$m = \frac{E}{c^2} = \frac{hu}{c^2} = \frac{h}{\lambda c} \tag{8.4.2}$$

That is, light, which had always been regarded as a wave, also has properties typical of particles, a condition known as wave–particle duality (a principle that matter and energy have properties typical of both waves and particles). Depending on conditions, light could be viewed as either a wave or a particle.

In 1922, the American physicist Arthur Compton (1892–1962) reported the results of experiments involving the collision of x-rays and electrons that supported the particle nature of light. At about the same time, a young French physics student, Louis de Broglie (1892–1972), began to wonder whether the converse was true: Could particles exhibit the properties of waves? In his PhD dissertation submitted to the Sorbonne in 1924, de Broglie proposed that a particle such as an electron could be described by a wave whose wavelength is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \tag{8.4.3}$$

where

- h is Planck's constant,
- m is the mass of the particle, and
- v is the velocity of the particle.

This revolutionary idea was quickly confirmed by American physicists Clinton Davisson (1881–1958) and Lester Germer (1896–1971), who showed that beams of electrons, regarded as particles, were diffracted by a sodium chloride crystal in the same manner as x-rays, which were regarded as waves. It was proven experimentally that electrons do exhibit the properties of waves. For his work, de Broglie received the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1929.

If particles exhibit the properties of waves, why had no one observed them before? The answer lies in the numerator of de Broglie's equation, which is an extremely small number. As you will calculate in Example 8.4.1, Planck's constant (6.63×10^{-34} J•s) is so small that the wavelength of a particle with a large mass is too short (less than the diameter of an atomic nucleus) to be noticeable.



The de Broglie Equation: The de Broglie Equation, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Example 8.4.1: Wavelength of a Baseball in Motion

Calculate the wavelength of a baseball, which has a mass of 149 g and a speed of 100 mi/h.

Given: mass and speed of object

Asked for: wavelength

Strategy:

A. Convert the speed of the baseball to the appropriate SI units: meters per second.

B. Substitute values into Equation 8.4.3 and solve for the wavelength.

Solution:

The wavelength of a particle is given by $\lambda = h/mv$. We know that m = 0.149 kg, so all we need to find is the speed of the baseball:

$$v = \left(\frac{100\ \cancel{mi}}{\cancel{h}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{h}}{60\ \cancel{min}}\right)\left(\frac{1.609\ \cancel{km}}{\cancel{mi}}\right)\left(\frac{1000\ m}{\cancel{km}}\right)$$

B Recall that the joule is a derived unit, whose units are (kg•m^2)/s^2. Thus the wavelength of the baseball is

$$\lambda = \frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34}\ J \cdot s}{(0.149\ kg)\,(44.69\ m \cdot s)} = \frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34}\ \cancel{kg} \cdot m^{\cancel{2}} \cdot \cancel{s}^{\cancel{-2}} \cdot \cancel{s}}{\left(0.149\ \cancel{kg}\right)\left(44.69\ \cancel{m} \cdot \cancel{s^{-1}}\right)} = 9.95 \times 10^{-35}\ m$$

(You should verify that the units cancel to give the wavelength in meters.) Given that the diameter of the nucleus of an atom is approximately 10^{-14} m, the wavelength of the baseball is almost unimaginably small.

Exercise 8.4.1: Wavelength of a Neutron in Motion

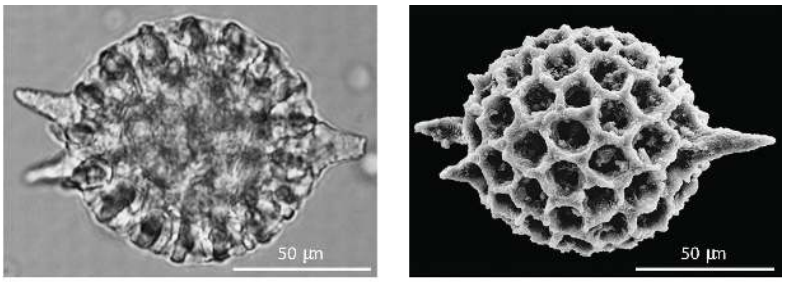
Calculate the wavelength of a neutron that is moving at 3.00 × 10^3 m/s.

Answer

1.32 Å, or 132 pm

As you calculated in Example 8.4.1, objects such as a baseball or a neutron have such short wavelengths that they are best regarded primarily as particles. In contrast, objects with very small masses (such as photons) have large wavelengths and can be viewed primarily as waves. Objects with intermediate masses, however, such as electrons, exhibit the properties of both particles *and* waves. Although we still usually think of electrons as particles, the wave nature of electrons is employed in an *electron microscope*, which has revealed most of what we know about the microscopic structure of living organisms and materials. Because the

wavelength of an electron beam is much shorter than the wavelength of a beam of visible light, this instrument can resolve smaller details than a light microscope can (Figure 8.4.1).



(a) Radiolarian under light microscope (b) Radiolarian under electron microscope

Figure 8.4.1: A Comparison of Images Obtained Using a Light Microscope and an Electron Microscope. Because of their shorter wavelength, high-energy electrons have a higher resolving power than visible light. Consequently, an electron microscope (b) is able to resolve finer details than a light microscope (a). (Radiolaria, which are shown here, are unicellular planktonic organisms.)

An Important Wave Property: Phase And Interference

A wave is a disturbance that travels in space. The magnitude of the wave at any point in space and time varies sinusoidally. While the absolute value of the magnitude of one wave at any point is not very important, the *relative* displacement of two waves, called the phase difference, is vitally important because it determines whether the waves reinforce or interfere with each other. Figure $8.4.2A$ shows an arbitrary phase difference between two wave and Figure $8.4.2B$ shows what happens when the two waves are 180 degrees out of phase. The green line is their sum. Figure $8.4.2C$ shows what happens when the two lines are in phase, exactly superimposed on each other. Again, the green line is the sum of the intensities. A pattern of constructive and destructive interference is obtained when two (or more) diffracting waves interact with each other. This principle of diffraction and interference was used to prove the wave properties of electrons and is the basis for how electron microscopes work.

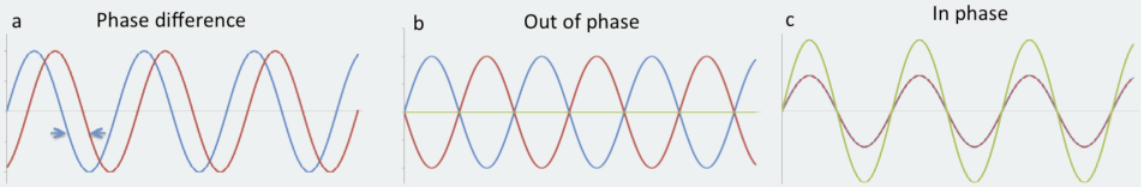
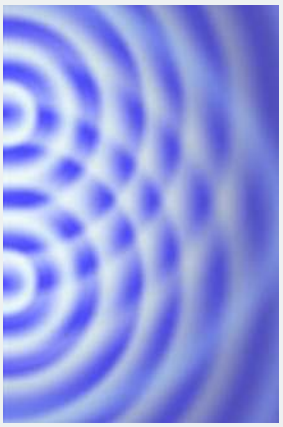


Figure 8.4.2: Phase. Two waves traveling together are displaced by a phase difference. If the phase difference is 0° then they lay on top of each other and reinforce. If the phase difference is 180° they completely cancel each other out.

A shows two waves with a phase difference where the peaks are slightly misaligned. B shows two waves out of phase, the two waves are opposite of each other. C shows two waves in phase, the two waves peak at the same time.



The waves are the white circles that start from the left side. The waves intersect at multiple points.

Photograph of an interference pattern produced by circular water waves in a ripple tank.

For a mathematical analysis of phase aspects in sinusoids, check the math Libretexts library.

Standing Waves

De Broglie also investigated why only certain orbits were allowed in Bohr's model of the hydrogen atom. He hypothesized that the electron behaves like a **standing wave** (a wave that does not travel in space). An example of a standing wave is the motion of a string of a violin or guitar. When the string is plucked, it vibrates at certain fixed frequencies because it is fastened at both ends (Figure 8.4.3). If the length of the string is L, then the lowest-energy vibration (the fundamental) has wavelength

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\lambda}{2} &= L \\ \lambda &= 2L \end{aligned} \tag{8.4.4}$$

Higher-energy vibrations are called *overtones* (the vibration of a standing wave that is higher in energy than the fundamental vibration) and are produced when the string is plucked more strongly; they have wavelengths given by

$$\lambda = \frac{2L}{n} \tag{8.4.5}$$

where n has any integral value. When plucked, all other frequencies die out immediately. Only the resonant frequencies survive and are heard. Thus, we can think of the resonant frequencies of the string as being quantized. Notice in Figure 8.4.3 that all overtones have one or more nodes, points where the string does not move. The amplitude of the wave at a node is zero.

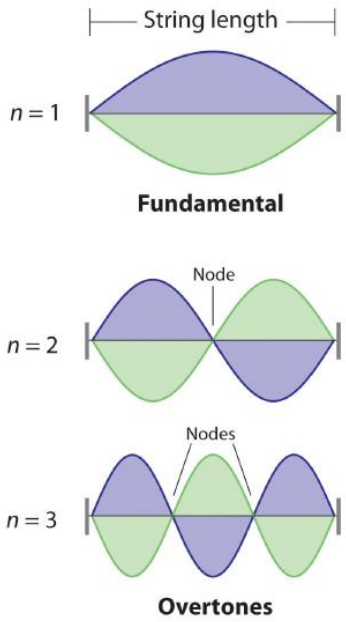


Figure 8.4.3: Standing Waves on a Vibrating String. The vibration with \(n = 1\) is the fundamental and contains no nodes. Vibrations with higher values of n are called overtones; they contain \(n − 1\) nodes.

Quantized vibrations and overtones containing nodes are not restricted to one-dimensional systems, such as strings. A two-dimensional surface, such as a drumhead, also has quantized vibrations. Similarly, when the ends of a string are joined to form a circle, the only allowed vibrations are those with wavelength

$$2\pi r = n\lambda \tag{8.4.6}$$

where r is the radius of the circle. De Broglie argued that Bohr's allowed orbits could be understood if the electron behaved like a *standing circular wave* (Figure 8.4.4). The standing wave could exist only if the circumference of the circle was an integral multiple of the wavelength such that the propagated waves were all in phase, thereby increasing the net amplitudes and causing *constructive interference*. Otherwise, the propagated waves would be out of phase, resulting in a net decrease in amplitude and causing *destructive interference*. The nonresonant waves interfere with themselves! De Broglie's idea explained Bohr's allowed orbits and energy levels nicely: in the lowest energy level, corresponding to $n = 1$ in Equation 8.4.6, one complete wavelength would close the circle. Higher energy levels would have successively higher values of n with a corresponding number of nodes.

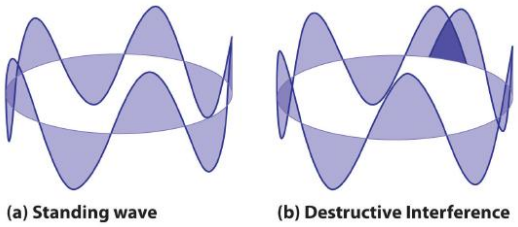


Figure 8.4.4: Standing Circular Wave and Destructive Interference. (a) In a standing circular wave with \(*n* = 5\), the circumference of the circle corresponds to exactly five wavelengths, which results in constructive interference of the wave with itself when overlapping occurs. (b) If the circumference of the circle is not equal to an integral multiple of wavelengths, then the wave does not overlap exactly with itself, and the resulting destructive interference will result in cancellation of the wave. Consequently, a standing wave cannot exist under these conditions.

Like all analogies, although the standing wave model helps us understand much about why Bohr's theory worked, it also, if pushed too far, can mislead. As you will see, some of de Broglie's ideas are retained in the modern theory of the electronic structure of the atom: the wave behavior of the electron and the presence of nodes that increase in number as the energy level increases. Unfortunately, his (and Bohr's) explanation also contains one major feature that we now know to be incorrect: in the currently accepted model, the electron in a given orbit is *not* always at the same distance from the nucleus.

The Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

Because a wave is a disturbance that travels in space, it has no fixed position. One might therefore expect that it would also be hard to specify the exact position of a *particle* that exhibits wavelike behavior. A characteristic of light is that is can be bent or spread out by passing through a narrow slit. You can literally see this by half closing your eyes and looking through your eye lashes. This reduces the brightness of what you are seeing and somewhat fuzzes out the image, but the light bends around your lashes to provide a complete image rather than a bunch of bars across the image. This is called diffraction.

This behavior of waves is captured in Maxwell's equations (1870 or so) for electromagnetic waves and was and is well understood. An "uncertainty principle" for light is, if you will, merely a conclusion about the nature of electromagnetic waves and nothing new. De Broglie's idea of wave-particle duality means that particles such as electrons which exhibit wavelike characteristics will also undergo diffraction from slits whose size is on the order of the electron wavelength.

This situation was described mathematically by the German physicist Werner Heisenberg (1901–1976; Nobel Prize in Physics, 1932), who related the position of a particle to its momentum. Referring to the electron, Heisenberg stated that "at every moment the electron has only an inaccurate position and an inaccurate velocity, and between these two inaccuracies there is this uncertainty relation." Mathematically, the **Heisenberg uncertainty principle** states that the uncertainty in the position of a particle (Δx) multiplied by the uncertainty in its momentum [$\Delta(mv)$] is greater than or equal to Planck's constant divided by 4π:

$$(\Delta x)\,(\Delta\,[mv]) \geq \frac{h}{4\pi} \tag{8.4.7}$$

Because Planck's constant is a very small number, the Heisenberg uncertainty principle is important only for particles such as electrons that have very low masses. These are the same particles predicted by de Broglie's equation to have measurable wavelengths.

If the precise position x of a particle is known absolutely ($\Delta x = 0$), then the uncertainty in its momentum must be infinite:

$$(\Delta\,[mv]) = \frac{h}{4\pi\,(\Delta x)} = \frac{h}{4\pi\,(0)} = \infty \tag{8.4.8}$$

Because the mass of the electron at rest (m) is both constant and accurately known, the uncertainty in $\Delta(mv)$ must be due to the Δv term, which would have to be infinitely large for $\Delta(mv)$ to equal infinity. That is, according to Equation 8.4.8, the more accurately we know the exact position of the electron (as $\Delta x \to 0$), the less accurately we know the speed and the kinetic energy of the electron (1/2 mv^2) because $\Delta(mv) \to \infty$. Conversely, the more accurately we know the precise momentum (and the energy) of the electron [as $\Delta(mv) \to 0$], then $\Delta x \to \infty$ and we have no idea where the electron is.

Bohr's model of the hydrogen atom violated the Heisenberg uncertainty principle by trying to specify *simultaneously* both the position (an orbit of a particular radius) and the energy (a quantity related to the momentum) of the electron. Moreover, given its mass and wavelike nature, the electron in the hydrogen atom could not possibly orbit the nucleus in a well-defined circular path as

predicted by Bohr. You will see, however, that the *most probable radius* of the electron in the hydrogen atom is exactly the one predicted by Bohr's model.

Example 8.4.1: Quantum Nature of Baseballs

Calculate the minimum uncertainty in the position of the pitched baseball from Example 8.4.1 that has a mass of exactly 149 g and a speed of 100 ± 1 mi/h.

Given: mass and speed of object

Asked for: minimum uncertainty in its position

Strategy:

A. Rearrange the inequality that describes the Heisenberg uncertainty principle (Equation 8.4.7) to solve for the minimum uncertainty in the position of an object (Δ*x*).
B. Find Δ*v* by converting the velocity of the baseball to the appropriate SI units: meters per second.
C. Substitute the appropriate values into the expression for the inequality and solve for Δ*x*.

Solution:

A The Heisenberg uncertainty principle (Equation 8.4.7) tells us that

$$(\Delta x)(\Delta(mv)) = h/4\pi$$

. Rearranging the inequality gives

$$\Delta x \geq \left(\frac{h}{4\pi}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\Delta(mv)}\right)$$

B We know that $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34}$ J•s and $m = 0.149$ kg. Because there is no uncertainty in the mass of the baseball, $\Delta(mv) = m\Delta v$ and $\Delta v = \pm 1$ mi/h. We have

$$\Delta u = \left(\frac{1\ \cancel{mi}}{\cancel{h}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{h}}{60\ \cancel{min}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{min}}{60\ s}\right)\left(\frac{1.609\ \cancel{km}}{\cancel{mi}}\right)\left(\frac{1000\ m}{\cancel{km}}\right) = 0.4469\ m/s$$

C Therefore,

$$\Delta x \geq \left(\frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34}\ J \cdot s}{4\,(3.1416)}\right)\left(\frac{1}{(0.149\ kg)\,(0.4469\ m \cdot s^{-1})}\right)$$

Inserting the definition of a joule (1 J = 1 kg•m^2/s^2) gives

$$\Delta x \geq \left(\frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34}\ \cancel{kg} \cdot m^{\cancel{2}} \cdot s}{4\,(3.1416)\left(\cancel{s^2}\right)}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{s}}{\left(0.149\ \cancel{kg}\right)(0.4469\ \cancel{m})}\right)$$

$$\Delta x \geq 7.92 \pm \times 10^{-34}\ m$$

This is equal to 3.12×10^{-32} inches. We can safely say that if a batter misjudges the speed of a fastball by 1 mi/h (about 1%), he will not be able to blame Heisenberg's uncertainty principle for striking out.

Exercise 8.4.2

Calculate the minimum uncertainty in the position of an electron traveling at one-third the speed of light, if the uncertainty in its speed is ±0.1%. Assume its mass to be equal to its mass at rest.

Answer

6×10^{-10} m, or 0.6 nm (about the diameter of a benzene molecule)

Videos and Examples

- de Broglie Waves - Sixty Symbols - a bit of history and explanation (as well as wave particle duality can be explained)
- Calculating the wavelength of a proton - Josh Samson
- Calculating the wavelength of a small car - Prof. Heath
- What is the Uncertainty Principle? - Minute Physics
- AP Chem Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle - Mind Bite
- deBroglie Example - about education
- Heisenberg uncertainty principle quiz worked out - C Craig
- Quantum Chemistry - Ohio State
- Quantum Chemistry Quizzes - mhe education
- AP Chemistry Chapter 7 Review - Science Geek

Answers for these quizzes are included.

Summary

An electron possesses both particle and wave properties. The modern model for the electronic structure of the atom is based on recognizing that an electron possesses particle and wave properties, the so-called **wave–particle duality**. Louis de Broglie showed that the wavelength of a particle is equal to Planck's constant divided by the mass times the velocity of the particle.

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$$

The electron in Bohr's circular orbits could thus be described as a **standing wave**, one that does not move through space. Standing waves are familiar from music: the lowest-energy standing wave is the **fundamental** vibration, and higher-energy vibrations are **overtones** and have successively more **nodes**, points where the amplitude of the wave is always zero. Werner Heisenberg's **uncertainty principle** states that it is impossible to precisely describe both the location and the speed of particles that exhibit wavelike behavior.

$$(\Delta x)\,(\Delta\,[mv]) \geqslant \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

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8.5: Quantum Mechanics and The Atom

Learning Objectives

- To apply the results of quantum mechanics to chemistry.



Video* 8.5.8*: *Looking toward the Quantum Mechanics*

The paradox described by Heisenberg's uncertainty principle and the wavelike nature of subatomic particles such as the electron made it impossible to use the equations of classical physics to describe the motion of electrons in atoms. Scientists needed a new approach that took the wave behavior of the electron into account. In 1926, an Austrian physicist, Erwin Schrödinger (1887–1961; Nobel Prize in Physics, 1933), developed *wave mechanics*, a mathematical technique that describes the relationship between the motion of a particle that exhibits wavelike properties (such as an electron) and its allowed energies.

Erwin Schrödinger (1887–1961)

Schrödinger's unconventional approach to atomic theory was typical of his unconventional approach to life. He was notorious for his intense dislike of memorizing data and learning from books. When Hitler came to power in Germany, Schrödinger escaped to Italy. He then worked at Princeton University in the United States but eventually moved to the Institute for Advanced Studies in Dublin, Ireland, where he remained until his retirement in 1955.

Although quantum mechanics uses sophisticated mathematics, you do not need to understand the mathematical details to follow our discussion of its general conclusions. We focus on the properties of the *wavefunctions* that are the solutions of Schrödinger's equations.

Wavefunctions

A wavefunction (Ψ) is a mathematical function that relates the location of an electron at a given point in space (identified by x, y, and z coordinates) to the amplitude of its wave, which corresponds to its energy. Thus each wavefunction is associated with a particular energy E. The properties of wavefunctions derived from quantum mechanics are summarized here:

- **A wavefunction uses three variables to describe the position of an electron.** A fourth variable is usually required to fully describe the location of objects in motion. Three specify the position in space (as with the Cartesian coordinates x, y, and z), and one specifies the time at which the object is at the specified location. For example, if you were the captain of a ship trying to intercept an enemy submarine, you would need to know its latitude, longitude, and depth, as well as the time at which it was going to be at this position (Figure 8.5.1). For electrons, we can ignore the time dependence because we will be using standing waves, which by definition do not change with time, to describe the position of an electron.

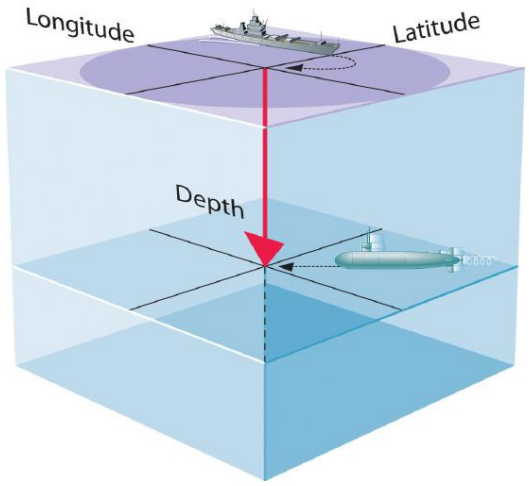


Figure 8.5.1: The Four Variables (Latitude, Longitude, Depth, and Time) required to precisely locate an object

- **The magnitude of the wavefunction at a particular point in space is proportional to the amplitude of the wave at that point.** Many wavefunctions are complex functions, which is a mathematical term indicating that they contain $\sqrt{-1}$, represented as i. Hence the amplitude of the wave has no real physical significance. In contrast, the sign of the wavefunction (either positive or negative) corresponds to the phase of the wave, which will be important in our discussion of chemical bonding. The sign of the wavefunction should *not* be confused with a positive or negative electrical charge.
- **The square of the wavefunction at a given point is proportional to the probability of finding an electron at that point, which leads to a distribution of probabilities in space.** The square of the wavefunction (Ψ^2) is always a real quantity [recall that that $\sqrt{-1}^2 = -1$] and is proportional to the probability of finding an electron at a given point. More accurately, the probability is given by the product of the wavefunction Ψ and its complex conjugate Ψ*, in which all terms that contain *i* are replaced by $-i$. We use probabilities because, according to Heisenberg's uncertainty principle, we cannot precisely specify the position of an electron. The probability of finding an electron at any point in space depends on several factors, including the distance from the nucleus and, in many cases, the atomic equivalent of latitude and longitude. As one way of graphically representing the probability distribution, the probability of finding an electron is indicated by the density of colored dots, as shown for the ground state of the hydrogen atom in Figure 8.5.2.
- **Describing the electron distribution as a standing wave leads to sets of *quantum numbers* that are characteristic of each wavefunction.** From the patterns of one- and two-dimensional standing waves shown previously, you might expect (correctly) that the patterns of three-dimensional standing waves would be complex. Fortunately, however, in the 18th century, a French mathematician, Adrien Legendre (1752–1783), developed a set of equations to describe the motion of tidal waves on the surface of a flooded planet. Schrödinger incorporated Legendre's equations into his wavefunctions. The requirement that the waves must be in phase with one another to avoid cancellation and produce a standing wave results in a limited number of solutions (wavefunctions), each of which is specified by a set of numbers called quantum numbers.
- **Each wavefunction is associated with a particular energy.** As in Bohr's model, the energy of an electron in an atom is quantized; it can have only certain allowed values. The major difference between Bohr's model and Schrödinger's approach is that Bohr had to impose the idea of quantization arbitrarily, whereas in Schrödinger's approach, quantization is a natural consequence of describing an electron as a standing wave.

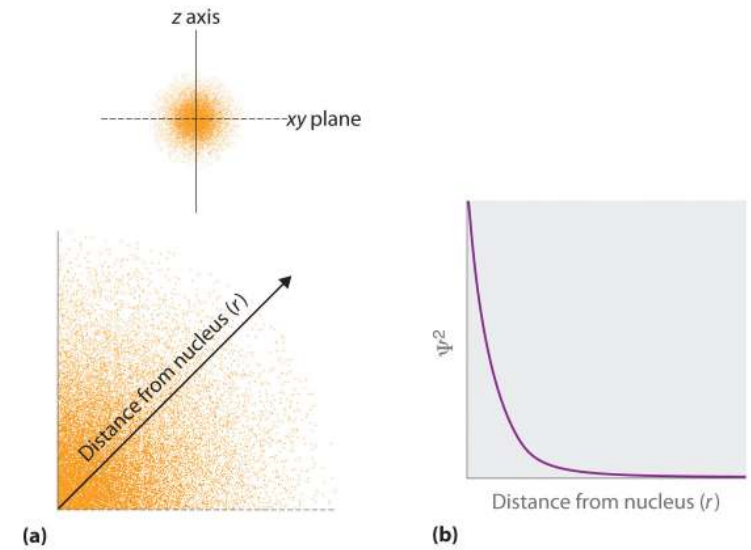


Figure 8.5.2: Probability of Finding the Electron in the Ground State of the Hydrogen Atom at Different Points in Space. (a) The density of the dots shows electron probability. (b) In this plot of Ψ^2 versus r for the ground state of the hydrogen atom, the electron probability density is greatest at $r = 0$ (the nucleus) and falls off with increasing r. Because the line never actually reaches the horizontal axis, the probability of finding the electron at very large values of r is very small but *not* zero.

Quantum Numbers

Schrödinger's approach uses three quantum numbers (n, l, and m_l) to specify any wavefunction. The quantum numbers provide information about the spatial distribution of an electron. Although n can be any positive integer, only certain values of l and m_l are allowed for a given value of n.

The Principal Quantum Number

The **principal quantum number** (n) tells the average relative distance of an electron from the nucleus:

$$n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \ldots \tag{8.5.1}$$

As n increases for a given atom, so does the average distance of an electron from the nucleus. A negatively charged electron that is, on average, closer to the positively charged nucleus is attracted to the nucleus more strongly than an electron that is farther out in space. This means that electrons with higher values of n are easier to remove from an atom. All wavefunctions that have the same value of n are said to constitute a principal shell because those electrons have similar average distances from the nucleus. As you will see, the principal quantum number n corresponds to the n used by Bohr to describe electron orbits and by Rydberg to describe atomic energy levels.

The Azimuthal Quantum Number

The second quantum number is often called the **azimuthal quantum number (l)**. The value of l describes the *shape* of the region of space occupied by the electron. The allowed values of l depend on the value of n and can range from 0 to $n - 1$:

$$l = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, n - 1 \tag{8.5.2}$$

For example, if $n = 1$, l can be only 0; if $n = 2$, l can be 0 or 1; and so forth. For a given atom, all wavefunctions that have the same values of both n and l form a subshell. The regions of space occupied by electrons in the same subshell usually have the same shape, but they are oriented differently in space.



Principal quantum number (n) & Orbital angular momentum (l): The Orbital Subshell:
Principal quantum number (n) & Orbital angular momentum (l): The Orbital Subshell, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

The Magnetic Quantum Number

The third quantum number is the magnetic quantum number (m_l). The value of m_l describes the *orientation* of the region in space occupied by an electron with respect to an applied magnetic field. The allowed values of m_l depend on the value of l: m_l can range from $-l$ to l in integral steps:

$$m_l = -l, -l+1, \ldots, 0, \ldots, l-1, l \tag{8.5.3}$$

For example, if $l = 0$, m_l can be only 0; if l = 1, m_l can be −1, 0, or +1; and if l = 2, m_l can be −2, −1, 0, +1, or +2.

Each wavefunction with an allowed combination of n, l, and m_l values describes an atomic **orbital**, a particular spatial distribution for an electron. For a given set of quantum numbers, each principal shell has a fixed number of subshells, and each subshell has a fixed number of orbitals.

Example 8.5.1: n=4 Shell Structure

How many subshells and orbitals are contained within the principal shell with n = 4?

Given: value of n

Asked for: number of subshells and orbitals in the principal shell

Strategy:

A. Given n = 4, calculate the allowed values of l. From these allowed values, count the number of subshells.

B. For each allowed value of l, calculate the allowed values of m_l. The sum of the number of orbitals in each subshell is the number of orbitals in the principal shell.

Solution:

A We know that l can have all integral values from 0 to n − 1. If n = 4, then l can equal 0, 1, 2, or 3. Because the shell has four values of l, it has four subshells, each of which will contain a different number of orbitals, depending on the allowed values of m_l.

B For l = 0, m_l can be only 0, and thus the l = 0 subshell has only one orbital. For l = 1, m_l can be 0 or ±1; thus the l = 1 subshell has three orbitals. For l = 2, m_l can be 0, ±1, or ±2, so there are five orbitals in the l = 2 subshell. The last allowed value of l is l = 3, for which m_l can be 0, ±1, ±2, or ±3, resulting in seven orbitals in the l = 3 subshell. The total number of orbitals in the n = 4 principal shell is the sum of the number of orbitals in each subshell and is equal to n^2 = 16

Exercise 8.5.1: n=3 Shell Structure

How many subshells and orbitals are in the principal shell with $n = 3$?

Answer

three subshells; nine orbitals

Rather than specifying all the values of n and l every time we refer to a subshell or an orbital, chemists use an abbreviated system with lowercase letters to denote the value of l for a particular subshell or orbital:

abbreviated system with lowercase letters to denote the value of l for a particular subshell or orbital

l =	0	1	2	3
Designation	*s*	*p*	*d*	*f*

The principal quantum number is named first, followed by the letter *s*, *p*, *d*, or *f* as appropriate. (These orbital designations are derived from historical terms for corresponding spectroscopic characteristics: *s*harp, *p*rinciple, *d*iffuse, and *f*undamental.) A 1*s* orbital has $n = 1$ and $l = 0$; a 2*p* subshell has $n = 2$ and $l = 1$ (and has three 2*p* orbitals, corresponding to $m_l = -1$, 0, and +1); a 3*d* subshell has $n = 3$ and $l = 2$ (and has five 3*d* orbitals, corresponding to $m_l = -2$, −1, 0, +1, and +2); and so forth.

We can summarize the relationships between the quantum numbers and the number of subshells and orbitals as follows (Table 6.5.1):

- Each principal shell has n subshells. For $n = 1$, only a single subshell is possible (1*s*); for $n = 2$, there are two subshells (2*s* and 2*p*); for $n = 3$, there are three subshells (3*s*, 3*p*, and 3*d*); and so forth. Every shell has an *ns* subshell, any shell with $n \geq 2$ also has an *np* subshell, and any shell with $n \geq 3$ also has an *nd* subshell. Because a 2*d* subshell would require both $n = 2$ and $l = 2$, which is not an allowed value of l for $n = 2$, a 2*d* subshell does not exist.
- Each subshell has $2l + 1$ orbitals. This means that all *ns* subshells contain a single *s* orbital, all *np* subshells contain three *p* orbitals, all *nd* subshells contain five *d* orbitals, and all *nf* subshells contain seven *f* orbitals.

> *Each principal shell has n subshells, and each subshell has 2l + 1 orbitals.*

Table 8.5.1: Values of n, l, and ml through n = 4

n	l	Subshell Designation	m_l	Number of Orbitals in Subshell	Number of Orbitals in Shell
1	0	1*s*	0	1	1
2	0	2*s*	0	1	4
	1	2*p*	−1, 0, 1	3	
3	0	3*s*	0	1	9
	1	3*p*	−1, 0, 1	3	
	2	3*d*	−2, −1, 0, 1, 2	5	
4	0	4*s*	0	1	16
	1	4*p*	−1, 0, 1	3	
	2	4*d*	−2, −1, 0, 1, 2	5	
	3	4*f*	−3, −2, −1, 0, 1, 2, 3	7	



Magnetic Quantum Number (ml) & Spin Quantum Number (ms): Magnetic Quantum Number (ml) & Spin Quantum Number (ms) YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be] (opens in new window)

Summary

There is a relationship between the motions of electrons in atoms and molecules and their energies that is described by quantum mechanics. Because of wave–particle duality, scientists must deal with the probability of an electron being at a particular point in space. To do so required the development of **quantum mechanics**, which uses **wavefunctions (Ψ)** to describe the mathematical relationship between the motion of electrons in atoms and molecules and their energies. Wavefunctions have five important properties:

1. the wavefunction uses three variables (Cartesian axes *x*, *y*, and *z*) to describe the position of an electron;
2. the magnitude of the wavefunction is proportional to the intensity of the wave;
3. the probability of finding an electron at a given point is proportional to the square of the wavefunction at that point, leading to a distribution of probabilities in space that is often portrayed as an **electron density** plot;
4. describing electron distributions as standing waves leads naturally to the existence of sets of **quantum numbers** characteristic of each wavefunction; and
5. each spatial distribution of the electron described by a wavefunction with a given set of quantum numbers has a particular energy.

Quantum numbers provide important information about the energy and spatial distribution of an electron. The **principal quantum number** n can be any positive integer; as n increases for an atom, the average distance of the electron from the nucleus also increases. All wavefunctions with the same value of n constitute a **principal shell** in which the electrons have similar average distances from the nucleus. The **azimuthal quantum number** l can have integral values between 0 and $n - 1$; it describes the shape of the electron distribution. wavefunctions that have the same values of both n and l constitute a **subshell**, corresponding to electron distributions that usually differ in orientation rather than in shape or average distance from the nucleus. The **magnetic quantum number** m_l can have $2l + 1$ integral values, ranging from $-l$ to $+l$, and describes the orientation of the electron distribution. Each wavefunction with a given set of values of n, l, and m_l describes a particular spatial distribution of an electron in an atom, an **atomic orbital**.

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8.6: The Shape of Atomic Orbitals

Learning Objectives

- To understand the 3D representation of electronic orbitals

An orbital is the quantum mechanical refinement of Bohr's orbit. In contrast to his concept of a simple circular orbit with a fixed radius, orbitals are mathematically derived regions of space with different **probabilities** of containing an electron.

One way of representing electron probability distributions was illustrated previously for the 1**s** orbital of hydrogen. Because Ψ^2 gives the probability of finding an electron in a given volume of space (such as a cubic picometer), a plot of Ψ^2 versus distance from the nucleus (**r**) is a plot of the **probability density**. The 1**s** orbital is spherically symmetrical, so the probability of finding a 1**s** electron at any given point depends **only** on its distance from the nucleus. The probability density is greatest at $r = 0$ (at the nucleus) and decreases steadily with increasing distance. At very large values of **r**, the electron probability density is very small but **not** zero.

In contrast, we can calculate the **radial probability** (the probability of finding a 1s electron at a distance r from the nucleus) by adding together the probabilities of an electron being at all points on a series of **x** spherical shells of radius $\mathbf{r}_1$, $\mathbf{r}_2$, $\mathbf{r}_3$,…, $\mathbf{r}_{x-1}$, $\mathbf{r}_x$. In effect, we are dividing the atom into very thin concentric shells, much like the layers of an onion (Figure 8.6.1*a*), and calculating the probability of finding an electron on each spherical shell. Recall that the electron probability density is greatest at r = 0 (Figure 8.6.1*b*), so the density of dots is greatest for the smallest spherical shells in part (a) in Figure 8.6.1. In contrast, the surface area of each spherical shell is equal to $4\pi r^2$, which increases very rapidly with increasing r (Figure 8.6.1*c*). Because the surface area of the spherical shells increases more rapidly with increasing r than the electron probability density decreases, the plot of radial probability has a maximum at a particular distance (Figure 8.6.1*d*). Most important, when r is very small, the surface area of a spherical shell is so small that the **total** probability of finding an electron close to the nucleus is very low; at the nucleus, the electron probability vanishes (Figure 8.6.1*d*).

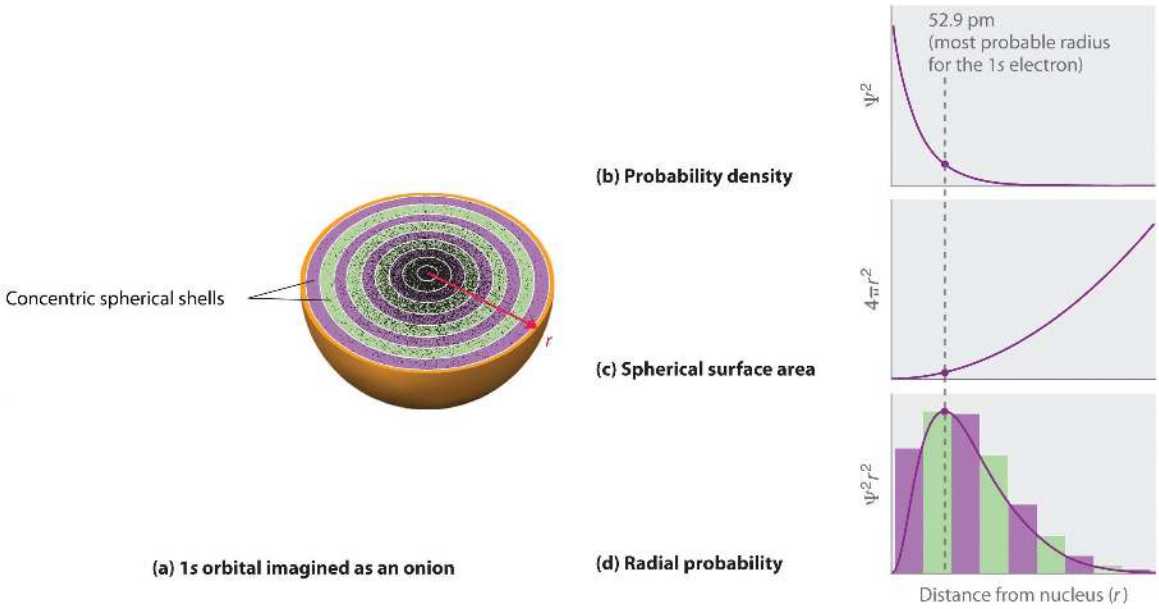


Figure 8.6.1: Most Probable Radius for the Electron in the Ground State of the Hydrogen Atom. (a) Imagine dividing the atom's total volume into very thin concentric shells as shown in the onion drawing. (b) A plot of electron probability density Ψ^2 versus r shows that the electron probability density is greatest at r = 0 and falls off smoothly with increasing r. The density of the dots is therefore greatest in the innermost shells of the onion. (c) The surface area of each shell, given by $4\pi\mathbf{r}^2$, increases rapidly with increasing r. (d) If we count the number of dots in each spherical shell, we obtain the total probability of finding the electron at a given value of r. Because the surface area of each shell increases more rapidly with increasing r than the electron probability density decreases, a plot of electron probability versus r (the **radial probability**) shows a peak. This peak corresponds to the most probable radius for the electron, 52.9 pm, which is exactly the radius predicted by Bohr's model of the hydrogen atom.

For the hydrogen atom, the peak in the radial probability plot occurs at r = 0.529 Å (52.9 pm), which is exactly the radius calculated by Bohr for the **n** = 1 orbit. Thus the **most probable radius** obtained from quantum mechanics is identical to the radius

calculated by classical mechanics. In Bohr's model, however, the electron was assumed to be at this distance 100% of the time, whereas in the Schrödinger model, it is at this distance only some of the time. The difference between the two models is attributable to the wavelike behavior of the electron and the Heisenberg uncertainty principle.

Figure 8.6.2 compares the electron probability densities for the hydrogen 1**s**, 2**s**, and 3**s** orbitals. Note that all three are spherically symmetrical. For the 2**s** and 3**s** orbitals, however (and for all other **s** orbitals as well), the electron probability density does not fall off smoothly with increasing r. Instead, a series of minima and maxima are observed in the radial probability plots (Figure 8.6.2*c*). The minima correspond to spherical **nodes** (regions of zero electron probability), which alternate with spherical regions of nonzero electron probability. The existence of these nodes is a consequence of changes of wave **phase** in the wavefunction Ψ.

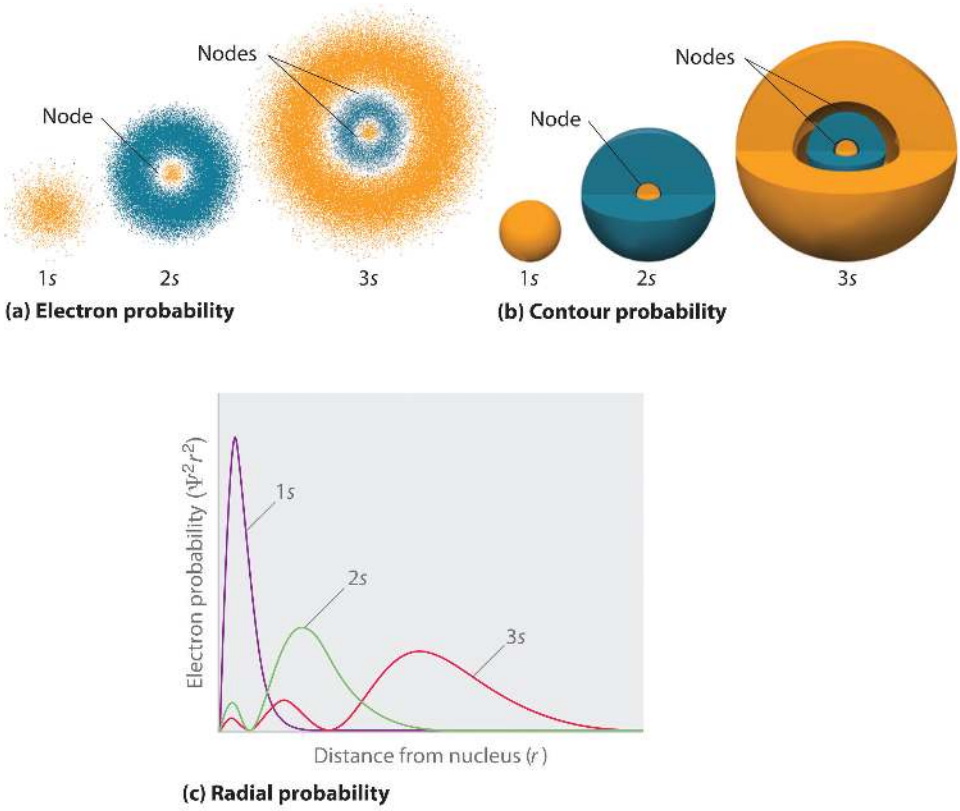


Figure 8.6.2: Probability Densities for the 1**s**, 2**s**, and 3**s** Orbitals of the Hydrogen Atom. (a) The electron probability density in any plane that contains the nucleus is shown. Note the presence of circular regions, or nodes, where the probability density is zero. (b) Contour surfaces enclose 90% of the electron probability, which illustrates the different sizes of the 1**s**, 2**s**, and 3**s** orbitals. The cutaway drawings give partial views of the internal spherical nodes. The orange color corresponds to regions of space where the phase of the wave function is positive, and the blue color corresponds to regions of space where the phase of the wave function is negative. (c) In these plots of electron probability as a function of distance from the nucleus (**r**) in all directions (radial probability), the most probable radius increases as **n** increases, but the 2**s** and 3**s** orbitals have regions of significant electron probability at small values of r.

s Orbitals (l=0)

Three things happen to **s** orbitals as **n** increases (Figure 8.6.2):

1. They become larger, extending farther from the nucleus.
2. They contain more nodes. This is similar to a standing wave that has regions of significant amplitude separated by nodes, points with zero amplitude.
3. For a given atom, the **s** orbitals also become higher in energy as **n** increases because of their increased distance from the nucleus.

Orbitals are generally drawn as three-dimensional surfaces that enclose 90% of the electron density, as was shown for the hydrogen 1**s**, 2**s**, and 3**s** orbitals in part (b) in Figure 8.6.2. Although such drawings show the relative sizes of the orbitals, they do not normally show the spherical nodes in the 2**s** and 3**s** orbitals because the spherical nodes lie inside the 90% surface. Fortunately, the positions of the spherical nodes are not important for chemical bonding.

p Orbitals (l=1)

Only **s** orbitals are spherically symmetrical. As the value of **l** increases, the number of orbitals in a given subshell increases, and the shapes of the orbitals become more complex. Because the 2**p** subshell has **l** = 1, with three values of $\mathbf{m_l}$ (−1, 0, and +1), there are three 2**p** orbitals.

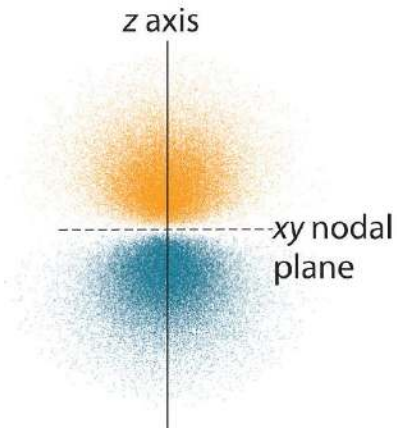


Figure 8.6.3: Electron Probability Distribution for a Hydrogen 2**p** Orbital. The nodal plane of zero electron density separates the two lobes of the 2**p** orbital. As in Figure 8.6.2, the colors correspond to regions of space where the phase of the wave function is positive (orange) and negative (blue).

The electron probability distribution for one of the hydrogen 2**p** orbitals is shown in Figure 8.6.3. Because this orbital has two lobes of electron density arranged along the **z** axis, with an electron density of zero in the **xy** plane (i.e., the **xy** plane is a nodal plane), it is a $2p_z$ orbital. As shown in Figure 8.6.4, the other two 2**p** orbitals have identical shapes, but they lie along the **x** axis ($2p_x$) and y axis ($2p_y$), respectively. Note that each **p** orbital has just one **nodal plane**. In each case, the phase of the wave function for each of the 2**p** orbitals is positive for the lobe that points along the positive axis and negative for the lobe that points along the negative axis. It is important to emphasize that these signs correspond to the **phase** of the wave that describes the electron motion, **not** to positive or negative charges.

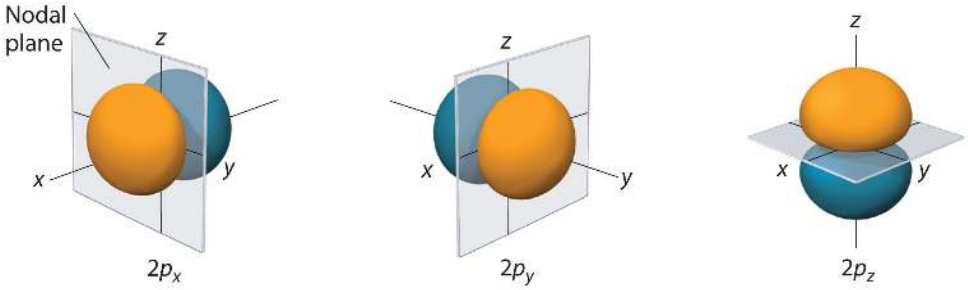


Figure 8.6.4 The Three Equivalent 2**p** Orbitals of the Hydrogen Atom

The surfaces shown enclose 90% of the total electron probability for the $2\mathbf{p_x}$, $2\mathbf{p_y}$, and $2\mathbf{p_z}$ orbitals. Each orbital is oriented along the axis indicated by the subscript and a nodal plane that is perpendicular to that axis bisects each 2**p** orbital. The phase of the wave function is positive (orange) in the region of space where **x**, **y**, or **z** is positive and negative (blue) where **x**, **y**, or **z** is negative. Just as with the **s** orbitals, the size and complexity of the **p** orbitals for any atom increase as the principal quantum number **n** increases. The shapes of the 90% probability surfaces of the 3**p**, 4**p**, and higher-energy **p** orbitals are, however, essentially the same as those shown in Figure 8.6.4.

d Orbitals (l=2)

Subshells with **l** = 2 have five **d** orbitals; the first principal shell to have a **d** subshell corresponds to **n** = 3. The five **d** orbitals have $\mathbf{m_l}$ values of −2, −1, 0, +1, and +2.

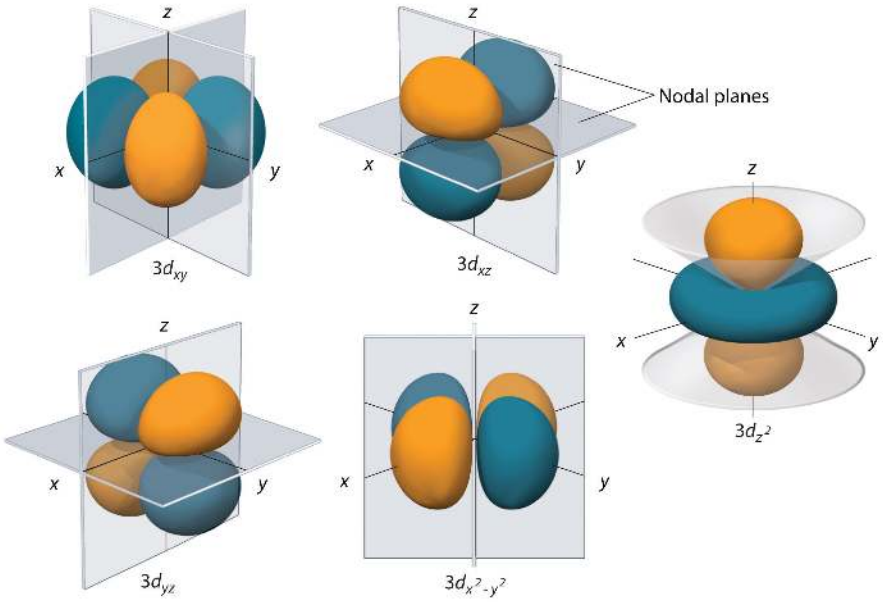


Figure 8.6.5: The Five Equivalent 3d Orbitals of the Hydrogen Atom. The surfaces shown enclose 90% of the total electron probability for the five hydrogen 3d orbitals. Four of the five 3d orbitals consist of four lobes arranged in a plane that is intersected by two perpendicular nodal planes. These four orbitals have the same shape but different orientations. The fifth 3d orbital, $3d_{z^2}$, has a distinct shape even though it is mathematically equivalent to the others. The phase of the wave function for the different lobes is indicated by color: orange for positive and blue for negative.

The 3 d orbitals can be broken down into 3 d x y, 3 d x z, 3 d y squared, 3 d x squared minus y squared, 3 d z squared.

The hydrogen 3d orbitals, shown in Figure 8.6.5, have more complex shapes than the 2p orbitals. All five 3d orbitals contain two nodal surfaces, as compared to one for each p orbital and zero for each s orbital. In three of the d orbitals, the lobes of electron density are oriented between the x and y, x and z, and y and z planes; these orbitals are referred to as the $3d_{xy}$, \)3d_{xz}\), and $3d_{yz}$ orbitals, respectively. A fourth d orbital has lobes lying along the x and y axes; this is the $3d_{x^2-y^2}$ orbital. The fifth 3d orbital, called the $3d_{z^2}$ orbital, has a unique shape: it looks like a $2p_z$ orbital combined with an additional doughnut of electron probability lying in the xy plane. Despite its peculiar shape, the $3d_{z^2}$ orbital is mathematically equivalent to the other four and has the same energy. In contrast to p orbitals, the phase of the wave function for d orbitals is the same for opposite pairs of lobes. As shown in Figure 8.6.5, the phase of the wave function is positive for the two lobes of the dz^2 orbital that lie along the z axis, whereas the phase of the wave function is negative for the doughnut of electron density in the xy plane. Like the s and p orbitals, as n increases, the size of the d orbitals increases, but the overall shapes remain similar to those depicted in Figure 8.6.5.

f Orbitals (l=3)

Principal shells with **n** = 4 can have subshells with **l** = 3 and $\mathbf{m_l}$ values of −3, −2, −1, 0, +1, +2, and +3. These subshells consist of seven **f** orbitals. Each **f** orbital has three nodal surfaces, so their shapes are complex. Because **f** orbitals are not particularly important for our purposes, we do not discuss them further, and orbitals with higher values of **l** are not discussed at all.

Orbital Energies

Although we have discussed the shapes of orbitals, we have said little about their comparative energies. We begin our discussion of orbital energies by considering atoms or ions with only a single electron (such as H or He^+).

The relative energies of the atomic orbitals with **n** ≤ 4 for a hydrogen atom are plotted in Figure 8.6.6; note that the orbital energies depend on **only** the principal quantum number **n**. Consequently, the energies of the 2**s** and 2**p** orbitals of hydrogen are the same; the energies of the 3**s**, 3**p**, and 3**d** orbitals are the same; and so forth. Quantum mechanics predicts that in the hydrogen atom, all orbitals with the same value of **n** (e.g., the three 2**p** orbitals) are **degenerate**, meaning that they have the same energy. The orbital energies obtained for hydrogen using quantum mechanics are exactly the same as the allowed energies calculated by Bohr. In contrast to Bohr's model, however, which allowed only one orbit for each energy level, quantum mechanics predicts that there are **4** orbitals with different electron density distributions in the **n** = 2 principal shell (one 2**s** and three 2**p** orbitals), **9** in the **n** = 3 principal shell, and **16** in the **n** = 4 principal shell.The different values of **l** and $\mathbf{m_l}$ for the individual orbitals within a given principal shell are not important for understanding the emission or absorption spectra of the hydrogen atom under most conditions,

but they do explain the splittings of the main lines that are observed when hydrogen atoms are placed in a magnetic field. Figure 8.6.6 shows that the energy levels become closer and closer together as the value of **n** increases, as expected because of the $1/\mathbf{n}^2$ dependence of orbital energies.

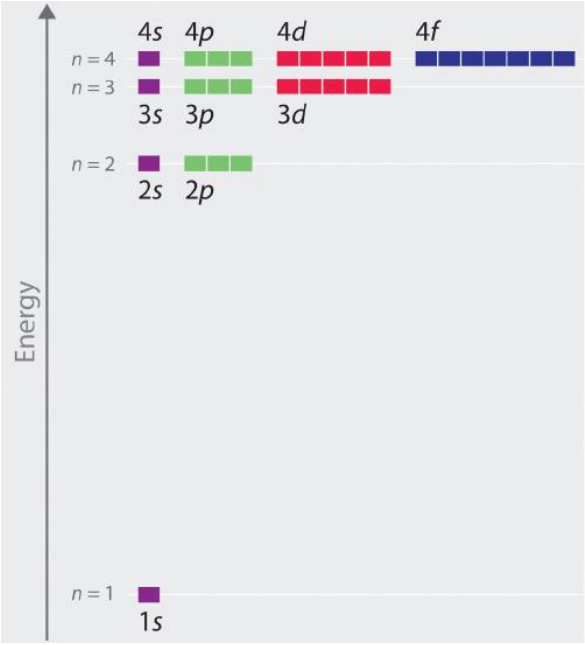


Figure 8.6.6: Orbital Energy Level Diagram for the Hydrogen Atom with a single electron. Each box corresponds to one orbital. Note that the difference in energy between orbitals decreases rapidly with increasing values of **n**.

The energies of the orbitals in any species with only one electron can be calculated by a minor variation of Bohr's equation, which can be extended to other single-electron species by incorporating the nuclear charge Z (the number of protons in the nucleus):

$$E = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2}Rhc \tag{8.6.1}$$

In general, both energy and radius decrease as the nuclear charge increases. Thus the most stable orbitals (those with the lowest energy) are those closest to the nucleus. For example, in the ground state of the hydrogen atom, the single electron is in the 1s orbital, whereas in the first excited state, the atom has absorbed energy and the electron has been promoted to one of the n = 2 orbitals. In ions with only a single electron, the energy of a given orbital depends on only n, and all subshells within a principal shell, such as the p_x, p_y, and p_z orbitals, are degenerate.

Summary

The four chemically important types of atomic orbital correspond to values of $\ell = 0$, 1, 2, and 3. Orbitals with $\ell = 0$ are s orbitals and are spherically symmetrical, with the greatest probability of finding the electron occurring at the nucleus. All orbitals with values of $n > 1$ and $ell = 0$ contain one or more nodes. Orbitals with $\ell = 1$ are p orbitals and contain a nodal plane that includes the nucleus, giving rise to a dumbbell shape. Orbitals with $\ell = 2$ are d orbitals and have more complex shapes with at least two nodal surfaces. Orbitals with $\ell = 3$ are f orbitals, which are still more complex.

Because its average distance from the nucleus determines the energy of an electron, each atomic orbital with a given set of quantum numbers has a particular energy associated with it, the **orbital energy**.

$$E = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2}Rhc$$

In atoms or ions with only a single electron, all orbitals with the same value of n have the same energy (they are degenerate), and the energies of the principal shells increase smoothly as n increases. An atom or ion with the electron(s) in the lowest-energy orbital(s) is said to be in its ground state, whereas an atom or ion in which one or more electrons occupy higher-energy orbitals is said to be in an excited state.

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8.7: The Quantum-Mechanical Model of the Atom (Exercises)

These are homework exercises to accompany the Textmap created for Chemistry: A Molecular Approach by Nivaldo Tro.

Q45

What wavelength of light in meters produces this amount of energy? Round to two significant figures.

Formula for Energy is E=hc/lambda

h is Planck's constant it is equivalent to 6.626×10^{-34}

c is the speed of light constant it is equivalent to 2.998×10^{8}

lambda is the wavelength, which in this problem you are trying to find

E is the energy which is what you will be given in this problem

Examples:

a) 1.33×10^{-19}J

1.33×10^{-19}J =hc/lambda

$1.33 \times 10^{-19} = (6.626 \times 10^{-34})(2.998 \times 10^{8})$/lambda

$1.33 \times 10^{-19} = 1.98 \times 10^{-25}$/lambda

1.33×10^{-19}(lambda)= 1.986×10^{-25}

lambda =$1.98 \times 10^{-25}/1.33 \times 10^{-19}$

lambda= 1.4936×10^{-6}

lambda = 1.5×10^{-6}

lambda = 1500×10^{-9} m

b) 3.98×10^{-19} J

3.98×10^{-19}J = hc/lambda

$3.98 \times 10^{-19} = (6.626 \times 10^{-34})(2.998 \times 10^{8})$/lambda

$3.98 \times 10^{-19} = 1.986 \times 10^{-25}$/lambda

3.98×10^{-19}(lambda) = 1.986×10^{-25}

lambda = $1.986 \times 10^{-25}/3.98 \times 10^{-19}$

lambda = 4.989×10^{-7}

lambda = 5.0×10^{-7}

lambda = 500×10^{-9} m

c) 1.32×10^{-18}J

1.32×10^{-18}J = hc/lambda

$1.32 \times 10^{-18} = (6.626 \times 10^{-34})(2.998 \times 10^{8})$/lambda

$1.32 \times 10^{-18} = 1.986 \times 10^{-25}$/lambda

1.32×10^{-18}(lambda) = 1.986×10^{-25}

lambda = 1.5045×10^{-7}

lambda = 1.5×10^{-7}

lambda = 150×10^{-9} m

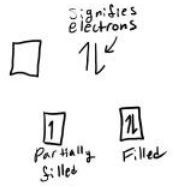
Q57a

How many electrons are in a *s* orbital verses a *p* orbital?

Notation to know:

- e^- is the notation for an electron
- Orbital- the energy state in an atom where an electron will be found

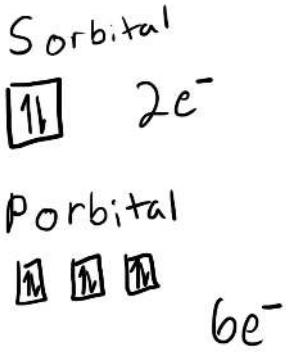
1. Figure out where an *s* orbital and *p* orbital would be located
2. Determine which level each one is
3. Use which level they are to determine how many boxes electrons can occupy
4. Realize that two opposite spinning electrons can occupy one box



5. Using the number of boxes and the knowledge that two electrons can occupy a box, multiply the number of boxes by the two or bitals
6. Write your answer

Solution

The *s* orbital has one box that could have electrons in it since *s* is the lowest orbital. *p* is the next level up, which has three boxes el ectrons can occupy. Each box has the capacity for two electrons to occupy the space. Since *s* has one box, and *p* has three boxes, th e number of electrons that could possibly be in an *s* orbital is two, while a *p* orbital has 6.



Q57b

If an electron is excited from a 3p orbital to a 2p orbital, does it give off energy or gain energy? Why?

Strategy

1. Identify the location of each orbital and how this relates to their energy levels

2. Explain why your answer is correct, referring to the movement of photons

Answer

The 3p orbital is further away from the nucleus than the 2p orbital.The closer an electron is to the nucleus the less amount of energ y it has.Thus, the electron will give off energy due to its movement from a higher level orbital to a lower level orbital releasing a ph oton of energy in the process. When the electron gets excited it will jump back up to a higher level orbital.

Q59

When each value of *n* is given, what are the possible values for *l*?

1. 2
2. 4
3. 6
4. 8

Strategy:

- The relationship between the quantum number (*n*) and the angular momentum quantum number (*l*).
  - The principle quantum number is an integer that determines the overall size and energy of an orbital. The possible values for *n* are 1, 2, 3, … and so on.
  - The angular momentum quantum number is an integer that determines the shape of the orbital. Every value of *n* has a certai n *l* value. In other words, for a given value of *n*, *l* can be any integer up to *n*-1.

Example:

If *n*=3, what are the possible values of *l*?

Since *l* = *n*-1, and n=3. Substitute 3 with *n* (*l*=3-1), which *l* equals to 2 maximum values or 0, 1, 2.

Solution:

1. *n*= 2

l= *n*-1

l= 0, 1

2. *n*= 4

l= *n*-1

l= 0, 1, 2, 3

3. *n*= 6

l= *n*-1

l= 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

4. *n*= 8

l= *n*-1

l= 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7

Q78a

A photon of wavelength 0.787 nm strikes a surface. The surface has a binding energy of 1.35 *1010 10^-19 kJ/mol. What is the kin etic energy of the emitted electron in eV?

Strategy

Solution

1. Convert kJ/mol à J to keep units consistent.
2. Solve For energy of the photon
3. Subtract binding energy from the energy of the photon
4. Convert J --> eV

1. 1.35*10^-19 kJ/mol = $1.35*10^{-16}$ J/mol
2. Energy=(Planck's Constant)(Speed of light)/ wavelength
    1. h= 6.626* 10^-34 (Planck's Constant)
    2. c=2.99*1010 10^-16 m/s (speed of light)
    3. E=Energy
    4. wavelength (convert to meters)
3. Energy of photon= binding energy + kinetic energy
    1. 1.67*r10^-16 J=Kinetic energy
4. 1.167*10^-16 J* * 1 eV/1.603*10^-19 J
    1. =728.5 eV

Q78b

A photon which has a wave length of 0.875 nm strikes a surface. The emitted electron has a kinetic energy of 900 eV. Calculate the binding energy of the electron in kJ/mol.

Solution

First we must change our value in units of eV to joules using the conversion 1 eV=$1.602x10^{-19}$ J. This gives us a value of $1.4418x10^{-16}$J

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

9: Periodic Properties of the Elements

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9.1: Nerve Signal Transmission

Electric currents in the vastly complex system of billions of nerves in our body allow us to sense the world, control parts of our body, and think. These are representative of the three major functions of nerves. First, nerves carry messages from our sensory organs and others to the central nervous system, consisting of the brain and spinal cord. Second, nerves carry messages from the central nervous system to muscles and other organs. Third, nerves transmit and process signals within the central nervous system. The sheer number of nerve cells and the incredibly greater number of connections between them makes this system the subtle wonder that it is. Nerve conduction is a general term for electrical signals carried by nerve cells. It is one aspect of bioelectricity, or electrical effects in and created by biological systems.

Nerve cells, properly called *neurons*, look different from other cells—they have tendrils, some of them many centimeters long, connecting them with other cells. (See Figure 1.) Signals arrive at the cell body across *synapses* or through *dendrites*, stimulating the neuron to generate its own signal, sent along its long *axon* to other nerve or muscle cells. Signals may arrive from many other locations and be transmitted to yet others, conditioning the synapses by use, giving the system its complexity and its ability to learn.

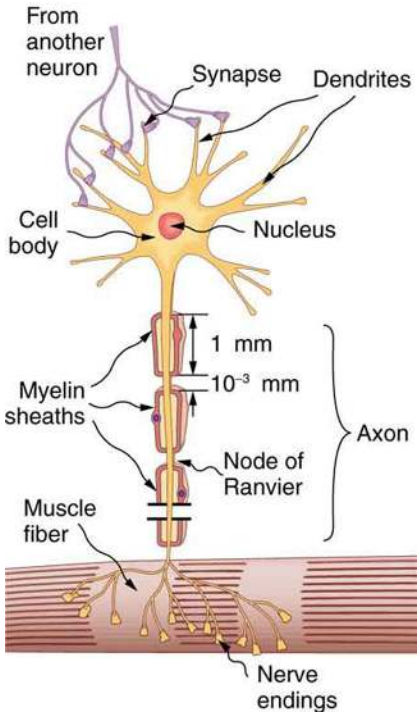


Figure 20.8.1 *A neuron with its dendrites and long axon. Signals in the form of electric currents reach the cell body through dendrites and across synapses, stimulating the neuron to generate its own signal sent down the axon. The number of interconnections can be far greater than shown here.*

The method by which these electric currents are generated and transmitted is more complex than the simple movement of free charges in a conductor, but it can be understood with principles already discussed in this text. The most important of these are the Coulomb force and diffusion.

Figure 2 illustrates how a voltage (potential difference) is created across the cell membrane of a neuron in its resting state. This thin membrane separates electrically neutral fluids having differing concentrations of ions, the most important varieties being Na^+, K^+, and Cl^-. (these are sodium, potassium, and chlorine ions with single plus or minus charges as indicated). As discussed in Molecular Transport Phenomena: Diffusion, Osmosis, and Related Processes, free ions will diffuse from a region of high concentration to one of low concentration. But the cell membrane is **semipermeable**, meaning that some ions may cross it while others cannot. In its resting state, the cell membrane is permeable to K^+ and Cl^-, and impermeable to Na^+. Diffusion of K^+ and Cl^- thus creates the layers of positive and negative charge on the outside and inside of the membrane. The Coulomb force prevents the ions from diffusing across in their entirety. Once the charge layer has built up, the repulsion of like charges prevents more from moving across, and the attraction of unlike charges prevents more from leaving either side. The result is two layers of charge right on the membrane, with diffusion being balanced by the Coulomb force. A tiny fraction of the charges move across and

the fluids remain neutral (other ions are present), while a separation of charge and a voltage have been created across the membrane.

- OpenStax

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9.2: The Development of the Periodic Table

Learning Objectives

- To become familiar with the organization of the periodic table.

Rutherford's nuclear model of the atom helped explain why atoms of different elements exhibit different chemical behavior. The identity of an element is defined by its *atomic number (Z)*, the number of protons in the nucleus of an atom of the element. The atomic number is therefore different for each element. The known elements are arranged in order of increasing Z in the *periodic table* (Figure 9.2.1). The rationale for the peculiar format of the periodic table is explained later. Each element is assigned a unique one-, two-, or three-letter symbol. The names of the elements are listed in the periodic table, along with their symbols, atomic numbers, and atomic masses. The chemistry of each element is determined by its number of protons and electrons. In a neutral atom, the number of electrons equals the number of protons.

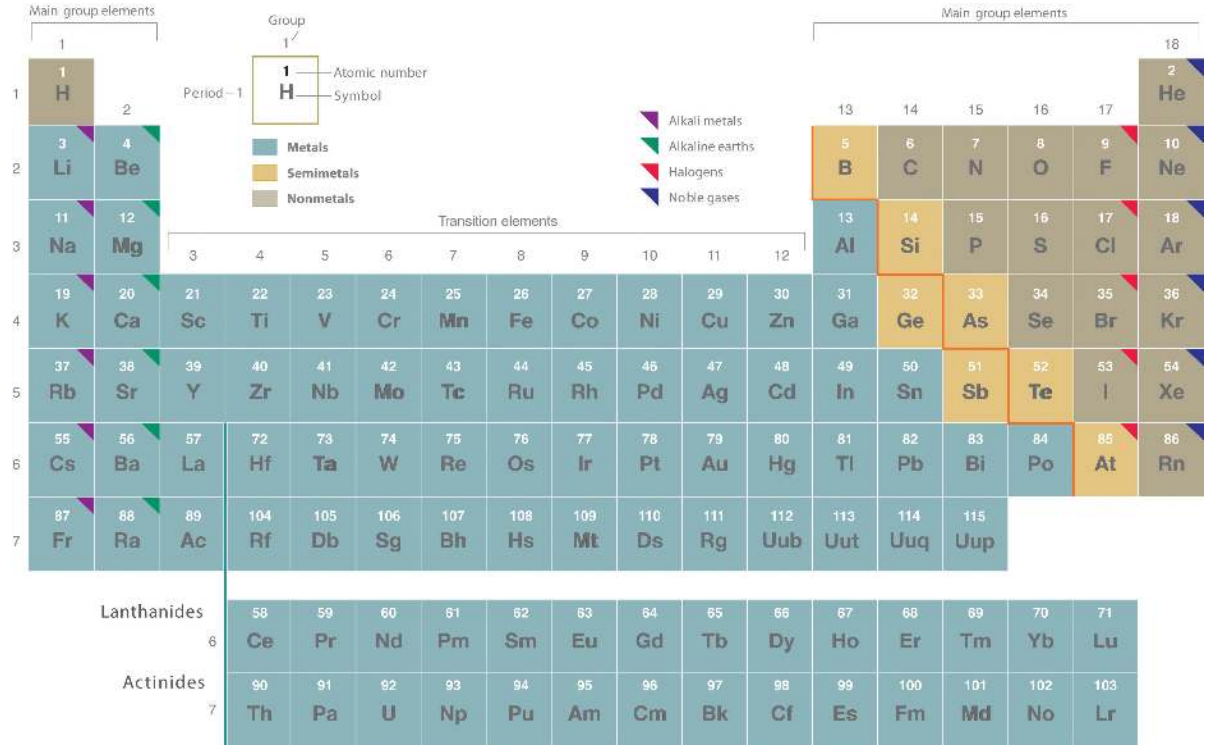


Figure 9.2.1: The Periodic Table Showing the Elements in Order of Increasing Z. The metals are on the bottom left in the periodic table, and the nonmetals are at the top right. The semimetals lie along a diagonal line separating the metals and nonmetals. An interactive Periodic table can be found Periodic Table of the Elements, LibreTexts. (CC-BY-SA-NC 3.0; Anonymous via LibreTexts)

The elements are arranged in a periodic table, which is probably the single most important learning aid in chemistry. It summarizes huge amounts of information about the elements in a way that facilitates the prediction of many of their properties and chemical reactions. The elements are arranged in seven horizontal rows, in order of increasing atomic number from left to right and top to bottom. The rows are called periods, and they are numbered from 1 to 7. The elements are stacked in such a way that elements with similar chemical properties form vertical columns, called groups, numbered from 1 to 18 (older periodic tables use a system based on roman numerals). Groups 1, 2, and 13–18 are the main group elements, listed as A in older tables. Groups 3–12 are in the middle of the periodic table and are the transition elements, listed as B in older tables. The two rows of 14 elements at the bottom of the periodic table are the lanthanides and the actinides, whose positions in the periodic table are indicated in group 3.

Metals, Nonmetals, and Semimetals

The heavy orange zigzag line running diagonally from the upper left to the lower right through groups 13–16 in Figure 9.2.1 divides the elements into metals (in blue, below and to the left of the line) and nonmetals (in bronze, above and to the right of the

line). Gold-colored lements that lie along the diagonal line exhibit properties intermediate between metals and nonmetals; they are called semimetals.

The distinction between metals and nonmetals is one of the most fundamental in chemistry. Metals—such as copper or gold—are good conductors of electricity and heat; they can be pulled into wires because they are ductile; they can be hammered or pressed into thin sheets or foils because they are malleable; and most have a shiny appearance, so they are lustrous. The vast majority of the known elements are metals. Of the metals, only mercury is a liquid at room temperature and pressure; all the rest are solids.

Nonmetals, in contrast, are generally poor conductors of heat and electricity and are not lustrous. Nonmetals can be gases (such as chlorine), liquids (such as bromine), or solids (such as iodine) at room temperature and pressure. Most solid nonmetals are brittle, so they break into small pieces when hit with a hammer or pulled into a wire. As expected, semimetals exhibit properties intermediate between metals and nonmetals.

✔ Example 9.2.1: Classifying Elements

Based on its position in the periodic table, do you expect selenium to be a metal, a nonmetal, or a semimetal?

Given: element

Asked for: classification

Strategy:

Find selenium in the periodic table shown in Figure 9.2.1 and then classify the element according to its location.

Solution:

The atomic number of selenium is 34, which places it in period 4 and group 16. In Figure 9.2.1, selenium lies above and to the right of the diagonal line marking the boundary between metals and nonmetals, so it should be a nonmetal. Note, however, that because selenium is close to the metal-nonmetal dividing line, it would not be surprising if selenium were similar to a semimetal in some of its properties.

? Exercise 9.2.1

Based on its location in the periodic table, do you expect indium to be a nonmetal, a metal, or a semimetal?

Answer

metal

As previously noted, the periodic table is arranged so that elements with similar chemical behaviors are in the same group. Chemists often make general statements about the properties of the elements in a group using descriptive names with historical origins. For example, the elements of Group 1 are known as the alkali metals, Group 2 are the alkaline earth metals, Group 17 are the halogens, and Group 18 are the noble gases.

Group 1: The Alkali Metals

The alkali metals are lithium, sodium, potassium, rubidium, cesium, and francium. Hydrogen is unique in that it is generally placed in Group 1, but it is not a metal. The compounds of the alkali metals are common in nature and daily life. One example is table salt (sodium chloride); lithium compounds are used in greases, in batteries, and as drugs to treat patients who exhibit manic-depressive, or bipolar, behavior. Although lithium, rubidium, and cesium are relatively rare in nature, and francium is so unstable and highly radioactive that it exists in only trace amounts, sodium and potassium are the seventh and eighth most abundant elements in Earth's crust, respectively.

Group 2: The Alkaline Earth Metals

The alkaline earth metals are beryllium, magnesium, calcium, strontium, barium, and radium. Beryllium, strontium, and barium are rare, and radium is unstable and highly radioactive. In contrast, calcium and magnesium are the fifth and sixth most abundant elements on Earth, respectively; they are found in huge deposits of limestone and other minerals.

Group 17: The Halogens

The halogens are fluorine, chlorine, bromine, iodine, and astatine. The name halogen is derived from the Greek words for “salt forming,” which reflects that all the halogens react readily with metals to form compounds, such as sodium chloride and calcium chloride (used in some areas as road salt).

Compounds that contain the fluoride ion are added to toothpaste and the water supply to prevent dental cavities. Fluorine is also found in Teflon coatings on kitchen utensils. Although chlorofluorocarbon propellants and refrigerants are believed to lead to the depletion of Earth’s ozone layer and contain both fluorine and chlorine, the latter is responsible for the adverse effect on the ozone layer. Bromine and iodine are less abundant than chlorine, and astatine is so radioactive that it exists in only negligible amounts in nature.

Group 18: The Noble Gases

The noble gases are helium, neon, argon, krypton, xenon, and radon. Because the noble gases are composed of only single atoms, they are called monatomic. At room temperature and pressure, they are unreactive gases. Because of their lack of reactivity, for many years they were called inert gases or rare gases. However, the first chemical compounds containing the noble gases were prepared in 1962. Although the noble gases are relatively minor constituents of the atmosphere, natural gas contains substantial amounts of helium. Because of its low reactivity, argon is often used as an unreactive (inert) atmosphere for welding and in light bulbs. The red light emitted by neon in a gas discharge tube is used in neon lights.

> *The noble gases are unreactive at room temperature and pressure.*

Summary

The periodic table is used as a predictive tool. It arranges of the elements in order of increasing atomic number. Elements that exhibit similar chemistry appear in vertical columns called groups (numbered 1–18 from left to right); the seven horizontal rows are called periods. Some of the groups have widely-used common names, including the alkali metals (Group 1) and the alkaline earth metals (Group 2) on the far left, and the halogens (Group 17) and the noble gases (Group 18) on the far right. The elements can be broadly divided into metals, nonmetals, and semimetals. Semimetals exhibit properties intermediate between those of metals and nonmetals. Metals are located on the left of the periodic table, and nonmetals are located on the upper right. They are separated by a diagonal band of semimetals. Metals are lustrous, good conductors of electricity, and readily shaped (they are ductile and malleable), whereas solid nonmetals are generally brittle and poor electrical conductors. Other important groupings of elements in the periodic table are the main group elements, the transition metals, the lanthanides, and the actinides.

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9.3: Electron Configurations- How Electrons Occupy Orbitals

Learning Objectives

- Derive the predicted ground-state electron configurations of atoms
- Identify and explain exceptions to predicted electron configurations for atoms and ions
- Relate electron configurations to element classifications in the periodic table

Having introduced the basics of atomic structure and quantum mechanics, we can use our understanding of quantum numbers to determine how atomic orbitals relate to one another. This allows us to determine which orbitals are occupied by electrons in each atom. The specific arrangement of electrons in orbitals of an atom determines many of the chemical properties of that atom.

Orbital Energies and Atomic Structure

The energy of atomic orbitals increases as the principal quantum number, n, increases. In any atom with two or more electrons, the repulsion between the electrons makes energies of subshells with different values of l differ so that the energy of the orbitals increases within a shell in the order $s < p < d < f$. Figure 9.3.1 depicts how these two trends in increasing energy relate. The 1*s* orbital at the bottom of the diagram is the orbital with electrons of lowest energy. The energy increases as we move up to the 2*s* and then 2*p*, 3*s*, and 3*p* orbitals, showing that the increasing *n* value has more influence on energy than the increasing *l* value for small atoms. However, this pattern does not hold for larger atoms. The 3*d* orbital is higher in energy than the 4*s* orbital. Such overlaps continue to occur frequently as we move up the chart.

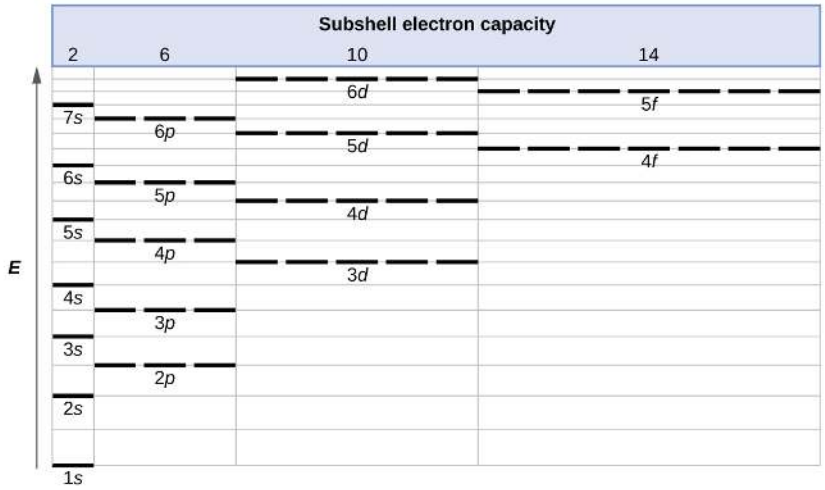


Figure 9.3.1: Generalized energy-level diagram for atomic orbitals in an atom with two or more electrons (not to scale).

Electrons in successive atoms on the periodic table tend to fill low-energy orbitals first. Thus, many students find it confusing that, for example, the 5*p* orbitals fill immediately after the 4*d*, and immediately before the 6*s*. The filling order is based on observed experimental results, and has been confirmed by theoretical calculations. As the principal quantum number, *n*, increases, the size of the orbital increases and the electrons spend more time farther from the nucleus. Thus, the attraction to the nucleus is weaker and the energy associated with the orbital is higher (less stabilized). But this is not the only effect we have to take into account. Within each shell, as the value of *l* increases, the electrons are less penetrating (meaning there is less electron density found close to the nucleus), in the order $s > p > d > f$. Electrons that are closer to the nucleus slightly repel electrons that are farther out, offsetting the more dominant electron–nucleus attractions slightly (recall that all electrons have −1 charges, but nuclei have $+Z$ charges). This phenomenon is called shielding and will be discussed in more detail in the next section. Electrons in orbitals that experience more shielding are less stabilized and thus higher in energy. For small orbitals (1*s* through 3*p*), the increase in energy due to *n* is more significant than the increase due to *l*; however, for larger orbitals the two trends are comparable and cannot be simply predicted. We will discuss methods for remembering the observed order.

The arrangement of electrons in the orbitals of an atom is called the electron configuration of the atom. We describe an electron configuration with a symbol that contains three pieces of information (Figure 9.3.2):

1. The number of the principal quantum shell, *n*,

2. The letter that designates the orbital type (the subshell, *l*), and
3. A superscript number that designates the number of electrons in that particular subshell.

For example, the notation $2p^4$ (read "two–p–four") indicates four electrons in a *p* subshell ($l = 1$) with a principal quantum number (n) of 2. The notation $3d^8$ (read "three–d–eight") indicates eight electrons in the *d* subshell (i.e., $l = 2$) of the principal shell for which $n = 3$.

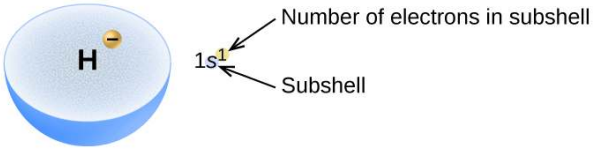


Figure 9.3.2: The diagram of an electron configuration specifies the subshell (n and l value, with letter symbol) and superscript number of electrons.

The Aufbau Principle

To determine the electron configuration for any particular atom, we can “build” the structures in the order of atomic numbers. Beginning with hydrogen, and continuing across the periods of the periodic table, we add one proton at a time to the nucleus and one electron to the proper subshell until we have described the electron configurations of all the elements. This procedure is called the Aufbau principle, from the German word *Aufbau* (“to build up”). Each added electron occupies the subshell of lowest energy available (in the order shown in Figure 9.3.3), subject to the limitations imposed by the allowed quantum numbers according to the Pauli exclusion principle. Electrons enter higher-energy subshells only after lower-energy subshells have been filled to capacity. Figure 9.3.3 illustrates the traditional way to remember the filling order for atomic orbitals.

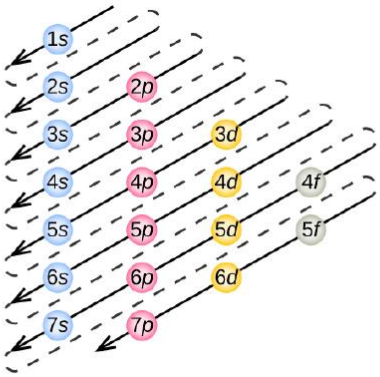


Figure 9.3.3: The arrow leads through each subshell in the appropriate filling order for electron configurations. This chart is straightforward to construct. Simply make a column for all the s orbitals with each n shell on a separate row. Repeat for p, d, and f. Be sure to only include orbitals allowed by the quantum numbers (no 1p or 2d, and so forth). Finally, draw diagonal lines from top to bottom as shown.

Since the arrangement of the periodic table is based on the electron configurations, Figure 9.3.4 provides an alternative method for determining the electron configuration. The filling order simply begins at hydrogen and includes each subshell as you proceed in increasing *Z* order. For example, after filling the 3*p* block up to Ar, we see the orbital will be 4s (K, Ca), followed by the 3*d* orbitals.

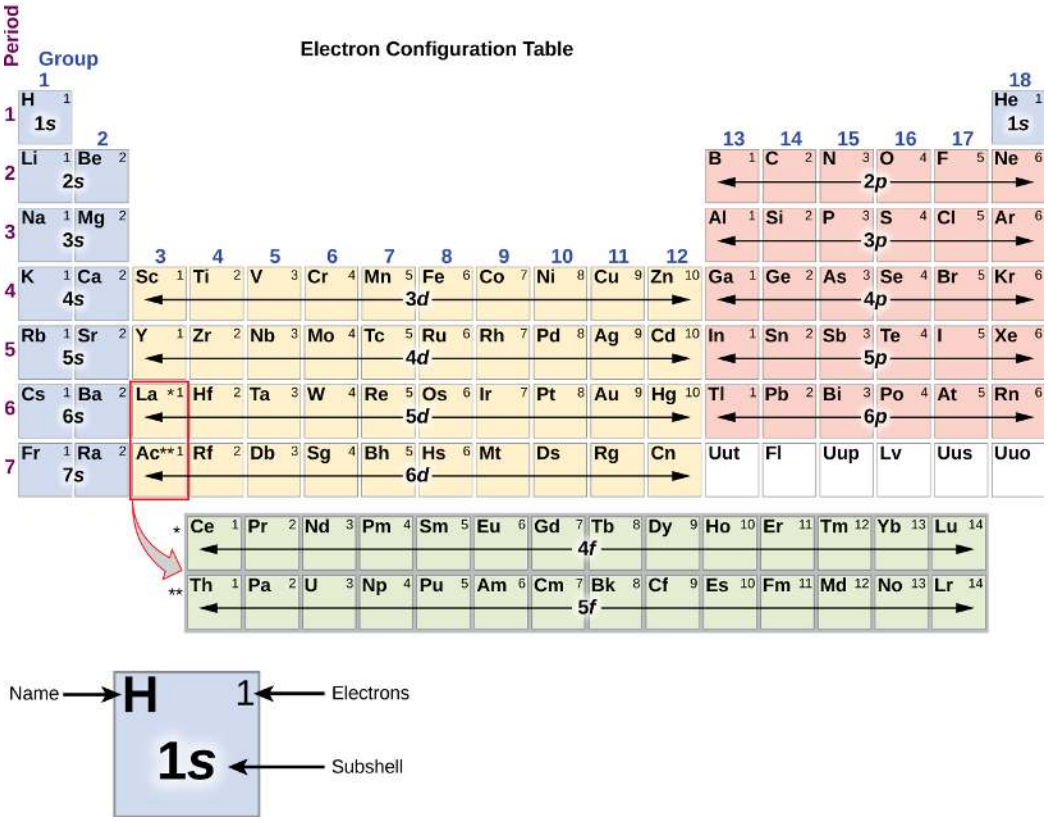
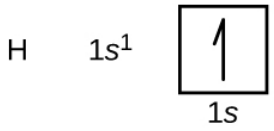
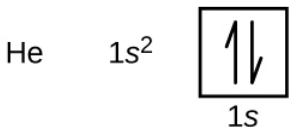


Figure 9.3.4: This periodic table shows the electron configuration for each subshell. By "building up" from hydrogen, this table can be used to determine the electron configuration for any atom on the periodic table.

We will now construct the ground-state electron configuration and orbital diagram for a selection of atoms in the first and second periods of the periodic table. Orbital diagrams are pictorial representations of the electron configuration, showing the individual orbitals and the pairing arrangement of electrons. We start with a single hydrogen atom (atomic number 1), which consists of one proton and one electron. Referring to either Figure 9.3.3 or 9.3.4, we would expect to find the electron in the 1*s* orbital. By convention, the $m_s = +\frac{1}{2}$ value is usually filled first. The electron configuration and the orbital diagram are:

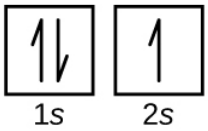


Following hydrogen is the noble gas helium, which has an atomic number of 2. The helium atom contains two protons and two electrons. The first electron has the same four quantum numbers as the hydrogen atom electron (n = 1, l = 0, m_l = 0, $m_s = +\frac{1}{2}$). The second electron also goes into the 1*s* orbital and fills that orbital. The second electron has the same n, l, and m_l quantum numbers, but must have the opposite spin quantum number, $m_s = -\frac{1}{2}$. This is in accord with the Pauli exclusion principle: No two electrons in the same atom can have the same set of four quantum numbers. For orbital diagrams, this means two arrows go in each box (representing two electrons in each orbital) and the arrows must point in opposite directions (representing paired spins). The electron configuration and orbital diagram of helium are:

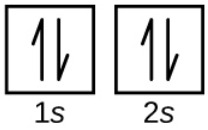


The n = 1 shell is completely filled in a helium atom.

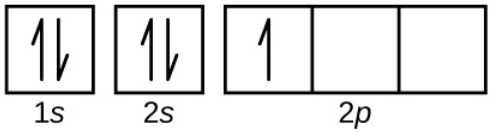
The next atom is the alkali metal lithium with an atomic number of 3. The first two electrons in lithium fill the 1*s* orbital and have the same sets of four quantum numbers as the two electrons in helium. The remaining electron must occupy the orbital of next lowest energy, the 2*s* orbital (Figure 9.3.3 or 9.3.4). Thus, the electron configuration and orbital diagram of lithium are:

Li $1s^2 2s^1$ 

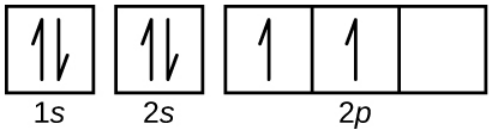
An atom of the alkaline earth metal beryllium, with an atomic number of 4, contains four protons in the nucleus and four electrons surrounding the nucleus. The fourth electron fills the remaining space in the 2*s* orbital.

Be $1s^2 2s^2$ 

An atom of boron (atomic number 5) contains five electrons. The $n = 1$ shell is filled with two electrons and three electrons will occupy the $n = 2$ shell. Because any *s* subshell can contain only two electrons, the fifth electron must occupy the next energy level, which will be a 2*p* orbital. There are three degenerate 2*p* orbitals ($m_l = -1, 0, +1$) and the electron can occupy any one of these *p* orbitals. When drawing orbital diagrams, we include empty boxes to depict any empty orbitals in the same subshell that we are filling.

B $1s^2 2s^2 2p^1$ 

Carbon (atomic number 6) has six electrons. Four of them fill the 1*s* and 2*s* orbitals. The remaining two electrons occupy the 2*p* subshell. We now have a choice of filling one of the 2*p* orbitals and pairing the electrons or of leaving the electrons unpaired in two different, but degenerate, *p* orbitals. The orbitals are filled as described by Hund's rule: the lowest-energy configuration for an atom with electrons within a set of degenerate orbitals is that having the maximum number of unpaired electrons. Thus, the two electrons in the carbon 2*p* orbitals have identical *n*, *l*, and m_s quantum numbers and differ in their m_l quantum number (in accord with the Pauli exclusion principle). The electron configuration and orbital diagram for carbon are:

C $1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$ 

Nitrogen (atomic number 7) fills the 1*s* and 2*s* subshells and has one electron in each of the three 2*p* orbitals, in accordance with Hund's rule. These three electrons have unpaired spins. Oxygen (atomic number 8) has a pair of electrons in any one of the 2*p* orbitals (the electrons have opposite spins) and a single electron in each of the other two. Fluorine (atomic number 9) has only one 2*p* orbital containing an unpaired electron. All of the electrons in the noble gas neon (atomic number 10) are paired, and all of the orbitals in the $n = 1$ and the $n = 2$ shells are filled. The electron configurations and orbital diagrams of these four elements are:

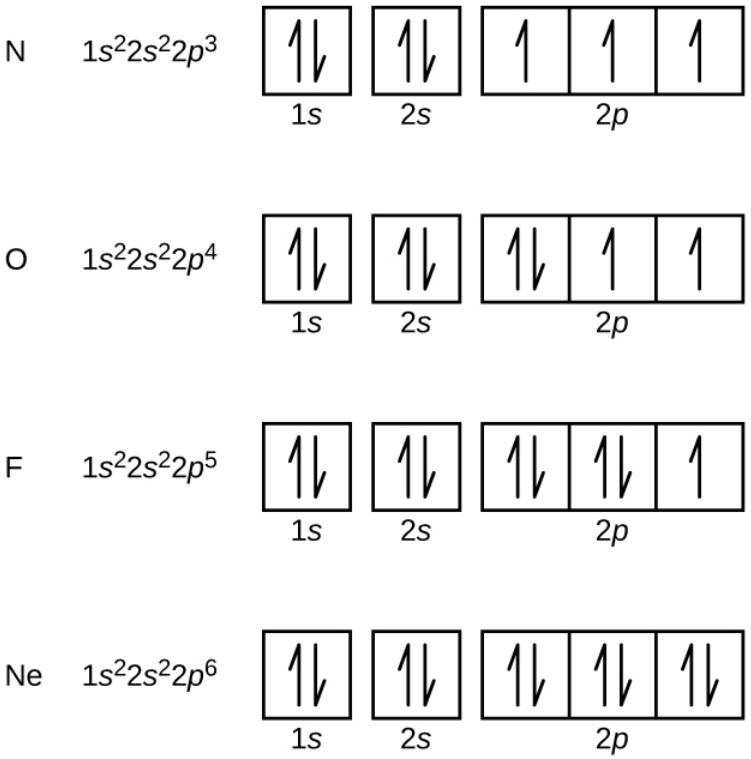


Figure 9.3.5: Since the core electron shells correspond to noble gas electron configurations, we can abbreviate electron configurations by writing the noble gas that matches the core electron configuration, along with the valence electrons in a condensed format. For our sodium example, the symbol [Ne] represents core electrons, ($1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$) and our abbreviated or condensed configuration is [Ne]$3s^1$.

The alkali metal sodium (atomic number 11) has one more electron than the neon atom. This electron must go into the lowest-energy subshell available, the 3*s* orbital, giving a $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$ configuration. The electrons occupying the outermost shell orbital(s) (highest value of *n*) are called valence electrons, and those occupying the inner shell orbitals are called core electrons (Figure \PageIndex5\PageIndex5). Since the core electron shells correspond to noble gas electron configurations, we can abbreviate electron configurations by writing the noble gas that matches the core electron configuration, along with the valence electrons in a condensed format. For our sodium example, the symbol [Ne] represents core electrons, ($1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$) and our abbreviated or condensed configuration is [Ne]$3s^1$.

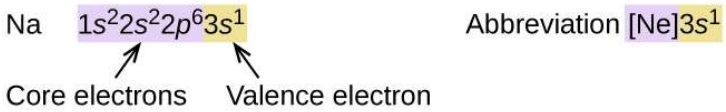


Figure 9.3.5: A core-abbreviated electron configuration (right) replaces the core electrons with the noble gas symbol whose configuration matches the core electron configuration of the other element.

Similarly, the abbreviated configuration of lithium can be represented as [He]$2s^1$, where [He] represents the configuration of the helium atom, which is identical to that of the filled inner shell of lithium. Writing the configurations in this way emphasizes the similarity of the configurations of lithium and sodium. Both atoms, which are in the alkali metal family, have only one electron in a valence *s* subshell outside a filled set of inner shells.

$$\text{Li} : [\text{He}]\, 2s^1$$
$$\text{Na} : [\text{Ne}]\, 3s^1$$

The alkaline earth metal magnesium (atomic number 12), with its 12 electrons in a [Ne]$3s^2$ configuration, is analogous to its family member beryllium, [He]$2s^2$. Both atoms have a filled *s* subshell outside their filled inner shells. Aluminum (atomic number 13), with 13 electrons and the electron configuration [Ne]$3s^2 3p^1$, is analogous to its family member boron, [He]$2s^2 2p^1$.

The electron configurations of silicon (14 electrons), phosphorus (15 electrons), sulfur (16 electrons), chlorine (17 electrons), and argon (18 electrons) are analogous in the electron configurations of their outer shells to their corresponding family members carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, fluorine, and neon, respectively, except that the principal quantum number of the outer shell of the heavier elements has increased by one to $n = 3$. Figure 9.3.6 shows the lowest energy, or ground-state, electron configuration for these elements as well as that for atoms of each of the known elements.

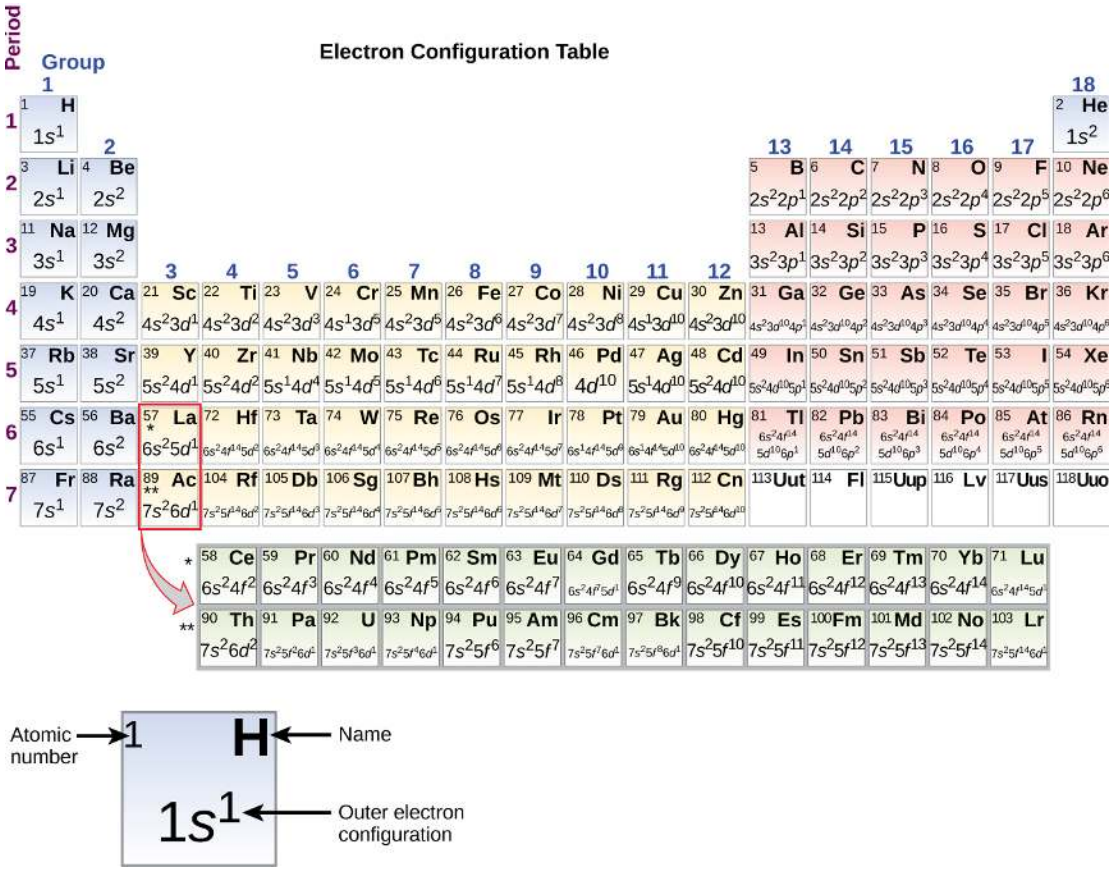


Figure 9.3.6: This version of the periodic table shows the outer-shell electron configuration of each element. Note that down each group, the configuration is often similar.

When we come to the next element in the periodic table, the alkali metal potassium (atomic number 19), we might expect that we would begin to add electrons to the 3*d* subshell. However, all available chemical and physical evidence indicates that potassium is like lithium and sodium, and that the next electron is not added to the 3*d* level but is, instead, added to the 4*s* level (Figure 9.3.3 or 9.3.4). As discussed previously, the 3*d* orbital with no radial nodes is higher in energy because it is less penetrating and more shielded from the nucleus than the 4*s*, which has three radial nodes. Thus, potassium has an electron configuration of $[Ar]4s^1$. Hence, potassium corresponds to Li and Na in its valence shell configuration. The next electron is added to complete the 4*s* subshell and calcium has an electron configuration of $[Ar]4s^2$. This gives calcium an outer-shell electron configuration corresponding to that of beryllium and magnesium.

Beginning with the transition metal scandium (atomic number 21), additional electrons are added successively to the 3*d* subshell. This subshell is filled to its capacity with 10 electrons (remember that for $l = 2$ [*d* orbitals], there are $2l + 1 = 5$ values of m_l, meaning that there are five *d* orbitals that have a combined capacity of 10 electrons). The 4*p* subshell fills next. Note that for three series of elements, scandium (Sc) through copper (Cu), yttrium (Y) through silver (Ag), and lutetium (Lu) through gold (Au), a total of 10 *d* electrons are successively added to the $(n - 1)$ shell next to the *n* shell to bring that $(n - 1)$ shell from 8 to 18 electrons. For two series, lanthanum (La) through lutetium (Lu) and actinium (Ac) through lawrencium (Lr), 14 *f* electrons ($l = 3$, $2l + 1 = 7$ m_l values; thus, seven orbitals with a combined capacity of 14 electrons) are successively added to the $(n - 2)$ shell to bring that shell from 18 electrons to a total of 32 electrons.

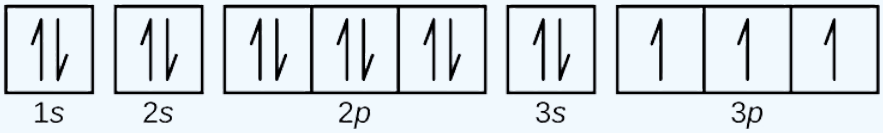
Example 9.3.1: Quantum Numbers and Electron Configurations

What is the electron configuration and orbital diagram for a phosphorus atom? What are the four quantum numbers for the last electron added?

Solution

The atomic number of phosphorus is 15. Thus, a phosphorus atom contains 15 electrons. The order of filling of the energy levels is 1*s*, 2*s*, 2*p*, 3*s*, 3*p*, 4*s*, . . . The 15 electrons of the phosphorus atom will fill up to the 3*p* orbital, which will contain three electrons:

P $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^3$



The last electron added is a 3*p* electron. Therefore, $n = 3$ and, for a *p*-type orbital, $l = 1$. The m_l value could be –1, 0, or +1. The three *p* orbitals are degenerate, so any of these m_l values is correct. For unpaired electrons, convention assigns the value of $+\frac{1}{2}$ for the spin quantum number; thus, $m_s = +\frac{1}{2}$.

Exercise 9.3.1

Identify the atoms from the electron configurations given:

a. $[Ar]4s^2 3d^5$
b. $[Kr]5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6$

Answer a

Mn

Answer b

Xe

The periodic table can be a powerful tool in predicting the electron configuration of an element. However, we do find exceptions to the order of filling of orbitals that are shown in Figure 9.3.3 or 9.3.4. For instance, the electron configurations of the transition metals chromium (Cr; atomic number 24) and copper (Cu; atomic number 29), among others, are not those we would expect. In general, such exceptions involve subshells with very similar energy, and small effects can lead to changes in the order of filling.

In the case of Cr and Cu, we find that half-filled and completely filled subshells apparently represent conditions of preferred stability. This stability is such that an electron shifts from the 4*s* into the 3*d* orbital to gain the extra stability of a half-filled 3*d* subshell (in Cr) or a filled 3*d* subshell (in Cu). Other exceptions also occur. For example, niobium (Nb, atomic number 41) is predicted to have the electron configuration $[Kr]5s^2 4d^3$. Experimentally, we observe that its ground-state electron configuration is actually $[Kr]5s^1 4d^4$. We can rationalize this observation by saying that the electron–electron repulsions experienced by pairing the electrons in the 5*s* orbital are larger than the gap in energy between the 5*s* and 4*d* orbitals. There is no simple method to predict the exceptions for atoms where the magnitude of the repulsions between electrons is greater than the small differences in energy between subshells.

Electron Configurations and the Periodic Table

As described earlier, the periodic table arranges atoms based on increasing atomic number so that elements with the same chemical properties recur periodically. When their electron configurations are added to the table (Figure 9.3.6), we also see a periodic recurrence of similar electron configurations in the outer shells of these elements. Because they are in the outer shells of an atom, valence electrons play the most important role in chemical reactions. The outer electrons have the highest energy of the electrons in

an atom and are more easily lost or shared than the core electrons. Valence electrons are also the determining factor in some physical properties of the elements.

Elements in any one group (or column) have the same number of valence electrons; the alkali metals lithium and sodium each have only one valence electron, the alkaline earth metals beryllium and magnesium each have two, and the halogens fluorine and chlorine each have seven valence electrons. The similarity in chemical properties among elements of the same group occurs because they have the same number of valence electrons. It is the loss, gain, or sharing of valence electrons that defines how elements react.

It is important to remember that the periodic table was developed on the basis of the chemical behavior of the elements, well before any idea of their atomic structure was available. Now we can understand why the periodic table has the arrangement it has—the arrangement puts elements whose atoms have the same number of valence electrons in the same group. This arrangement is emphasized in Figure 9.3.6, which shows in periodic-table form the electron configuration of the last subshell to be filled by the Aufbau principle. The colored sections of Figure 9.3.6 show the three categories of elements classified by the orbitals being filled: main group, transition, and inner transition elements. These classifications determine which orbitals are counted in the valence shell, or highest energy level orbitals of an atom.

1. **Main group elements** (sometimes called **representative elements**) are those in which the last electron added enters an *s* or a *p* orbital in the outermost shell, shown in blue and red in Figure 9.3.6. This category includes all the nonmetallic elements, as well as many metals and the intermediate semimetallic elements. The valence electrons for main group elements are those with the highest *n* level. For example, gallium (Ga, atomic number 31) has the electron configuration [Ar]$\underline{4s}^2 3d^{10} \underline{4p}^1$, which contains three valence electrons (underlined). The completely filled *d* orbitals count as core, not valence, electrons.
2. **Transition elements or transition metals**. These are metallic elements in which the last electron added enters a *d* orbital. The valence electrons (those added after the last noble gas configuration) in these elements include the *ns* and $(n - 1)$ *d* electrons. The official IUPAC definition of transition elements specifies those with partially filled *d* orbitals. Thus, the elements with completely filled orbitals (Zn, Cd, Hg, as well as Cu, Ag, and Au in Figure 9.3.6) are not technically transition elements. However, the term is frequently used to refer to the entire *d* block (colored yellow in Figure 9.3.6), and we will adopt this usage in this textbook.
3. **Inner transition elements** are metallic elements in which the last electron added occupies an *f* orbital. They are shown in green in Figure 9.3.6. The valence shells of the inner transition elements consist of the $(n - 2)f$, the $(n - 1)d$, and the *ns* subshells. There are two inner transition series:
    1. The lanthanide series: lanthanide (La) through lutetium (Lu)
    2. The actinide series: actinide (Ac) through lawrencium (Lr)

Lanthanum and actinium, because of their similarities to the other members of the series, are included and used to name the series, even though they are transition metals with no *f* electrons.

Electron Configurations of Ions

We have seen that ions are formed when atoms gain or lose electrons. A cation (positively charged ion) forms when one or more electrons are removed from a parent atom. For main group elements, the electrons that were added last are the first electrons removed. For transition metals and inner transition metals, however, electrons in the *s* orbital are easier to remove than the *d* or *f* electrons, and so the highest *ns* electrons are lost, and then the $(n - 1)d$ or $(n - 2)f$ electrons are removed. An anion (negatively charged ion) forms when one or more electrons are added to a parent atom. The added electrons fill in the order predicted by the Aufbau principle.

✔ Example 9.3.2: Predicting Electron Configurations of Ions

What is the electron configuration and orbital diagram of:

a. Na^+
b. P^{3-}
c. Al^{2+}
d. Fe^{2+}
e. Sm^{3+}

Solution

First, write out the electron configuration for each parent atom. We have chosen to show the full, unabbreviated configurations to provide more practice for students who want it, but listing the core-abbreviated electron configurations is also acceptable.

Next, determine whether an electron is gained or lost. Remember electrons are negatively charged, so ions with a positive charge have *lost* an electron. For main group elements, the last orbital gains or loses the electron. For transition metals, the last *s* orbital loses an electron before the *d* orbitals.

a. Na: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$. Sodium cation loses one electron, so Na^+: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1 = Na^+$: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$.
b. P: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^3$. Phosphorus trianion gains three electrons, so P^{3-}: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6$.
c. Al: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^1$. Aluminum dication loses two electrons Al^{2+}: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^1 = Al^{2+}$: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$.
d. Fe: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^6$. Iron(II) loses two electrons and, since it is a transition metal, they are removed from the 4*s* orbital Fe^{2+}: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^6 = 1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^6$.
e. Sm: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6 6s^2 4f^6$. Samarium trication loses three electrons. The first two will be lost from the 6*s* orbital, and the final one is removed from the 4*f* orbital. Sm^{3+}: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6 6s^2 4f^6 = 1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6 4f^5$.

? Exercise 9.3.2

a. Which ion with a +2 charge has the electron configuration $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^5$?
b. Which ion with a +3 charge has this configuration?

Answer a

Tc^{2+}

Answer b

Ru^{3+}

Summary

The relative energy of the subshells determine the order in which atomic orbitals are filled (1*s*, 2*s*, 2*p*, 3*s*, 3*p*, 4*s*, 3*d*, 4*p*, and so on). Electron configurations and orbital diagrams can be determined by applying the Pauli exclusion principle (no two electrons can have the same set of four quantum numbers) and Hund's rule (whenever possible, electrons retain unpaired spins in degenerate orbitals).

Electrons in the outermost orbitals, called valence electrons, are responsible for most of the chemical behavior of elements. In the periodic table, elements with analogous valence electron configurations usually occur within the same group. There are some exceptions to the predicted filling order, particularly when half-filled or completely filled orbitals can be formed. The periodic table can be divided into three categories based on the orbital in which the last electron to be added is placed: main group elements (*s* and *p* orbitals), transition elements (*d* orbitals), and inner transition elements (*f* orbitals).

Glossary

Aufbau principle
procedure in which the electron configuration of the elements is determined by "building" them in order of atomic numbers, adding one proton to the nucleus and one electron to the proper subshell at a time

core electron
electron in an atom that occupies the orbitals of the inner shells

electron configuration
electronic structure of an atom in its ground state given as a listing of the orbitals occupied by the electrons

Hund's rule

every orbital in a subshell is singly occupied with one electron before any one orbital is doubly occupied, and all electrons in singly occupied orbitals have the same spin

orbital diagram

pictorial representation of the electron configuration showing each orbital as a box and each electron as an arrow

valence electrons

electrons in the outermost or valence shell (highest value of *n*) of a ground-state atom; determine how an element reacts

valence shell

outermost shell of electrons in a ground-state atom; for main group elements, the orbitals with the highest *n* level (*s* and *p* subshells) are in the valence shell, while for transition metals, the highest energy *s* and *d* subshells make up the valence shell and for inner transition elements, the highest *s*, *d*, and *f* subshells are included

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9.4: Electron Configurations, Valence Electrons, and the Periodic Table

Learning Objectives

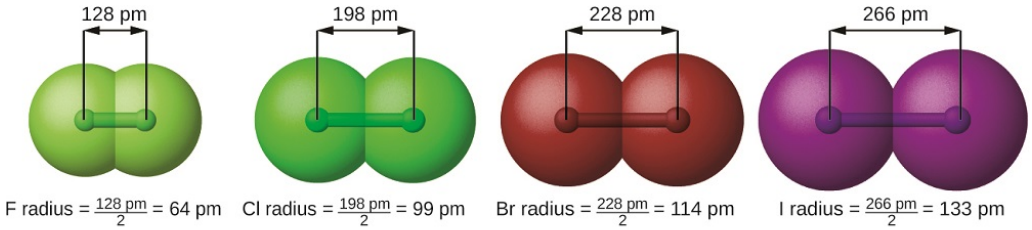
- Describe and explain the observed trends in atomic size, ionization energy, and electron affinity of the elements

The elements in groups (vertical columns) of the periodic table exhibit similar chemical behavior. This similarity occurs because the members of a group have the same number and distribution of electrons in their valence shells. However, there are also other patterns in chemical properties on the periodic table. For example, as we move down a group, the metallic character of the atoms increases. Oxygen, at the top of Group 16 (6A), is a colorless gas; in the middle of the group, selenium is a semiconducting solid; and, toward the bottom, polonium is a silver-grey solid that conducts electricity.

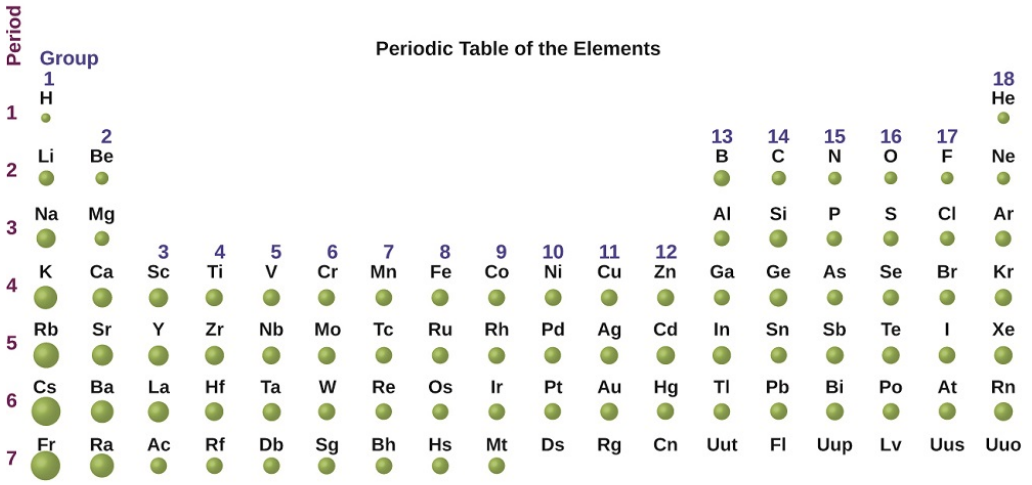
As we go across a period from left to right, we add a proton to the nucleus and an electron to the valence shell with each successive element. As we go down the elements in a group, the number of electrons in the valence shell remains constant, but the principal quantum number increases by one each time. An understanding of the electronic structure of the elements allows us to examine some of the properties that govern their chemical behavior. These properties vary periodically as the electronic structure of the elements changes. They are (1) size (radius) of atoms and ions, (2) ionization energies, and (3) electron affinities.

Variation in Covalent Radius

The quantum mechanical picture makes it difficult to establish a definite size of an atom. However, there are several practical ways to define the radius of atoms and, thus, to determine their relative sizes that give roughly similar values. We will use the covalent radius (Figure 9.4.1), which is defined as one-half the distance between the nuclei of two identical atoms when they are joined by a covalent bond (this measurement is possible because atoms within molecules still retain much of their atomic identity).



(a)



(b)

Figure 9.4.1: (a) The radius of an atom is defined as one-half the distance between the nuclei in a molecule consisting of two identical atoms joined by a covalent bond. The atomic radius for the halogens increases down the group as n increases. (b) Covalent radii of the elements are shown to scale. The general trend is that radii increase down a group and decrease across a period.

This figure has two parts: a and b. In figure a, 4 diatomic molecules are shown to illustrate the method of determining the atomic radius of an atom. The first model, in light green, is used to find the F atom radius. Two spheres are pushed very tightly together. The distance between the centers of the two atoms is indicated above the diagram with a double headed arrow labeled, “128 p m.” The endpoints of this arrow connect to line segments that extend to the atomic radii below. Beneath the molecule is the label, “F radius equals 128 p m divided by 2 equals 64 p m.” The next three models are similarly used to show the atomic radii of additional atoms. The second diatomic molecule is in a darker shade of green. The distance between the radii is 198 p m. Beneath the molecule is the label, “C l radius equals 198 p m divided by 2 equals 99 pm.” The third diatomic molecule is in red. The distance between the radii is 228 p m. Beneath the molecule is the label, “B r radius equals 228 p m divided by 2 equals 114 pm.” The fourth diatomic molecule is in purple. The distance between the radii is 266 p m. Beneath the molecule is the label, “I radius equals 266 p m divided by 2 equals 133 p m.” In figure b, a periodic table layout is used to compare relative sizes of atoms using green spheres. No spheres are provided for the noble or inert gas, group 18 elements. General trends noted are increasing circle size moving from top to bottom in a group, with a general tendency toward increasing atomic radii toward the lower left corner of the periodic table.

We know that as we scan down a group, the principal quantum number, *n*, increases by one for each element. Thus, the electrons are being added to a region of space that is increasingly distant from the nucleus. Consequently, the size of the atom (and its covalent radius) must increase as we increase the distance of the outermost electrons from the nucleus. This trend is illustrated for the covalent radii of the halogens in Table 9.4.1 and Figure 9.4.1. The trends for the entire periodic table can be seen in Figure 9.4.2.

Table 9.4.1: Covalent Radii of the Halogen Group Elements

Atom	Covalent radius (pm)	Nuclear charge
F	64	+9
Cl	99	+17
Br	114	+35
I	133	+53

Atom	Covalent radius (pm)	Nuclear charge
At	148	+85

As shown in Figure 9.4.2, as we move across a period from left to right, we generally find that each element has a smaller covalent radius than the element preceding it. This might seem counterintuitive because it implies that atoms with more electrons have a smaller atomic radius. This can be explained with the concept of effective nuclear charge, Z_{eff}. This is the pull exerted on a specific electron by the nucleus, taking into account any electron–electron repulsions. For hydrogen, there is only one electron and so the nuclear charge (Z) and the effective nuclear charge (Z_{eff}) are equal. For all other atoms, the inner electrons partially *shield* the outer electrons from the pull of the nucleus, and thus:

$$Z_{\text{eff}} = Z - shielding$$

Shielding is determined by the probability of another electron being between the electron of interest and the nucleus, as well as by the electron–electron repulsions the electron of interest encounters. Core electrons are adept at shielding, while electrons in the same valence shell do not block the nuclear attraction experienced by each other as efficiently. Thus, each time we move from one element to the next across a period, Z increases by one, but the shielding increases only slightly. Thus, Z_{eff} increases as we move from left to right across a period. The stronger pull (higher effective nuclear charge) experienced by electrons on the right side of the periodic table draws them closer to the nucleus, making the covalent radii smaller.

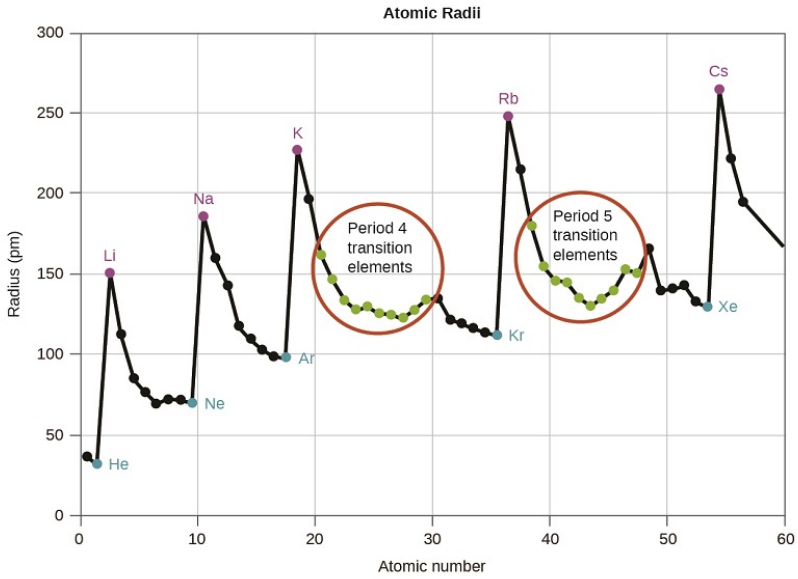


Figure 9.4.2: Within each period, the trend in atomic radius decreases as Z increases; for example, from K to Kr. Within each group (e.g., the alkali metals shown in purple), the trend is that atomic radius increases as Z increases.

This graph is labeled Atomic Number on the horizontal axis and Radius (p m) on the vertical axis. A black jagged line connects the radii values for elements with atomic numbers 1 through 60 on the graph. Peaks are evident at the locations of the alkali metals: L i, N a, K, R b, and C s. Similarly, minima exist at the locations of noble or inert gases: H e, N e, A r, K r, X e, and R n. The locations of period 4 and period 5 transition elements are provided with green dots.

Thus, as we would expect, the outermost or valence electrons are easiest to remove because they have the highest energies, are shielded more, and are farthest from the nucleus. As a general rule, when the representative elements form cations, they do so by the loss of the *ns* or *np* electrons that were added last in the Aufbau process. The transition elements, on the other hand, lose the *ns* electrons before they begin to lose the (*n* – 1)*d* electrons, even though the *ns* electrons are added first, according to the Aufbau principle.

Example 9.4.1: Sorting Atomic Radii

Predict the order of increasing covalent radius for Ge, Fl, Br, Kr.

Solution

Radius increases as we move down a group, so Ge < Fl (Note: Fl is the symbol for flerovium, element 114, NOT fluorine). Radius decreases as we move across a period, so Kr < Br < Ge. Putting the trends together, we obtain Kr < Br < Ge < Fl.

Exercise 9.4.1

Give an example of an atom whose size is smaller than fluorine.

Answer

Ne or He

Variation in Ionic Radii

Ionic radius is the measure used to describe the size of an ion. A cation always has fewer electrons and the same number of protons as the parent atom; it is smaller than the atom from which it is derived (Figure 9.4.3). For example, the covalent radius of an aluminum atom ($1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^1$) is 118 pm, whereas the ionic radius of an Al^{3+} ($1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$) is 68 pm. As electrons are removed from the outer valence shell, the remaining core electrons occupying smaller shells experience a greater effective nuclear charge Z_{eff} (as discussed) and are drawn even closer to the nucleus.



Figure 9.4.3: The radius for a cation is smaller than the parent atom (Al), due to the lost electrons; the radius for an anion is larger than the parent (S), due to the gained electrons.

The figure includes spheres in green to represent the relative sizes of A l and S atoms. Beneath each of these spheres is a red sphere. The red sphere represents the ionic states of aluminum and sulfur respectively. While radius for the aluminum cation is smaller than aluminum, the sulfur anion has a greater radius than sulfur.

Cations with larger charges are smaller than cations with smaller charges (e.g., V^{2+} has an ionic radius of 79 pm, while that of V^{3+} is 64 pm). Proceeding down the groups of the periodic table, we find that cations of successive elements with the same charge generally have larger radii, corresponding to an increase in the principal quantum number, n.

An anion (negative ion) is formed by the addition of one or more electrons to the valence shell of an atom. This results in a greater repulsion among the electrons and a decrease in Z_{eff} per electron. Both effects (the increased number of electrons and the decreased Z_{eff}) cause the radius of an anion to be larger than that of the parent atom (Figure 9.4.3). For example, a sulfur atom ($[Ne]3s^2 3p^4$) has a covalent radius of 104 pm, whereas the ionic radius of the sulfide anion ($[Ne]3s^2 3p^6$) is 170 pm. For consecutive elements proceeding down any group, anions have larger principal quantum numbers and, thus, larger radii.

Atoms and ions that have the same electron configuration are said to be isoelectronic. Examples of isoelectronic species are N^{3-}, O^{2-}, F^-, Ne, Na^+, Mg^{2+}, and Al^{3+} ($1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$). Another isoelectronic series is P^{3-}, S^{2-}, Cl^-, Ar, K^+, Ca^{2+}, and Sc^{3+} ($[Ne]3s^2 3p^6$). For atoms or ions that are isoelectronic, the number of protons determines the size. The greater the nuclear charge, the smaller the radius in a series of isoelectronic ions and atoms.

Variation in Ionization Energies

The amount of energy required to remove the most loosely bound electron from a gaseous atom in its ground state is called its first ionization energy (IE_1). The first ionization energy for an element, X, is the energy required to form a cation with +1 charge:

$$X(g) \longrightarrow X^+(g) + e^- \quad IE_1$$

The energy required to remove the second most loosely bound electron is called the second ionization energy (IE_2).

$$X^+(g) \longrightarrow X^{2+}(g) + e^- \quad IE_2$$

The energy required to remove the third electron is the third ionization energy, and so on. Energy is always required to remove electrons from atoms or ions, so ionization processes are endothermic and IE values are always positive. For larger atoms, the most loosely bound electron is located farther from the nucleus and so is easier to remove. Thus, as size (atomic radius) increases, the ionization energy should decrease. Relating this logic to what we have just learned about radii, we would expect first ionization energies to decrease down a group and to increase across a period.

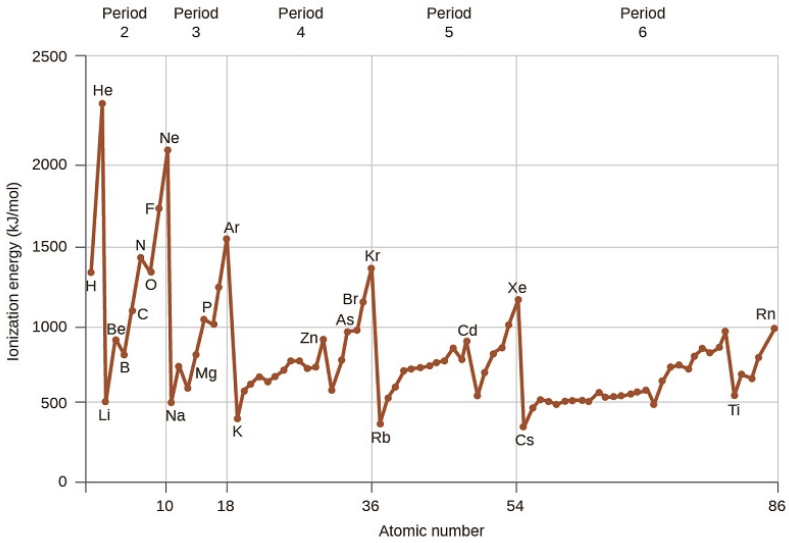


Figure 9.4.4: The first ionization energy of the elements in the first five periods are plotted against their atomic number.
This figure includes Atomic Number on the horizontal axis and, Ionization Energy (k J divided by mol) on the vertical axis. A red jagged line connects the ionization energies for elements with atomic numbers 1 through 86 on the graph. Peaks are evident at the locations of the noble or inert gases: H e, N e, A r, K r, X e, and R n. Similarly, minima exist at the locations of the alkali metals: L i, N a, K, R b, and C s.

Figure 9.4.4 graphs the relationship between the first ionization energy and the atomic number of several elements. Within a period, the values of first ionization energy for the elements (IE_1) generally increases with increasing Z. Down a group, the IE_1 value generally decreases with increasing Z. There are some systematic deviations from this trend, however. Note that the ionization energy of boron (atomic number 5) is less than that of beryllium (atomic number 4) even though the nuclear charge of boron is greater by one proton. This can be explained because the energy of the subshells increases as l increases, due to penetration and shielding (as discussed previously in this chapter). Within any one shell, the s electrons are lower in energy than the p electrons. This means that an s electron is harder to remove from an atom than a p electron in the same shell. The electron removed during the ionization of beryllium ($[He]2s^2$) is an s electron, whereas the electron removed during the ionization of boron ($[He]2s^22p^1$) is a p electron; this results in a lower first ionization energy for boron, even though its nuclear charge is greater by one proton. Thus, we see a small deviation from the predicted trend occurring each time a new subshell begins.

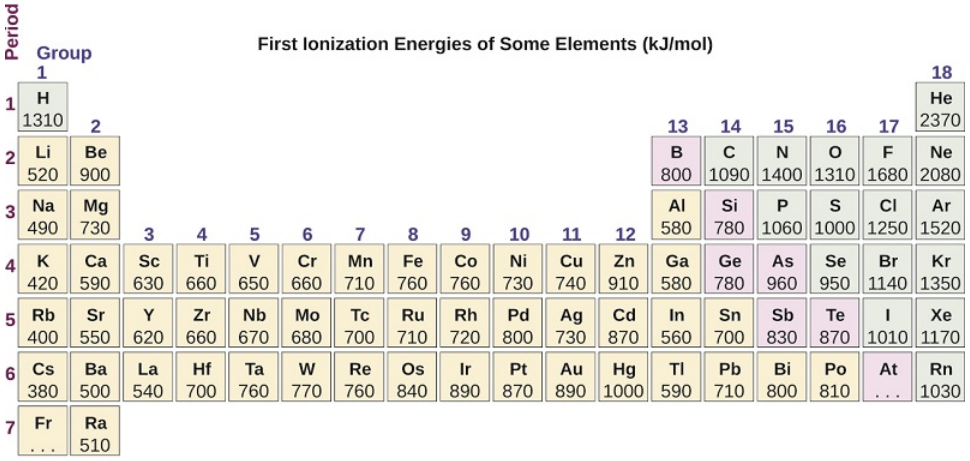
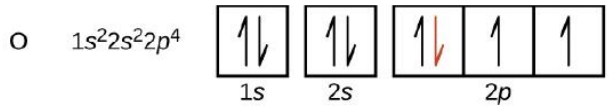


Figure 9.4.5: This version of the periodic table shows the first ionization energy of (IE: $_1$), in kJ/mol, of selected elements.
The trends for first ionization energies across periods and down groups are shown in this version of the periodic table.

Another deviation occurs as orbitals become more than one-half filled. The first ionization energy for oxygen is slightly less than that for nitrogen, despite the trend in increasing IE_1 values across a period. Looking at the orbital diagram of oxygen, we can see that removing one electron will eliminate the electron–electron repulsion caused by pairing the electrons in the 2*p* orbital and will result in a half-filled orbital (which is energetically favorable). Analogous changes occur in succeeding periods (note the dip for sulfur after phosphorus in Figure 9.4.4.



The electronic configuration for oxygen is 1s superscript 2, 2s superscript, 2p superscript 4. An orbital diagram shows 2 squares each filled with a pair of opposite pointing arrows to represent the 1s ans 2s orbitals. Each of the three connected square which represents the 2p orbitals are filled with one arrow respectively with the addition of 1 red arrow in the first of the three squares.

Removing an electron from a cation is more difficult than removing an electron from a neutral atom because of the greater electrostatic attraction to the cation. Likewise, removing an electron from a cation with a higher positive charge is more difficult than removing an electron from an ion with a lower charge. Thus, successive ionization energies for one element always increase. As seen in Table 9.4.2, there is a large increase in the ionization energies (color change) for each element. This jump corresponds to removal of the core electrons, which are harder to remove than the valence electrons. For example, Sc and Ga both have three valence electrons, so the rapid increase in ionization energy occurs after the third ionization.

Table 9.4.2: Successive Ionization Energies for Selected Elements (kJ/mol)

Element	IE_1	IE_2	IE_3	IE_4	IE_5	IE_6	IE_7
K	418.8	3051.8	4419.6	5876.9	7975.5	9590.6	11343
Ca	589.8	1145.4	4912.4	6490.6	8153.0	10495.7	12272.9
Sc	633.1	1235.0	2388.7	7090.6	8842.9	10679.0	13315.0
Ga	578.8	1979.4	2964.6	6180	8298.7	10873.9	13594.8
Ge	762.2	1537.5	3302.1	4410.6	9021.4	Not available	Not available
As	944.5	1793.6	2735.5	4836.8	6042.9	12311.5	Not available

✔ Example 9.4.2: Ranking Ionization Energies

Predict the order of increasing energy for the following processes: IE_1 for Al, IE_1 for Tl, IE_2 for Na, IE_3 for Al.

Solution

Removing the $6p^1$ electron from Tl is easier than removing the $3p^1$ electron from Al because the higher *n* orbital is farther from the nucleus, so $IE_1(Tl) < IE_1(Al)$. Ionizing the third electron from

$$\mathrm{Al} \quad (\mathrm{Al}^{2+} \longrightarrow \mathrm{Al}^{3+} + \mathrm{e}^-)$$

requires more energy because the cation Al^{2+} exerts a stronger pull on the electron than the neutral Al atom, so $IE_1(Al) < IE_3(Al)$. The second ionization energy for sodium removes a core electron, which is a much higher energy process than removing valence electrons. Putting this all together, we obtain:

$$IE_1(Tl) < IE_1(Al) < IE_3(Al) < IE_2(Na).$$

? Exercise 9.4.2

Which has the lowest value for IE_1: O, Po, Pb, or Ba?

Answer

Ba

Variation in Electron Affinities

The electron affinity [EA] is the energy change for the process of adding an electron to a gaseous atom to form an anion (negative ion).

$$\mathrm{X}(g) + \mathrm{e}^- \longrightarrow \mathrm{X}^-(g) \quad \mathrm{EA}_1$$

This process can be either endothermic or exothermic, depending on the element. The EA of some of the elements is given in Figure 9.4.6. You can see that many of these elements have negative values of EA, which means that energy is released when the gaseous atom accepts an electron. However, for some elements, energy is required for the atom to become negatively charged and the value of their EA is positive. Just as with ionization energy, subsequent EA values are associated with forming ions with more charge. The second EA is the energy associated with adding an electron to an anion to form a –2 ion, and so on.

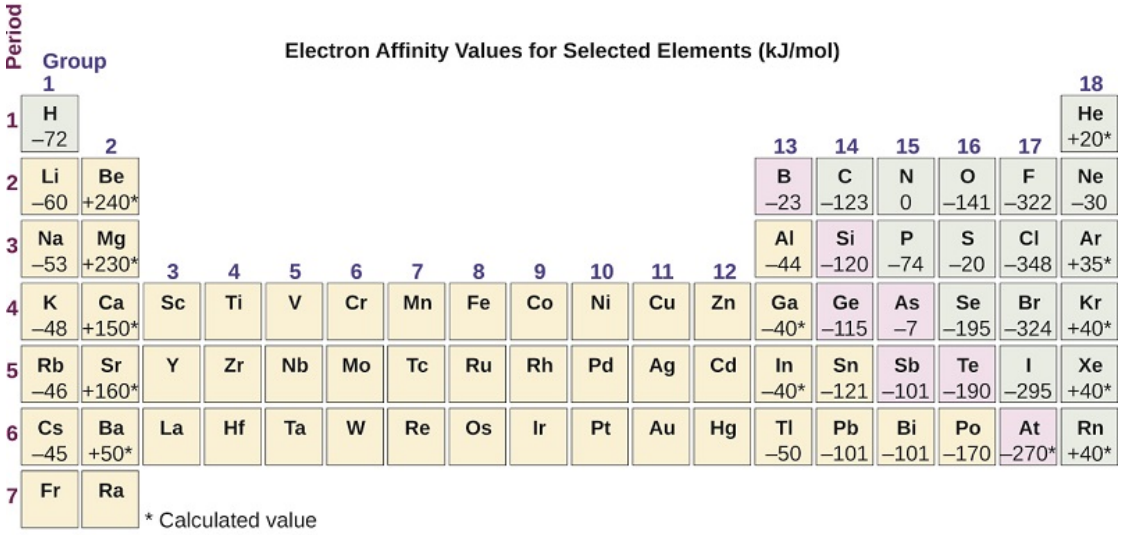


Figure 9.4.6: This version of the periodic table displays the electron affinity values (in kJ/mol) for selected elements.:
The trend for electron affinity values across periods and down groups is shown in this version of the periodic table. Values are not shown for groups 3 to 12 as well as period 7.

As we might predict, it becomes easier to add an electron across a series of atoms as the effective nuclear charge of the atoms increases. We find, as we go from left to right across a period, EAs tend to become more negative. The exceptions found among the elements of group 2 (2A), group 15 (5A), and group 18 (8A) can be understood based on the electronic structure of these groups. The noble gases, group 18 (8A), have a completely filled shell and the incoming electron must be added to a higher *n* level, which is more difficult to do. Group 2 (2A) has a filled *ns* subshell, and so the next electron added goes into the higher energy *np*, so, again, the observed EA value is not as the trend would predict. Finally, group 15 (5A) has a half-filled *np* subshell and the next electron must be paired with an existing *np* electron. In all of these cases, the initial relative stability of the electron configuration disrupts the trend in EA.

We also might expect the atom at the top of each group to have the largest EA; their first ionization potentials suggest that these atoms have the largest effective nuclear charges. However, as we move down a group, we see that the second element in the group most often has the greatest EA. The reduction of the EA of the first member can be attributed to the small size of the $n = 2$ shell and the resulting large electron–electron repulsions. For example, chlorine, with an EA value of –348 kJ/mol, has the highest value of any element in the periodic table. The EA of fluorine is –322 kJ/mol. When we add an electron to a fluorine atom to form a fluoride anion (F^-), we add an electron to the $n = 2$ shell. The electron is attracted to the nucleus, but there is also significant repulsion from the other electrons already present in this small valence shell. The chlorine atom has the same electron configuration in the valence shell, but because the entering electron is going into the $n = 3$ shell, it occupies a considerably larger region of space and the electron–electron repulsions are reduced. The entering electron does not experience as much repulsion and the chlorine atom accepts an additional electron more readily.

The properties discussed in this section (size of atoms and ions, effective nuclear charge, ionization energies, and electron affinities) are central to understanding chemical reactivity. For example, because fluorine has an energetically favorable EA and a

large energy barrier to ionization (IE), it is much easier to form fluorine anions than cations. Metallic properties including conductivity and malleability (the ability to be formed into sheets) depend on having electrons that can be removed easily. Thus, metallic character increases as we move down a group and decreases across a period in the same trend observed for atomic size because it is easier to remove an electron that is farther away from the nucleus.

Summary

Electron configurations allow us to understand many periodic trends. Covalent radius increases as we move down a group because the *n* level (orbital size) increases. Covalent radius mostly decreases as we move left to right across a period because the effective nuclear charge experienced by the electrons increases, and the electrons are pulled in tighter to the nucleus. Anionic radii are larger than the parent atom, while cationic radii are smaller, because the number of valence electrons has changed while the nuclear charge has remained constant. Ionization energy (the energy associated with forming a cation) decreases down a group and mostly increases across a period because it is easier to remove an electron from a larger, higher energy orbital. Electron affinity (the energy associated with forming an anion) is more favorable (exothermic) when electrons are placed into lower energy orbitals, closer to the nucleus. Therefore, electron affinity becomes increasingly negative as we move left to right across the periodic table and decreases as we move down a group. For both IE and electron affinity data, there are exceptions to the trends when dealing with completely filled or half-filled subshells.

Glossary

covalent radius
: one-half the distance between the nuclei of two identical atoms when they are joined by a covalent bond

effective nuclear charge
: charge that leads to the Coulomb force exerted by the nucleus on an electron, calculated as the nuclear charge minus shielding

electron affinity
: energy required to add an electron to a gaseous atom to form an anion

ionization energy
: energy required to remove an electron from a gaseous atom or ion. The associated number (e.g., second ionization energy) corresponds to the charge of the ion produced (X^{2+})

isoelectronic
: group of ions or atoms that have identical electron configurations

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9.4: Electron Configurations, Valence Electrons, and the Periodic Table is shared under a not declared license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by LibreTexts.

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9.5: The Explanatory Power of the Quantum-Mechanical Model

The chemical properties of elements are largely determined by the number of valence electrons they contain

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9.6: Periodic Trends in the Size of Atoms and Effective Nuclear Charge

Learning Objectives

- To understand periodic trends in atomic radii.
- To predict relative ionic sizes within an isoelectronic series.

Although some people fall into the trap of visualizing atoms and ions as small, hard spheres similar to miniature table-tennis balls or marbles, the quantum mechanical model tells us that their shapes and boundaries are much less definite than those images suggest. As a result, atoms and ions cannot be said to have exact sizes; however, some atoms are larger or smaller than others, and this influences their chemistry. In this section, we discuss how atomic and ion "sizes" are defined and obtained.

Atomic Radii

Recall that the probability of finding an electron in the various available orbitals falls off slowly as the distance from the nucleus increases. This point is illustrated in Figure 9.6.1 which shows a plot of total electron density for all occupied orbitals for three noble gases as a function of their distance from the nucleus. Electron density diminishes gradually with increasing distance, which makes it impossible to draw a sharp line marking the boundary of an atom.

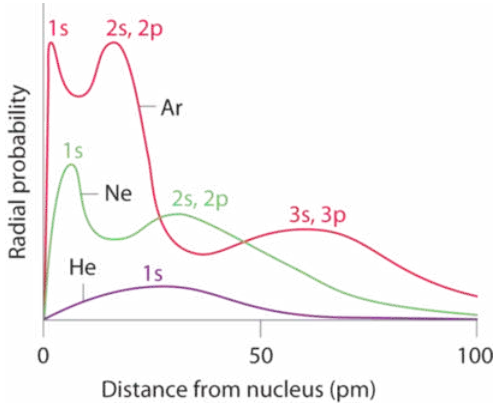


Figure 9.6.1: Plots of Radial Probability as a Function of Distance from the Nucleus for He, Ne, and Ar. In He, the 1*s* electrons have a maximum radial probability at ≈30 pm from the nucleus. In Ne, the 1*s* electrons have a maximum at ≈8 pm, and the 2*s* and 2*p* electrons combine to form another maximum at ≈35 pm (the $n = 2$ shell). In Ar, the 1*s* electrons have a maximum at ≈2 pm, the 2*s* and 2*p* electrons combine to form a maximum at ≈18 pm, and the 3*s* and 3*p* electrons combine to form a maximum at ≈70 pm.

Figure 9.6.1 also shows that there are distinct peaks in the total electron density at particular distances and that these peaks occur at different distances from the nucleus for each element. Each peak in a given plot corresponds to the electron density in a given principal shell. Because helium has only one filled shell ($n = 1$), it shows only a single peak. In contrast, neon, with filled $n = 1$ and 2 principal shells, has two peaks. Argon, with filled $n = 1$, 2, and 3 principal shells, has three peaks. The peak for the filled $n = 1$ shell occurs at successively shorter distances for neon ($Z = 10$) and argon ($Z = 18$) because, with a greater number of protons, their nuclei are more positively charged than that of helium. Because the $1s^2$ shell is closest to the nucleus, its electrons are very poorly shielded by electrons in filled shells with larger values of n. Consequently, the two electrons in the $n = 1$ shell experience nearly the full nuclear charge, resulting in a strong electrostatic interaction between the electrons and the nucleus. The energy of the $n = 1$ shell also decreases tremendously (the filled 1*s* orbital becomes more stable) as the nuclear charge increases. For similar reasons, the filled $n = 2$ shell in argon is located closer to the nucleus and has a lower energy than the $n = 2$ shell in neon.

Figure 9.6.1 illustrates the difficulty of measuring the dimensions of an individual atom. Because distances between the nuclei in pairs of covalently bonded atoms can be measured quite precisely, however, chemists use these distances as a basis for describing the approximate sizes of atoms. For example, the internuclear distance in the diatomic Cl_2 molecule is known to be 198 pm. We assign half of this distance to each chlorine atom, giving chlorine a **covalent atomic radius** (r_{cov}), which is half the distance between the nuclei of two like atoms joined by a covalent bond in the same molecule, of 99 pm or 0.99 Å (Figure 9.6.2*a*). Atomic radii are often measured in angstroms (Å), a non-SI unit: $1 \text{ Å} = 1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m} = 100 \text{ pm}$.

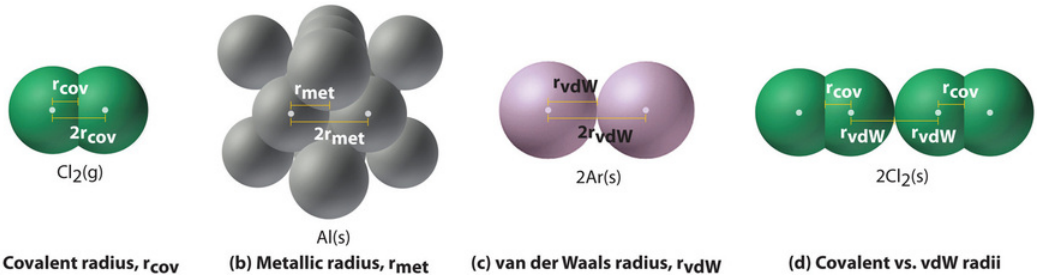


Figure 9.6.2: Definitions of the Atomic Radius. (a) The covalent atomic radius, r_{cov}, is half the distance between the nuclei of two like atoms joined by a covalent bond in the same molecule, such as Cl_2. (b) The metallic atomic radius, r_{met}, is half the distance between the nuclei of two adjacent atoms in a pure solid metal, such as aluminum. (c) The van der Waals atomic radius, r_{vdW}, is half the distance between the nuclei of two like atoms, such as argon, that are closely packed but not bonded. (d) This is a depiction of covalent versus van der Waals radii of chlorine. The covalent radius of Cl_2 is half the distance between the two chlorine atoms in a single molecule of Cl_2. The van der Waals radius is half the distance between chlorine nuclei in two different but touching Cl_2 molecules. Which do you think is larger? Why?

In a similar approach, we can use the lengths of carbon–carbon single bonds in organic compounds, which are remarkably uniform at 154 pm, to assign a value of 77 pm as the covalent atomic radius for carbon. If these values do indeed reflect the actual sizes of the atoms, then we should be able to predict the lengths of covalent bonds formed between different elements by adding them. For example, we would predict a carbon–chlorine distance of 77 pm + 99 pm = 176 pm for a C–Cl bond, which is very close to the average value observed in many organochlorine compounds. A similar approach for measuring the size of ions is discussed later in this section.

Covalent atomic radii can be determined for most of the nonmetals, but how do chemists obtain atomic radii for elements that do not form covalent bonds? For these elements, a variety of other methods have been developed. With a metal, for example, the **metallic atomic radius** (r_{met}) is defined as half the distance between the nuclei of two adjacent metal atoms in the solid (Figure 9.6.2*b*). For elements such as the noble gases, most of which form no stable compounds, we can use what is called the **van der Waals atomic radius** (r_{vdW}), which is half the internuclear distance between two nonbonded atoms in the solid (Figure 9.6.2*c*). This is somewhat difficult for helium which does not form a solid at any temperature. An atom such as chlorine has both a covalent radius (the distance between the two atoms in a Cl_2 molecule) and a van der Waals radius (the distance between two Cl atoms in different molecules in, for example, $Cl_2(s)$ at low temperatures). These radii are generally not the same (Figure 9.6.2*d*).

Periodic Trends in Atomic Radii

Because it is impossible to measure the sizes of both metallic and nonmetallic elements using any one method, chemists have developed a self-consistent way of calculating atomic radii using the quantum mechanical functions. Although the radii values obtained by such calculations are not identical to any of the experimentally measured sets of values, they do provide a way to compare the intrinsic sizes of all the elements and clearly show that atomic size varies in a periodic fashion (Figure 9.6.3).

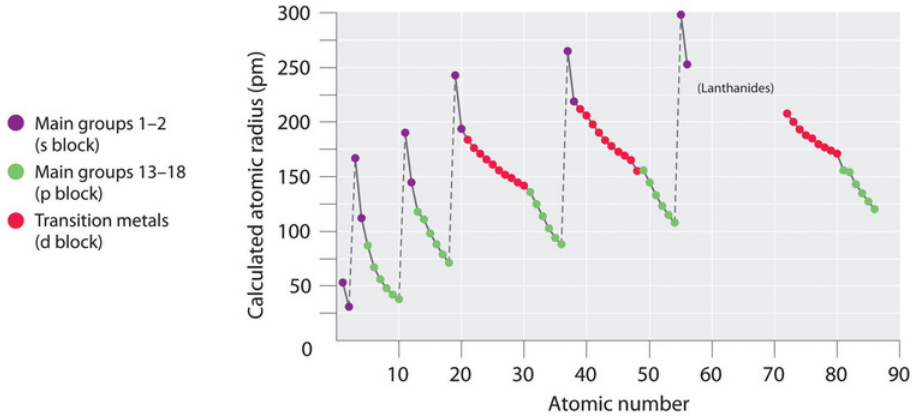


Figure 9.6.3: A Plot of Periodic Variation of Atomic Radius with Atomic Number for the First Six Rows of the Periodic Table

In the periodic table, atomic radii decrease from left to right across a row and increase from top to bottom down a column. Because of these two trends, the largest atoms are found in the lower left corner of the periodic table, and the smallest are found in the upper right corner (Figure 9.6.4).

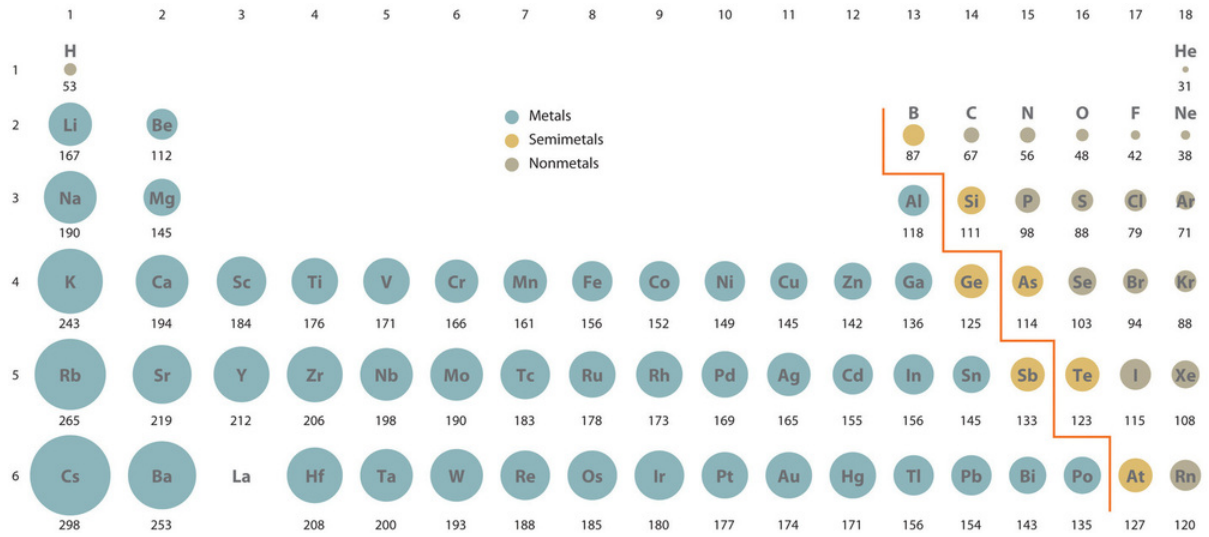


Figure 9.6.4 Calculated Atomic Radii (in Picometers) of the *s*-, *p*-, and *d*-Block Elements. The sizes of the circles illustrate the relative sizes of the atoms. The calculated values are based on quantum mechanical wave functions. Source: Web elements [www.webelements.com]. Web Elements is an excellent online source for looking up atomic properties.

Trends in atomic size result from differences in the **effective nuclear charges** (Z_{eff}) experienced by electrons in the outermost orbitals of the elements. For all elements except H, the effective nuclear charge is always *less* than the actual nuclear charge because of shielding effects. The greater the effective nuclear charge, the more strongly the outermost electrons are attracted to the nucleus and the smaller the atomic radius.

> *Atomic radii decrease from left to right across a row and increase from top to bottom down a column.*

The atoms in the second row of the periodic table (Li through Ne) illustrate the effect of electron shielding. All have a filled $1s^2$ inner shell, but as we go from left to right across the row, the nuclear charge increases from +3 to +10. Although electrons are being added to the 2*s* and 2*p* orbitals, *electrons in the same principal shell are not very effective at shielding one another from the nuclear charge*. Thus the single 2*s* electron in lithium experiences an effective nuclear charge of approximately +1 because the electrons in the filled $1s^2$ shell effectively neutralize two of the three positive charges in the nucleus. (More detailed calculations give a value of Z_{eff} = +1.26 for Li.) In contrast, the two 2*s* electrons in beryllium do not shield each other very well, although the filled $1s^2$ shell effectively neutralizes two of the four positive charges in the nucleus. This means that the effective nuclear charge experienced by the 2*s* electrons in beryllium is between +1 and +2 (the calculated value is +1.66). Consequently, beryllium is significantly smaller than lithium. Similarly, as we proceed across the row, the increasing nuclear charge is not effectively neutralized by the electrons being added to the 2*s* and 2*p* orbitals. The result is a steady increase in the effective nuclear charge and a steady decrease in atomic size (Figure 9.6.5).

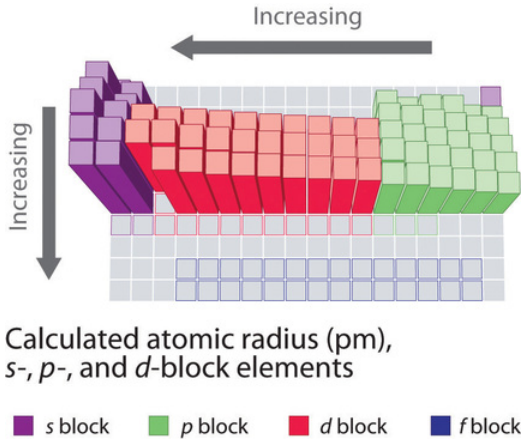


Figure 9.6.5: The Atomic Radius of the Elements. The atomic radius of the elements increases as we go from right to left across a period and as we go down the periods in a group.

The increase in atomic size going down a column is also due to electron shielding, but the situation is more complex because the principal quantum number *n* is not constant. As we saw in Chapter 2, the size of the orbitals increases as *n* increases, *provided the nuclear charge remains the same*. In group 1, for example, the size of the atoms increases substantially going down the column. It may at first seem reasonable to attribute this effect to the successive addition of electrons to *ns* orbitals with increasing values of *n*. However, it is important to remember that the radius of an orbital depends dramatically on the nuclear charge. As we go down the column of the group 1 elements, the principal quantum number *n* increases from 2 to 6, but the nuclear charge increases from +3 to +55!

As a consequence the radii of the **lower electron orbitals** in Cesium are much smaller than those in lithium and the electrons in those orbitals experience a much larger force of attraction to the nucleus. That force depends on the effective nuclear charge experienced by the the inner electrons. If the outermost electrons in cesium experienced the full nuclear charge of +55, a cesium atom would be very small indeed. In fact, the effective nuclear charge felt by the outermost electrons in cesium is much less than expected (6 rather than 55). This means that cesium, with a $6s^1$ valence electron configuration, is much larger than lithium, with a $2s^1$ valence electron configuration. The effective nuclear charge changes relatively little for electrons in the outermost, or valence shell, from lithium to cesium because *electrons in filled inner shells are highly effective at shielding electrons in outer shells from the nuclear charge*. Even though cesium has a nuclear charge of +55, it has 54 electrons in its filled $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^6 5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6$ shells, abbreviated as $[Xe]5s^2 4d^{10} 5p^6$, which effectively neutralize most of the 55 positive charges in the nucleus. The same dynamic is responsible for the steady increase in size observed as we go down the other columns of the periodic table. Irregularities can usually be explained by variations in effective nuclear charge.

Not all Electrons shield equally

Electrons in the same principal shell are not very effective at shielding one another from the nuclear charge, whereas electrons in filled inner shells are highly effective at shielding electrons in outer shells from the nuclear charge.

Example 9.6.1

On the basis of their positions in the periodic table, arrange these elements in order of increasing atomic radius: aluminum, carbon, and silicon.

Given: three elements

Asked for: arrange in order of increasing atomic radius

Strategy:

A. Identify the location of the elements in the periodic table. Determine the relative sizes of elements located in the same column from their principal quantum number *n*. Then determine the order of elements in the same row from their effective nuclear charges. If the elements are not in the same column or row, use pairwise comparisons.

B. List the elements in order of increasing atomic radius.

Solution:

A These elements are not all in the same column or row, so we must use pairwise comparisons. Carbon and silicon are both in group 14 with carbon lying above, so carbon is smaller than silicon (C < Si). Aluminum and silicon are both in the third row with aluminum lying to the left, so silicon is smaller than aluminum (Si < Al) because its effective nuclear charge is greater.

B Combining the two inequalities gives the overall order: C < Si < Al.

Exercise 9.6.1

On the basis of their positions in the periodic table, arrange these elements in order of increasing size: oxygen, phosphorus, potassium, and sulfur.

Answer

O < S < P < K



Atomic Radius: Atomic Radius, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Ionic Radii and Isoelectronic Series

An ion is formed when either one or more electrons are removed from a neutral atom to form a positive ion (cation) or when additional electrons attach themselves to neutral atoms to form a negative one (anion). The designations cation or anion come from the early experiments with electricity which found that positively charged particles were attracted to the negative pole of a battery, the cathode, while negatively charged ones were attracted to the positive pole, the anode.

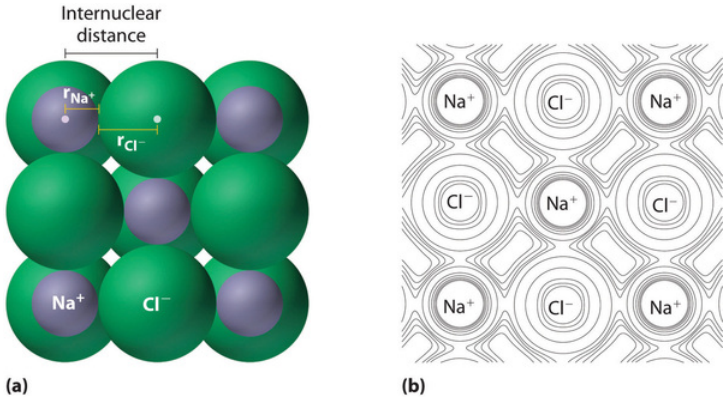


Figure 9.6.6: Definition of Ionic Radius. (a) The internuclear distance is apportioned between adjacent cations (positively charged ions) and anions (negatively charged ions) in the ionic structure, as shown here for Na^+ and Cl^- in sodium chloride. (b) This depiction of electron density contours for a single plane of atoms in the NaCl structure shows how the lines connect points of equal electron density. Note the relative sizes of the electron density contour lines around Cl^- and Na^+.

Ionic compounds consist of regular repeating arrays of alternating positively charged cations and negatively charges anions. Although it is not possible to measure an ionic radius directly for the same reason it is not possible to directly measure an atom's radius, it *is* possible to measure the distance between the nuclei of a cation and an adjacent anion in an ionic compound to determine the ionic radius (the radius of a cation or anion) of one or both. As illustrated in Figure 9.6.6, the internuclear distance corresponds to the *sum* of the radii of the cation and anion. A variety of methods have been developed to divide the experimentally measured distance proportionally between the smaller cation and larger anion. These methods produce sets of ionic radii that are internally consistent from one ionic compound to another, although each method gives slightly different values. For example, the radius of the Na^+ ion is essentially the same in NaCl and Na_2S, as long as the same method is used to measure it. Thus despite minor differences due to methodology, certain trends can be observed.

A comparison of ionic radii with atomic radii (Figure 9.6.7) shows that *a cation, having lost an electron, is always smaller than its parent neutral atom, and an anion, having gained an electron, is always larger than the parent neutral atom*. When one or more electrons is removed from a neutral atom, two things happen: (1) repulsions between electrons in the same principal shell decrease because fewer electrons are present, and (2) the effective nuclear charge felt by the remaining electrons increases because there are fewer electrons to shield one another from the nucleus. Consequently, the size of the region of space occupied by electrons decreases and the ion shrinks (compare Li at 167 pm with Li^+ at 76 pm). If different numbers of electrons can be removed to

produce ions with different charges, the ion with the greatest positive charge is the smallest (compare Fe^{2+} at 78 pm with Fe^{3+} at 64.5 pm). Conversely, adding one or more electrons to a neutral atom causes electron–electron repulsions to increase and the effective nuclear charge to decrease, so the size of the probability region increases and the ion expands (compare F at 42 pm with F^- at 133 pm).

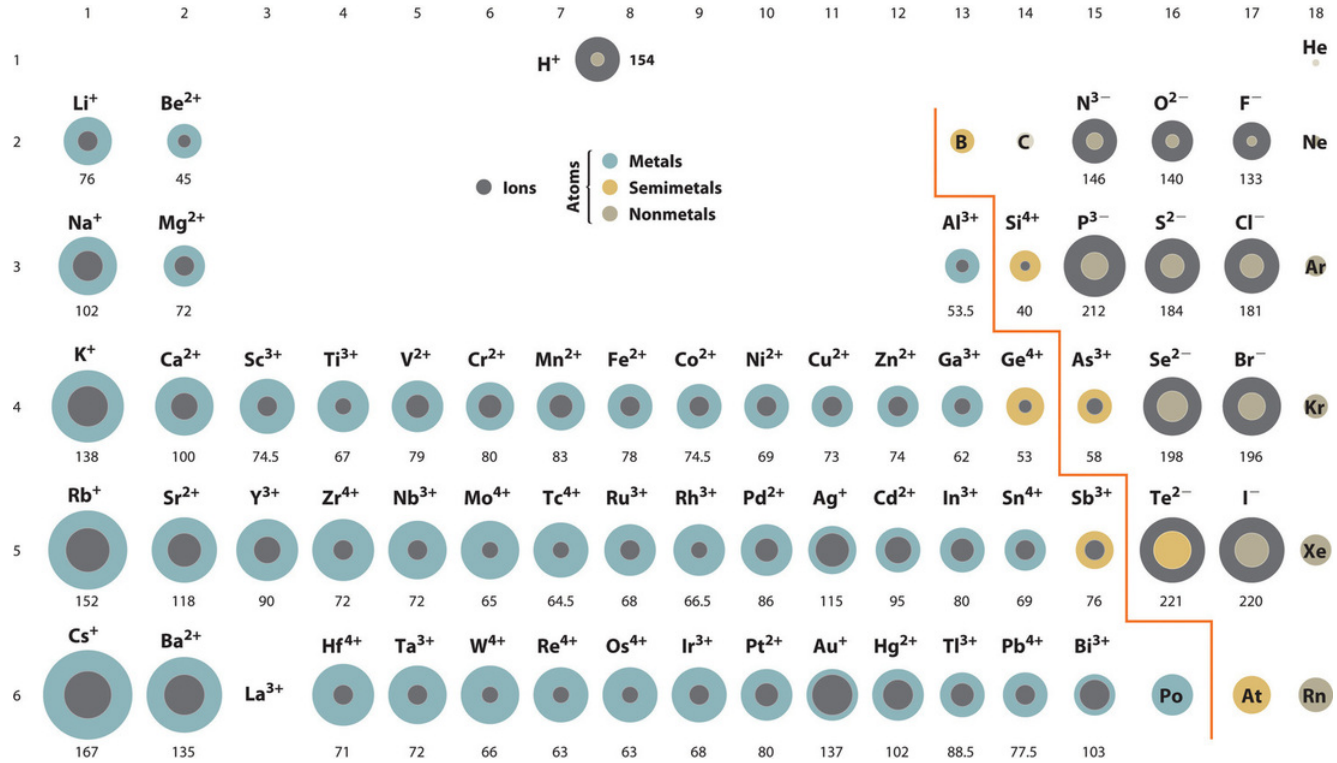


Figure 9.6.7: Ionic Radii (in Picometers) of the Most Common Ionic States of the *s*-, *p*-, and *d*-Block Elements.Gray circles indicate the sizes of the ions shown; colored circles indicate the sizes of the neutral atoms. Source: Ionic radius data from R. D. Shannon, "Revised effective ionic radii and systematic studies of interatomic distances in halides and chalcogenides," *Acta Crystallographica* 32, no. 5 (1976): 751–767.

> *Cations are **always** smaller than the neutral atom and anions are **always** larger.*

Because most elements form either a cation or an anion but not both, there are few opportunities to compare the sizes of a cation and an anion derived from the same neutral atom. A few compounds of sodium, however, contain the Na^- ion, allowing comparison of its size with that of the far more familiar Na^+ ion, which is found in *many* compounds. The radius of sodium in each of its three known oxidation states is given in Table 9.6.1. All three species have a nuclear charge of +11, but they contain 10 (Na^+), 11 (Na^0), and 12 (Na^-) electrons. The Na^+ ion is significantly smaller than the neutral Na atom because the $3s^1$ electron has been removed to give a closed shell with $n = 2$. The Na^- ion is larger than the parent Na atom because the additional electron produces a $3s^2$ valence electron configuration, while the nuclear charge remains the same.

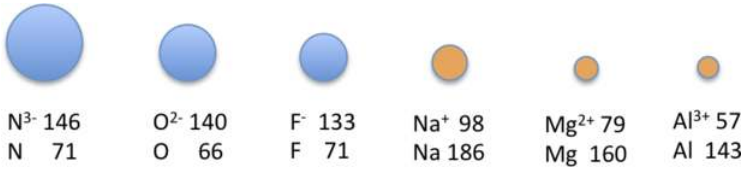
Table 9.6.1: Experimentally Measured Values for the Radius of Sodium in Its Three Known Oxidation States

	Na^+	Na^0	Na^-
Electron Configuration	$1s^22s^22p^6$	$1s^22s^22p^63s^1$	$1s^22s^22p^63s^2$
Radius (pm)	102	154*	202†

*The metallic radius measured for Na(s). †Source: M. J. Wagner and J. L. Dye, "Alkalides, Electrides, and Expanded Metals," Annual Review of Materials Science 23 (1993): 225–253.

Ionic radii follow the same vertical trend as atomic radii; that is, for ions with the same charge, the ionic radius increases going down a column. The reason is the same as for atomic radii: shielding by filled inner shells produces little change in the effective nuclear charge felt by the outermost electrons. Again, principal shells with larger values of *n* lie at successively greater distances from the nucleus.

Because elements in different columns tend to form ions with different charges, it is not possible to compare ions of the same charge across a row of the periodic table. Instead, elements that are next to each other tend to form ions with the same number of electrons but with different overall charges because of their different atomic numbers. Such a set of species is known as an **isoelectronic series**. For example, the isoelectronic series of species with the neon closed-shell configuration ($1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$) is shown in Table 9.6.3.



The sizes of the ions in this series decrease smoothly from N^{3-} to Al^{3+}. All six of the ions contain 10 electrons in the 1*s*, 2*s*, and 2*p* orbitals, but the nuclear charge varies from +7 (N) to +13 (Al). As the positive charge of the nucleus increases while the number of electrons remains the same, there is a greater electrostatic attraction between the electrons and the nucleus, which causes a decrease in radius. Consequently, the ion with the greatest nuclear charge (Al^{3+}) is the smallest, and the ion with the smallest nuclear charge (N^{3-}) is the largest. The neon atom in this isoelectronic series is not listed in Table 9.6.3, because neon forms no covalent or ionic compounds and hence its radius is difficult to measure.

Table 9.6.3: Radius of Ions with the Neon Closed-Shell Electron Configuration. Source: R. D. Shannon, "Revised effective ionic radii and systematic studies of interatomic distances in halides and chalcogenides," Acta Crystallographica 32, no. 5 (1976): 751–767.

Ion	Radius (pm)	Atomic Number
N^{3-}	146	7
O^{2-}	140	8
F^-	133	9
Na^+	98	11
Mg^{2+}	79	12
Al^{3+}	57	13

Example 9.6.2

Based on their positions in the periodic table, arrange these ions in order of increasing radius: Cl^-, K^+, S^{2-}, and Se^{2-}.

Given: four ions

Asked for: order by increasing radius

Strategy:

A. Determine which ions form an isoelectronic series. Of those ions, predict their relative sizes based on their nuclear charges. For ions that do not form an isoelectronic series, locate their positions in the periodic table.

B. Determine the relative sizes of the ions based on their principal quantum numbers *n* and their locations within a row.

Solution:

A We see that S and Cl are at the right of the third row, while K and Se are at the far left and right ends of the fourth row, respectively. K^+, Cl^-, and S^{2-} form an isoelectronic series with the [Ar] closed-shell electron configuration; that is, all three ions contain 18 electrons but have different nuclear charges. Because K^+ has the greatest nuclear charge ($Z = 19$), its radius is smallest, and S^{2-} with $Z = 16$ has the largest radius. Because selenium is directly below sulfur, we expect the Se^{2-} ion to be even larger than S^{2-}.

B The order must therefore be $K^+ < Cl^- < S^{2-} < Se^{2-}$.

Exercise 9.6.2

Based on their positions in the periodic table, arrange these ions in order of increasing size: Br^-, Ca^{2+}, Rb^+, and Sr^{2+}.

Answer

$Ca^{2+} < Sr^{2+} < Rb^+ < Br^-$

Summary

Ionic radii share the same vertical trend as atomic radii, but the horizontal trends differ due to differences in ionic charges. A variety of methods have been established to measure the size of a single atom or ion. The **covalent atomic radius (r_{cov})** is half the internuclear distance in a molecule with two identical atoms bonded to each other, whereas the **metallic atomic radius (r_{met})** is defined as half the distance between the nuclei of two adjacent atoms in a metallic element. The **van der Waals radius (r_{vdW})** of an element is half the internuclear distance between two nonbonded atoms in a solid. Atomic radii decrease from left to right across a row because of the increase in effective nuclear charge due to poor electron screening by other electrons in the same principal shell. Moreover, atomic radii increase from top to bottom down a column because the effective nuclear charge remains relatively constant as the principal quantum number increases. The **ionic radii** of cations and anions are always smaller or larger, respectively, than the parent atom due to changes in electron–electron repulsions, and the trends in ionic radius parallel those in atomic size. A comparison of the dimensions of atoms or ions that have the same number of electrons but different nuclear charges, called an **isoelectronic series**, shows a clear correlation between increasing nuclear charge and decreasing size.

Contributors and Attributions

- Modified by Joshua Halpern (Howard University)

Learning Objectives

- To understand the basics of electron shielding and penetration

For an atom or an ion with only a single electron, we can calculate the potential energy by considering only the electrostatic attraction between the positively charged nucleus and the negatively charged electron. When more than one electron is present, however, the total energy of the atom or the ion depends not only on attractive electron-nucleus interactions but also on repulsive electron-electron interactions. When there are two electrons, the repulsive interactions depend on the positions of *both* electrons at a given instant, but because we cannot specify the exact positions of the electrons, it is impossible to exactly calculate the repulsive interactions. Consequently, we must use approximate methods to deal with the effect of electron-electron repulsions on orbital energies. These effects are the underlying basis for the periodic trends in elemental properties that we will explore in this chapter.

Electron Shielding and Effective Nuclear Charge

If an electron is far from the nucleus (i.e., if the distance r between the nucleus and the electron is large), then at any given moment, many of the other electrons will be *between* that electron and the nucleus (Figure 9.6.1). Hence the electrons will cancel a portion of the positive charge of the nucleus and thereby decrease the attractive interaction between it and the electron farther away. As a result, the electron farther away experiences an effective nuclear charge (Z_{eff}) that is less than the actual nuclear charge Z. This effect is called **electron shielding**.

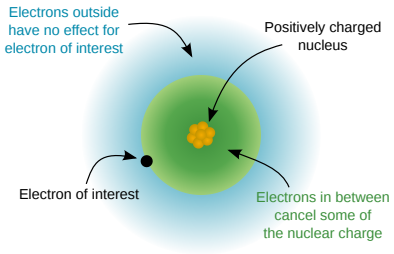


Figure 9.6.1: This image shows how inner electrons can shield outer electrons from the nuclear charge. (CC BY-SA 3.0; NikNaks via Wikipedia).

As the distance between an electron and the nucleus approaches infinity, Z_{eff} approaches a value of 1 because all the other ($Z-1$) electrons in the neutral atom are, on the average, between it and the nucleus. If, on the other hand, an electron is very close to the nucleus, then at any given moment most of the other electrons are farther from the nucleus and do not shield the nuclear charge. At $r \approx 0$, the positive charge experienced by an electron is approximately the full nuclear charge, or $Z_{eff} \approx Z$. At intermediate values of r, the effective nuclear charge is somewhere between 1 and Z:

$$1 \leq Z_{eff} \leq Z.$$

Notice that $Z_{eff} = Z$ only for hydrogen (Figure 9.6.2).

Definition: Shielding

Shielding refers to the core electrons repelling the outer electrons, which lowers the effective charge of the nucleus on the outer electrons. Hence, the nucleus has "less grip" on the outer electrons insofar as it is shielded from them.

Z_{eff} can be calculated by subtracting the magnitude of shielding from the total nuclear charge and the effective nuclear charge of an atom is given by the equation:

$$Z_{eff} = Z - S \tag{9.6.1}$$

where Z is the atomic number (number of protons in nucleus) and S is the shielding constant and is approximated by number of electrons between the nucleus and the electron in question (*the number of nonvalence electrons*). The value of Z_{eff} will provide information on how much of a charge an electron actually experiences.

We can see from Equation 9.6.1 that the effective nuclear charge of an atom increases as the number of protons in an atom increases (Figure 9.6.2). As we will discuss later on in the chapter, this phenomenon can explain the decrease in atomic radii we see as we go across the periodic table as electrons are held closer to the nucleus due to increase in number of protons and increase in effective nuclear charge.

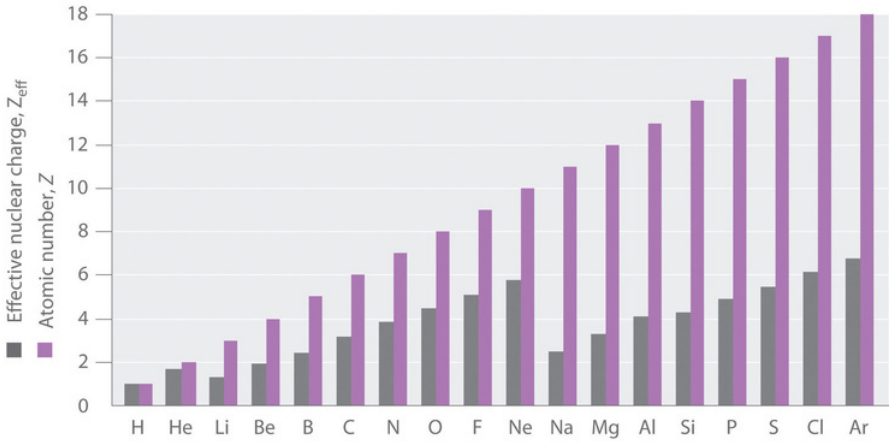


Figure 9.6.2: Relationship between the Effective Nuclear Charge Z_{eff} and the Atomic Number Z for the Outer Electrons of the Elements of the First Three Rows of the (CC BY-SA-NC 3.0; anonynous)

The shielding constant can be estimated by totaling the screening by **all nonvalence electrons** (n) except the one in question.

$$S = \sum_{i}^{n-1} S_i \tag{9.6.2}$$

where S_i is the shielding of the ith electron.

> *Electrons that are shielded from the full charge of the nucleus experience an effective nuclear charge (Z_{eff}) of the nucleus, which is some degree less than the full nuclear charge an electron would feel in a hydrogen atom or hydrogenlike ion.*

From Equations 9.6.1 and 9.6.2, Z_{eff} for a specific electron can be estimated is the shielding constants for that electron of all other electrons in species is known. A simple approximation is that all other non-valence electrons shield equally and fully:

$$S_i = 1 \tag{9.6.3}$$

This crude approximation is demonstrated in Example 9.6.1.

Example 9.6.1: Fluorine, Neon, and Sodium

What is the effective attraction Z_{eff} experienced by the valence electrons in the three isoelectronic species: the fluorine anion, the neutral neon atom, and sodium cation?

Solution

Each species has 10 electrons, and the number of nonvalence electrons is 2 (10 total electrons - 8 valence), but the effective nuclear charge varies because each has a different atomic number A. This is an application of Equations 9.6.1 and 9.6.2. We use the simple assumption that all electrons shield equally and fully the valence electrons (Equation 9.6.3).

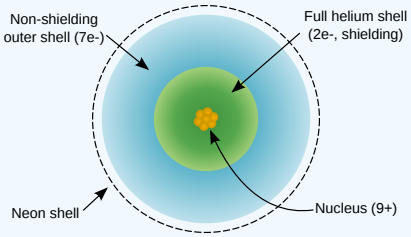


Diagram of a fluorine atom showing the extent of effective nuclear charge. (CC BY-SA 3.0; NikNaks via Wikipedia).

The charge Z of the nucleus of a fluorine atom is 9, but the valence electrons are screened appreciably by the core electrons (four electrons from the 1s and 2s orbitals) and partially by the 7 electrons in the 2p orbitals.

- $Z_{\text{eff}}(\text{F}^-) = 9 - 2 = 7+$
- $Z_{\text{eff}}(\text{Ne}) = 10 - 2 = 8+$
- $Z_{\text{eff}}(\text{Na}^+) = 11 - 2 = 9+$

So the sodium cation has the greatest effective nuclear charge. This also suggests that Na^+ has the smallest radius of these species and that is correct.

Exercise 9.6.1: Magnesium Species

What is the effective attraction Z_{eff} experienced by the valence electrons in the magnesium anion, the neutral magnesium atom, and magnesium cation? Use the simple approximation for shielding constants. Compare your result for the magnesium atom to the more accurate value in Figure 9.6.2 and proposed an origin for the difference.

Answer

- $Z_{\text{eff}}(\text{Mg}^-) = 12 - 10 = 2+$
- $Z_{\text{eff}}(\text{Mg}) = 12 - 10 = 2+$
- $Z_{\text{eff}}(\text{Mg}^+) = 12 - 10 = 2+$

Remember that the simple approximations in Equations 9.6.2 and 9.6.3 suggest that valence electrons **do not shield** other valence electrons. Therefore, each of these species has the same number of non-valence electrons and Equation 9.6.1 suggests the effective charge on each valence electron is identical for each of the three species.

This is not correct and a more complex model is needed to predict the experimental observed Z_{eff} value. The ability of valence electrons to shield other valence electrons or in partial amounts (e.g., $S_i \neq 1$) is in violation of Equations 9.6.2 and 9.6.3 That fact that these approximations are poor is suggested by the experimental Z_{eff} value shown in Figure 9.6.2 for Mg of 3.2+. This is appreciably larger than the +2 estimated above, which means these simple approximations overestimate the total shielding constant S. A more sophisticated model is needed.

Electron Penetration

The approximation in Equation 9.6.3 is a good first order description of electron shielding, but the actual Z_{eff} experienced by an electron in a given orbital depends not only on the spatial distribution of the electron in that orbital but also on the distribution of all the other electrons present. This leads to large differences in Z_{eff} for different elements, as shown in Figure 9.6.2 for the elements of the first three rows of the periodic table.

Penetration describes the proximity to which an electron can approach to the nucleus. In a multi-electron system, electron penetration is defined by an electron's relative electron density (probability density) near the nucleus of an atom (Figure 9.6.3). Electrons in different orbitals have different electron densities around the nucleus. In other words, penetration depends on the shell (n) and subshell (l).

For example, a 1s electron (Figure 9.6.3; purple curve) has greater electron density near the nucleus than a 2p electron (Figure 9.6.3; red curve) and has a greater penetration. This related to the shielding constants since the 1s electrons are closer to the nucleus than a 2p electron, hence the 1s screens a 2p electron almost perfectly ($S = 1$. However, the 2s electron has a lower shielding constant ($S < 1$ because it can penetrate close to the nucleus in the small area of electron density within the first spherical node (Figure 9.6.3; green curve). In this way the 2s electron can "avoid" some of the shielding effect of the inner 1s electron.

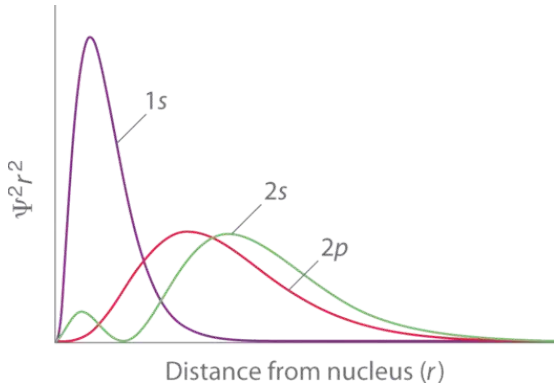


Figure 9.6.3: Orbital Penetration. A comparison of the radial probability distribution of the 2*s* and 2*p* orbitals for various states of the hydrogen atom shows that the 2*s* orbital penetrates inside the 1*s* orbital more than the 2*p* orbital does. Consequently, when an electron is in the small inner lobe of the 2*s* orbital, it experiences a relatively large value of Z_{eff}, which causes the energy of the 2*s* orbital to be lower than the energy of the 2*p* orbital. (CC BY-NC-SA 3.0; Anonymous)

For the same shell value (n) the penetrating power of an electron follows this trend in subshells (Figure 9.6.3):

$$s > p > d \approx f. \tag{9.6.4}$$

for different values of shell (n) and subshell (l), penetrating power of an electron follows this trend:

$$1\,\mathrm{s} > 2\,\mathrm{s} > 2\,\mathrm{p} > 3\,\mathrm{s} > 3\,\mathrm{p} > 4\,\mathrm{s} > 3\,\mathrm{d} > 4\,\mathrm{p} > 5\,\mathrm{s} > 4\,\mathrm{d} > 5\,\mathrm{p} > 6\,\mathrm{s} > 4\,\mathrm{f} \cdots \tag{9.6.5}$$

Definition: Penetration

Penetration describes the proximity of electrons in an orbital to the nucleus. Electrons that have greater penetration can get closer to the nucleus and effectively block out the charge from electrons that have less proximity.

Table 9.6.1: Effective Nuclear Charges for Selected Atoms

Atom	Sublevel	Z	Z_{eff}
H	1s	1	1
He	1s	2	1.69
Li	1s, 2s	3	2.69, 1.28
Be	1s, 2s	4	3.68, 1.91
B	1s, 2s, 2p	5	4.68, 2.58, 2.42

Atom	Sublevel	Z	Z_{eff}
F	1s, 2s, 2p	9	8.65, 5.13, 5.10
Na	1s, 2s, 2p, 3s	11	10.63, 6.57, 6.80, 2.51

Data from E. Clementi and D. L. Raimondi; The Journal of Chemical Physics 38, 2686 (1963).

Because of the effects of shielding and the different radial distributions of orbitals with the same value of *n* but different values of *l*, the different subshells are not degenerate in a multielectron atom. For a given value of *n*, the *ns* orbital is always lower in energy than the *np* orbitals, which are lower in energy than the *nd* orbitals, and so forth. As a result, some subshells with higher principal quantum numbers are actually lower in energy than subshells with a lower value of *n*; for example, the 4*s* orbital is lower in energy than the 3*d* orbitals for most atoms.

A Better Estimation of Shielding: Slater Rules

The concepts of electron shielding, orbital penetration and effective nuclear charge were introduced above, but we did so in a qualitative manner (e.g., Equations 9.6.4 and 9.6.5). A more accurate model for estimating electron shielding and corresponding effective nuclear charge experienced is Slater's Rules. However, the application of these rules is outside the scope of this text.



Zeff and Electron Shielding: Zeff and Electron Shielding(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Summary

The calculation of orbital energies in atoms or ions with more than one electron (multielectron atoms or ions) is complicated by repulsive interactions between the electrons. The concept of **electron shielding**, in which intervening electrons act to reduce the positive nuclear charge experienced by an electron, allows the use of hydrogen-like orbitals and an **effective nuclear charge** (Z_{eff}) to describe electron distributions in more complex atoms or ions. The degree to which orbitals with different values of *l* and the same value of *n* overlap or penetrate filled inner shells results in slightly different energies for different subshells in the same principal shell in most atoms.

9.6: Periodic Trends in the Size of Atoms and Effective Nuclear Charge is shared under a not declared license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by LibreTexts.

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9.7: Ions- Configurations, Magnetic Properties, Radii, and Ionization Energy

Learning Objectives

- To correlate ionization energies with the chemistry of the elements

We have seen that when elements react, they often gain or lose enough electrons to achieve the valence electron configuration of the nearest noble gas. Why is this so? In this section, we develop a more quantitative approach to predicting such reactions by examining periodic trends in the energy changes that accompany ion formation.

Ionization Energies

Because atoms do not spontaneously lose electrons, energy is required to remove an electron from an atom to form a cation. Chemists define the ionization energy (I) of an element as the amount of energy needed to remove an electron from the gaseous atom E in its ground state. I is therefore the energy required for the reaction

$$E_{(g)} \rightarrow E^+_{(g)} + e^- \qquad \text{energy required=I} \tag{9.7.1}$$

Because an input of energy is required, the ionization energy is always positive ($I > 0$) for the reaction as written in Equation 9.7.1. Larger values of *I* mean that the electron is more tightly bound to the atom and harder to remove. Typical units for ionization energies are kilojoules/mole (kJ/mol) or electron volts (eV):

$$1\ eV/atom = 96.49\ kJ/mol$$

If an atom possesses more than one electron, the amount of energy needed to remove successive electrons increases steadily. We can define a first ionization energy (I_1), a second ionization energy (I_2), and in general an nth ionization energy (I_n) according to the following reactions:

$$\mathrm{E(g) \rightarrow E^+(g) + e^-} \qquad I_1 = \text{1st ionization energy} \tag{9.7.2}$$

$$\mathrm{E^+(g) \rightarrow E^{2+}(g) + e^-} \qquad I_2 = \text{2nd ionization energy} \tag{9.7.3}$$

$$\mathrm{E^{2+}(g) \rightarrow E^{3+}(g) + e^-} \qquad I_3 = \text{3rd ionization energy} \tag{9.7.4}$$

Values for the ionization energies of Li and Be listed in Table 9.7.1 show that successive ionization energies for an element increase as they go; that is, it takes more energy to remove the second electron from an atom than the first, and so forth. There are two reasons for this trend. First, the second electron is being removed from a positively charged species rather than a neutral one, so in accordance with Coulomb's law, more energy is required. Second, removing the first electron reduces the repulsive forces among the remaining electrons, so the attraction of the remaining electrons to the nucleus is stronger.

> *Successive ionization energies for an element **increase**.*

Table 9.7.1: Ionization Energies (in kJ/mol) for Removing Successive Electrons from Li and Be. Source: Data from CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics (2004).

Reaction	Electronic Transition	*I*	Reaction	Electronic Transition	*I*
$\mathrm{Li(g) \rightarrow Li^+(g) + e^-}$	$1s^2 2s^1 \rightarrow 1s^2$	I_1 = 520.2	$\mathrm{Be(g) \rightarrow Be^+(g) + e^-}$	$1s^2 2s^2 \rightarrow 1s^2 2s^1$	I_1 = 899.5
$\mathrm{Li^+(g) \rightarrow Li^{2+}(g) + e^-}$	$1s^2 \rightarrow 1s^1$	I_2 = 7298.2	$\mathrm{Be^+(g) \rightarrow Be^{2+}(g) + e^-}$	$1s^2 2s^1 \rightarrow 1s^2$	I_2 = 1757.1
$\mathrm{Li^{2+}(g) \rightarrow Li^{3+}(g) + e^-}$	$1s^1 \rightarrow 1s^0$	I_3 = 11,815.0	$\mathrm{Be^{2+}(g) \rightarrow Be^{3+}(g) + e^-}$	$1s^2 \rightarrow 1s^1$	I_3 = 14,848.8
			$\mathrm{Be^{3+}(g) \rightarrow Be^{4+}(g) + e^-}$	$1s^1 \rightarrow 1s^0$	I_4 = 21,006.6

The increase in successive ionization energies, however, is not linear, but increases drastically when removing electrons in lower n orbitals closer to the nucleus. The most important consequence of the values listed in Table 9.7.1 is that the chemistry of Li is dominated by the $\mathrm{Li^+}$ ion, while the chemistry of Be is dominated by the +2 oxidation state. The energy required to remove the *second* electron from Li:

$$\mathrm{Li^+(g) \rightarrow Li^{2+}(g) + e^-} \tag{9.7.5}$$

is more than 10 times greater than the energy needed to remove the first electron. Similarly, the energy required to remove the *third* electron from Be:

$$\mathrm{Be^{2+}(g) \rightarrow Be^{3+}(g) + e^-} \tag{9.7.6}$$

is about 15 times greater than the energy needed to remove the first electron and around 8 times greater than the energy required to remove the second electron. Both $\mathrm{Li^+}$ and $\mathrm{Be^{2+}}$ have $1s^2$ closed-shell configurations, and much more energy is required to remove an electron from the $1s^2$ core than from the 2*s* valence orbital of the same element. The chemical consequences are enormous: lithium (and all the alkali metals) forms compounds with the 1+ ion but not the 2+ or 3+ ions. Similarly, beryllium (and all the alkaline earth metals) forms compounds with the 2+ ion but not the 3+ or 4+ ions. *The energy required to remove electrons from a filled core is prohibitively large and simply cannot be achieved in normal chemical reactions.*

> *The energy required to remove electrons from a filled core is prohibitively large under normal reaction conditions.*



Ionization Energy: Ionization Energy, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be] (opens in new window)

Ionization Energies of *s*- and *p*-Block Elements

Ionization energies of the elements in the third row of the periodic table exhibit the same pattern as those of *Li* and *Be* (Table 9.7.2): successive ionization energies increase steadily as electrons are removed from the valence orbitals (3*s* or 3*p*, in this case), followed by an especially large increase in ionization energy when electrons are removed from filled core levels as indicated by the bold diagonal line in Table 9.7.2. Thus in the third row of the periodic table, the largest increase in ionization energy corresponds to removing the fourth electron from *Al*, the fifth electron from Si, and so forth—that is, removing an electron from an ion that has the valence electron configuration of the preceding noble gas. This pattern explains why the chemistry of the elements normally involves only valence electrons. Too much energy is required to either remove or share the inner electrons.

Table 9.7.2: Successive Ionization Energies (in kJ/mol) for the Elements in the Third Row of the Periodic Table.Source: Data from CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics (2004).

Element	I_1	I_2	I_3	I_4	I_5	I_6	I_7
Na	495.8	**4562.4***	—	—	—	—	—
Mg	737.7	1450.7	**7732.7**	—	—	—	—
Al	577.4.4	1816.7	2744.8	**11,577.4.4**	—	—	—
Si	786.5	1577.1	3231.6	4355.5	**16,090.6**	—	—
P	1011.8	1907.4.4	2914.1	4963.6	6274.0	**21,267.4.3**	—

*Inner-shell electron

Element	I_1	I_2	I_3	I_4	I_5	I_6	I_7
S	999.6	2251.8	3357	4556.2	7004.3	8495.8	**27,107.4.3**
Cl	1251.2	2297.7	3822	5158.6	6540	9362	11,018.2
Ar	1520.6	2665.9	3931	5771	7238	8781.0	11,995.3
*Inner-shell electron							

Example 9.7.1: Highest Fourth Ionization Energy

From their locations in the periodic table, predict which of these elements has the highest fourth ionization energy: B, C, or N.

Given: three elements

Asked for: element with highest fourth ionization energy

Strategy:

a. List the electron configuration of each element.

b. Determine whether electrons are being removed from a filled or partially filled valence shell. Predict which element has the highest fourth ionization energy, recognizing that the highest energy corresponds to the removal of electrons from a filled electron core.

Solution:

A These elements all lie in the second row of the periodic table and have the following electron configurations:

- B: [He]$2s^2 2p^1$
- C: [He]$2s^2 2p^2$
- N: [He]$2s^2 2p^3$

B The fourth ionization energy of an element (I_4) is defined as the energy required to remove the fourth electron:

$$E^{3+}_{(g)} \rightarrow E^{4+}_{(g)} + e^-$$

Because carbon and nitrogen have four and five valence electrons, respectively, their fourth ionization energies correspond to removing an electron from a partially filled valence shell. The fourth ionization energy for boron, however, corresponds to removing an electron from the filled $1s^2$ subshell. This should require much more energy. The actual values are as follows: B, 25,026 kJ/mol; C, 6223 kJ/mol; and N, 7475 kJ/mol.

Exercise 9.7.1: Lowest Second Ionization Energy

From their locations in the periodic table, predict which of these elements has the lowest second ionization energy: Sr, Rb, or Ar.

Answer

Sr

The first column of data in Table 9.7.2 shows that first ionization energies tend to increase across the third row of the periodic table. This is because the valence electrons do not screen each other very well, allowing the effective nuclear charge to increase steadily across the row. The valence electrons are therefore attracted more strongly to the nucleus, so atomic sizes decrease and ionization energies increase. These effects represent two sides of the same coin: stronger electrostatic interactions between the electrons and the nucleus further increase the energy required to remove the electrons.

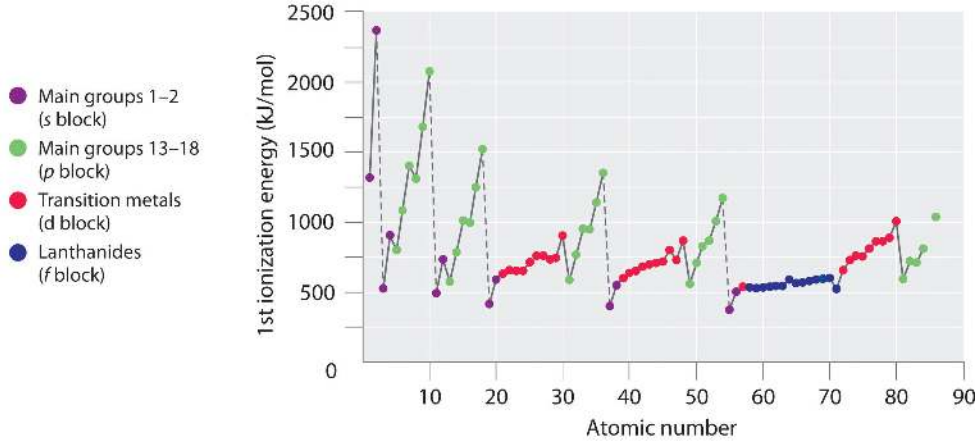


Figure 9.7.1: A Plot of Periodic Variation of First Ionization Energy with Atomic Number for the First Six Rows of the Periodic Table. There is a decrease in ionization energy within a group (most easily seen here for groups 1 and 18).

the main groups 1 and 2 are purple, the main groups 13 through 18 are green, the transition metals are red, and the lanthanides are blue.

However, the first ionization energy decreases at Al ([Ne]$3s^2 3p^1$) and at S ([Ne]$3s^2 3p^4$). The electron configurations of these "exceptions" provide the answer why. The electrons in aluminum's filled $3s^2$ subshell are better at screening the $3p^1$ electron than they are at screening each other from the nuclear charge, so the *s* electrons penetrate closer to the nucleus than the *p* electron does and the *p* electron is more easily removed. The decrease at S occurs because the two electrons in the same *p* orbital repel each other. This makes the S atom slightly less stable than would otherwise be expected, as is true of all the group 16 elements.

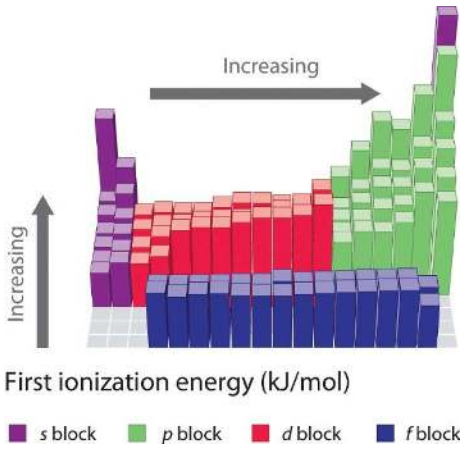


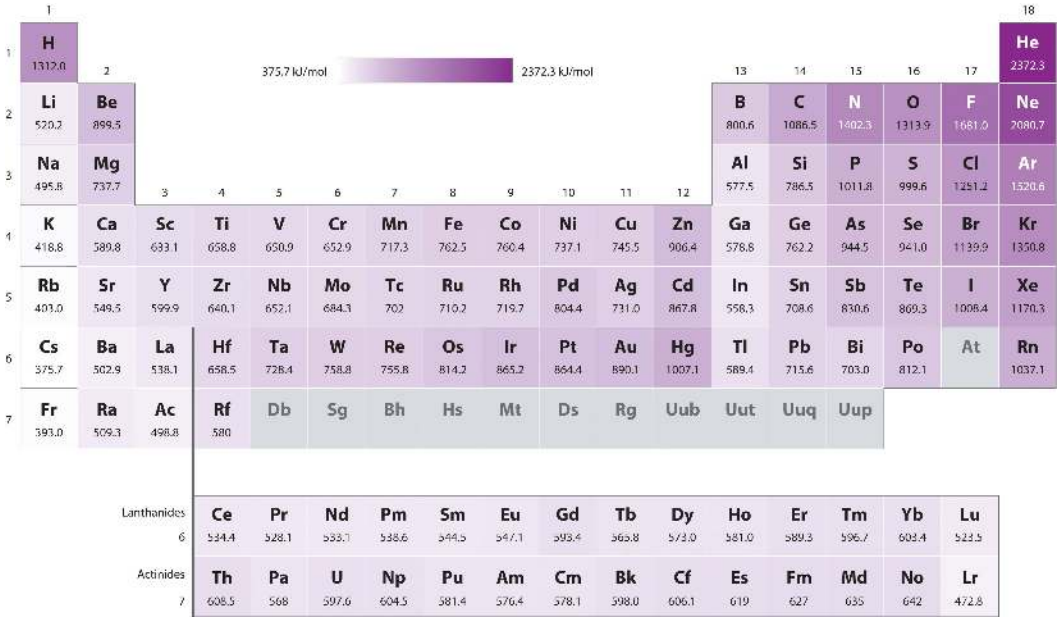
Figure 9.7.2: First Ionization Energies of the *s*-, *p*-, *d*-, and *f*-Block Elements

The s blocks are purple, the p blocks are green, the d blocks are red, and the f blocks are blue. First ionization energy increase from left to right and from bottom to top.

The first ionization energies of the elements in the first six rows of the periodic table are plotted in Figure 9.7.1 and are presented numerically and graphically in Figure 9.7.2. These figures illustrate three important trends:

1. The changes seen in the second (Li to Ne), fourth (K to Kr), fifth (Rb to Xe), and sixth (Cs to Rn) rows of the *s* and *p* blocks follow a pattern similar to the pattern described for the third row of the periodic table. The transition metals are included in the fourth, fifth, and sixth rows, however, and the lanthanides are included in the sixth row. The first ionization energies of the transition metals are somewhat similar to one another, as are those of the lanthanides. Ionization energies increase from left to right across each row, with discrepancies occurring at ns^2np^1 (group 13), ns^2np^4 (group 16), and $ns^2(n-1)d^{10}$ (group 12).
2. First ionization energies generally decrease down a column. Although the principal quantum number *n* increases down a column, filled inner shells are effective at screening the valence electrons, so there is a relatively small increase in the effective nuclear charge. Consequently, the atoms become larger as they acquire electrons. Valence electrons that are farther from the nucleus are less tightly bound, making them easier to remove, which causes ionization energies to decrease. *A larger radius typically corresponds to a lower ionization energy*.

3. Because of the first two trends, the elements that form positive ions most easily (have the lowest ionization energies) lie in the lower left corner of the periodic table, whereas those that are hardest to ionize lie in the upper right corner of the periodic table. Consequently, ionization energies generally increase diagonally from lower left (Cs) to upper right (He).



The darkness of the shading inside the cells of the table indicates the relative magnitudes of the ionization energies. Elements in gray have undetermined first ionization energies. Source: Data from *CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics* (2004).

> *Generally, I_1 increases diagonally from the lower left of the periodic table to the upper right.*

Gallium (Ga), which is the first element following the first row of transition metals, has the following electron configuration: $[Ar]4s^2 3d^{10} 4p^1$. Its first ionization energy is significantly lower than that of the immediately preceding element, zinc, because the filled $3d^{10}$ subshell of gallium lies inside the 4*p* subshell, shielding the single 4*p* electron from the nucleus. Experiments have revealed something of even greater interest: the second and third electrons that are removed when gallium is ionized come from the $4s^2$ orbital, *not* the $3d^{10}$ subshell. The chemistry of gallium is dominated by the resulting Ga^{3+} ion, with its $[Ar]3d^{10}$ electron configuration. This and similar electron configurations are particularly stable and are often encountered in the heavier *p*-block elements. They are sometimes referred to as *pseudo noble gas configurations*. In fact, for elements that exhibit these configurations, *no chemical compounds are known in which electrons are removed from the $(n - 1)d^{10}$ filled subshell*.

Ionization Energies of Transition Metals & Lanthanides

As we noted, the first ionization energies of the transition metals and the lanthanides change very little across each row. Differences in their second and third ionization energies are also rather small, in sharp contrast to the pattern seen with the *s*- and *p*-block elements. The reason for these similarities is that the transition metals and the lanthanides form cations by losing the *ns* electrons before the $(n - 1)d$ or $(n - 2)f$ electrons, respectively. This means that transition metal cations have $(n - 1)d^n$ valence electron configurations, and lanthanide cations have $(n - 2)f^n$ valence electron configurations. Because the $(n - 1)d$ and $(n - 2)f$ shells are closer to the nucleus than the *ns* shell, the $(n - 1)d$ and $(n - 2)f$ electrons screen the *ns* electrons quite effectively, reducing the effective nuclear charge felt by the *ns* electrons. As *Z* increases, the increasing positive charge is largely canceled by the electrons added to the $(n - 1)d$ or $(n - 2)f$ orbitals.

That the *ns* electrons are removed before the $(n - 1)d$ or $(n - 2)f$ electrons may surprise you because the orbitals were filled in the reverse order. In fact, the *ns*, the $(n - 1)d$, and the $(n - 2)f$ orbitals are so close to one another in energy, and interpenetrate one another so extensively, that very small changes in the effective nuclear charge can change the order of their energy levels. As the *d* orbitals are filled, the effective nuclear charge causes the 3*d* orbitals to be slightly lower in energy than the 4*s* orbitals. The $[Ar]3d^2$ electron configuration of Ti^{2+} tells us that the 4*s* electrons of titanium are lost before the 3*d* electrons; this is confirmed by experiment. A similar pattern is seen with the lanthanides, producing cations with an $(n - 2)f^n$ valence electron configuration.

Because their first, second, and third ionization energies change so little across a row, these elements have important *horizontal* similarities in chemical properties in addition to the expected vertical similarities. For example, all the first-row transition metals except scandium form stable compounds as M^{2+} ions, whereas the lanthanides primarily form compounds in which they exist as M^{3+} ions.

Example 9.7.2: Lowest First Ionization Energy

Use their locations in the periodic table to predict which element has the lowest first ionization energy: Ca, K, Mg, Na, Rb, or Sr.

Given: six elements

Asked for: element with lowest first ionization energy

Strategy:

Locate the elements in the periodic table. Based on trends in ionization energies across a row and down a column, identify the element with the lowest first ionization energy.

Solution:

These six elements form a rectangle in the two far-left columns of the periodic table. Because we know that ionization energies increase from left to right in a row and from bottom to top of a column, we can predict that the element at the bottom left of the rectangle will have the lowest first ionization energy: Rb.

Exercise 9.7.2: Highest First Ionization Energy

Use their locations in the periodic table to predict which element has the highest first ionization energy: As, Bi, Ge, Pb, Sb, or Sn.

Answer

As

Summary

The tendency of an element to lose electrons is one of the most important factors in determining the kind of compounds it forms. Periodic behavior is most evident for **ionization energy (*I*)**, the energy required to remove an electron from a gaseous atom. The energy required to remove successive electrons from an atom increases steadily, with a substantial increase occurring with the removal of an electron from a filled inner shell. Consequently, only valence electrons can be removed in chemical reactions, leaving the filled inner shell intact. Ionization energies explain the common oxidation states observed for the elements. Ionization energies increase diagonally from the lower left of the periodic table to the upper right. Minor deviations from this trend can be explained in terms of particularly stable electronic configurations, called **pseudo noble gas configurations**, in either the parent atom or the resulting ion.

9.7: Ions- Configurations, Magnetic Properties, Radii, and Ionization Energy is shared under a not declared license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by LibreTexts.

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9.8: Electron Affinities and Metallic Character

Learning Objectives

- To master the concept of electron affinity as a measure of the energy required to add an electron to an atom or ion.
- To recognize the inverse relationship of ionization energies and electron affinities

The electron affinity (EA) of an element E is defined as the energy change that occurs when an electron is added to a gaseous atom or ion:

$$E_{(g)} + e^{-} \rightarrow E^{-}_{(g)} \qquad \text{energy change}=EA \tag{9.8.1}$$

Unlike ionization energies, which are always positive for a neutral atom because energy is required to remove an electron, electron affinities can be negative (energy is released when an electron is added), positive (energy must be added to the system to produce an anion), or zero (the process is energetically neutral). This sign convention is consistent with a negative value corresponded to the energy change for an exothermic process, which is one in which heat is released (Figure 9.8.1).

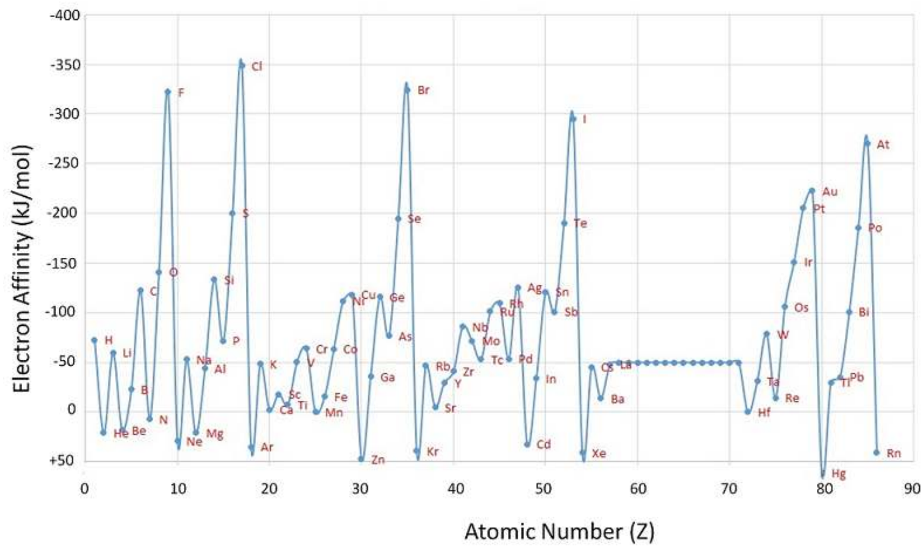


Figure 9.8.1: A Plot of Periodic Variation of Electron Affinity with Atomic Number for the First Six Rows of the Periodic Table. Notice that electron affinities can be both negative and positive. from Robert J. Lancashire (University of the West Indies).

The chlorine atom has the most negative electron affinity of any element, which means that more energy is released when an electron is added to a gaseous chlorine atom than to an atom of any other element:

\[\ce{ Cl(g) + e^- \rightarrow Cl^- (g)} \;\;\;   EA=-346\; kJ/mol \label{7.5.2} \]

In contrast, beryllium does not form a stable anion, so its effective electron affinity is

$$\mathrm{Be(g)} + \mathrm{e}^{-} \rightarrow \mathrm{Be}^{-}\mathrm{(g)} \qquad EA \geq 0 \tag{9.8.2}$$

Nitrogen is unique in that it has an electron affinity of approximately zero. Adding an electron neither releases nor requires a significant amount of energy:

$$\mathrm{N(g)} + \mathrm{e}^{-} \rightarrow \mathrm{N}^{-}\mathrm{(g)} \qquad EA \approx 0 \tag{9.8.3}$$

> *Generally, electron affinities become more negative across a row of the periodic table.*

In general, electron affinities of the main-group elements become less negative as we proceed down a column. This is because as *n* increases, the extra electrons enter orbitals that are increasingly far from the nucleus.

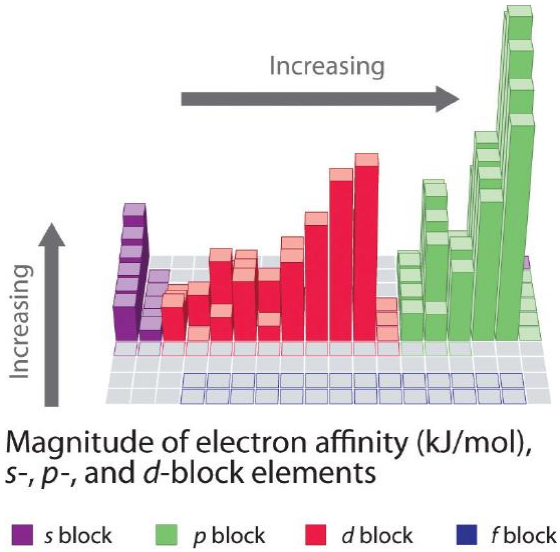


Figure 9.8.2: Electron Affinities (in kJ/mol) of the *s*-, *p*-, and *d*-Block Elements.

The s blocks are purple, the p blocks are green, the d blocks are red, and the f blocks are blue. Electron affinity increases from left to right and bottom to top.

Atoms with the largest radii, which have the lowest ionization energies (affinity for their own valence electrons), also have the lowest affinity for an added electron. There are, however, two major exceptions to this trend:

1. The electron affinities of elements B through F in the second row of the periodic table are *less* negative than those of the elements immediately below them in the third row. Apparently, the increased electron–electron repulsions experienced by electrons confined to the relatively small 2*p* orbitals overcome the increased electron–nucleus attraction at short nuclear distances. Fluorine, therefore, has a lower affinity for an added electron than does chlorine. Consequently, the elements of the *third* row ($n = 3$) have the most negative electron affinities. Farther down a column, the attraction for an added electron decreases because the electron is entering an orbital more distant from the nucleus. Electron–electron repulsions also decrease because the valence electrons occupy a greater volume of space. These effects tend to cancel one another, so the changes in electron affinity within a family are much smaller than the changes in ionization energy.
2. The electron affinities of the alkaline earth metals become more negative from Be to Ba. The energy separation between the filled ns^2 and the empty *np* subshells decreases with increasing *n*, so that formation of an anion from the heavier elements becomes energetically more favorable.

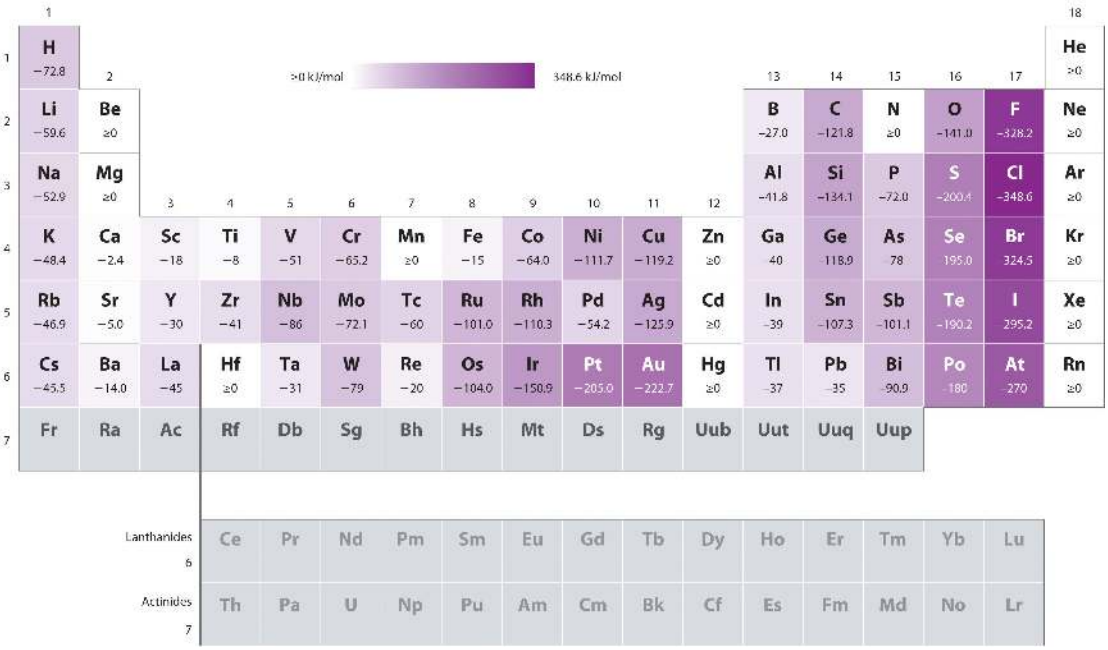


Figure 9.8.3: There are many more exceptions to the trends across rows and down columns than with first ionization energies. Elements that do not form stable ions, such as the noble gases, are assigned an effective electron affinity that is greater than or equal to zero. Elements for which no data are available are shown in gray. Source: Data from *Journal of Physical and Chemical Reference Data* 28, no. 6 (1999).

The equations for second and higher electron affinities are analogous to those for second and higher ionization energies:

$$E_{(g)} + e^- \rightarrow E^-_{(g)} \qquad \text{energy change} = EA_1 \tag{9.8.4}$$

$$E^-_{(g)} + e^- \rightarrow E^{2-}_{(g)} \qquad \text{energy change} = EA_2 \tag{9.8.5}$$

As we have seen, the first electron affinity can be greater than or equal to zero or negative, depending on the electron configuration of the atom. In contrast, the second electron affinity is *always* positive because the increased electron–electron repulsions in a dianion are far greater than the attraction of the nucleus for the extra electrons. For example, the first electron affinity of oxygen is −141 kJ/mol, but the second electron affinity is +744 kJ/mol:

$$O_{(g)} + e^- \rightarrow O^-_{(g)} \qquad EA_1 = -141\ kJ/mol \tag{9.8.6}$$

$$O^-_{(g)} + e^- \rightarrow O^{2-}_{(g)} \qquad EA_2 = +744\ kJ/mol \tag{9.8.7}$$

Thus the formation of a gaseous oxide (O^{2-}) ion is energetically quite *unfavorable* (estimated by adding both steps):

$$O_{(g)} + 2e^- \rightarrow O^{2-}_{(g)} \qquad EA = +603\ kJ/mol \tag{9.8.8}$$

Similarly, the formation of all common dianions (such as S^{2-}) or trianions (such as P^{3-}) is energetically unfavorable in the gas phase.

> *While first electron affinities can be negative, positive, or zero, second electron affinities are always positive.*



Electron Affinity: Electron Affinity, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be] (opens in new window)

If energy is required to form both positively charged cations and monatomic polyanions, why do ionic compounds such as MgO, Na_2S, and Na_3P form at all? The key factor in the formation of stable ionic compounds is the favorable electrostatic interactions between the cations and the anions *in the crystalline salt*.

Example 9.8.1: Contrasting Electron Affinities of Sb, Se, and Te

Based on their positions in the periodic table, which of Sb, Se, or Te would you predict to have the most negative electron affinity?

Given: three elements

Asked for: element with most negative electron affinity

Strategy:

A. Locate the elements in the periodic table. Use the trends in electron affinities going down a column for elements in the same group. Similarly, use the trends in electron affinities from left to right for elements in the same row.

B. Place the elements in order, listing the element with the most negative electron affinity first.

Solution:

A We know that electron affinities become less negative going down a column (except for the anomalously low electron affinities of the elements of the second row), so we can predict that the electron affinity of Se is more negative than that of Te. We also know that electron affinities become more negative from left to right across a row, and that the group 15 elements tend to have values that are less negative than expected. Because Sb is located to the left of Te and belongs to group 15, we predict that the electron affinity of Te is more negative than that of Sb. The overall order is Se < Te < Sb, so Se has the most negative electron affinity among the three elements.

Exercise 9.8.1: Contrasting Electron Affinities of Rb, Sr, and Xe

Based on their positions in the periodic table, which of Rb, Sr, or Xe would you predict to most likely form a gaseous anion?

Answer

Rb

Summary

The **electron affinity** (*EA*) of an element is the energy change that occurs when an electron is added to a gaseous atom to give an anion. In general, elements with the most negative electron affinities (the highest affinity for an added electron) are those with the smallest size and highest ionization energies and are located in the upper right corner of the periodic table.

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9.9: Examples of Periodic Chemical Behavior

The elements within the same group of the periodic table tend to exhibit similar physical and chemical properties. Four major factors affect reactivity of metals: nuclear charge, atomic radius, shielding effect and sublevel arrangement (of electrons). Metal reactivity relates to ability to lose electrons (oxidize), form basic hydroxides, form ionic compounds with non-metals. In general, the bigger the atom, the greater the ability to lose electrons. The greater the shielding, the greater the ability to lose electrons. Therefore, metallic character increases going down the table, and decreases going across -- so the most active metal is towards the left and down.

Group 1: The Alkali Metals

The word "alkali" is derived from an Arabic word meaning "ashes". Many sodium and potassium compounds were isolated from wood ashes (Na_2CO_3 and K_2CO_3 are still occasionally referred to as "soda ash" and "potash"). In the alkali group, as we go down the group we have elements Lithium (Li), Sodium (Na), Potassium (K), Rubidium (Rb), Cesium (Cs) and Francium (Fr). Several physical properties of these elements are compared in Table $9.9.1$. These elements have all only one electron in their outermost shells. All the elements show metallic properties and have valence +1, hence they give up electron easily.

Table $9.9.1$: General Properties of Group I Metals

Element	Electronic Configuration	Melting Point (°C)	Density (g/cm^3)	Atomic Radius	Ionization Energy (kJ/mol)
Lithium	$[He]2s^1$	181	0.53	1.52	520
Sodium	$[Ne]3s^1$	98	0.97	1.86	496
Potassium	$[Ar]4s^1$	63	0.86	2.27	419
Rubidium	$[Kr]5s^1$	39	1.53	2.47	403
Cesium	$[Xe]6s^1$	28	1.88	2.65	376

As we move down the group (from Li to Fr), the following trends are observed (Table $9.9.1$):

- All have a single electron in an 's' valence orbital
- The melting point decreases
- The density increases
- The atomic radius increases
- The ionization energy decreases (first ionization energy)

> *The alkali metals have the lowest I_1 values of the elements*

This represents the relative ease with which the lone electron in the outer 's' orbital can be removed.

The alkali metals are very reactive, readily losing 1 electron to form an ion with a 1+ charge:

$$M \rightarrow M^+ + e-$$

Due to this reactivity, the alkali metals are found in nature only as compounds. The alkali metals combine directly with most nonmetals:

- React with hydrogen to form solid *hydrides*

$$2M_{(s)} + H_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2MH(s)$$

(Note: hydrogen is present in the metal hydride as the ***hydride*** H^- ion)

- React with sulfur to form solid *sulfides*

$$2M_{(s)} + S_{(s)} \rightarrow M_2S_{(s)}$$

React with chlorine to form solid *chlorides*

$$2M_{(s)} + Cl_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2MCl_{(s)}$$

Alkali metals react with water to produce hydrogen gas and alkali metal hydroxides; this is a very exothermic reaction (Figure 9.9.1).

$$2M_{(s)} + 2H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow 2MOH_{(aq)} + H_{2(g)}$$

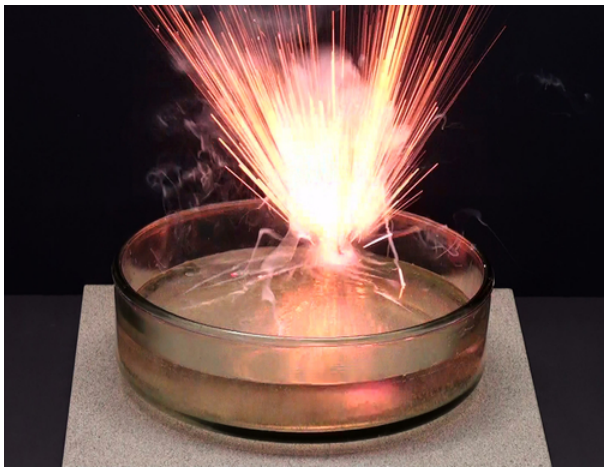


Figure 9.9.1: A small piece of potassium metal explodes as it reacts with water. (CC SA-BY 3.0; Tavoromann)

The reaction between alkali metals and oxygen is more complex:

- A common reaction is to form metal oxides which contain the ***O^{2-} ion***

$$4Li_{(s)} + O_{2(g)} \rightarrow \underbrace{2Li_2O_{(s)}}_{\text{lithium oxide}}$$

Other alkali metals ***can*** form metal peroxides (contains O_2^{2-} ion)

$$2Na(s) + O_{2(g)} \rightarrow \underbrace{Na_2O_{2(s)}}_{\text{sodium peroxide}}$$

K, Rb and Cs ***can*** also form superoxides (O_2^- ion)

$$K(s) + O_{2(g)} \rightarrow \underbrace{KO_{2(s)}}_{\text{potassium superoxide}}$$

Colors via Absorption

The color of a chemical is produced when a valence electron in an atom is excited from one energy level to another by visible radiation. In this case, the particular frequency of light that excites the electron is ***absorbed***. Thus, the remaining light that you see is white light devoid of one or more wavelengths (thus appearing colored). Alkali metals, having lost their outermost electrons, have no electrons that can be excited by visible radiation. Alkali metal salts and their aqueous solution are colorless unless they contain a colored anion.

Colors via Emission

When alkali metals are placed in a flame the ions are reduced (gain an electron) in the lower part of the flame. The electron is excited (jumps to a higher orbital) by the high temperature of the flame. When the excited electron falls back down to a lower orbital a photon is released. The transition of the valence electron of sodium from the 3p down to the 3s subshell results in release of a photon with a wavelength of 589 nm (yellow)

Flame colors:

- Lithium: crimson red

- Sodium: yellow
- Potassium: lilac

Group 2: The Alkaline Earth Metals

Compared with the alkali metals, the alkaline earth metals are typically harder, more dense, melt at a higher temperature. The first ionization energies (I_1) of the alkaline earth metals are not as low as the alkali metals. The alkaline earth metals are therefore less reactive than the alkali metals (Be and Mg are the least reactive of the alkaline earth metals). Several physical properties of these elements are compared in Table 9.9.2.

Table 9.9.2: General Properties of Group 2 Metals

Element	Electronic Configuration	Melting Point (°C)	Density (g/cm^3)	Atomic Radius	Ionization Energy (kJ/mol)
Beryllium	$[He]2s^2$	1278	1.85	1.52	899
Magnesium	$[Ne]3s^2$	649	1.74	1.60	738
Calcium	$[Ar]4s^2$	839	1.54	1.97	590
Strontium	$[Kr]5s^2$	769	2.54	2.15	549
Barium	$[Xe]6s^2$	725	3.51	2.17	503

Calcium, and elements below it, react readily with water at room temperature:

$$Ca_{(s)} + 2H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow Ca(OH)_{2(aq)} + H_{2(g)}$$

The tendency of the alkaline earths to lose their two valence electrons is demonstrated in the reactivity of Mg towards chlorine gas and oxygen:

$$Mg_{(s)} + Cl_{2(g)} \rightarrow MgCl_{2(s)}$$

$$2Mg_{(s)} + O_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2MgO_{(s)}$$

The 2+ ions of the alkaline earth metals have a noble gas like electron configuration and are thus form colorless or white compounds (unless the anion is itself colored). Flame colors:

- Calcium: brick red
- Strontium: crimson red
- Barium: green

Contributors and Attributions

- Mike Blaber (Florida State University)

Learning Objectives

- To understand the trends in properties and reactivity of the group 18 elements: the noble gases.

The noble gases were all isolated for the first time within a period of only five years at the end of the 19th century. Their very existence was not suspected until the 18th century, when early work on the composition of air suggested that it contained small amounts of gases in addition to oxygen, nitrogen, carbon dioxide, and water vapor. Helium was the first of the noble gases to be identified, when the existence of this previously unknown element on the sun was demonstrated by new spectral lines seen during a solar eclipse in 1868. Actual samples of helium were not obtained until almost 30 years later, however. In the 1890s, the English physicist J. W. Strutt (Lord Rayleigh) carefully measured the density of the gas that remained after he had removed all O_2, CO_2, and water vapor from air and showed that this residual gas was slightly denser than pure N_2 obtained by the thermal decomposition of ammonium nitrite. In 1894, he and the Scottish chemist William Ramsay announced the isolation of a new “substance” (not necessarily a new element) from the residual nitrogen gas. Because they could not force this substance to decompose or react with anything, they named it argon (Ar), from the Greek argos, meaning “lazy.” Because the measured molar mass of argon was 39.9

g/mol, Ramsay speculated that it was a member of a new group of elements located on the right side of the periodic table between the halogens and the alkali metals. He also suggested that these elements should have a preferred valence of 0, intermediate between the +1 of the alkali metals and the −1 of the halogens.

J. W. Strutt (Lord Rayleigh) (1842–1919)

Lord Rayleigh was one of the few members of British higher nobility to be recognized as an outstanding scientist. Throughout his youth, his education was repeatedly interrupted by his frail health, and he was not expected to reach maturity. In 1861 he entered Trinity College, Cambridge, where he excelled at mathematics. A severe attack of rheumatic fever took him abroad, but in 1873 he succeeded to the barony and was compelled to devote his time to the management of his estates. After leaving the entire management to his younger brother, Lord Rayleigh was able to devote his time to science. He was a recipient of honorary science and law degrees from Cambridge University.

Sir William Ramsay (1852–1916)

Born and educated in Glasgow, Scotland, Ramsay was expected to study for the Calvanist ministry. Instead, he became interested in chemistry while reading about the manufacture of gunpowder. Ramsay earned his PhD in organic chemistry at the University of Tübingen in Germany in 1872. When he returned to England, his interests turned first to physical chemistry and then to inorganic chemistry. He is best known for his work on the oxides of nitrogen and for the discovery of the noble gases with Lord Rayleigh.

In 1895, Ramsey was able to obtain a terrestrial sample of helium for the first time. Then, in a single year (1898), he discovered the next three noble gases: krypton (Kr), from the Greek kryptos, meaning “hidden,” was identified by its orange and green emission lines; neon (Ne), from the Greek neos, meaning “new,” had bright red emission lines; and xenon (Xe), from the Greek xenos, meaning “strange,” had deep blue emission lines. The last noble gas was discovered in 1900 by the German chemist Friedrich Dorn, who was investigating radioactivity in the air around the newly discovered radioactive elements radium and polonium. The element was named radon (Rn), and Ramsay succeeded in obtaining enough radon in 1908 to measure its density (and thus its atomic mass). For their discovery of the noble gases, Rayleigh was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics and Ramsay the Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1904. Because helium has the lowest boiling point of any substance known (4.2 K), it is used primarily as a cryogenic liquid. Helium and argon are both much less soluble in water (and therefore in blood) than N_2, so scuba divers often use gas mixtures that contain these gases, rather than N_2, to minimize the likelihood of the “bends,” the painful and potentially fatal formation of bubbles of $N_2(g)$ that can occur when a diver returns to the surface too rapidly.

Preparation and General Properties of the Group 18 Elements

Fractional distillation of liquid air is the only source of all the noble gases except helium. Although helium is the second most abundant element in the universe (after hydrogen), the helium originally present in Earth’s atmosphere was lost into space long ago because of its low molecular mass and resulting high mean velocity. Natural gas often contains relatively high concentrations of helium (up to 7%), however, and it is the only practical terrestrial source.

The elements of group 18 all have closed-shell valence electron configurations, either ns^2np^6 or $1s^2$ for He. Consistent with periodic trends in atomic properties, these elements have high ionization energies that decrease smoothly down the group. From their electron affinities, the data in Table 9.9.1 indicate that the noble gases are unlikely to form compounds in negative oxidation states. A potent oxidant is needed to oxidize noble gases and form compounds in positive oxidation states. Like the heavier halogens, xenon and perhaps krypton should form covalent compounds with F, O, and possibly Cl, in which they have even formal oxidation states (+2, +4, +6, and possibly +8). These predictions actually summarize the chemistry observed for these elements.

Table 9.9.1: Selected Properties of the Group 18 Elements

Property	Helium	Neon	Argon	Krypton	Xenon	Radon
atomic symbol	He	Ne	Ar	Kr	Xe	Rn
atomic number	2	10	18	36	54	86

*The configuration shown does not include filled d and f subshells. †This is the normal boiling point of He. Solid He does not exist at 1 atm pressure, so no melting point can be given.

Property	Helium	Neon	Argon	Krypton	Xenon	Radon
atomic mass (amu)	4.00	20.18	39.95	83.80	131.29	222
valence electron configuration*	$1s^2$	$2s^2 2p^6$	$3s^2 3p^6$	$4s^2 4p^6$	$5s^2 5p^6$	$6s^2 6p^6$
triple point/boiling point (°C)	—/−269†	−249 (at 43 kPa)/−246	−189 (at 69 kPa)/−189	−157/−153	−112 (at 81.6 kPa)/−108	−71/−62
density (g/L) at 25°C	0.16	0.83	1.63	3.43	5.37	9.07
atomic radius (pm)	31	38	71	88	108	120
first ionization energy (kJ/mol)	2372	2081	1521	1351	1170	1037
normal oxidation state(s)	0	0	0	0 (+2)	0 (+2, +4, +6, +8)	0 (+2)
electron affinity (kJ/mol)	> 0	> 0	> 0	> 0	> 0	> 0
electronegativity	—	—	—	—	2.6	—
product of reaction with O_2	none	none	none	none	not directly with oxygen, but XeO_3 can be formed by Equation 9.9.5	none
type of oxide	—	—	—	—	acidic	—
product of reaction with N_2	none	none	none	none	none	none
product of reaction with X_2	none	none	none	KrF_2	XeF_2, XeF_4, XeF_6	RnF_2
product of reaction with H_2	none	none	none	none	none	none

*The configuration shown does not include filled d and f subshells. †This is the normal boiling point of He. Solid He does not exist at 1 atm pressure, so no melting point can be given.

Reactions and Compounds of the Noble Gases

For many years, it was thought that the only compounds the noble gases could form were clathrates. Clathrates are solid compounds in which a gas, the guest, occupies holes in a lattice formed by a less volatile, chemically dissimilar substance, the host (Figure 9.9.1).

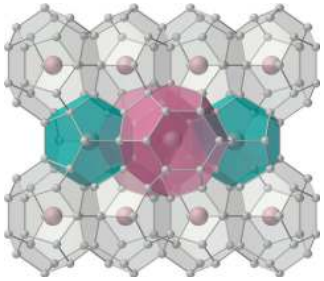


Figure 9.9.1: The Structure of Xenon Hydrate, a Clathrate. Small gaseous atoms or molecules such as Xe or CH_4 can occupy cavities in a lattice of hydrogen-bonded water molecules to produce a stable structure with a fixed stoichiometry (in this case, $Xe{\cdot}5.75H_2O$). (The hydrogen atoms of the water molecules have been omitted for clarity.) Warming the solid hydrate or decreasing the pressure of the gas causes it to collapse, with the evolution of gas and the formation of liquid water.

Because clathrate formation does not involve the formation of chemical bonds between the guest (Xe) and the host molecules (H_2O, in the case of xenon hydrate), the guest molecules are immediately released when the clathrate is melted or dissolved.

Methane Clathrates

In addition to the noble gases, many other species form stable clathrates. One of the most interesting is methane hydrate, large deposits of which occur naturally at the bottom of the oceans. It is estimated that the amount of methane in such deposits could have a major impact on the world's energy needs later in this century.

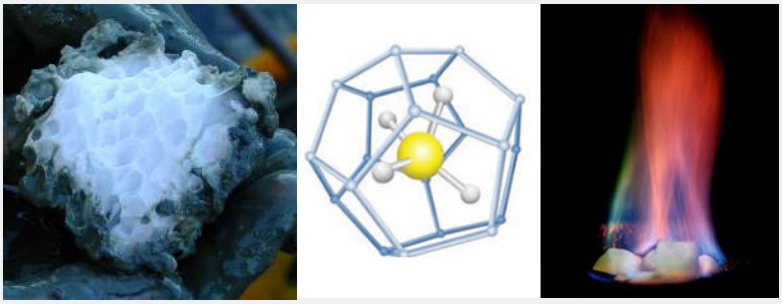


Figure 9.9.2: "Burning snowballs." Like xenon, methane (CH_4) forms a crystalline clathrate with water: methane hydrate. When the solid is warmed, methane is released and can be ignited to give what appears to be burning snow. (left) Structure of a gas hydrate (methane clathrate) block embedded in the sediment of hydrate ridge, off Oregon, USA (CC-SA-BY-3.0 Wusel007) (middle) A ball-and-stick model of methane hydrate showing the central methane molecule surrounded by a "cage" of water molecules. Other hydrocarbon molecules such as pentane and ethane can occupy the central position in this structure. (United States Department of Energy image). (Right): A burning specimen of methane hydrate ice (United States Geological Survey image).

The widely held belief in the intrinsic lack of reactivity of the noble gases was challenged when Neil Bartlett, a British professor of chemistry at the University of British Columbia, showed that PtF_6, a compound used in the Manhattan Project, could oxidize O_2. Because the ionization energy of xenon (1170 kJ/mol) is actually lower than that of O_2, Bartlett recognized that PtF_6 should also be able to oxidize xenon. When he mixed colorless xenon gas with deep red PtF_6 vapor, yellow-orange crystals immediately formed (Figure 9.9.3). Although Bartlett initially postulated that they were $Xe^+PtF_6^-$, it is now generally agreed that the reaction also involves the transfer of a fluorine atom to xenon to give the XeF^+ ion:

$$Xe(g) + PtF_6(g) \longrightarrow [XeF^+][PtF_5^-](s) \tag{9.9.1}$$

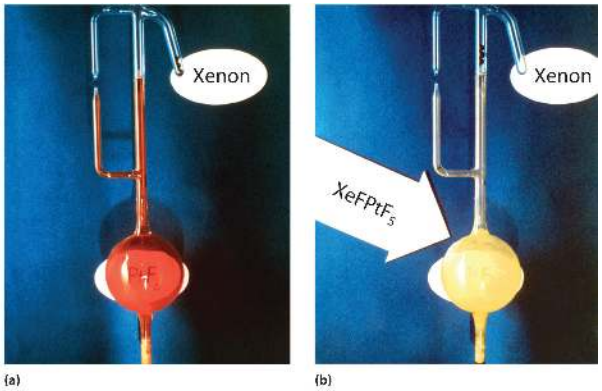


Figure 9.9.3: The Synthesis of the First Chemical Compound of Xenon. (a) An apparatus containing platinum hexafluoride, the red vapor at the bottom left, and xenon, the colorless gas in the small tube at the upper right. (b) When the glass seal separating the two gases is broken and the gases are allowed to mix, a bright yellow solid is formed, which is best described as $XeF^+PtF_5^-$.

Subsequent work showed that xenon reacts directly with fluorine under relatively mild conditions to give XeF_2, XeF_4, or XeF_6, depending on conditions; one such reaction is as follows:

$$\mathrm{Xe(g) + 2\,F_2(g) \longrightarrow XeF_4(s)} \tag{9.9.2}$$

The ionization energies of helium, neon, and argon are so high (Table 9.9.1) that no stable compounds of these elements are known. The ionization energies of krypton and xenon are lower but still very high; consequently only highly electronegative elements (F, O, and Cl) can form stable compounds with xenon and krypton without being oxidized themselves. Xenon reacts directly with only two elements: F_2 and Cl_2. Although $\mathrm{XeCl_2}$ and $\mathrm{KrF_2}$ can be prepared directly from the elements, they are substantially less stable than the xenon fluorides.

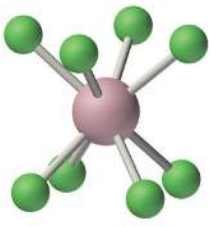
> *The ionization energies of helium, neon, and argon are so high that no stable compounds of these elements are known.*

Because halides of the noble gases are powerful oxidants and fluorinating agents, they decompose rapidly after contact with trace amounts of water, and they react violently with organic compounds or other reductants. The xenon fluorides are also Lewis acids; they react with the fluoride ion, the only Lewis base that is not oxidized immediately on contact, to form anionic complexes. For example, reacting cesium fluoride with XeF_6 produces $CsXeF_7$, which gives Cs_2XeF_8 when heated:

$$\mathrm{XeF_6(s) + CsF(s) \longrightarrow CsXeF_7(s)} \tag{9.9.3}$$

$$\mathrm{2\,CsXeF_7(s) \xrightarrow{\Delta} Cs_2XeF_8(s) + XeF_6(g)} \tag{9.9.4}$$

The $\mathrm{XeF_8^{2-}}$ ion contains eight-coordinate xenon and has the square antiprismatic structure, which is essentially identical to that of the IF_8^- ion. Cs_2XeF_8 is surprisingly stable for a polyatomic ion that contains xenon in the +6 oxidation state, decomposing only at temperatures greater than 300°C. Major factors in the stability of Cs_2XeF_8 are almost certainly the formation of a stable ionic lattice and the **high coordination number** of xenon, which protects the central atom from attack by other species. (Recall from that this latter effect is responsible for the extreme stability of SF_6.)



For a previously “inert” gas, xenon has a surprisingly high affinity for oxygen, presumably because of π bonding between O and Xe. Consequently, xenon forms an extensive series of oxides and oxoanion salts. For example, hydrolysis of either XeF_4 or XeF_6 produces XeO_3, an explosive white solid:

$$XeF_6(aq) + 3\,H_2O(l) \longrightarrow XeO_3(aq) + 6\,HF(aq) \tag{9.9.5}$$

Treating a solution of XeO_3 with ozone, a strong oxidant, results in further oxidation of xenon to give either XeO_4, a colorless, explosive gas, or the surprisingly stable perxenate ion (XeO_6^{4-}), both of which contain xenon in its highest possible oxidation state (+8). The chemistry of the xenon halides and oxides is best understood by analogy to the corresponding compounds of iodine. For example, XeO_3 is isoelectronic with the iodate ion (IO_3^-), and XeF_8^{2-} is isoelectronic with the IF_8^- ion.

> *Xenon has a high affinity for both fluorine and oxygen.*

Because the ionization energy of radon is less than that of xenon, in principle radon should be able to form an even greater variety of chemical compounds than xenon. Unfortunately, however, radon is so radioactive that its chemistry has not been extensively explored.

Example 9.9.1

On a virtual planet similar to Earth, at least one isotope of radon is not radioactive. A scientist explored its chemistry and presented her major conclusions in a trailblazing paper on radon compounds, focusing on the kinds of compounds formed and their stoichiometries. Based on periodic trends, how did she summarize the chemistry of radon?

Given: nonradioactive isotope of radon

Asked for: summary of its chemistry

Strategy:

Based on the position of radon in the periodic table and periodic trends in atomic properties, thermodynamics, and kinetics, predict the most likely reactions and compounds of radon.

Solution

We expect radon to be significantly easier to oxidize than xenon. Based on its position in the periodic table, however, we also expect its bonds to other atoms to be weaker than those formed by xenon. Radon should be more difficult to oxidize to its highest possible oxidation state (+8) than xenon because of the inert-pair effect. Consequently, radon should form an extensive series of fluorides, including RnF_2, RnF_4, RnF_6, and possibly RnF_8 (due to its large radius). The ion RnF_8^{2-} should also exist. We expect radon to form a series of oxides similar to those of xenon, including RnO_3 and possibly RnO_4. The biggest surprise in radon chemistry is likely to be the existence of stable chlorides, such as $RnCl_2$ and possibly even $RnCl_4$.

Exercise 9.9.1

Predict the stoichiometry of the product formed by reacting XeF_6 with a 1:1 stoichiometric amount of KF and propose a reasonable structure for the anion.

Answer

$KXeF_7$; the xenon atom in XeF_7^- has 16 valence electrons, which according to the valence-shell electron-pair repulsion model could give either a square antiprismatic structure with one fluorine atom missing or a pentagonal bipyramid if the $5s^2$ electrons behave like an inert pair that does not participate in bonding.

Summary

The noble gases are characterized by their high ionization energies and low electron affinities. Potent oxidants are needed to oxidize the noble gases to form compounds in positive oxidation states. The noble gases have a closed-shell valence electron configuration. The ionization energies of the noble gases decrease with increasing atomic number. Only highly electronegative elements can form stable compounds with the noble gases in positive oxidation states without being oxidized themselves. Xenon has a high affinity for both fluorine and oxygen, which form stable compounds that contain xenon in even oxidation states up to +8.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

10: Chemical Bonding I- Lewis Structures

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10.1: Models and Funtionality of proteins

X-ray Crystallography is a scientific method used to determine the arrangement of atoms of a crystalline solid in three-dimensional space. This technique takes advantage of the interatomic spacing of most crystalline solids by employing them as a diffraction gradient for x-ray light, which has wavelengths on the order of 1 angstrom (10^{-8} cm).

Introduction

In 1895, Wilhelm Rontgen discovered x- rays. The nature of x- rays, whether they were particles or electromagnetic radiation, was a topic of debate until 1912. If the wave idea was correct, researchers knew that the wavelength of this light would need to be on the order of 1 Angstrom (A) (10^{-8} cm). Diffraction and measurement of such small wavelengths would require a gradient with spacing on the same order of magnitude as the light.

In 1912, Max von Laue, at the University of Munich in Germany, postulated that atoms in a crystal lattice had a regular, periodic structure with interatomic distances on the order of 1 A. Without having any evidence to support his claim on the periodic arrangements of atoms in a lattice, he further postulated that the crystalline structure can be used to diffract x-rays, much like a gradient in an infrared spectrometer can diffract infrared light. His postulate was based on the following assumptions: the atomic lattice of a crystal is periodic, x- rays are electromagnetic radiation, and the interatomic distance of a crystal are on the same order of magnitude as x- ray light. Laue's predictions were confirmed when two researchers: Friedrich and Knipping, successfully photographed the diffraction pattern associated with the x-ray radiation of crystalline CuSO4·5H2OCuSO4·5H2O. The science of x-ray crystallography was born.

The arrangement of the atoms needs to be in an ordered, periodic structure in order for them to diffract the x-ray beams. A series of mathematical calculations is then used to produce a diffraction pattern that is characteristic to the particular arrangement of atoms in that crystal. X-ray crystallography remains to this day the primary tool used by researchers in characterizing the structure and bonding of organometallic compounds.

Proteins are among the many biological molecules that are used for x-ray Crystallography studies. They are involved in many pathways in biology, often catalyzing reactions by increasing the reaction rate. Most scientists use x-ray Crystallography to solve the structures of proteins and to determine the functions of residues, interactions with substrates, and interactions with other proteins or nucleic acids. Proteins can be co-crystallized with these substrates, or they may be soaked into the crystal after crystallization.

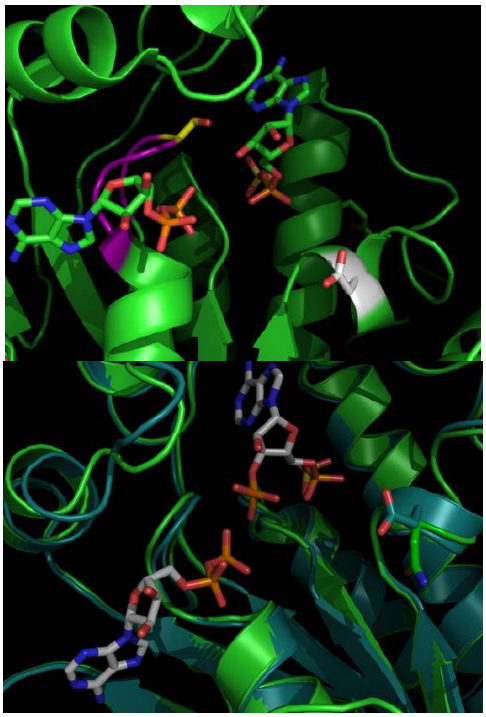


Figure 9: Top Left) This is the structure of APS Kinase co - crystallized with ligands ADP and APS created via pymol by an undergrad working in the Structural Biology lab at UC Davis; Bottom right) This is the mutant overlay of APS kinase. The teal is the wild - type and the lime green is the mutant. D63 (from the wild-type) is mutated to asparagine. Images created by pymol by an undergrad working in the Structural Biology lab at UC Davis.

3D Structures

The tridimensional structure of proteins is fundamental for biological activity. That means that it is important for scientists to learn this structure and the shape of the molecules.

Lewis Structures

A Lewis Structure is a representation of molecules where all the valence electrons are shown distributed about the bonded atoms as either shared electron pairs (bond pairs) or unshared electron pairs (lone pairs). A shared pair of electrons is represented as a short line (a single bond). Sometimes atoms can share two pairs of electrons, represented by two short lines (a double bond). Atoms can even share three pairs of electrons, represented by three short lines (a triple bond). Pairs of dots are used to represent lone pair electrons.

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10.2: Types of Chemical Bonds

Learning Objectives

- To quantitatively describe the energetic factors involved in the formation of an ionic bond.

Chemical bonds form when electrons can be simultaneously close to two or more nuclei, but beyond this, there is no simple, easily understood theory that would not only explain why atoms bind together to form molecules, but would also predict the three-dimensional structures of the resulting compounds as well as the energies and other properties of the bonds themselves. Unfortunately, no one theory exists that accomplishes these goals in a satisfactory way for all of the many categories of compounds that are known. Moreover, it seems likely that if such a theory does ever come into being, it will be far from simple.

When we are faced with a scientific problem of this complexity, experience has shown that it is often more useful to concentrate instead on developing **models**. A scientific model is something like a theory in that it should be able to explain observed phenomena and to make useful predictions. But whereas a theory can be discredited by a single contradictory case, a model can be useful even if it does not encompass all instances of the phenomena it attempts to explain. We do not even require that a model be a credible representation of reality; all we ask is that be able to explain the behavior of those cases to which it is applicable in terms that are consistent with the model itself. An example of a model that you may already know about is the kinetic molecular theory of gases. Despite its name, this is really a model (at least at the level that beginning students use it) because it does not even try to explain the observed behavior of real gases. Nevertheless, it serves as a tool for developing our understanding of gases, and as a starting point for more elaborate treatments.Given the extraordinary variety of ways in which atoms combine into aggregates, it should come as no surprise that a number of useful bonding models have been developed. Most of them apply only to certain classes of compounds, or attempt to explain only a restricted range of phenomena. In this section we will provide brief descriptions of some of the bonding models; the more important of these will be treated in much more detail in later parts of this chapter.

Ionic Bonding

Ions are atoms or molecules which are electrically charged. **Cations** are positively charged and **anions** carry a negative charge. Ions form when atoms gain or lose electrons. Since electrons are negatively charged, an atom that loses one or more electrons will become positively charged; an atom that gains one or more electrons becomes negatively charged. Ionic bonding is the attraction between positively- and negatively-charged **ions**. These oppositely charged ions attract each other to form ionic networks (or lattices). Electrostatics explains why this happens: opposite charges attract and like charges repel. When many ions attract each other, they form large, ordered, crystal lattices in which each ion is surrounded by ions of the opposite charge. Generally, when metals react with non-metals, electrons are transferred from the metals to the non-metals. The metals form positively-charged ions and the non-metals form negatively-charged ions.

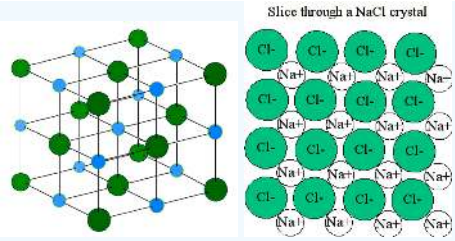
Ionic bonds form when metals and non-metals chemically react. By definition, a metal is relatively stable if it loses electrons to form a complete valence shell and becomes positively charged. Likewise, a non-metal becomes stable by gaining electrons to complete its valence shell and become negatively charged. When metals and non-metals react, the metals lose electrons by transferring them to the non-metals, which gain them. Consequently, ions are formed, which instantly attract each other—ionic bonding.

Example 10.2.1: Sodium Chloride

For example, in the reaction of Na (sodium) and Cl (chlorine), each Cl atom takes one electron from a Na atom. Therefore each Na becomes a Na^+ cation and each Cl atom becomes a Cl^- anion. Due to their opposite charges, they attract each other to form an ionic lattice. The formula (ratio of positive to negative ions) in the lattice is **NaCl**.

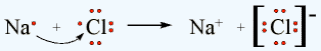
$$2Na_{(s)} + Cl_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2NaCl_{(s)} \tag{10.2.1}$$

These ions are arranged in solid NaCl in a regular three-dimensional arrangement (or lattice):



NaCl lattice. (left) 3-D structure and (right) simple 2D slice through lattes. Images used with permission from Wikipedia and Mike Blaber.

The chlorine has a high affinity for electrons, and the sodium has a low ionization potential. Thus the chlorine gains an electron from the sodium atom. This can be represented using ***electron-dot symbols*** (here we will consider one chlorine atom, rather than Cl_2):



The arrow indicates the transfer of the electron from sodium to chlorine to form the Na^+ metal ion and the Cl^- chloride ion. Each ion now has an **octet** of electrons in its valence shell:

- Na^+: $2s^2 2p^6$
- Cl^-: $3s^2 3p^6$

Covalent Bonding

Formation of an ionic bond by complete transfer of an electron from one atom to another is possible only for a fairly restricted set of elements. Covalent bonding, in which neither atom loses complete control over its valence electrons, is much more common. In a **covalent bond** the electrons occupy a region of space *between* the two nuclei and are said to be *shared* by them. This model originated with the theory developed by G.N. Lewis in 1916, and it remains the most widely-used model of chemical bonding. The essential element s of this model can best be understood by examining the simplest possible molecule. This is the **hydrogen molecule ion** H_2^+, which consists of two nuclei and one electron. First, however, think what would happen if we tried to make the even simpler molecule H_2^{2+}. Since this would consist only of two protons whose electrostatic charges would repel each other at all distances, it is clear that such a molecule cannot exist; something more than two nuclei are required for bonding to occur.

In the hydrogen molecule ion H_2^+ we have a third particle, an electron. The effect of this electron will depend on its location with respect to the two nuclei. If the electron is in the space between the two nuclei, it will attract both protons toward itself, and thus toward each other. If the total attraction energy exceeds the internuclear repulsion, there will be a net bonding effect and the molecule will be stable. If, on the other hand, the electron is off to one side, it will attract both nuclei, but it will attract the closer one much more strongly, owing to the inverse-square nature of Coulomb's law. As a consequence, the electron will now help the electrostatic repulsion to push the two nuclei apart.

We see, then, that the electron is an essential component of a chemical bond, but that it must be in the right place: between the two nuclei. Coulomb's law can be used to calculate the forces experienced by the two nuclei for various positions of the electron. This allows us to define two regions of space about the nuclei, as shown in the figure. One region, the binding region, depicts locations at which the electron exerts a net binding effect on the new nuclei. Outside of this, in the antibinding region, the electron will actually work against binding.Summary

The amount of energy needed to separate a gaseous ion pair is its bond energy. The formation of ionic compounds are usually ***extremely exothermic***. The strength of the electrostatic attraction between ions with opposite charges is directly proportional to the magnitude of the charges on the ions and inversely proportional to the internuclear distance. The total energy of the system is a balance between the repulsive interactions between electrons on adjacent ions and the attractive interactions between ions with opposite charges.

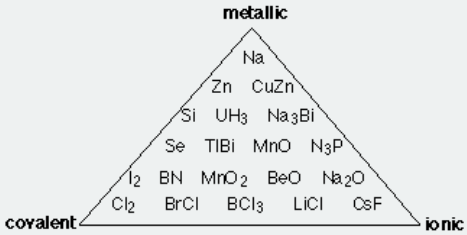
Metallic Bonding

Metals have several qualities that are unique, such as the ability to conduct electricity, a low ionization energy, and a low electronegativity (so they will give up electrons easily, i.e., they are cations). **Metallic bonding** is sort of like covalent bonding,

because it involves sharing electrons. The simplest model of metallic bonding is the "sea of electrons" model, which imagines that the atoms sit in a sea of valence electrons that are delocalized over all the atoms. Because there are not specific bonds between individual atoms, metals are more flexible. The atoms can move around and the electron sea will keep holding them together. Some metals are very hard and have very high melting points, while others are soft and have low melting points. This depends roughly on the number of valence electrons that form the sea.

A False Dichotomy: The Ionic vs. Colvalent

The covalent-ionic continuum described above is certainly an improvement over the old covalent -*versus* - ionic dichotomy that existed only in the textbook and classroom, but it is still only a one-dimensional view of a multidimensional world, and thus a view that hides more than it reveals. The main thing missing is any allowance for the type of bonding that occurs between more pairs of elements than any other: metallic bonding. Intermetallic compounds are rarely even mentioned in introductory courses, but since most of the elements are metals, there are a lot of them, and many play an important role in metallurgy. In metallic bonding, the valence electrons lose their association with individual atoms; they form what amounts to a mobile "electron fluid" that fills the space between the crystal lattice positions occupied by the atoms, (now essentially positive ions.) The more readily this electron delocalization occurs, the more "metallic" the element.



A triangular diagram whose corners are labeled metallic, covalent, and ionic. The chemical formula of some elements and compounds are listed inside the triangle.

Thus instead of the one-dimension chart shown above, we can construct a triangular diagram whose corners represent the three extremes of "pure" covalent, ionic, and metallic bonding.

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10.3: Representing Valance Electrons with Dots

Learning Objectives

- To use Lewis electron dot symbols to predict the number of bonds an element will form.

Why are some substances chemically bonded molecules and others are an association of ions? The answer to this question depends upon the electronic structures of the atoms and nature of the chemical forces within the compounds. Although there are no sharply defined boundaries, chemical bonds are typically classified into three main types: ionic bonds, covalent bonds, and metallic bonds. In this chapter, each type of bond wil be discussed and the general properties found in typical substances in which the bond type occurs

1. Ionic bonds results from ***electrostatic forces that exist between ions of opposite charge***. These bonds typically involves a metal with a nonmetal
2. Covalent bonds ***result from the sharing of electrons between two atoms***. The bonds typically involves one nonmetallic element with another
3. Metallic bonds These bonds are found in solid metals (copper, iron, aluminum) with each metal bonded to several neighboring groups and bonding electrons free to move throughout the 3-dimensional structure.

Each bond classification is discussed in detail in subsequent sections of the chapter. Let's look at the preferred arrangements of electrons in atoms when they form chemical compounds.

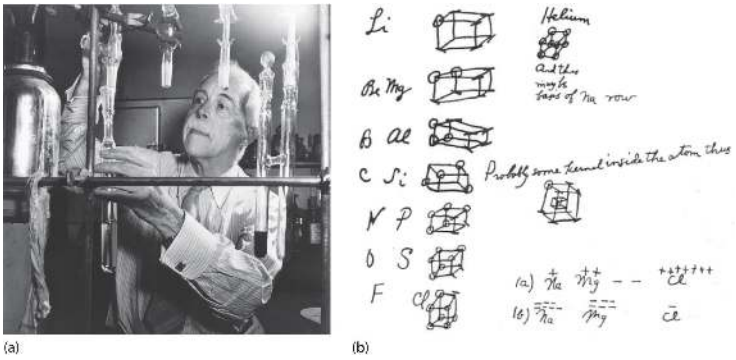


Figure 10.3.1: G. N. Lewis and the Octet Rule. (a) Lewis is working in the laboratory. (b) In Lewis's original sketch for the octet rule, he initially placed the electrons at the corners of a cube rather than placing them as we do now.

Lewis Symbols

At the beginning of the 20th century, the American chemist G. N. Lewis (1875–1946) devised a system of symbols—now called *Lewis electron dot symbols* (often shortened to *Lewis dot symbols*) that can be used for predicting the number of bonds formed by most elements in their compounds. Each Lewis dot symbol consists of the chemical symbol for an element surrounded by dots that represent its valence electrons.

Lewis Dot symbols:

- convenient representation of valence electrons
- allows you to keep track of valence electrons during bond formation
- consists of the chemical symbol for the element plus a dot for each valence electron

To write an element's Lewis dot symbol, we place dots representing its valence electrons, one at a time, around the element's chemical symbol. Up to four dots are placed above, below, to the left, and to the right of the symbol (in any order, as long as elements with four or fewer valence electrons have no more than one dot in each position). The next dots, for elements with more than four valence electrons, are again distributed one at a time, each paired with one of the first four. For example, the electron configuration for atomic sulfur is $[Ne]3s^2 3p^4$, thus there are ***six*** valence electrons. Its Lewis symbol would therefore be:



Fluorine, for example, with the electron configuration [He]$2s^2 2p^5$, has seven valence electrons, so its Lewis dot symbol is constructed as follows:

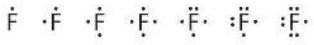


Figure 8.1.2.

Lewis used the unpaired dots to predict the number of bonds that an element will form in a compound. Consider the symbol for nitrogen in Figure 8.1.2. The Lewis dot symbol explains why nitrogen, with three unpaired valence electrons, tends to form compounds in which it shares the unpaired electrons to form three bonds. Boron, which also has three unpaired valence electrons in its Lewis dot symbol, also tends to form compounds with three bonds, whereas carbon, with four unpaired valence electrons in its Lewis dot symbol, tends to share all of its unpaired valence electrons by forming compounds in which it has four bonds.

Element	Electron config.	Electron dot symbol
Li	[He]$2s^1$	Li•
Be	[He]$2s^2$	•Be•
B	[He]$2s^2 2p^1$	•B•
C	[He]$2s^2 2p^2$	•C•
N	[He]$2s^2 2p^3$	•N:
O	[He]$2s^2 2p^4$	:O:
F	[He]$2s^2 2p^5$	:F:
Ne	[He]$2s^2 2p^6$	:Ne:

Figure 10.3.2: Lewis Dot Symbols for the Elements in Period 2

L i has one dot on the right, B e has one dot on the left and right, B has one dot on the left, right, and above. C has one dot above, below, on the left and on the right. N has one dot above, below, on the left and two dots on the right. O has two dots on the left and right and one dot above and below. F has two dots above, on the left, on the right and on dot below. N e has two dots above, below, on the right, and on the left.



The Octet Rule

In 1904, Richard Abegg formulated what is now known as *Abegg's rule*, which states that the difference between the maximum positive and negative valences of an element is frequently eight. This rule was used later in 1916 when Gilbert N. Lewis formulated the "octet rule" in his cubical atom theory. The **octet rule** refers to the tendency of atoms to prefer to have eight electrons in the *valence shell*. When atoms have fewer than eight electrons, they tend to react and form more stable compounds. Atoms will react to get in the most stable state possible. A complete octet is very stable because all orbitals will be full. Atoms with greater stability have less energy, so a reaction that increases the stability of the atoms will release energy in the form of heat or light ;reactions that decrease stability must absorb energy, getting colder.

When discussing the octet rule, we do not consider *d* or *f* electrons. Only the s and p electrons are involved in the octet rule, making it a useful rule for the *main group elements* (elements not in the transition metal or inner-transition metal blocks); an octet in these atoms corresponds to an electron configurations ending with s^2p^6.

Definition: Octet Rule

A stable arrangement is attended when the atom is surrounded by eight electrons. This octet can be made up by own electrons and some electrons which are shared. Thus, an atom continues to form bonds until an octet of electrons is made. This is known as octet rule by Lewis.

1. Normally two electrons pairs up and forms a bond, e.g., H_2
2. For most atoms there will be a maximum of eight electrons in the valence shell (octet structure), e.g., CH_4

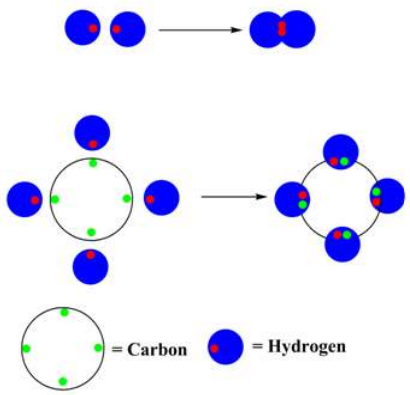


Figure 1: Bonding in H_2 and methane (CH_4)

A hydrogen bonds with each of the four valence electrons of a carbon meaning that four hydrogens can bond with one carbon.

The other tendency of atoms is to maintain a neutral charge. Only the noble gases (the elements on the right-most column of the periodic table) have zero charge with filled valence octets. All of the other elements have a charge when they have eight electrons all to themselves. The result of these two guiding principles is the explanation for much of the reactivity and bonding that is observed within atoms: atoms seek to share electrons in a way that minimizes charge while fulfilling an octet in the valence shell.

The noble gases rarely form compounds. They have the most stable configuration (full octet, no charge), so they have no reason to react and change their configuration. All other elements attempt to gain, lose, or share electrons to achieve a noble gas configuration.

Example 10.3.1: Salt

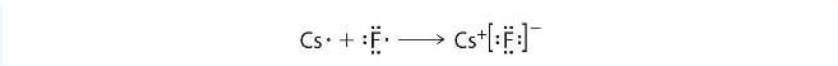
The formula for table salt is NaCl. It is the result of Na^+ ions and Cl^- ions bonding together. If sodium metal and chlorine gas mix under the right conditions, they will form salt. The sodium loses an electron, and the chlorine gains that electron. In the process, a great amount of light and heat is released. The resulting salt is mostly unreactive — it is stable. It will not undergo any explosive reactions, unlike the sodium and chlorine that it is made of. Why?

Solution

Referring to the octet rule, atoms attempt to get a noble gas electron configuration, which is eight valence electrons. Sodium has one valence electron, so giving it up would result in the same electron configuration as neon. Chlorine has seven valence electrons, so if it takes one it will have eight (an octet). Chlorine has the electron configuration of argon when it gains an electron.

The octet rule could have been satisfied if chlorine gave up all seven of its valence electrons and sodium took them. In that case, both would have the electron configurations of noble gasses, with a full valence shell. However, their charges would be much higher. It would be Na^{7-} and Cl^{7+}, which is much less stable than Na^+ and Cl^-. Atoms are more stable when they have no charge, or a small charge.

Lewis dot symbols can also be used to represent the ions in ionic compounds. The reaction of cesium with fluorine, for example, to produce the ionic compound CsF can be written as follows:



No dots are shown on Cs^+ in the product because cesium has lost its single valence electron to fluorine. The transfer of this electron produces the Cs^+ ion, which has the valence electron configuration of Xe, and the F^- ion, which has a total of eight valence electrons (an octet) and the Ne electron configuration. This description is consistent with the statement that among the main group elements, ions in simple binary ionic compounds generally have the electron configurations of the nearest noble gas. The charge of each ion is written in the product, and the anion and its electrons are enclosed in brackets. This notation emphasizes that the ions are associated electrostatically; no electrons are shared between the two elements.

> *Atoms often gain, lose, or share electrons to achieve the same number of electrons as the noble gas closest to them in the periodic table.*

As you might expect for such a qualitative approach to bonding, there are exceptions to the octet rule, which we describe elsewhere. These include molecules in which one or more atoms contain fewer or more than eight electrons.

Summary

Lewis dot symbols can be used to predict the number of bonds formed by most elements in their compounds. One convenient way to predict the number and basic arrangement of bonds in compounds is by using **Lewis electron dot symbols**, which consist of the chemical symbol for an element surrounded by dots that represent its valence electrons, grouped into pairs often placed above, below, and to the left and right of the symbol. The structures reflect the fact that the elements in period 2 and beyond tend to gain, lose, or share electrons to reach a total of eight valence electrons in their compounds, the so-called **octet rule**. Hydrogen, with only two valence electrons, does not obey the octet rule.

Contributors and Attributions

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10.4: Ionic Bonding

Learning Objectives

- To describe the characteristics of ionic bonding.
- To quantitatively describe the energetic factors involved in the formation of an ionic bond.

Ions are atoms or molecules which are electrically charged. **Cations** are positively charged and **anions** carry a negative charge. Ions form when atoms gain or lose electrons. Since electrons are negatively charged, an atom that loses one or more electrons will become positively charged; an atom that gains one or more electrons becomes negatively charged. **Ionic bonding** is the attraction between positively- and negatively-charged ions. These oppositely charged ions attract each other to form ionic networks (or **lattices**). Electrostatics explains why this happens: opposite charges attract and like charges repel. When many ions attract each other, they form large, ordered, crystal lattices in which each ion is surrounded by ions of the opposite charge. Generally, when metals react with non-metals, electrons are transferred from the metals to the non-metals. The metals form positively-charged ions and the non-metals form negatively-charged ions.

Generating Ionic Bonds

Ionic bonds form when metals and non-metals chemically react. By definition, a metal is relatively stable if it loses electrons to form a complete valence shell and becomes positively charged. Likewise, a non-metal becomes stable by gaining electrons to complete its valence shell and become negatively charged. When metals and non-metals react, the metals lose electrons by transferring them to the non-metals, which gain them. Consequently, ions are formed, which instantly attract each other—ionic bonding.

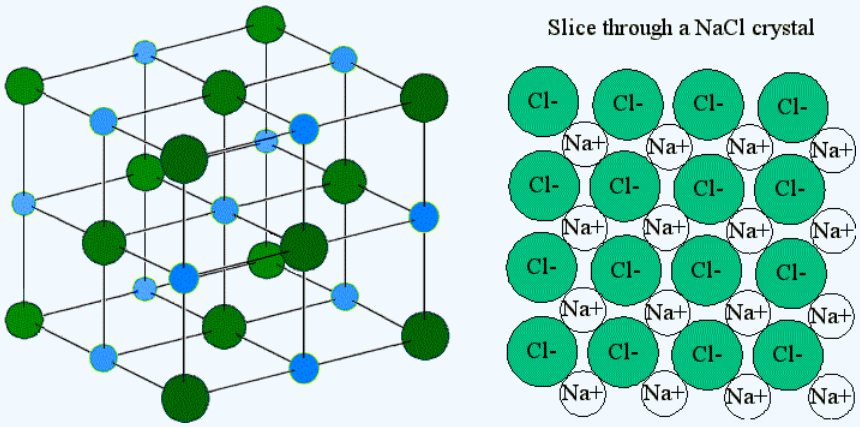
In the overall ionic compound, positive and negative charges must be balanced, because electrons cannot be created or destroyed, only transferred. Thus, the total number of electrons lost by the cationic species must equal the total number of electrons gained by the anionic species.

Example 10.4.1: Sodium Chloride

For example, in the reaction of Na (sodium) and Cl (chlorine), each Cl atom takes one electron from a Na atom. Therefore each Na becomes a Na^+ cation and each Cl atom becomes a Cl^- anion. Due to their opposite charges, they attract each other to form an ionic lattice. The formula (ratio of positive to negative ions) in the lattice is $NaCl$.

$$2\,Na(s) + Cl2\,(g) \rightarrow 2\,NaCl(s)$$

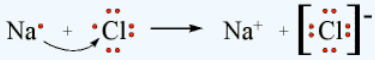
These ions are arranged in solid NaCl in a regular three-dimensional arrangement (or lattice):



NaCl lattice. (left) 3-D structure and (right) simple 2D slice through lattes. Images used with permission from Wikipedia and Mike Blaber.

The chlorine has a high affinity for electrons, and the sodium has a low ionization energy. Thus the chlorine gains an electron from the sodium atom. This can be represented using ewis dot symbols (here we will consider one chlorine atom, rather than

Cl_2):



Chlorine becomes more negative when it takes the one valence electron from sodium when it makes an octet.

The arrow indicates the transfer of the electron from sodium to chlorine to form the Na^+ metal ion and the Cl^- chloride ion. Each ion now has an **octet** of electrons in its valence shell:

- $Na^{+:}$ $2s^2 2p^6$
- Cl^-: $3s^2 3p^6$

Energetics of Ionic Bond Formation

Ionic bonds are formed when positively and negatively charged ions are held together by electrostatic forces. Consider a single pair of ions, one cation and one anion. How strong will the force of their attraction be? According to **Coulomb's Law**, the energy of the electrostatic attraction (E) between two charged particles is proportional to the magnitude of the charges and inversely proportional to the internuclear distance between the particles (r):

$$E \propto \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{r} \tag{10.4.1}$$

$$E = k\frac{Q_1 Q_2}{r} \tag{10.4.2}$$

where each ion's charge is represented by the symbol Q. The proportionality constant k is equal to 2.31×10^{-28} J·m. This value of k includes the charge of a single electron (1.6022×10^{-19} C) for each ion. The equation can also be written using the charge of each ion, expressed in coulombs (C), incorporated in the constant. In this case, the proportionality constant, k, equals 8.999 × 109 J·m/C^2. In the example given, Q_1 = +1(1.6022×10^{-19} C) and Q_2 = −1(1.6022×10^{-19} C). If Q_1 and Q_2 have opposite signs (as in NaCl, for example, where Q_1 is +1 for Na^+ and Q_2 is −1 for Cl^-), then E is negative, which means that energy is *released* when oppositely charged ions are brought together from an infinite distance to form an isolated ion pair.

> *Energy is always released when a bond is formed and correspondingly, it always requires energy to break a bond.*

As shown by the green curve in the lower half of Figure 10.4.1, the maximum energy would be released when the ions are infinitely close to each other, at r = 0. Because ions occupy space and have a structure with the positive nucleus being surrounded by electrons, however, they cannot be infinitely close together. At very short distances, repulsive electron–electron interactions between electrons on adjacent ions become stronger than the attractive interactions between ions with opposite charges, as shown by the red curve in the upper half of Figure 10.4.1. The total energy of the system is a balance between the attractive and repulsive interactions. The purple curve in Figure 10.4.1 shows that the total energy of the system reaches a minimum at r_0, the point where the electrostatic repulsions and attractions are exactly balanced. This distance is the same as the experimentally measured **bond distance**.

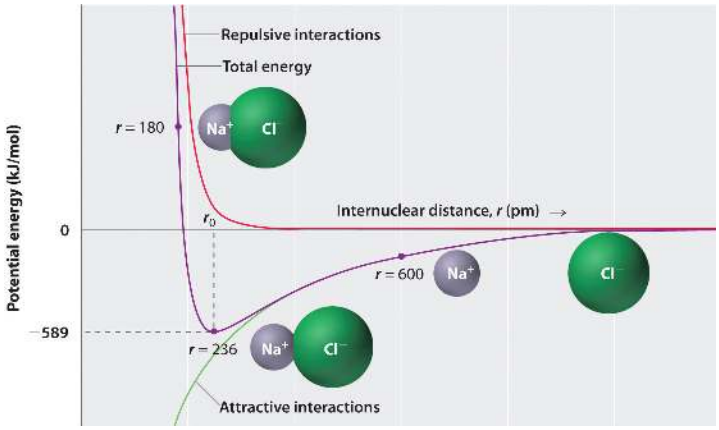


Figure 10.4.1: A Plot of Potential Energy versus Internuclear Distance for the Interaction between a Gaseous Na^+ Ion and a Gaseous Cl^- Ion. The energy of the system reaches a minimum at a particular distance (r_0) when the attractive and repulsive interactions are balanced.

Consider the energy released when a gaseous Na^+ ion and a gaseous Cl^- ion are brought together from $r = \infty$ to $r = r_0$. Given that the observed gas-phase internuclear distance is 236 pm, the energy change associated with the formation of an ion pair from an $Na^+_{(g)}$ ion and a $Cl^-_{(g)}$ ion is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} E &= k\frac{Q_1 Q_2}{r_0} \\ &= (2.31 \times 10^{-28}\,\text{J} \cdot \cancel{\text{m}}) \left(\frac{(+1)(-1)}{236\ \cancel{\text{pm}} \times 10^{-12}\ \text{m}/\cancel{\text{pm}}} \right) \\ &= -9.79 \times 10^{-19}\ J/ion\ pair \end{aligned}$$

The negative value indicates that energy is released. Our convention is that if a chemical process provides energy to the outside world, the energy change is negative. If it requires energy, the energy change is positive. To calculate the energy change in the formation of a mole of NaCl pairs, we need to multiply the energy per ion pair by Avogadro's number:

$$E = \left(-9.79 \times 10^{-19}\ J/\ \cancel{ionpair}\right)\left(6.022 \times 10^{23}\ \ \cancel{ion\ pair}/mol\right) = -589\ kJ/mol \tag{10.4.3}$$

This is the energy released when 1 mol of gaseous ion pairs is formed, *not* when 1 mol of positive and negative ions condenses to form a crystalline lattice. Because of long-range interactions in the lattice structure, this energy does not correspond directly to the **lattice energy** of the crystalline solid. However, the large negative value indicates that bringing positive and negative ions together is energetically very favorable, whether an ion pair or a crystalline lattice is formed.

We summarize the important points about ionic bonding:

- At r_0, the ions are more stable (have a lower potential energy) than they are at an infinite internuclear distance. When oppositely charged ions are brought together from $r = \infty$ to $r = r_0$, the energy of the system is lowered (energy is released).
- Because of the low potential energy at r_0, energy must be added to the system to separate the ions. The amount of energy needed is the bond energy.
- The energy of the system reaches a minimum at a particular internuclear distance (the bond distance).

✔ Example 10.4.2: LiF

Calculate the amount of energy released when 1 mol of gaseous Li^+F^- ion pairs is formed from the separated ions. The observed internuclear distance in the gas phase is 156 pm.

Given: cation and anion, amount, and internuclear distance

Asked for: energy released from formation of gaseous ion pairs

Strategy:

Substitute the appropriate values into Equation 10.4.2 to obtain the energy released in the formation of a single ion pair and then multiply this value by Avogadro's number to obtain the energy released per mole.

Solution:

Inserting the values for Li^+F^- into Equation 10.4.2 (where Q_1 = +1, Q_2 = −1, and r = 156 pm), we find that the energy associated with the formation of a single pair of Li^+F^- ions is

$$E = k\frac{Q_1 Q_2}{r_0}$$

$$= \left(2.31 \times 10^{-28} J \cdot \cancel{m}\right)\left(\frac{(+1)(-1)}{156\ pm \times 10^{-12}\ m/\cancel{pm}}\right)$$

$$= -1.48 \times 10^{-18}$$

Then the energy released per mole of Li^+F^- ion pairs is

$$E = \left(-1.48 \times 10^{-18} J/\ \cancel{\text{ion pair}}\right)\left(6.022 \times 10^{23}\ \cancel{\text{ion pair}}/mol\right)$$

$$-891\ kJ/mol$$

Because Li^+ and F^- are smaller than Na^+ and Cl^- (see Section 7.3), the internuclear distance in LiF is shorter than in NaCl. Consequently, in accordance with Equation 10.4.2, much more energy is released when 1 mol of gaseous Li^+F^- ion pairs is formed (−891 kJ/mol) than when 1 mol of gaseous Na^+Cl^- ion pairs is formed (−589 kJ/mol).

? Exercise 10.4.2: Magnesium oxide

Calculate the amount of energy released when 1 mol of gaseous MgO ion pairs is formed from the separated ions. The internuclear distance in the gas phase is 175 pm.

Answer

−3180 kJ/mol = -3.18×10^3 kJ/mol

Electron Configuration of Ions

How does the energy released in lattice formation compare to the energy required to strip away a second electron from the Na^+ ion? Since the Na^+ ion has a noble gas electron configuration, stripping away the next electron from this stable arrangement would require more energy than what is released during lattice formation (Sodium I_2 = 4,560 kJ/mol). Thus, sodium is present in ionic compounds as Na^+ and not Na^{2+}. Likewise, adding an electron to fill a valence shell (and achieve noble gas electron configuration) is exothermic or only slightly endothermic. To add an additional electron into a ***new*** subshell requires tremendous energy - more than the lattice energy. Thus, we find Cl^- in ionic compounds, but not Cl^{2-}.

Table 10.4.1: Lattice energies range from around 700 kJ/mol to 4000 kJ/mol:

Compound	Lattice Energy (kJ/mol)
LiF	1024
LiI	744
NaF	911
NaCl	788
NaI	693
KF	815
KBr	682
KI	641

Compound	Lattice Energy (kJ/mol)
MgF_2	2910
$SrCl_2$	2130
MgO	3938

This amount of energy can compensate for values as large as I_3 for valence electrons (i.e. can strip away up to 3 valence electrons). Because most transition metals would require the removal of more than 3 electrons to attain a noble gas core, they are not found in ionic compounds with a noble gas core. A transition metal always loses electrons first from the higher 's' subshell, before losing from the underlying 'd' subshell. (The remaining electrons in the unfilled d subshell are the reason for the bright colors observed in many transition metal compounds!) For example, iron ions will **not** form a noble gas core:

- Fe: [Ar]$4s^2 3d^6$
- Fe^{2+}: [Ar] $3d^6$
- Fe^{3+}: [Ar] $3d^5$

Some metal ions can form a pseudo noble gas core (and be colorless), for example:

- Ag: [Kr]$5s^1 4d^{10}$ Ag^+ [Kr]$4d^{10}$ Compound: AgCl
- Cd: [Kr]$5s^2 4d^{10}$ Cd^{2+} [Kr]$4d^{10}$ Compound: CdS

The valence electrons do not adhere to the "octet rule" in this case (a limitation of the usefulness of this rule). Note: The silver and cadmium atoms lost the 5s electrons in achieving the ionic state.

> *When a positive ion is formed from an atom, electrons are **always** lost first from the subshell with the largest principle quantum number*

Polyatomic Ions

Not all ionic compounds are formed from only two elements. Many **polyatomic ions** exist, in which two or more atoms are bound together by covalent bonds. They form a stable grouping which carries a charge (positive or negative). The group of atoms as a whole acts as a charged species in forming an ionic compound with an oppositely charged ion. Polyatomic ions may be either positive or negative, for example:

- NH_4^+ (ammonium) = cation
- SO_4^{2-} (sulfate) = anion

The principles of ionic bonding with polyatomic ions are the same as those with monatomic ions. Oppositely charged ions come together to form a crystalline lattice, releasing a lattice energy. Based on the shapes and charges of the polyatomic ions, these compounds may form crystalline lattices with interesting and complex structures.

Summary

The amount of energy needed to separate a gaseous ion pair is its bond energy. The formation of ionic compounds are usually ***extremely exothermic***. The strength of the electrostatic attraction between ions with opposite charges is directly proportional to the magnitude of the charges on the ions and inversely proportional to the internuclear distance. The total energy of the system is a balance between the repulsive interactions between electrons on adjacent ions and the attractive interactions between ions with opposite charges.

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10.5: Covalent Bonding- Lewis Structure

Learning Objectives

- To use Lewis dot symbols to explain the stoichiometry of a compound

We begin our discussion of the relationship between structure and bonding in covalent compounds by describing the interaction between two identical neutral atoms—for example, the H_2 molecule, which contains a purely covalent bond. Each hydrogen atom in H_2 contains one electron and one proton, with the electron attracted to the proton by electrostatic forces. As the two hydrogen atoms are brought together, additional interactions must be considered (Figure 10.5.1):

- The electrons in the two atoms repel each other because they have the same charge (
- *The electrons in the two atoms repel each other because they have the same charge (E > 0).*
- *Similarly, the protons in adjacent atoms repel each other (E > 0).*
- *The electron in one atom is attracted to the oppositely charged proton in the other atom and vice versa (E < 0). Recall that it is impossible to specify precisely the position of the electron in either hydrogen atom. Hence the quantum mechanical probability distributions must be used.*

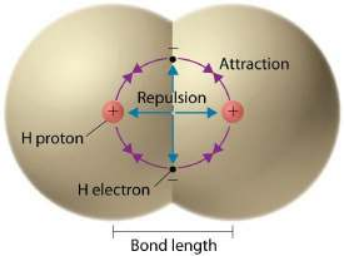


Figure 10.5.1: Attractive and Repulsive Interactions between Electrons and Nuclei in the Hydrogen Molecule. Electron–electron and proton–proton interactions are repulsive; electron–proton interactions are attractive. At the observed bond distance, the repulsive and attractive interactions are balanced.

A plot of the potential energy of the system as a function of the internuclear distance (Figure 10.5.2) shows that the system becomes more stable (the energy of the system decreases) as two hydrogen atoms move toward each other from $r = \infty$, until the energy reaches a minimum at $r = r_0$ (the observed internuclear distance in H_2 is 74 pm). Thus at intermediate distances, proton–electron attractive interactions dominate, but as the distance becomes very short, electron–electron and proton–proton repulsive interactions cause the energy of the system to increase rapidly. Notice the similarity between Figures 10.5.1 and 10.5.2, which described a system containing two oppositely charged *ions*. The shapes of the energy versus distance curves in the two figures are similar because they both result from attractive and repulsive forces between charged entities.

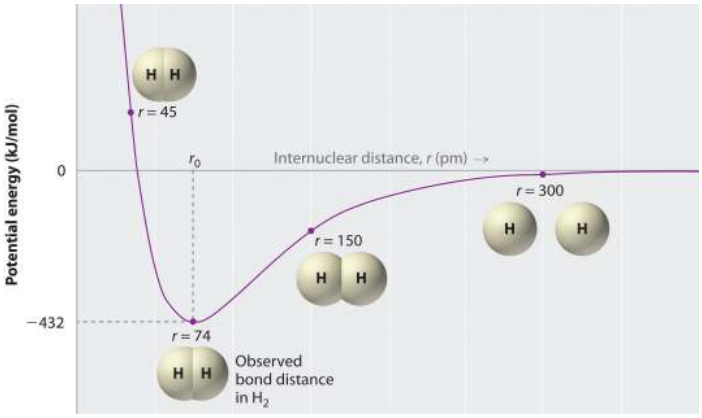


Figure 10.5.2: A Plot of Potential Energy versus Internuclear Distance for the Interaction between Two Gaseous Hydrogen Atoms.

At long distances, both attractive and repulsive interactions are small. As the distance between the atoms decreases, the attractive electron–proton interactions dominate, and the energy of the system decreases. At the observed bond distance, the repulsive electron–electron and proton–proton interactions just balance the attractive interactions, preventing a further decrease in the

internuclear distance. At very short internuclear distances, the repulsive interactions dominate, making the system less stable than the isolated atoms.

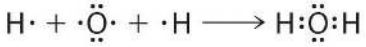
Using Lewis Dot Symbols to Describe Covalent Bonding

The valence electron configurations of the constituent atoms of a covalent compound are important factors in determining its structure, stoichiometry, and properties. For example, chlorine, with seven valence electrons, is one electron short of an octet. If two chlorine atoms share their unpaired electrons by making a covalent bond and forming Cl_2, they can each complete their valence shell:

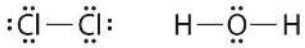


Each chlorine atom now has an octet. The electron pair being shared by the atoms is called a bonding pair; the other three pairs of electrons on each chlorine atom are called lone pairs. Lone pairs are not involved in covalent bonding. If both electrons in a covalent bond come from the same atom, the bond is called a coordinate covalent bond. Examples of this type of bonding are presented in Section 8.6 when we discuss atoms with less than an octet of electrons.

We can illustrate the formation of a water molecule from two hydrogen atoms and an oxygen atom using Lewis dot symbols:



The structure on the right is the *Lewis electron structure*, or *Lewis structure*, for H_2O. With two bonding pairs and two lone pairs, the oxygen atom has now completed its octet. Moreover, by sharing a bonding pair with oxygen, each hydrogen atom now has a full valence shell of two electrons. Chemists usually indicate a bonding pair by a single line, as shown here for our two examples:



The following procedure can be used to construct Lewis electron structures for more complex molecules and ions:

1. **Arrange the atoms to show specific connections.** When there is a central atom, it is usually the least electronegative element in the compound. Chemists usually list this central atom first in the chemical formula (as in CCl_4 and CO_3^{2-}, which both have C as the central atom), which is another clue to the compound's structure. Hydrogen and the halogens are almost always connected to only one other atom, so they are usually *terminal* rather than central.
2. **Determine the total number of valence electrons in the molecule or ion.** Add together the valence electrons from each atom. (Recall that the number of valence electrons is indicated by the position of the element in the periodic table.) If the species is a polyatomic ion, remember to add or subtract the number of electrons necessary to give the total charge on the ion. For CO_3^{2-}, for example, we add two electrons to the total because of the −2 charge.
3. **Place a bonding pair of electrons between each pair of adjacent atoms to give a single bond.** In H_2O, for example, there is a bonding pair of electrons between oxygen and each hydrogen.
4. **Beginning with the terminal atoms, add enough electrons to each atom to give each atom an octet (two for hydrogen).** These electrons will usually be lone pairs.
5. **If any electrons are left over, place them on the central atom.** We will explain later that some atoms are able to accommodate more than eight electrons.
6. **If the central atom has fewer electrons than an octet, use lone pairs from terminal atoms to form multiple (double or triple) bonds to the central atom to achieve an octet.** This will not change the number of electrons on the terminal atoms.

Now let's apply this procedure to some particular compounds, beginning with one we have already discussed.

> The central atom is usually the least electronegative element in the molecule or ion; hydrogen and the halogens are usually terminal.

The H_2O Molecule

1. Because H atoms are almost always terminal, the arrangement within the molecule must be HOH.
2. Each H atom (group 1) has 1 valence electron, and the O atom (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, for a total of 8 valence electrons.
3. Placing one bonding pair of electrons between the O atom and each H atom gives H:O:H, with 4 electrons left over.
4. Each H atom has a full valence shell of 2 electrons.

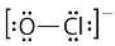
5. Adding the remaining 4 electrons to the oxygen (as two lone pairs) gives the following structure:



This is the Lewis structure we drew earlier. Because it gives oxygen an octet and each hydrogen two electrons, we do not need to use step 6.

The OCl^- Ion

1. With only two atoms in the molecule, there is no central atom.
2. Oxygen (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, and chlorine (group 17) has 7 valence electrons; we must add one more for the negative charge on the ion, giving a total of 14 valence electrons.
3. Placing a bonding pair of electrons between O and Cl gives O:Cl, with 12 electrons left over.
4. If we place six electrons (as three lone pairs) on each atom, we obtain the following structure:



Both the oxygen and chlorine have 3 electron pairs drawn around them with a bond drawn between them. The molecule has square brackets placed around it and has a negative charge.

Each atom now has an octet of electrons, so steps 5 and 6 are not needed. The Lewis electron structure is drawn within brackets as is customary for an ion, with the overall charge indicated outside the brackets, and the bonding pair of electrons is indicated by a solid line. OCl^- is the hypochlorite ion, the active ingredient in chlorine laundry bleach and swimming pool disinfectant.

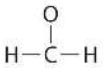
The CH_2O Molecule

1. Because carbon is less electronegative than oxygen and hydrogen is normally terminal, C must be the central atom. One possible arrangement is as follows:



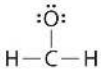
2. Each hydrogen atom (group 1) has one valence electron, carbon (group 14) has 4 valence electrons, and oxygen (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, for a total of [(2)(1) + 4 + 6] = 12 valence electrons.

3. Placing a bonding pair of electrons between each pair of bonded atoms gives the following:



Six electrons are used, and 6 are left over.

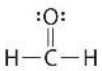
4. Adding all 6 remaining electrons to oxygen (as three lone pairs) gives the following:



Although oxygen now has an octet and each hydrogen has 2 electrons, carbon has only 6 electrons.

5. There are no electrons left to place on the central atom.

6. To give carbon an octet of electrons, we use one of the lone pairs of electrons on oxygen to form a carbon–oxygen double bond:



The bond between the oxygen and carbon is replaced with a double bond. The oxygen also has two lone pairs drawn.

Both the oxygen and the carbon now have an octet of electrons, so this is an acceptable Lewis electron structure. The O has two bonding pairs and two lone pairs, and C has four bonding pairs. This is the structure of formaldehyde, which is used in embalming fluid.

An alternative structure can be drawn with one H bonded to O. *Formal charges*, discussed later in this section, suggest that such a structure is less stable than that shown previously.

Example 10.5.1

Write the Lewis electron structure for each species.

a. NCl_3
b. S_2^{2-}
c. NOCl

Given: chemical species

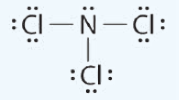
Asked for: Lewis electron structures

Strategy:

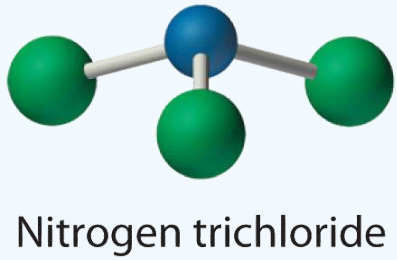
Use the six-step procedure to write the Lewis electron structure for each species.

Solution:

a. Nitrogen is less electronegative than chlorine, and halogen atoms are usually terminal, so nitrogen is the central atom. The nitrogen atom (group 15) has 5 valence electrons and each chlorine atom (group 17) has 7 valence electrons, for a total of 26 valence electrons. Using 2 electrons for each N–Cl bond and adding three lone pairs to each Cl account for (3 × 2) + (3 × 2 × 3) = 24 electrons. Rule 5 leads us to place the remaining 2 electrons on the central N:

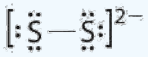


Nitrogen trichloride is an unstable oily liquid once used to bleach flour; this use is now prohibited in the United States.

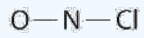


Nitrogen trichloride

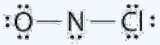
b. In a diatomic molecule or ion, we do not need to worry about a central atom. Each sulfur atom (group 16) contains 6 valence electrons, and we need to add 2 electrons for the −2 charge, giving a total of 14 valence electrons. Using 2 electrons for the S–S bond, we arrange the remaining 12 electrons as three lone pairs on each sulfur, giving each S atom an octet of electrons:



c. Because nitrogen is less electronegative than oxygen or chlorine, it is the central atom. The N atom (group 15) has 5 valence electrons, the O atom (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, and the Cl atom (group 17) has 7 valence electrons, giving a total of 18 valence electrons. Placing one bonding pair of electrons between each pair of bonded atoms uses 4 electrons and gives the following:

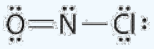


Adding three lone pairs each to oxygen and to chlorine uses 12 more electrons, leaving 2 electrons to place as a lone pair on nitrogen:

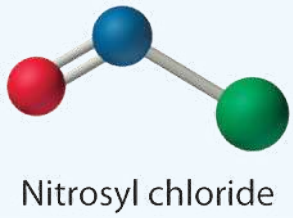


Because this Lewis structure has only 6 electrons around the central nitrogen, a lone pair of electrons on a terminal atom must be used to form a bonding pair. We could use a lone pair on either O or Cl. Because we have seen many structures in

which O forms a double bond but none with a double bond to Cl, it is reasonable to select a lone pair from O to give the following:



All atoms now have octet configurations. This is the Lewis electron structure of nitrosyl chloride, a highly corrosive, reddish-orange gas.

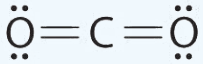


? Exercise 10.5.1

Write Lewis electron structures for CO_2 and SCl_2, a vile-smelling, unstable red liquid that is used in the manufacture of rubber.

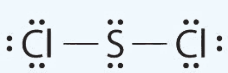
Answer

1.

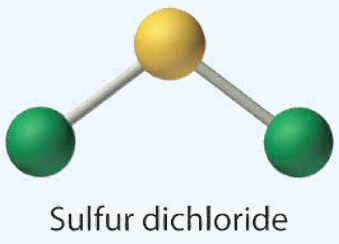




2.

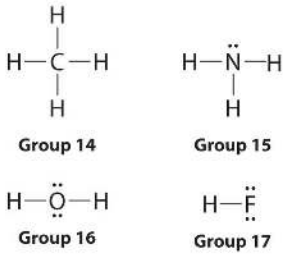


Two chlorines are bonded to a sulfur. The sulfur has 2 lone pairs while the chlorines have 3 lone pairs each.

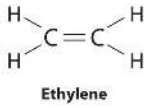


Using Lewis Electron Structures to Explain Stoichiometry

Lewis dot symbols provide a simple rationalization of why elements form compounds with the observed stoichiometries. In the Lewis model, the number of bonds formed by an element in a neutral compound is the same as the number of unpaired electrons it must share with other atoms to complete its octet of electrons. For the elements of Group 17 (the halogens), this number is one; for the elements of Group 16 (the chalcogens), it is two; for Group 15 elements, three; and for Group 14 elements four. These requirements are illustrated by the following Lewis structures for the hydrides of the lightest members of each group:



Elements may form multiple bonds to complete an octet. In ethylene, for example, each carbon contributes two electrons to the double bond, giving each carbon an octet (two electrons/bond × four bonds = eight electrons). Neutral structures with fewer or more bonds exist, but they are unusual and violate the octet rule.



Allotropes of an element can have very different physical and chemical properties because of different three-dimensional arrangements of the atoms; the number of bonds formed by the component atoms, however, is always the same. As noted at the beginning of the chapter, diamond is a hard, transparent solid; graphite is a soft, black solid; and the fullerenes have open cage structures. Despite these differences, the carbon atoms in all three allotropes form four bonds, in accordance with the octet rule.

> Lewis structures explain why the elements of groups 14–17 form neutral compounds with four, three, two, and one bonded atom(s), respectively.

Elemental phosphorus also exists in three forms: white phosphorus, a toxic, waxy substance that initially glows and then spontaneously ignites on contact with air; red phosphorus, an amorphous substance that is used commercially in safety matches, fireworks, and smoke bombs; and black phosphorus, an unreactive crystalline solid with a texture similar to graphite (Figure 10.5.3). Nonetheless, the phosphorus atoms in all three forms obey the octet rule and form three bonds per phosphorus atom.

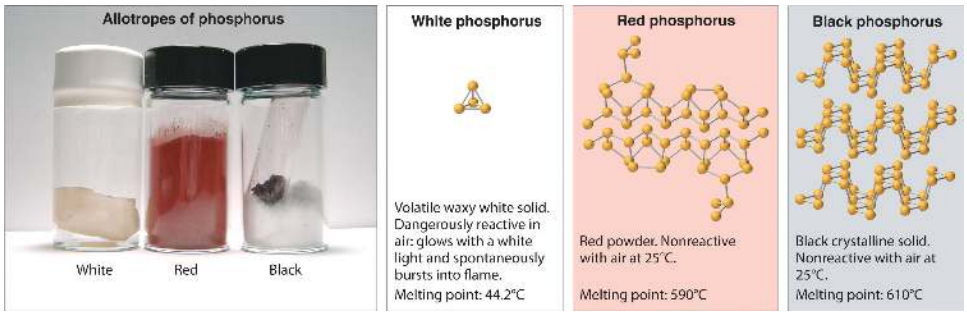


Figure 10.5.3: The Three Allotropes of Phosphorus: White, Red, and Black. ll three forms contain only phosphorus atoms, but they differ in the arrangement and connectivity of their atoms. White phosphorus contains P_4 tetrahedra, red phosphorus is a network of linked P_8 and P_9 units, and black phosphorus forms sheets of six-membered rings. As a result, their physical and chemical properties differ dramatically.

Formal Charges

It is sometimes possible to write more than one Lewis structure for a substance that does not violate the octet rule, as we saw for CH_2O, but not every Lewis structure may be equally reasonable. In these situations, we can choose the most stable Lewis structure by considering the formal charge on the atoms, which is the difference between the number of valence electrons in the free atom and the number assigned to it in the Lewis electron structure. The formal charge is a way of computing the charge distribution within a Lewis structure; the sum of the formal charges on the atoms within a molecule or an ion must equal the overall charge on the molecule or ion. A formal charge does *not* represent a true charge on an atom in a covalent bond but is simply used to predict the most likely structure when a compound has more than one valid Lewis structure.

To calculate formal charges, we assign electrons in the molecule to individual atoms according to these rules:

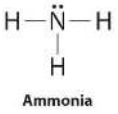
- Nonbonding electrons are assigned to the atom on which they are located.

- Bonding electrons are divided equally between the bonded atoms.

For each atom, we then compute a formal charge:

$$formal\ charge = \underset{(free\ atom)}{valence\ e^-} - \underset{(atom\ in\ Lewis\ structure)}{\left(non-bonding\ e^- + \frac{bonding\ e^-}{2}\right)} \quad \text{(atom in Lewis structure)}$$

To illustrate this method, let's calculate the formal charge on the atoms in ammonia (NH_3) whose Lewis electron structure is as follows:



Ammonia

A neutral nitrogen atom has five valence electrons (it is in group 15). From its Lewis electron structure, the nitrogen atom in ammonia has one lone pair and shares three bonding pairs with hydrogen atoms, so nitrogen itself is assigned a total of five electrons [2 nonbonding e^- + (6 bonding e^-/2)]. Substituting into Equation 10.5.1, we obtain

$$formal\ charge\,(N) = 5\ valence\ e^- - \left(2\ non-bonding\ e^- + \frac{6\ bonding\ e^-}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad (10.5.1)$$

A neutral hydrogen atom has one valence electron. Each hydrogen atom in the molecule shares one pair of bonding electrons and is therefore assigned one electron [0 nonbonding e^- + (2 bonding e^-/2)]. Using Equation 10.5.1 to calculate the formal charge on hydrogen, we obtain

$$formal\ charge\,(H) = 1\ valence\ e^- - \left(0\ non-bonding\ e^- + \frac{2\ bonding\ e^-}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad (10.5.2)$$

The hydrogen atoms in ammonia have the same number of electrons as neutral hydrogen atoms, and so their formal charge is also zero. Adding together the formal charges should give us the overall charge on the molecule or ion. In this example, the nitrogen and each hydrogen has a formal charge of zero. When summed the overall charge is zero, which is consistent with the overall charge on the NH_3 molecule.

> An atom, molecule, or ion has a formal charge of zero if it has the number of bonds that is typical for that species.

Typically, the structure with the most charges on the atoms closest to zero is the more stable Lewis structure. In cases where there are positive or negative formal charges on various atoms, stable structures generally have negative formal charges on the more electronegative atoms and positive formal charges on the less electronegative atoms. The next example further demonstrates how to calculate formal charges.



Example 10.5.2: The Ammonium Ion

Calculate the formal charges on each atom in the NH_4^+ ion.

Given: chemical species

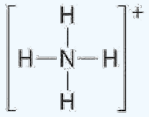
Asked for: formal charges

Strategy:

Identify the number of valence electrons in each atom in the NH_4^+ ion. Use the Lewis electron structure of NH_4^+ to identify the number of bonding and nonbonding electrons associated with each atom and then use Equation 10.5.1 to calculate the formal charge on each atom.

Solution:

The Lewis electron structure for the NH_4^+ ion is as follows:



The central nitrogen is bonded to four hydrogens. The molecule is surrounded by square brackets. Outside the bracket is where the positive charge is placed.

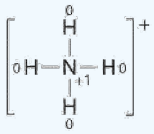
The nitrogen atom shares four bonding pairs of electrons, and a neutral nitrogen atom has five valence electrons. Using Equation ???, the formal charge on the nitrogen atom is therefore

$$formal\ charge\,(N) = 5 - \left(0 + \frac{8}{2}\right) = 0$$

Each hydrogen atom in has one bonding pair. The formal charge on each hydrogen atom is therefore

$$formal\ charge\,(H) = 1 - \left(0 + \frac{2}{2}\right) = 0$$

The formal charges on the atoms in the NH_4^+ ion are thus



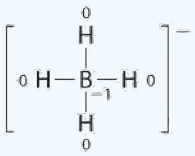
In the Lewis structure, each hydrogen has a zero placed nearby while the nitrogen has a +1 placed nearby.

Adding together the formal charges on the atoms should give us the total charge on the molecule or ion. In this case, the sum of the formal charges is 0 + 1 + 0 + 0 + 0 = +1.

Exercise 10.5.2

Write the formal charges on all atoms in BH_4^-.

Answer



Four hydrogens are bonded to a central boron. Each hydrogen has a zero placed nearby while the boron has a -1. The molecule is surrounded by square brackets. Outside of the brackets is a negative charge.

If an atom in a molecule or ion has the number of bonds that is typical for that atom (e.g., four bonds for carbon), its formal charge is zero.

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10.6: Electronegativity and Bond Polarity

Learning Objectives

- To define electronegativity and bond polarity
- To calculate the percent ionic character of a covalent polar bond

The electron pairs shared between two atoms ***are not necessarily shared equally.*** For example, while the bonding electron pair is shared equally in the covalent bond in Cl_2, in $NaCl$ the 3s electron is stripped from the Na atom and is incorporated into the electronic structure of the Cl atom - and the compound is most accurately described as consisting of individual Na^+ and Cl^- ions (ionic bonding). For most covalent substances, their bond character falls **between** these two extremes. As demonstrated below, the **bond polarity** is a useful concept for describing the sharing of electrons between atoms within a covalent bond:

- A ***nonpolar covalent bond*** is one in which the electrons are shared *equally* between two atoms.
- A ***polar covalent bond*** is one in which ***one atom has a greater attraction for the electrons than the other atom***. If this relative attraction is great enough, then the bond is an ***ionic bond.***

Electronegativity

The elements with the highest ionization energies are generally those with the most negative electron affinities, which are located toward the upper right corner of the periodic table. Conversely, the elements with the lowest ionization energies are generally those with the least negative electron affinities and are located in the lower left corner of the periodic table.

Because the tendency of an element to gain or lose electrons is so important in determining its chemistry, various methods have been developed to quantitatively describe this tendency. The most important method uses a measurement called **electronegativity** (represented by the Greek letter *chi*, χ, pronounced “ky” as in “sky”), defined as the *relative* ability of an atom to attract electrons to itself *in a chemical compound*. Elements with high electronegativities tend to acquire electrons in chemical reactions and are found in the upper right corner of the periodic table. Elements with low electronegativities tend to lose electrons in chemical reactions and are found in the lower left corner of the periodic table.

Unlike ionization energy or electron affinity, the electronegativity of an atom is not a simple, fixed property that can be directly measured in a single experiment. In fact, an atom’s electronegativity should depend to some extent on its chemical environment because the properties of an atom are influenced by its neighbors in a chemical compound. Nevertheless, when different methods for measuring the electronegativity of an atom are compared, they all tend to assign similar relative values to a given element. For example, all scales predict that fluorine has the highest electronegativity and cesium the lowest of the stable elements, which suggests that all the methods are measuring the same fundamental property.

> *Electronegativity is defined as the ability of an atom in a particular molecule to attract electrons to itself. The greater the value, the greater the attractiveness for electrons.*

Electronegativity is a function of:

1. the atom's ***ionization energy*** (how strongly the atom holds on to its own electrons) and
2. the atom's ***electron affinity*** (how strongly the atom attracts other electrons).

Both of these are properties of the *isolated* atom. An element will be *highly electronegative* if it has a large (negative) electron affinity and a high ionization energy (always endothermic, or positive for neutral atoms). Thus, it will attract electrons from other atoms and resist having its own electrons attracted away.

The Pauling Electronegativity Scale

The original electronegativity scale, developed in the 1930s by Linus Pauling (1901– 1994) was based on measurements of the strengths of covalent bonds between different elements. Pauling arbitrarily set the electronegativity of fluorine at 4.0 (although today it has been refined to 3.98), thereby creating a scale in which all elements have values between 0 and 4.0.

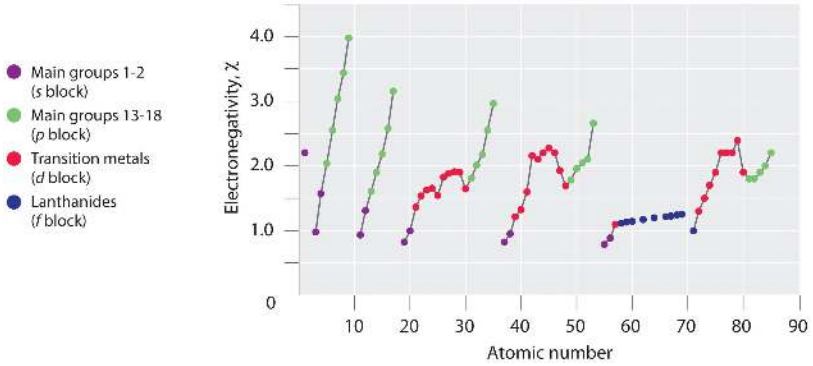
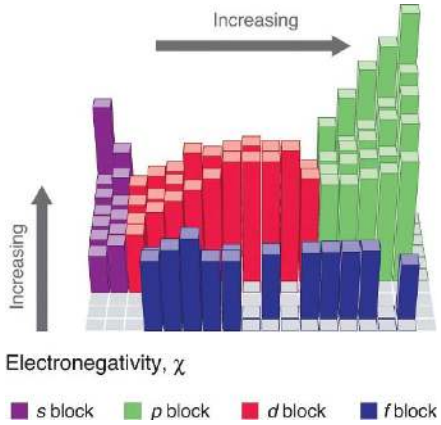


Figure 10.6.1: A Plot of Periodic Variation of Electronegativity with Atomic Number for the First Six Rows of the Periodic Table
The main groups 1 and 2 are purple, the main groups 13 through 18 are green, the transition metals are red, and the lanthanides are blue.

Periodic variations in Pauling's electronegativity values are illustrated in Figures 10.6.1 and 10.6.2 If we ignore the inert gases and elements for which no stable isotopes are known, we see that fluorine ($\chi = 3.98$) is the most electronegative element and cesium is the least electronegative nonradioactive element ($\chi = 0.79$). Because electronegativities generally increase diagonally from the lower left to the upper right of the periodic table, elements lying on diagonal lines running from upper left to lower right tend to have comparable values (e.g., O and Cl and N, S, and Br).

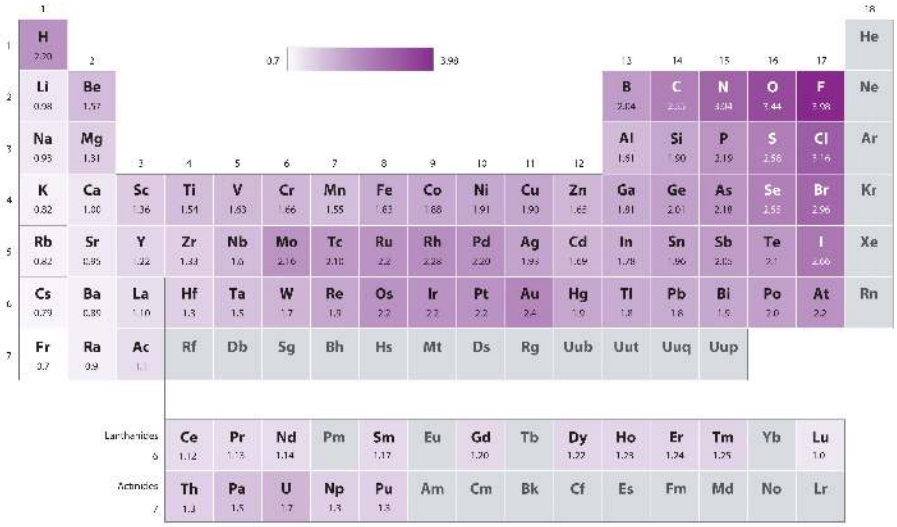


The s blocks are purple, the p blocks are green, the d blocks are red, and the f blocks are blue. Electronegativity increase from bottom to top and left to right.

Figure* 10.6.2*: *Pauling Electronegativity Values of the s-, p-, d-, and f-Block Elements. Values for most of the actinides are approximate. Elements for which no data are available are shown in gray. Source: Data from L. Pauling, The Nature of the Chemical Bond, 3rd ed. (1960).*

Linus Pauling (1901-1994)

When he was nine, Pauling's father died, and his mother tried to convince him to quit school to support the family. He did not quit school, but was later denied a high school degree, and had to work several jobs to put himself through college. Pauling would go on to become one of the most influential chemists of the century if not all time. He won two Nobel Prizes, one for chemistry in 1954 and one for peace in 1962.



Pauling's method is limited by the fact that many elements do not form stable covalent compounds with other elements; hence their electronegativities cannot be measured by his method. Other definitions have since been developed that address this problem, e.g., the Mulliken, Allred-Rochow, and Allen electronegativity scales. The Mulliken electronegativity of an element is the average of its first ionization energy and the absolute value of its electron affinity, showing the relationship between electronegativity and these other periodic properties.



Electronegativity Differences between Metals and Nonmetals

An element's electronegativity provides us with a single value that we can use to characterize the chemistry of an element. Elements with a high electronegativity ($\chi \geq 2.2$ in Figure 10.6.2) have very negative affinities and large ionization potentials, so they are generally nonmetals and electrical insulators that tend to gain electrons in chemical reactions (i.e., they are *oxidants*). In contrast, elements with a low electronegativity ($\chi \leq 1.8$) have electron affinities that have either positive or small negative values and small ionization potentials, so they are generally metals and good electrical conductors that tend to lose their valence electrons in chemical reactions (i.e., they are *reductants*). In between the metals and nonmetals, along the heavy diagonal line running from B to At is a group of elements with intermediate electronegativities ($\chi \sim 2.0$). These are the **metalloids** (or semimetals), elements that have some of the chemical properties of both nonmetals and metals. The distinction between metals and nonmetals is one of the most fundamental we can make in categorizing the elements and predicting their chemical behavior. Figure 10.6.3 shows the strong correlation between electronegativity values, metallic versus nonmetallic character, and location in the periodic table.

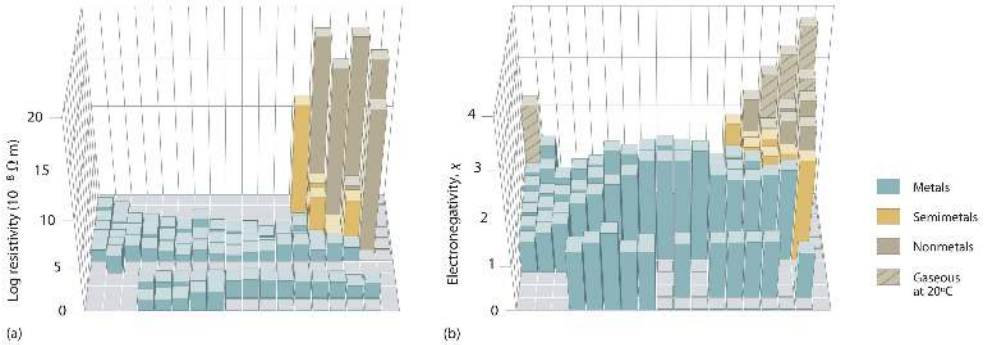


Figure 10.6.3: Three-Dimensional Plots Demonstrating the Relationship between Electronegativity and the Metallic/Nonmetallic Character of the Elements. (a) A plot of electrical resistivity (measured resistivity to electron flow) at or near room temperature shows that substances with high resistivity (little to no measured electron flow) are electrical insulators, whereas substances with low resistivity (high measured electron flow) are metals. (b) A plot of Pauling electronegativities for a like set of elements shows that high electronegativity values (≥ about 2.2) correlate with high electrical resistivities (insulators). Low electronegativity values (≤ about 2.2) correlate with low resistivities (metals). Because electrical resistivity is typically measured only for solids and liquids, the gaseous elements do not appear in part (a).

Metals are blue, semimetals are yellow, nonmetals are gray, gaseous at 20 degrees C are gray with dashed lines.

Electronegativity values *increase* from lower left to upper right in the periodic table.

The rules for assigning oxidation states(opens in new window) are based on the relative electronegativities of the elements; the more electronegative element in a binary compound is assigned a negative oxidation state. As we shall see, electronegativity values are also used to predict bond energies, bond polarities, and the kinds of reactions that compounds undergo.

✔ Example 10.6.1: Increasing Electronegativity

On the basis of their positions in the periodic table, arrange Cl, Se, Si, and Sr in order of increasing electronegativity and classify each as a metal, a nonmetal, or a metalloid.

Given: four elements

Asked for: order by increasing electronegativity and classification

Strategy:

A. Locate the elements in the periodic table. From their diagonal positions from lower left to upper right, predict their relative electronegativities.
B. Arrange the elements in order of increasing electronegativity.
C. Classify each element as a metal, a nonmetal, or a metalloid according to its location about the diagonal belt of metalloids running from B to At.

Solution:

A Electronegativity increases from lower left to upper right in the periodic table (Figure 8.4.2). Because Sr lies far to the left of the other elements given, we can predict that it will have the lowest electronegativity. Because Cl lies above and to the right of Se, we can predict that $\chi_{Cl} > \chi_{Se}$. Because Si is located farther from the upper right corner than Se or Cl, its electronegativity should be lower than those of Se and Cl but greater than that of Sr. **B** The overall order is therefore $\chi_{Sr} < \chi_{Si} < \chi_{Se} < \chi_{Cl}$.

C To classify the elements, we note that Sr lies well to the left of the diagonal belt of metalloids running from B to At; while Se and Cl lie to the right and Si lies in the middle. We can predict that Sr is a metal, Si is a metalloid, and Se and Cl are nonmetals.

? Exercise 10.6.1

On the basis of their positions in the periodic table, arrange Ge, N, O, Rb, and Zr in order of increasing electronegativity and classify each as a metal, a nonmetal, or a metalloid.

Answer

Rb < Zr < Ge < N < O; metals (Rb, Zr); metalloid (Ge); nonmetal (N, O)

Percent Ionic Character of a Covalent polar bond

The two idealized extremes of chemical bonding: (1) ionic bonding—in which one or more electrons are transferred completely from one atom to another, and the resulting ions are held together by purely electrostatic forces—and (2) covalent bonding, in which electrons are shared equally between two atoms. Most compounds, however, have polar covalent bonds, which means that electrons are shared unequally between the bonded atoms. Figure 10.6.4 compares the electron distribution in a polar covalent bond with those in an ideally covalent and an ideally ionic bond. Recall that a lowercase Greek delta (δ) is used to indicate that a bonded atom possesses a partial positive charge, indicated by δ^+, or a partial negative charge, indicated by δ^-, and a bond between two atoms that possess partial charges is a polar bond.

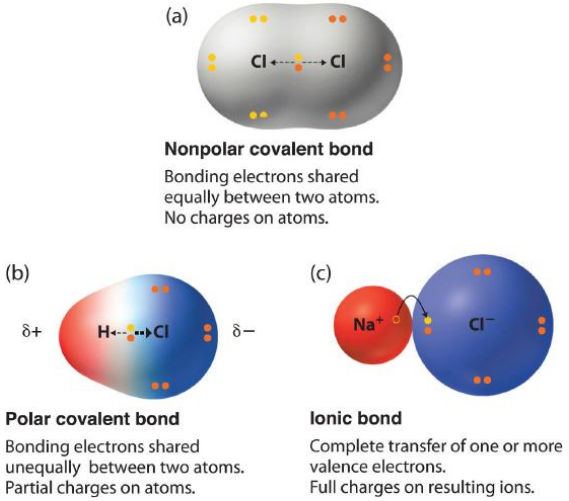


Figure 10.6.4: The Electron Distribution in a Nonpolar Covalent Bond, a Polar Covalent Bond, and an Ionic Bond Using Lewis Electron Structures. In a purely covalent bond (a), the bonding electrons are shared equally between the atoms. In a purely ionic bond (c), an electron has been transferred completely from one atom to the other. A polar covalent bond (b) is intermediate between the two extremes: the bonding electrons are shared unequally between the two atoms, and the electron distribution is asymmetrical with the electron density being greater around the more electronegative atom. Electron-rich (negatively charged) regions are shown in blue; electron-poor (positively charged) regions are shown in red.

Bond Polarity

The polarity of a bond—the extent to which it is polar—is determined largely by the relative electronegativities of the bonded atoms. Electronegativity (χ) was defined as the ability of an atom in a molecule or an ion to attract electrons to itself. Thus there is a direct correlation between electronegativity and bond polarity. A bond is *nonpolar* if the bonded atoms have equal electronegativities. If the electronegativities of the bonded atoms are not equal, however, the bond is *polarized* toward the more electronegative atom. A bond in which the electronegativity of B (χ_B) is greater than the electronegativity of A (χ_A), for example, is indicated with the partial negative charge on the more electronegative atom:

$$\underset{\delta^+}{\overset{\text{less electronegative}}{A}} - \underset{\delta^-}{\overset{\text{more electronegative}}{B}} \qquad (10.6.1)$$

One way of estimating the ionic character of a bond—that is, the magnitude of the charge separation in a polar covalent bond—is to calculate the difference in electronegativity between the two atoms: $\Delta\chi = \chi_B - \chi_A$.

To predict the polarity of the bonds in Cl_2, HCl, and NaCl, for example, we look at the electronegativities of the relevant atoms: χ_{Cl} = 3.16, χ_H = 2.20, and χ_{Na} = 0.93. Cl_2 must be nonpolar because the electronegativity difference ($\Delta\chi$) is zero; hence the two chlorine atoms share the bonding electrons equally. In NaCl, $\Delta\chi$ is 2.23. This high value is typical of an ionic compound ($\Delta\chi \geq \approx 1.5$) and means that the valence electron of sodium has been completely transferred to chlorine to form Na^+ and Cl^- ions. In HCl, however, $\Delta\chi$ is only 0.96. The bonding electrons are more strongly attracted to the more electronegative chlorine atom, and so the charge distribution is

$$\overset{\delta^+}{H} - \overset{\delta^-}{Cl}$$

Remember that electronegativities are difficult to measure precisely and different definitions produce slightly different numbers. In practice, the polarity of a bond is usually estimated rather than calculated.

> Bond polarity and ionic character **increase** with an increasing difference in electronegativity.

As with bond energies, the electronegativity of an atom depends to some extent on its chemical environment. It is therefore unlikely that the reported electronegativities of a chlorine atom in NaCl, Cl_2, ClF_5, and $HClO_4$ would be exactly the same.

Dipole Moments

The asymmetrical charge distribution in a polar substance such as HCl produces a **dipole moment** where Qr in meters (m). is abbreviated by the Greek letter mu (μ). The dipole moment is defined as the product of the partial charge Q on the bonded atoms and the distance r between the partial charges:

$$\mu = Qr \tag{10.6.2}$$

where Q is measured in coulombs (C) and r in meters. The unit for dipole moments is the debye (D):

$$1\ D = 3.3356 \times 10^{-30}\ C \cdot \cdot m \tag{10.6.3}$$

When a molecule with a dipole moment is placed in an electric field, it tends to orient itself with the electric field because of its asymmetrical charge distribution (Figure 10.6.4).

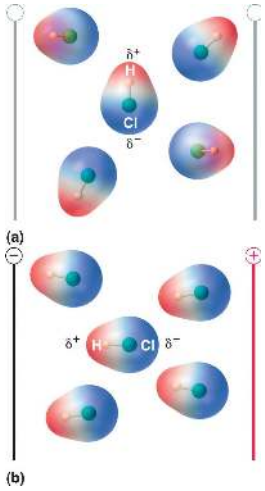


Figure 10.6.5: Molecules That Possess a Dipole Moment Partially Align Themselves with an Applied Electric Field. In the absence of a field (a), the HCl molecules are randomly oriented. When an electric field is applied (b), the molecules tend to align themselves with the field, such that the positive end of the molecular dipole points toward the negative terminal and vice versa.

We can measure the partial charges on the atoms in a molecule such as HCl using Equation 10.6.2. If the bonding in HCl were purely ionic, an electron would be transferred from H to Cl, so there would be a full +1 charge on the H atom and a full −1 charge on the Cl atom. The dipole moment of HCl is 1.109 D, as determined by measuring the extent of its alignment in an electric field, and the reported gas-phase H–Cl distance is 127.5 pm. Hence the charge on each atom is

$$Q = \frac{\mu}{r} = 1.109\ \cancel{D}\left(\frac{3.3356 \times 10^{-30}\ C \cdot \cancel{m}}{1\ \cancel{D}}\right)\left(\frac{1}{127.8\ \cancel{pm}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{pm}}{10^{-12}\ \cancel{m}}\right) = 2.901 \times 10^{-20}\ C \tag{10.6.4}$$

By dividing this calculated value by the charge on a single electron (1.6022×10^{-19} C), we find that the electron distribution in HCl is asymmetric and that effectively it appears that there is a net negative charge on the Cl of about −0.18, effectively corresponding to about 0.18 e^-. This certainly does not mean that there is a fraction of an electron on the Cl atom, but that the distribution of electron probability favors the Cl atom side of the molecule by about this amount.

$$\frac{2.901 \times 10^{-20}\ \cancel{C}}{1.6022 \times 10^{-19}\ \cancel{C}} = 0.1811\ e^- \tag{10.6.5}$$

To form a neutral compound, the charge on the H atom must be equal but opposite. Thus the measured dipole moment of HCl indicates that the H–Cl bond has approximately 18% ionic character (0.1811 × 100), or 82% covalent character. Instead of writing HCl as

$$\overset{\delta^+}{H} \quad - \quad \overset{\delta^-}{Cl}$$

we can therefore indicate the charge separation quantitatively as

$$\overset{0.18\delta^+}{H} \quad - \quad \overset{0.18\delta^-}{Cl}$$

Our calculated results are in agreement with the electronegativity difference between hydrogen and chlorine $\chi_H = 2.20$; $\chi_{Cl} = 3.16$, $\chi_{Cl} - \chi_H = 0.96$), a value well within the range for polar covalent bonds. We indicate the dipole moment by writing an arrow above the molecule. Mathematically, dipole moments are vectors, and they possess both a magnitude and a direction. The dipole moment of a molecule is the vector sum of the dipoles of the individual bonds. In HCl, for example, the dipole moment is indicated as follows:



The arrow shows the direction of electron flow by pointing toward the more electronegative atom.

The charge on the atoms of many substances in the gas phase can be calculated using measured dipole moments and bond distances. Figure 10.6.6 shows a plot of the percent ionic character versus the difference in electronegativity of the bonded atoms for several substances. According to the graph, the bonding in species such as NaCl(g) and CsF(g) is substantially less than 100% ionic in character. As the gas condenses into a solid, however, dipole–dipole interactions between polarized species increase the charge separations. In the crystal, therefore, an electron is transferred from the metal to the nonmetal, and these substances behave like classic ionic compounds. The data in Figure 10.6.6 show that diatomic species with an electronegativity difference of less than 1.5 are less than 50% ionic in character, which is consistent with our earlier description of these species as containing polar covalent bonds. The use of dipole moments to determine the ionic character of a polar bond is illustrated in Example 10.6.2

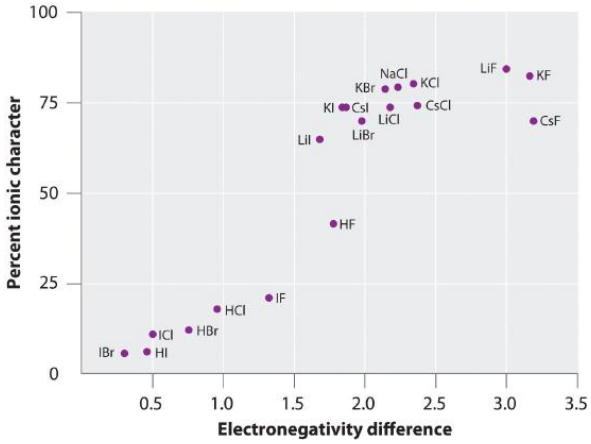


Figure 10.6.6: A Plot of the Percent Ionic Character of a Bond as Determined from Measured Dipole Moments versus the Difference in Electronegativity of the Bonded Atoms.In the gas phase, even CsF, which has the largest possible difference in electronegativity between atoms, is not 100% ionic. Solid CsF, however, is best viewed as 100% ionic because of the additional electrostatic interactions in the lattice.

Example 10.6.2

In the gas phase, NaCl has a dipole moment of 9.001 D and an Na–Cl distance of 236.1 pm. Calculate the percent ionic character in NaCl.

Given: chemical species, dipole moment, and internuclear distance

Asked for: percent ionic character

Strategy:

A Compute the charge on each atom using the information given and Equation 10.6.2.

B Find the percent ionic character from the ratio of the actual charge to the charge of a single electron.

Solution:

A The charge on each atom is given by

$$Q = \frac{\mu}{r} = 9.001 \cancel{D}\left(\frac{3.3356 \times 10^{-30}\ C \cdot \cancel{m}}{1\ \cancel{D}}\right)\left(\frac{1}{236.1\ \cancel{pm}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{pm}}{10^{-12}\ \cancel{m}}\right) = 1.272 \times 10^{-19}\ C$$

Thus NaCl behaves as if it had charges of 1.272 × 10^{-19} C on each atom separated by 236.1 pm.

B The percent ionic character is given by the ratio of the actual charge to the charge of a single electron (the charge expected for the complete transfer of one electron):

$$\%\ ionic\ character = \left(\frac{1.272 \times 10^{-19}\ \cancel{C}}{1.6022 \times 10^{-19}\ \cancel{C}}\right)(100) = 79.39\% \simeq 79\%$$

? Exercise 10.6.2

In the gas phase, silver chloride (AgCl) has a dipole moment of 6.08 D and an Ag–Cl distance of 228.1 pm. What is the percent ionic character in silver chloride?

Answer

55.5%

Summary

Bond polarity and ionic character increase with an increasing difference in electronegativity. The **electronegativity (χ)** of an element is the relative ability of an atom to attract electrons to itself in a chemical compound and increases diagonally from the lower left of the periodic table to the upper right. The Pauling electronegativity scale is based on measurements of the strengths of covalent bonds between different atoms, whereas the Mulliken electronegativity of an element is the average of its first ionization energy and the absolute value of its electron affinity. Elements with a high electronegativity are generally nonmetals and electrical insulators and tend to behave as oxidants in chemical reactions. Conversely, elements with a low electronegativity are generally metals and good electrical conductors and tend to behave as reductants in chemical reactions.

Compounds with **polar covalent bonds** have electrons that are shared unequally between the bonded atoms. The polarity of such a bond is determined largely by the relative electronegativites of the bonded atoms. The asymmetrical charge distribution in a polar substance produces a **dipole moment**, which is the product of the partial charges on the bonded atoms and the distance between them.

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10.7: Lewis Structures

Learning Objectives

- To use Lewis dot symbols to explain the stoichiometry of a compound

We begin our discussion of the relationship between structure and bonding in covalent compounds by describing the interaction between two identical neutral atoms—for example, the H_2 molecule, which contains a purely covalent bond. Each hydrogen atom in H_2 contains one electron and one proton, with the electron attracted to the proton by electrostatic forces. As the two hydrogen atoms are brought together, additional interactions must be considered (Figure 10.7.1):

- The electrons in the two atoms repel each other because they have the same charge (
- *The electrons in the two atoms repel each other because they have the same charge (E > 0).*
- *Similarly, the protons in adjacent atoms repel each other (E > 0).*
- *The electron in one atom is attracted to the oppositely charged proton in the other atom and vice versa (E < 0). Recall that it is impossible to specify precisely the position of the electron in either hydrogen atom. Hence the quantum mechanical probability distributions must be used.*

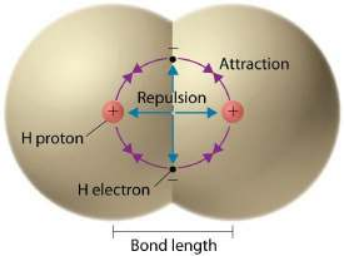


Figure 10.7.1: Attractive and Repulsive Interactions between Electrons and Nuclei in the Hydrogen Molecule. Electron–electron and proton–proton interactions are repulsive; electron–proton interactions are attractive. At the observed bond distance, the repulsive and attractive interactions are balanced.

A plot of the potential energy of the system as a function of the internuclear distance (Figure 10.7.2) shows that the system becomes more stable (the energy of the system decreases) as two hydrogen atoms move toward each other from $r = \infty$, until the energy reaches a minimum at $r = r_0$ (the observed internuclear distance in H_2 is 74 pm). Thus at intermediate distances, proton–electron attractive interactions dominate, but as the distance becomes very short, electron–electron and proton–proton repulsive interactions cause the energy of the system to increase rapidly. Notice the similarity between Figures 10.7.1 and 10.7.2, which described a system containing two oppositely charged *ions*. The shapes of the energy versus distance curves in the two figures are similar because they both result from attractive and repulsive forces between charged entities.

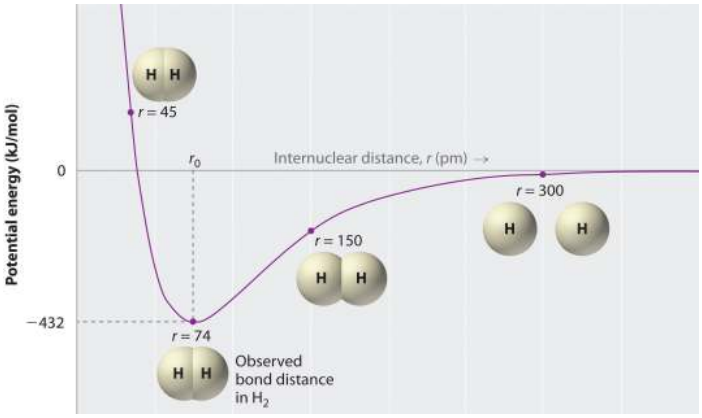


Figure 10.7.2: A Plot of Potential Energy versus Internuclear Distance for the Interaction between Two Gaseous Hydrogen Atoms.

At long distances, both attractive and repulsive interactions are small. As the distance between the atoms decreases, the attractive electron–proton interactions dominate, and the energy of the system decreases. At the observed bond distance, the repulsive electron–electron and proton–proton interactions just balance the attractive interactions, preventing a further decrease in the

internuclear distance. At very short internuclear distances, the repulsive interactions dominate, making the system less stable than the isolated atoms.

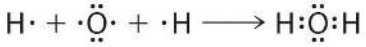
Using Lewis Dot Symbols to Describe Covalent Bonding

The valence electron configurations of the constituent atoms of a covalent compound are important factors in determining its structure, stoichiometry, and properties. For example, chlorine, with seven valence electrons, is one electron short of an octet. If two chlorine atoms share their unpaired electrons by making a covalent bond and forming Cl_2, they can each complete their valence shell:

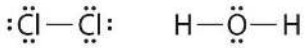


Each chlorine atom now has an octet. The electron pair being shared by the atoms is called a bonding pair; the other three pairs of electrons on each chlorine atom are called lone pairs. Lone pairs are not involved in covalent bonding. If both electrons in a covalent bond come from the same atom, the bond is called a coordinate covalent bond. Examples of this type of bonding are presented in Section 8.6 when we discuss atoms with less than an octet of electrons.

We can illustrate the formation of a water molecule from two hydrogen atoms and an oxygen atom using Lewis dot symbols:



The structure on the right is the *Lewis electron structure*, or *Lewis structure*, for H_2O. With two bonding pairs and two lone pairs, the oxygen atom has now completed its octet. Moreover, by sharing a bonding pair with oxygen, each hydrogen atom now has a full valence shell of two electrons. Chemists usually indicate a bonding pair by a single line, as shown here for our two examples:



The following procedure can be used to construct Lewis electron structures for more complex molecules and ions:

1. **Arrange the atoms to show specific connections.** When there is a central atom, it is usually the least electronegative element in the compound. Chemists usually list this central atom first in the chemical formula (as in CCl_4 and CO_3^{2-}, which both have C as the central atom), which is another clue to the compound's structure. Hydrogen and the halogens are almost always connected to only one other atom, so they are usually *terminal* rather than central.
2. **Determine the total number of valence electrons in the molecule or ion.** Add together the valence electrons from each atom. (Recall that the number of valence electrons is indicated by the position of the element in the periodic table.) If the species is a polyatomic ion, remember to add or subtract the number of electrons necessary to give the total charge on the ion. For CO_3^{2-}, for example, we add two electrons to the total because of the −2 charge.
3. **Place a bonding pair of electrons between each pair of adjacent atoms to give a single bond.** In H_2O, for example, there is a bonding pair of electrons between oxygen and each hydrogen.
4. **Beginning with the terminal atoms, add enough electrons to each atom to give each atom an octet (two for hydrogen).** These electrons will usually be lone pairs.
5. **If any electrons are left over, place them on the central atom.** We will explain later that some atoms are able to accommodate more than eight electrons.
6. **If the central atom has fewer electrons than an octet, use lone pairs from terminal atoms to form multiple (double or triple) bonds to the central atom to achieve an octet.** This will not change the number of electrons on the terminal atoms.

Now let's apply this procedure to some particular compounds, beginning with one we have already discussed.

> The central atom is usually the least electronegative element in the molecule or ion; hydrogen and the halogens are usually terminal.

The H_2O Molecule

1. Because H atoms are almost always terminal, the arrangement within the molecule must be HOH.
2. Each H atom (group 1) has 1 valence electron, and the O atom (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, for a total of 8 valence electrons.
3. Placing one bonding pair of electrons between the O atom and each H atom gives H:O:H, with 4 electrons left over.
4. Each H atom has a full valence shell of 2 electrons.

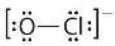
5. Adding the remaining 4 electrons to the oxygen (as two lone pairs) gives the following structure:



This is the Lewis structure we drew earlier. Because it gives oxygen an octet and each hydrogen two electrons, we do not need to use step 6.

The OCl^- Ion

1. With only two atoms in the molecule, there is no central atom.
2. Oxygen (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, and chlorine (group 17) has 7 valence electrons; we must add one more for the negative charge on the ion, giving a total of 14 valence electrons.
3. Placing a bonding pair of electrons between O and Cl gives O:Cl, with 12 electrons left over.
4. If we place six electrons (as three lone pairs) on each atom, we obtain the following structure:



Both the oxygen and chlorine have 3 electron pairs drawn around them with a bond drawn between them. The molecule has square brackets placed around it and has a negative charge.

Each atom now has an octet of electrons, so steps 5 and 6 are not needed. The Lewis electron structure is drawn within brackets as is customary for an ion, with the overall charge indicated outside the brackets, and the bonding pair of electrons is indicated by a solid line. OCl^- is the hypochlorite ion, the active ingredient in chlorine laundry bleach and swimming pool disinfectant.

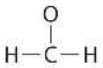
The CH_2O Molecule

1. Because carbon is less electronegative than oxygen and hydrogen is normally terminal, C must be the central atom. One possible arrangement is as follows:



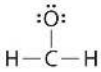
2. Each hydrogen atom (group 1) has one valence electron, carbon (group 14) has 4 valence electrons, and oxygen (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, for a total of [(2)(1) + 4 + 6] = 12 valence electrons.

3. Placing a bonding pair of electrons between each pair of bonded atoms gives the following:



Six electrons are used, and 6 are left over.

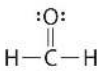
4. Adding all 6 remaining electrons to oxygen (as three lone pairs) gives the following:



Although oxygen now has an octet and each hydrogen has 2 electrons, carbon has only 6 electrons.

5. There are no electrons left to place on the central atom.

6. To give carbon an octet of electrons, we use one of the lone pairs of electrons on oxygen to form a carbon–oxygen double bond:



The bond between the oxygen and carbon is replaced with a double bond. The oxygen also has two lone pairs drawn.

Both the oxygen and the carbon now have an octet of electrons, so this is an acceptable Lewis electron structure. The O has two bonding pairs and two lone pairs, and C has four bonding pairs. This is the structure of formaldehyde, which is used in embalming fluid.

An alternative structure can be drawn with one H bonded to O. *Formal charges*, discussed later in this section, suggest that such a structure is less stable than that shown previously.

Example 10.7.1

Write the Lewis electron structure for each species.

a. NCl_3
b. S_2^{2-}
c. NOCl

Given: chemical species

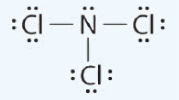
Asked for: Lewis electron structures

Strategy:

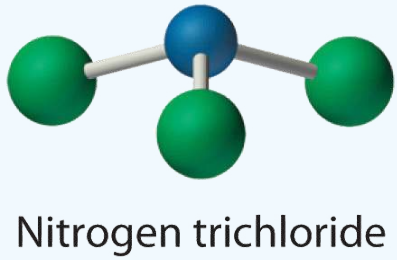
Use the six-step procedure to write the Lewis electron structure for each species.

Solution:

a. Nitrogen is less electronegative than chlorine, and halogen atoms are usually terminal, so nitrogen is the central atom. The nitrogen atom (group 15) has 5 valence electrons and each chlorine atom (group 17) has 7 valence electrons, for a total of 26 valence electrons. Using 2 electrons for each N–Cl bond and adding three lone pairs to each Cl account for (3 × 2) + (3 × 2 × 3) = 24 electrons. Rule 5 leads us to place the remaining 2 electrons on the central N:

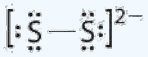


Nitrogen trichloride is an unstable oily liquid once used to bleach flour; this use is now prohibited in the United States.

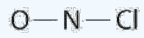


Nitrogen trichloride

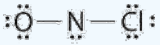
b. In a diatomic molecule or ion, we do not need to worry about a central atom. Each sulfur atom (group 16) contains 6 valence electrons, and we need to add 2 electrons for the −2 charge, giving a total of 14 valence electrons. Using 2 electrons for the S–S bond, we arrange the remaining 12 electrons as three lone pairs on each sulfur, giving each S atom an octet of electrons:



c. Because nitrogen is less electronegative than oxygen or chlorine, it is the central atom. The N atom (group 15) has 5 valence electrons, the O atom (group 16) has 6 valence electrons, and the Cl atom (group 17) has 7 valence electrons, giving a total of 18 valence electrons. Placing one bonding pair of electrons between each pair of bonded atoms uses 4 electrons and gives the following:

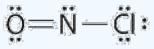


Adding three lone pairs each to oxygen and to chlorine uses 12 more electrons, leaving 2 electrons to place as a lone pair on nitrogen:

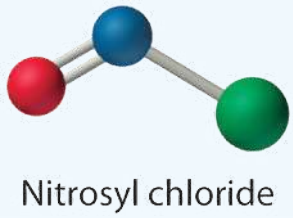


Because this Lewis structure has only 6 electrons around the central nitrogen, a lone pair of electrons on a terminal atom must be used to form a bonding pair. We could use a lone pair on either O or Cl. Because we have seen many structures in

which O forms a double bond but none with a double bond to Cl, it is reasonable to select a lone pair from O to give the following:



All atoms now have octet configurations. This is the Lewis electron structure of nitrosyl chloride, a highly corrosive, reddish-orange gas.

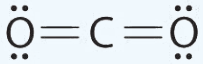


? Exercise 10.7.1

Write Lewis electron structures for CO_2 and SCl_2, a vile-smelling, unstable red liquid that is used in the manufacture of rubber.

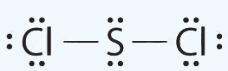
Answer

1.

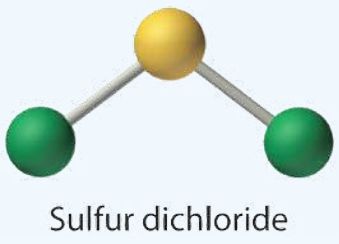




2.

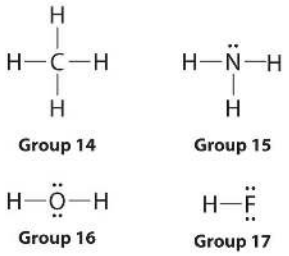


Two chlorines are bonded to a sulfur. The sulfur has 2 lone pairs while the chlorines have 3 lone pairs each.

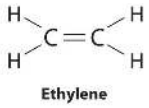


Using Lewis Electron Structures to Explain Stoichiometry

Lewis dot symbols provide a simple rationalization of why elements form compounds with the observed stoichiometries. In the Lewis model, the number of bonds formed by an element in a neutral compound is the same as the number of unpaired electrons it must share with other atoms to complete its octet of electrons. For the elements of Group 17 (the halogens), this number is one; for the elements of Group 16 (the chalcogens), it is two; for Group 15 elements, three; and for Group 14 elements four. These requirements are illustrated by the following Lewis structures for the hydrides of the lightest members of each group:



Elements may form multiple bonds to complete an octet. In ethylene, for example, each carbon contributes two electrons to the double bond, giving each carbon an octet (two electrons/bond × four bonds = eight electrons). Neutral structures with fewer or more bonds exist, but they are unusual and violate the octet rule.



Allotropes of an element can have very different physical and chemical properties because of different three-dimensional arrangements of the atoms; the number of bonds formed by the component atoms, however, is always the same. As noted at the beginning of the chapter, diamond is a hard, transparent solid; graphite is a soft, black solid; and the fullerenes have open cage structures. Despite these differences, the carbon atoms in all three allotropes form four bonds, in accordance with the octet rule.

> Lewis structures explain why the elements of groups 14–17 form neutral compounds with four, three, two, and one bonded atom(s), respectively.

Elemental phosphorus also exists in three forms: white phosphorus, a toxic, waxy substance that initially glows and then spontaneously ignites on contact with air; red phosphorus, an amorphous substance that is used commercially in safety matches, fireworks, and smoke bombs; and black phosphorus, an unreactive crystalline solid with a texture similar to graphite (Figure 10.7.3). Nonetheless, the phosphorus atoms in all three forms obey the octet rule and form three bonds per phosphorus atom.

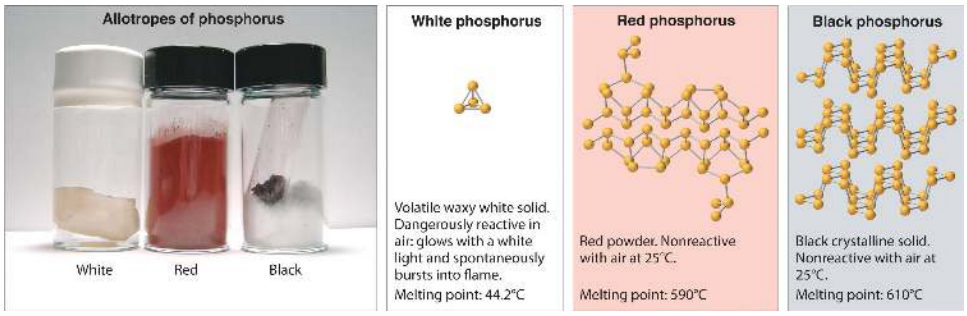


Figure 10.7.3: The Three Allotropes of Phosphorus: White, Red, and Black. ll three forms contain only phosphorus atoms, but they differ in the arrangement and connectivity of their atoms. White phosphorus contains P_4 tetrahedra, red phosphorus is a network of linked P_8 and P_9 units, and black phosphorus forms sheets of six-membered rings. As a result, their physical and chemical properties differ dramatically.

Formal Charges

It is sometimes possible to write more than one Lewis structure for a substance that does not violate the octet rule, as we saw for CH_2O, but not every Lewis structure may be equally reasonable. In these situations, we can choose the most stable Lewis structure by considering the formal charge on the atoms, which is the difference between the number of valence electrons in the free atom and the number assigned to it in the Lewis electron structure. The formal charge is a way of computing the charge distribution within a Lewis structure; the sum of the formal charges on the atoms within a molecule or an ion must equal the overall charge on the molecule or ion. A formal charge does *not* represent a true charge on an atom in a covalent bond but is simply used to predict the most likely structure when a compound has more than one valid Lewis structure.

To calculate formal charges, we assign electrons in the molecule to individual atoms according to these rules:

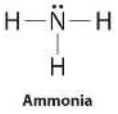
- Nonbonding electrons are assigned to the atom on which they are located.

- Bonding electrons are divided equally between the bonded atoms.

For each atom, we then compute a formal charge:

$$formal\ charge = \underset{(free\ atom)}{valence\ e^-} - \underset{(atom\ in\ Lewis\ structure)}{\left(non-bonding\ e^- + \frac{bonding\ e^-}{2}\right)} \quad \text{(atom in Lewis structure)}$$

To illustrate this method, let's calculate the formal charge on the atoms in ammonia (NH_3) whose Lewis electron structure is as follows:



Ammonia

A neutral nitrogen atom has five valence electrons (it is in group 15). From its Lewis electron structure, the nitrogen atom in ammonia has one lone pair and shares three bonding pairs with hydrogen atoms, so nitrogen itself is assigned a total of five electrons [2 nonbonding e^- + (6 bonding e^-/2)]. Substituting into Equation 10.7.1, we obtain

$$formal\ charge\,(N) = 5\ valence\ e^- - \left(2\ non-bonding\ e^- + \frac{6\ bonding\ e^-}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad (10.7.1)$$

A neutral hydrogen atom has one valence electron. Each hydrogen atom in the molecule shares one pair of bonding electrons and is therefore assigned one electron [0 nonbonding e^- + (2 bonding e^-/2)]. Using Equation 10.7.1 to calculate the formal charge on hydrogen, we obtain

$$formal\ charge\,(H) = 1\ valence\ e^- - \left(0\ non-bonding\ e^- + \frac{2\ bonding\ e^-}{2}\right) = 0 \qquad (10.7.2)$$

The hydrogen atoms in ammonia have the same number of electrons as neutral hydrogen atoms, and so their formal charge is also zero. Adding together the formal charges should give us the overall charge on the molecule or ion. In this example, the nitrogen and each hydrogen has a formal charge of zero. When summed the overall charge is zero, which is consistent with the overall charge on the NH_3 molecule.

> An atom, molecule, or ion has a formal charge of zero if it has the number of bonds that is typical for that species.

Typically, the structure with the most charges on the atoms closest to zero is the more stable Lewis structure. In cases where there are positive or negative formal charges on various atoms, stable structures generally have negative formal charges on the more electronegative atoms and positive formal charges on the less electronegative atoms. The next example further demonstrates how to calculate formal charges.



Example 10.7.2: The Ammonium Ion

Calculate the formal charges on each atom in the NH_4^+ ion.

Given: chemical species

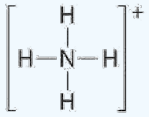
Asked for: formal charges

Strategy:

Identify the number of valence electrons in each atom in the NH_4^+ ion. Use the Lewis electron structure of NH_4^+ to identify the number of bonding and nonbonding electrons associated with each atom and then use Equation 10.7.1 to calculate the formal charge on each atom.

Solution:

The Lewis electron structure for the NH_4^+ ion is as follows:



The central nitrogen is bonded to four hydrogens. The molecule is surrounded by square brackets. Outside the bracket is where the positive charge is placed.

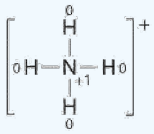
The nitrogen atom shares four bonding pairs of electrons, and a neutral nitrogen atom has five valence electrons. Using Equation ???, the formal charge on the nitrogen atom is therefore

$$formal\ charge\,(N) = 5 - \left(0 + \frac{8}{2}\right) = 0$$

Each hydrogen atom in has one bonding pair. The formal charge on each hydrogen atom is therefore

$$formal\ charge\,(H) = 1 - \left(0 + \frac{2}{2}\right) = 0$$

The formal charges on the atoms in the NH_4^+ ion are thus



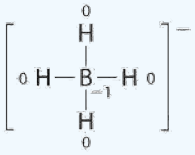
In the Lewis structure, each hydrogen has a zero placed nearby while the nitrogen has a +1 placed nearby.

Adding together the formal charges on the atoms should give us the total charge on the molecule or ion. In this case, the sum of the formal charges is 0 + 1 + 0 + 0 + 0 = +1.

Exercise 10.7.2

Write the formal charges on all atoms in BH_4^-.

Answer



Four hydrogens are bonded to a central boron. Each hydrogen has a zero placed nearby while the boron has a -1. The molecule is surrounded by square brackets. Outside of the brackets is a negative charge.

If an atom in a molecule or ion has the number of bonds that is typical for that atom (e.g., four bonds for carbon), its formal charge is zero.

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10.8: Resonance and Formal Charge

Learning Objectives

- To understand the concept of resonance.

Resonance structures are a set of two or more Lewis Structures that collectively describe the electronic bonding of a single polyatomic species including fractional bonds and fractional charges. Resonance structures are capable of describing delocalized electrons that cannot be expressed by a single Lewis formula with an integral number of covalent bonds.

Sometimes one Lewis Structure is not Enough

Sometimes, even when formal charges are considered, the bonding in some molecules or ions cannot be described by a single Lewis structure. Resonance is a way of describing delocalized electrons within certain molecules or polyatomic ions where the bonding cannot be expressed by a single Lewis formula. A molecule or ion with such delocalized electrons is represented by several contributing structures (also called resonance structures or canonical forms). Such is the case for ozone (O_3), an allotrope of oxygen with a V-shaped structure and an O–O–O angle of 117.5°.

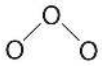
Ozone (O_3)

1. We know that ozone has a V-shaped structure, so one O atom is central:



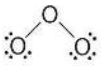
2. Each O atom has 6 valence electrons, for a total of 18 valence electrons.

3. Assigning one bonding pair of electrons to each oxygen–oxygen bond gives



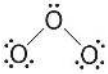
with 14 electrons left over.

4. If we place three lone pairs of electrons on each terminal oxygen, we obtain

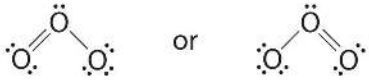


and have 2 electrons left over.

5. At this point, both terminal oxygen atoms have octets of electrons. We therefore place the last 2 electrons on the central atom:



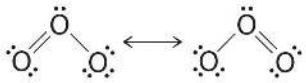
6. The central oxygen has only 6 electrons. We must convert one lone pair on a terminal oxygen atom to a bonding pair of electrons—but which one? Depending on which one we choose, we obtain either



Which is correct? In fact, neither is correct. Both predict one O–O single bond and one O=O double bond. As you will learn, if the bonds were of different types (one single and one double, for example), they would have different lengths. It turns out, however, that both O–O bond distances are identical, 127.2 pm, which is shorter than a typical O–O single bond (148 pm) and longer than the O=O double bond in O_2 (120.7 pm).

Equivalent Lewis dot structures, such as those of ozone, are called **resonance structures**. The position of the *atoms* is the same in the various resonance structures of a compound, but the position of the *electrons* is different. Double-headed arrows link the

different resonance structures of a compound:



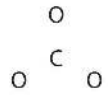
The double-headed arrow indicates that the actual electronic structure is an *average* of those shown, not that the molecule oscillates between the two structures.

> *When it is possible to write more than one equivalent resonance structure for a molecule or ion, the actual structure is the average of the resonance structures.*

The Carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) Ion

Like ozone, the electronic structure of the carbonate ion cannot be described by a single Lewis electron structure. Unlike O_3, though, the actual structure of CO_3^{2-} is an average of *three* resonance structures.

1. Because carbon is the least electronegative element, we place it in the central position:



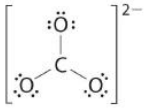
The three oxygens are drawn in the shape of a triangle with the carbon at the center of the triangle.

2. Carbon has 4 valence electrons, each oxygen has 6 valence electrons, and there are 2 more for the −2 charge. This gives 4 + (3 × 6) + 2 = 24 valence electrons.

3. Six electrons are used to form three bonding pairs between the oxygen atoms and the carbon:



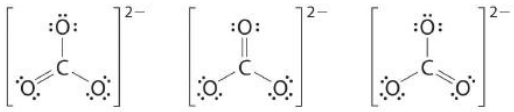
4. We divide the remaining 18 electrons equally among the three oxygen atoms by placing three lone pairs on each and indicating the −2 charge:



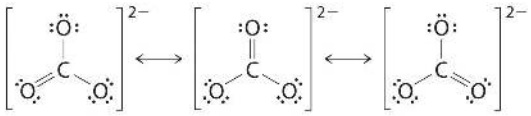
The Lewis dot structure has a central carbon that is bonded to 3 oxygens. Each oxygen has 3 lone pairs. The molecule is inside square brackets and has a charge of minus 2.

5. No electrons are left for the central atom.

6. At this point, the carbon atom has only 6 valence electrons, so we must take one lone pair from an oxygen and use it to form a carbon–oxygen double bond. In this case, however, there are *three* possible choices:



As with ozone, none of these structures describes the bonding exactly. Each predicts one carbon–oxygen double bond and two carbon–oxygen single bonds, but experimentally all C–O bond lengths are identical. We can write resonance structures (in this case, three of them) for the carbonate ion:



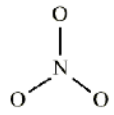
The resonance structure includes all three Lewis dot structures with double headed arrows between them.

The actual structure is an average of these three resonance structures.

The Nitrate (NO_3^-) ion

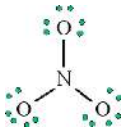
1. Count up the valence electrons: (1*5) + (3*6) + 1(ion) = **24** electrons

2. Draw the bond connectivities:

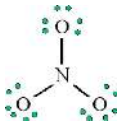


The three oxygens are drawn in the shape of a triangle with the nitrogen at the center of the triangle.

3. Add octet electrons to the atoms bonded to the center atom:

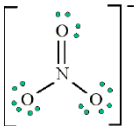


4. Place any leftover electrons (24-24 = **0**) on the center atom:



5. Does the central atom have an octet?

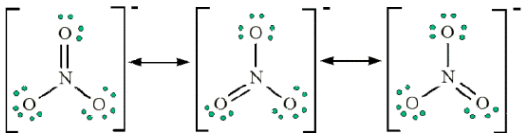
- **NO**, it has 6 electrons
- Add a multiple bond (first try a double bond) to see if the central atom can achieve an octet:



A double bond is added between one oxygen and the central nitrogen. The molecule has a negative charge.

6. Does the central atom have an octet?

- YES
- Are there possible resonance structures? YES



Note: We would expect that the bond lengths in the NO_3^- ion to be somewhat shorter than a single bond.



Example 10.8.1: Benzene

Benzene is a common organic solvent that was previously used in gasoline; it is no longer used for this purpose, however, because it is now known to be a carcinogen. The benzene molecule (C_6H_6) consists of a regular hexagon of carbon atoms, each of which is also bonded to a hydrogen atom. Use resonance structures to describe the bonding in benzene.

Given: molecular formula and molecular geometry

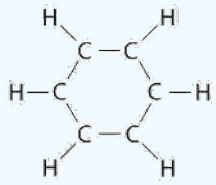
Asked for: resonance structures

Strategy:

A. Draw a structure for benzene illustrating the bonded atoms. Then calculate the number of valence electrons used in this drawing.
B. Subtract this number from the total number of valence electrons in benzene and then locate the remaining electrons such that each atom in the structure reaches an octet.
C. Draw the resonance structures for benzene.

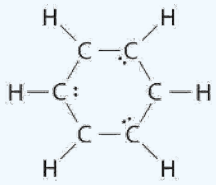
Solution:

A Each hydrogen atom contributes 1 valence electron, and each carbon atom contributes 4 valence electrons, for a total of (6 × 1) + (6 × 4) = 30 valence electrons. If we place a single bonding electron pair between each pair of carbon atoms and between each carbon and a hydrogen atom, we obtain the following:



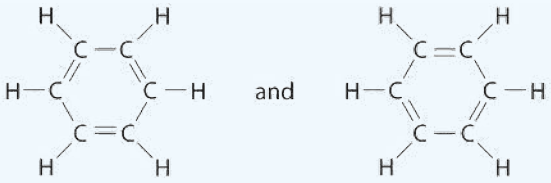
Each carbon atom in this structure has only 6 electrons and has a formal charge of +1, but we have used only 24 of the 30 valence electrons.

B If the 6 remaining electrons are uniformly distributed pairwise on alternate carbon atoms, we obtain the following:

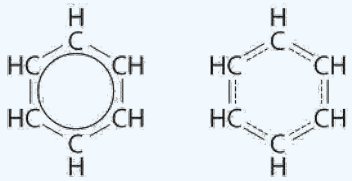


Three carbon atoms now have an octet configuration and a formal charge of −1, while three carbon atoms have only 6 electrons and a formal charge of +1. We can convert each lone pair to a bonding electron pair, which gives each atom an octet of electrons and a formal charge of 0, by making three C=C double bonds.

C There are, however, two ways to do this:



Each structure has alternating double and single bonds, but experimentation shows that each carbon–carbon bond in benzene is identical, with bond lengths (139.9 pm) intermediate between those typically found for a C–C single bond (154 pm) and a C=C double bond (134 pm). We can describe the bonding in benzene using the two resonance structures, but the actual electronic structure is an average of the two. The existence of multiple resonance structures for aromatic hydrocarbons like benzene is often indicated by drawing either a circle or dashed lines inside the hexagon:



Benzene

? Exercise 10.8.1: Nitrite Ion

The sodium salt of nitrite is used to relieve muscle spasms. Draw two resonance structures for the nitrite ion (NO_2^-).

Answer



There is a double bond between one oxygen and the nitrogen, It can be found on the left oxygen or the right oxygen.

Resonance structures are particularly common in oxoanions of the *p*-block elements, such as sulfate and phosphate, and in aromatic hydrocarbons, such as benzene and naphthalene.

Warning

If several reasonable resonance forms for a molecule exists, the "actual electronic structure" of the molecule will probably be intermediate between all the forms that you can draw. The classic example is benzene in Example 10.8.1. One would expect the double bonds to be shorter than the single bonds, but if one overlays the two structures, you see that one structure has a single bond where the other structure has a double bond. The best measurements that we can make of benzene do not show two bond lengths - instead, they show that the bond length is intermediate between the two resonance structures.

Resonance structures is a mechanism that allows us to use all of the possible resonance structures to try to predict what the actual form of the molecule would be. Single bonds, double bonds, triple bonds, +1 charges, -1 charges, these are our limitations in explaining the structures, and the true forms can be in between - a carbon-carbon bond could be mostly single bond with a little bit of double bond character and a partial negative charge, for example.

Summary

Some molecules have two or more chemically equivalent Lewis electron structures, called resonance structures. Resonance is a mental exercise and method within the Valence Bond Theory of bonding that describes the delocalization of electrons within molecules. These structures are written with a **double-headed arrow** between them, indicating that none of the Lewis structures accurately describes the bonding but that the actual structure is an average of the individual resonance structures. Resonance structures are used when one Lewis structure for a single molecule cannot fully describe the bonding that takes place between neighboring atoms relative to the empirical data for the actual bond lengths between those atoms. The net sum of valid resonance

structures is defined as a resonance hybrid, which represents the overall delocalization of electrons within the molecule. A molecule that has several resonance structures is more stable than one with fewer. Some resonance structures are more favorable than others.

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10.9: Exceptions to the Octet Rule

Learning Objectives

- To assign a Lewis dot symbol to elements not having an octet of electrons in their compounds.

Three cases can be constructed that do not follow the octet rule, and as such, they are known as the exceptions to the octet rule. Following the Octet Rule for Lewis Dot Structures leads to the most accurate depictions of stable molecular and atomic structures and because of this we always want to use the octet rule when drawing Lewis Dot Structures. However, it is hard to imagine that one rule could be followed by all molecules. There is always an exception, and in this case, three exceptions:

1. When there are an odd number of valence electrons
2. When there are too few valence electrons
3. When there are too many valence electrons

Exception 1: Species with Odd Numbers of Electrons

The first exception to the Octet Rule is when there are an odd number of valence electrons. An example of this would be Nitrogen (II) Oxide also called nitric oxide (NO. Nitrogen has 5 valence electrons while Oxygen has 6. The total would be 11 valence electrons to be used. The Octet Rule for this molecule is fulfilled in the above example, however that is with 10 valence electrons. The last one does not know where to go. The lone electron is called an unpaired electron. But where should the unpaired electron go? The unpaired electron is usually placed in the Lewis Dot Structure so that each element in the structure will have the *lowest* formal charge possible. The formal charge is *the perceived charge on an individual atom in a molecule when atoms do not contribute equal numbers of electrons to the bonds they participate in.*

No formal charge at all is the most ideal situation. An example of a stable molecule with an odd number of valence electrons would be nitric oxide. nitric oxide has 11 valence electrons. If you need more information about formal charges, see Lewis Structures. If we were to imagine nitric oxide had ten valence electrons we would come up with the Lewis Structure (Figure 10.9.1):

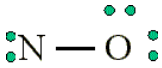


Figure 10.9.1: This is if nitric oxide has only ten valence electrons, which it does not.

Let's look at the formal charges of Figure 10.9.2 based on this Lewis structure. Nitrogen normally has five valence electrons. In Figure 10.9.1, it has two lone pair electrons and it participates in two bonds (a double bond) with oxygen. This results in nitrogen having a formal charge of +1. Oxygen normally has six valence electrons. In Figure 10.9.1, oxygen has four lone pair electrons and it participates in two bonds with nitrogen. Oxygen therefore has a formal charge of 0. The overall molecule here has a formal charge of +1 (+1 for nitrogen, 0 for oxygen. +1 + 0 = +1). However, if we add the eleventh electron to nitrogen (because we want the molecule to have the *lowest* total formal charge), it will bring both the nitrogen and the molecule's overall charges to zero, the most ideal formal charge situation. That is exactly what is done to get the correct Lewis structure for nitric oxide (Figure 10.9.2):

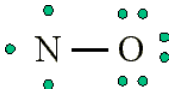


Figure 10.9.2: The proper Lewis structure for NO molecule

Free Radicals

There are actually very few stable molecules with odd numbers of electrons that exist, since that unpaired electron is willing to react with other unpaired electrons. Most odd electron species are highly reactive, which we call Free Radicals. Because of their instability, free radicals bond to atoms in which they can take an electron from in order to become stable, making them very chemically reactive. Radicals are found as both reactants and products, but generally react to form more stable molecules as soon as they can. In order to emphasize the existence of the unpaired electron, radicals are denoted with a dot in front of their chemical symbol as with $\cdot OH$, the hydroxyl radical. An example of a radical you may by familiar with already is the gaseous chlorine atom, denoted $\cdot Cl$. Interestingly, an odd Number of Valence Electrons will result in the molecule being paramagnetic.

Exception 2: Incomplete Octets

The second exception to the Octet Rule is when there are too few valence electrons that results in an incomplete Octet. There are even more occasions where the octet rule does not give the most correct depiction of a molecule or ion. This is also the case with incomplete octets. Species with incomplete octets are pretty rare and generally are only found in some beryllium, aluminum, and boron compounds including the boron hydrides. Let's take a look at one such hydride, BH_3 (Borane).

If one were to make a Lewis structure for BH_3 following the basic strategies for drawing Lewis structures, one would probably come up with this structure (Figure 10.9.2):

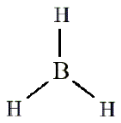


Figure 10.9.3: The structure of BH_3 is square planer.

The problem with this structure is that boron has an incomplete octet; it only has six electrons around it. Hydrogen atoms can naturally only have only 2 electrons in their outermost shell (their version of an octet), and as such there are no spare electrons to form a double bond with boron. One might surmise that the failure of this structure to form complete octets must mean that this bond should be ionic instead of covalent. However, boron has an electronegativity that is very similar to hydrogen, meaning there is likely very little ionic character in the hydrogen to boron bonds, and as such this Lewis structure, though it does not fulfill the octet rule, is likely the best structure possible for depicting BH_3 with Lewis theory. One of the things that may account for BH_3's incomplete octet is that it is commonly a transitory species, formed temporarily in reactions that involve multiple steps.

Let's take a look at another incomplete octet situation dealing with boron, BF_3 (Boron trifluorine). Like with BH_3, the initial drawing of a Lewis structure of BF_3 will form a structure where boron has only six electrons around it (Figure 10.9.4).

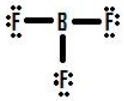


Figure 10.9.4

If you look Figure 10.9.4, you can see that the fluorine atoms possess extra lone pairs that they can use to make additional bonds with boron, and you might think that all you have to do is make one lone pair into a bond and the structure will be correct. If we add one double bond between boron and one of the fluorines we get the following Lewis Structure (Figure 10.9.5):

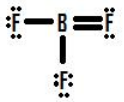


Figure 10.9.5

Each fluorine has eight electrons, and the boron atom has eight as well! Each atom has a perfect octet, right? Not so fast. We must examine the formal charges of this structure. The fluorine that shares a double bond with boron has six electrons around it (four from its two lone pairs of electrons and one each from its two bonds with boron). This is one less electron than the number of valence electrons it would have naturally (Group Seven elements have seven valence electrons), so it has a formal charge of +1. The two flourines that share single bonds with boron have seven electrons around them (six from their three lone pairs and one from their single bonds with boron). This is the same amount as the number of valence electrons they would have on their own, so they both have a formal charge of zero. Finally, boron has four electrons around it (one from each of its four bonds shared with fluorine). This is one more electron than the number of valence electrons that boron would have on its own, and as such boron has a formal charge of -1.

This structure is supported by the fact that the experimentally determined bond length of the boron to fluorine bonds in BF_3 is less than what would be typical for a single bond (see Bond Order and Lengths). However, this structure contradicts one of the major rules of formal charges: Negative formal charges are supposed to be found on the more electronegative atom(s) in a bond, but in the structure depicted in Figure 10.9.5, a *positive* formal charge is found on fluorine, which not only is the most electronegative element in the structure, but the most electronegative element in the entire periodic table ($\chi = 4.0$). Boron on the other hand, with the much lower electronegativity of 2.0, has the negative formal charge in this structure. This formal charge-electronegativity disagreement makes this double-bonded structure impossible.

However the large electronegativity difference here, as opposed to in BH_3, signifies significant polar bonds between boron and fluorine, which means there is a high ionic character to this molecule. This suggests the possibility of a semi-ionic structure such as seen in Figure 10.9.6:

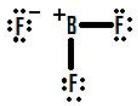


Figure 10.9.6

A bond is broken between one of the fluorine's and the boron making the free fluorine negatively charged and the boron positively charged.

None of these three structures is the "correct" structure in this instance. The most "correct" structure is most likely a resonance of all three structures: the one with the incomplete octet (Figure 10.9.4), the one with the double bond (Figure 10.9.5), and the one with the ionic bond (Figure 10.9.6). The most contributing structure is probably the incomplete octet structure (due to Figure 10.9.5 being basically impossible and Figure 10.9.6 not matching up with the behavior and properties of BF_3). As you can see even when other possibilities exist, incomplete octets may best portray a molecular structure.

As a side note, it is important to note that BF_3 frequently bonds with a F^- ion in order to form BF_4^- rather than staying as BF_3. This structure completes boron's octet and it is more common in nature. This exemplifies the fact that incomplete octets are rare, and other configurations are typically more favorable, including bonding with additional ions as in the case of BF_3 .

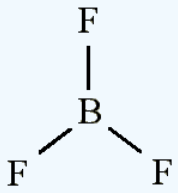
10.9.1 NF_3 Example :

Draw the Lewis structure for boron trifluoride (BF_3).

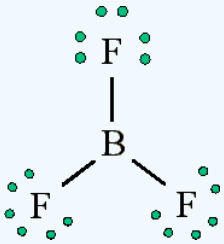
Solution

1. Add electrons (3*7) + 3 = **24**

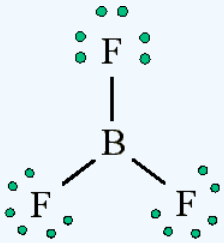
2. Draw connectivities:



3. Add octets to outer atoms:



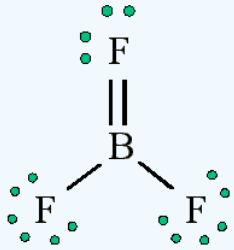
4. Add extra electrons (24-24=0) to central atom:



5. Does central electron have octet?

- NO. It has 6 electrons

- Add a multiple bond (double bond) to see if central atom can achieve an octet:

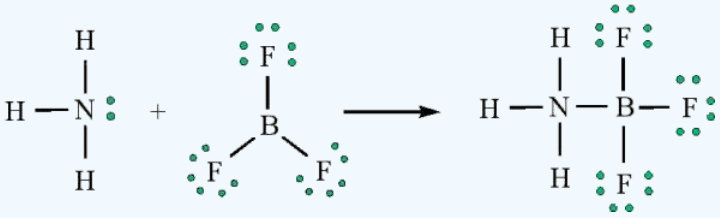


6. The central Boron now has an octet (there would be three resonance Lewis structures)

However...

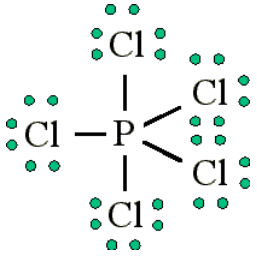
- In this structure with a double bond the fluorine atom is sharing extra electrons with the boron.
- The fluorine would have a '+' partial charge, and the boron a '-' partial charge, this is inconsistent with the electronegativities of fluorine and boron.
- Thus, ***the structure of BF_3, with single bonds, and 6 valence electrons around the central boron is the most likely structure***

BF_3 reacts strongly with compounds which have an unshared pair of electrons which can be used to form a bond with the boron:



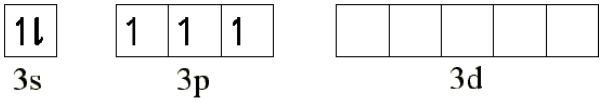
Exception 3: Expanded Valence Shells

More common than incomplete octets are expanded octets where the central atom in a Lewis structure has more than eight electrons in its valence shell. In expanded octets, the central atom can have ten electrons, or even twelve. *Molecules with expanded octets involve highly electronegative terminal atoms, and a nonmetal central atom found in the third period or below*, which those terminal atoms bond to. For example, PCl_5 is a legitimate compound (whereas NCl_5) is not:



Expanded valence shells are observed **only** for elements in period 3 (i.e. n=3) and beyond

The 'octet' rule is based upon available n*s* and n*p* orbitals for valence electrons (2 electrons in the *s* orbitals, and 6 in the *p* orbitals). Beginning with the n=3 principle quantum number, the d orbitals become available (*l*=2). The orbital diagram for the valence shell of phosphorous is:



Hence, the third period elements occasionally exceed the octet rule by using their empty d orbitals to accommodate additional electrons. Size is also an important consideration:

- The larger the central atom, the larger the number of electrons which can surround it
- Expanded valence shells occur most often when the central atom is bonded to small electronegative atoms, such as F, Cl and O.

There is currently much scientific exploration and inquiry into the reason why expanded valence shells are found. The top area of interest is figuring out where the extra pair(s) of electrons are found. Many chemists think that there is not a very large energy difference between the 3p and 3d orbitals, and as such it is plausible for extra electrons to easily fill the 3d orbital when an expanded octet is more favorable than having a complete octet. This matter is still under hot debate, however and there is even debate as to what makes an expanded octet more favorable than a configuration that follows the octet rule.

One of the situations where expanded octet structures are treated as more favorable than Lewis structures that follow the octet rule is when the formal charges in the expanded octet structure are smaller than in a structure that adheres to the octet rule, or when there are less formal charges in the expanded octet than in the structure a structure that adheres to the octet rule.



10.9.2 SO_4^{-2} Example : The ion

Such is the case for the sulfate ion, SO_4^{-2}. A strict adherence to the octet rule forms the following Lewis structure:

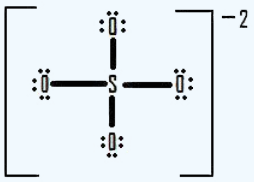


Figure 10.9.12

Four oxygens are bonded to a central sulfur. Each oxygen has 3 lone pairs. The molecule has a minus 2 charge.

If we look at the formal charges on this molecule, we can see that all of the oxygen atoms have seven electrons around them (six from the three lone pairs and one from the bond with sulfur). This is one more electron than the number of valence electrons then they would have normally, and as such each of the oxygens in this structure has a formal charge of -1. Sulfur has four electrons around it in this structure (one from each of its four bonds) which is two electrons more than the number of valence electrons it would have normally, and as such it carries a formal charge of +2.

If instead we made a structure for the sulfate ion with an expanded octet, it would look like this:

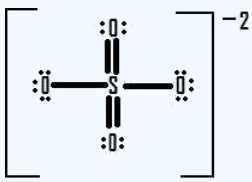


Figure 10.9.13

Looking at the formal charges for this structure, the sulfur ion has six electrons around it (one from each of its bonds). This is the same amount as the number of valence electrons it would have naturally. This leaves sulfur with a formal charge of zero.

The two oxygens that have double bonds to sulfur have six electrons each around them (four from the two lone pairs and one each from the two bonds with sulfur). This is the same amount of electrons as the number of valence electrons that oxygen atoms have on their own, and as such both of these oxygen atoms have a formal charge of zero. The two oxygens with the single bonds to sulfur have seven electrons around them in this structure (six from the three lone pairs and one from the bond to sulfur). That is one electron more than the number of valence electrons that oxygen would have on its own, and as such those two oxygens carry a formal charge of -1. Remember that with formal charges, the goal is to keep the formal charges (or the difference between the formal charges of each atom) as small as possible. The number of and values of the formal charges on this structure (-1 and 0 (difference of 1) in Figure 10.9.12, as opposed to +2 and -1 (difference of 3) in Figure 10.9.12) is significantly lower than on the structure that follows the octet rule, and as such an expanded octet is plausible, and even preferred to a normal octet, in this case.

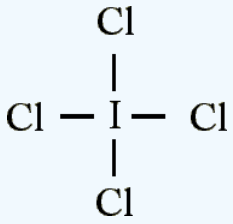
10.9.3 ICl_4^- Example : The Ion

Draw the Lewis structure for ICl_4^- ion.

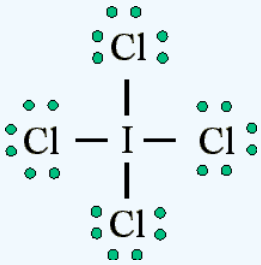
Solution

1. Count up the valence electrons: 7+(4*7)+1 = **36** electrons

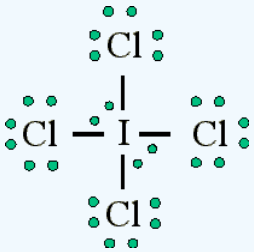
2. Draw the connectivities:



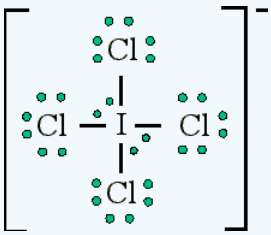
3. Add octet of electrons to outer atoms:



4. Add extra electrons (36-32=**4**) to central atom:



5. The ICl_4^- ion thus has 12 valence electrons around the central Iodine (in the 5*d* orbitals)



Expanded Lewis structures are also plausible depictions of molecules when experimentally determined bond lengths suggest partial double bond characters even when single bonds would already fully fill the octet of the central atom. Despite the cases for expanded octets, as mentioned for incomplete octets, it is important to keep in mind that, in general, the octet rule applies.

Summary

Following the Octet Rule for Lewis Dot Structures leads to the most accurate depictions of stable molecular and atomic structures and because of this we always want to use the octet rule when drawing Lewis Dot Structures. There are three exceptions: (1) When there are an odd number of valence electrons, (2) When there are too few valence electrons, and (3) when there are too many valence electrons

References

1. Petrucci, Ralph H.; Harwood, William S.; Herring, F. G.; Madura, Jeffrey D. General Chemistry: Principles & Modern Applications. 9th Ed. New Jersey. Pearson Education, Inc. 2007.
2. Moore, John W.; Stanitski, Conrad L.; Jurs, Peter C. Chemistry; The Molecular Science. 2nd Ed. 2004.

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10.10: Bond Energies and Bond Lengths

Learning Objectives

- The define Bond-dissociation energy (bond energy)
- To correlate bond strength with bond length
- To define and used *average bond energies*

In proposing his theory that octets can be completed by two atoms sharing electron pairs, Lewis provided scientists with the first description of covalent bonding. In this section, we expand on this and describe some of the properties of covalent bonds. The stability of a molecule is a function of the strength of the covalent bonds holding the atoms together.

The Relationship between Bond Order and Bond Energy

Triple bonds between like atoms are shorter than double bonds, and because more energy is required to completely break all three bonds than to completely break two, a triple bond is also stronger than a double bond. Similarly, double bonds between like atoms are stronger and shorter than single bonds. Bonds of the same order between *different* atoms show a wide range of bond energies, however. Table 10.10.1 lists the average values for some commonly encountered bonds. Although the values shown vary widely, we can observe four trends:

Table 10.10.1: Average Bond Energies (kJ/mol) for Commonly Encountered Bonds at 273 K

Single Bonds										Multiple Bonds	
H–H	432	C–C	346	N–N	≈167	O–O	≈142	F–F	155	C=C	602
H–C	411	C–Si	318	N–O	201	O–F	190	F–Cl	249	C≡C	835
H–Si	318	C–N	305	N–F	283	O–Cl	218	F–Br	249	C=N	615
H–N	386	C–O	358	N–Cl	313	O–Br	201	F–I	278	C≡N	887
H–P	≈322	C–S	272	N–Br	243	O–I	201	Cl–Cl	240	C=O	749
H–O	459	C–F	485	P–P	201	S–S	226	Cl–Br	216	C≡O	1072
H–S	363	C–Cl	327			S–F	284	Cl–I	208	N=N	418
H–F	565	C–Br	285			S–Cl	255	Br–Br	190	N≡N	942
H–Cl	428	C–I	213			S–Br	218	Br–I	175	N=O	607
H–Br	362	Si–Si	222					I–I	149	O=O	494
H–I	295	Si–O	452							S=O	532

Source: Data from J. E. Huheey, E. A. Keiter, and R. L. Keiter, Inorganic Chemistry, 4th ed. (1993).

1. Bonds between hydrogen and atoms in the same column of the periodic table decrease in strength as we go down the column. Thus an H–F bond is stronger than an H–I bond, H–C is stronger than H–Si, H–N is stronger than H–P, H–O is stronger than H–S, and so forth. The reason for this is that the region of space in which electrons are shared between two atoms becomes proportionally smaller as one of the atoms becomes larger (part (a) in Figure 8.11).
2. Bonds between like atoms usually become *weaker* as we go down a column (important exceptions are noted later). For example, the C–C single bond is stronger than the Si–Si single bond, which is stronger than the Ge–Ge bond, and so forth. As two bonded atoms become larger, the region between them occupied by bonding electrons becomes *proportionally* smaller, as illustrated in part (b) in Figure 8.11. Noteworthy exceptions are single bonds between the period 2 atoms of groups 15, 16, and 17 (i.e., N, O, F), which are unusually weak compared with single bonds between their larger congeners. It is likely that the N–N, O–O, and F–F single bonds are weaker than might be expected due to strong repulsive interactions between lone pairs of electrons on *adjacent* atoms. The trend in bond energies for the halogens is therefore

$$\mathrm{Cl–Cl} > \mathrm{Br–Br} > \mathrm{F–F} > \mathrm{I–I}$$

Similar effects are also seen for the O–O versus S–S and for N–N versus P–P single bonds.

> Bonds between hydrogen and atoms in a given column in the periodic table are weaker down the column; bonds between like atoms usually become weaker down a column.

3. Because elements in periods 3 and 4 rarely form multiple bonds with themselves, their multiple bond energies are not accurately known. Nonetheless, they are presumed to be significantly weaker than multiple bonds between lighter atoms of the same families. Compounds containing an Si=Si double bond, for example, have only recently been prepared, whereas compounds containing C=C double bonds are one of the best-studied and most important classes of organic compounds.

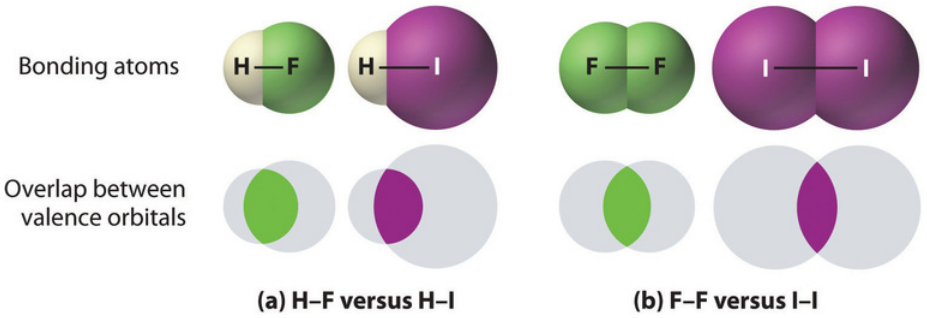


Figure 10.10.1: The Strength of Covalent Bonds Depends on the Overlap between the Valence Orbitals of the Bonded Atoms. The relative sizes of the region of space in which electrons are shared between (a) a hydrogen atom and lighter (smaller) vs. heavier (larger) atoms in the same periodic group; and (b) two lighter versus two heavier atoms in the same group. Although the absolute amount of shared space increases in both cases on going from a light to a heavy atom, the amount of space *relative to the size of the bonded atom* decreases; that is, the *percentage* of total orbital volume decreases with increasing size. Hence the strength of the bond decreases.

4. Multiple bonds between carbon, oxygen, or nitrogen and a period 3 element such as phosphorus or sulfur tend to be unusually strong. In fact, multiple bonds of this type dominate the chemistry of the period 3 elements of groups 15 and 16. Multiple bonds to phosphorus or sulfur occur as a result of *d*-orbital interactions, as we discussed for the SO_4^{2-} ion in Section 8.6. In contrast, silicon in group 14 has little tendency to form discrete silicon–oxygen double bonds. Consequently, SiO_2 has a three-dimensional network structure in which each silicon atom forms four Si–O single bonds, which makes the physical and chemical properties of SiO_2 very different from those of CO_2.

> *Bond strengths increase as bond order* ***increases****, while bond distances* ***decrease****.*

The Relationship between Molecular Structure and Bond Energy

Bond energy is defined as the energy required to break a particular bond in a molecule in the gas phase. Its value depends on not only the identity of the bonded atoms but also their environment. Thus the bond energy of a C–H single bond is *not* the same in all organic compounds. For example, the energy required to break a C–H bond in methane varies by as much as 25% depending on how many other bonds in the molecule have already been broken (Table 10.10.2); that is, the C–H bond energy depends on its molecular environment. Except for diatomic molecules, the bond energies listed in Table 10.10.1 are *average* values for all bonds of a given type in a range of molecules. Even so, they are not likely to differ from the actual value of a given bond by more than about 10%.

Table 10.10.2: Energies for the Dissociation of Successive C–H Bonds in Methane. Source: Data from *CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics* (2004).

Reaction	D (kJ/mol)
$CH_4(g) \rightarrow CH_3(g) + H(g)$	439
$CH_3(g) \rightarrow CH_2(g) + H(g)$	462
$CH_2(g) \rightarrow CH(g) + H(g)$	424
$CH(g) \rightarrow C(g) + H(g)$	338

We can estimate the enthalpy change for a chemical reaction by adding together the average energies of the bonds broken in the reactants and the average energies of the bonds formed in the products and then calculating the difference between the two. If the

bonds formed in the products are stronger than those broken in the reactants, then energy will be released in the reaction ($\Delta H_{rxn} < 0$):

$$\Delta H_{rxn} \approx \sum (\text{bond energies of bonds broken}) - \sum (\text{bond energies of bonds formed}) \qquad (10.10.1)$$

The ≈ sign is used because we are adding together *average* bond energies; hence this approach does not give exact values for ΔH_{rxn}.

Let's consider the reaction of 1 mol of *n*-heptane (C_7H_{16}) with oxygen gas to give carbon dioxide and water. This is one reaction that occurs during the combustion of gasoline:

$$CH_3(CH_2)_5CH_3(l) + 11\,O_2(g) \rightarrow 7\,CO_2(g) + 8\,H_2O(g) \qquad (10.10.2)$$

In this reaction, 6 C–C bonds, 16 C–H bonds, and 11 O=O bonds are broken per mole of *n*-heptane, while 14 C=O bonds (two for each CO_2) and 16 O–H bonds (two for each H_2O) are formed. The energy changes can be tabulated as follows:

Binds Broken (kJ/mol) and Bonds Formed (kJ/mol)

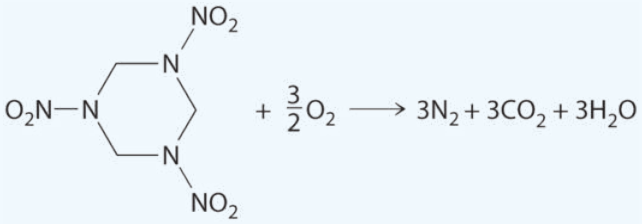
Bonds Broken (kJ/mol)		Bonds Formed (kJ/mol)	
6 C–C	346 × 6 = 2076	14 C=O	799 × 14 = 11,186
16 C–H	411 × 16 = 6576	16 O–H	459 × 16 = 7344
11 O=O	494 × 11 = 5434		**Total** = 18,530
	Total = 14,086		

The bonds in the products are stronger than the bonds in the reactants by about 4444 kJ/mol. This means that ΔH_{rxn} is approximately −4444 kJ/mol, and the reaction is highly exothermic (which is not too surprising for a combustion reaction).

If we compare this approximation with the value obtained from measured ΔH_f^o values ($\Delta H_{rxn} = -481\ 7 kJ/mol$), we find a discrepancy of only about 8%, less than the 10% typically encountered. Chemists find this method useful for calculating approximate enthalpies of reaction for molecules whose actual ΔH_f^o values are unknown. These approximations can be important for predicting whether a reaction is **exothermic** or **endothermic**—and to what degree.

Example 10.10.1: Explosives

The compound RDX (Research Development Explosive) is a more powerful explosive than dynamite and is used by the military. When detonated, it produces gaseous products and heat according to the following reaction. Use the approximate bond energies in Table 10.10.1to estimate the ΔH_{rxn} per mole of RDX.



RDX

Given: chemical reaction, structure of reactant, and Table 10.10.1

Asked for: ΔH_{rxn} per mole

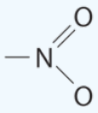
Strategy:

A. List the types of bonds broken in RDX, along with the bond energy required to break each type. Multiply the number of each type by the energy required to break one bond of that type and then add together the energies. Repeat this procedure for the bonds formed in the reaction.

B. Use Equation 10.10.1to calculate the amount of energy consumed or released in the reaction (ΔH_{rxn}).

Solution:

We must add together the energies of the bonds in the reactants and compare that quantity with the sum of the energies of the bonds in the products. A nitro group ($–NO_2$) can be viewed as having one N–O single bond and one N=O double bond, as follows:



In fact, however, both N–O distances are usually the same because of the presence of two equivalent resonance structures.

A We can organize our data by constructing a table:

Bonds Broken (kJ/mol)

Bonds Broken (kJ/mol)		Bonds Broken (kJ/mol)	
6 C–H	411 × 6 = 2466	6 C=O	799 × 6 = 4794
3 N–N	167 × 3 = 501	6 O–H	459 × 6 = 2754
3 N–O	201 × 3 = 603		**Total** = 10,374
3 N=O	607 × 3 = 1821		
1.5 O=O	494 × 1.5 = 741		
	Total = 7962		

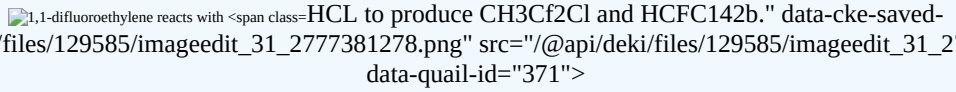
B From Equation 10.10.1, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta H_{rxn} &\approx \sum(\text{bond energies of bonds broken}) - \sum(\text{bond energies of bonds formed}) \\ &= 7962\ kJ/mol - 10,374\ kJ/mol \\ &= -2412\ kJ/mol\end{aligned}$$

Thus this reaction is also highly exothermic

? Exercise 10.10.1: Freon

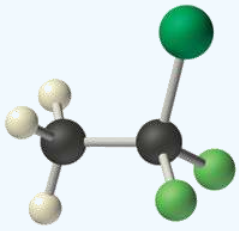
The molecule HCFC-142b is a hydrochlorofluorocarbon that is used in place of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) such as the Freons and can be prepared by adding HCl to 1,1-difluoroethylene:



Use tabulated bond energies to calculate ΔH_{rxn}.

Answer

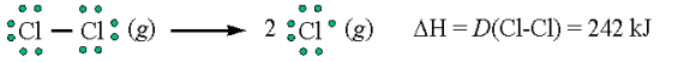
−54 kJ/mol



HCFC-142b

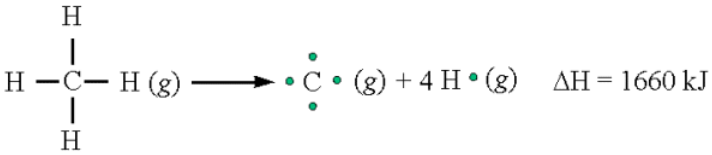
Bond Dissociation Energy

Bond Dissociation Energy (also referred to as Bond energy) is the enthalpy change (ΔH, heat input) required to break a bond (in 1 mole of a gaseous substance)



where "D(Cl-Cl)" represents the bond dissociation energy for the Cl-Cl bond

What about when we have a compound which is not a diatomic molecule? Consider the dissociation of ***methane***:



There are four equivalent C-H bonds, thus we can that the dissociation energy for a single C-H bond would be:

$$D(C-H) = (1660/4)\, kJ/mol$$
$$= 415\, kJ/mol$$

> The bond energy for a given bond is influenced by the rest of the molecule. However, this is a relatively small effect (suggesting that bonding electrons are localized between the bonding atoms). Thus, the bond energy for most bonds varies little from the average bonding energy for that type of bond

Bond energy is always a *positive* value - it takes energy to break a covalent bond (conversely energy is released during bond formation)

Table 10.10.4: Average bond energies:

Bond	(kJ/mol)
C-F	485
C-Cl	328
C-Br	276
C-I	240
C-C	348
C-N	293
C-O	358
C-F	485
C-C	348
C=C	614
C≡C	839

The more stable a molecule (i.e. the stronger the bonds) the less likely the molecule is to undergo a chemical reaction.



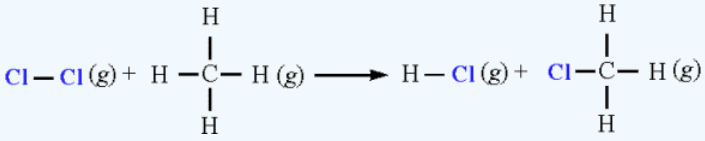
Bond Energies and the Enthalpy of Reactions

If we know which bonds are broken and which bonds are made during a chemical reaction, we can estimate the enthalpy change of the reaction (ΔH_{rxn}) even if we do not know the enthalpies of formation ((ΔH_f^o)for the reactants and products:

$$\Delta H = \sum \text{bond energies of broken bonds} - \sum \text{bond energies of formed bonds} \tag{10.10.3}$$

Example 10.10.2: Chlorination of Methane

What is the enthalpy of reaction between 1 mol of chlorine and 1 mol methane?



Solution

We use Equation 10.10.3, which requires tabulating bonds broken and formed.

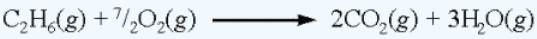
- **Bonds broken**: 1 mol of Cl-Cl bonds, 1 mol of C-H bonds
- **Bonds formed**: 1 mol of H-Cl bonds, 1 mol of C-Cl bonds

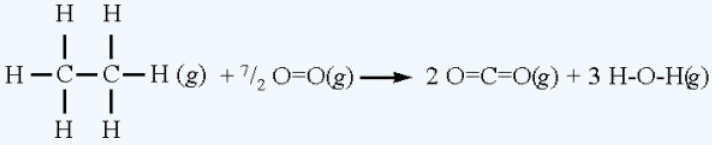
$$\begin{aligned}\Delta H &= [D(Cl-Cl)+D(C-H)]-[D(H-Cl)+D(C-Cl)] \\ &= [242kJ+413kJ]-[431kJ+328kJ] \\ &= -104\,kJ\end{aligned}$$

Thus, the reaction is **exothermic** (because the bonds in the products are stronger than the bonds in the reactants)

Example 10.10.3: Combustion of Ethane

What is the enthalpy of reaction for the combustion of 1 mol of ethane?





Solution

We use Equation 10.10.3, which requires tabulating bonds broken and formed.

- **bonds broken**: 6 moles C-H bonds, 1 mol C-C bonds, $^7/_2$ moles of O=O bonds

- **bonds formed**: 4 moles C=O bonds, 6 moles O-H bonds

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta H &= [(6\times 413)+(348)+(\frac{7}{2}\times 495)]-[(4\times 799)+(6\times 463)]\\ &= 4558-5974\\ &= -1416\ kJ\end{aligned}$$

Therefor the reaction is exothermic.

Table 10.10.5: Bond strength and bond length

Bond	Bond Energy (kJ/mol)	Bond Length (Å)
C-C	348	1.54
C=C	614	1.34
C≡C	839	1.

As the number of bonds between two atoms increases, the bond grows shorter and stronger

Summary

Bond order is the number of electron pairs that hold two atoms together. Single bonds have a bond order of one, and multiple bonds with bond orders of two (a double bond) and three (a triple bond) are quite common. In closely related compounds with bonds between the same kinds of atoms, the bond with the highest bond order is both the shortest and the strongest. In bonds with the same bond order between different atoms, trends are observed that, with few exceptions, result in the strongest single bonds being formed between the smallest atoms. Tabulated values of average bond energies can be used to calculate the enthalpy change of many chemical reactions. If the bonds in the products are stronger than those in the reactants, the reaction is exothermic and vice versa.

The breakage and formation of bonds is similar to a relationship: you can either get married or divorced and it is more favorable to be married.

- Energy is always **released** to make bonds, which is why the enthalpy change for breaking bonds is always **positive**.
- Energy is always **required** to break bonds. Atoms are much happier when they are "married" and release energy because it is easier and more stable to be in a relationship (e.g., to generate *octet electronic configurations*). The enthalpy change is always **negative** because the system is releasing energy when forming bond.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

11: Chemical Bonding II- Valence Bond Theory and Molecular Orbital Theory

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11.1: Artificial Sweeteners
11.2: VSEPR Theory - The Five Basic Shapes
11.3: VSPER Theory- The Effect of Lone Pairs
11.4: VSPER Theory - Predicting Molecular Geometries
11.5: Molecular Shape and Polarity
11.6: Valence Bond Theory- Orbital Overlap as a Chemical Bond
11.7: Valence Bond Theory- Hybridization of Atomic Orbitals
11.8: Molecular Orbital Theory- Electron Delocalization

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11.1: Artificial Sweeteners

Artificial Sweeteners

Several other kinds of organic compounds have been synthesized that are far superior as sweetening agents. These so-called high-intensity or artificial sweeteners (Figure 11.1.1) are useful for people with diabetes or other medical conditions that require them to control their carbohydrate intake. The synthetic compounds are noncaloric or used in such small quantities that they do not add significantly to the caloric value of food.

The first artificial sweetener—**saccharin**—was discovered by accident in 1879. It is 300 times sweeter than sucrose, but it passes through the body unchanged and thus adds no calories to the diet. After its discovery, saccharin was used until it was banned in the early 1900s. However, during the sugar-short years of World War I, the ban was lifted and was not reinstated at the war's end. One drawback to the use of saccharin is its bitter, metallic aftertaste. The initial solution to this problem was to combine saccharin with **cyclamate**, a second artificial sweetener discovered in 1937.

In the 1960s and 1970s, several clinical tests with laboratory animals implicated both cyclamate and saccharin as carcinogenic (cancer-causing) substances. The results from the cyclamate tests were completed first, and cyclamate was banned in the United States in 1969. Then a major study was released in Canada in 1977 indicating that saccharin increased the incidence of bladder cancer in rats. The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) proposed a ban on saccharin that raised immediate public opposition because saccharin was the only artificial sweetener still available. In response, Congress passed the Saccharin Study and Labeling Act in 1977, permitting the use of saccharin as long as any product containing it was labeled with a consumer warning regarding the possible elevation of the risk of bladder cancer. Today this warning is no longer required; moreover, the FDA is currently reviewing the ban on cyclamate, as 75 additional studies and years of usage in other countries, such as Canada, have failed to show that it has any carcinogenic effect.

A third artificial sweetener, **aspartame**, was discovered in 1965. This white crystalline compound is about 180 times sweeter than sucrose and has no aftertaste. It was approved for use in 1981 and is used to sweeten a wide variety of foods because it blends well with other food flavors. Aspartame is not used in baked goods, however, because it is not heat stable.

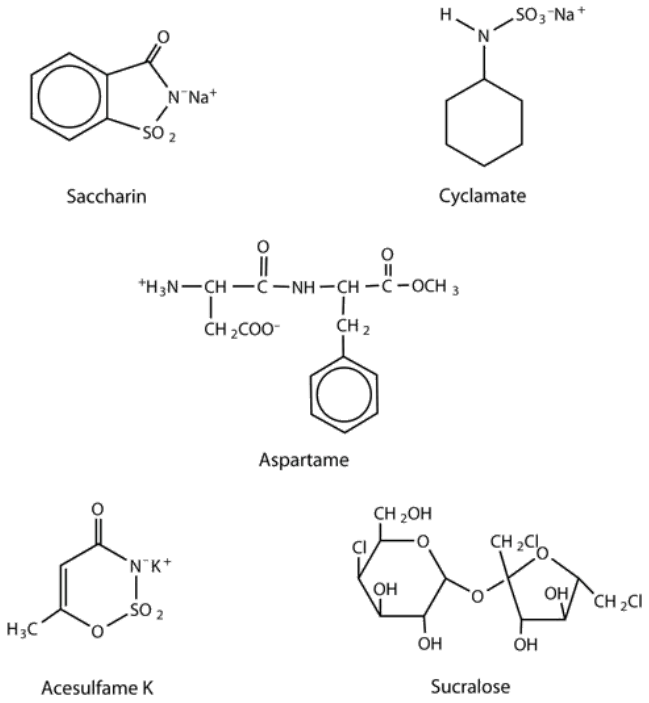


Figure 11.1.1 *Different Artificial Sweeteners.*

In the body (or when heated), aspartame is initially hydrolyzed to three molecules: the amino acids aspartic acid and phenylalanine, and alcohol methanol. Repeated controversy regarding the safety of aspartame arises partly from the fact that the body metabolizes the released methanol to formaldehyde. It should be noted, though, that a glass of tomato juice has six times as much methanol as a similar amount of a diet soda containing aspartame. The only documented risk connected to aspartame use is for individuals with the genetic disease *phenylketonuria* (PKU); these individuals lack the enzyme needed to metabolize the phenylalanine released when aspartame is broken down by the body. Because of the danger to people with PKU, all products containing aspartame must carry a warning label.

Acesulfame K, discovered just two years after aspartame (1967), was approved for use in the United States in 1988. It is 200 times sweeter than sugar and, unlike aspartame, is heat stable. It has no lingering aftertaste.

One of the newest artificial sweeteners to gain FDA approval (April 1998) for use in the United States is sucralose, a white crystalline solid approximately 600 times sweeter than sucrose. **Sucralose** is synthesized from sucrose and has three chlorine atoms substituted for three OH groups. It is noncaloric because it passes through the body unchanged. It can be used in baking because it is heat stable.

All of the extensive clinical studies completed to date have indicated that these artificial sweeteners approved for use in the United States are safe for consumption by healthy individuals in moderate amounts.

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11.2: VSEPR Theory - The Five Basic Shapes

Learning Objectives

- To use the VSEPR model to predict molecular geometries.
- To predict whether a molecule has a dipole moment.

The Lewis electron-pair approach can be used to predict the number and types of bonds between the atoms in a substance, and it indicates which atoms have lone pairs of electrons. This approach gives no information about the actual arrangement of atoms in space, however. We continue our discussion of structure and bonding by introducing the **valence-shell electron-pair repulsion** (VSEPR) model (pronounced “vesper”), which can be used to predict the shapes of many molecules and polyatomic ions. Keep in mind, however, that the VSEPR model, like any model, is a limited representation of reality; the model provides no information about bond lengths or the presence of multiple bonds.

The VSEPR Model

The VSEPR model can predict the structure of nearly any molecule or polyatomic ion in which the central atom is a nonmetal, as well as the structures of many molecules and polyatomic ions with a central metal atom. The premise of the VSEPR theory is that electron pairs located in bonds and lone pairs repel each other and will therefore adopt the geometry that places electron pairs as far apart from each other as possible. This theory is very simplistic and does not account for the subtleties of orbital interactions that influence molecular shapes; however, the simple VSEPR counting procedure accurately predicts the three-dimensional structures of a large number of compounds, which cannot be predicted using the Lewis electron-pair approach.

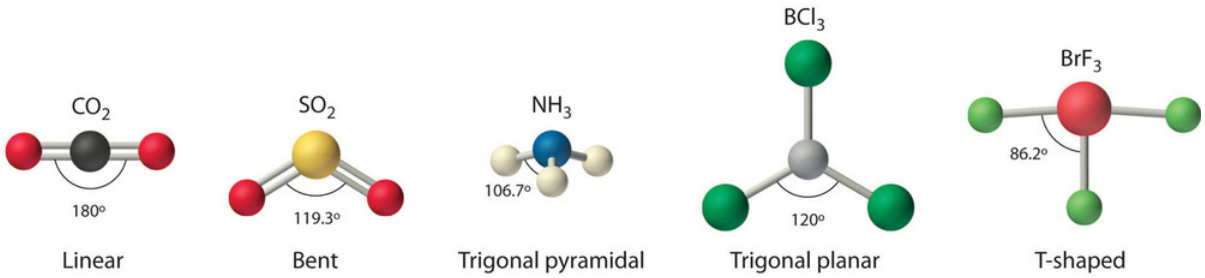


Figure 11.2.1: Common Structures for Molecules and Polyatomic Ions That Consist of a Central Atom Bonded to Two or Three Other Atoms. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

We can use the VSEPR model to predict the geometry of most polyatomic molecules and ions by focusing only on the number of electron pairs around the *central atom*, ignoring all other valence electrons present. According to this model, valence electrons in the Lewis structure form *groups*, which may consist of a single bond, a double bond, a triple bond, a lone pair of electrons, or even a single unpaired electron, which in the VSEPR model is counted as a lone pair. Because electrons repel each other electrostatically, the most stable arrangement of electron groups (i.e., the one with the lowest energy) is the one that minimizes repulsions. Groups are positioned around the central atom in a way that produces the molecular structure with the lowest energy, as illustrated in Figures 11.2.1and 11.2.2

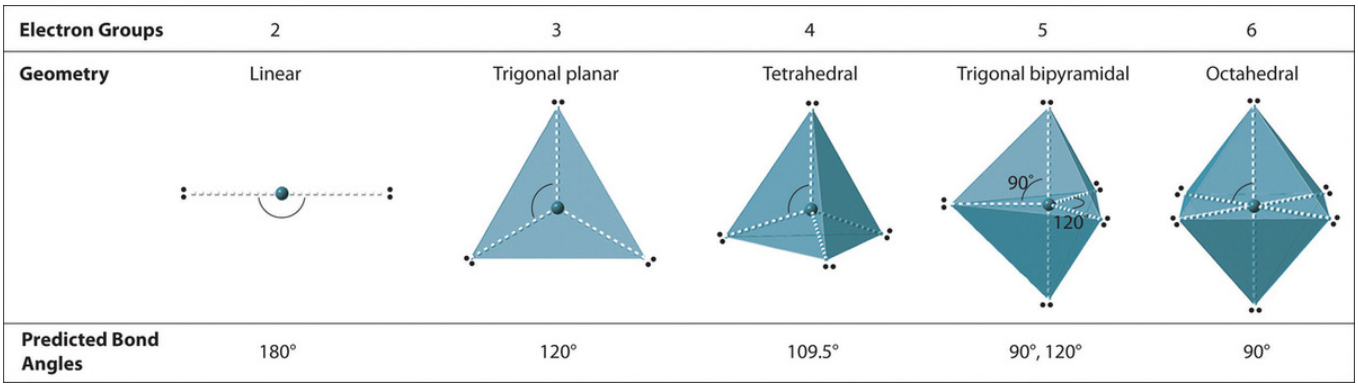


Figure 11.2.2: Electron Geometries for Species with Two to Six Electron Groups. Groups are placed around the central atom in a way that produces a molecular structure with the lowest energy, that is, the one that minimizes repulsions. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

In the VSEPR model, the molecule or polyatomic ion is given an AX_mE_n designation, where A is the central atom, X is a bonded atom, E is a nonbonding valence electron group (usually a lone pair of electrons), and *m* and *n* are integers. Each group around the central atom is designated as a bonding pair (BP) or lone (nonbonding) pair (LP). From the BP and LP interactions we can predict both the relative positions of the atoms and the angles between the bonds, called the bond angles. Using this information, we can describe the molecular geometry, the arrangement of the *bonded atoms* in a molecule or polyatomic ion.

VESPR Produce to predict Molecular geometry

This VESPR procedure is summarized as follows:

1. Draw the Lewis electron structure of the molecule or polyatomic ion.
2. Determine the electron group arrangement around the central atom that minimizes repulsions.
3. Assign an AX_mE_n designation; then identify the LP–LP, LP–BP, or BP–BP interactions and predict deviations from ideal bond angles.
4. Describe the molecular geometry.

We will illustrate the use of this procedure with several examples, beginning with atoms with two electron groups. In our discussion we will refer to Figure 11.2.2 and Figure 11.2.3, which summarize the common molecular geometries and idealized bond angles of molecules and ions with two to six electron groups.

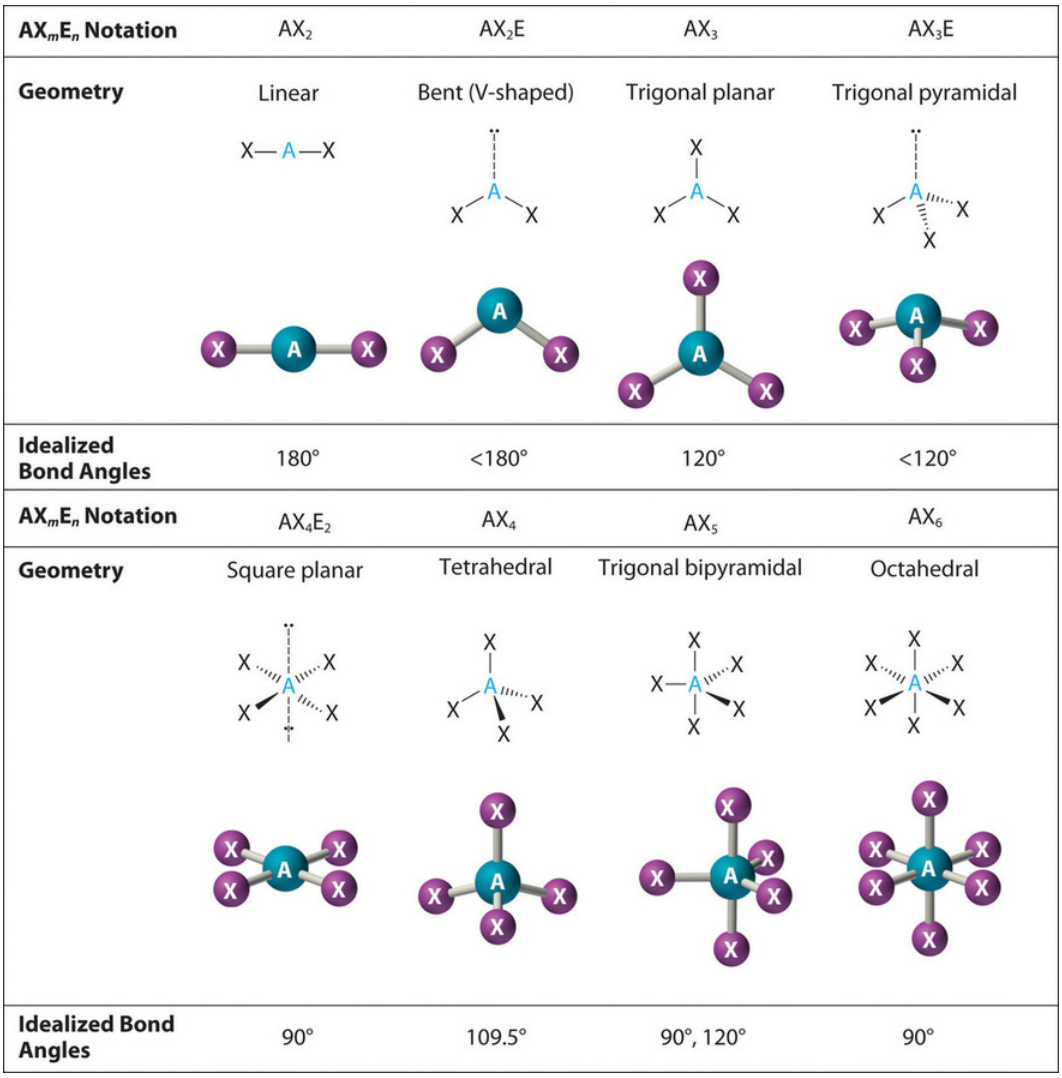


Figure 11.2.3: Common Molecular Geometries for Species with Two to Six Electron Groups. Lone pairs are shown using a dashed line. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

Linear, bent, trigonal planar, trigonal pyramidal, square planar, tetrahedral, trigonal bipyramidal, octahedral.

Two Electron Groups

Our first example is a molecule with two bonded atoms and no lone pairs of electrons, BeH_2.

AX_2 Molecules: BeH_2

1. The central atom, beryllium, contributes two valence electrons, and each hydrogen atom contributes one. The Lewis electron structure is

H:Be:H or H—Be—H

Lewis structure

Figure 11.2.2 that the arrangement that minimizes repulsions places the groups 180° apart. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. Both groups around the central atom are bonding pairs (BP). Thus BeH_2 is designated as AX_2.

4. From Figure 11.2.3 we see that with two bonding pairs, the molecular geometry that minimizes repulsions in BeH_2 is *linear*.

AX_2 Molecules: CO_2

1. The central atom, carbon, contributes four valence electrons, and each oxygen atom contributes six. The Lewis electron structure is



2. The carbon atom forms two double bonds. Each double bond is a group, so there are two electron groups around the central atom. Like BeH_2, the arrangement that minimizes repulsions places the groups 180° apart.

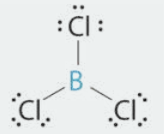
3. Once again, both groups around the central atom are bonding pairs (BP), so CO_2 is designated as AX_2.

4. VSEPR only recognizes groups around the *central* atom. Thus the lone pairs on the oxygen atoms do not influence the molecular geometry. With two bonding pairs on the central atom and no lone pairs, the molecular geometry of CO_2 is linear (Figure 11.2.3). The structure of CO_2 is shown in Figure 11.2.1.

Three Electron Groups

AX_3 Molecules: BCl_3

1. The central atom, boron, contributes three valence electrons, and each chlorine atom contributes seven valence electrons. The Lewis electron structure is



Lewis structure

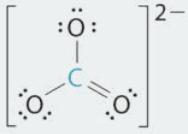
Figure 11.2.2): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs (BP), so the structure is designated as AX_3.

4. From Figure 11.2.3 we see that with three bonding pairs around the central atom, the molecular geometry of BCl_3 is *trigonal planar*, as shown in Figure 11.2.2

AX_3 Molecules: CO_3^{2-}

1. The central atom, carbon, has four valence electrons, and each oxygen atom has six valence electrons. As you learned previously, the Lewis electron structure of one of three resonance forms is represented as



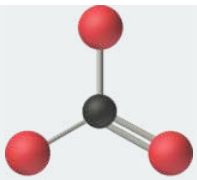
Lewis structure

Figure 11.2.2).

The three oxygens are arranged in a triangular shape with carbon at the center. Two of the oxygens have three lone pairs. One ocht oxygens has 2 lone pairs and is double bonded to the carbon. The molecule has a minus 2 charge.

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs (BP). With three bonding groups around the central atom, the structure is designated as AX_3.

4. We see from Figure 11.2.3 that the molecular geometry of CO_3^{2-} is trigonal planar with bond angles of 120°.



Molecular geometry
(trigonal planar)

In our next example we encounter the effects of lone pairs and multiple bonds on molecular geometry for the first time.

AX_2E Molecules: SO_2

1. The central atom, sulfur, has 6 valence electrons, as does each oxygen atom. With 18 valence electrons, the Lewis electron structure is shown below.

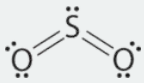


Figure 11.2.2): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

The two oxygens are double bonded to the sulfur. The oxygens have 2 lone pairs while sulfur had one lone pair.

3. There are two bonding pairs and one lone pair, so the structure is designated as AX_2E. This designation has a total of three electron pairs, two X and one E. Because a lone pair is not shared by two nuclei, it occupies more space near the central atom than a bonding pair (Figure 11.2.4). Thus bonding pairs and lone pairs repel each other electrostatically in the order BP–BP < LP–BP < LP–LP. In SO_2, we have one BP–BP interaction and two LP–BP interactions.

4. The molecular geometry is described only by the positions of the nuclei, *not* by the positions of the lone pairs. Thus with two nuclei and one lone pair the shape is *bent*, or *V shaped*, which can be viewed as a trigonal planar arrangement with a missing vertex (Figures 11.2.2 and 11.2.3). The O-S-O bond angle is expected to be *less than* 120° because of the extra space taken up by the lone pair.

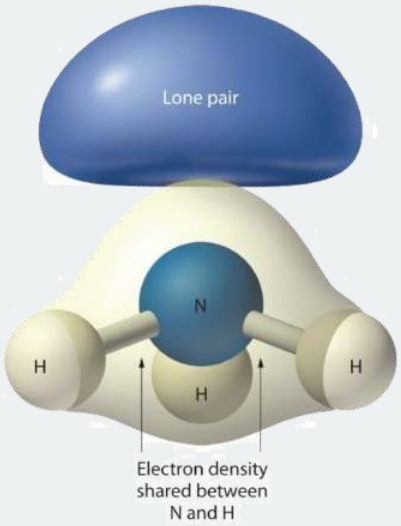
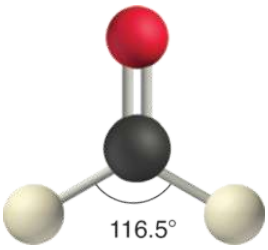


Figure 11.2.4: The Difference in the Space Occupied by a Lone Pair of Electrons and by a Bonding Pair. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

As with SO_2, this composite model of electron distribution and negative electrostatic potential in ammonia shows that a lone pair of electrons occupies a larger region of space around the nitrogen atom than does a bonding pair of electrons that is shared with a hydrogen atom.

Like lone pairs of electrons, multiple bonds occupy more space around the central atom than a single bond, which can cause other bond angles to be somewhat smaller than expected. This is because a multiple bond has a higher electron density than a single bond, so its electrons occupy more space than those of a single bond. For example, in a molecule such as CH_2O (AX_3), whose

structure is shown below, the double bond repels the single bonds more strongly than the single bonds repel each other. This causes a deviation from ideal geometry (an H–C–H bond angle of 116.5° rather than 120°).

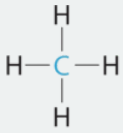


Four Electron Groups

One of the limitations of Lewis structures is that they depict molecules and ions in only two dimensions. With four electron groups, we must learn to show molecules and ions in three dimensions.

AX_4 Molecules: CH_4

1. The central atom, carbon, contributes four valence electrons, and each hydrogen atom has one valence electron, so the full Lewis electron structure is

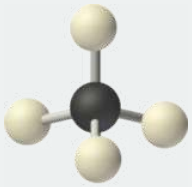


Lewis structure

2. There are four electron groups around the central atom. As shown in Figure 11.2.2, repulsions are minimized by placing the groups in the corners of a tetrahedron with bond angles of 109.5°.

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs, so the structure is designated as AX_4.

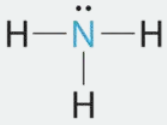
4. With four bonding pairs, the molecular geometry of methane is *tetrahedral* (Figure 11.2.3).



Molecular geometry
(tetrahedral)

AX_3E Molecules: NH_3

1. In ammonia, the central atom, nitrogen, has five valence electrons and each hydrogen donates one valence electron, producing the Lewis electron structure



Lewis structure

2. There are four electron groups around nitrogen, three bonding pairs and one lone pair. Repulsions are minimized by directing each hydrogen atom and the lone pair to the corners of a tetrahedron.

3. With three bonding pairs and one lone pair, the structure is designated as AX_3E. This designation has a total of four electron pairs, three X and one E. We expect the LP–BP interactions to cause the bonding pair angles to deviate significantly from the

angles of a perfect tetrahedron.

4. There are three nuclei and one lone pair, so the molecular geometry is *trigonal pyramidal*. In essence, this is a tetrahedron with a vertex missing (Figure 11.2.3). However, the H–N–H bond angles are less than the ideal angle of 109.5° because of LP–BP repulsions (Figure 11.2.3 and Figure 11.2.4).

AX_2E_2 Molecules: H_2O

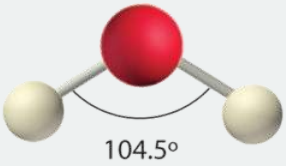
1. Oxygen has six valence electrons and each hydrogen has one valence electron, producing the Lewis electron structure



Figure 11.2.2: (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. With two bonding pairs and two lone pairs, the structure is designated as AX_2E_2 with a total of four electron pairs. Due to LP–LP, LP–BP, and BP–BP interactions, we expect a significant deviation from idealized tetrahedral angles.

4. With two hydrogen atoms and two lone pairs of electrons, the structure has significant lone pair interactions. There are two nuclei about the central atom, so the molecular shape is *bent*, or *V shaped*, with an H–O–H angle that is even less than the H–N–H angles in NH_3, as we would expect because of the presence of two lone pairs of electrons on the central atom rather than one. This molecular shape is essentially a tetrahedron with two missing vertices.



Five Electron Groups

In previous examples it did not matter where we placed the electron groups because all positions were equivalent. In some cases, however, the positions are not equivalent. We encounter this situation for the first time with five electron groups.

AX_5 Molecules: PCl_5

1. Phosphorus has five valence electrons and each chlorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure of PCl_5 is

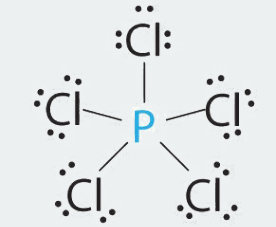
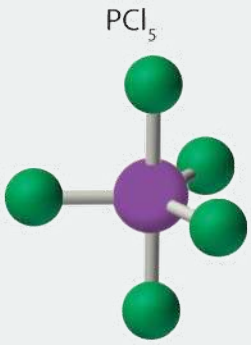


Figure 11.2.2): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs, so the structure is designated as AX_5. There are no lone pair interactions.

4. The molecular geometry of PCl_5 is *trigonal bipyramidal*, as shown in Figure 11.2.3. The molecule has three atoms in a plane in *equatorial* positions and two atoms above and below the plane in *axial* positions. The three equatorial positions are separated by 120° from one another, and the two axial positions are at 90° to the equatorial plane. The axial and equatorial positions are not chemically equivalent, as we will see in our next example.



AX_4E Molecules: SF_4

1. The sulfur atom has six valence electrons and each fluorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



Lewis structure

Four fluorenes are bonded to a central sulfur. Each fluorine has three lone pairs. Sulfur has one lone pair.

With an expanded valence, this species is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are five groups around sulfur, four bonding pairs and one lone pair. With five electron groups, the lowest energy arrangement is a trigonal bipyramid, as shown in Figure 11.2.2

3. We designate SF_4 as AX_4E; it has a total of five electron pairs. However, because the axial and equatorial positions are not chemically equivalent, where do we place the lone pair? If we place the lone pair in the axial position, we have three LP–BP repulsions at 90°. If we place it in the equatorial position, we have two 90° LP–BP repulsions at 90°. With fewer 90° LP–BP repulsions, we can predict that the structure with the lone pair of electrons in the *equatorial position is more stable than the one with the lone pair in the axial position*. We also expect a deviation from ideal geometry because a lone pair of electrons occupies more space than a bonding pair.

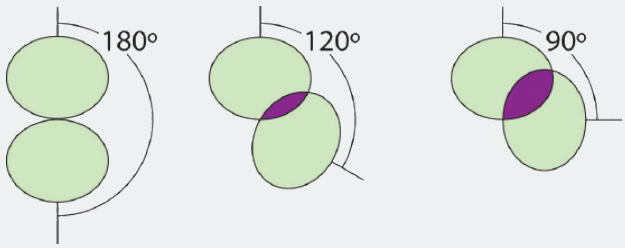
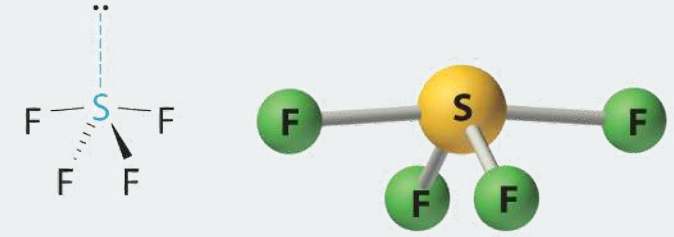


Figure 11.2.5: Illustration of the Area Shared by Two Electron Pairs versus the Angle between Them

180 degree angle has no shared space between teo electron pair, 120 degree angle has some shared area between two electron pairs. 90 degree angle has more shared space than 120.

At 90°, the two electron pairs share a relatively large region of space, which leads to strong repulsive electron–electron interactions.

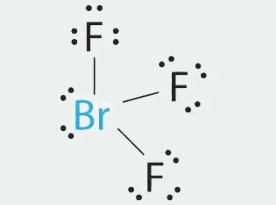
4. With four nuclei and one lone pair of electrons, the molecular structure is based on a trigonal bipyramid with a missing equatorial vertex; it is described as a *seesaw*. The F_{axial}–S–F_{axial} angle is 173° rather than 180° because of the lone pair of electrons in the equatorial plane.



Molecular geometry (seesaw)

AX_3E_2 Molecules: BrF_3

1. The bromine atom has seven valence electrons, and each fluorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



Lewis structure

Three fluorines are bonded to a central bromine. Each fluorine has three lone pairs, Bromine has two lone pairs.

Once again, we have a compound that is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are five groups around the central atom, three bonding pairs and two lone pairs. We again direct the groups toward the vertices of a trigonal bipyramid.

3. With three bonding pairs and two lone pairs, the structural designation is AX_3E_2 with a total of five electron pairs. Because the axial and equatorial positions are not equivalent, we must decide how to arrange the groups to minimize repulsions. If we place both lone pairs in the axial positions, we have six LP–BP repulsions at 90°. If both are in the equatorial positions, we have four LP–BP repulsions at 90°. If one lone pair is axial and the other equatorial, we have one LP–LP repulsion at 90° and three LP–BP repulsions at 90°:



	Lone pairs axial (a)	Lone pairs equatorial (b)	Lone pairs axial and equatorial (c)
Interactions			
90° LP–LP	0	0	1
90° LP–BP	6	4	3

If the lone pairs are axiam, the 90 degree LP-LP interactions are o and the 90 degree LP-BP interaction is zero. If the Lone pares are equatorial there are zero 90 degree LP-LP interactions and four 90 degree LP-BP intereactions. If the lone pairs are axial and equatorial there is one 90 degree LP-LP interaction and three 90 degree LP-BP interaction.

Structure (c) can be eliminated because it has a LP–LP interaction at 90°. Structure (b), with fewer LP–BP repulsions at 90° than (a), is lower in energy. However, we predict a deviation in bond angles because of the presence of the two lone pairs of electrons.

4. The three nuclei in BrF_3 determine its molecular structure, which is described as *T shaped*. This is essentially a trigonal bipyramid that is missing two equatorial vertices. The F_{axial}–Br–F_{axial} angle is 172°, less than 180° because of LP–BP repulsions (Figure 11.2.21).

Because lone pairs occupy more space around the central atom than bonding pairs, electrostatic repulsions are more important for lone pairs than for bonding pairs.

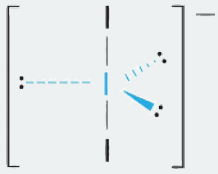
AX_2E_3 Molecules: I_3^-

1. Each iodine atom contributes seven electrons and the negative charge one, so the Lewis electron structure is



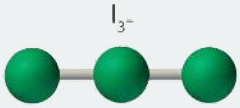
2. There are five electron groups about the central atom in I_3^-, two bonding pairs and three lone pairs. To minimize repulsions, the groups are directed to the corners of a trigonal bipyramid.

3. With two bonding pairs and three lone pairs, I_3^- has a total of five electron pairs and is designated as AX_2E_3. We must now decide how to arrange the lone pairs of electrons in a trigonal bipyramid in a way that minimizes repulsions. Placing them in the axial positions eliminates 90° LP–LP repulsions and minimizes the number of 90° LP–BP repulsions.



The three lone pairs of electrons have equivalent interactions with the three iodine atoms, so we do not expect any deviations in bonding angles.

4. With three nuclei and three lone pairs of electrons, the molecular geometry of I_3^- is linear. This can be described as a trigonal bipyramid with three equatorial vertices missing. The ion has an I–I–I angle of 180°, as expected.



Six Electron Groups

Six electron groups form an *octahedron*, a polyhedron made of identical equilateral triangles and six identical vertices (Figure 11.2.2)

AX_6 Molecules: SF_6

1. The central atom, sulfur, contributes six valence electrons, and each fluorine atom has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



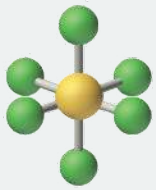
Lewis structure

With an expanded valence, this species is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are six electron groups around the central atom, each a bonding pair. We see from Figure 11.2.2 that the geometry that minimizes repulsions is *octahedral*.

3. With only bonding pairs, SF_6 is designated as AX_6. All positions are chemically equivalent, so all electronic interactions are equivalent.

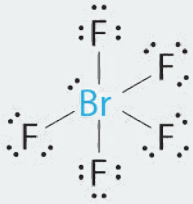
4. There are six nuclei, so the molecular geometry of SF_6 is octahedral.



Molecular geometry
(octahedral)

AX_5E Molecules: BrF_5

1. The central atom, bromine, has seven valence electrons, as does each fluorine, so the Lewis electron structure is

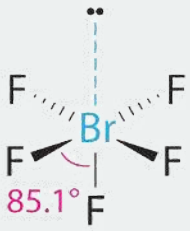


Lewis structure

Five fluorines are bonded to a central bromine. Each fluorine has three lone pairs, Bromine has one lone pair.

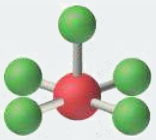
With its expanded valence, this species is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are six electron groups around the Br, five bonding pairs and one lone pair. Placing five F atoms around Br while minimizing BP–BP and LP–BP repulsions gives the following structure:



3. With five bonding pairs and one lone pair, BrF_5 is designated as AX_5E; it has a total of six electron pairs. The BrF_5 structure has four fluorine atoms in a plane in an equatorial position and one fluorine atom and the lone pair of electrons in the axial positions. We expect all F_{axial}–Br–$F_{equatorial}$ angles to be less than 90° because of the lone pair of electrons, which occupies more space than the bonding electron pairs.

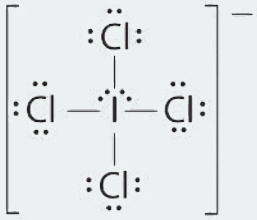
4. With five nuclei surrounding the central atom, the molecular structure is based on an octahedron with a vertex missing. This molecular structure is *square pyramidal*. The F_{axial}–B–$F_{equatorial}$ angles are 85.1°, less than 90° because of LP–BP repulsions.



Molecular geometry
(square pyramidal)

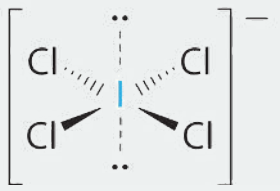
AX_4E_2 Molecules: ICl_4^-

1. The central atom, iodine, contributes seven electrons. Each chlorine contributes seven, and there is a single negative charge. The Lewis electron structure is



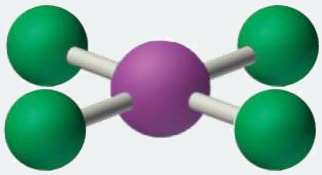
Four chlorines are bonded to a central iodine. Each chlorine has three electron pairs. The iodine has two electron pairs. The molecule is negatively charged.

2. There are six electron groups around the central atom, four bonding pairs and two lone pairs. The structure that minimizes LP–LP, LP–BP, and BP–BP repulsions is



3. ICl_4^- is designated as AX_4E_2 and has a total of six electron pairs. Although there are lone pairs of electrons, with four bonding electron pairs in the equatorial plane and the lone pairs of electrons in the axial positions, all LP–BP repulsions are the same. Therefore, we do not expect any deviation in the Cl–I–Cl bond angles.

4. With five nuclei, the ICl4− ion forms a molecular structure that is *square planar*, an octahedron with two opposite vertices missing.



The relationship between the number of electron groups around a central atom, the number of lone pairs of electrons, and the molecular geometry is summarized in Figure 11.2.6

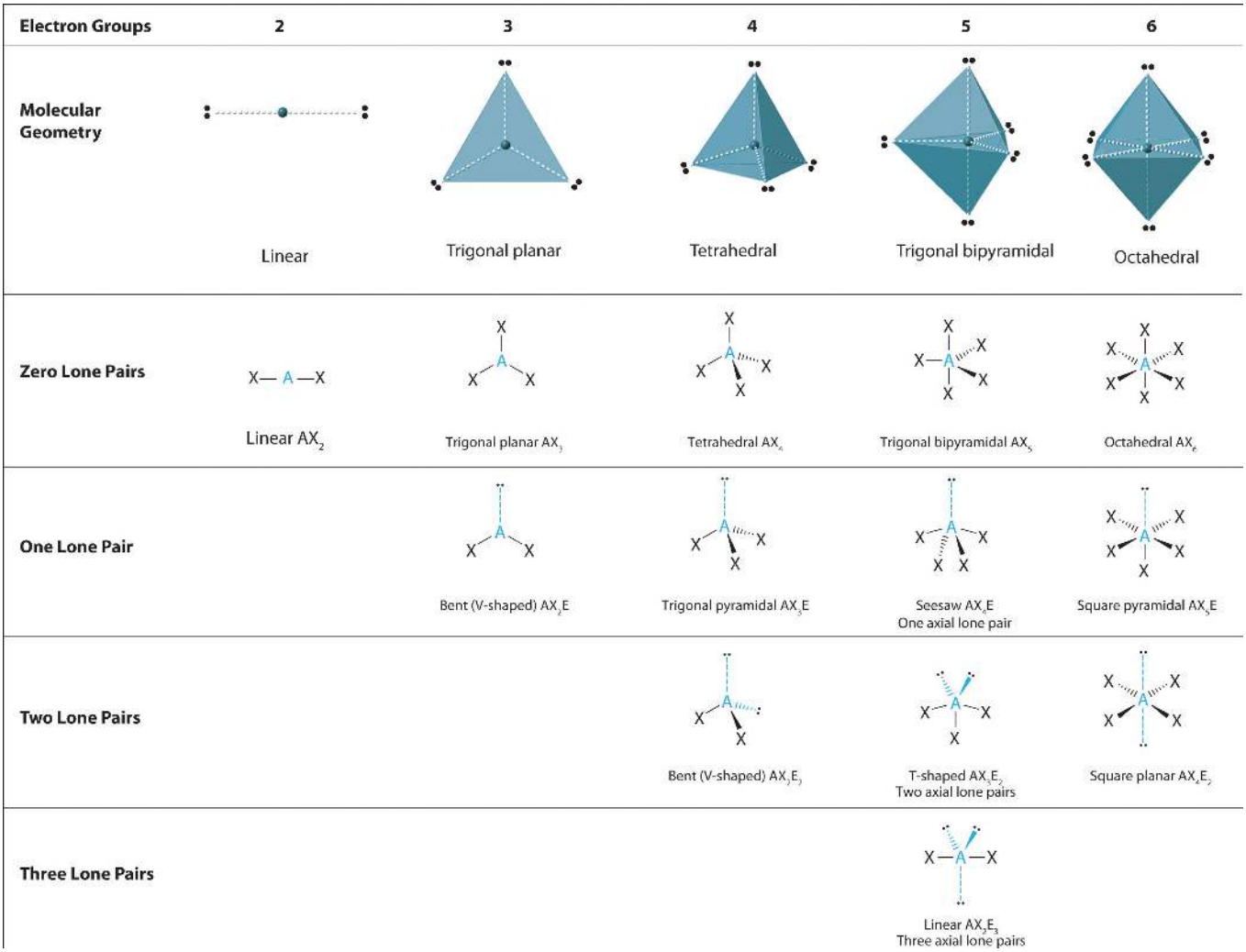


Figure* 11.2.6*: *Overview of Molecular Geometries*



Example 11.2.1

Using the VSEPR model, predict the molecular geometry of each molecule or ion.

1. PF_5 (phosphorus pentafluoride, a catalyst used in certain organic reactions)
2. H_3O^+ (hydronium ion)

Given: two chemical species

Asked for: molecular geometry

Strategy:

A. Draw the Lewis electron structure of the molecule or polyatomic ion.
B. Determine the electron group arrangement around the central atom that minimizes repulsions.
C. Assign an AX_mE_n designation; then identify the LP–LP, LP–BP, or BP–BP interactions and predict deviations in bond angles.
D. Describe the molecular geometry.

Solution:

1. **A** The central atom, P, has five valence electrons and each fluorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis structure of PF_5 is

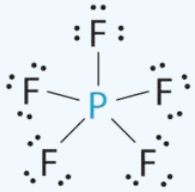
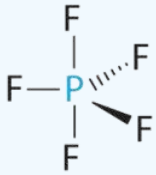


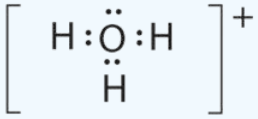
Figure 11.2.6): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

C All electron groups are bonding pairs, so PF_5 is designated as AX_5. Notice that this gives a total of five electron pairs. With no lone pair repulsions, we do not expect any bond angles to deviate from the ideal.

D The PF_5 molecule has five nuclei and no lone pairs of electrons, so its molecular geometry is trigonal bipyramidal.



2. **A** The central atom, O, has six valence electrons, and each H atom contributes one valence electron. Subtracting one electron for the positive charge gives a total of eight valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is

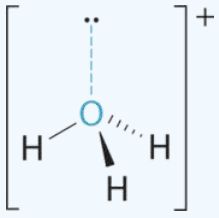


Three hydrogens are bonded to a central oxygen. The oxygen has two lone pairs. The molecule has a charge of plus one.

B There are four electron groups around oxygen, three bonding pairs and one lone pair. Like NH_3, repulsions are minimized by directing each hydrogen atom and the lone pair to the corners of a tetrahedron.

C With three bonding pairs and one lone pair, the structure is designated as AX_3E and has a total of four electron pairs (three X and one E). We expect the LP–BP interactions to cause the bonding pair angles to deviate significantly from the angles of a perfect tetrahedron.

D There are three nuclei and one lone pair, so the molecular geometry is *trigonal pyramidal*, in essence a tetrahedron missing a vertex. However, the H–O–H bond angles are less than the ideal angle of 109.5° because of LP–BP repulsions:



Exercise 11.2.1

Using the VSEPR model, predict the molecular geometry of each molecule or ion.

a. XeO_3
b. PF_6^-
c. NO_2^+

Answer a

trigonal pyramidal

Answer b

octahedral

Answer c

linear

Example 11.2.2

Predict the molecular geometry of each molecule.

1. XeF_2
2. $SnCl_2$

Given: two chemical compounds

Asked for: molecular geometry

Strategy:

Use the strategy given in Example11.2.1.

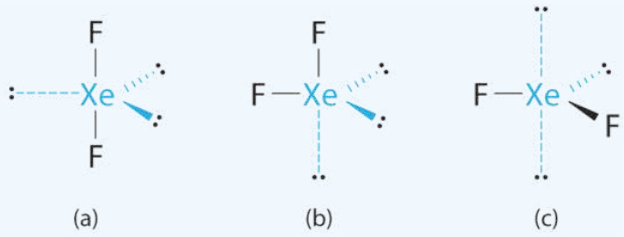
Solution:

1. **A** Xenon contributes eight electrons and each fluorine seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



B There are five electron groups around the central atom, two bonding pairs and three lone pairs. Repulsions are minimized by placing the groups in the corners of a trigonal bipyramid.

C From B, XeF_2 is designated as AX_2E_3 and has a total of five electron pairs (two X and three E). With three lone pairs about the central atom, we can arrange the two F atoms in three possible ways: both F atoms can be axial, one can be axial and one equatorial, or both can be equatorial:



Interactions			
90 LP–LP	0	2	2

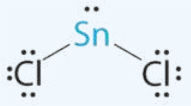
If the two F atoms are axial ther are zero 90 LP-LP interactions. If the two F atoms are axial and equatorial or just equatorial, there are 2 90 LP-LP interactions.

The structure with the lowest energy is the one that minimizes LP–LP repulsions. Both (b) and (c) have two 90° LP–LP interactions, whereas structure (a) has none. Thus both F atoms are in the axial positions, like the two iodine atoms around

the central iodine in I_3^-. All LP–BP interactions are equivalent, so we do not expect a deviation from an ideal 180° in the F–Xe–F bond angle.

D With two nuclei about the central atom, the molecular geometry of XeF_2 is linear. It is a trigonal bipyramid with three missing equatorial vertices.

2. **A** The tin atom donates 4 valence electrons and each chlorine atom donates 7 valence electrons. With 18 valence electrons, the Lewis electron structure is



Two chlorines are bonded to a central tin. Each chlorine has three lone pairs. Tin has one lone pair.

B There are three electron groups around the central atom, two bonding groups and one lone pair of electrons. To minimize repulsions the three groups are initially placed at 120° angles from each other.

C From B we designate $SnCl_2$ as AX_2E. It has a total of three electron pairs, two X and one E. Because the lone pair of electrons occupies more space than the bonding pairs, we expect a decrease in the Cl–Sn–Cl bond angle due to increased LP–BP repulsions.

D With two nuclei around the central atom and one lone pair of electrons, the molecular geometry of $SnCl_2$ is bent, like SO_2, but with a Cl–Sn–Cl bond angle of 95°. The molecular geometry can be described as a trigonal planar arrangement with one vertex missing.

? Exercise 11.2.2

Predict the molecular geometry of each molecule.

a. SO_3
b. XeF_4

Answer a

trigonal planar

Answer b

square planar

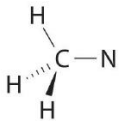


Molecules with No Single Central Atom

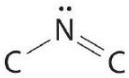
The VSEPR model can be used to predict the structure of somewhat more complex molecules with no single central atom by treating them as linked AX_mE_n fragments. We will demonstrate with methyl isocyanate (CH_3–N=C=O), a volatile and highly toxic molecule that is used to produce the pesticide Sevin. In 1984, large quantities of Sevin were accidentally released in Bhopal, India,

when water leaked into storage tanks. The resulting highly exothermic reaction caused a rapid increase in pressure that ruptured the tanks, releasing large amounts of methyl isocyanate that killed approximately 3800 people and wholly or partially disabled about 50,000 others. In addition, there was significant damage to livestock and crops.

We can treat methyl isocyanate as linked AX_mE_n fragments beginning with the carbon atom at the left, which is connected to three H atoms and one N atom by single bonds. The four bonds around carbon mean that it must be surrounded by four bonding electron pairs in a configuration similar to AX_4. We can therefore predict the CH_3–N portion of the molecule to be roughly tetrahedral, similar to methane:



The nitrogen atom is connected to one carbon by a single bond and to the other carbon by a double bond, producing a total of three bonds, C–N=C. For nitrogen to have an octet of electrons, it must also have a lone pair:



One carbon bonded to nitrogen and another carbon double bonded to the nitrogen. The nitrogen has one lone pair.

Because multiple bonds are not shown in the VSEPR model, the nitrogen is effectively surrounded by three electron pairs. Thus according to the VSEPR model, the C–N=C fragment should be bent with an angle less than 120°.

The carbon in the –N=C=O fragment is doubly bonded to both nitrogen and oxygen, which in the VSEPR model gives carbon a total of two electron pairs. The N=C=O angle should therefore be 180°, or linear. The three fragments combine to give the following structure:

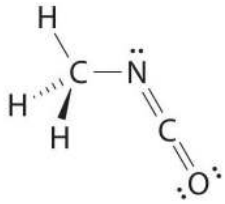


Figure 11.2.7).

Three hydrogens are bonded to a carbon. The carbon is also bonded to a nitrogen. The nitrogen is double bonded to another carbon. The second carbon is double bonded to an oxygen. The nitrogen has one lone pair. The oxygen has two lone pairs.

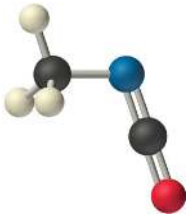


Figure 11.2.7: The Experimentally Determined Structure of Methyl Isocyanate

Certain patterns are seen in the structures of moderately complex molecules. For example, carbon atoms with four bonds (such as the carbon on the left in methyl isocyanate) are generally tetrahedral. Similarly, the carbon atom on the right has two double bonds that are similar to those in CO_2, so its geometry, like that of CO_2, is linear. Recognizing similarities to simpler molecules will help you predict the molecular geometries of more complex molecules.

Example 11.2.3

Use the VSEPR model to predict the molecular geometry of propyne ($H_3C–C≡CH$), a gas with some anesthetic properties.

Given: chemical compound

Asked for: molecular geometry

Strategy:

Count the number of electron groups around each carbon, recognizing that in the VSEPR model, a multiple bond counts as a single group. Use Figure 11.2.3 to determine the molecular geometry around each carbon atom and then deduce the structure of the molecule as a whole.

Solution:

Because the carbon atom on the left is bonded to four other atoms, we know that it is approximately tetrahedral. The next two carbon atoms share a triple bond, and each has an additional single bond. Because a multiple bond is counted as a single bond in the VSEPR model, each carbon atom behaves as if it had two electron groups. This means that both of these carbons are linear, with C–C≡C and C≡C–H angles of 180°.

? Exercise 11.2.3

Predict the geometry of allene ($H_2C{=}C{=}CH_2$), a compound with narcotic properties that is used to make more complex organic molecules.

Answer

The terminal carbon atoms are trigonal planar, the central carbon is linear, and the C–C–C angle is 180°.

Molecular Dipole Moments

You previously learned how to calculate the **dipole moments** of simple diatomic molecules. In more complex molecules with polar covalent bonds, the three-dimensional geometry and the compound's symmetry determine whether there is a net dipole moment. Mathematically, dipole moments are *vectors*; they possess both a *magnitude* and a *direction*. The dipole moment of a molecule is therefore the *vector sum* of the dipole moments of the individual bonds in the molecule. If the individual bond dipole moments cancel one another, there is no net dipole moment. Such is the case for CO_2, a linear molecule (Figure 11.2.8*a*). Each C–O bond in CO_2 is polar, yet experiments show that the CO_2 molecule has no dipole moment. Because the two C–O bond dipoles in CO_2 are equal in magnitude and oriented at 180° to each other, they cancel. As a result, the CO_2 molecule has no *net* dipole moment even though it has a substantial separation of charge. In contrast, the H_2O molecule is not linear (Figure 11.2.8*b*); it is bent in three-dimensional space, so the dipole moments do not cancel each other. Thus a molecule such as H_2O has a net dipole moment. We expect the concentration of negative charge to be on the oxygen, the more electronegative atom, and positive charge on the two hydrogens. This charge polarization allows H_2O to hydrogen-bond to other polarized or charged species, including other water molecules.

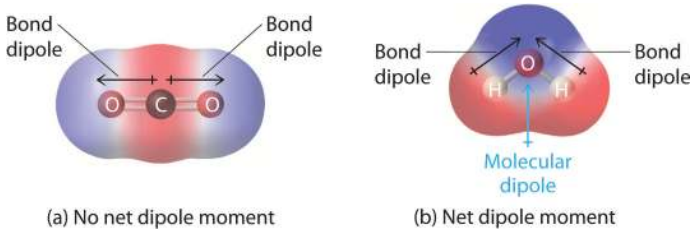


Figure 11.2.8: How Individual Bond Dipole Moments Are Added Together to Give an Overall Molecular Dipole Moment for Two Triatomic Molecules with Different Structures. (a) In CO_2, the C–O bond dipoles are equal in magnitude but oriented in opposite directions (at 180°). Their vector sum is zero, so CO_2 therefore has no net dipole. (b) In H_2O, the O–H bond dipoles are also equal in magnitude, but they are oriented at 104.5° to each other. Hence the vector sum is not zero, and H_2O has a net dipole moment.

Other examples of molecules with polar bonds are shown in Figure 11.2.9. In molecular geometries that are highly symmetrical (most notably tetrahedral and square planar, trigonal bipyramidal, and octahedral), individual bond dipole moments completely cancel, and there is no net dipole moment. Although a molecule like $CHCl_3$ is best described as tetrahedral, the atoms bonded to carbon are not identical. Consequently, the bond dipole moments cannot cancel one another, and the molecule has a dipole moment. Due to the arrangement of the bonds in molecules that have V-shaped, trigonal pyramidal, seesaw, T-shaped, and square pyramidal geometries, the bond dipole moments cannot cancel one another. Consequently, molecules with these geometries always have a nonzero dipole moment. Molecules with asymmetrical charge distributions have a net dipole moment.

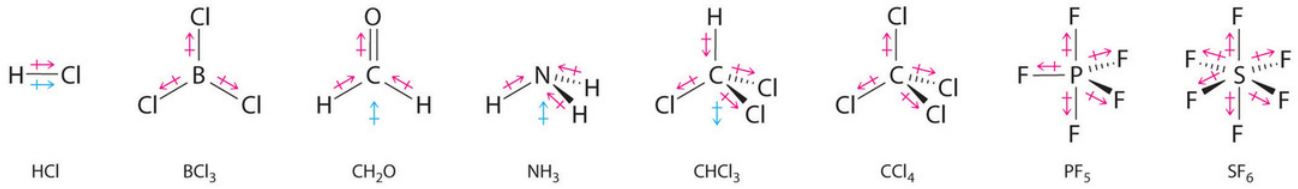


Figure 11.2.9: Molecules with Polar Bonds. Individual bond dipole moments are indicated in red. Due to their different three-dimensional structures, some molecules with polar bonds have a net dipole moment (HCl, CH_2O, NH_3, and $CHCl_3$), indicated in blue, whereas others do not because the bond dipole moments cancel (BCl_3, CCl_4, PF_5, and SF_6).



Example 11.2.4

Which molecule(s) has a net dipole moment?

a. H_2S
b. NHF_2
c. BF_3

Given: three chemical compounds

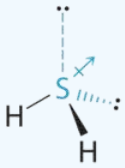
Asked for: net dipole moment

Strategy:

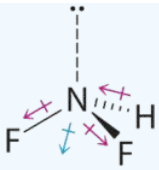
For each three-dimensional molecular geometry, predict whether the bond dipoles cancel. If they do not, then the molecule has a net dipole moment.

Solution:

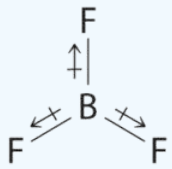
1. The total number of electrons around the central atom, S, is eight, which gives four electron pairs. Two of these electron pairs are bonding pairs and two are lone pairs, so the molecular geometry of H_2S is bent (Figure 11.2.6). The bond dipoles cannot cancel one another, so the molecule has a net dipole moment.



2. Difluoroamine has a trigonal pyramidal molecular geometry. Because there is one hydrogen and two fluorines, and because of the lone pair of electrons on nitrogen, the molecule is not symmetrical, and the bond dipoles of NHF_2 cannot cancel one another. This means that NHF_2 has a net dipole moment. We expect polarization from the two fluorine atoms, the most electronegative atoms in the periodic table, to have a greater affect on the net dipole moment than polarization from the lone pair of electrons on nitrogen.



3. The molecular geometry of BF_3 is trigonal planar. Because all the B–F bonds are equal and the molecule is highly symmetrical, the dipoles cancel one another in three-dimensional space. Thus BF_3 has a net dipole moment of zero:



? Exercise 11.2.4

Which molecule(s) has a net dipole moment?

- CH_3Cl
- SO_3
- XeO_3

Answer

CH_3Cl and XeO_3

Summary

Lewis electron structures give no information about **molecular geometry**, the arrangement of bonded atoms in a molecule or polyatomic ion, which is crucial to understanding the chemistry of a molecule. The **valence-shell electron-pair repulsion (VSEPR) model** allows us to predict which of the possible structures is actually observed in most cases. It is based on the assumption that pairs of electrons occupy space, and the lowest-energy structure is the one that minimizes electron pair–electron pair repulsions. In the VSEPR model, the molecule or polyatomic ion is given an AX_mE_n designation, where A is the central atom, X is a bonded atom, E is a nonbonding valence electron group (usually a lone pair of electrons), and *m* and *n* are integers. Each group around the central atom is designated as a bonding pair (BP) or lone (nonbonding) pair (LP). From the BP and LP interactions we can predict both the relative positions of the atoms and the angles between the bonds, called the **bond angles**. From this we can describe the **molecular geometry**. The VSEPR model can be used to predict the shapes of many molecules and polyatomic ions, but it gives no information about bond lengths and the presence of multiple bonds. A combination of VSEPR and a bonding model, such as Lewis electron structures, is necessary to understand the presence of multiple bonds.

Molecules with polar covalent bonds can have a *dipole moment*, an asymmetrical distribution of charge that results in a tendency for molecules to align themselves in an applied electric field. Any diatomic molecule with a polar covalent bond has a dipole moment, but in polyatomic molecules, the presence or absence of a net dipole moment depends on the structure. For some highly symmetrical structures, the individual bond dipole moments cancel one another, giving a dipole moment of zero.

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11.3: VSPER Theory- The Effect of Lone Pairs

Learning Objectives

- To use the VSEPR model to predict molecular geometries.
- To predict whether a molecule has a dipole moment.

The Lewis electron-pair approach can be used to predict the number and types of bonds between the atoms in a substance, and it indicates which atoms have lone pairs of electrons. This approach gives no information about the actual arrangement of atoms in space, however. We continue our discussion of structure and bonding by introducing the **valence-shell electron-pair repulsion** (VSEPR) model (pronounced “vesper”), which can be used to predict the shapes of many molecules and polyatomic ions. Keep in mind, however, that the VSEPR model, like any model, is a limited representation of reality; the model provides no information about bond lengths or the presence of multiple bonds.

The VSEPR Model

The VSEPR model can predict the structure of nearly any molecule or polyatomic ion in which the central atom is a nonmetal, as well as the structures of many molecules and polyatomic ions with a central metal atom. The premise of the VSEPR theory is that electron pairs located in bonds and lone pairs repel each other and will therefore adopt the geometry that places electron pairs as far apart from each other as possible. This theory is very simplistic and does not account for the subtleties of orbital interactions that influence molecular shapes; however, the simple VSEPR counting procedure accurately predicts the three-dimensional structures of a large number of compounds, which cannot be predicted using the Lewis electron-pair approach.

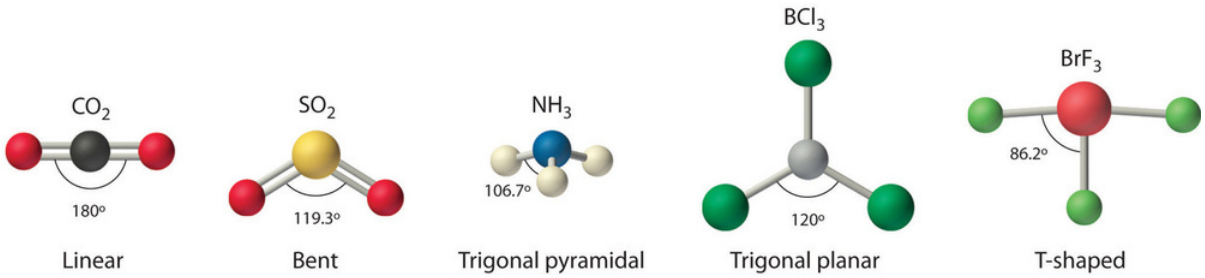


Figure 11.3.1: Common Structures for Molecules and Polyatomic Ions That Consist of a Central Atom Bonded to Two or Three Other Atoms. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

We can use the VSEPR model to predict the geometry of most polyatomic molecules and ions by focusing only on the number of electron pairs around the *central atom*, ignoring all other valence electrons present. According to this model, valence electrons in the Lewis structure form *groups*, which may consist of a single bond, a double bond, a triple bond, a lone pair of electrons, or even a single unpaired electron, which in the VSEPR model is counted as a lone pair. Because electrons repel each other electrostatically, the most stable arrangement of electron groups (i.e., the one with the lowest energy) is the one that minimizes repulsions. Groups are positioned around the central atom in a way that produces the molecular structure with the lowest energy, as illustrated in Figures 11.3.1and 11.3.2

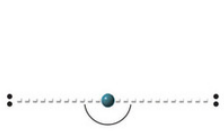
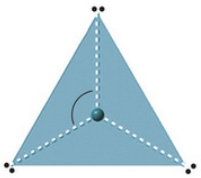
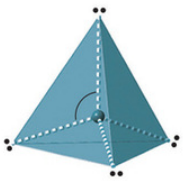
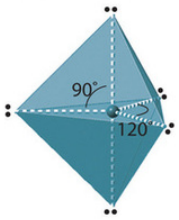
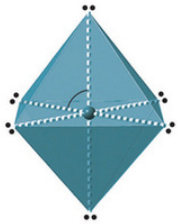
Electron Groups	2	3	4	5	6
Geometry	Linear	Trigonal planar	Tetrahedral	Trigonal bipyramidal	Octahedral
					
Predicted Bond Angles	180°	120°	109.5°	90°, 120°	90°

Figure 11.3.2: Electron Geometries for Species with Two to Six Electron Groups. Groups are placed around the central atom in a way that produces a molecular structure with the lowest energy, that is, the one that minimizes repulsions. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

In the VSEPR model, the molecule or polyatomic ion is given an AX_mE_n designation, where A is the central atom, X is a bonded atom, E is a nonbonding valence electron group (usually a lone pair of electrons), and *m* and *n* are integers. Each group around the central atom is designated as a bonding pair (BP) or lone (nonbonding) pair (LP). From the BP and LP interactions we can predict both the relative positions of the atoms and the angles between the bonds, called the bond angles. Using this information, we can describe the molecular geometry, the arrangement of the *bonded atoms* in a molecule or polyatomic ion.

VESPR Produce to predict Molecular geometry

This VESPR procedure is summarized as follows:

1. Draw the Lewis electron structure of the molecule or polyatomic ion.
2. Determine the electron group arrangement around the central atom that minimizes repulsions.
3. Assign an AX_mE_n designation; then identify the LP–LP, LP–BP, or BP–BP interactions and predict deviations from ideal bond angles.
4. Describe the molecular geometry.

We will illustrate the use of this procedure with several examples, beginning with atoms with two electron groups. In our discussion we will refer to Figure 11.3.2 and Figure 11.3.3, which summarize the common molecular geometries and idealized bond angles of molecules and ions with two to six electron groups.

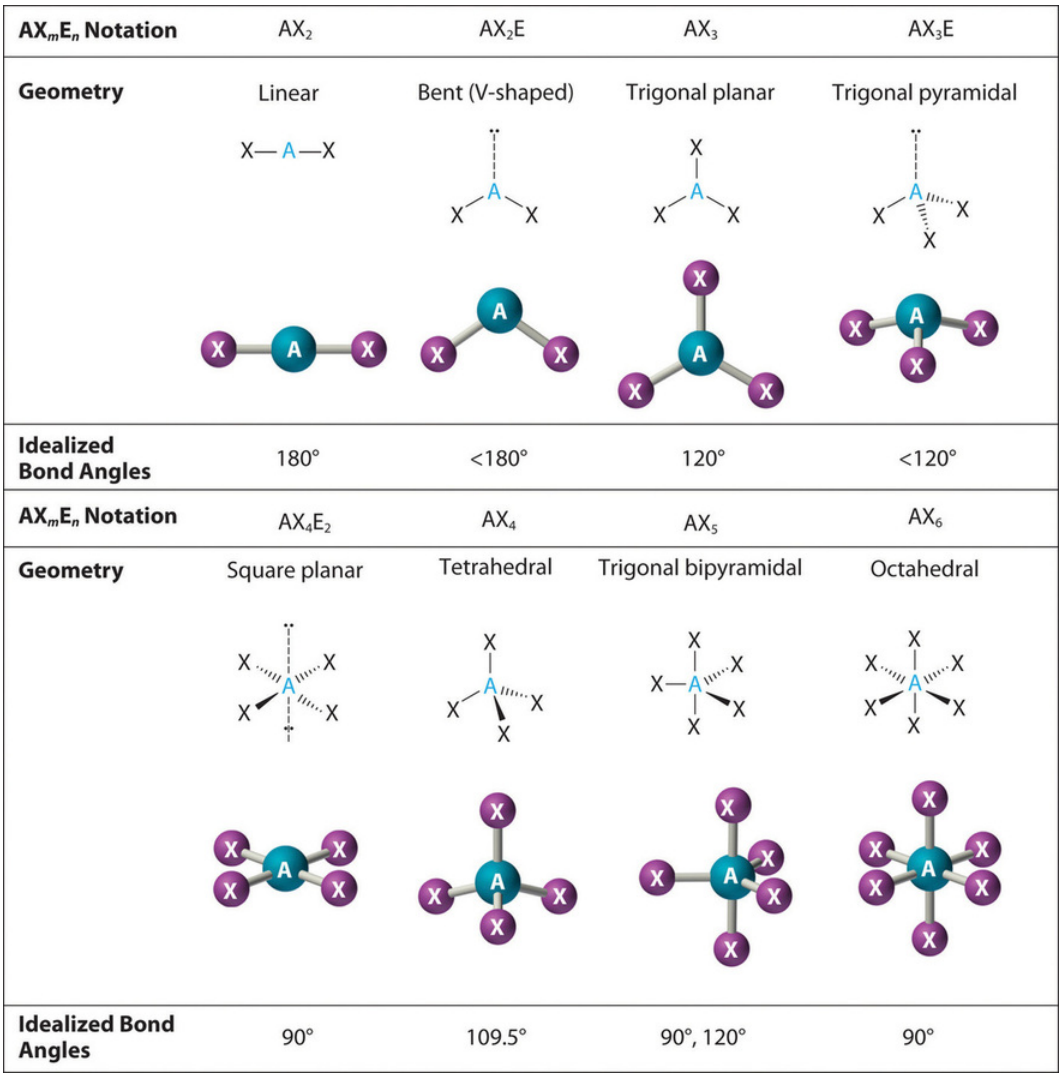


Figure 11.3.3: Common Molecular Geometries for Species with Two to Six Electron Groups. Lone pairs are shown using a dashed line. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

Linear, bent, trigonal planar, trigonal pyramidal, square planar, tetrahedral, trigonal bipyramidal, octahedral.

Two Electron Groups

Our first example is a molecule with two bonded atoms and no lone pairs of electrons, BeH_2.

AX_2 Molecules: BeH_2

1. The central atom, beryllium, contributes two valence electrons, and each hydrogen atom contributes one. The Lewis electron structure is

H:Be:H or H—Be—H

Lewis structure

Figure 11.3.2 that the arrangement that minimizes repulsions places the groups 180° apart. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. Both groups around the central atom are bonding pairs (BP). Thus BeH_2 is designated as AX_2.

4. From Figure 11.3.3 we see that with two bonding pairs, the molecular geometry that minimizes repulsions in BeH_2 is *linear*.

AX_2 Molecules: CO_2

1. The central atom, carbon, contributes four valence electrons, and each oxygen atom contributes six. The Lewis electron structure is



2. The carbon atom forms two double bonds. Each double bond is a group, so there are two electron groups around the central atom. Like BeH_2, the arrangement that minimizes repulsions places the groups 180° apart.

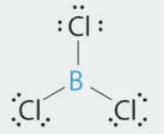
3. Once again, both groups around the central atom are bonding pairs (BP), so CO_2 is designated as AX_2.

4. VSEPR only recognizes groups around the *central* atom. Thus the lone pairs on the oxygen atoms do not influence the molecular geometry. With two bonding pairs on the central atom and no lone pairs, the molecular geometry of CO_2 is linear (Figure 11.3.3). The structure of CO_2 is shown in Figure 11.3.1.

Three Electron Groups

AX_3 Molecules: BCl_3

1. The central atom, boron, contributes three valence electrons, and each chlorine atom contributes seven valence electrons. The Lewis electron structure is



Lewis structure

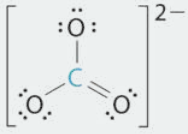
Figure 11.3.2): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs (BP), so the structure is designated as AX_3.

4. From Figure 11.3.3 we see that with three bonding pairs around the central atom, the molecular geometry of BCl_3 is *trigonal planar*, as shown in Figure 11.3.2

AX_3 Molecules: CO_3^{2-}

1. The central atom, carbon, has four valence electrons, and each oxygen atom has six valence electrons. As you learned previously, the Lewis electron structure of one of three resonance forms is represented as



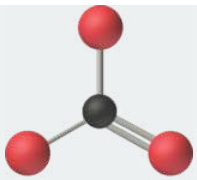
Lewis structure

Figure 11.3.2).

The three oxygens are arranged in a triangular shape with carbon at the center. Two of the oxygens have three lone pairs. One ocht oxygens has 2 lone pairs and is double bonded to the carbon. The molecule has a minus 2 charge.

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs (BP). With three bonding groups around the central atom, the structure is designated as AX_3.

4. We see from Figure 11.3.3 that the molecular geometry of CO_3^{2-} is trigonal planar with bond angles of 120°.



Molecular geometry
(trigonal planar)

In our next example we encounter the effects of lone pairs and multiple bonds on molecular geometry for the first time.

AX_2E Molecules: SO_2

1. The central atom, sulfur, has 6 valence electrons, as does each oxygen atom. With 18 valence electrons, the Lewis electron structure is shown below.

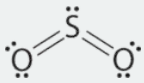


Figure 11.3.2): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

The two oxygens are double bonded to the sulfur. The oxygens have 2 lone pairs while sulfur had one lone pair.

3. There are two bonding pairs and one lone pair, so the structure is designated as AX_2E. This designation has a total of three electron pairs, two X and one E. Because a lone pair is not shared by two nuclei, it occupies more space near the central atom than a bonding pair (Figure 11.3.4). Thus bonding pairs and lone pairs repel each other electrostatically in the order BP–BP < LP–BP < LP–LP. In SO_2, we have one BP–BP interaction and two LP–BP interactions.

4. The molecular geometry is described only by the positions of the nuclei, *not* by the positions of the lone pairs. Thus with two nuclei and one lone pair the shape is *bent*, or *V shaped*, which can be viewed as a trigonal planar arrangement with a missing vertex (Figures 11.3.2 and 11.3.3). The O-S-O bond angle is expected to be *less than* 120° because of the extra space taken up by the lone pair.

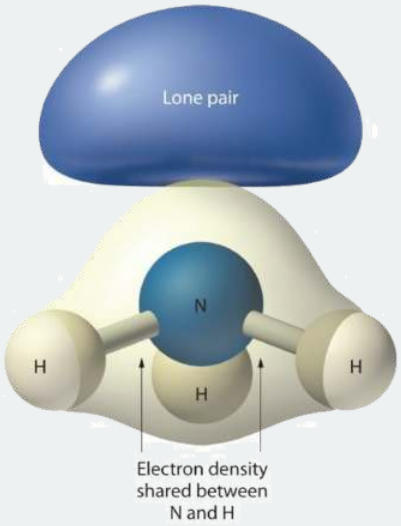
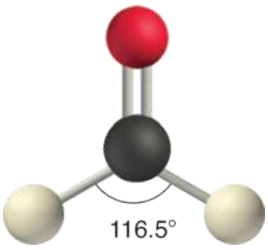


Figure 11.3.4: The Difference in the Space Occupied by a Lone Pair of Electrons and by a Bonding Pair. (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

As with SO_2, this composite model of electron distribution and negative electrostatic potential in ammonia shows that a lone pair of electrons occupies a larger region of space around the nitrogen atom than does a bonding pair of electrons that is shared with a hydrogen atom.

Like lone pairs of electrons, multiple bonds occupy more space around the central atom than a single bond, which can cause other bond angles to be somewhat smaller than expected. This is because a multiple bond has a higher electron density than a single bond, so its electrons occupy more space than those of a single bond. For example, in a molecule such as CH_2O (AX_3), whose

structure is shown below, the double bond repels the single bonds more strongly than the single bonds repel each other. This causes a deviation from ideal geometry (an H–C–H bond angle of 116.5° rather than 120°).

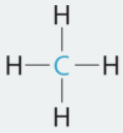


Four Electron Groups

One of the limitations of Lewis structures is that they depict molecules and ions in only two dimensions. With four electron groups, we must learn to show molecules and ions in three dimensions.

AX_4 Molecules: CH_4

1. The central atom, carbon, contributes four valence electrons, and each hydrogen atom has one valence electron, so the full Lewis electron structure is

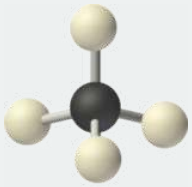


Lewis structure

2. There are four electron groups around the central atom. As shown in Figure 11.3.2, repulsions are minimized by placing the groups in the corners of a tetrahedron with bond angles of 109.5°.

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs, so the structure is designated as AX_4.

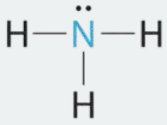
4. With four bonding pairs, the molecular geometry of methane is *tetrahedral* (Figure 11.3.3).



Molecular geometry
(tetrahedral)

AX_3E Molecules: NH_3

1. In ammonia, the central atom, nitrogen, has five valence electrons and each hydrogen donates one valence electron, producing the Lewis electron structure



Lewis structure

2. There are four electron groups around nitrogen, three bonding pairs and one lone pair. Repulsions are minimized by directing each hydrogen atom and the lone pair to the corners of a tetrahedron.

3. With three bonding pairs and one lone pair, the structure is designated as AX_3E. This designation has a total of four electron pairs, three X and one E. We expect the LP–BP interactions to cause the bonding pair angles to deviate significantly from the

angles of a perfect tetrahedron.

4. There are three nuclei and one lone pair, so the molecular geometry is *trigonal pyramidal*. In essence, this is a tetrahedron with a vertex missing (Figure 11.3.3). However, the H–N–H bond angles are less than the ideal angle of 109.5° because of LP–BP repulsions (Figure 11.3.3 and Figure 11.3.4).

AX_2E_2 Molecules: H_2O

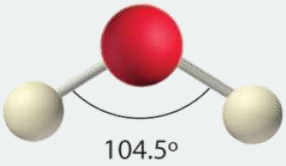
1. Oxygen has six valence electrons and each hydrogen has one valence electron, producing the Lewis electron structure



Figure 11.3.2: (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. With two bonding pairs and two lone pairs, the structure is designated as AX_2E_2 with a total of four electron pairs. Due to LP–LP, LP–BP, and BP–BP interactions, we expect a significant deviation from idealized tetrahedral angles.

4. With two hydrogen atoms and two lone pairs of electrons, the structure has significant lone pair interactions. There are two nuclei about the central atom, so the molecular shape is *bent*, or *V shaped*, with an H–O–H angle that is even less than the H–N–H angles in NH_3, as we would expect because of the presence of two lone pairs of electrons on the central atom rather than one. This molecular shape is essentially a tetrahedron with two missing vertices.



Five Electron Groups

In previous examples it did not matter where we placed the electron groups because all positions were equivalent. In some cases, however, the positions are not equivalent. We encounter this situation for the first time with five electron groups.

AX_5 Molecules: PCl_5

1. Phosphorus has five valence electrons and each chlorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure of PCl_5 is

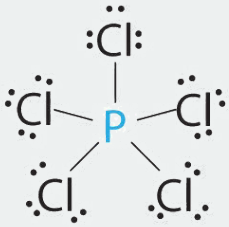
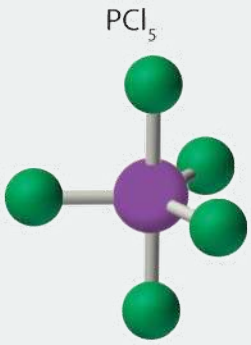


Figure 11.3.2): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

3. All electron groups are bonding pairs, so the structure is designated as AX_5. There are no lone pair interactions.

4. The molecular geometry of PCl_5 is *trigonal bipyramidal*, as shown in Figure 11.3.3. The molecule has three atoms in a plane in *equatorial* positions and two atoms above and below the plane in *axial* positions. The three equatorial positions are separated by 120° from one another, and the two axial positions are at 90° to the equatorial plane. The axial and equatorial positions are not chemically equivalent, as we will see in our next example.



AX_4E Molecules: SF_4

1. The sulfur atom has six valence electrons and each fluorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



Lewis structure

Four fluorenes are bonded to a central sulfur. Each fluorine has three lone pairs. Sulfur has one lone pair.

With an expanded valence, this species is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are five groups around sulfur, four bonding pairs and one lone pair. With five electron groups, the lowest energy arrangement is a trigonal bipyramid, as shown in Figure 11.3.2

3. We designate SF_4 as AX_4E; it has a total of five electron pairs. However, because the axial and equatorial positions are not chemically equivalent, where do we place the lone pair? If we place the lone pair in the axial position, we have three LP–BP repulsions at 90°. If we place it in the equatorial position, we have two 90° LP–BP repulsions at 90°. With fewer 90° LP–BP repulsions, we can predict that the structure with the lone pair of electrons in the *equatorial position is more stable than the one with the lone pair in the axial position*. We also expect a deviation from ideal geometry because a lone pair of electrons occupies more space than a bonding pair.

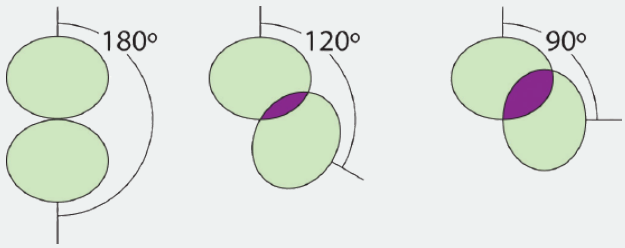
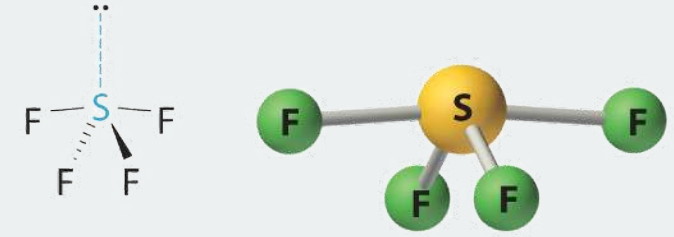


Figure 11.3.5: Illustration of the Area Shared by Two Electron Pairs versus the Angle between Them

180 degree angle has no shared space between teo electron pair, 120 degree angle has some shared area between two electron pairs. 90 degree angle has more shared space than 120.

At 90°, the two electron pairs share a relatively large region of space, which leads to strong repulsive electron–electron interactions.

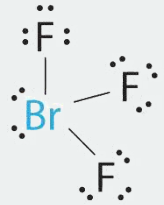
4. With four nuclei and one lone pair of electrons, the molecular structure is based on a trigonal bipyramid with a missing equatorial vertex; it is described as a *seesaw*. The F_{axial}–S–F_{axial} angle is 173° rather than 180° because of the lone pair of electrons in the equatorial plane.



Molecular geometry (seesaw)

AX_3E_2 Molecules: BrF_3

1. The bromine atom has seven valence electrons, and each fluorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



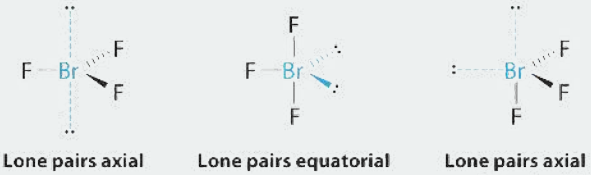
Lewis structure

Three fluorines are bonded to a central bromine. Each fluorine has three lone pairs, Bromine has two lone pairs.

Once again, we have a compound that is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are five groups around the central atom, three bonding pairs and two lone pairs. We again direct the groups toward the vertices of a trigonal bipyramid.

3. With three bonding pairs and two lone pairs, the structural designation is AX_3E_2 with a total of five electron pairs. Because the axial and equatorial positions are not equivalent, we must decide how to arrange the groups to minimize repulsions. If we place both lone pairs in the axial positions, we have six LP–BP repulsions at 90°. If both are in the equatorial positions, we have four LP–BP repulsions at 90°. If one lone pair is axial and the other equatorial, we have one LP–LP repulsion at 90° and three LP–BP repulsions at 90°:



	Lone pairs axial (a)	Lone pairs equatorial (b)	Lone pairs axial and equatorial (c)
Interactions			
90° LP–LP	0	0	1
90° LP–BP	6	4	3

If the lone pairs are axiam, the 90 degree LP-LP interactions are o and the 90 degree LP-BP interaction is zero. If the Lone pares are equatorial there are zero 90 degree LP-LP interactions and four 90 degree LP-BP intereactions. If the lone pairs are axial and equatorial there is one 90 degree LP-LP interaction and three 90 degree LP-BP interaction.

Structure (c) can be eliminated because it has a LP–LP interaction at 90°. Structure (b), with fewer LP–BP repulsions at 90° than (a), is lower in energy. However, we predict a deviation in bond angles because of the presence of the two lone pairs of electrons.

4. The three nuclei in BrF_3 determine its molecular structure, which is described as *T shaped*. This is essentially a trigonal bipyramid that is missing two equatorial vertices. The F_{axial}–Br–F_{axial} angle is 172°, less than 180° because of LP–BP repulsions (Figure 11.3.21).

Because lone pairs occupy more space around the central atom than bonding pairs, electrostatic repulsions are more important for lone pairs than for bonding pairs.

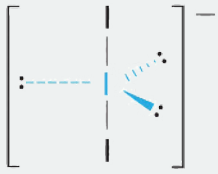
AX_2E_3 Molecules: I_3^-

1. Each iodine atom contributes seven electrons and the negative charge one, so the Lewis electron structure is



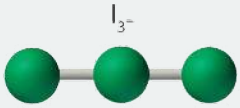
2. There are five electron groups about the central atom in I_3^-, two bonding pairs and three lone pairs. To minimize repulsions, the groups are directed to the corners of a trigonal bipyramid.

3. With two bonding pairs and three lone pairs, I_3^- has a total of five electron pairs and is designated as AX_2E_3. We must now decide how to arrange the lone pairs of electrons in a trigonal bipyramid in a way that minimizes repulsions. Placing them in the axial positions eliminates 90° LP–LP repulsions and minimizes the number of 90° LP–BP repulsions.



The three lone pairs of electrons have equivalent interactions with the three iodine atoms, so we do not expect any deviations in bonding angles.

4. With three nuclei and three lone pairs of electrons, the molecular geometry of I_3^- is linear. This can be described as a trigonal bipyramid with three equatorial vertices missing. The ion has an I–I–I angle of 180°, as expected.



Six Electron Groups

Six electron groups form an *octahedron*, a polyhedron made of identical equilateral triangles and six identical vertices (Figure 11.3.2)

AX_6 Molecules: SF_6

1. The central atom, sulfur, contributes six valence electrons, and each fluorine atom has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



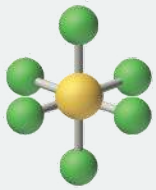
Lewis structure

With an expanded valence, this species is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are six electron groups around the central atom, each a bonding pair. We see from Figure 11.3.2 that the geometry that minimizes repulsions is *octahedral*.

3. With only bonding pairs, SF_6 is designated as AX_6. All positions are chemically equivalent, so all electronic interactions are equivalent.

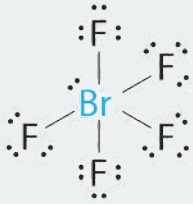
4. There are six nuclei, so the molecular geometry of SF_6 is octahedral.



Molecular geometry
(octahedral)

AX_5E Molecules: BrF_5

1. The central atom, bromine, has seven valence electrons, as does each fluorine, so the Lewis electron structure is

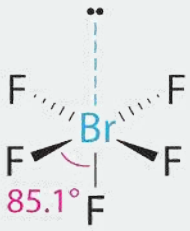


Lewis structure

Five fluorines are bonded to a central bromine. Each fluorine has three lone pairs, Bromine has one lone pair.

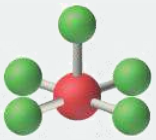
With its expanded valence, this species is an exception to the octet rule.

2. There are six electron groups around the Br, five bonding pairs and one lone pair. Placing five F atoms around Br while minimizing BP–BP and LP–BP repulsions gives the following structure:



3. With five bonding pairs and one lone pair, BrF_5 is designated as AX_5E; it has a total of six electron pairs. The BrF_5 structure has four fluorine atoms in a plane in an equatorial position and one fluorine atom and the lone pair of electrons in the axial positions. We expect all F_{axial}–Br–$F_{equatorial}$ angles to be less than 90° because of the lone pair of electrons, which occupies more space than the bonding electron pairs.

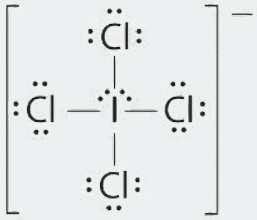
4. With five nuclei surrounding the central atom, the molecular structure is based on an octahedron with a vertex missing. This molecular structure is *square pyramidal*. The F_{axial}–B–$F_{equatorial}$ angles are 85.1°, less than 90° because of LP–BP repulsions.



Molecular geometry
(square pyramidal)

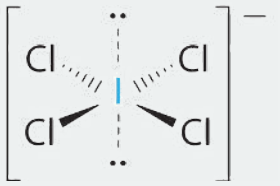
AX_4E_2 Molecules: ICl_4^-

1. The central atom, iodine, contributes seven electrons. Each chlorine contributes seven, and there is a single negative charge. The Lewis electron structure is



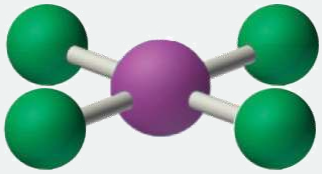
Four chlorines are bonded to a central iodine. Each chlorine has three electron pairs. The iodine has two electron pairs. The molecule is negatively charged.

2. There are six electron groups around the central atom, four bonding pairs and two lone pairs. The structure that minimizes LP–LP, LP–BP, and BP–BP repulsions is



3. ICl_4^- is designated as AX_4E_2 and has a total of six electron pairs. Although there are lone pairs of electrons, with four bonding electron pairs in the equatorial plane and the lone pairs of electrons in the axial positions, all LP–BP repulsions are the same. Therefore, we do not expect any deviation in the Cl–I–Cl bond angles.

4. With five nuclei, the ICl4− ion forms a molecular structure that is *square planar*, an octahedron with two opposite vertices missing.



The relationship between the number of electron groups around a central atom, the number of lone pairs of electrons, and the molecular geometry is summarized in Figure 11.3.6

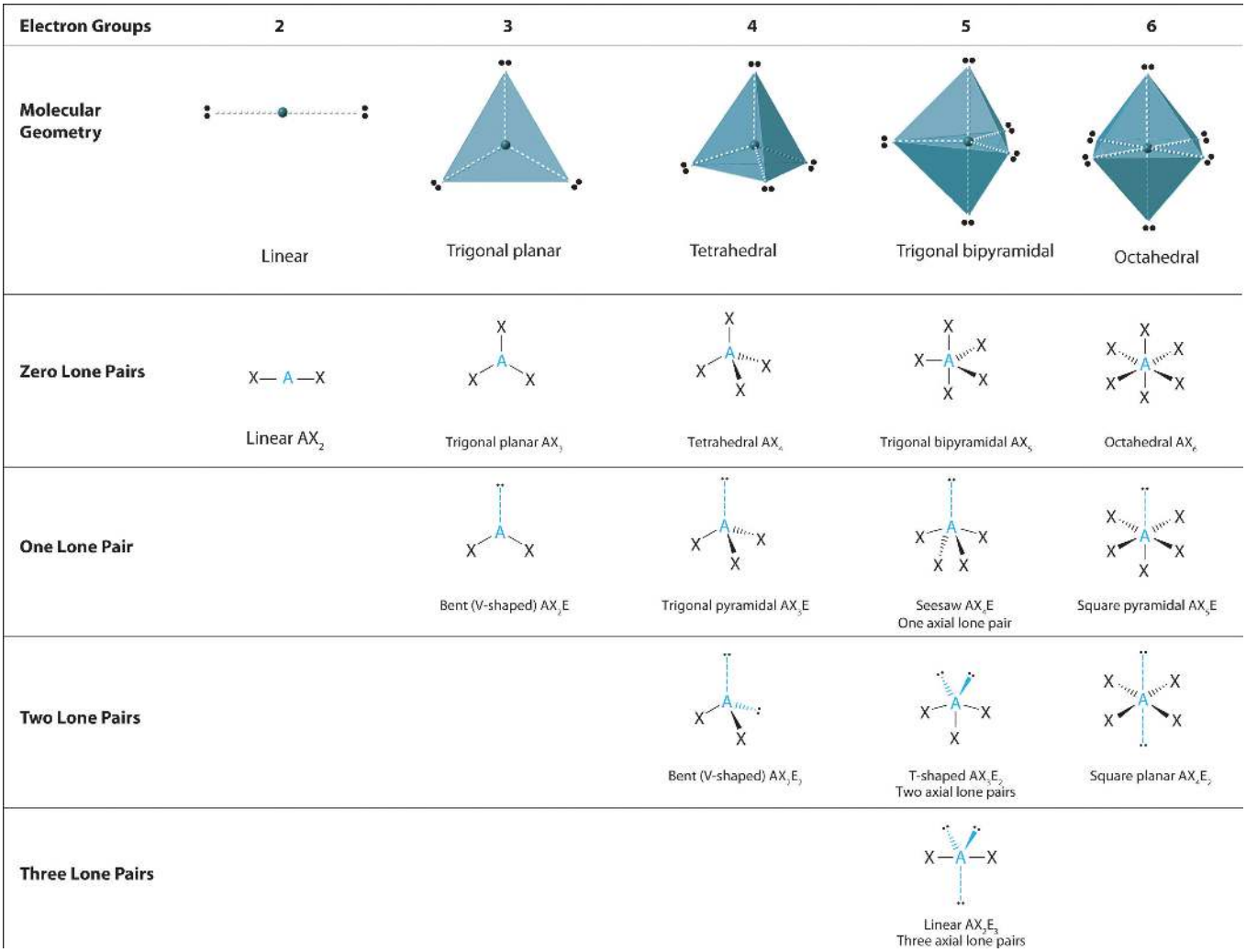


Figure* 11.3.6*: *Overview of Molecular Geometries*



Example 11.3.1

Using the VSEPR model, predict the molecular geometry of each molecule or ion.

1. PF_5 (phosphorus pentafluoride, a catalyst used in certain organic reactions)
2. H_3O^+ (hydronium ion)

Given: two chemical species

Asked for: molecular geometry

Strategy:

A. Draw the Lewis electron structure of the molecule or polyatomic ion.
B. Determine the electron group arrangement around the central atom that minimizes repulsions.
C. Assign an AX_mE_n designation; then identify the LP–LP, LP–BP, or BP–BP interactions and predict deviations in bond angles.
D. Describe the molecular geometry.

Solution:

1. **A** The central atom, P, has five valence electrons and each fluorine has seven valence electrons, so the Lewis structure of PF_5 is

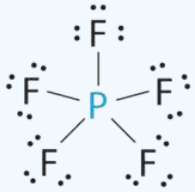
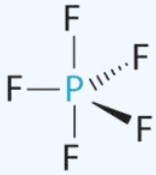


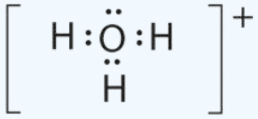
Figure 11.3.6): (CC BY-NC-SA; anonymous)

C All electron groups are bonding pairs, so PF_5 is designated as AX_5. Notice that this gives a total of five electron pairs. With no lone pair repulsions, we do not expect any bond angles to deviate from the ideal.

D The PF_5 molecule has five nuclei and no lone pairs of electrons, so its molecular geometry is trigonal bipyramidal.



2. **A** The central atom, O, has six valence electrons, and each H atom contributes one valence electron. Subtracting one electron for the positive charge gives a total of eight valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is

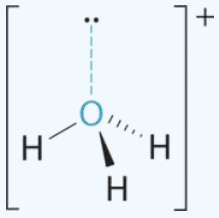


Three hydrogens are bonded to a central oxygen. The oxygen has two lone pairs. The molecule has a charge of plus one.

B There are four electron groups around oxygen, three bonding pairs and one lone pair. Like NH_3, repulsions are minimized by directing each hydrogen atom and the lone pair to the corners of a tetrahedron.

C With three bonding pairs and one lone pair, the structure is designated as AX_3E and has a total of four electron pairs (three X and one E). We expect the LP–BP interactions to cause the bonding pair angles to deviate significantly from the angles of a perfect tetrahedron.

D There are three nuclei and one lone pair, so the molecular geometry is *trigonal pyramidal*, in essence a tetrahedron missing a vertex. However, the H–O–H bond angles are less than the ideal angle of 109.5° because of LP–BP repulsions:



Exercise 11.3.1

Using the VSEPR model, predict the molecular geometry of each molecule or ion.

a. XeO_3
b. PF_6^-
c. NO_2^+

Answer a

trigonal pyramidal

Answer b

octahedral

Answer c

linear

Example 11.3.2

Predict the molecular geometry of each molecule.

1. XeF_2
2. $SnCl_2$

Given: two chemical compounds

Asked for: molecular geometry

Strategy:

Use the strategy given in Example11.3.1.

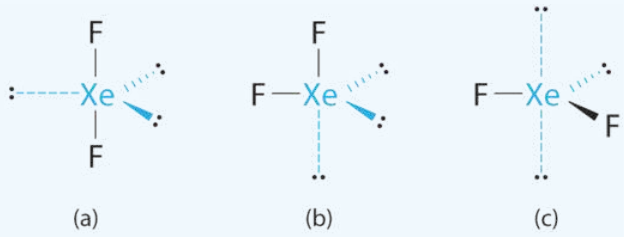
Solution:

1. **A** Xenon contributes eight electrons and each fluorine seven valence electrons, so the Lewis electron structure is



B There are five electron groups around the central atom, two bonding pairs and three lone pairs. Repulsions are minimized by placing the groups in the corners of a trigonal bipyramid.

C From B, XeF_2 is designated as AX_2E_3 and has a total of five electron pairs (two X and three E). With three lone pairs about the central atom, we can arrange the two F atoms in three possible ways: both F atoms can be axial, one can be axial and one equatorial, or both can be equatorial:



Interactions			
90 LP–LP	0	2	2

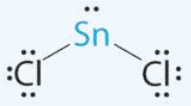
If the two F atoms are axial ther are zero 90 LP-LP interactions. If the two F atoms are axial and equatorial or just equatorial, there are 2 90 LP-LP interactions.

The structure with the lowest energy is the one that minimizes LP–LP repulsions. Both (b) and (c) have two 90° LP–LP interactions, whereas structure (a) has none. Thus both F atoms are in the axial positions, like the two iodine atoms around

the central iodine in I_3^-. All LP–BP interactions are equivalent, so we do not expect a deviation from an ideal 180° in the F–Xe–F bond angle.

D With two nuclei about the central atom, the molecular geometry of XeF_2 is linear. It is a trigonal bipyramid with three missing equatorial vertices.

2. **A** The tin atom donates 4 valence electrons and each chlorine atom donates 7 valence electrons. With 18 valence electrons, the Lewis electron structure is



Two chlorines are bonded to a central tin. Each chlorine has three lone pairs. Tin has one lone pair.

B There are three electron groups around the central atom, two bonding groups and one lone pair of electrons. To minimize repulsions the three groups are initially placed at 120° angles from each other.

C From B we designate $SnCl_2$ as AX_2E. It has a total of three electron pairs, two X and one E. Because the lone pair of electrons occupies more space than the bonding pairs, we expect a decrease in the Cl–Sn–Cl bond angle due to increased LP–BP repulsions.

D With two nuclei around the central atom and one lone pair of electrons, the molecular geometry of $SnCl_2$ is bent, like SO_2, but with a Cl–Sn–Cl bond angle of 95°. The molecular geometry can be described as a trigonal planar arrangement with one vertex missing.

? Exercise 11.3.2

Predict the molecular geometry of each molecule.

a. SO_3
b. XeF_4

Answer a

trigonal planar

Answer b

square planar

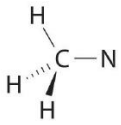


Molecules with No Single Central Atom

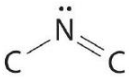
The VSEPR model can be used to predict the structure of somewhat more complex molecules with no single central atom by treating them as linked AX_mE_n fragments. We will demonstrate with methyl isocyanate (CH_3–N=C=O), a volatile and highly toxic molecule that is used to produce the pesticide Sevin. In 1984, large quantities of Sevin were accidentally released in Bhopal, India,

when water leaked into storage tanks. The resulting highly exothermic reaction caused a rapid increase in pressure that ruptured the tanks, releasing large amounts of methyl isocyanate that killed approximately 3800 people and wholly or partially disabled about 50,000 others. In addition, there was significant damage to livestock and crops.

We can treat methyl isocyanate as linked AX_mE_n fragments beginning with the carbon atom at the left, which is connected to three H atoms and one N atom by single bonds. The four bonds around carbon mean that it must be surrounded by four bonding electron pairs in a configuration similar to AX_4. We can therefore predict the CH_3–N portion of the molecule to be roughly tetrahedral, similar to methane:



The nitrogen atom is connected to one carbon by a single bond and to the other carbon by a double bond, producing a total of three bonds, C–N=C. For nitrogen to have an octet of electrons, it must also have a lone pair:



One carbon bonded to nitrogen and another carbon double bonded to the nitrogen. The nitrogen has one lone pair.

Because multiple bonds are not shown in the VSEPR model, the nitrogen is effectively surrounded by three electron pairs. Thus according to the VSEPR model, the C–N=C fragment should be bent with an angle less than 120°.

The carbon in the –N=C=O fragment is doubly bonded to both nitrogen and oxygen, which in the VSEPR model gives carbon a total of two electron pairs. The N=C=O angle should therefore be 180°, or linear. The three fragments combine to give the following structure:

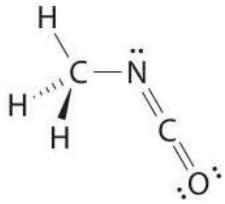


Figure 11.3.7).

Three hydrogens are bonded to a carbon. The carbon is also bonded to a nitrogen. The nitrogen is double bonded to another carbon. The second carbon is double bonded to an oxygen. The nitrogen has one lone pair. The oxygen has two lone pairs.

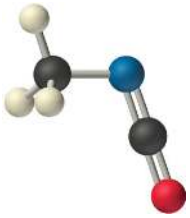


Figure 11.3.7: The Experimentally Determined Structure of Methyl Isocyanate

Certain patterns are seen in the structures of moderately complex molecules. For example, carbon atoms with four bonds (such as the carbon on the left in methyl isocyanate) are generally tetrahedral. Similarly, the carbon atom on the right has two double bonds that are similar to those in CO_2, so its geometry, like that of CO_2, is linear. Recognizing similarities to simpler molecules will help you predict the molecular geometries of more complex molecules.

Example 11.3.3

Use the VSEPR model to predict the molecular geometry of propyne ($H_3C–C≡CH$), a gas with some anesthetic properties.

Given: chemical compound

Asked for: molecular geometry

Strategy:

Count the number of electron groups around each carbon, recognizing that in the VSEPR model, a multiple bond counts as a single group. Use Figure 11.3.3 to determine the molecular geometry around each carbon atom and then deduce the structure of the molecule as a whole.

Solution:

Because the carbon atom on the left is bonded to four other atoms, we know that it is approximately tetrahedral. The next two carbon atoms share a triple bond, and each has an additional single bond. Because a multiple bond is counted as a single bond in the VSEPR model, each carbon atom behaves as if it had two electron groups. This means that both of these carbons are linear, with C–C≡C and C≡C–H angles of 180°.

? Exercise 11.3.3

Predict the geometry of allene ($H_2C{=}C{=}CH_2$), a compound with narcotic properties that is used to make more complex organic molecules.

Answer

The terminal carbon atoms are trigonal planar, the central carbon is linear, and the C–C–C angle is 180°.

Molecular Dipole Moments

You previously learned how to calculate the **dipole moments** of simple diatomic molecules. In more complex molecules with polar covalent bonds, the three-dimensional geometry and the compound's symmetry determine whether there is a net dipole moment. Mathematically, dipole moments are *vectors*; they possess both a *magnitude* and a *direction*. The dipole moment of a molecule is therefore the *vector sum* of the dipole moments of the individual bonds in the molecule. If the individual bond dipole moments cancel one another, there is no net dipole moment. Such is the case for CO_2, a linear molecule (Figure 11.3.8*a*). Each C–O bond in CO_2 is polar, yet experiments show that the CO_2 molecule has no dipole moment. Because the two C–O bond dipoles in CO_2 are equal in magnitude and oriented at 180° to each other, they cancel. As a result, the CO_2 molecule has no *net* dipole moment even though it has a substantial separation of charge. In contrast, the H_2O molecule is not linear (Figure 11.3.8*b*); it is bent in three-dimensional space, so the dipole moments do not cancel each other. Thus a molecule such as H_2O has a net dipole moment. We expect the concentration of negative charge to be on the oxygen, the more electronegative atom, and positive charge on the two hydrogens. This charge polarization allows H_2O to hydrogen-bond to other polarized or charged species, including other water molecules.

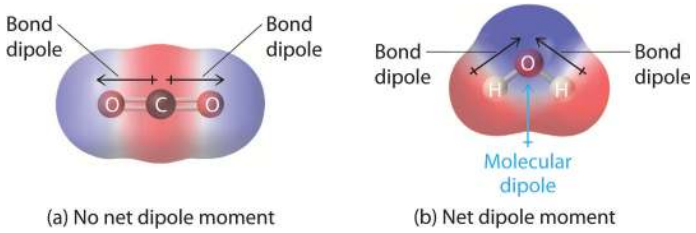


Figure 11.3.8: How Individual Bond Dipole Moments Are Added Together to Give an Overall Molecular Dipole Moment for Two Triatomic Molecules with Different Structures. (a) In CO_2, the C–O bond dipoles are equal in magnitude but oriented in opposite directions (at 180°). Their vector sum is zero, so CO_2 therefore has no net dipole. (b) In H_2O, the O–H bond dipoles are also equal in magnitude, but they are oriented at 104.5° to each other. Hence the vector sum is not zero, and H_2O has a net dipole moment.

Other examples of molecules with polar bonds are shown in Figure 11.3.9. In molecular geometries that are highly symmetrical (most notably tetrahedral and square planar, trigonal bipyramidal, and octahedral), individual bond dipole moments completely cancel, and there is no net dipole moment. Although a molecule like $CHCl_3$ is best described as tetrahedral, the atoms bonded to carbon are not identical. Consequently, the bond dipole moments cannot cancel one another, and the molecule has a dipole moment. Due to the arrangement of the bonds in molecules that have V-shaped, trigonal pyramidal, seesaw, T-shaped, and square pyramidal geometries, the bond dipole moments cannot cancel one another. Consequently, molecules with these geometries always have a nonzero dipole moment. Molecules with asymmetrical charge distributions have a net dipole moment.

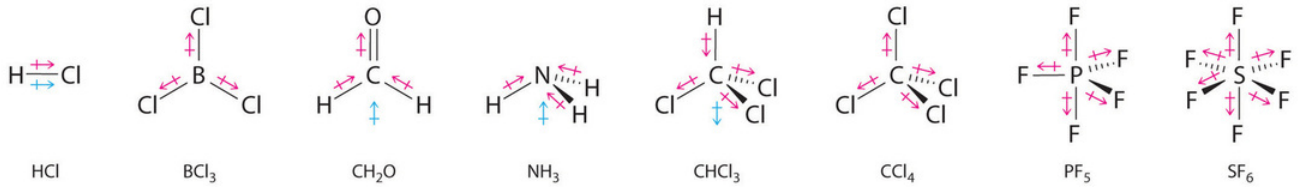


Figure 11.3.9: Molecules with Polar Bonds. Individual bond dipole moments are indicated in red. Due to their different three-dimensional structures, some molecules with polar bonds have a net dipole moment (HCl, CH_2O, NH_3, and $CHCl_3$), indicated in blue, whereas others do not because the bond dipole moments cancel (BCl_3, CCl_4, PF_5, and SF_6).



Example 11.3.4

Which molecule(s) has a net dipole moment?

a. H_2S
b. NHF_2
c. BF_3

Given: three chemical compounds

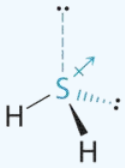
Asked for: net dipole moment

Strategy:

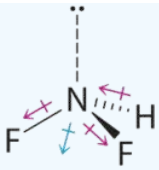
For each three-dimensional molecular geometry, predict whether the bond dipoles cancel. If they do not, then the molecule has a net dipole moment.

Solution:

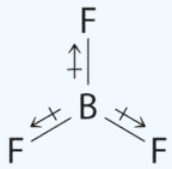
1. The total number of electrons around the central atom, S, is eight, which gives four electron pairs. Two of these electron pairs are bonding pairs and two are lone pairs, so the molecular geometry of H_2S is bent (Figure 11.3.6). The bond dipoles cannot cancel one another, so the molecule has a net dipole moment.



2. Difluoroamine has a trigonal pyramidal molecular geometry. Because there is one hydrogen and two fluorines, and because of the lone pair of electrons on nitrogen, the molecule is not symmetrical, and the bond dipoles of NHF_2 cannot cancel one another. This means that NHF_2 has a net dipole moment. We expect polarization from the two fluorine atoms, the most electronegative atoms in the periodic table, to have a greater affect on the net dipole moment than polarization from the lone pair of electrons on nitrogen.



3. The molecular geometry of BF_3 is trigonal planar. Because all the B–F bonds are equal and the molecule is highly symmetrical, the dipoles cancel one another in three-dimensional space. Thus BF_3 has a net dipole moment of zero:



? Exercise 11.3.4

Which molecule(s) has a net dipole moment?

- CH_3Cl
- SO_3
- XeO_3

Answer

CH_3Cl and XeO_3

Summary

Lewis electron structures give no information about **molecular geometry**, the arrangement of bonded atoms in a molecule or polyatomic ion, which is crucial to understanding the chemistry of a molecule. The **valence-shell electron-pair repulsion (VSEPR) model** allows us to predict which of the possible structures is actually observed in most cases. It is based on the assumption that pairs of electrons occupy space, and the lowest-energy structure is the one that minimizes electron pair–electron pair repulsions. In the VSEPR model, the molecule or polyatomic ion is given an AX_mE_n designation, where A is the central atom, X is a bonded atom, E is a nonbonding valence electron group (usually a lone pair of electrons), and *m* and *n* are integers. Each group around the central atom is designated as a bonding pair (BP) or lone (nonbonding) pair (LP). From the BP and LP interactions we can predict both the relative positions of the atoms and the angles between the bonds, called the **bond angles**. From this we can describe the **molecular geometry**. The VSEPR model can be used to predict the shapes of many molecules and polyatomic ions, but it gives no information about bond lengths and the presence of multiple bonds. A combination of VSEPR and a bonding model, such as Lewis electron structures, is necessary to understand the presence of multiple bonds.

Molecules with polar covalent bonds can have a *dipole moment*, an asymmetrical distribution of charge that results in a tendency for molecules to align themselves in an applied electric field. Any diatomic molecule with a polar covalent bond has a dipole moment, but in polyatomic molecules, the presence or absence of a net dipole moment depends on the structure. For some highly symmetrical structures, the individual bond dipole moments cancel one another, giving a dipole moment of zero.

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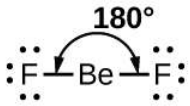
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11.4: VSPER Theory - Predicting Molecular Geometries

Valence shell electron-pair repulsion theory (VSEPR theory) enables us to predict the molecular structure, including approximate bond angles around a central atom, of a molecule from an examination of the number of bonds and lone electron pairs in its Lewis structure. The VSEPR model assumes that electron pairs in the valence shell of a central atom will adopt an arrangement that minimizes repulsions between these electron pairs by maximizing the distance between them. The electrons in the valence shell of a central atom form either bonding pairs of electrons, located primarily between bonded atoms, or lone pairs. The electrostatic repulsion of these electrons is reduced when the various regions of high electron density assume positions as far from each other as possible.

VSEPR theory predicts the arrangement of electron pairs around each central atom and, usually, the correct arrangement of atoms in a molecule. We should understand, however, that the theory only considers electron-pair repulsions. Other interactions, such as nuclear-nuclear repulsions and nuclear-electron attractions, are also involved in the final arrangement that atoms adopt in a particular molecular structure.

As a simple example of VSEPR theory, let us predict the structure of a gaseous BeF_2 molecule. The Lewis structure of BeF_2 (Figure 11.4.2) shows only two electron pairs around the central beryllium atom. With two bonds and no lone pairs of electrons on the central atom, the bonds are as far apart as possible, and the electrostatic repulsion between these regions of high electron density is reduced to a minimum when they are on opposite sides of the central atom. The bond angle is 180° (Figure 11.4.2).



A Lewis structure is shown. A fluorine atom with three lone pairs of electrons is single bonded to a beryllium atom which is single bonded to a fluorine atom with three lone pairs of electrons. The angle of the bonds between the two fluorine atoms and the beryllium atom is labeled, “180 degrees.”

Figure 11.4.2: The BeF_2 molecule adopts a linear structure in which the two bonds are as far apart as possible, on opposite sides of the Be atom.

Figure 11.4.3 illustrates this and other electron-pair geometries that minimize the repulsions among regions of high electron density (bonds and/or lone pairs). Two regions of electron density around a central atom in a molecule form a linear geometry; three regions form a trigonal planar geometry; four regions form a tetrahedral geometry; five regions form a trigonal bipyramidal geometry; and six regions form an octahedral geometry.

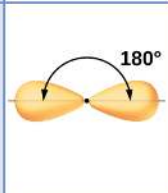
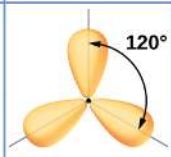
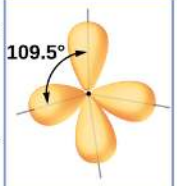
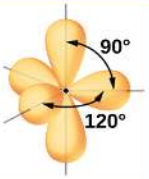
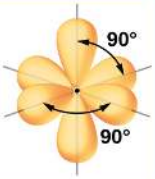
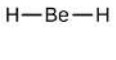
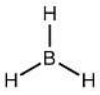
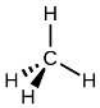
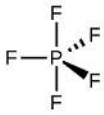
Number of regions	Two regions of high electron density (bonds and/or unshared pairs)	Three regions of high electron density (bonds and/or unshared pairs)	Four regions of high electron density (bonds and/or unshared pairs)	Five regions of high electron density (bonds and/or unshared pairs)	Six regions of high electron density (bonds and/or unshared pairs)
Spatial arrangement					
Line-dash-wedge notation					
Electron pair geometry	Linear; 180° angle	Trigonal planar; all angles 120°	Tetrahedral; all angles 109.5°	Trigonal bipyramidal; angles of 90° or 120° An attached atom may be equatorial (in the plane of the triangle) or axial (above or below the plane of the triangle).	Octahedral; all angles 90° or 180°

Figure 11.4.3: The basic electron-pair geometries predicted by VSEPR theory maximize the space around any region of electron density (bonds or lone pairs).

In this table summarizing the geometries proposed by VSPER Theory, the number of regions along with spatial arrangement, line-dash-wedge notation, and electron pair geometry are shown.

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11.5: Molecular Shape and Polarity

Learning Objectives

- To calculate the percent ionic character of a covalent polar bond

Previously, we described the two idealized extremes of chemical bonding:

- **ionic bonding**—in which one or more electrons are transferred completely from one atom to another, and the resulting ions are held together by purely electrostatic forces—and
- **covalent bonding**, in which electrons are shared *equally* between two atoms.

Most compounds, however, have polar covalent bonds, which means that electrons are shared *unequally* between the bonded atoms. Figure 11.5.1 compares the electron distribution in a polar covalent bond with those in an ideally covalent and an ideally ionic bond. Recall that a lowercase Greek delta (δ) is used to indicate that a bonded atom possesses a partial positive charge, indicated by δ^+, or a partial negative charge, indicated by δ^-, and a bond between two atoms that possess partial charges is a *polar bond*.

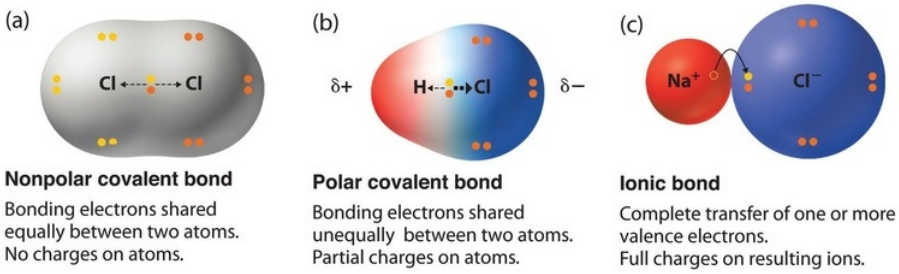


Figure 11.5.1: The Electron Distribution in a Nonpolar Covalent Bond, a Polar Covalent Bond, and an Ionic Bond Using Lewis Electron Structures. In a purely covalent bond (a), the bonding electrons are shared equally between the atoms. In a purely ionic bond (c), an electron has been transferred completely from one atom to the other. A polar covalent bond (b) is intermediate between the two extremes: the bonding electrons are shared unequally between the two atoms, and the electron distribution is asymmetrical with the electron density being greater around the more electronegative atom. Electron-rich (negatively charged) regions are shown in blue; electron-poor (positively charged) regions are shown in red.

Bond Polarity

The polarity of a bond—the extent to which it is polar—is determined largely by the relative electronegativities of the bonded atoms. *Electronegativity* (χ) was defined as the ability of an atom in a molecule or an ion to attract electrons to itself. Thus there is a direct correlation between electronegativity and bond polarity. A bond is *nonpolar* if the bonded atoms have equal electronegativities. If the electronegativities of the bonded atoms are not equal, however, the bond is *polarized* toward the more electronegative atom. A bond in which the electronegativity of B (χ_B) is greater than the electronegativity of A (χ_A), for example, is indicated with the partial negative charge on the more electronegative atom:

$$\underset{\delta^+}{\overset{less\ electronegative}{A}} \quad - \quad \underset{\delta^-}{\overset{more\ electronegative}{B}} \tag{11.5.1}$$

One way of estimating the ionic character of a bond—that is, the magnitude of the charge separation in a polar covalent bond—is to calculate the difference in electronegativity between the two atoms:

$$\Delta\chi = \chi_B - \chi_A.$$

To predict the polarity of the bonds in Cl_2, HCl, and NaCl, for example, we look at the electronegativities of the relevant atoms (Table A2): $\chi_{Cl} = 3.16$, $\chi_H = 2.20$, and $\chi_{Na} = 0.93$. Cl_2 must be nonpolar because the electronegativity difference ($\Delta\chi$) is zero; hence the two chlorine atoms share the bonding electrons equally. In NaCl, $\Delta\chi$ is 2.23. This high value is typical of an ionic compound ($\Delta\chi \geq\approx 1.5$) and means that the valence electron of sodium has been completely transferred to chlorine to form Na^+ and Cl^- ions. In HCl, however, $\Delta\chi$ is only 0.96. The bonding electrons are more strongly attracted to the more electronegative chlorine atom, and so the charge distribution is

$$\overset{\delta^+}{H} - \overset{\delta^-}{Cl}$$

Remember that electronegativities are difficult to measure precisely and different definitions produce slightly different numbers. In practice, the polarity of a bond is usually estimated rather than calculated.

> Bond polarity and ionic character increase with an increasing difference in electronegativity.

As with bond energies, the electronegativity of an atom depends to some extent on its chemical environment. It is therefore unlikely that the reported electronegativities of a chlorine atom in NaCl, Cl_2, ClF_5, and $HClO_4$ would be exactly the same.

Dipole Moments

The asymmetrical charge distribution in a polar substance such as HCl produces a dipole moment where Qr in meters (m). is abbreviated by the Greek letter mu (μ). The dipole moment is defined as the product of the partial charge Q on the bonded atoms and the distance r between the partial charges:

$$\mu = Qr \tag{11.5.2}$$

where Q is measured in coulombs (C) and r in meters. The unit for dipole moments is the debye (D):

$$1\ D = 3.3356 \times 10^{-30}\ C \cdot m \tag{11.5.3}$$

When a molecule with a dipole moment is placed in an electric field, it tends to orient itself with the electric field because of its asymmetrical charge distribution (Figure 11.5.2).

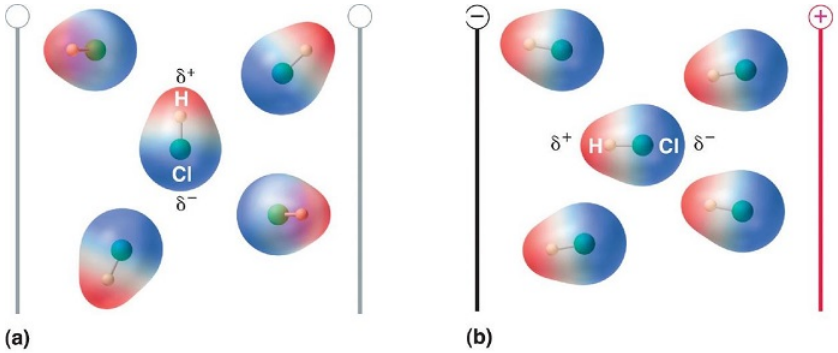


Figure 11.5.2: Molecules That Possess a Dipole Moment Partially Align Themselves with an Applied Electric Field In the absence of a field (a), theHClmolecules are randomly oriented. When an electric field is applied (b), the molecules tend to align themselves with the field, such that the positive end of the molecular dipole points toward the negative terminal and vice versa.

We can measure the partial charges on the atoms in a molecule such as HCl using Equation 11.5.2. If the bonding in HCl were purely ionic, an electron would be transferred from H to Cl, so there would be a full +1 charge on the H atom and a full −1 charge on the Cl atom. The dipole moment of HCl is 1.109 D, as determined by measuring the extent of its alignment in an electric field, and the reported gas-phase H–Cl distance is 127.5 pm. Hence the charge on each atom is

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \frac{\mu}{r} \\ &= 1.109\ \cancel{D}\left(\frac{3.3356 \times 10^{-30}\ C \cdot \cancel{m}}{1\ \cancel{D}}\right)\left(\frac{1}{127.8\ \cancel{pm}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{pm}}{10^{-12}\ \cancel{m}}\right) \\ &= 2.901 \times 10^{-20}\ C \end{aligned}$$

By dividing this calculated value by the charge on a single electron (1.6022×10^{-19} C), we find that the electron distribution inHCl is asymmetric and that effectively it appears that there is a net negative charge on the Cl of about −0.18, effectively corresponding to about 0.18 e^-. This certainly does not mean that there is a fraction of an electron on the Cl atom, but that the distribution of electron probability favors the Cl atom side of the molecule by about this amount.

$$\frac{2.901 \times 10^{-20}\ \cancel{C}}{1.6022 \times 10^{-19}\ \cancel{C}} = 0.1811\ e^- \tag{11.5.4}$$

To form a neutral compound, the charge on the H atom must be equal but opposite. Thus the measured dipole moment of HCl indicates that the H–Cl bond has approximately 18% ionic character (0.1811 × 100), or 82% covalent character. Instead of writing HCl as

$$\overset{\delta^+}{H} - \overset{\delta^-}{Cl}$$

we can therefore indicate the charge separation quantitatively as

$$\overset{0.18\delta^+}{H} - \overset{0.18\delta^-}{Cl}$$

Our calculated results are in agreement with the electronegativity difference between hydrogen and chlorine ($\chi_H = 2.20$ and $\chi_{Cl} = 3.16$) so

$$\chi_{Cl} - \chi_H = 0.96$$

This is a value well within the range for polar covalent bonds. We indicate the dipole moment by writing an arrow above the molecule.Mathematically, dipole moments are vectors, and they possess both a magnitude and a direction. The dipole moment of a molecule is the vector sum of the dipoles of the individual bonds. In HCl, for example, the dipole moment is indicated as follows:



The arrow shows the direction of electron flow by pointing toward the more electronegative atom.



A warning about Dipole Moment arrows

As the figure above shows, we represent dipole moments by an arrow with a length proportional to μ and pointing from the positive charge to the negative charge. However, the **opposite** convention is still widely used especially among physicists.

The charge on the atoms of many substances in the gas phase can be calculated using measured dipole moments and bond distances. Figure 11.5.2 shows a plot of the percent ionic character versus the difference in electronegativity of the bonded atoms for several substances. According to the graph, the bonding in species such as $NaCl_{(g)}$ and $CsF_{(g)}$ is substantially less than 100% ionic in character. As the gas condenses into a solid, however, dipole–dipole interactions between polarized species increase the charge separations. In the crystal, therefore, an electron is transferred from the metal to the nonmetal, and these substances behave like classic ionic compounds. The data in Figure 11.5.2 show that diatomic species with an electronegativity difference of less than 1.5 are less than 50% ionic in character, which is consistent with our earlier description of these species as containing polar covalent bonds. The use of dipole moments to determine the ionic character of a polar bond is illustrated in Example 11.5.1.

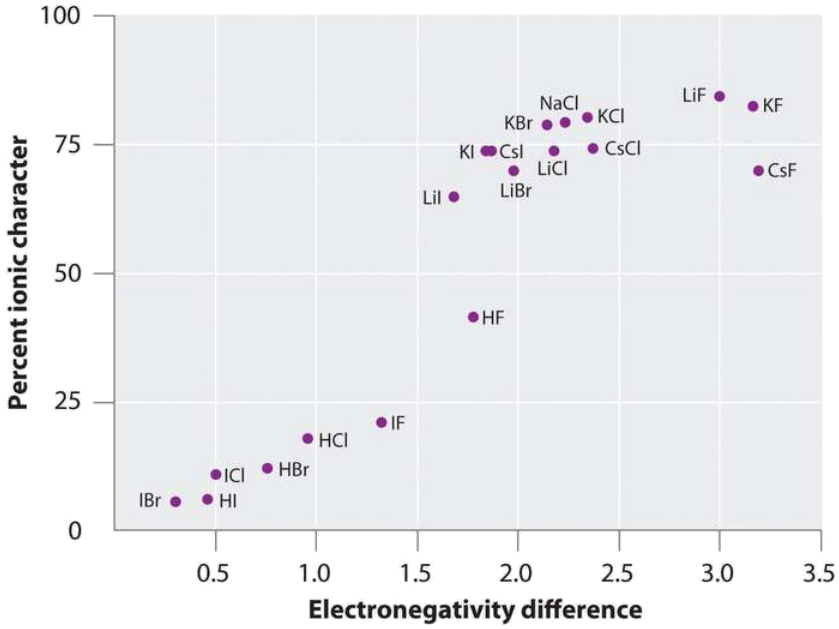


Figure 11.5.2: A Plot of the Percent Ionic Character of a Bond as Determined from Measured Dipole Moments versus the Difference in Electronegativity of the Bonded Atoms. In the gas phase, even CsF, which has the largest possible difference in electronegativity between atoms, is not 100% ionic. Solid CsF, however, is best viewed as 100% ionic because of the additional electrostatic interactions in the lattice.

Example 11.5.1: percent ionic character

In the gas phase, NaCl has a dipole moment of 9.001 D and an Na–Cl distance of 236.1 pm. Calculate the percent ionic character in NaCl.

Given: chemical species, dipole moment, and internuclear distance

Asked for: percent ionic character

Strategy:

A. Compute the charge on each atom using the information given and Equation 11.5.2

B. Find the percent ionic character from the ratio of the actual charge to the charge of a single electron.

Solution:

A The charge on each atom is given by

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= \frac{\mu}{r} \\ &= 9.001 \ \cancel{D}\left(\frac{3.3356\times10^{-30}\ C\cdot\cancel{m}}{1\ \cancel{D}}\right)\left(\frac{1}{236.1\ \cancel{pm}}\right)\left(\frac{1\ \cancel{pm}}{10^{-12}\ \cancel{m}}\right) \\ &= 1.272\times10^{-19}\ C \end{aligned}$$

Thus NaCl behaves as if it had charges of 1.272×10^{-19} C on each atom separated by 236.1 pm.

B The percent ionic character is given by the ratio of the actual charge to the charge of a single electron (the charge expected for the complete transfer of one electron):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ionic character} &= \left(\frac{1.272\times10^{-19}\ \cancel{C}}{1.6022\times10^{-19}\ \cancel{C}}\right)(100) \\ &= 79.39\% \simeq 79\% \end{aligned}$$

? Exercise 11.5.1

In the gas phase, silver chloride (AgCl) has a dipole moment of 6.08 D and an Ag–Cl distance of 228.1 pm. What is the percent ionic character in silver chloride?

Answer

55.5%

Summary

Bond polarity and ionic character increase with an increasing difference in electronegativity.

$$\mu = Qr$$

Compounds with **polar covalent bonds** have electrons that are shared unequally between the bonded atoms. The polarity of such a bond is determined largely by the relative electronegativites of the bonded atoms. The asymmetrical charge distribution in a polar substance produces a **dipole moment**, which is the product of the partial charges on the bonded atoms and the distance between them.

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11.6: Valence Bond Theory- Orbital Overlap as a Chemical Bond

Learning Objectives

- To describe the bonding in simple compounds using valence bond theory.

Although the VSEPR model is a simple and useful method for qualitatively predicting the structures of a wide range of compounds, it is *not* infallible. It predicts, for example, that H_2S and PH_3 should have structures similar to those of H_2O and NH_3, respectively. In fact, structural studies have shown that the H–S–H and H–P–H angles are more than 12° smaller than the corresponding bond angles in H_2O and NH_3. More disturbing, the VSEPR model predicts that the simple group 2 halides (MX_2), which have four valence electrons, should all have linear X–M–X geometries. Instead, many of these species, including SrF_2 and BaF_2, are significantly bent. A more sophisticated treatment of bonding is needed for systems such as these. In this section, we present a quantum mechanical description of bonding, in which bonding electrons are viewed as being localized between the nuclei of the bonded atoms. The overlap of bonding orbitals is substantially increased through a process called *hybridization*, which results in the formation of stronger bonds.

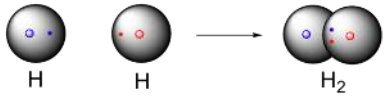
Introduction

As we have talked about using Lewis structures to depict the bonding in covalent compounds, we have been very vague in our language about the actual nature of the chemical bonds themselves. We know that a covalent bond involves the 'sharing' of a pair of electrons between two atoms - but how does this happen, and how does it lead to the formation of a bond holding the two atoms together?

The **valence bond theory** is introduced to describe bonding in covalent molecules. In this model, bonds are considered to form from the overlapping of two atomic orbitals on different atoms, each orbital containing a single electron. In looking at simple inorganic molecules such as H_2 or HF, our present understanding of s and p atomic orbitals will suffice. To explain the bonding in organic molecules, however, we will need to introduce the concept of **hybrid orbitals**.

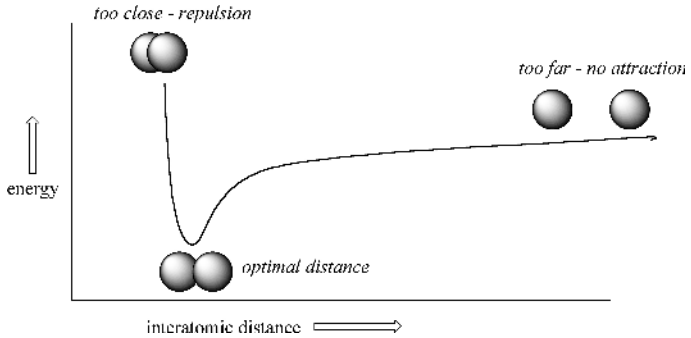
Example: The H_2 molecule

The simplest case to consider is the hydrogen molecule, H_2. When we say that the two electrons from each of the hydrogen atoms are shared to form a covalent bond between the two atoms, what we mean in valence bond theory terms is that the two spherical 1*s* orbitals overlap, allowing the two electrons to form a pair within the two overlapping orbitals. In simple terms, we can say that both electrons now spend more time *between* the two nuclei and thus hold the atoms together. As we will see, the situation is not quite so simple as that, because the electron pair must still obey quantum mechanics - that is, the two electrons must now occupy a *shared orbital space*. This will be the essential principle of valence bond theory.



These two electrons are now attracted to the positive charge of both of the hydrogen nuclei, with the result that they serve as a sort of 'chemical glue' holding the two nuclei together.

How far apart are the two nuclei? That is a very important issue to consider. If they are too far apart, their respective 1*s* orbitals cannot overlap, and thus no covalent bond can form - they are still just two separate hydrogen atoms. As they move closer and closer together, orbital overlap begins to occur, and a bond begins to form. This lowers the potential energy of the system, as new, *attractive* positive-negative electrostatic interactions become possible between the nucleus of one atom and the electron of the second. However, something else is happening at the same time: as the atoms get closer, the *repulsive* positive-positive interaction between the two nuclei also begins to increase.



Graph of increasing energy against increasting interatomic distance. If the two are too close there is repulsion, if the two are too far there is no attraction. There is an optimal distance.

At first this repulsion is more than offset by the attraction between nuclei and electrons, but at a certain point, as the nuclei get even closer, the repulsive forces begin to overcome the attractive forces, and the potential energy of the system rises quickly. When the two nuclei are 'too close', we have a very unstable, high-energy situation. There is a defined optimal distance between the nuclei in which the potential energy is at a minimum, meaning that the combined attractive and repulsive forces add up to the greatest overall attractive force. This optimal internuclear distance is the **bond length**. For the H_2 molecule, this distance is 74 x 10^{-12} meters, or 0.74 Å (Å means angstrom, or 10^{-10} meters). Likewise, the difference in potential energy between the lowest state (at the optimal internuclear distance) and the state where the two atoms are completely separated is called the **bond energy**. For the hydrogen molecule, this energy is equal to about 104 kcal/mol.

Every covalent bond in a given molecule has a characteristic length and strength. In general, carbon-carbon single bonds are about 1.5 Å long (Å means angstrom, or 10^{-10} meters) while carbon-carbon double bonds are about 1.3 Å, carbon-oxygen double bonds are about 1.2 Å, and carbon-hydrogen bonds are in the range of 1.0 – 1.1 Å. Most covalent bonds in organic molecules range in strength from just under 100 kcal/mole (for a carbon-hydrogen bond in ethane, for example) up to nearly 200 kcal/mole. You can refer to tables in reference books such as the CRC Handbook of Chemistry and Physics for extensive lists of bond lengths, strengths, and many other data for specific organic compounds.

Balls and Springs

Although we tend to talk about "bond length" as a specific distance, it is not accurate to picture covalent bonds as rigid sticks of unchanging length - rather, it is better to picture them as *springs* which have a defined length when relaxed, but which can be compressed, extended, and bent. This 'springy' picture of covalent bonds will become very important, when we study the analytical technique known as infrared (IR) spectroscopy.

Valence Bond Theory: A Localized Bonding Approach

You learned that as two hydrogen atoms approach each other from an infinite distance, the energy of the system reaches a minimum. This region of minimum energy in the energy diagram corresponds to the formation of a covalent bond between the two atoms at an H–H distance of 74 pm (Figure 11.6.1). According to quantum mechanics, bonds form between atoms because their atomic orbitals overlap, with each region of overlap accommodating a *maximum of two electrons with opposite spin*, in accordance with the Pauli principle. In this case, a bond forms between the two hydrogen atoms when the singly occupied 1*s* atomic orbital of one hydrogen atom overlaps with the singly occupied 1*s* atomic orbital of a second hydrogen atom. Electron density between the nuclei is increased because of this orbital overlap and results in a *localized electron-pair bond* (Figure 11.6.1).

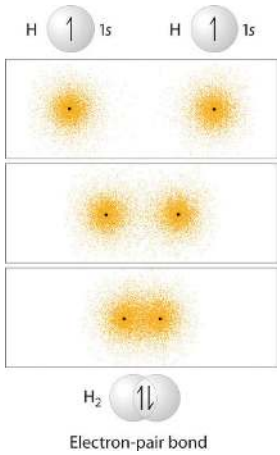


Figure 11.6.1: Overlap of Two Singly Occupied Hydrogen 1*s* Atomic Orbitals Produces an H–H Bond in H_2. The formation of H_2 from two hydrogen atoms, each with a single electron in a 1*s* orbital, occurs as the electrons are shared to form an electron-pair bond, as indicated schematically by the gray spheres and black arrows. The orange electron density distributions show that the formation of an H_2 molecule increases the electron density in the region between the two positively charged nuclei.

Although Lewis and VSEPR structures also contain localized electron-pair bonds, neither description uses an atomic orbital approach to predict the stability of the bond. Doing so forms the basis for a description of chemical bonding known as valence bond theory, which is built on two assumptions:

1. The strength of a covalent bond is proportional to the amount of overlap between atomic orbitals; that is, the greater the overlap, the more stable the bond.
2. An atom can use different combinations of atomic orbitals to maximize the overlap of orbitals used by bonded atoms.

Figure 11.6.2 shows an electron-pair bond formed by the overlap of two *ns* atomic orbitals, two *np* atomic orbitals, and an *ns* and an *np* orbital where $n = 2$. Notice that bonding overlap occurs when the interacting atomic orbitals have the correct orientation (are "pointing at" each other) and are *in phase* (represented by colors in Figure 11.6.2).

> Maximum overlap occurs between orbitals with the same spatial orientation and similar energies.

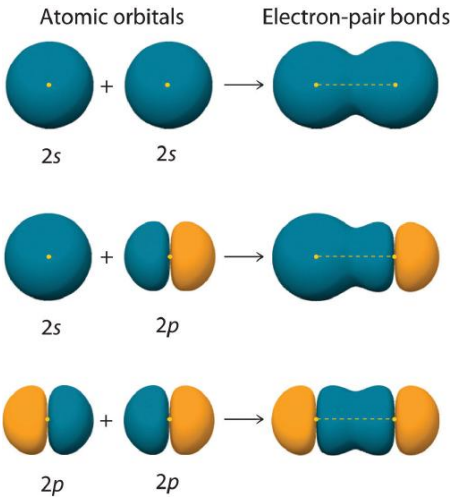
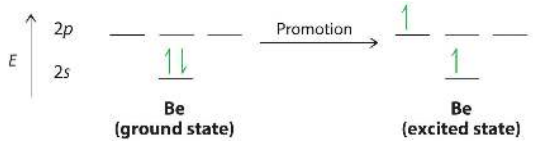


Figure 11.6.2 : Three Different Ways to Form an Electron-Pair Bond. An electron-pair bond can be formed by the overlap of any of the following combinations of two singly occupied atomic orbitals: two *ns* atomic orbitals (a), an *ns* and an *np* atomic orbital (b), and two *np* atomic orbitals (c) where $n = 2$. The positive lobe is indicated in yellow, and the negative lobe is in blue.

Let's examine the bonds in BeH_2, for example. According to the VSEPR model, BeH_2 is a linear compound with four valence electrons and two Be–H bonds. Its bonding can also be described using an atomic orbital approach. Beryllium has a $1s^2 2s^2$ electron configuration, and each H atom has a $1s^1$ electron configuration. Because the Be atom has a filled 2*s* subshell, however, it has no singly occupied orbitals available to overlap with the singly occupied 1*s* orbitals on the H atoms. If a singly occupied 1*s* orbital on hydrogen were to overlap with a filled 2*s* orbital on beryllium, the resulting bonding orbital would contain *three* electrons, but the

maximum allowed by quantum mechanics is *two*. How then is beryllium able to bond to two hydrogen atoms? One way would be to add enough energy to excite one of its 2*s* electrons into an empty 2*p* orbital and reverse its spin, in a process called promotion:



The ground state of beryllium has one electron pair in the 2s orbital. The excited state of beryllium takes one of the electrons from the 2s orbital and moves it to the 2p orbital.

In this excited state, the Be atom would have two singly occupied atomic orbitals (the 2*s* and one of the 2*p* orbitals), each of which could overlap with a singly occupied 1*s* orbital of an H atom to form an electron-pair bond. Although this would produce BeH_2, the two Be–H bonds would not be equivalent: the 1*s* orbital of one hydrogen atom would overlap with a Be 2*s* orbital, and the 1*s* orbital of the other hydrogen atom would overlap with an orbital of a different energy, a Be 2*p* orbital. Experimental evidence indicates, however, that the two Be–H bonds have identical energies. To resolve this discrepancy and explain how molecules such as BeH_2 form, scientists developed the concept of hybridization.

Contributors and Attributions

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11.7: Valence Bond Theory- Hybridization of Atomic Orbitals

The localized **valence bond theory** uses a process called **hybridization**, in which atomic orbitals that are similar in energy but not equivalent are combined mathematically to produce sets of equivalent orbitals that are properly oriented to form bonds. These new combinations are called hybrid atomic orbitals because they are produced by combining (*hybridizing*) two or more atomic orbitals from the same atom.

Hybridization of *s* and *p* Orbitals

In BeH_2, we can generate two equivalent orbitals by combining the 2*s* orbital of beryllium and any one of the three degenerate 2*p* orbitals. By taking the sum and the difference of Be 2*s* and $2p_z$ atomic orbitals, for example, we produce two new orbitals with major and minor lobes oriented along the *z*-axes, as shown in Figure 11.7.1.

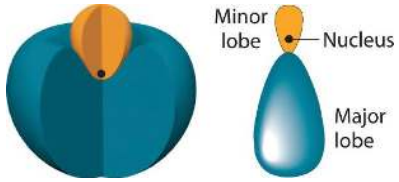


Figure 11.7.1: The position of the atomic nucleus with respect to an sp hybrid orbital. The nucleus is actually located slightly inside the minor lobe, not at the node separating the major and minor lobes.

Because the difference A − B can also be written as A + (−B), in Figure 11.7.2 and subsequent figures we have reversed the phase(s) of the orbital being subtracted, which is the same as multiplying it by −1 and adding. This gives us Equation 11.7.2, where the value $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ is needed mathematically to indicate that the 2*s* and 2*p* orbitals contribute equally to each hybrid orbital.

$$sp = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(2s + 2p_z) \tag{11.7.1}$$

and

$$sp = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(2s - 2p_z) \tag{11.7.2}$$

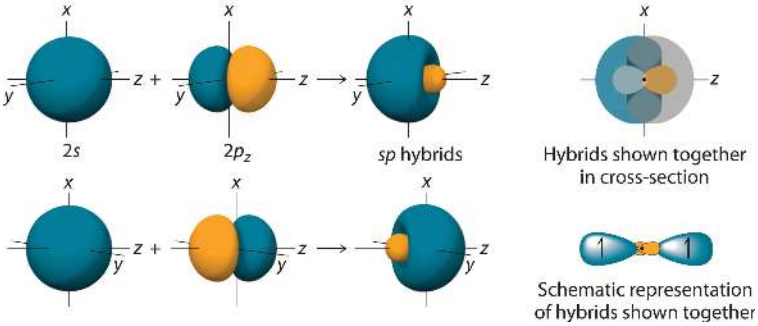


Figure 11.7.2: The Formation of *sp* Hybrid Orbitals. Taking the sum and difference of an *ns* and an *np* atomic orbital where *n* = 2 gives two equivalent *sp* hybrid orbitals oriented at 180° to each other.

The nucleus resides just inside the minor lobe of each orbital. In this case, the new orbitals are called *sp hybrids* because they are formed from one *s* and one *p* orbital. The two new orbitals are equivalent in energy, and their energy is between the energy values associated with pure *s* and *p* orbitals, as illustrated in this diagram:

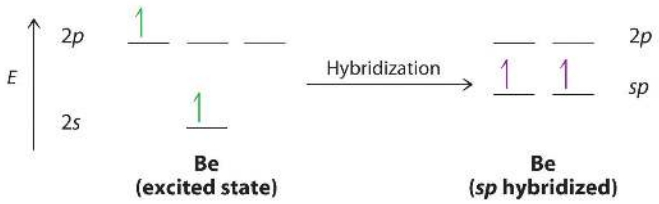


Figure 11.7.3. each *sp* orbital on Be has the correct orientation for the major lobes to overlap with the 1*s* atomic orbital of an H atom. The formation of two energetically equivalent Be–H bonds produces a linear BeH_2 molecule. Thus valence bond theory does what neither the Lewis electron structure nor the VSEPR model is able to do; it explains why the bonds in BeH_2 are equivalent in energy and why BeH_2 has a linear geometry.

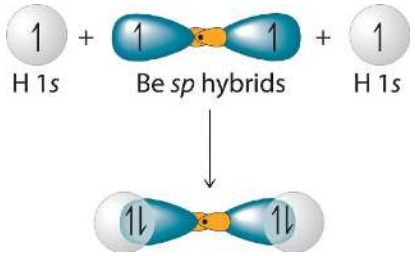


Figure 11.7.3: Explanation of the Bonding in BeH_2 Using *sp* Hybrid Orbitals. Each singly occupied *sp* hybrid orbital on beryllium can form an electron-pair bond with the singly occupied 1*s* orbital of a hydrogen atom. Because the two *sp* hybrid orbitals are oriented at a 180° angle, the BeH_2 molecule is linear.

Because both promotion and hybridization require an input of energy, the formation of a set of singly occupied hybrid atomic orbitals is energetically uphill. The overall process of forming a compound with hybrid orbitals will be energetically favorable *only* if the amount of energy released by the formation of covalent bonds is greater than the amount of energy used to form the hybrid orbitals (Figure 11.7.4). As we will see, some compounds are highly unstable or do not exist because the amount of energy required to form hybrid orbitals is greater than the amount of energy that would be released by the formation of additional bonds.

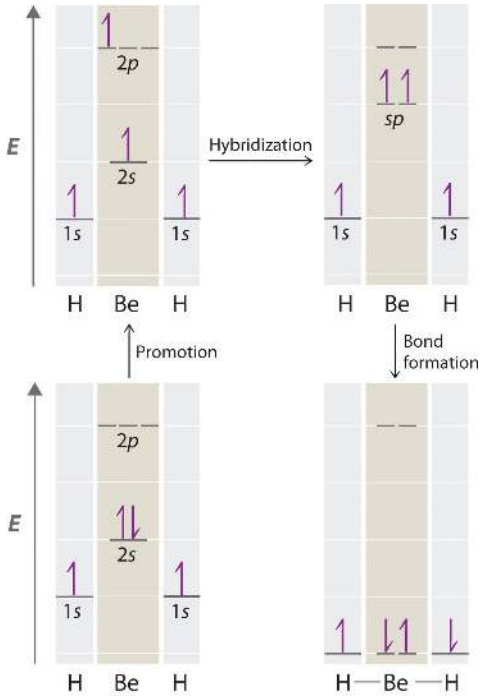


Figure 11.7.4: A Hypothetical Stepwise Process for the Formation of BeH_2 from a Gaseous Be Atom and Two Gaseous H Atoms. The promotion of an electron from the 2*s* orbital of beryllium to one of the 2*p* orbitals is energetically uphill. The overall process of forming a BeH_2 molecule from a Be atom and two H atoms will therefore be energetically favorable *only* if the amount of energy released by the formation of the two Be–H bonds is greater than the amount of energy required for promotion and hybridization.



The concept of hybridization also explains why boron, with a $2s^2 2p^1$ valence electron configuration, forms three bonds with fluorine to produce BF_3, as predicted by the Lewis and VSEPR approaches. With only a single unpaired electron in its ground state, boron should form only a single covalent bond. By the promotion of one of its 2*s* electrons to an unoccupied 2*p* orbital, however, followed by the hybridization of the three singly occupied orbitals (the 2*s* and two 2*p* orbitals), boron acquires a set of three equivalent hybrid orbitals with one electron each, as shown here:

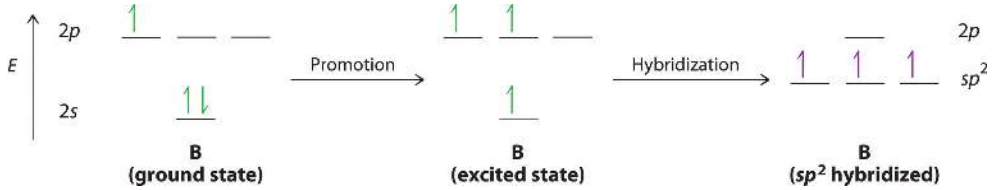


Figure 11.7.5). Because the hybrid atomic orbitals are formed from one *s* and two *p* orbitals, boron is said to be sp^2 *hybridized* (pronounced "s-p-two" or "s-p-squared"). The singly occupied sp^2 hybrid atomic orbitals can overlap with the singly occupied orbitals on each of the three F atoms to form a trigonal planar structure with three energetically equivalent B–F bonds.

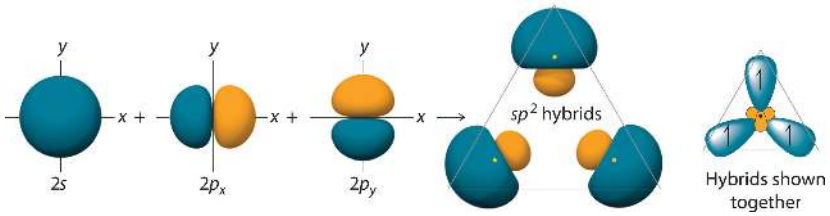


Figure 11.7.5: Formation of sp^2 Hybrid Orbitals. Combining one *ns* and two *np* atomic orbitals gives three equivalent sp^2 hybrid orbitals in a trigonal planar arrangement; that is, oriented at 120° to one another.



Looking at the $2s^2 2p^2$ valence electron configuration of carbon, we might expect carbon to use its two unpaired 2*p* electrons to form compounds with only two covalent bonds. We know, however, that carbon typically forms compounds with four covalent

bonds. We can explain this apparent discrepancy by the hybridization of the 2*s* orbital and the three 2*p* orbitals on carbon to give a set of four degenerate sp^3 ("s-p-three" or "s-p-cubed") hybrid orbitals, each with a single electron:

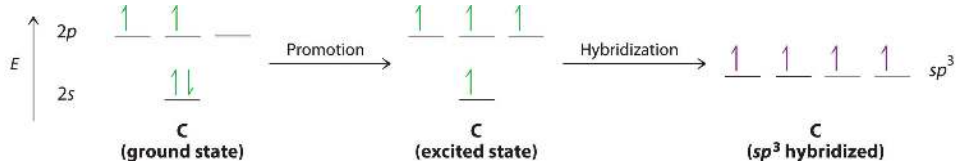


Figure 11.7.6). Like all the hybridized orbitals discussed earlier, the sp^3 hybrid atomic orbitals are predicted to be equal in energy. Thus, methane (CH_4) is a tetrahedral molecule with four equivalent C-H bonds.

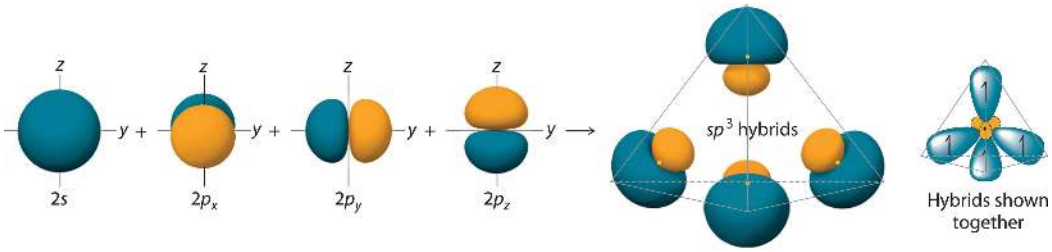
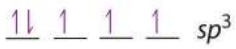


Figure 11.7.6: Formation of sp^3 Hybrid Orbitals. Combining one *ns* and three *np* atomic orbitals results in four sp^3 hybrid orbitals oriented at 109.5° to one another in a tetrahedral arrangement.

In addition to explaining why some elements form more bonds than would be expected based on their valence electron configurations, and why the bonds formed are equal in energy, valence bond theory explains why these compounds are so stable: the amount of energy released increases with the number of bonds formed. In the case of carbon, for example, much more energy is released in the formation of four bonds than two, so compounds of carbon with four bonds tend to be more stable than those with only two. Carbon does form compounds with only two covalent bonds (such as CH_2 or CF_2), but these species are highly reactive, unstable intermediates that only form in certain chemical reactions.

> *Valence bond theory explains the number of bonds formed in a compound and the relative bond strengths.*

The bonding in molecules such as NH_3 or H_2O, which have lone pairs on the central atom, can also be described in terms of hybrid atomic orbitals. In NH_3, for example, N, with a $2s^2 2p^3$ valence electron configuration, can hybridize its 2*s* and 2*p* orbitals to produce four sp^3 hybrid orbitals. Placing five valence electrons in the four hybrid orbitals, we obtain three that are singly occupied and one with a pair of electrons:



The three singly occupied sp^3 lobes can form bonds with three H atoms, while the fourth orbital accommodates the lone pair of electrons. Similarly, H_2O has an sp^3 hybridized oxygen atom that uses two singly occupied sp^3 lobes to bond to two H atoms, and two to accommodate the two lone pairs predicted by the VSEPR model. Such descriptions explain the approximately tetrahedral distribution of electron pairs on the central atom in NH_3 and H_2O. Unfortunately, however, recent experimental evidence indicates that in NH_3 and H_2O, the hybridized orbitals are *not* entirely equivalent in energy, making this bonding model an active area of research.



Example 11.7.1

Use the VSEPR model to predict the number of electron pairs and molecular geometry in each compound and then describe the hybridization and bonding of all atoms except hydrogen.

a. H_2S
b. $CHCl_3$

Given: two chemical compounds

Asked for: number of electron pairs and molecular geometry, hybridization, and bonding

Strategy:

A. Using the VSEPR approach to determine the number of electron pairs and the molecular geometry of the molecule.
B. From the valence electron configuration of the central atom, predict the number and type of hybrid orbitals that can be produced. Fill these hybrid orbitals with the total number of valence electrons around the central atom and describe the hybridization.

Solution:

1. **A** H_2S has four electron pairs around the sulfur atom with two bonded atoms, so the VSEPR model predicts a molecular geometry that is bent, or V shaped. **B** Sulfur has a $3s^2 3p^4$ valence electron configuration with six electrons, but by hybridizing its 3*s* and 3*p* orbitals, it can produce four sp^3 hybrids. If the six valence electrons are placed in these orbitals, two have electron pairs and two are singly occupied. The two sp^3 hybrid orbitals that are singly occupied are used to form S–H bonds, whereas the other two have lone pairs of electrons. Together, the four sp^3 hybrid orbitals produce an approximately tetrahedral arrangement of electron pairs, which agrees with the molecular geometry predicted by the VSEPR model.
2. **A** The $CHCl_3$ molecule has four valence electrons around the central atom. In the VSEPR model, the carbon atom has four electron pairs, and the molecular geometry is tetrahedral. **B** Carbon has a $2s^2 2p^2$ valence electron configuration. By hybridizing its 2*s* and 2*p* orbitals, it can form four sp^3 hybridized orbitals that are equal in energy. Eight electrons around the central atom (four from C, one from H, and one from each of the three Cl atoms) fill three sp^3 hybrid orbitals to form C–Cl bonds, and one forms a C–H bond. Similarly, the Cl atoms, with seven electrons each in their 3*s* and 3*p* valence subshells, can be viewed as sp^3 hybridized. Each Cl atom uses a singly occupied sp^3 hybrid orbital to form a C–Cl bond and three hybrid orbitals to accommodate lone pairs.

Exercise 11.7.1

Use the VSEPR model to predict the number of electron pairs and molecular geometry in each compound and then describe the hybridization and bonding of all atoms except hydrogen.

a. the BF_4^- ion
b. hydrazine ($H_2N–NH_2$)

Answer a

B is sp^3 hybridized; F is also sp^3 hybridized so it can accommodate one B–F bond and three lone pairs. The molecular geometry is tetrahedral.

Answer b

Each N atom is sp^3 hybridized and uses one sp^3 hybrid orbital to form the N–N bond, two to form N–H bonds, and one to accommodate a lone pair. The molecular geometry about each N is trigonal pyramidal.

The number of hybrid orbitals used by the central atom is the same as the number of electron pairs around the central atom.

Hybridization Using d Orbitals

Hybridization is not restricted to the *ns* and *np* atomic orbitals. The bonding in compounds with central atoms in the period 3 and below can also be described using hybrid atomic orbitals. In these cases, the central atom can use its valence $(n - 1)d$ orbitals as well as its *ns* and *np* orbitals to form hybrid atomic orbitals, which allows it to accommodate five or more bonded atoms (as in PF_5 and SF_6). Using the *ns* orbital, all three *np* orbitals, and one $(n - 1)d$ orbital gives a set of five sp^3d hybrid orbitals that point toward the vertices of a trigonal bipyramid (part (a) in Figure 11.7.7). In this case, the five hybrid orbitals are *not* all equivalent: three form a triangular array oriented at 120° angles, and the other two are oriented at 90° to the first three and at 180° to each other.

Similarly, the combination of the *ns* orbital, all three *np* orbitals, and *two nd* orbitals gives a set of six equivalent sp^3d^2 hybrid orbitals oriented toward the vertices of an octahedron (part (b) in Figure 9.5.6). In the VSEPR model, PF_5 and SF_6 are predicted to be trigonal bipyramidal and octahedral, respectively, which agrees with a valence bond description in which sp^3d or sp^3d^2 hybrid orbitals are used for bonding.

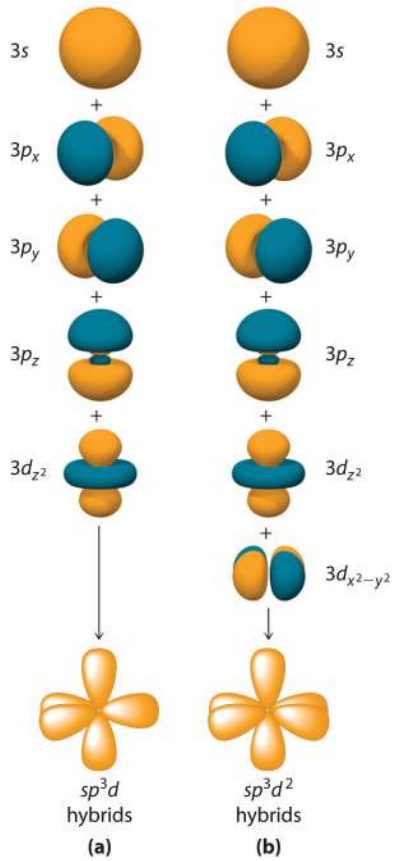


Figure 11.7.7: Hybrid Orbitals Involving *d* Orbitals. The formation of a set of (a) five sp^3d hybrid orbitals and (b) six sp^3d^2 hybrid orbitals from *ns*, *np*, and *nd* atomic orbitals where $n = 4$.

Example 11.7.2

What is the hybridization of the central atom in each species? Describe the bonding in each species.

a. XeF_4
b. SO_4^{2-}
c. SF_4

Given: three chemical species

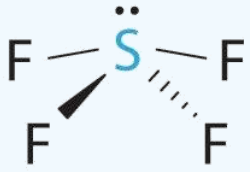
Asked for: hybridization of the central atom

Strategy:

A. Determine the geometry of the molecule using the strategy in Example 11.7.1. From the valence electron configuration of the central atom and the number of electron pairs, determine the hybridization.
B. Place the total number of electrons around the central atom in the hybrid orbitals and describe the bonding.

Solution:

a. **A** Using the VSEPR model, we find that Xe in XeF_4 forms four bonds and has two lone pairs, so its structure is square planar and it has six electron pairs. The six electron pairs form an octahedral arrangement, so the Xe must be sp^3d^2 hybridized. **B** With 12 electrons around Xe, four of the six sp^3d^2 hybrid orbitals form Xe–F bonds, and two are occupied by lone pairs of electrons.
b. **A** The S in the SO_4^{2-} ion has four electron pairs and has four bonded atoms, so the structure is tetrahedral. The sulfur must be sp^3 hybridized to generate four S–O bonds. **B** Filling the sp^3 hybrid orbitals with eight electrons from four bonds produces four filled sp^3 hybrid orbitals.
c. **A** The S atom in SF_4 contains five electron pairs and four bonded atoms. The molecule has a seesaw structure with one lone pair:



To accommodate five electron pairs, the sulfur atom must be sp^3d hybridized. **B** Filling these orbitals with 10 electrons gives four sp^3d hybrid orbitals forming S–F bonds and one with a lone pair of electrons.

Exercise 11.7.2

What is the hybridization of the central atom in each species? Describe the bonding.

a. PCl_4^+
b. BrF_3
c. SiF_6^{2-}

Answer a

sp^3 with four P–Cl bonds

Answer a

sp^3d with three Br–F bonds and two lone pairs

Answer a

sp^3d^2 with six Si–F bonds

Hybridization using *d* orbitals allows chemists to explain the structures and properties of many molecules and ions. Like most such models, however, it is not universally accepted. Nonetheless, it does explain a fundamental difference between the chemistry of the elements in the period 2 (C, N, and O) and those in period 3 and below (such as Si, P, and S).

Period 2 elements do not form compounds in which the central atom is covalently bonded to five or more atoms, although such compounds are common for the heavier elements. Thus whereas carbon and silicon both form tetrafluorides (CF_4 and SiF_4), only SiF_4 reacts with F^- to give a stable hexafluoro dianion, SiF_6^{2-}. Because there are no 2*d* atomic orbitals, the formation of octahedral CF_6^{2-} would require hybrid orbitals created from 2*s*, 2*p*, and 3*d* atomic orbitals. The 3*d* orbitals of carbon are so high in energy that the amount of energy needed to form a set of sp^3d^2 hybrid orbitals cannot be equaled by the energy released in the formation of two additional C–F bonds. These additional bonds are expected to be weak because the carbon atom (and other atoms in period 2) is so small that it cannot accommodate five or six F atoms at normal C–F bond lengths due to repulsions between electrons on adjacent fluorine atoms. Perhaps not surprisingly, then, species such as CF_6^{2-} have never been prepared.



Example 11.7.3: OF_4

What is the hybridization of the oxygen atom in OF_4? Is OF_4 likely to exist?

Given: chemical compound

Asked for: hybridization and stability

Strategy:

A. Predict the geometry of OF_4 using the VSEPR model.
B. From the number of electron pairs around O in OF_4, predict the hybridization of O. Compare the number of hybrid orbitals with the number of electron pairs to decide whether the molecule is likely to exist.

Solution:

A The VSEPR model predicts that OF_4 will have five electron pairs, resulting in a trigonal bipyramidal geometry with four bonding pairs and one lone pair. **B** To accommodate five electron pairs, the O atom would have to be sp^3d hybridized. The only *d* orbital available for forming a set of sp^3d hybrid orbitals is a 3*d* orbital, which is *much* higher in energy than the 2*s* and 2*p* valence orbitals of oxygen. As a result, the OF_4 molecule is unlikely to exist. In fact, it has not been detected.

Exercise 11.7.3

What is the hybridization of the boron atom in BF_6^{3-}? Is this ion likely to exist?

Answer a

sp^3d^2 hybridization; no

Summary

Hybridization increases the overlap of bonding orbitals and explains the molecular geometries of many species whose geometry cannot be explained using a VSEPR approach. The *localized bonding* model (called **valence bond theory**) assumes that covalent bonds are formed when atomic orbitals overlap and that the strength of a covalent bond is proportional to the amount of overlap. It also assumes that atoms use combinations of atomic orbitals (*hybrids*) to maximize the overlap with adjacent atoms. The formation

of **hybrid atomic orbitals** can be viewed as occurring via **promotion** of an electron from a filled ns^2 subshell to an empty np or $(n - 1)d$ valence orbital, followed by **hybridization**, the combination of the orbitals to give a new set of (usually) equivalent orbitals that are oriented properly to form bonds. The combination of an ns and an np orbital gives rise to two equivalent **sp hybrids** oriented at 180°, whereas the combination of an ns and two or three np orbitals produces three equivalent $\boldsymbol{sp^2}$ **hybrids** or four equivalent $\boldsymbol{sp^3}$ **hybrids**, respectively. The bonding in molecules with more than an octet of electrons around a central atom can be explained by invoking the participation of one or two $(n - 1)d$ orbitals to give sets of five sp^3d or six $\boldsymbol{sp^3d^2}$ **hybrid** orbitals, capable of forming five or six bonds, respectively. The spatial orientation of the hybrid atomic orbitals is consistent with the geometries predicted using the VSEPR model.

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11.8: Molecular Orbital Theory- Electron Delocalization

Learning Objectives

- To use molecular orbital theory to predict bond order

None of the approaches we have described so far can adequately explain why some compounds are colored and others are not, why some substances with unpaired electrons are stable, and why others are effective semiconductors. These approaches also cannot describe the nature of resonance. Such limitations led to the development of a new approach to bonding in which electrons are *not* viewed as being localized between the nuclei of bonded atoms but are instead delocalized throughout the entire molecule. Just as with the valence bond theory, the approach we are about to discuss is based on a quantum mechanical model.

Previously, we described the electrons in isolated atoms as having certain spatial distributions, called *orbitals*, each with a particular *orbital energy*. Just as the positions and energies of electrons in *atoms* can be described in terms of *atomic orbitals* (AOs), the positions and energies of electrons in *molecules* can be described in terms of molecular orbitals (MOs) A particular spatial distribution of electrons in a molecule that is associated with a particular orbital energy.—a spatial distribution of electrons *in a molecule* that is associated with a particular orbital energy. As the name suggests, molecular orbitals are not localized on a single atom but extend over the entire molecule. Consequently, the molecular orbital approach, called molecular orbital theory is a *delocalized* approach to bonding.

Molecular Orbital Theory: A Delocalized Bonding Approach

Although the molecular orbital theory is computationally demanding, the principles on which it is based are similar to those we used to determine electron configurations for atoms. The key difference is that in molecular orbitals, the electrons are allowed to interact with more than one atomic nucleus at a time. Just as with atomic orbitals, we create an energy-level diagram by listing the molecular orbitals in order of increasing energy. We then fill the orbitals with the required number of valence electrons according to the Pauli principle. This means that each molecular orbital can accommodate a maximum of two electrons with opposite spins.

Molecular Orbitals Involving Only *ns* Atomic Orbitals

We begin our discussion of molecular orbitals with the simplest molecule, H_2, formed from two isolated hydrogen atoms, each with a $1s^1$ electron configuration. As we explained in Chapter 9, electrons can behave like waves. In the molecular orbital approach, the overlapping atomic orbitals are described by mathematical equations called *wave functions*. The 1*s* atomic orbitals on the two hydrogen atoms interact to form two new molecular orbitals, one produced by taking the *sum* of the two H 1*s* wave functions, and the other produced by taking their *difference*:

$$\begin{aligned} MO(1) = \quad & AO(atom\ A) \quad + \quad AO(atom B) \\ MO(1) = \quad & AO(atom\ A) \quad - \quad AO(atom B) \end{aligned} \tag{11.8.1}$$

The molecular orbitals created from Equation 11.8.1 are called linear combinations of atomic orbitals (LCAOs) Molecular orbitals created from the sum and the difference of two wave functions (atomic orbitals). A molecule must have as many molecular orbitals as there are atomic orbitals.

> *A molecule must have as many molecular orbitals as there are atomic orbitals.*

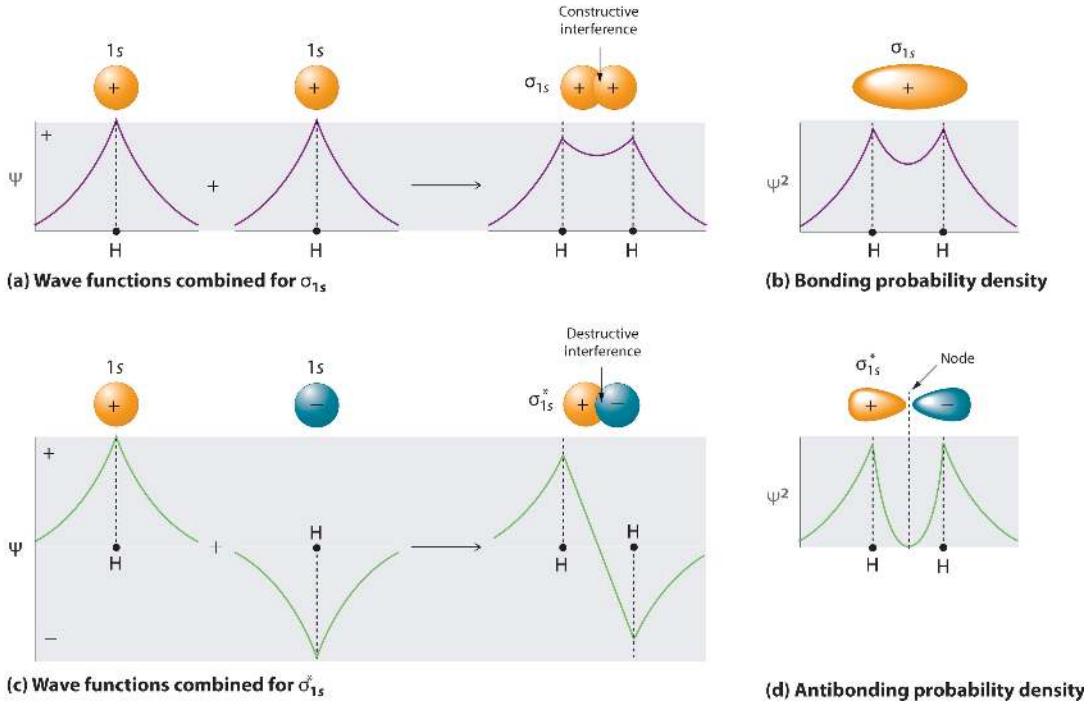


Figure 11.8.1: Molecular Orbitals for the H_2 Molecule. (a) This diagram shows the formation of a bonding σ_{1s} molecular orbital for H_2 as the sum of the wave functions (Ψ) of two H 1*s* atomic orbitals. (b) This plot of the square of the wave function (Ψ^2) for the bonding σ_{1s} molecular orbital illustrates the increased electron probability density between the two hydrogen nuclei. (Recall that the probability density is proportional to the *square* of the wave function.) (c) This diagram shows the formation of an antibonding σ^*_{1s} molecular orbital for H_2 as the difference of the wave functions (Ψ) of two H 1*s* atomic orbitals. (d) This plot of the square of the wave function (Ψ^2) for the σ^*_{1s} antibonding molecular orbital illustrates the node corresponding to zero electron probability density between the two hydrogen nuclei.

Adding two atomic orbitals corresponds to *constructive* interference between two waves, thus reinforcing their intensity; the internuclear electron probability density is *increased*. The molecular orbital corresponding to the sum of the two H 1*s* orbitals is called a σ_{1s} combination (pronounced "sigma one ess") (part (a) and part (b) in Figure 11.8.1). In a sigma (σ) orbital, (i.e., a bonding molecular orbital in which the electron density along the internuclear axis and between the nuclei has cylindrical symmetry), the electron density along the internuclear axis and between the nuclei has cylindrical symmetry; that is, all cross-sections perpendicular to the internuclear axis are circles. The subscript 1*s* denotes the atomic orbitals from which the molecular orbital was derived: The ≈ sign is used rather than an = sign because we are ignoring certain constants that are not important to our argument.

$$\sigma_{1s} \approx 1s\,(A) + 1s\,(B) \tag{11.8.2}$$

Conversely, subtracting one atomic orbital from another corresponds to *destructive* interference between two waves, which reduces their intensity and causes a *decrease* in the internuclear electron probability density (part (c) and part (d) in Figure 11.8.1). The resulting pattern contains a *node* where the electron density is zero. The molecular orbital corresponding to the difference is called σ^*_{1s} ("sigma one ess star"). In a sigma star (σ*) orbital An antibonding molecular orbital in which there is a region of zero electron probability (a nodal plane) perpendicular to the internuclear axis., there is a region of zero electron probability, a nodal plane, perpendicular to the internuclear axis:

$$\sigma^\star_{1s} \approx 1s\,(A) - 1s\,(B) \tag{11.8.3}$$

The electron density in the σ_{1s} molecular orbital is greatest between the two positively charged nuclei, and the resulting electron–nucleus electrostatic attractions reduce repulsions between the nuclei. Thus the σ_{1s} orbital represents a bonding molecular orbital. A molecular orbital that forms when atomic orbitals or orbital lobes with the same sign interact to give increased electron probability between the nuclei due to constructive reinforcement of the wave functions. In contrast, electrons in the $\sigma^\star_{1s}$ orbital are generally found in the space outside the internuclear region. Because this allows the positively charged nuclei to repel one another, the $\sigma^\star_{1s}$ orbital is an antibonding molecular orbital (a molecular orbital that forms when atomic orbitals or orbital lobes of opposite sign interact to give decreased electron probability between the nuclei due to destructive reinforcement of the wave functions).

> *Antibonding orbitals contain a node perpendicular to the internuclear axis; bonding orbitals do not.*

Energy-Level Diagrams

Because electrons in the σ_{1s} orbital interact simultaneously with both nuclei, they have a lower energy than electrons that interact with only one nucleus. This means that the σ_{1s} molecular orbital has a *lower* energy than either of the hydrogen 1*s* atomic orbitals. Conversely, electrons in the $\sigma^{\star}_{1s}$ orbital interact with only one hydrogen nucleus at a time. In addition, they are farther away from the nucleus than they were in the parent hydrogen 1*s* atomic orbitals. Consequently, the $\sigma^{\star}_{1s}$ molecular orbital has a *higher* energy than either of the hydrogen 1*s* atomic orbitals. The σ_{1s} (bonding) molecular orbital is *stabilized* relative to the 1*s* atomic orbitals, and the $\sigma^{\star}_{1s}$ (antibonding) molecular orbital is *destabilized*. The relative energy levels of these orbitals are shown in the energy-level diagram (a schematic drawing that compares the energies of the molecular orbitals (bonding, antibonding, and nonbonding) with the energies of the parent atomic orbitals) in Figure 11.8.2

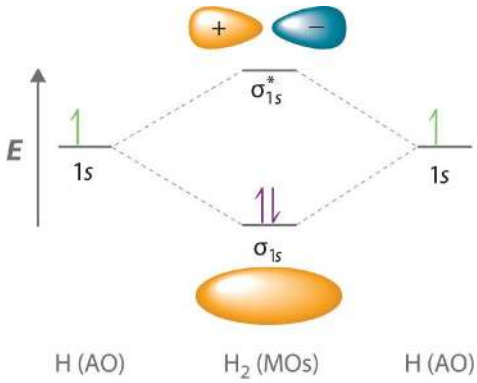


Figure 11.8.2: Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagram for H_2. The two available electrons (one from each H atom) in this diagram fill the bonding σ_{1s} molecular orbital. Because the energy of the σ_{1s} molecular orbital is lower than that of the two H 1*s* atomic orbitals, the H_2 molecule is more stable (at a lower energy) than the two isolated H atoms.

> *A bonding molecular orbital is always lower in energy (more stable) than the component atomic orbitals, whereas an antibonding molecular orbital is always higher in energy (less stable).*

To describe the bonding in a homonuclear diatomic molecule (a molecule that consists of two atoms of the same element) such as H_2, we use molecular orbitals; that is, for a molecule in which two identical atoms interact, we insert the total number of valence electrons into the energy-level diagram (Figure 11.8.2). We fill the orbitals according to the Pauli principle and Hund's rule: each orbital can accommodate a maximum of two electrons with opposite spins, and the orbitals are filled in order of increasing energy. Because each H atom contributes one valence electron, the resulting two electrons are exactly enough to fill the σ_{1s} bonding molecular orbital. The two electrons enter an orbital whose energy is lower than that of the parent atomic orbitals, so the H_2 molecule is more stable than the two isolated hydrogen atoms. Thus molecular orbital theory correctly predicts that H_2 is a stable molecule. Because bonds form when electrons are concentrated in the space between nuclei, this approach is also consistent with our earlier discussion of electron-pair bonds.

Bond Order in Molecular Orbital Theory

In the Lewis electron structures, the number of electron pairs holding two atoms together was called the *bond order*. In the molecular orbital approach, bond order One-half the net number of bonding electrons in a molecule. is defined as one-half the *net* number of bonding electrons:

$$bond\ order = \frac{number\ of\ bonding\ electrons - number\ of\ antibonding\ electrons}{2} \tag{11.8.4}$$

To calculate the bond order of H_2, we see from Figure 11.8.2 that the σ_{1s} (bonding) molecular orbital contains two electrons, while the $\sigma^{\star}_{1s}$ (antibonding) molecular orbital is empty. The bond order of H_2 is therefore

$$\frac{2-0}{2} = 1 \tag{11.8.5}$$

This result corresponds to the single covalent bond predicted by Lewis dot symbols. Thus molecular orbital theory and the Lewis electron-pair approach agree that a single bond containing two electrons has a bond order of 1. Double and triple bonds contain four or six electrons, respectively, and correspond to bond orders of 2 and 3. We can use energy-level diagrams such as the one in Figure 11.8.2 to describe the bonding in other pairs of atoms and ions where $n = 1$, such as the H_2^+ ion, the He_2^+ ion, and the He_2 molecule. Again, we fill the lowest-energy molecular orbitals first while being sure not to violate the Pauli principle or Hund's rule.

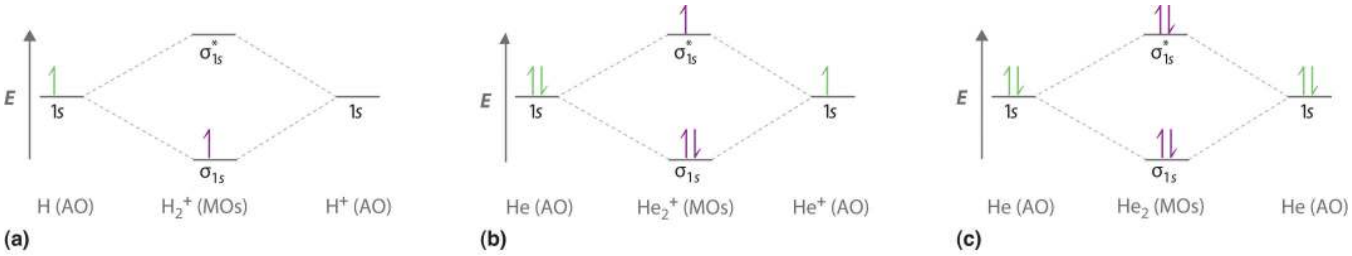


Figure 11.8.3: Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagrams for Diatomic Molecules with Only 1*s* Atomic Orbitals. (a) The H_2^+ ion, (b) the He_2^+ ion, and (c) the He_2 molecule are shown here.

for the H2+ ion the H has one unpaired electron in the 1s orbital so the H2+ has one unpaired electron in the sigmas 1 s orbital. for He2+ ion, He has a full 1 s orbital and He+ has one upaired electron in the 1 s orbital. This means that the sigmal 1s orbital is full and the sigmal*1s orbital has one upaired electron. For the He2 molecule, each He has a full 1 s orbital. This means that sigma 1s and sigma * 1s orbital are full.

Figure 11.8.3*a* shows the energy-level diagram for the H_2^+ ion, which contains two protons and only one electron. The single electron occupies the σ_{1s} bonding molecular orbital, giving a $(\sigma_{1s})^1$ electron configuration. The number of electrons in an orbital is indicated by a superscript. In this case, the bond order is

$$\frac{1-0}{2} = 1/2$$

Because the bond order is greater than zero, the H_2^+ ion should be more stable than an isolated H atom and a proton. We can therefore use a molecular orbital energy-level diagram and the calculated bond order to predict the relative stability of species such as H_2^+. With a bond order of only 1/2 the bond in H_2^+ should be weaker than in the H_2 molecule, and the H–H bond should be longer. As shown in Table 11.8.1, these predictions agree with the experimental data.

Figure 11.8.3*b* is the molecular orbital energy-level diagram for He_2^+. This ion has a total of three valence electrons. Because the first two electrons completely fill the σ_{1s} molecular orbital, the Pauli principle states that the third electron must be in the $\sigma^\star_{1s}$ antibonding orbital, giving a $(\sigma_{1s})^2(\sigma^\star_{1s})^1$ electron configuration. This electron configuration gives a bond order of

$$\frac{2-1}{2} = 1/2$$

As with H_2^+, the He_2^+ ion should be stable, but the He–He bond should be weaker and longer than in H_2. In fact, the He_2^+ ion can be prepared, and its properties are consistent with our predictions (Table 11.8.1).

Table 11.8.1: Molecular Orbital Electron Configurations, Bond Orders, Bond Lengths, and Bond Energies for some Simple Homonuclear Diatomic Molecules and Ions

Molecule or Ion	Electron Configuration	Bond Order	Bond Length (pm)	Bond Energy (kJ/mol)
H_2^+	$(\sigma_{1s})^1$	1/2	106	269
H_2	$(\sigma_{1s})^2$	1	74	436
He_2^+	$(\sigma_{1s})^2(\sigma^\star_{1s})^1$	1/2	108	251
He_2	$(\sigma_{1s})^2(\sigma^\star_{1s})^2$	0	not observed	not observed

Finally, we examine the He_2 molecule, formed from two He atoms with $1s^2$ electron configurations. Figure 11.8.3*c* is the molecular orbital energy-level diagram for He_2. With a total of four valence electrons, both the σ_{1s} bonding and $\sigma^\star_{1s}$ antibonding orbitals must contain two electrons. This gives a $(\sigma_{1s})^2(\sigma^\star_{1s})^2$ electron configuration, with a predicted bond order of (2 − 2) ÷ 2 = 0, which indicates that the He_2 molecule has no net bond and is not a stable species. Experiments show that the He_2 molecule is actually *less* stable than two isolated He atoms due to unfavorable electron–electron and nucleus–nucleus interactions.

In molecular orbital theory, *electrons in antibonding orbitals effectively cancel the stabilization resulting from electrons in bonding orbitals*. Consequently, any system that has equal numbers of bonding and antibonding electrons will have a bond order of 0, and it is predicted to be unstable and therefore not to exist in nature. In contrast to Lewis electron structures and the valence bond approach, molecular orbital theory is able to accommodate systems with an odd number of electrons, such as the H_2^+ ion.

> *In contrast to Lewis electron structures and the valence bond approach, molecular orbital theory can accommodate systems with an odd number of electrons.*



Example 11.8.1

Use a molecular orbital energy-level diagram, such as those in Figure 11.8.2, to predict the bond order in the He_2^{2+} ion. Is this a stable species?

Given: chemical species

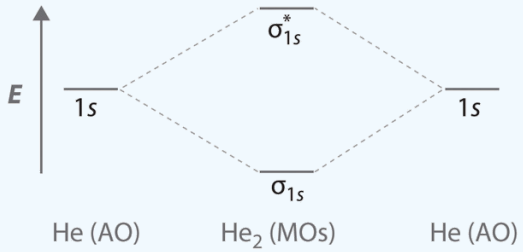
Asked for: molecular orbital energy-level diagram, bond order, and stability

Strategy:

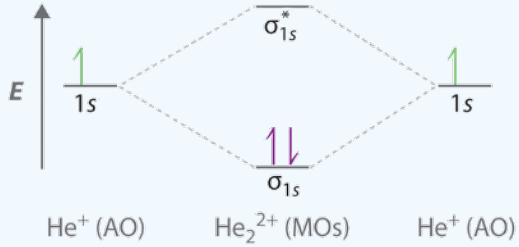
A. Combine the two He valence atomic orbitals to produce bonding and antibonding molecular orbital
B. s. Draw the molecular orbital energy-level diagram for the system.
C. Determine the total number of valence electrons in the He_2^{2+} ion. Fill the molecular orbitals in the energy-level diagram beginning with the orbital with the lowest energy. Be sure to obey the Pauli principle and Hund's rule while doing so.
D. Calculate the bond order and predict whether the species is stable.

Solution:

A Two He 1*s* atomic orbitals combine to give two molecular orbitals: a σ_{1s} bonding orbital at lower energy than the atomic orbitals and a $\sigma^{\star}_{1s}$ antibonding orbital at higher energy. The bonding in any diatomic molecule with two He atoms can be described using the following molecular orbital diagram:



B The He_2^{2+} ion has only two valence electrons (two from each He atom minus two for the +2 charge). We can also view He_2^{2+} as being formed from two He^+ ions, each of which has a single valence electron in the 1*s* atomic orbital. We can now fill the molecular orbital diagram:



Each He+ has one unpaired electron in the 1 s orbital. This means that He2 2+ has a full sigma 1 s orbital.

The two electrons occupy the lowest-energy molecular orbital, which is the bonding (σ_{1s}) orbital, giving a $(\sigma_{1s})^2$ electron configuration. To avoid violating the Pauli principle, the electron spins must be paired. **C** So the bond order is

$$\frac{2-0}{2}=1$$

He_2^{2+} is therefore predicted to contain a single He–He bond. Thus it should be a stable species.

? Exercise 11.8.1

Use a molecular orbital energy-level diagram to predict the valence-electron configuration and bond order of the H_2^{2-} ion. Is this a stable species?

Answer

H_2^{2-} has a valence electron configuration of $(\sigma_{1s})^2(\sigma_{1s}^{\star})^2$ with a bond order of 0. It is therefore predicted to be unstable.

So far, our discussion of molecular orbitals has been confined to the interaction of valence orbitals, which tend to lie farthest from the nucleus. When two atoms are close enough for their valence orbitals to overlap significantly, the filled inner electron shells are largely unperturbed; hence they do not need to be considered in a molecular orbital scheme. Also, when the inner orbitals are completely filled, they contain exactly enough electrons to completely fill both the bonding and antibonding molecular orbitals that arise from their interaction. Thus the interaction of filled shells always gives a bond order of 0, so filled shells are not a factor when predicting the stability of a species. This means that we can focus our attention on the molecular orbitals derived from valence atomic orbitals.

A molecular orbital diagram that can be applied to any **homonuclear diatomic molecule** with two identical alkali metal atoms (Li_2 and Cs_2, for example) is shown in part (a) in Figure 11.8.4, where M represents the metal atom. Only two energy levels are important for describing the valence electron molecular orbitals of these species: a σ_{ns} bonding molecular orbital and a σ^*_{ns} antibonding molecular orbital. Because each alkali metal (M) has an ns^1 valence electron configuration, the M_2 molecule has two valence electrons that fill the σ_{ns} bonding orbital. As a result, a bond order of 1 is predicted for all homonuclear diatomic species formed from the alkali metals (Li_2, Na_2, K_2, Rb_2, and Cs_2). The general features of these M_2 diagrams are identical to the diagram for the H_2 molecule in Figure 11.8.4. Experimentally, all are found to be stable in the gas phase, and some are even stable in solution.

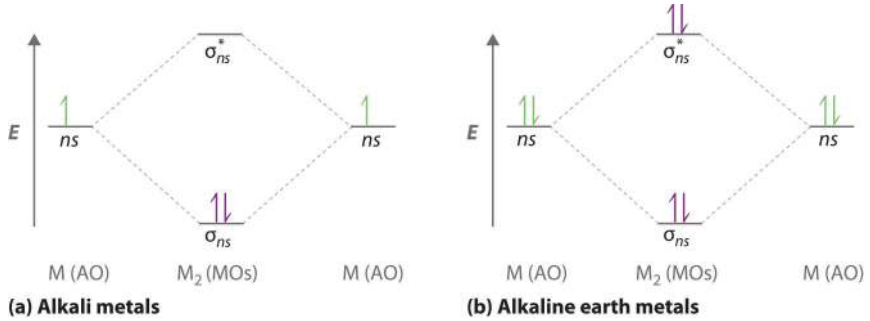


Figure 11.8.4 : Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagrams for Alkali Metal and Alkaline Earth Metal Diatomic (M_2) Molecules. (a) For alkali metal diatomic molecules, the two valence electrons are enough to fill the σ_{ns} (bonding) level, giving a bond order of 1. (b) For alkaline earth metal diatomic molecules, the four valence electrons fill both the σ_{ns} (bonding) and the σ_{ns}* (nonbonding) levels, leading to a predicted bond order of 0.

Similarly, the molecular orbital diagrams for homonuclear diatomic compounds of the alkaline earth metals (such as Be_2), in which each metal atom has an ns^2 valence electron configuration, resemble the diagram for the He_2 molecule in part (c) in Figure 11.8.2. As shown in part (b) in Figure 11.8.4, this is indeed the case. All the homonuclear alkaline earth diatomic molecules have four valence electrons, which fill both the σ_{ns} bonding orbital and the σ_{ns}* antibonding orbital and give a bond order of 0. Thus Be_2, Mg_2, Ca_2, Sr_2, and Ba_2 are all expected to be unstable, in agreement with experimental data.In the solid state, however, all the alkali metals and the alkaline earth metals exist as extended lattices held together by metallic bonding. At low temperatures, Be_2 is stable.

Example 11.8.2

Use a qualitative molecular orbital energy-level diagram to predict the valence electron configuration, bond order, and likely existence of the Na_2^- ion.

Given: chemical species

Asked for: molecular orbital energy-level diagram, valence electron configuration, bond order, and stability

Strategy:

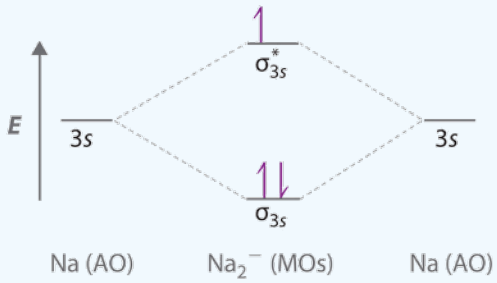
A. Combine the two sodium valence atomic orbitals to produce bonding and antibonding molecular orbitals. Draw the molecular orbital energy-level diagram for this system.

B. Determine the total number of valence electrons in the Na_2^- ion. Fill the molecular orbitals in the energy-level diagram beginning with the orbital with the lowest energy. Be sure to obey the Pauli principle and Hund's rule while doing so.

C. Calculate the bond order and predict whether the species is stable.

Solution:

A Because sodium has a [Ne]$3s^1$ electron configuration, the molecular orbital energy-level diagram is qualitatively identical to the diagram for the interaction of two 1*s* atomic orbitals. **B** The Na_2^- ion has a total of three valence electrons (one from each Na atom and one for the negative charge), resulting in a filled σ_{3s} molecular orbital, a half-filled σ_{3s*} and a $(\sigma_{3s})^2(\sigma^\star_{3s})^1$ electron configuration.



C The bond order is (2-1)÷2=1/2 With a fractional bond order, we predict that the Na_2^- ion exists but is highly reactive.

Exercise 11.8.2

Use a qualitative molecular orbital energy-level diagram to predict the valence electron configuration, bond order, and likely existence of the Ca_2^+ ion.

Answer

Ca_2^+ has a $(\sigma_{4s})^2(\sigma^\star_{4s})^1$ electron configurations and a bond order of 1/2 and should exist.

Molecular Orbitals Formed from *ns* and *np* Atomic Orbitals

Atomic orbitals other than *ns* orbitals can also interact to form molecular orbitals. Because individual *p*, *d*, and *f* orbitals are not spherically symmetrical, however, we need to define a coordinate system so we know which lobes are interacting in three-dimensional space. Recall that for each *np* subshell, for example, there are np_x, np_y, and np_z orbitals. All have the same energy and are therefore degenerate, but they have different spatial orientations.

$$\sigma_{np_z} = np_z\,(A) - np_z\,(B) \tag{11.8.6}$$

Just as with *ns* orbitals, we can form molecular orbitals from *np* orbitals by taking their mathematical sum and difference. When two positive lobes with the appropriate spatial orientation overlap, as illustrated for two np_z atomic orbitals in part (a) in Figure 11.8.5, it is the mathematical *difference* of their wave functions that results in *constructive* interference, which in turn increases the electron probability density between the two atoms. The difference therefore corresponds to a molecular orbital called a σ_{np_z} *bonding molecular orbital* because, just as with the σ orbitals discussed previously, it is symmetrical about the internuclear axis (in this case, the *z*-axis):

$$\sigma_{np_z} = np_z\,(A) - np_z\,(B) \tag{11.8.7}$$

The other possible combination of the two np_z orbitals is the mathematical sum:

$$\sigma_{np_z} = np_z\,(A) + np_z\,(B) \tag{11.8.8}$$

In this combination, shown in part (b) in Figure 11.8.5, the positive lobe of one np_z atomic orbital overlaps the negative lobe of the other, leading to *destructive* interference of the two waves and creating a node between the two atoms. Hence this is an antibonding molecular orbital. Because it, too, is symmetrical about the internuclear axis, this molecular orbital is called a $\sigma_{np_z} = np_z\,(A) - np_z\,(B)$ *antibonding molecular orbital*. Whenever orbitals combine, *the bonding combination is always lower in energy* (more stable) than the atomic orbitals from which it was derived, and *the antibonding combination is higher in energy* (less stable).

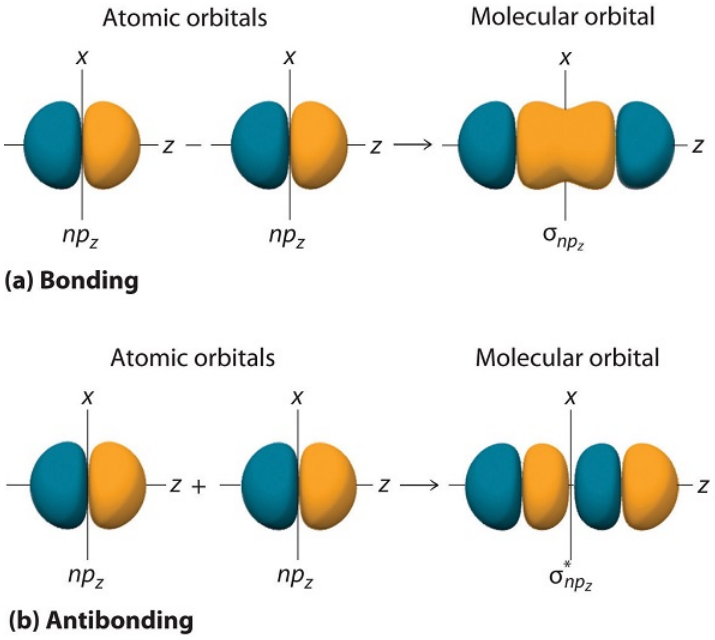


Figure 11.8.5 Formation of Molecular Orbitals from np_z Atomic Orbitals on Adjacent Atoms.(a) By convention, in a linear molecule or ion, the *z*-axis always corresponds to the internuclear axis, with +*z* to the right. As a result, the signs of the lobes of the np_z atomic orbitals on the two atoms alternate − + − +, from left to right. In this case, the σ (bonding) molecular orbital corresponds to the mathematical *difference*, in which the overlap of lobes with the same sign results in increased probability density between the nuclei. (b) In contrast, the σ* (antibonding) molecular orbital corresponds to the mathematical *sum*, in which the overlap of lobes with opposite signs results in a nodal plane of zero probability density perpendicular to the internuclear axis.

> Overlap of atomic orbital lobes with the *same sign* produces a bonding molecular orbital, regardless of whether it corresponds to the sum or the difference of the atomic orbitals.

The remaining *p* orbitals on each of the two atoms, np_x and np_y, do not point directly toward each other. Instead, they are perpendicular to the internuclear axis. If we arbitrarily label the axes as shown in Figure 11.8.6, we see that we have two pairs of *np* orbitals: the two np_x orbitals lying in the plane of the page, and two np_y orbitals perpendicular to the plane. Although these two pairs are equivalent in energy, the np_x orbital on one atom can interact with only the np_x orbital on the other, and the np_y orbital on one atom can interact with only the np_y on the other. These interactions are side-to-side rather than the head-to-head interactions characteristic of σ orbitals. Each pair of overlapping atomic orbitals again forms two molecular orbitals: one corresponds to the

arithmetic sum of the two atomic orbitals and one to the difference. The sum of these side-to-side interactions increases the electron probability in the region above and below a line connecting the nuclei, so it is a bonding molecular orbital that is called a pi (π) orbital (a bonding molecular orbital formed from the side-to-side interactions of two or more parallel np atomic orbitals). The difference results in the overlap of orbital lobes with opposite signs, which produces a nodal plane perpendicular to the internuclear axis; hence it is an antibonding molecular orbital, called a pi star (π*) orbital An antibonding molecular orbital formed from the difference of the side-to-side interactions of two or more parallel *np* atomic orbitals, creating a nodal plane perpendicular to the internuclear axis..

$$\pi_{np_x} = np_x\,(A) + np_x\,(B) \tag{11.8.9}$$

$$\pi^{\star}_{np_x} = np_x\,(A) - np_x\,(B) \tag{11.8.10}$$

The two np_y orbitals can also combine using side-to-side interactions to produce a bonding π_{np_y} molecular orbital and an antibonding $\pi^{\star}_{np_y}$ molecular orbital. Because the np_x and np_y atomic orbitals interact in the same way (side-to-side) and have the same energy, the π_{np_x} and π_{np_y} molecular orbitals are a degenerate pair, as are the $\pi^{\star}_{np_x}$ and $\pi^{\star}_{np_y}$ molecular orbitals.

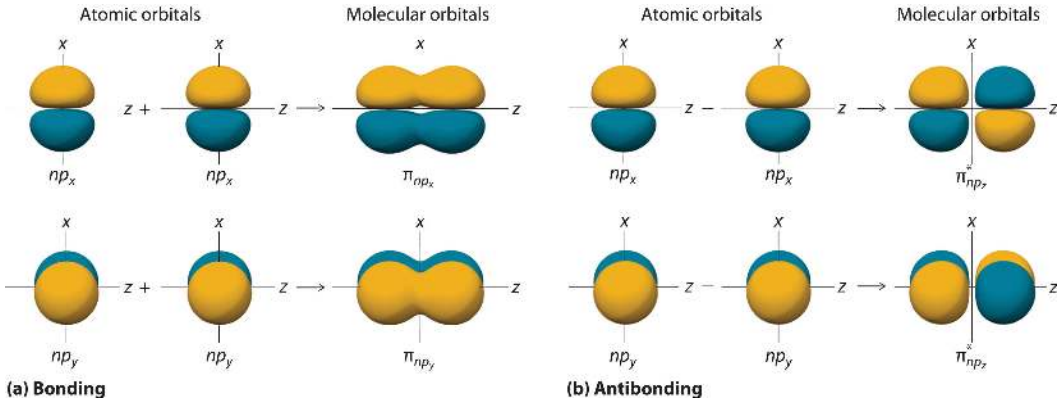


Figure 11.8.6: Formation of π Molecular Orbitals from np_x and np_y Atomic Orbitals on Adjacent Atoms.(a) Because the signs of the lobes of both the np_x and the np_y atomic orbitals on adjacent atoms are the same, in both cases the mathematical sum corresponds to a π (bonding) molecular orbital. (b) In contrast, in both cases, the mathematical difference corresponds to a π* (antibonding) molecular orbital, with a nodal plane of zero probability density perpendicular to the internuclear axis.

Figure 11.8.7 is an energy-level diagram that can be applied to two identical interacting atoms that have three *np* atomic orbitals each. There are six degenerate *p* atomic orbitals (three from each atom) that combine to form six molecular orbitals, three bonding and three antibonding. The bonding molecular orbitals are lower in energy than the atomic orbitals because of the increased stability associated with the formation of a bond. Conversely, the antibonding molecular orbitals are higher in energy, as shown. The energy difference between the σ and σ* molecular orbitals is significantly greater than the difference between the two π and π* sets. The reason for this is that the atomic orbital overlap and thus the strength of the interaction are greater for a σ bond than a π bond, which means that the σ molecular orbital is more stable (lower in energy) than the π molecular orbitals.

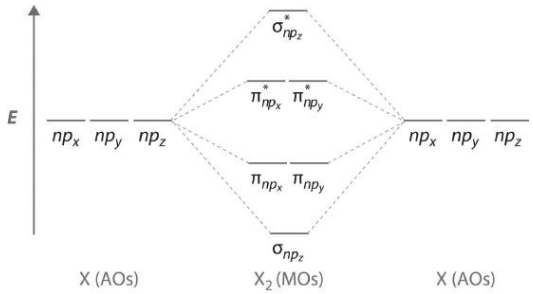


Figure 11.8.7 : The Relative Energies of the σ and π Molecular Orbitals Derived from np_x, np_y, and np_z Orbitals on Identical Adjacent Atoms. Because the two np_z orbitals point directly at each other, their orbital overlap is greater, so the difference in energy between the σ and σ* molecular orbitals is greater than the energy difference between the π and π* orbitals.

Although many combinations of atomic orbitals form molecular orbitals, we will discuss only one other interaction: an *ns* atomic orbital on one atom with an np_z atomic orbital on another. As shown in Figure 11.8.8, the sum of the two atomic wave functions ($ns + np_z$) produces a σ bonding molecular orbital. Their difference ($ns - np_z$) produces a σ* antibonding molecular orbital, which has a nodal plane of zero probability density perpendicular to the internuclear axis.

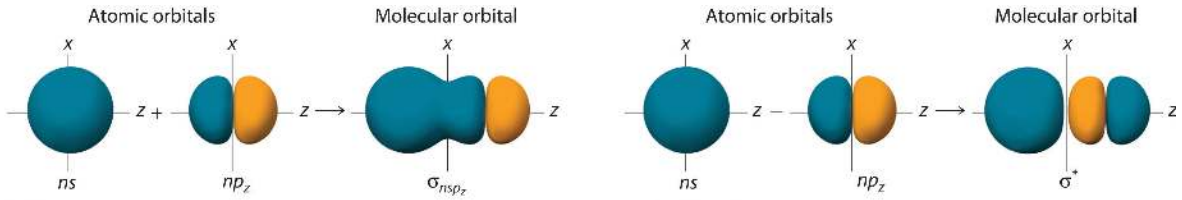


Figure 11.8.8 : Formation of Molecular Orbitals from an *ns* Atomic Orbital on One Atom and an np_z Atomic Orbital on an Adjacent Atom.(a) The mathematical sum results in a σ (bonding) molecular orbital, with increased probability density between the nuclei. (b) The mathematical difference results in a σ* (antibonding) molecular orbital, with a nodal plane of zero probability density perpendicular to the internuclear axis.

Summary

Molecular orbital theory, a delocalized approach to bonding, can often explain a compound's color, why a compound with unpaired electrons is stable, semiconductor behavior, and resonance, none of which can be explained using a localized approach. A **molecular orbital (MO)** is an allowed spatial distribution of electrons in a molecule that is associated with a particular orbital energy. Unlike an atomic orbital (AO), which is centered on a single atom, a molecular orbital extends over all the atoms in a molecule or ion. Hence the **molecular orbital theory** of bonding is a *delocalized* approach. Molecular orbitals are constructed using **linear combinations of atomic orbitals (LCAOs)**, which are usually the mathematical sums and differences of wave functions that describe overlapping atomic orbitals. Atomic orbitals interact to form three types of molecular orbitals.

A completely bonding molecular orbital contains no nodes (regions of zero electron probability) perpendicular to the internuclear axis, whereas a completely **antibonding molecular orbital** contains at least one node perpendicular to the internuclear axis. A **sigma (σ) orbital** (bonding) or a **sigma star (σ*) orbital** (antibonding) is symmetrical about the internuclear axis. Hence all cross-sections perpendicular to that axis are circular. Both a **pi (π) orbital** (bonding) and a **pi star (π*) orbital** (antibonding) possess a nodal plane that contains the nuclei, with electron density localized on both sides of the plane.

The energies of the molecular orbitals versus those of the parent atomic orbitals can be shown schematically in an **energy-level diagram**. The electron configuration of a molecule is shown by placing the correct number of electrons in the appropriate energy-level diagram, starting with the lowest-energy orbital and obeying the Pauli principle; that is, placing only two electrons with opposite spin in each orbital. From the completed energy-level diagram, we can calculate the **bond order**, defined as one-half the net number of bonding electrons. In bond orders, electrons in antibonding molecular orbitals cancel electrons in bonding molecular orbitals, while electrons in nonbonding orbitals have no effect and are not counted. Bond orders of 1, 2, and 3 correspond to single, double, and triple bonds, respectively. Molecules with predicted bond orders of 0 are generally less stable than the isolated atoms and do not normally exist.

Contributors and Attributions

Modified by Joshua Halpern (Howard University)

1. Orbitals or orbital lobes with the same sign interact to give increased electron probability along the plane of the internuclear axis because of *constructive* reinforcement of the wave functions. Consequently, electrons in such molecular orbitals help to hold the positively charged nuclei together. Such orbitals are **bonding molecular orbitals**, and they are always lower in energy than the parent atomic orbitals.
2. Orbitals or orbital lobes with opposite signs interact to give decreased electron probability density between the nuclei because of *destructive* interference of the wave functions. Consequently, electrons in such molecular orbitals are primarily located outside the internuclear region, leading to increased repulsions between the positively charged nuclei. These orbitals are called **antibonding molecular orbitals**, and they are always higher in energy than the parent atomic orbitals.
3. Some atomic orbitals interact only very weakly, and the resulting molecular orbitals give essentially no change in the electron probability density between the nuclei. Hence electrons in such orbitals have no effect on the bonding in a molecule or ion. These orbitals are **nonbonding molecular orbitals**, and they have approximately the same energy as the parent atomic orbitals.

Learning Objectives

- To apply Molecular Orbital Theory to the diatomic homonuclear molecule from the elements in the second period.

If we combine the splitting schemes for the 2s and 2p orbitals, we can predict bond order in all of the diatomic molecules and ions composed of elements in the first complete row of the periodic table. Remember that only the valence orbitals of the atoms need be considered; as we saw in the cases of lithium hydride and dilithium, the inner orbitals remain tightly bound and retain their localized atomic character. We now describe examples of systems involving period 2 homonuclear diatomic molecules, such as N_2, O_2, and F_2.

four key points to remember when drawing molecular orbital diagrams:

1. The number of molecular orbitals produced is the same as the number of atomic orbitals used to create them (the *"law of conservation of orbitals"*).
2. As the overlap between two atomic orbitals increases, the difference in energy between the resulting bonding and antibonding molecular orbitals increases.
3. When two atomic orbitals combine to form a pair of molecular orbitals, the bonding molecular orbital is stabilized about as much as the antibonding molecular orbital is destabilized.
4. The interaction between atomic orbitals is greatest when they have the same energy.

We illustrate how to use these points by constructing a molecular orbital energy-level diagram for F_2. We use the diagram in part (a) in Figure 11.8.1; the n = 1 orbitals (σ_{1s} and σ_{1s}*) are located well below those of the n = 2 level and are not shown. As illustrated in the diagram, the σ_{2s} and σ_{2s}* molecular orbitals are much lower in energy than the molecular orbitals derived from the 2p atomic orbitals because of the large difference in energy between the 2s and 2p atomic orbitals of fluorine. The lowest-energy molecular orbital derived from the three 2p orbitals on each F is σ_{2p_z} and the next most stable are the two degenerate orbitals, π_{2p_x} and π_{2p_y}. For each bonding orbital in the diagram, there is an antibonding orbital, and the antibonding orbital is destabilized by about as much as the corresponding bonding orbital is stabilized. As a result, the $\sigma^{\star}_{2p_z}$ orbital is higher in energy than either of the degenerate $\pi^{\star}_{2p_x}$ and $\pi^{\star}_{2p_y}$ orbitals. We can now fill the orbitals, beginning with the one that is lowest in energy.

Each fluorine has 7 valence electrons, so there are a total of 14 valence electrons in the F_2 molecule. Starting at the lowest energy level, the electrons are placed in the orbitals according to the Pauli principle and Hund's rule. Two electrons each fill the σ_{2s} and σ_{2s}* orbitals, 2 fill the σ_{2p_z} orbital, 4 fill the two degenerate π orbitals, and 4 fill the two degenerate π^* orbitals, for a total of 14 electrons. To determine what type of bonding the molecular orbital approach predicts F_2 to have, we must calculate the bond order. According to our diagram, there are 8 bonding electrons and 6 antibonding electrons, giving a bond order of (8 − 6) ÷ 2 = 1. Thus F_2 is predicted to have a stable F–F single bond, in agreement with experimental data.

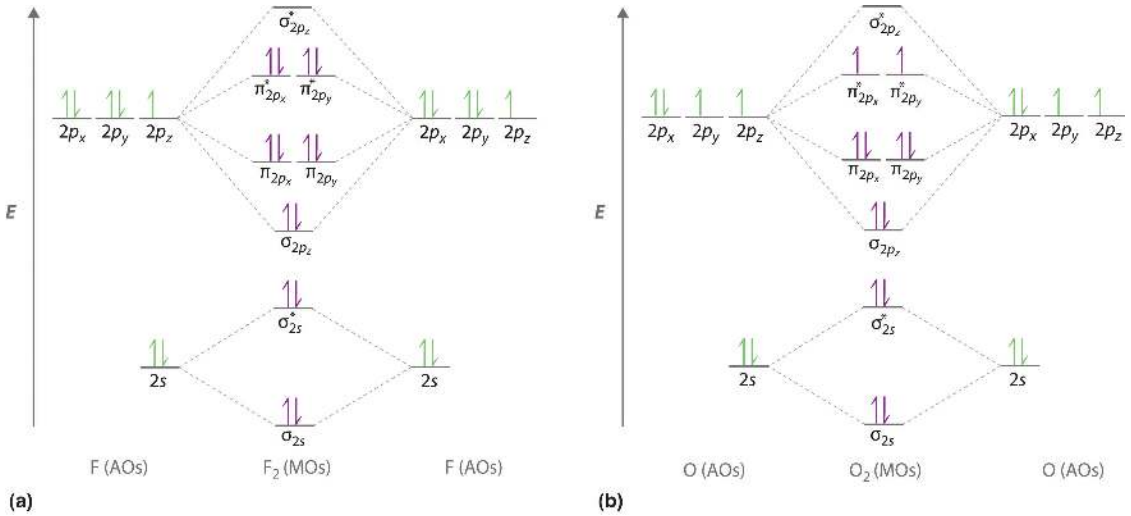


Figure 11.8.1: Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagrams for Homonuclear Diatomic Molecules.(a) For F_2, with 14 valence electrons (7 from each F atom), all of the energy levels except the highest, $\sigma^\star_{2p_z}$ are filled. This diagram shows 8 electrons in bonding orbitals and 6 in antibonding orbitals, resulting in a bond order of 1. (b) For O_2, with 12 valence electrons (6 from each O atom), there are only 2 electrons to place in the $\left(\pi^\star_{np_x}, \pi^\star_{np_y}\right)$ pair of orbitals. Hund's rule dictates that one electron occupies each orbital, and their spins are parallel, giving the O_2 molecule two unpaired electrons. This diagram shows 8 electrons in bonding orbitals and 4 in antibonding orbitals, resulting in a predicted bond order of 2.

We now turn to a molecular orbital description of the bonding in O_2. It so happens that the molecular orbital description of this molecule provided an explanation for a long-standing puzzle that could not be explained using other bonding models. To obtain the molecular orbital energy-level diagram for O_2, we need to place 12 valence electrons (6 from each O atom) in the energy-level diagram shown in part (b) in Figure 11.8.1. We again fill the orbitals according to Hund's rule and the Pauli principle, beginning with the orbital that is lowest in energy. Two electrons each are needed to fill the σ_{2s} and σ_{2s}* orbitals, 2 more to fill the σ_{2p_z} orbital, and 4 to fill the degenerate $\pi^\star_{2p_x}$ and $\pi^\star_{2p_y}$ orbitals. According to Hund's rule, the last 2 electrons must be placed in separate π^* orbitals with their spins parallel, giving two unpaired electrons. This leads to a predicted bond order of $(8 - 4) \div 2 = 2$, which corresponds to a double bond, in agreement with experimental data (Table 4.5): the O–O bond length is 120.7 pm, and the bond energy is 498.4 kJ/mol at 298 K.

None of the other bonding models can predict the presence of two unpaired electrons in O_2. Chemists had long wondered why, unlike most other substances, liquid O_2 is attracted into a magnetic field. As shown in Figure 11.8.2, it actually remains suspended between the poles of a magnet until the liquid boils away. The only way to explain this behavior was for O_2 to have unpaired electrons, making it paramagnetic, exactly as predicted by molecular orbital theory. This result was one of the earliest triumphs of molecular orbital theory over the other bonding approaches we have discussed.



Figure 11.8.2: Liquid O_2 Suspended between the Poles of a Magnet.Because the O_2 molecule has two unpaired electrons, it is paramagnetic. Consequently, it is attracted into a magnetic field, which allows it to remain suspended between the poles of a powerful magnet until it evaporates. Full video can be found at www.youtube.com/watch?featur...&v=Lt4P6ctf06Q.

The magnetic properties of O_2 are not just a laboratory curiosity; they are absolutely crucial to the existence of life. Because Earth's atmosphere contains 20% oxygen, all organic compounds, including those that compose our body tissues, should react rapidly with air to form H_2O, CO_2, and N_2 in an exothermic reaction. Fortunately for us, however, this reaction is very, very slow. The reason for the unexpected stability of organic compounds in an oxygen atmosphere is that virtually all organic compounds, as well as H_2O, CO_2, and N_2, have only paired electrons, whereas oxygen has two unpaired electrons. Thus the reaction of O_2 with organic compounds to give H_2O, CO_2, and N_2 would require that at least one of the electrons on O_2 change its spin during the reaction. This would require a large input of energy, an obstacle that chemists call a *spin barrier*. Consequently, reactions of this type are usually exceedingly slow. If they were not so slow, all organic substances, including this book and you, would disappear in a puff of smoke!

For period 2 diatomic molecules to the left of N_2 in the periodic table, a slightly different molecular orbital energy-level diagram is needed because the σ_{2p_z} molecular orbital is slightly *higher* in energy than the degenerate $\pi^*_{np_x}$ and $\pi^*_{np_y}$ orbitals. The difference in energy between the 2*s* and 2*p* atomic orbitals increases from Li_2 to F_2 due to increasing nuclear charge and poor screening of the 2*s* electrons by electrons in the 2*p* subshell. The bonding interaction between the 2*s* orbital on one atom and the 2*pz* orbital on the other is most important when the two orbitals have similar energies. This interaction decreases the energy of the σ_{2s} orbital and increases the energy of the σ_{2p_z} orbital. Thus for Li_2, Be_2, B_2, C_2, and N_2, the σ_{2p_z} orbital is higher in energy than the σ_{3p_z} orbitals, as shown in Figure 11.8.3 Experimentally, it is found that the energy gap between the *ns* and *np* atomic orbitals *increases* as the nuclear charge increases (Figure 11.8.3). Thus for example, the σ_{2p_z} molecular orbital is at a lower energy than the $\pi_{2p_{x,y}}$ pair.

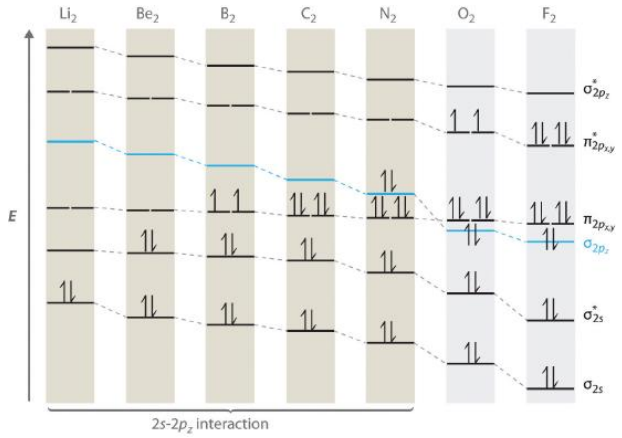


Figure 11.8.3: Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagrams for the Diatomic Molecules of the Period 2 Elements. Unlike earlier diagrams, only the molecular orbital energy levels for the molecules are shown here. For simplicity, the atomic orbital energy levels for the component *atoms* have been omitted. For Li_2 through N_2, the σ_{2p_z} orbital is higher in energy than the $\pi_{2p_{x,y}}$ orbitals. In contrast, the σ_{2p_z} orbital is *lower* in energy than the $\pi_{2p_{x,y}}$ orbitals for O_2 and F_2 due to the increase in the energy difference between the 2*s* and 2*p* atomic orbitals as the nuclear charge increases across the row.

Completing the diagram for N_2 in the same manner as demonstrated previously, we find that the 10 valence electrons result in 8 bonding electrons and 2 antibonding electrons, for a predicted bond order of 3, a triple bond. Experimental data show that the N–N bond is significantly shorter than the F–F bond (109.8 pm in N_2 versus 141.2 pm in F_2), and the bond energy is much greater for N_2 than for F_2 (945.3 kJ/mol versus 158.8 kJ/mol, respectively). Thus the N_2 bond is much shorter and stronger than the F_2 bond, consistent with what we would expect when comparing a triple bond with a single bond.

✔ Example 11.8.3: Diatomic Sulfur

Use a qualitative molecular orbital energy-level diagram to predict the electron configuration, the bond order, and the number of unpaired electrons in S_2, a bright blue gas at high temperatures.

Given: chemical species

Asked for: molecular orbital energy-level diagram, bond order, and number of unpaired electrons

Strategy:

A. Write the valence electron configuration of sulfur and determine the type of molecular orbitals formed in S_2. Predict the relative energies of the molecular orbitals based on how close in energy the valence atomic orbitals are to one another.

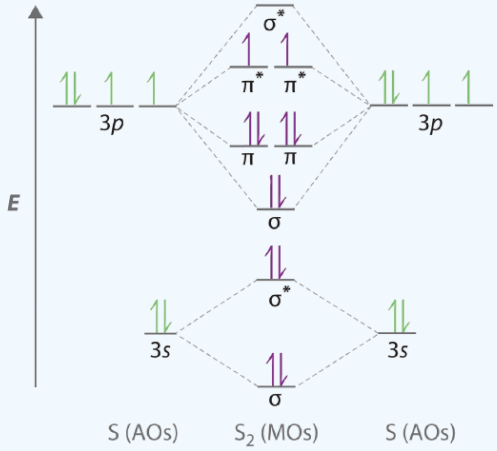
B. Draw the molecular orbital energy-level diagram for this system and determine the total number of valence electrons in S_2.

C. Fill the molecular orbitals in order of increasing energy, being sure to obey the Pauli principle and Hund's rule.
D. Calculate the bond order and describe the bonding.

Solution:

A Sulfur has a [Ne]$3s^2 3p^4$ valence electron configuration. To create a molecular orbital energy-level diagram similar to those in Figure 11.8.1 and Figure 11.8.3, we need to know how close in energy the 3*s* and 3*p* atomic orbitals are because their energy separation will determine whether the $\pi_{3p_{x,y}}$ or the σ_{3p_z}> molecular orbital is higher in energy. Because the *ns*–*np* energy gap *increases* as the nuclear charge increases (Figure 11.8.3), the σ_{3p_z} molecular orbital will be lower in energy than the $\pi_{3p_{x,y}}$ pair.

B The molecular orbital energy-level diagram is as follows:



Two filled sigma orbitals, one filled sigma * orbital, two filled pi orbitals, and two pi * orbitals with one unpaired electron.

Each sulfur atom contributes 6 valence electrons, for a total of 12 valence electrons.

C Ten valence electrons are used to fill the orbitals through π_{3p_x} and π_{3p_y}, leaving 2 electrons to occupy the degenerate $\pi^{\star}_{3p_x}$ and $\pi^{\star}_{3p_y}$ pair. From Hund's rule, the remaining 2 electrons must occupy these orbitals separately with their spins aligned. With the numbers of electrons written as superscripts, the electron configuration of S_2 is $(\sigma_{3s})^2(\sigma^{\star}_{3s})^2(\sigma_{3p_z})^2(\pi_{3p_{x,y}})^4(\pi_{3p^{\star}_{x,y}})^2$ with 2 unpaired electrons. The bond order is (8 − 4) ÷ 2 = 2, so we predict an S=S double bond.

? Exercise 11.8.3: The Peroxide Ion

Use a qualitative molecular orbital energy-level diagram to predict the electron configuration, the bond order, and the number of unpaired electrons in the peroxide ion (O_2^{2-}).

Answer

$(\sigma_{2s})^2(\sigma^{\star}_{2s})^2(\sigma_{2p_z})^2\left(\pi_{2p_{x,y}}\right)^4(\pi_{2p^{\star}_{x,y}})^4$ bond order of 1; no unpaired electrons

Molecular Orbitals for Heteronuclear Diatomic Molecules

Diatomic molecules with two different atoms are called heteronuclear diatomic molecules. When two nonidentical atoms interact to form a chemical bond, the interacting atomic orbitals do not have the same energy. If, for example, element B is more electronegative than element A ($\chi_B > \chi_A$), the net result is a "skewed" molecular orbital energy-level diagram, such as the one shown for a hypothetical A–B molecule in Figure 11.8.4. The atomic orbitals of element B are uniformly lower in energy than the corresponding atomic orbitals of element A because of the enhanced stability of the electrons in element B. The molecular orbitals are no longer symmetrical, and the energies of the bonding molecular orbitals are more similar to those of the atomic orbitals of B. Hence the electron density of bonding electrons is likely to be closer to the more electronegative atom. In this way, molecular orbital theory can describe a polar covalent bond.

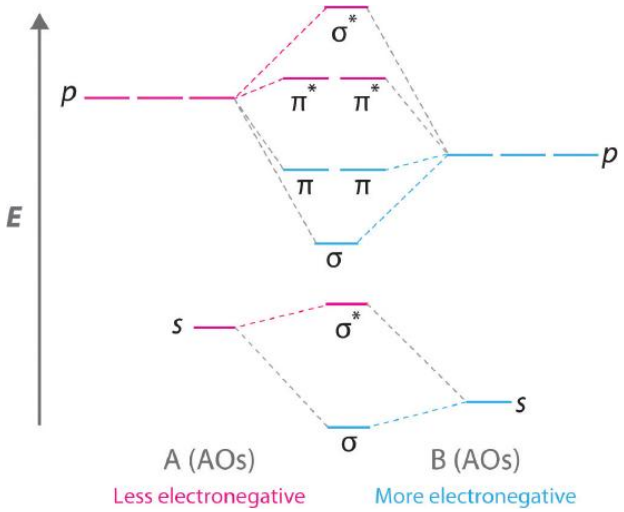


Figure 11.8.4: Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagram for a Heteronuclear Diatomic Molecule AB, Where $\chi_B > \chi_A$. The bonding molecular orbitals are closer in energy to the atomic orbitals of the more electronegative B atom. Consequently, the electrons in the bonding orbitals are not shared equally between the two atoms. On average, they are closer to the B atom, resulting in a polar covalent bond.

> *A molecular orbital energy-level diagram is always skewed toward the more electronegative atom.*

An Odd Number of Valence Electrons: NO

Nitric oxide (NO) is an example of a heteronuclear diatomic molecule. The reaction of O_2 with N_2 at high temperatures in internal combustion engines forms nitric oxide, which undergoes a complex reaction with O_2 to produce NO_2, which in turn is responsible for the brown color we associate with air pollution. Recently, however, nitric oxide has also been recognized to be a vital biological messenger involved in regulating blood pressure and long-term memory in mammals.

Because NO has an odd number of valence electrons (5 from nitrogen and 6 from oxygen, for a total of 11), its bonding and properties cannot be successfully explained by either the Lewis electron-pair approach or valence bond theory. The molecular orbital energy-level diagram for NO (Figure 11.8.13) shows that the general pattern is similar to that for the O_2 molecule (Figure 11.8.11). Because 10 electrons are sufficient to fill all the bonding molecular orbitals derived from 2*p* atomic orbitals, the 11th electron must occupy one of the degenerate π^* orbitals. The predicted bond order for NO is therefore (8-3) ÷ 2 = 2 1/2 . Experimental data, showing an N–O bond length of 115 pm and N–O bond energy of 631 kJ/mol, are consistent with this description. These values lie between those of the N_2 and O_2 molecules, which have triple and double bonds, respectively. As we stated earlier, molecular orbital theory can therefore explain the bonding in molecules with an odd number of electrons, such as NO, whereas Lewis electron structures cannot.

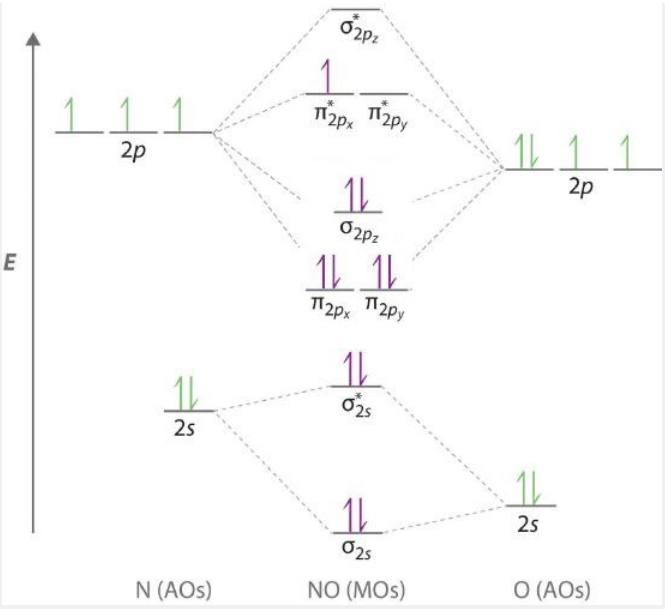


Figure 11.8.13: Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagram for NO. Because NO has 11 valence electrons, it is paramagnetic, with a single electron occupying the $\left(\pi^{\star}_{2p_x},\ \pi^{\star}_{2p_y}\right)$ pair of orbitals.

Note that electronic structure studies show the ground state configuration of NO to be $(\sigma_{2s})^2\left(\sigma^{\star}_{2s}\right)^2\left(\pi_{2p_{x,y}}\right)^4\left(\sigma_{2p_z}\right)^2\left(\pi_{2p^{\star}_{x,y}}\right)^1$ in order of increasing energy. Hence, the $\pi_{2p_{x,y}}$ orbitals are lower in energy than the σ_{2p_z} orbital. This is because the NO molecule is near the transition of flipping energies levels observed in homonuclear diatomics where the sigma bond drops below the pi bond (Figure 11.8.11).

Molecular orbital theory can also tell us something about the *chemistry* of NO. As indicated in the energy-level diagram in Figure 11.8.13, NO has a single electron in a relatively high-energy molecular orbital. We might therefore expect it to have similar reactivity as alkali metals such as Li and Na with their single valence electrons. In fact, NO is easily oxidized to the NO^{+} cation, which is isoelectronic with N_2 and has a bond order of 3, corresponding to an N≡O triple bond.

Nonbonding Molecular Orbitals

Molecular orbital theory is also able to explain the presence of lone pairs of electrons. Consider, for example, the HCl molecule, whose Lewis electron structure has three lone pairs of electrons on the chlorine atom. Using the molecular orbital approach to describe the bonding in HCl, we can see from Figure 11.8.6 that the 1*s* orbital of atomic hydrogen is closest in energy to the 3*p* orbitals of chlorine. Consequently, the filled Cl 3*s* atomic orbital is not involved in bonding to any appreciable extent, and the only important interactions are those between the H 1*s* and Cl 3*p* orbitals. Of the three *p* orbitals, only one, designated as $3p_z$, can interact with the H 1*s* orbital. The $3p_x$ and $3p_y$ atomic orbitals have no net overlap with the 1*s* orbital on hydrogen, so they are not involved in bonding. Because the energies of the Cl 3*s*, $3p_x$, and $3p_y$ orbitals do not change when HCl forms, they are called **nonbonding molecular orbitals**. A nonbonding molecular orbital occupied by a pair of electrons is the molecular orbital equivalent of a lone pair of electrons. By definition, electrons in nonbonding orbitals have no effect on bond order, so they are not counted in the calculation of bond order. Thus the predicted bond order of HCl is (2 − 0) ÷ 2 = 1. Because the σ bonding molecular orbital is closer in energy to the Cl $3p_z$ than to the H 1*s* atomic orbital, the electrons in the σ orbital are concentrated closer to the chlorine atom than to hydrogen. A molecular orbital approach to bonding can therefore be used to describe the polarization of the H–Cl bond to give $H^{\delta+}--Cl^{\delta-}$.

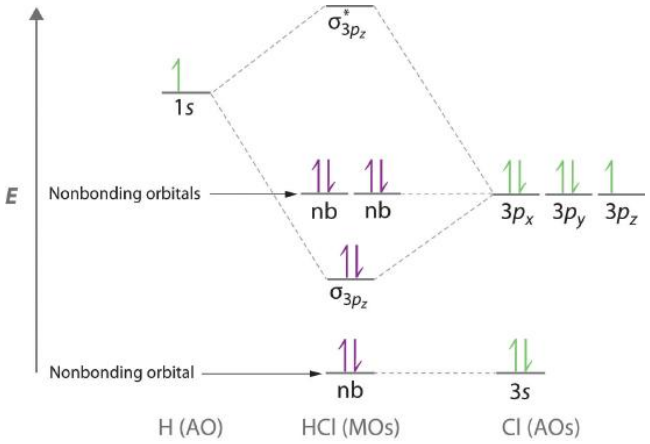


Figure 11.8.6: Molecular Orbital Energy-Level Diagram for HCl. The hydrogen 1*s* atomic orbital interacts most strongly with the 3p_z orbital on chlorine, producing a bonding/antibonding pair of molecular orbitals. The other electrons on Cl are best viewed as nonbonding. As a result, only the bonding σ orbital is occupied by electrons, giving a bond order of 1.

> *Electrons in nonbonding molecular orbitals have no effect on bond order.*

Example 11.8.4: The Cyanide Ion

Use a "skewed" molecular orbital energy-level diagram like the one in Figure 11.8.4 to describe the bonding in the cyanide ion (CN^-). What is the bond order?

Given: chemical species

Asked for: "skewed" molecular orbital energy-level diagram, bonding description, and bond order

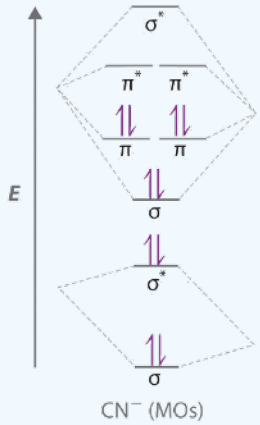
Strategy:

A. Calculate the total number of valence electrons in CN^-. Then place these electrons in a molecular orbital energy-level diagram like Figure 11.8.4 in order of increasing energy. Be sure to obey the Pauli principle and Hund's rule while doing so.

B. Calculate the bond order and describe the bonding in CN^-.

Solution:

A The CN^- ion has a total of 10 valence electrons: 4 from C, 5 from N, and 1 for the −1 charge. Placing these electrons in an energy-level diagram like Figure 11.8.4 fills the five lowest-energy orbitals, as shown here:



Because $\chi_N > \chi_C$, the atomic orbitals of N (on the right) are lower in energy than those of C.

B The resulting valence electron configuration gives a predicted bond order of (8 − 2) ÷ 2 = 3, indicating that the CN^- ion has a triple bond, analogous to that in N_2.

Exercise 11.8.4: The Hypochlorite Ion

Use a qualitative molecular orbital energy-level diagram to describe the bonding in the hypochlorite ion (OCl^-). What is the bond order?

Answer

All molecular orbitals except the highest-energy σ* are filled, giving a bond order of 1.

Although the molecular orbital approach reveals a great deal about the bonding in a given molecule, the procedure quickly becomes computationally intensive for molecules of even moderate complexity. Furthermore, because the computed molecular orbitals extend over the entire molecule, they are often difficult to represent in a way that is easy to visualize. Therefore we do not use a pure molecular orbital approach to describe the bonding in molecules or ions with more than two atoms. Instead, we use a valence bond approach and a molecular orbital approach to explain, among other things, the concept of resonance, which cannot adequately be explained using other methods.



Summary

Molecular orbital energy-level diagrams for diatomic molecules can be created if the electron configuration of the parent atoms is known, following a few simple rules. Most important, the number of molecular orbitals in a molecule is the same as the number of atomic orbitals that interact. The difference between bonding and antibonding molecular orbital combinations is proportional to the overlap of the parent orbitals and decreases as the energy difference between the parent atomic orbitals increases. With such an approach, the electronic structures of virtually all commonly encountered **homonuclear diatomic molecules**, molecules with two identical atoms, can be understood. The molecular orbital approach correctly predicts that the O_2 molecule has two unpaired electrons and hence is attracted into a magnetic field. In contrast, most substances have only paired electrons. A similar procedure can be applied to molecules with two dissimilar atoms, called **heteronuclear diatomic molecules**, using a molecular orbital energy-level diagram that is skewed or tilted toward the more electronegative element. Molecular orbital theory is able to describe the bonding in a molecule with an odd number of electrons such as NO and even to predict something about its chemistry.

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CHAPTER OVERVIEW

12: Liquids, Solids, and Intermolecular Forces

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- 12.2: Solids, Liquids, and Gases- A Molecular Comparison
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12.1: Water in Zero Gravity

Here on Earth, we all live in a state of gravity. Not only us, but everything around us, including water, is being pulled towards the center of the planet by gravity. True, it is nice that our dogs don't float off into space, but when a child drops their ice cream (which is full of water, by the way) they don't have to know about gravity to be upset.



***Floating Water in Zero Gravity**: Once again, astronauts on the International Space Station dissolved an effervescent tablet in a floating ball of water, and captured images using a camera capable of recording four times the resolution of normal high-definition cameras. The higher resolution images and higher frame rate videos can reveal more information when used on science investigations, giving researchers a valuable new tool aboard the space station. This footage is one of the first of its kind. The cameras are being evaluated for capturing science data and vehicle operations by engineers at NASA's Marshall Space Flight Center in Huntsville, Alabama.*

If you go far enough out in space, for instance, onto the International Space Station, gravity becomes negligible, and the laws of physics act differently than here on Earth. Just how might water act in a place of zero gravity? This video above from NASA gives you a good idea of how different water behaves when the effects if gravity are counteracted.

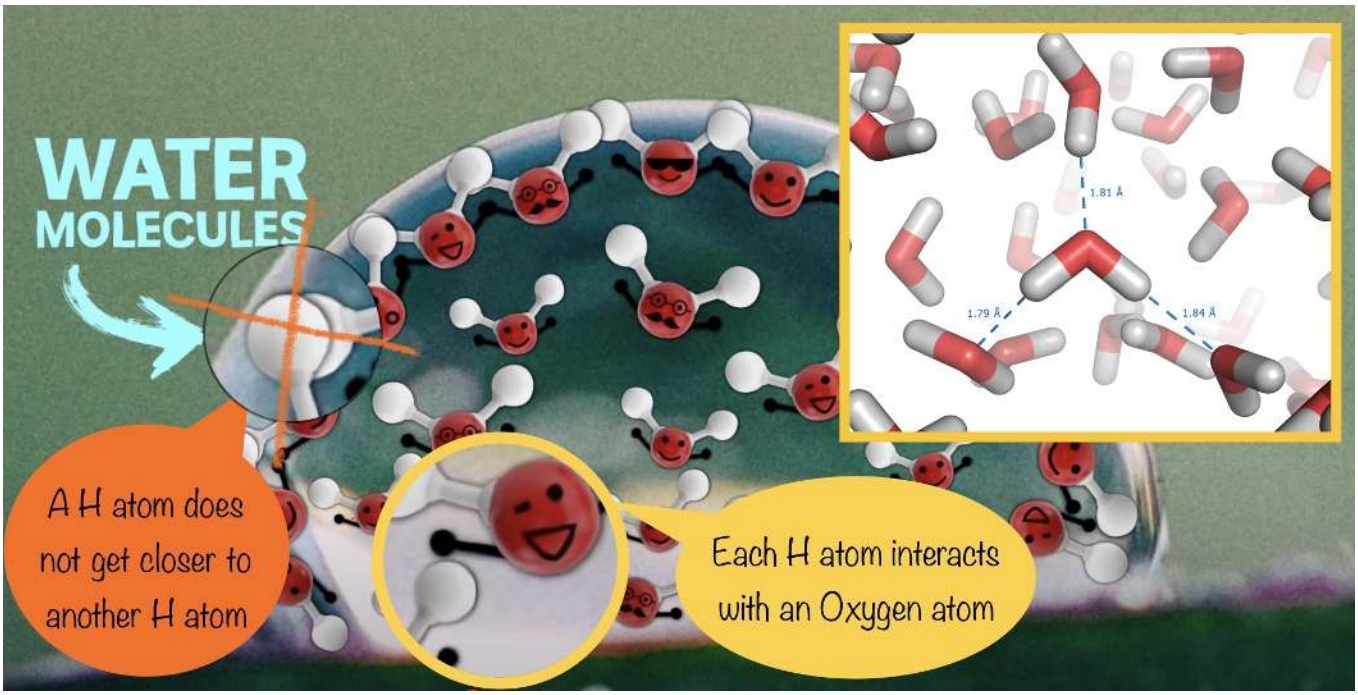
Actually, on the International Space Station, there is plenty of gravity—according to NASA scientists, the pull of Earth's gravity on the space station and its occupants is substantial: about 90 percent of the force at the Earth's surface. But since the space station is continuously falling around our planet, the astronauts and objects on board are in a kind of free-fall, too, and feel nearly weightless. Water on the space station behaves as if in a zero-gravity environment.

This unique picture shows not only a water drop but also an air bubble inside of the water drop. Notice they both behave the same....according to the laws of physics in space. They both form spheres. This makes sense, as, without gravity to tug downward, the forces governing the objects are all the same. So, the water drop (and air bubble) form themselves so they occupy a shape having the least amount of surface area, which is a sphere. On Earth, gravity distorts the shape, but not in space.

Consider what would happen on Earth: The air bubble, lighter than water, would race upward to burst through the surface of the droplet. In space, the air bubble doesn't rise because it is no lighter than the water around it—there's no buoyancy. The droplet doesn't fall from the leaf because there's no force to pull it off. It's stuck there by molecular adhesion.

Sticky water. No buoyancy. These are some of the factors space-farers must take into account when they plan their space gardens. If water is sprayed onto the base of the plant will it trickle down to the roots? More likely it will stick to the stem or adhere to the material in which the plant grows. As humans spend more time and go farther out in space in the future, the physics of "space water" will need to be well understood.

Only one detail in the video is not totally accurate, Hydrogen atoms in the molecule of water, feel attraction for the oxygen atom, this is related to the effect of the electronegativity over the bond H-O leaving H feeling positive. More about this in the following sections



Reference

- The Physics of Space Gardens, NASA.

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12.2: Solids, Liquids, and Gases- A Molecular Comparison

Learning Objectives

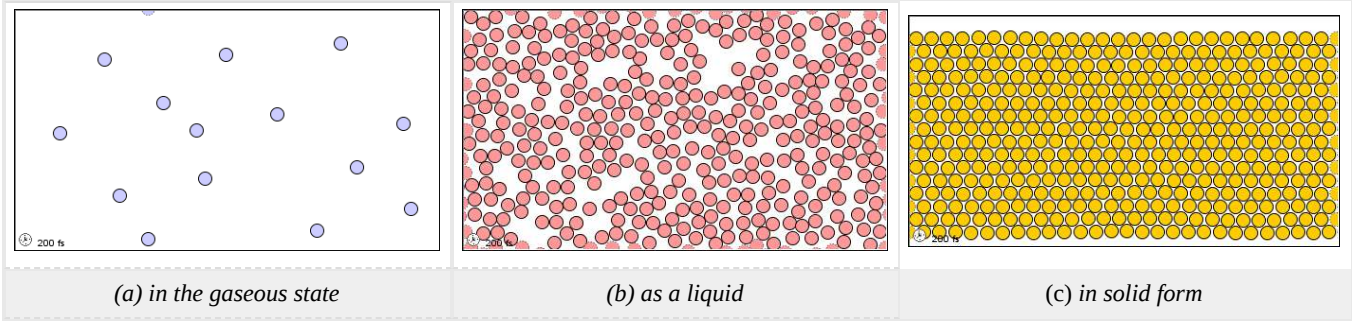
- To be familiar with the kinetic molecular description of liquids.

The *physical* properties of a substance depends upon its physical state. Water vapor, liquid water, and ice all have the same *chemical* properties, but their *physical* properties are considerably different. In general *covalent bonds* determine: molecular shape, bond energies, *chemical* properties, while *intermolecular forces* (non-covalent bonds) influence the *physical* properties of liquids and solids. The kinetic molecular theory of gases gives a reasonably accurate description of the behavior of gases. A similar model can be applied to liquids, but it must take into account the nonzero volumes of particles and the presence of strong intermolecular attractive forces.



Figure 12.2.1: The three common states of matter. From the left, they are solid, liquid, and gas, represented by an ice sculpture, a drop of water, and the air around clouds, respectively. Images used with permission from Wikipedia.

The *state* of a substance depends on the balance between the *kinetic energy* of the individual particles (molecules or atoms) and the *intermolecular forces*. The kinetic energy keeps the molecules apart and moving around, and is a function of the temperature of the substance. The intermolecular forces are attractive forces that try to draw the particles together (Figure 12.2.2). A discussed previously, gasses are very sensitive to temperatures and pressure. However, these also affect liquids and solids too. Heating and cooling can change the *kinetic energy* of the particles in a substance, and so, we can change the physical state of a substance by heating or cooling it. Increasing the pressure on a substance forces the molecules closer together, which *increases* the strength of intermolecular forces.



(a) in the gaseous state | *(b) as a liquid* | (c) *in solid form*

Figure 12.2.2: Molecular level picture of gases, liquids and solids.

Below is an overview of the general properties of the three different phases of matter.

Properties of Gases

- A collection of widely separated molecules
- The kinetic energy of the molecules is greater than any attractive forces between the molecules
- The lack of any significant attractive force between molecules allows a gas to expand to fill its container
- If attractive forces become large enough, then the gases exhibit non-ideal behavior

Properties of Liquids

- The intermolecular attractive forces are strong enough to hold molecules close together
- Liquids are more dense and less compressible than gasses
- Liquids have a definite volume, independent of the size and shape of their container

- The attractive forces are ***not*** strong enough, however, to keep neighboring molecules in a fixed position and molecules are free to move past or slide over one another

> *Thus, liquids can be poured and assume the shape of their containers.*

Properties of Solids

- The intermolecular forces between neighboring molecules are strong enough to keep them locked in position
- Solids (like liquids) are not very compressible due to the lack of space between molecules
- If the molecules in a solid adopt a highly ordered packing arrangement, the structures are said to be ***crystalline***

> *Due to the strong intermolecular forces between neighboring molecules, solids are rigid.*

- Cooling a gas may change the state to a liquid
- Cooling a liquid may change the state to a solid
- Increasing the pressure on a gas may change the state to a liquid
- Increasing the pressure on a liquid may change the state to a solid



Video 12.2.1: Video highlighting the properties for the three states of matter. Source found at www.youtube.com/watch?v=bMbmQzV-Ezs.

Physical Properties of Liquids

In a gas, the distance between molecules, whether monatomic or polyatomic, is very large compared with the size of the molecules; thus gases have a low density and are highly compressible. In contrast, the molecules in liquids are very close together, with essentially no empty space between them. As in gases, however, the molecules in liquids are in constant motion, and their kinetic energy (and hence their speed) depends on their temperature. We begin our discussion by examining some of the characteristic properties of liquids to see how each is consistent with a modified kinetic molecular description.

The properties of liquids can be explained using a modified version of the kinetic molecular theory of gases described previously. This model explains the higher density, greater order, and lower compressibility of liquids versus gases; the thermal expansion of liquids; why they diffuse; and why they adopt the shape (but not the volume) of their containers. A kinetic molecular description of liquids must take into account both the nonzero volumes of particles and the presence of strong intermolecular attractive forces. Solids and liquids have particles that are fairly close to one another, and are thus called "**condensed phases**" to distinguish them from gases

- **Density**: The molecules of a liquid are packed relatively close together. Consequently, liquids are much denser than gases. The density of a liquid is typically about the same as the density of the solid state of the substance. Densities of liquids are therefore more commonly measured in units of grams per cubic centimeter (g/cm^3) or grams per milliliter (g/mL) than in grams per liter (g/L), the unit commonly used for gases.
- **Molecular Order:** Liquids exhibit short-range order because strong intermolecular attractive forces cause the molecules to pack together rather tightly. Because of their higher kinetic energy compared to the molecules in a solid, however, the molecules in a liquid move rapidly with respect to one another. Thus unlike the ions in the ionic solids, the molecules in liquids are not

arranged in a repeating three-dimensional array. Unlike the molecules in gases, however, the arrangement of the molecules in a liquid is not completely random.

- **Compressibility**: Liquids have so little empty space between their component molecules that they cannot be readily compressed. Compression would force the atoms on adjacent molecules to occupy the same region of space.
- **Thermal Expansion**: The intermolecular forces in liquids are strong enough to keep them from expanding significantly when heated (typically only a few percent over a 100°C temperature range). Thus the volumes of liquids are somewhat fixed. Notice from Table S1 (with a shorten version in Table 12.2.1) that the density of water, for example, changes by only about 3% over a 90-degree temperature range.

Table 12.2.1: The Density of Water at Various Temperatures

T (°C)	Density (g/cm^3)
0	0.99984
30	0.99565
60	0.98320
90	0.96535

- **Diffusion**: Molecules in liquids diffuse because they are in constant motion. A molecule in a liquid cannot move far before colliding with another molecule, however, so the mean free path in liquids is very short, and the rate of diffusion is much slower than in gases.
- **Fluidity**: Liquids can flow, adjusting to the shape of their containers, because their molecules are free to move. This freedom of motion and their close spacing allow the molecules in a liquid to move rapidly into the openings left by other molecules, in turn generating more openings, and so forth (Figure 12.2.3).

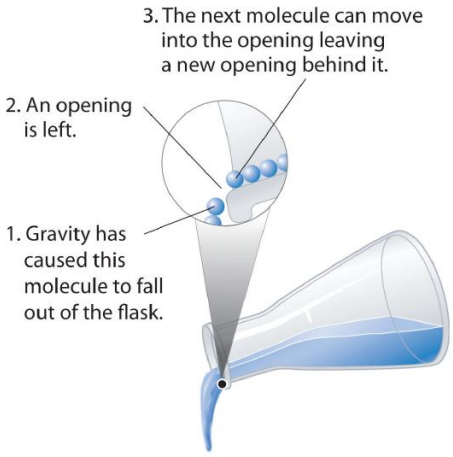


Figure 12.2.3: Why Liquids Flow. Molecules in a liquid are in constant motion. Consequently, when the flask is tilted, molecules move to the left and down due to the force of gravity, and the openings are occupied by other molecules. The result is a net flow of liquid out of the container. (CC BY-SA-NC; Anonymous vy request).

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12.3: Intermolecular Forces- The Forces that Hold Condensed Phases Together

Learning Objectives

- To describe the intermolecular forces in liquids.

The properties of liquids are intermediate between those of gases and solids, but are more similar to solids. In contrast to *intra*molecular forces, such as the covalent bonds that hold atoms together in molecules and polyatomic ions, *inter*molecular forces hold molecules together in a liquid or solid. Intermolecular forces are generally much weaker than covalent bonds. For example, it requires 927 kJ to overcome the intramolecular forces and break both O–H bonds in 1 mol of water, but it takes only about 41 kJ to overcome the intermolecular attractions and convert 1 mol of liquid water to water vapor at 100°C. (Despite this seemingly low value, the intermolecular forces in liquid water are among the strongest such forces known!) Given the large difference in the strengths of intra- and intermolecular forces, changes between the solid, liquid, and gaseous states almost invariably occur for molecular substances *without breaking covalent bonds*.

> *The properties of liquids are intermediate between those of gases and solids, but are more similar to solids.*

Intermolecular forces determine bulk properties, such as the melting points of solids and the boiling points of liquids. Liquids boil when the molecules have enough thermal energy to overcome the intermolecular attractive forces that hold them together, thereby forming bubbles of vapor within the liquid. Similarly, solids melt when the molecules acquire enough thermal energy to overcome the intermolecular forces that lock them into place in the solid.

Intermolecular forces are electrostatic in nature; that is, they arise from the interaction between positively and negatively charged species. Like covalent and ionic bonds, intermolecular interactions are the sum of both attractive and repulsive components. Because electrostatic interactions fall off rapidly with increasing distance between molecules, intermolecular interactions are most important for solids and liquids, where the molecules are close together. These interactions become important for gases only at very high pressures, where they are responsible for the observed deviations from the ideal gas law at high pressures.

In this section, we explicitly consider three kinds of intermolecular interactions. There are two additional types of electrostatic interaction that you are already familiar with: the ion–ion interactions that are responsible for ionic bonding, and the ion–dipole interactions that occur when ionic substances dissolve in a polar substance such as water. The first two are often described collectively as van der Waals forces.

Dipole–Dipole Interactions

Polar covalent bonds behave as if the bonded atoms have localized fractional charges that are equal but opposite (i.e., the two bonded atoms generate a *dipole*). If the structure of a molecule is such that the individual bond dipoles do not cancel one another, then the molecule has a net dipole moment. Molecules with net dipole moments tend to align themselves so that the positive end of one dipole is near the negative end of another and vice versa, as shown in Figure $12.3.1a$.

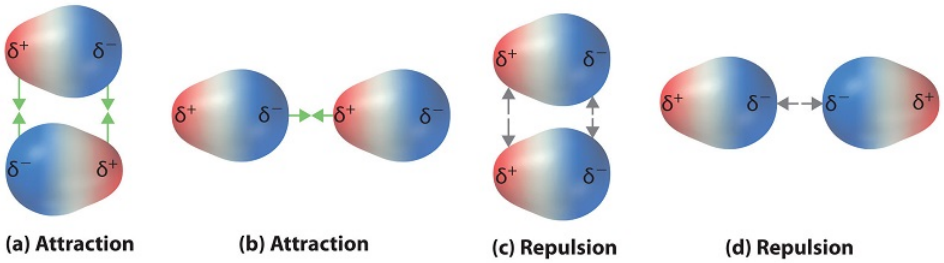


Figure 12.3.1: Attractive and Repulsive Dipole–Dipole Interactions. (a and b) Molecular orientations in which the positive end of one dipole (δ^+) is near the negative end of another (δ^-) (and vice versa) produce attractive interactions. (c and d) Molecular orientations that juxtapose the positive or negative ends of the dipoles on adjacent molecules produce repulsive interactions. (CC BY-SA-NC; anonymous)

These arrangements are more stable than arrangements in which two positive or two negative ends are adjacent (Figure $12.3.1c$). Hence dipole–dipole interactions, such as those in Figure $12.3.1b$, are *attractive intermolecular interactions*, whereas those in Figure $12.3.1d$ are *repulsive intermolecular interactions*. Because molecules in a liquid move freely and continuously, molecules

always experience both attractive and repulsive dipole–dipole interactions simultaneously, as shown in Figure 12.3.2 On average, however, the attractive interactions dominate.

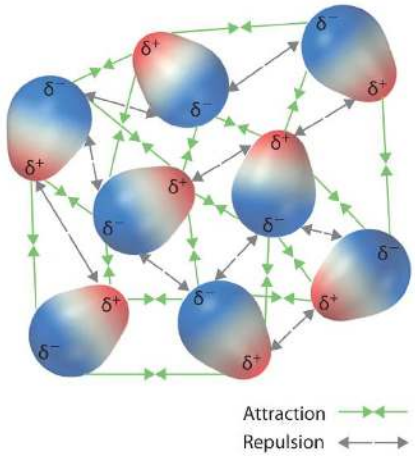


Figure 12.3.2: Both attractive and repulsive dipole–dipole interactions occur in a liquid sample with many molecules. (CC BY-SA-NC; anonymous)

The green arrows pointing towards each other represent attraction. The gray arrows pointing away from each other represent repulsion

Because each end of a dipole possesses only a fraction of the charge of an electron, dipole–dipole interactions are substantially weaker than the interactions between two ions, each of which has a charge of at least ±1, or between a dipole and an ion, in which one of the species has at least a full positive or negative charge. In addition, the attractive interaction between dipoles falls off much more rapidly with increasing distance than do the ion–ion interactions. Recall that the attractive energy between two ions is proportional to $1/r$, where r is the distance between the ions. Doubling the distance ($r \rightarrow 2r$) decreases the attractive energy by one-half. In contrast, the energy of the interaction of two dipoles is proportional to $1/r^3$, so doubling the distance between the dipoles decreases the strength of the interaction by 2^3, or 8-fold. Thus a substance such as HCl, which is partially held together by dipole–dipole interactions, is a gas at room temperature and 1 atm pressure. Conversely, NaCl, which is held together by interionic interactions, is a high-melting-point solid. Within a series of compounds of similar molar mass, the strength of the intermolecular interactions increases as the dipole moment of the molecules increases, as shown in Table 12.3.1.

Table 12.3.1: Relationships Between the Dipole Moment and the Boiling Point for Organic Compounds of Similar Molar Mass

Compound	Molar Mass (g/mol)	Dipole Moment (D)	Boiling Point (K)
C_3H_6 (cyclopropane)	42	0	240
CH_3OCH_3 (dimethyl ether)	46	1.30	248
CH_3CN (acetonitrile)	41	3.9	355

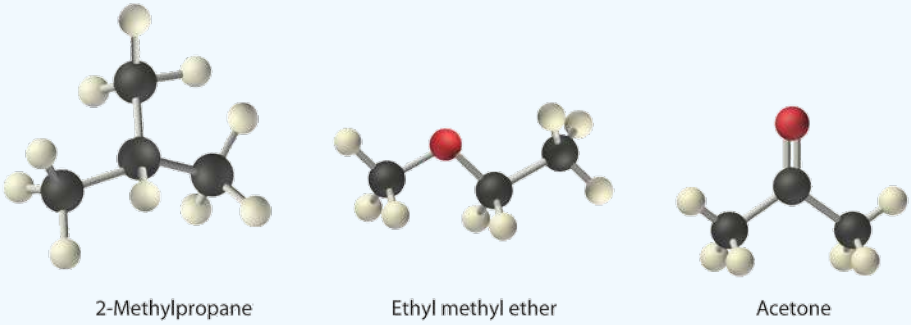
> *The attractive energy between two ions is proportional to 1/r, whereas the attractive energy between two dipoles is proportional to 1/r6.*



Video Discussing Dipole Intermolecular Forces. Source: Dipole Intermolecular Force, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Example 12.3.1

Arrange ethyl methyl ether ($CH_3OCH_2CH_3$), 2-methylpropane [isobutane, $(CH_3)_2CHCH_3$], and acetone (CH_3COCH_3) in order of increasing boiling points. Their structures are as follows:



Given: compounds.

Asked for: order of increasing boiling points.

Strategy:

Compare the molar masses and the polarities of the compounds. Compounds with higher molar masses and that are polar will have the highest boiling points.

Solution:

The three compounds have essentially the same molar mass (58–60 g/mol), so we must look at differences in polarity to predict the strength of the intermolecular dipole–dipole interactions and thus the boiling points of the compounds.

The first compound, 2-methylpropane, contains only C–H bonds, which are not very polar because C and H have similar electronegativities. It should therefore have a very small (but nonzero) dipole moment and a very low boiling point.

Ethyl methyl ether has a structure similar to H_2O; it contains two polar C–O single bonds oriented at about a 109° angle to each other, in addition to relatively nonpolar C–H bonds. As a result, the C–O bond dipoles partially reinforce one another and generate a significant dipole moment that should give a moderately high boiling point.

Acetone contains a polar C=O double bond oriented at about 120° to two methyl groups with nonpolar C–H bonds. The C–O bond dipole therefore corresponds to the molecular dipole, which should result in both a rather large dipole moment and a high boiling point.

Thus we predict the following order of boiling points:

2-methylpropane < ethyl methyl ether < acetone

This result is in good agreement with the actual data: 2-methylpropane, boiling point = −11.7°C, and the dipole moment (μ) = 0.13 D; methyl ethyl ether, boiling point = 7.4°C and μ = 1.17 D; acetone, boiling point = 56.1°C and μ = 2.88 D.

? Exercise 12.3.1

Arrange carbon tetrafluoride (CF_4), ethyl methyl sulfide ($CH_3SC_2H_5$), dimethyl sulfoxide [$(CH_3)_2S{=}O$], and 2-methylbutane [isopentane, $(CH_3)_2CHCH_2CH_3$] in order of decreasing boiling points.

Answer

dimethyl sulfoxide (boiling point = 189.9°C) > ethyl methyl sulfide (boiling point = 67°C) > 2-methylbutane (boiling point = 27.8°C) > carbon tetrafluoride (boiling point = −128°C)

London Dispersion Forces

Thus far, we have considered only interactions between polar molecules. Other factors must be considered to explain why many nonpolar molecules, such as bromine, benzene, and hexane, are liquids at room temperature; why others, such as iodine and naphthalene, are solids. Even the noble gases can be liquefied or solidified at low temperatures, high pressures, or both (Table 12.3.2).

What kind of attractive forces can exist between nonpolar molecules or atoms? This question was answered by Fritz London (1900–1954), a German physicist who later worked in the United States. In 1930, London proposed that temporary fluctuations in the electron distributions within atoms and nonpolar molecules could result in the formation of short-lived instantaneous dipole moments, which produce attractive forces called London dispersion forces between otherwise nonpolar substances.

Table 12.3.2: Normal Melting and Boiling Points of Some Elements and Nonpolar Compounds

Substance	Molar Mass (g/mol)	Melting Point (°C)	Boiling Point (°C)
Ar	40	−189.4	−185.9
Xe	131	−111.8	−108.1
N_2	28	−210	−195.8
O_2	32	−218.8	−183.0
F_2	38	−219.7	−188.1
I_2	254	113.7	184.4
CH_4	16	−182.5	−161.5

Consider a pair of adjacent He atoms, for example. On average, the two electrons in each He atom are uniformly distributed around the nucleus. Because the electrons are in constant motion, however, their distribution in one atom is likely to be asymmetrical at any given instant, resulting in an instantaneous dipole moment. As shown in part (a) in Figure 12.3.3, the instantaneous dipole moment on one atom can interact with the electrons in an adjacent atom, pulling them toward the positive end of the instantaneous dipole or repelling them from the negative end. The net effect is that the first atom causes the temporary formation of a dipole, called an induced dipole, in the second. Interactions between these temporary dipoles cause atoms to be attracted to one another. These attractive interactions are weak and fall off rapidly with increasing distance. London was able to show with quantum mechanics that the attractive energy between molecules due to temporary dipole–induced dipole interactions falls off as $1/r^6$. Doubling the distance therefore decreases the attractive energy by 2^6, or 64-fold.

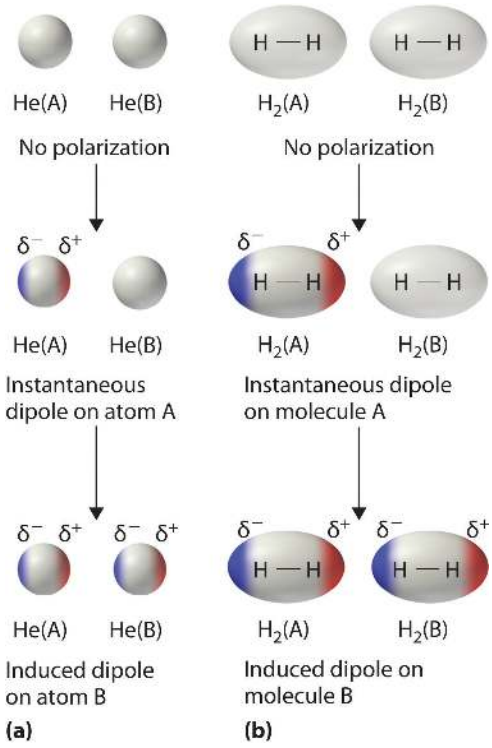


Figure 12.3.3: Instantaneous Dipole Moments. The formation of an instantaneous dipole moment on one He atom (a) or an H_2 molecule (b) results in the formation of an induced dipole on an adjacent atom or molecule.

Instantaneous dipole–induced dipole interactions between nonpolar molecules can produce intermolecular attractions just as they produce interatomic attractions in monatomic substances like Xe. This effect, illustrated for two H_2 molecules in part (b) in Figure 12.3.3, tends to become more pronounced as atomic and molecular masses increase (Table 12.3.2). For example, Xe boils at −108.1°C, whereas He boils at −269°C. The reason for this trend is that the strength of London dispersion forces is related to the ease with which the electron distribution in a given atom can be perturbed. In small atoms such as He, the two 1*s* electrons are held close to the nucleus in a very small volume, and electron–electron repulsions are strong enough to prevent significant asymmetry in their distribution. In larger atoms such as Xe, however, the outer electrons are much less strongly attracted to the nucleus because of filled intervening shells. As a result, it is relatively easy to temporarily deform the electron distribution to generate an instantaneous or induced dipole. The ease of deformation of the electron distribution in an atom or molecule is called its polarizability. Because the electron distribution is more easily perturbed in large, heavy species than in small, light species, we say that heavier substances tend to be much more *polarizable* than lighter ones.

> *For similar substances, London dispersion forces get stronger with increasing molecular size.*

The polarizability of a substance also determines how it interacts with ions and species that possess permanent dipoles. Thus, London dispersion forces are responsible for the general trend toward higher boiling points with increased molecular mass and greater surface area in a homologous series of compounds, such as the alkanes (part (a) in Figure 12.3.4). The strengths of London dispersion forces also depend significantly on molecular shape because shape determines how much of one molecule can interact with its neighboring molecules at any given time. For example, part (b) in Figure 12.3.4 shows 2,2-dimethylpropane (neopentane) and *n*-pentane, both of which have the empirical formula C_5H_{12}. Neopentane is almost spherical, with a small surface area for intermolecular interactions, whereas *n*-pentane has an extended conformation that enables it to come into close contact with other *n*-pentane molecules. As a result, the boiling point of neopentane (9.5°C) is more than 25°C lower than the boiling point of *n*-pentane (36.1°C).

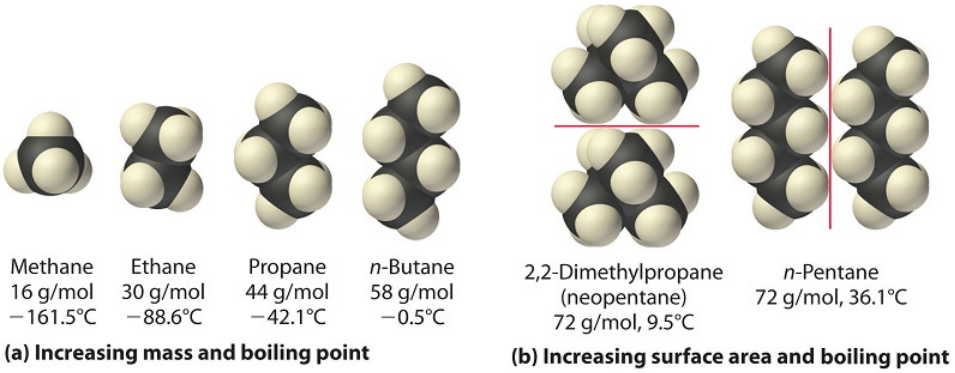


Figure 12.3.4: Mass and Surface Area Affect the Strength of London Dispersion Forces. (a) In this series of four simple alkanes, larger molecules have stronger London forces between them than smaller molecules do, and consequently have higher boiling points. (b) Linear *n*-pentane molecules have a larger surface area and stronger intermolecular forces than spherical neopentane molecules. As a result, neopentane is a gas at room temperature, whereas *n*-pentane is a volatile liquid.

All molecules, whether polar or nonpolar, are attracted to one another by London dispersion forces in addition to any other attractive forces that may be present. In general, however, dipole–dipole interactions in small polar molecules are significantly stronger than London dispersion forces, so the former predominate.



Video Discussing London/Dispersion Intermolecular Forces. Source: Dispersion Intermolecular Force, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Example 12.3.2

Arrange *n*-butane, propane, 2-methylpropane [isobutene, $(CH_3)_2CHCH_3$], and *n*-pentane in order of increasing boiling points.

Given: compounds

Asked for: order of increasing boiling points

Strategy:

Determine the intermolecular forces in the compounds, and then arrange the compounds according to the strength of those forces. The substance with the weakest forces will have the lowest boiling point.

Solution:

The four compounds are alkanes and nonpolar, so London dispersion forces are the only important intermolecular forces. These forces are generally stronger with increasing molecular mass, so propane should have the lowest boiling point and *n*-pentane should have the highest, with the two butane isomers falling in between. Of the two butane isomers, 2-methylpropane is more compact, and *n*-butane has the more extended shape. Consequently, we expect intermolecular interactions for *n*-butane to be stronger due to its larger surface area, resulting in a higher boiling point. The overall order is thus as follows, with actual boiling points in parentheses: propane (−42.1°C) < 2-methylpropane (−11.7°C) < *n*-butane (−0.5°C) < *n*-pentane (36.1°C).

? Exercise 12.3.2

Arrange GeH_4, $SiCl_4$, SiH_4, CH_4, and $GeCl_4$ in order of decreasing boiling points.

Answer

$GeCl_4$ (87°C) > $SiCl_4$ (57.6°C) > GeH_4 (−88.5°C) > SiH_4 (−111.8°C) > CH_4 (−161°C)

Hydrogen Bonds

Molecules with hydrogen atoms bonded to electronegative atoms such as O, N, and F (and to a much lesser extent, Cl and S) tend to exhibit unusually strong intermolecular interactions. These result in much higher boiling points than are observed for substances in which London dispersion forces dominate, as illustrated for the covalent hydrides of elements of groups 14–17 in Figure 12.3.5. Methane and its heavier congeners in group 14 form a series whose boiling points increase smoothly with increasing molar mass. This is the expected trend in nonpolar molecules, for which London dispersion forces are the exclusive intermolecular forces. In contrast, the hydrides of the lightest members of groups 15–17 have boiling points that are more than 100°C greater than predicted on the basis of their molar masses. The effect is most dramatic for water: if we extend the straight line connecting the points for H_2Te and H_2Se to the line for period 2, we obtain an estimated boiling point of −130°C for water! Imagine the implications for life on Earth if water boiled at −130°C rather than 100°C.

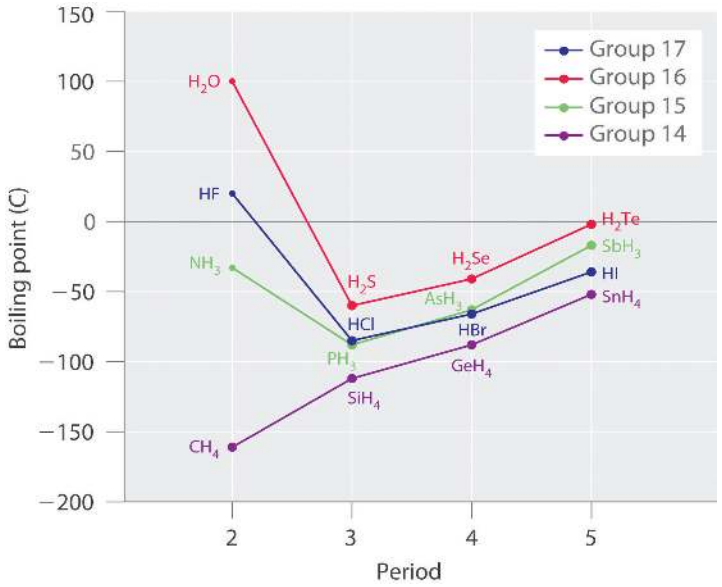


Figure 12.3.5: The Effects of Hydrogen Bonding on Boiling Points. These plots of the boiling points of the covalent hydrides of the elements of groups 14–17 show that the boiling points of the lightest members of each series for which hydrogen bonding is possible (HF, NH_3, and H_2O) are anomalously high for compounds with such low molecular masses.

Group 14 is in purple, group 15 is in green, group 16 is red, and group 17 is blue. Graph of boiling point against period.

Why do strong intermolecular forces produce such anomalously high boiling points and other unusual properties, such as high enthalpies of vaporization and high melting points? The answer lies in the highly polar nature of the bonds between hydrogen and very electronegative elements such as O, N, and F. The large difference in electronegativity results in a large partial positive charge on hydrogen and a correspondingly large partial negative charge on the O, N, or F atom. Consequently, H–O, H–N, and H–F bonds have very large bond dipoles that can interact strongly with one another. Because a hydrogen atom is so small, these dipoles can also approach one another more closely than most other dipoles. The combination of large bond dipoles and short dipole–dipole distances results in very strong dipole–dipole interactions called hydrogen bonds, as shown for ice in Figure 12.3.6. A hydrogen bond is usually indicated by a dotted line between the hydrogen atom attached to O, N, or F (the *hydrogen bond donor*) and the atom that has the lone pair of electrons (the *hydrogen bond acceptor*). Because each water molecule contains two hydrogen atoms and two lone pairs, a tetrahedral arrangement maximizes the number of hydrogen bonds that can be formed. In the structure of ice, each oxygen atom is surrounded by a distorted tetrahedron of hydrogen atoms that form bridges to the oxygen atoms of adjacent water molecules. The bridging hydrogen atoms are *not* equidistant from the two oxygen atoms they connect, however. Instead, each hydrogen atom is 101 pm from one oxygen and 174 pm from the other. In contrast, each oxygen atom is bonded to two H atoms at

the shorter distance and two at the longer distance, corresponding to two O–H covalent bonds and two O···H hydrogen bonds from adjacent water molecules, respectively. The resulting open, cagelike structure of ice means that the solid is actually slightly less dense than the liquid, which explains why ice floats on water, rather than sinks.

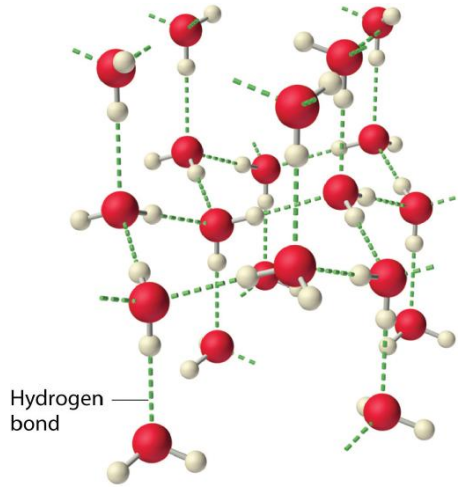


Figure 12.3.6: The Hydrogen-Bonded Structure of Ice

Each water molecule accepts two hydrogen bonds from two other water molecules and donates two hydrogen atoms to form hydrogen bonds with two more water molecules, producing an open, cage like structure. The structure of liquid water is very similar, but in the liquid, the hydrogen bonds are continually broken and formed because of rapid molecular motion.

> *Hydrogen bond formation requires both a hydrogen bond donor and a hydrogen bond acceptor.*

Because ice is less dense than liquid water, rivers, lakes, and oceans freeze from the top down. In fact, the ice forms a protective surface layer that insulates the rest of the water, allowing fish and other organisms to survive in the lower levels of a frozen lake or sea. If ice were denser than the liquid, the ice formed at the surface in cold weather would sink as fast as it formed. Bodies of water would freeze from the bottom up, which would be lethal for most aquatic creatures. The expansion of water when freezing also explains why automobile or boat engines must be protected by “antifreeze” and why unprotected pipes in houses break if they are allowed to freeze.



Video Discussing Hydrogen Bonding Intermolecular Forces. Source: Hydrogen Bonding Intermolecular Force, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Example 12.3.3

Considering CH_3OH, C_2H_6, Xe, and $(CH_3)_3N$, which can form hydrogen bonds with themselves? Draw the hydrogen-bonded structures.

Given: compounds

Asked for: formation of hydrogen bonds and structure

Strategy:

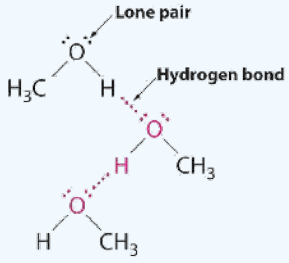
A. Identify the compounds with a hydrogen atom attached to O, N, or F. These are likely to be able to act as hydrogen bond donors.

B. Of the compounds that can act as hydrogen bond donors, identify those that also contain lone pairs of electrons, which allow them to be hydrogen bond acceptors. If a substance is both a hydrogen donor and a hydrogen bond acceptor, draw a structure showing the hydrogen bonding.

Solution:

A. Of the species listed, xenon (Xe), ethane (C_2H_6), and trimethylamine [$(CH_3)_3N$] do not contain a hydrogen atom attached to O, N, or F; hence they cannot act as hydrogen bond donors.

B. The one compound that can act as a hydrogen bond donor, methanol (CH_3OH), contains both a hydrogen atom attached to O (making it a hydrogen bond donor) and two lone pairs of electrons on O (making it a hydrogen bond acceptor); methanol can thus form hydrogen bonds by acting as either a hydrogen bond donor or a hydrogen bond acceptor. The hydrogen-bonded structure of methanol is as follows:



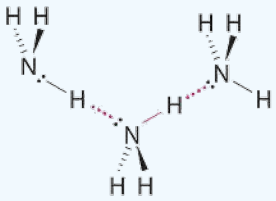
Hydrogen bonding in methanol

? Exercise 12.3.3

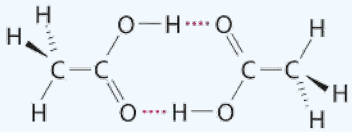
Considering CH_3CO_2H, $(CH_3)_3N$, NH_3, and CH_3F, which can form hydrogen bonds with themselves? Draw the hydrogen-bonded structures.

Answer

CH_3CO_2H and NH_3;



Hydrogen bonding in ammonia



Hydrogen bonding in acetic acid

Hydrogen bonding in ammonia between nitrogen and hydrogen. hydrogen bonding in acetic acid is between oxygen and hydrogen.

Although hydrogen bonds are significantly weaker than covalent bonds, with typical dissociation energies of only 15–25 kJ/mol, they have a significant influence on the physical properties of a compound. Compounds such as HF can form only two hydrogen bonds at a time as can, on average, pure liquid NH_3. Consequently, even though their molecular masses are similar to that of water, their boiling points are significantly lower than the boiling point of water, which forms *four* hydrogen bonds at a time.

Example 12.3.4: Buckyballs

Arrange C_{60} (buckminsterfullerene, which has a cage structure), NaCl, He, Ar, and N_2O in order of increasing boiling points.

Given: compounds.

Asked for: order of increasing boiling points.

Strategy:

Identify the intermolecular forces in each compound and then arrange the compounds according to the strength of those forces. The substance with the weakest forces will have the lowest boiling point.

Solution

Electrostatic interactions are strongest for an ionic compound, so we expect NaCl to have the highest boiling point. To predict the relative boiling points of the other compounds, we must consider their polarity (for dipole–dipole interactions), their ability to form hydrogen bonds, and their molar mass (for London dispersion forces). Helium is nonpolar and by far the lightest, so it should have the lowest boiling point. Argon and N_2O have very similar molar masses (40 and 44 g/mol, respectively), but N_2O is polar while Ar is not. Consequently, N_2O should have a higher boiling point. A C_{60} molecule is nonpolar, but its molar mass is 720 g/mol, much greater than that of Ar or N_2O. Because the boiling points of nonpolar substances increase rapidly with molecular mass, C_{60} should boil at a higher temperature than the other nonionic substances. The predicted order is thus as follows, with actual boiling points in parentheses:

$$\text{He } (-269^\circ\text{C}) < \text{Ar } (-185.7^\circ\text{C}) < N_2O\ (-88.5^\circ\text{C}) < C_{60}\ (>280^\circ\text{C}) < \text{NaCl } (1465^\circ\text{C}).$$

Exercise 12.3.4

Arrange 2,4-dimethylheptane, Ne, CS_2, Cl_2, and KBr in order of decreasing boiling points.

Answer

KBr (1435°C) > 2,4-dimethylheptane (132.9°C) > CS_2 (46.6°C) > Cl_2 (−34.6°C) > Ne (−246°C)

Example 12.3.5

Identify the most significant intermolecular force in each substance.

a. C_3H_8
b. CH_3OH
c. H_2S

Solution

a. Although C–H bonds are polar, they are only minimally polar. The most significant intermolecular force for this substance would be dispersion forces.
b. This molecule has an H atom bonded to an O atom, so it will experience hydrogen bonding.
c. Although this molecule does not experience hydrogen bonding, the Lewis electron dot diagram and VSEPR indicate that it is bent, so it has a permanent dipole. The most significant force in this substance is dipole-dipole interaction.

Exercise 12.3.6

Identify the most significant intermolecular force in each substance.

a. HF
b. HCl

Answer a

hydrogen bonding

Answer b

dipole-dipole interactions

Summary

Intermolecular forces are electrostatic in nature and include van der Waals forces and hydrogen bonds. Molecules in liquids are held to other molecules by intermolecular interactions, which are weaker than the intramolecular interactions that hold the atoms together within molecules and polyatomic ions. Transitions between the solid and liquid, or the liquid and gas phases, are due to changes in intermolecular interactions, but do not affect intramolecular interactions. The three major types of intermolecular interactions are dipole–dipole interactions, London dispersion forces (these two are often referred to collectively as **van der Waals forces**), and hydrogen bonds. **Dipole–dipole interactions** arise from the electrostatic interactions of the positive and negative ends of molecules with permanent dipole moments; their strength is proportional to the magnitude of the dipole moment and to $1/r^3$, where r is the distance between dipoles. **London dispersion forces** are due to the formation of **instantaneous dipole moments** in polar or nonpolar molecules as a result of short-lived fluctuations of electron charge distribution, which in turn cause the temporary formation of an **induced dipole** in adjacent molecules; their energy falls off as $1/r^6$. Larger atoms tend to be more **polarizable** than smaller ones, because their outer electrons are less tightly bound and are therefore more easily perturbed. **Hydrogen bonds** are especially strong dipole–dipole interactions between molecules that have hydrogen bonded to a highly electronegative atom, such as O, N, or F. The resulting partially positively charged H atom on one molecule (the *hydrogen bond donor*) can interact strongly with a lone pair of electrons of a partially negatively charged O, N, or F atom on adjacent molecules (the *hydrogen bond acceptor*). Because of strong O···H hydrogen bonding between water molecules, water has an unusually high boiling point, and ice has an open, cage like structure that is less dense than liquid water.

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12.4: Intermolecular Forces in Action- Surface Tension, Viscosity, and Capillary Action

Learning Objectives

- To describe the unique properties of liquids.

Although you have been introduced to some of the interactions that hold molecules together in a liquid, we have not yet discussed the consequences of those interactions for the bulk properties of liquids. We now turn our attention to three unique properties of liquids that intimately depend on the nature of intermolecular interactions:

- surface tension,
- capillary action, and
- viscosity.

Surface Tension

If liquids tend to adopt the shapes of their containers, then why do small amounts of water on a freshly waxed car form raised droplets instead of a thin, continuous film? The answer lies in a property called *surface tension*, which depends on intermolecular forces. Surface tension is the energy required to increase the surface area of a liquid by a unit amount and varies greatly from liquid to liquid based on the nature of the intermolecular forces, e.g., water with hydrogen bonds has a surface tension of 7.29×10^{-2} J/m^2 (at 20°C), while mercury with metallic bonds has as surface tension that is 15 times higher: 4.86×10^{-1} J/m^2 (at 20°C).

Figure 12.4.1 presents a microscopic view of a liquid droplet. A typical molecule in the *interior* of the droplet is surrounded by other molecules that exert attractive forces from all directions. Consequently, there is no *net* force on the molecule that would cause it to move in a particular direction. In contrast, a molecule on the *surface* experiences a net attraction toward the drop because there are no molecules on the outside to balance the forces exerted by adjacent molecules in the interior. Because a sphere has the smallest possible surface area for a given volume, intermolecular attractive interactions between water molecules cause the droplet to adopt a spherical shape. This maximizes the number of attractive interactions and minimizes the number of water molecules at the surface. Hence raindrops are almost spherical, and drops of water on a waxed (nonpolar) surface, which does not interact strongly with water, form round beads. A dirty car is covered with a mixture of substances, some of which are polar. Attractive interactions between the polar substances and water cause the water to spread out into a thin film instead of forming beads.

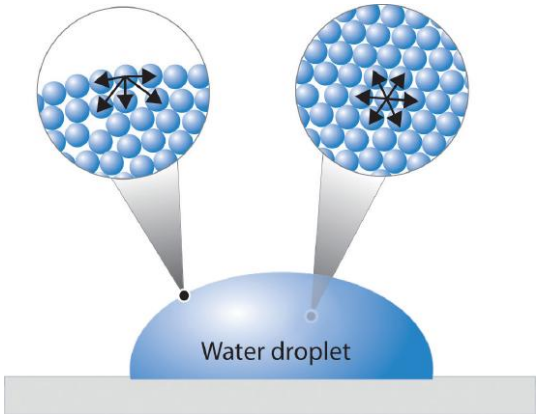


Figure 12.4.1: A Representation of Surface Tension in a Liquid. Molecules at the surface of water experience a net attraction to other molecules in the liquid, which holds the surface of the bulk sample together. In contrast, those in the interior experience uniform attractive forces.

The same phenomenon holds molecules together at the surface of a bulk sample of water, almost as if they formed a skin. When filling a glass with water, the glass can be overfilled so that the level of the liquid actually extends *above* the rim. Similarly, a sewing needle or a paper clip can be placed on the surface of a glass of water where it “floats,” even though steel is much denser than water. Many insects take advantage of this property to walk on the surface of puddles or ponds without sinking. This is even observable in the zero gravity conditions of space as shown in Figure 12.4.2 (and more so in the video link) where water wrung from a wet towel continues to float along the towel's surface!



Figure 12.4.2: The Effects of the High Surface Tension of Liquid Water. The full video can be found at www.youtube.com/watch?v=9jB7rOC5kG8.

Such phenomena are manifestations of surface tension, which is defined as the energy required to increase the surface area of a liquid by a specific amount. Surface tension is therefore measured as energy per unit area, such as joules per square meter (J/m^2) or dyne per centimeter (dyn/cm), where 1 dyn = 1×10^{-5} N. The values of the surface tension of some representative liquids are listed in Table 12.4.1. Note the correlation between the surface tension of a liquid and the strength of the intermolecular forces: the stronger the intermolecular forces, the higher the surface tension. For example, water, with its strong intermolecular hydrogen bonding, has one of the highest surface tension values of any liquid, whereas low-boiling-point organic molecules, which have relatively weak intermolecular forces, have much lower surface tensions. Mercury is an apparent anomaly, but its very high surface tension is due to the presence of strong metallic bonding.

Table 12.4.1: Surface Tension, Viscosity, Vapor Pressure (at 25°C Unless Otherwise Indicated), and Normal Boiling Points of Common Liquids

Substance	Surface Tension ($\times 10^{-3}$ J/m^2)	Viscosity (mPa•s)	Vapor Pressure (mmHg)	Normal Boiling Point (°C)
Organic Compounds				
diethyl ether	17	0.22	531	34.6
n-hexane	18	0.30	149	68.7
acetone	23	0.31	227	56.5
ethanol	22	1.07	59	78.3
ethylene glycol	48	16.1	~0.08	198.9
Liquid Elements				
bromine	41	0.94	218	58.8
mercury	486	1.53	0.0020	357
Water				
0°C	75.6	1.79	4.6	—
20°C	72.8	1.00	17.5	—
60°C	66.2	0.47	149	—
100°C	58.9	0.28	760	—

Adding soaps and detergents that disrupt the intermolecular attractions between adjacent water molecules can reduce the surface tension of water. Because they affect the surface properties of a liquid, soaps and detergents are called surface-active agents, or surfactants. In the 1960s, US Navy researchers developed a method of fighting fires aboard aircraft carriers using “foams,” which are aqueous solutions of fluorinated surfactants. The surfactants reduce the surface tension of water below that of fuel, so the fluorinated solution is able to spread across the burning surface and extinguish the fire. Such foams are now used universally to fight large-scale fires of organic liquids.

Capillary Action

Intermolecular forces also cause a phenomenon called capillary action, which is the tendency of a polar liquid to rise against gravity into a small-diameter tube (a *capillary*), as shown in Figure 12.4.3. When a glass capillary is is placed in liquid water, water rises up into the capillary. The height to which the water rises depends on the diameter of the tube and the temperature of the water but *not* on the angle at which the tube enters the water. The smaller the diameter, the higher the liquid rises.

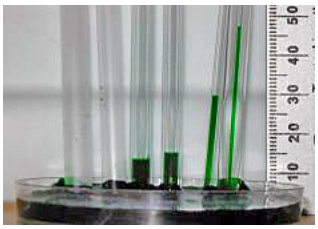


Figure 12.4.3: The Phenomenon of Capillary Action. Capillary action seen as water climbs to different levels in glass tubes of different diameters. Credit: Dr. Clay Robinson, PhD, West Texas A&M University.

- Cohesive forces bind molecules of the same type together
- Adhesive forces bind a substance to a surface

Capillary action is the net result of two opposing sets of forces: cohesive forces, which are the intermolecular forces that hold a liquid together, and adhesive forces, which are the attractive forces between a liquid and the substance that composes the capillary. Water has both strong adhesion to glass, which contains polar SiOH groups, and strong intermolecular cohesion. When a glass capillary is put into water, the surface tension due to cohesive forces constricts the surface area of water within the tube, while adhesion between the water and the glass creates an upward force that maximizes the amount of glass surface in contact with the water. If the adhesive forces are stronger than the cohesive forces, as is the case for water, then the liquid in the capillary rises to the level where the downward force of gravity exactly balances this upward force. If, however, the cohesive forces are stronger than the adhesive forces, as is the case for mercury and glass, the liquid pulls itself down into the capillary below the surface of the bulk liquid to minimize contact with the glass (Figure 12.4.4). The upper surface of a liquid in a tube is called the meniscus, and the shape of the meniscus depends on the relative strengths of the cohesive and adhesive forces. In liquids such as water, the meniscus is concave; in liquids such as mercury, however, which have very strong cohesive forces and weak adhesion to glass, the meniscus is convex (Figure 12.4.4).

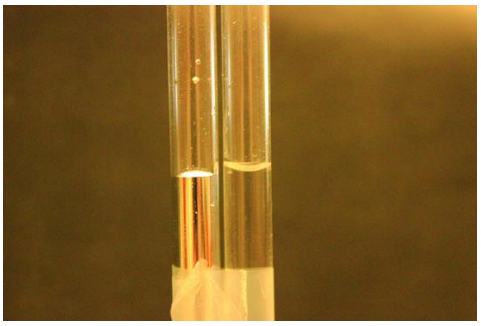


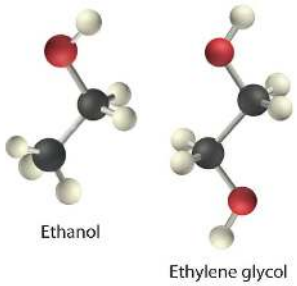
Figure 12.4.4: The Phenomenon of Capillary Action. Capillary action of water compared to mercury, in each case with respect to a polar surface such as glass. Differences in the relative strengths of cohesive and adhesive forces result in different meniscus shapes for mercury (left) and water (right) in glass tubes. (credit: Mark Ott)

Polar substances are drawn up a glass capillary and generally have a concave meniscus.

Fluids and nutrients are transported up the stems of plants or the trunks of trees by capillary action. Plants contain tiny rigid tubes composed of cellulose, to which water has strong adhesion. Because of the strong adhesive forces, nutrients can be transported from the roots to the tops of trees that are more than 50 m tall. Cotton towels are also made of cellulose; they absorb water because the tiny tubes act like capillaries and “wick” the water away from your skin. The moisture is absorbed by the entire fabric, not just the layer in contact with your body.

Viscosity

Viscosity (η) is the resistance of a liquid to flow. Some liquids, such as gasoline, ethanol, and water, flow very readily and hence have a *low viscosity*. Others, such as motor oil, molasses, and maple syrup, flow very slowly and have a *high viscosity*. The two most common methods for evaluating the viscosity of a liquid are (1) to measure the time it takes for a quantity of liquid to flow through a narrow vertical tube and (2) to measure the time it takes steel balls to fall through a given volume of the liquid. The higher the viscosity, the slower the liquid flows through the tube and the steel balls fall. Viscosity is expressed in units of the poise (mPa•s); the higher the number, the higher the viscosity. The viscosities of some representative liquids are listed in Table 11.3.1 and show a correlation between viscosity and intermolecular forces. Because a liquid can flow only if the molecules can move past one another with minimal resistance, strong intermolecular attractive forces make it more difficult for molecules to move with respect to one another. The addition of a second hydroxyl group to ethanol, for example, which produces ethylene glycol ($HOCH_2CH_2OH$), increases the viscosity 15-fold. This effect is due to the increased number of hydrogen bonds that can form between hydroxyl groups in adjacent molecules, resulting in dramatically stronger intermolecular attractive forces.



There is also a correlation between viscosity and molecular shape. Liquids consisting of long, flexible molecules tend to have higher viscosities than those composed of more spherical or shorter-chain molecules. The longer the molecules, the easier it is for them to become “tangled” with one another, making it more difficult for them to move past one another. London dispersion forces also increase with chain length. Due to a combination of these two effects, long-chain hydrocarbons (such as motor oils) are highly viscous.

> *Viscosity increases as intermolecular interactions or molecular size increases.*



Video Discussing Surface Tension and Viscosity. Video Link: Surface Tension, Viscosity, & Melting Point, YouTube(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Application: Motor Oils

Motor oils and other lubricants demonstrate the practical importance of controlling viscosity. The oil in an automobile engine must effectively lubricate under a wide range of conditions, from subzero starting temperatures to the 200°C that oil can reach in an engine in the heat of the Mojave Desert in August. Viscosity decreases rapidly with increasing temperatures because the kinetic energy of the molecules increases, and higher kinetic energy enables the molecules to overcome the attractive forces

that prevent the liquid from flowing. As a result, an oil that is thin enough to be a good lubricant in a cold engine will become too “thin” (have too low a viscosity) to be effective at high temperatures.



Figure 12.4.5: Oil being drained from a car

The viscosity of motor oils is described by an SAE (Society of Automotive Engineers) rating ranging from SAE 5 to SAE 50 for engine oils: the lower the number, the lower the viscosity (Figure 12.4.5). So-called *single-grade oils* can cause major problems. If they are viscous enough to work at high operating temperatures (SAE 50, for example), then at low temperatures, they can be so viscous that a car is difficult to start or an engine is not properly lubricated. Consequently, most modern oils are *multigrade*, with designations such as SAE 20W/50 (a grade used in high-performance sports cars), in which case the oil has the viscosity of an SAE 20 oil at subzero temperatures (hence the W for winter) and the viscosity of an SAE 50 oil at high temperatures. These properties are achieved by a careful blend of additives that modulate the intermolecular interactions in the oil, thereby controlling the temperature dependence of the viscosity. Many of the commercially available oil additives “for improved engine performance” are highly viscous materials that increase the viscosity and effective SAE rating of the oil, but overusing these additives can cause the same problems experienced with highly viscous single-grade oils.

Example 12.4.1

Based on the nature and strength of the intermolecular cohesive forces and the probable nature of the liquid–glass adhesive forces, predict what will happen when a glass capillary is put into a beaker of SAE 20 motor oil. Will the oil be pulled up into the tube by capillary action or pushed down below the surface of the liquid in the beaker? What will be the shape of the meniscus (convex or concave)? (Hint: the surface of glass is lined with Si–OH groups.)

Given: substance and composition of the glass surface

Asked for: behavior of oil and the shape of meniscus

Strategy:

A. Identify the cohesive forces in the motor oil.

B. Determine whether the forces interact with the surface of glass. From the strength of this interaction, predict the behavior of the oil and the shape of the meniscus.

Solution

A Motor oil is a nonpolar liquid consisting largely of hydrocarbon chains. The cohesive forces responsible for its high boiling point are almost solely London dispersion forces between the hydrocarbon chains.

B Such a liquid cannot form strong interactions with the polar Si–OH groups of glass, so the surface of the oil inside the capillary will be lower than the level of the liquid in the beaker. The oil will have a convex meniscus similar to that of mercury.

Exercise 12.4.1

Predict what will happen when a glass capillary is put into a beaker of ethylene glycol. Will the ethylene glycol be pulled up into the tube by capillary action or pushed down below the surface of the liquid in the beaker? What will be the shape of the meniscus (convex or concave)?

Answer

Capillary action will pull the ethylene glycol up into the capillary. The meniscus will be concave.

Summary

Surface tension, capillary action, and viscosity are unique properties of liquids that depend on the nature of intermolecular interactions. **Surface tension** is the energy required to increase the surface area of a liquid by a given amount. The stronger the intermolecular interactions, the greater the surface tension. **Surfactants** are molecules, such as soaps and detergents, that reduce the surface tension of polar liquids like water. **Capillary action** is the phenomenon in which liquids rise up into a narrow tube called a capillary. It results when **cohesive forces**, the intermolecular forces in the liquid, are weaker than **adhesive forces**, the attraction between a liquid and the surface of the capillary. The shape of the **meniscus**, the upper surface of a liquid in a tube, also reflects the balance between adhesive and cohesive forces. The **viscosity** of a liquid is its resistance to flow. Liquids that have strong intermolecular forces tend to have high viscosities.

12.4: Intermolecular Forces in Action- Surface Tension, Viscosity, and Capillary Action is shared under a not declared license and was authored, remixed, and/or curated by LibreTexts.

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12.5: Vaporization and Vapor Pressure

Learning Objectives

- To know how and why the vapor pressure of a liquid varies with temperature.
- To understand that the equilibrium vapor pressure of a liquid depends on the temperature and the intermolecular forces present.
- To understand that the relationship between pressure, enthalpy of vaporization, and temperature is given by the Clausius-Clapeyron equation.

Nearly all of us have heated a pan of water with the lid in place and shortly thereafter heard the sounds of the lid rattling and hot water spilling onto the stovetop. When a liquid is heated, its molecules obtain sufficient kinetic energy to overcome the forces holding them in the liquid and they escape into the gaseous phase. By doing so, they generate a population of molecules in the vapor phase above the liquid that produces a pressure—the vapor pressure of the liquid. In the situation we described, enough pressure was generated to move the lid, which allowed the vapor to escape. If the vapor is contained in a sealed vessel, however, such as an unvented flask, and the vapor pressure becomes too high, the flask will explode (as many students have unfortunately discovered). In this section, we describe vapor pressure in more detail and explain how to quantitatively determine the vapor pressure of a liquid.

Evaporation and Condensation

Because the molecules of a liquid are in constant motion, we can plot the fraction of molecules with a given kinetic energy (KE) against their kinetic energy to obtain the kinetic energy distribution of the molecules in the liquid (Figure 12.5.1), just as we did for a gas. As for gases, increasing the temperature increases both the average kinetic energy of the particles in a liquid and the range of kinetic energy of the individual molecules. If we assume that a minimum amount of energy (E_0) is needed to overcome the intermolecular attractive forces that hold a liquid together, then some fraction of molecules in the liquid always has a kinetic energy greater than E_0. The fraction of molecules with a kinetic energy greater than this minimum value increases with increasing temperature. Any molecule with a kinetic energy greater than E_0 has enough energy to overcome the forces holding it in the liquid and escape into the vapor phase. Before it can do so, however, a molecule must also be at the surface of the liquid, where it is physically possible for it to leave the liquid surface; that is, only molecules at the surface can undergo evaporation (or vaporization), where molecules gain sufficient energy to enter a gaseous state above a liquid's surface, thereby creating a vapor pressure.

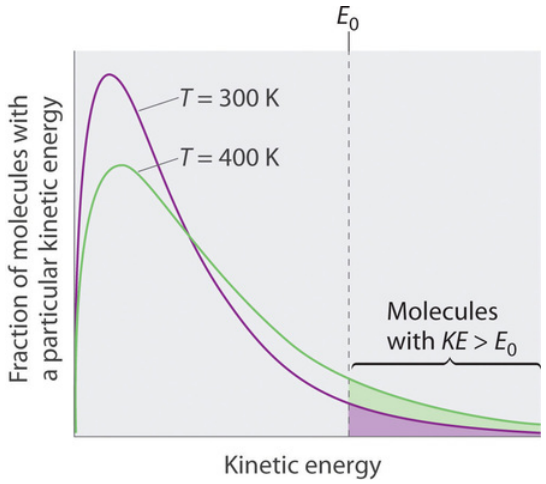


Figure 12.5.1: The Distribution of the Kinetic Energies of the Molecules of a Liquid at Two Temperatures. Just as with gases, increasing the temperature shifts the peak to a higher energy and broadens the curve. Only molecules with a kinetic energy greater than E_0 can escape from the liquid to enter the vapor phase, and the proportion of molecules with $KE > E_0$ is greater at the higher temperature. (CC BY-SA-NC; Anonymous by request)

Graph of fraction of molecules with a particular kinetic energy against kinetic energy. Green line is temperature at 400 kelvin, purple line is temperature at 300 kelvin.

To understand the causes of vapor pressure, consider the apparatus shown in Figure 12.5.2 When a liquid is introduced into an evacuated chamber (part (a) in Figure 12.5.2), the initial pressure above the liquid is approximately zero because there are as yet no molecules in the vapor phase. Some molecules at the surface, however, will have sufficient kinetic energy to escape from the liquid and form a vapor, thus increasing the pressure inside the container. As long as the temperature of the liquid is held constant, the fraction of molecules with $KE > E_0$ will not change, and the rate at which molecules escape from the liquid into the vapor phase will depend only on the surface area of the liquid phase.

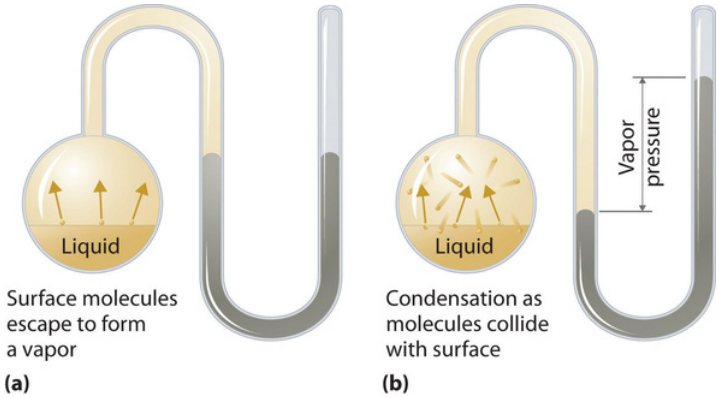


Figure 12.5.2: Vapor Pressure. (a) When a liquid is introduced into an evacuated chamber, molecules with sufficient kinetic energy escape from the surface and enter the vapor phase, causing the pressure in the chamber to increase. (b) When sufficient molecules are in the vapor phase for a given temperature, the rate of condensation equals the rate of evaporation (a steady state is reached), and the pressure in the container becomes constant. (CC BY-SA-NC; Anonymous by request)

As soon as some vapor has formed, a fraction of the molecules in the vapor phase will collide with the surface of the liquid and reenter the liquid phase in a process known as condensation (part (b) in Figure 12.5.2). As the number of molecules in the vapor phase increases, the number of collisions between vapor-phase molecules and the surface will also increase. Eventually, a *steady state* will be reached in which exactly as many molecules per unit time leave the surface of the liquid (vaporize) as collide with it (condense). At this point, the pressure over the liquid stops increasing and remains constant at a particular value that is characteristic of the liquid at a given temperature. The rates of evaporation and condensation over time for a system such as this are shown graphically in Figure 12.5.3

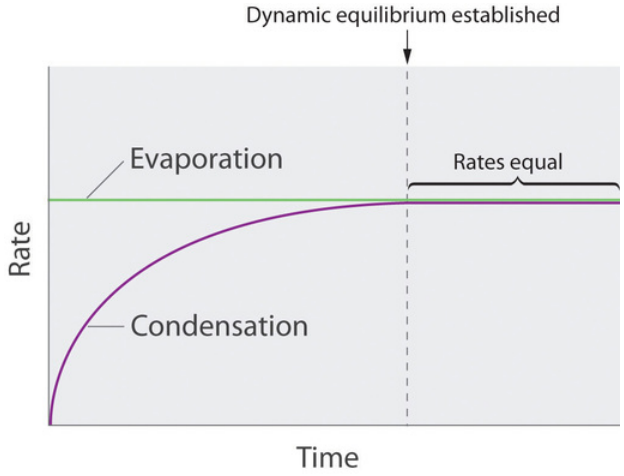


Figure 12.5.3: The Relative Rates of Evaporation and Condensation as a Function of Time after a Liquid Is Introduced into a Sealed Chamber. The rate of evaporation depends only on the surface area of the liquid and is essentially constant. The rate of condensation depends on the number of molecules in the vapor phase and increases steadily until it equals the rate of evaporation. (CC BY-SA-NC; Anonymous by request)

Graph of rate against time. The green line is evaporation while the pruple line is condensation. Dynamic equilibrium is established when the evaporation and condensation rates are equal.

Equilibrium Vapor Pressure

Two opposing processes (such as evaporation and condensation) that occur at the same rate and thus produce no *net* change in a system, constitute a dynamic equilibrium. In the case of a liquid enclosed in a chamber, the molecules continuously evaporate and

condense, but the amounts of liquid and vapor do not change with time. The pressure exerted by a vapor in dynamic equilibrium with a liquid is the equilibrium vapor pressure of the liquid.

If a liquid is in an *open* container, however, most of the molecules that escape into the vapor phase will *not* collide with the surface of the liquid and return to the liquid phase. Instead, they will diffuse through the gas phase away from the container, and an equilibrium will never be established. Under these conditions, the liquid will continue to evaporate until it has "disappeared." The speed with which this occurs depends on the vapor pressure of the liquid and the temperature. Volatile liquids have relatively high vapor pressures and tend to evaporate readily; nonvolatile liquids have low vapor pressures and evaporate more slowly. Although the dividing line between volatile and nonvolatile liquids is not clear-cut, as a general guideline, we can say that substances with vapor pressures greater than that of water (Figure 12.5.4) are relatively volatile, whereas those with vapor pressures less than that of water are relatively nonvolatile. Thus diethyl ether (ethyl ether), acetone, and gasoline are volatile, but mercury, ethylene glycol, and motor oil are nonvolatile.

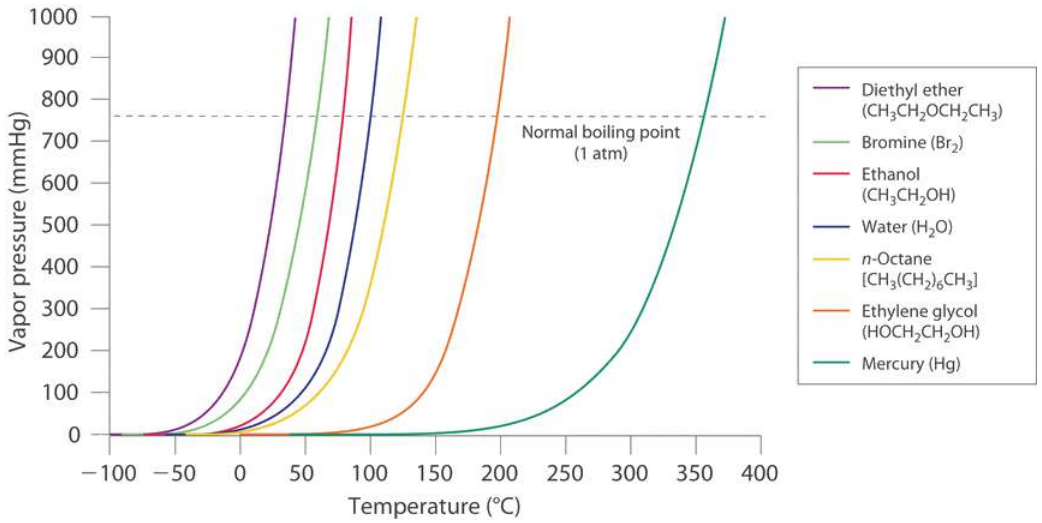


Figure 12.5.4: The Vapor Pressures of Several Liquids as a Function of Temperature. The point at which the vapor pressure curve crosses the P = 1 atm line (dashed) is the normal boiling point of the liquid. (CC BY-SA-NC; Anonymous by request)

The equilibrium vapor pressure of a substance at a particular temperature is a characteristic of the material, like its molecular mass, melting point, and boiling point. It does *not* depend on the amount of liquid as long as at least a tiny amount of liquid is present in equilibrium with the vapor. The equilibrium vapor pressure does, however, depend very strongly on the temperature and the intermolecular forces present, as shown for several substances in Figure 12.5.4 Molecules that can hydrogen bond, such as ethylene glycol, have a much lower equilibrium vapor pressure than those that cannot, such as octane. The nonlinear increase in vapor pressure with increasing temperature is *much* steeper than the increase in pressure expected for an ideal gas over the corresponding temperature range. The temperature dependence is so strong because the vapor pressure depends on the fraction of molecules that have a kinetic energy greater than that needed to escape from the liquid, and this fraction increases exponentially with temperature. As a result, sealed containers of volatile liquids are potential bombs if subjected to large increases in temperature. The gas tanks on automobiles are vented, for example, so that a car won't explode when parked in the sun. Similarly, the small cans (1–5 gallons) used to transport gasoline are required by law to have a pop-off pressure release.

> *Volatile substances have low boiling points and relatively weak intermolecular interactions; nonvolatile substances have high boiling points and relatively strong intermolecular interactions.*



A Video Discussing Vapor Pressure and Boiling Points. Video Source: Vapor Pressure & Boiling Point(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

The exponential rise in vapor pressure with increasing temperature in Figure 12.5.4 allows us to use natural logarithms to express the nonlinear relationship as a linear one.

$$\boxed{\ln P = \frac{-\Delta H_{vap}}{R}\left(\frac{1}{T}\right) + C} \tag{12.5.1}$$

where

- $\ln P$ is the natural logarithm of the vapor pressure,
- ΔH_{vap} is the enthalpy of vaporization,
- R is the universal gas constant [8.314 J/(mol•K)],
- T is the temperature in kelvins, and
- C is the y-intercept, which is a constant for any given line.

Plotting $\ln P$ versus the inverse of the absolute temperature $(1/T)$ is a straight line with a slope of $-\Delta H_{vap}/R$. Equation 12.5.1, called the Clausius–Clapeyron Equation, can be used to calculate the ΔH_{vap} of a liquid from its measured vapor pressure at two or more temperatures. The simplest way to determine ΔH_{vap} is to measure the vapor pressure of a liquid at **two** temperatures and insert the values of P and T for these points into Equation 12.5.2, which is derived from the Clausius–Clapeyron equation:

$$\ln\left(\frac{P_1}{P_2}\right) = \frac{-\Delta H_{vap}}{R}\left(\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2}\right) \tag{12.5.2}$$

Conversely, if we know ΔH_{vap} and the vapor pressure P_1 at any temperature T_1, we can use Equation 12.5.2 to calculate the vapor pressure P_2 at any other temperature T_2, as shown in Example 12.5.1.



A Video Discussing the Clausius-Clapeyron Equation. Video Link: The Clausius-Clapeyron Equation(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

Example 12.5.1: Vapor Pressure of Mercury

The experimentally measured vapor pressures of liquid Hg at four temperatures are listed in the following table:

experimentally measured vapor pressures of liquid Hg at four temperatures

T (°C)	80.0	100	120	140
P (torr)	0.0888	0.2729	0.7457	1.845

From these data, calculate the enthalpy of vaporization (ΔH_{vap}) of mercury and predict the vapor pressure of the liquid at 160°C. (Safety note: mercury is highly toxic; when it is spilled, its vapor pressure generates hazardous levels of mercury vapor.)

Given: vapor pressures at four temperatures

Asked for: ΔH_{vap} of mercury and vapor pressure at 160°C

Strategy:

A. Use Equation 12.5.2 to obtain ΔH_{vap} directly from two pairs of values in the table, making sure to convert all values to the appropriate units.

B. Substitute the calculated value of ΔH_{vap} into Equation 12.5.2 to obtain the unknown pressure (P_2).

Solution:

A The table gives the measured vapor pressures of liquid Hg for four temperatures. Although one way to proceed would be to plot the data using Equation 12.5.1 and find the value of ΔH_{vap} from the slope of the line, an alternative approach is to use Equation 12.5.2 to obtain ΔH_{vap} directly from two pairs of values listed in the table, assuming no errors in our measurement. We therefore select two sets of values from the table and convert the temperatures from degrees Celsius to kelvin because the equation requires absolute temperatures. Substituting the values measured at 80.0°C (T_1) and 120.0°C (T_2) into Equation 12.5.2 gives

$$\ln\left(\frac{0.7457\ \cancel{Torr}}{0.0888\ \cancel{Torr}}\right) = \frac{-\Delta H_{vap}}{8.314\ J/mol \cdot K}\left(\frac{1}{(120+273)\,K} - \frac{1}{(80.0+273)\,K}\right)$$

$$\ln(8.398) = \frac{-\Delta H_{vap}}{8.314\ J/mol \cdot \cancel{K}}\left(-2.88 \times 10^{-4}\ \cancel{K^{-1}}\right)$$

$$2.13 = -\Delta H_{vap}\left(-3.46 \times 10^{-4}\right) J^{-1} \cdot mol$$

$$\Delta H_{vap} = 61,400\ J/mol = 61.4\ kJ/mol$$

B We can now use this value of ΔH_{vap} to calculate the vapor pressure of the liquid (P_2) at 160.0°C (T_2):

$$\ln\left(\frac{P_2}{0.0888\ torr}\right) = \frac{-61,400\ \cancel{J/mol}}{8.314\ \cancel{J/mol}\ K^{-1}}\left(\frac{1}{(160+273)\,K} - \frac{1}{(80.0+273)\,K}\right)$$

Using the relationship $e^{\ln x} = x$, we have

$$\ln\left(\frac{P_2}{0.0888\ Torr}\right) = 3.86$$

$$\frac{P_2}{0.0888\ Torr} = e^{3.86} = 47.5$$

$$P_2 = 4.21 Torr$$

At 160°C, liquid Hg has a vapor pressure of 4.21 torr, substantially greater than the pressure at 80.0°C, as we would expect.

? Exercise 12.5.1: Vapor Pressure of Nickel

The vapor pressure of liquid nickel at 1606°C is 0.100 torr, whereas at 1805°C, its vapor pressure is 1.000 torr. At what temperature does the liquid have a vapor pressure of 2.500 torr?

Answer

1896°C

Boiling Points

As the temperature of a liquid increases, the vapor pressure of the liquid increases until it equals the external pressure, or the atmospheric pressure in the case of an open container. Bubbles of vapor begin to form throughout the liquid, and the liquid begins to boil. The temperature at which a liquid boils at exactly 1 atm pressure is the normal boiling point of the liquid. For water, the normal boiling point is exactly 100°C. The normal boiling points of the other liquids in Figure 12.5.4 are represented by the points at which the vapor pressure curves cross the line corresponding to a pressure of 1 atm. Although we usually cite the normal boiling point of a liquid, the *actual* boiling point depends on the pressure. At a pressure greater than 1 atm, water boils at a temperature greater than 100°C because the increased pressure forces vapor molecules above the surface to condense. Hence the molecules must have greater kinetic energy to escape from the surface. Conversely, at pressures less than 1 atm, water boils below 100°C.

Table 12.5.1: The Boiling Points of Water at Various Locations on Earth

Place	Altitude above Sea Level (ft)	Atmospheric Pressure (mmHg)	Boiling Point of Water (°C)
Mt. Everest, Nepal/Tibet	29,028	240	70
Bogota, Colombia	11,490	495	88
Denver, Colorado	5280	633	95
Washington, DC	25	759	100
Dead Sea, Israel/Jordan	−1312	799	101.4

Typical variations in atmospheric pressure at sea level are relatively small, causing only minor changes in the boiling point of water. For example, the highest recorded atmospheric pressure at sea level is 813 mmHg, recorded during a Siberian winter; the lowest sea-level pressure ever measured was 658 mmHg in a Pacific typhoon. At these pressures, the boiling point of water changes minimally, to 102°C and 96°C, respectively. At high altitudes, on the other hand, the dependence of the boiling point of water on pressure becomes significant. Table 12.5.1 lists the boiling points of water at several locations with different altitudes. At an elevation of only 5000 ft, for example, the boiling point of water is already lower than the lowest ever recorded at sea level. The lower boiling point of water has major consequences for cooking everything from soft-boiled eggs (a “three-minute egg” may well take four or more minutes in the Rockies and even longer in the Himalayas) to cakes (cake mixes are often sold with separate high-altitude instructions). Conversely, pressure cookers, which have a seal that allows the pressure inside them to exceed 1 atm, are used to cook food more rapidly by raising the boiling point of water and thus the temperature at which the food is being cooked.

> *As pressure increases, the boiling point of a liquid increases and vice versa.*

✓ Example 12.5.2: Boiling Mercury

Use Figure 12.5.4 to estimate the following.

a. the boiling point of water in a pressure cooker operating at 1000 mmHg
b. the pressure required for mercury to boil at 250°C



Mercury boils at 356 °C at room pressure. To see video go to www.youtube.com/watch?v=0iizsbXWYoo

Given: Data in Figure 12.5.4, pressure, and boiling point

Asked for: corresponding boiling point and pressure

Strategy:

A. To estimate the boiling point of water at 1000 mmHg, refer to Figure 12.5.4 and find the point where the vapor pressure curve of water intersects the line corresponding to a pressure of 1000 mmHg.

B. To estimate the pressure required for mercury to boil at 250°C, find the point where the vapor pressure curve of mercury intersects the line corresponding to a temperature of 250°C.

Solution:

a. **A** The vapor pressure curve of water intersects the P = 1000 mmHg line at about 110°C; this is therefore the boiling point of water at 1000 mmHg.

b. **B** The vertical line corresponding to 250°C intersects the vapor pressure curve of mercury at $P \approx 75$ mmHg. Hence this is the pressure required for mercury to boil at 250°C.

? Exercise 12.5.2: Boiling Ethlyene Glycol

Ethylene glycol is an organic compound primarily used as a raw material in the manufacture of polyester fibers and fabric industry, and polyethylene terephthalate resins (PET) used in bottling. Use the data in Figure 12.5.4 to estimate the following.

a. the normal boiling point of ethylene glycol
b. the pressure required for diethyl ether to boil at 20°C.

Answer a

200°C

Answer b

450 mmHg

Summary

Because the molecules of a liquid are in constant motion and possess a wide range of kinetic energies, at any moment some fraction of them has enough energy to escape from the surface of the liquid to enter the gas or vapor phase. This process, called **vaporization** or **evaporation**, generates a **vapor pressure** above the liquid. Molecules in the gas phase can collide with the liquid surface and reenter the liquid via **condensation**. Eventually, a *steady state* is reached in which the number of molecules evaporating and condensing per unit time is the same, and the system is in a state of **dynamic equilibrium**. Under these conditions, a liquid exhibits a characteristic **equilibrium vapor pressure** that depends only on the temperature. We can express the nonlinear relationship between vapor pressure and temperature as a linear relationship using the **Clausius–Clapeyron equation**. This equation can be used to calculate the enthalpy of vaporization of a liquid from its measured vapor pressure at two or more temperatures. **Volatile liquids** are liquids with high vapor pressures, which tend to evaporate readily from an open container; **nonvolatile liquids** have low vapor pressures. When the vapor pressure equals the external pressure, bubbles of vapor form within the liquid, and it boils. The temperature at which a substance boils at a pressure of 1 atm is its **normal boiling point**.

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12.6: Sublimation and Fusion

Sublimation

Some solids can transition directly into the gaseous state, bypassing the liquid state, via a process known as sublimation. At room temperature and standard pressure, a piece of dry ice (solid CO_2) sublimes, appearing to gradually disappear without ever forming any liquid. Snow and ice sublime at temperatures below the melting point of water, a slow process that may be accelerated by winds and the reduced atmospheric pressures at high altitudes. When solid iodine is warmed, the solid sublimes and a vivid purple vapor forms (Figure 12.6.6). The reverse of sublimation is called deposition, a process in which gaseous substances condense directly into the solid state, bypassing the liquid state. The formation of frost is an example of deposition.



This figure shows a test tube. In the bottom is a dark substance which breaks up into a purple gas at the top.

Figure 12.6.6: Sublimation of solid iodine in the bottom of the tube produces a purple gas that subsequently deposits as solid iodine on the colder part of the tube above. (credit: modification of work by Mark Ott)

Like vaporization, the process of sublimation requires an input of energy to overcome intermolecular attractions. The enthalpy of sublimation, ΔHsub, is the energy required to convert one mole of a substance from the solid to the gaseous state. For example, the sublimation of carbon dioxide is represented by:

$$\mathrm{CO_2}(s) \longrightarrow \mathrm{CO_2}(g) \quad \Delta H_{\text{sub}} = 26.1\ \text{kJ/mol} \tag{12.6.1}$$

Likewise, the enthalpy change for the reverse process of deposition is equal in magnitude but opposite in sign to that for sublimation:

$$\mathrm{CO_2}(g) \longrightarrow \mathrm{CO_2}(s) \quad \Delta H_{\text{dep}} = -\Delta H_{\text{sub}} = -26.1\ \text{kJ/mol} \tag{12.6.2}$$

Consider the extent to which intermolecular attractions must be overcome to achieve a given phase transition. Converting a solid into a liquid requires that these attractions be only partially overcome; transition to the gaseous state requires that they be completely overcome. As a result, the enthalpy of fusion for a substance is less than its enthalpy of vaporization. This same logic can be used to derive an approximate relation between the enthalpies of all phase changes for a given substance. Though not an entirely accurate description, sublimation may be conveniently modeled as a sequential two-step process of melting followed by vaporization in order to apply Hess's Law.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{solid} &\longrightarrow \text{liquid} \quad \Delta H_{\text{fus}} \\ \underline{\text{liquid} &\longrightarrow \text{gas} \quad \Delta H_{\text{vap}}} \\ \text{solid} &\longrightarrow \text{gas} \quad \Delta H_{\text{sub}} = \Delta H_{\text{fus}} + \Delta H_{\text{vap}} \end{aligned} \tag{12.6.3}$$

Viewed in this manner, the enthalpy of sublimation for a substance may be estimated as the sum of its enthalpies of fusion and vaporization, as illustrated in Figure 12.6.7. For example:

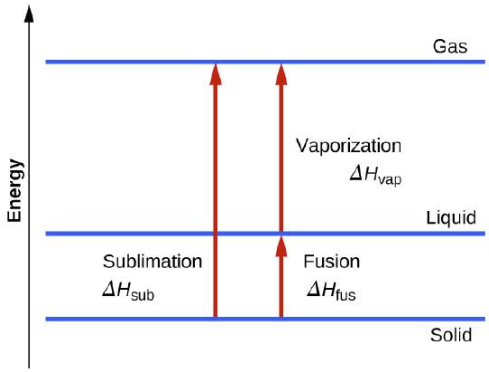


***Figure* 12.6.7**: *For a given substance, the sum of its enthalpy of fusion and enthalpy of vaporization is approximately equal to its enthalpy of sublimation.*

An energy level diagram is shown with three horizontal lines representing states of solid, liquid, and gas in increasing energy levels. The enthalpy of fusion is shown by arrow pointing from solid to liquid. Enthalpy of vaporization is shown with arrow pointing from liquid to gas. The enthalpy of sublimation points from solid to gas and has the same length as the arrows for fusion and vaporization combined.

Fusion

When we heat a crystalline solid, we increase the average energy of its atoms, molecules, or ions and the solid gets hotter. At some point, the added energy becomes large enough to partially overcome the forces holding the molecules or ions of the solid in their fixed positions, and the solid begins the process of transitioning to the liquid state, or melting. At this point, the temperature of the solid stops rising, despite the continual input of heat, and it remains constant until all of the solid is melted. Only after all of the solid has melted will continued heating increase the temperature of the liquid (Figure \(\PageIndex{5}\).

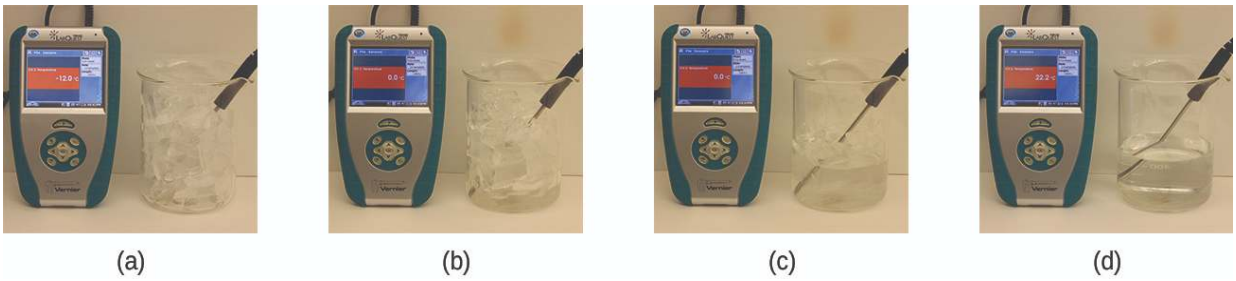


Figure 12.6.5: (a) This beaker of ice has a temperature of −12.0 °C. (b) After 10 minutes the ice has absorbed enough heat from the air to warm to 0 °C. A small amount has melted. (c) Thirty minutes later, the ice has absorbed more heat, but its temperature is still 0 °C. The ice melts without changing its temperature. (d) Only after all the ice has melted does the heat absorbed cause the temperature to increase to 22.2 °C. (credit: modification of work by Mark Ott).

If we stop heating during melting and place the mixture of solid and liquid in a perfectly insulated container so no heat can enter or escape, the solid and liquid phases remain in equilibrium. This is almost the situation with a mixture of ice and water in a very good thermos bottle; almost no heat gets in or out, and the mixture of solid ice and liquid water remains for hours. In a mixture of solid and liquid at equilibrium, the reciprocal process of melting and freezing occur at equal rates, and the quantities of solid and liquid therefore remain constant. The temperature at which the solid and liquid phases of a given substance are in equilibrium is called the melting point of the solid or the freezing point of the liquid. Use of one term or the other is normally dictated by the direction of the phase transition being considered, for example, solid to liquid (melting) or liquid to solid (freezing).

The enthalpy of fusion and the melting point of a crystalline solid depend on the strength of the attractive forces between the units present in the crystal. Molecules with weak attractive forces form crystals with low melting points. Crystals consisting of particles with stronger attractive forces melt at higher temperatures.

The amount of heat required to change one mole of a substance from the solid state to the liquid state is the enthalpy of fusion, ΔH_{fus} of the substance. The enthalpy of fusion of ice is 6.0 kJ/mol at 0 °C. Fusion (melting) is an endothermic process:

$$\mathrm{H_2O_{(s)} \rightarrow H_2O_{(l)} \quad \Delta H_{fus} = 6.01\ kJ/mol} \tag{12.6.4}$$

The reciprocal process, freezing, is an exothermic process whose enthalpy change is −6.0 kJ/mol at 0 °C:

$$\mathrm{H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow H_2O_{(s)} \quad \Delta H_{frz} = -\Delta H_{fus} = -6.01\ kJ/mol} \tag{12.6.5}$$

Selected molar enthalpies of fusion are tabulated in Table 12.6.1. Solids like ice which have strong intermolecular forces have much higher values than those like CH_4 with weak ones. Note that the enthalpies of fusion and vaporization change with temperature.

Table 12.6.1: Molar Enthalpies of Fusion and Vaporization of Selected Substances.

Substance	Formula	ΔH(fusion) / kJ mol^{1}	Melting Point / K	ΔH(vaporization) / kJ mol^{-1}	Boiling Point / K	($\Delta H_v/T_b$) / JK^{-1} mol^{-1}
Neon	Ne	0.33	24	1.80	27	67
Oxygen	O_2	0.44	54	6.82	90.2	76
Methane	CH_4	0.94	90.7	8.18	112	73
Ethane	C_2H_6	2.85	90.0	14.72	184	80
Chlorine	Cl_2	6.40	172.2	20.41	239	85
Carbon tetrachloride	CCl_4	2.67	250.0	30.00	350	86
Water*	H_2O	6.00678 at 0°C, 101kPa 6.354 at 81.6 °C, 2.50 MPa	273.1	40.657 at 100 °C, 45.051 at 0 °C, 46.567 at -33 °C	373.1	109
n-Nonane	C_9H_{20}	19.3	353	40.5	491	82
Mercury	Hg	2.30	234	58.6	630	91
Sodium	Na	2.60	371	98	1158	85
Aluminum	Al	10.9	933	284	2600	109
Lead	Pb	4.77	601	178	2022	88

*www1.lsbu.ac.uk/water/data.html

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12.7: Heating Curve for Water

Freezing, condensation, and deposition, which are the reverse of fusion, sublimation, and vaporization—are exothermic. Thus heat pumps that use refrigerants are essentially air-conditioners running in reverse. Heat from the environment is used to vaporize the refrigerant, which is then condensed to a liquid in coils within a house to provide heat. The energy changes that occur during phase changes can be quantified by using a heating or cooling curve.

Heating Curves

Figure 12.7.3 shows a heating curve, a plot of temperature versus heating time, for a 75 g sample of water. The sample is initially ice at 1 atm and −23°C; as heat is added, the temperature of the ice increases linearly with time. The slope of the line depends on both the mass of the ice and the specific heat (C_s) of ice, which is the number of joules required to raise the temperature of 1 g of ice by 1°C. As the temperature of the ice increases, the water molecules in the ice crystal absorb more and more energy and vibrate more vigorously. At the melting point, they have enough kinetic energy to overcome attractive forces and move with respect to one another. As more heat is added, the temperature of the system does *not* increase further but remains constant at 0°C until all the ice has melted. Once all the ice has been converted to liquid water, the temperature of the water again begins to increase. Now, however, the temperature increases more slowly than before because the specific heat capacity of water is *greater* than that of ice. When the temperature of the water reaches 100°C, the water begins to boil. Here, too, the temperature remains constant at 100°C until all the water has been converted to steam. At this point, the temperature again begins to rise, but at a *faster* rate than seen in the other phases because the heat capacity of steam is *less* than that of ice or water.

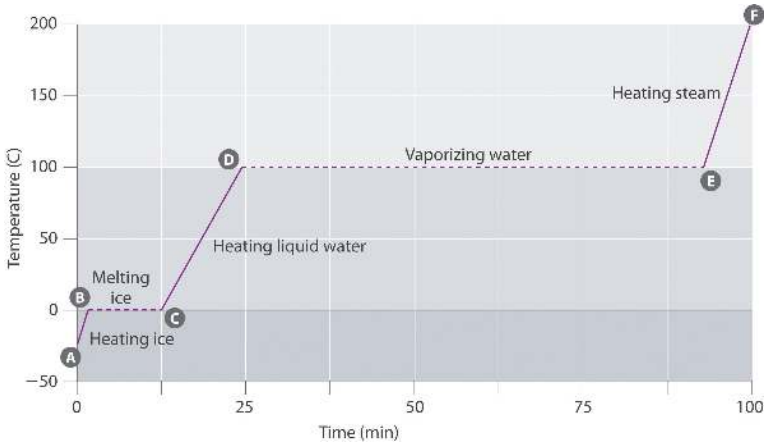


Figure 12.7.1: A Heating Curve for Water. This plot of temperature shows what happens to a 75 g sample of ice initially at 1 atm and −23°C as heat is added at a constant rate: A–B: heating solid ice; B–C: melting ice; C–D: heating liquid water; D–E: vaporizing water; E–F: heating steam.

Thus *the temperature of a system does not change during a phase change*. In this example, as long as even a tiny amount of ice is present, the temperature of the system remains at 0°C during the melting process, and as long as even a small amount of liquid water is present, the temperature of the system remains at 100°C during the boiling process. The rate at which heat is added does *not* affect the temperature of the ice/water or water/steam mixture because the added heat is being used exclusively to overcome the attractive forces that hold the more condensed phase together. Many cooks think that food will cook faster if the heat is turned up higher so that the water boils more rapidly. Instead, the pot of water will boil to dryness sooner, but the temperature of the water does not depend on how vigorously it boils.

> *The temperature of a sample does not change during a phase change.*

If heat is added at a constant rate, as in Figure 12.7.3, then the length of the horizontal lines, which represents the time during which the temperature does not change, is directly proportional to the magnitude of the enthalpies associated with the phase changes. In Figure 12.7.3, the horizontal line at 100°C is much longer than the line at 0°C because the enthalpy of vaporization of water is several times greater than the enthalpy of fusion.

A superheated liquid is a sample of a liquid at the temperature and pressure at which it should be a gas. Superheated liquids are not stable; the liquid will eventually boil, sometimes violently. The phenomenon of superheating causes “bumping” when a liquid is heated in the laboratory. When a test tube containing water is heated over a Bunsen burner, for example, one portion of the liquid

can easily become too hot. When the superheated liquid converts to a gas, it can push or "bump" the rest of the liquid out of the test tube. Placing a stirring rod or a small piece of ceramic (a "boiling chip") in the test tube allows bubbles of vapor to form on the surface of the object so the liquid boils instead of becoming superheated. Superheating is the reason a liquid heated in a smooth cup in a microwave oven may not boil until the cup is moved, when the motion of the cup allows bubbles to form.

Cooling Curves

The cooling curve, a plot of temperature versus cooling time, in Figure 12.7.4 plots temperature versus time as a 75 g sample of steam, initially at 1 atm and 200°C, is cooled. Although we might expect the cooling curve to be the mirror image of the heating curve in Figure 12.7.3, the cooling curve is *not* an identical mirror image. As heat is removed from the steam, the temperature falls until it reaches 100°C. At this temperature, the steam begins to condense to liquid water. No further temperature change occurs until all the steam is converted to the liquid; then the temperature again decreases as the water is cooled. We might expect to reach another plateau at 0°C, where the water is converted to ice; in reality, however, this does not always occur. Instead, the temperature often drops below the freezing point for some time, as shown by the little dip in the cooling curve below 0°C. This region corresponds to an unstable form of the liquid, a supercooled liquid. If the liquid is allowed to stand, if cooling is continued, or if a small crystal of the solid phase is added (a seed crystal), the supercooled liquid will convert to a solid, sometimes quite suddenly. As the water freezes, the temperature increases slightly due to the heat evolved during the freezing process and then holds constant at the melting point as the rest of the water freezes. Subsequently, the temperature of the ice decreases again as more heat is removed from the system.

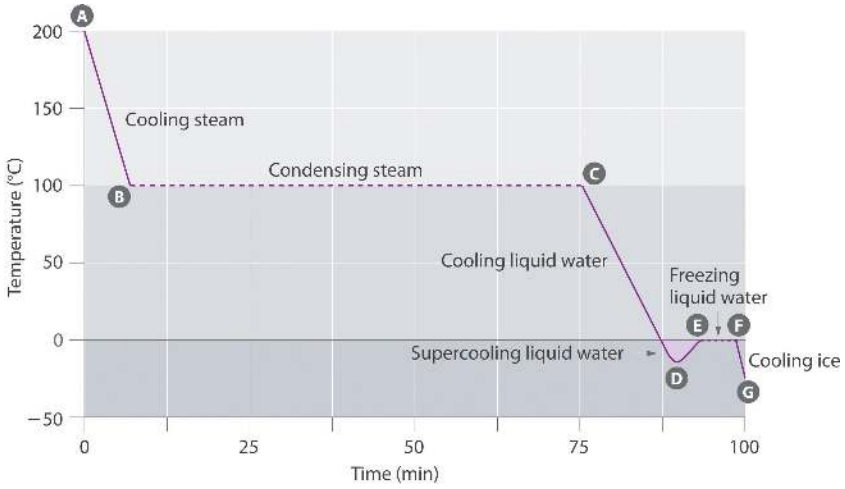


Figure 12.7.2: A Cooling Curve for Water. This plot of temperature shows what happens to a 75 g sample of steam initially at 1 atm and 200°C as heat is removed at a constant rate: A–B: cooling steam; B–C: condensing steam; C–D: cooling liquid water to give a supercooled liquid; D–E: warming the liquid as it begins to freeze; E–F: freezing liquid water; F–G: cooling ice.

Supercooling effects have a huge impact on Earth's climate. For example, supercooling of water droplets in clouds can prevent the clouds from releasing precipitation over regions that are persistently arid as a result. Clouds consist of tiny droplets of water, which in principle should be dense enough to fall as rain. In fact, however, the droplets must aggregate to reach a certain size before they can fall to the ground. Usually a small particle (a *nucleus*) is required for the droplets to aggregate; the nucleus can be a dust particle, an ice crystal, or a particle of silver iodide dispersed in a cloud during *seeding* (a method of inducing rain). Unfortunately, the small droplets of water generally remain as a supercooled liquid down to about −10°C, rather than freezing into ice crystals that are more suitable nuclei for raindrop formation. One approach to producing rainfall from an existing cloud is to cool the water droplets so that they crystallize to provide nuclei around which raindrops can grow. This is best done by dispersing small granules of solid CO_2 (dry ice) into the cloud from an airplane. Solid CO_2 sublimes directly to the gas at pressures of 1 atm or lower, and the enthalpy of sublimation is substantial (25.3 kJ/mol). As the CO_2 sublimes, it absorbs heat from the cloud, often with the desired results.

Example 12.7.1: Cooling Hot Tea

If a 50.0 g ice cube at 0.0°C is added to 500 mL of tea at 20.0°C, what is the temperature of the tea when the ice cube has just melted? Assume that no heat is transferred to or from the surroundings. The density of water (and iced tea) is 1.00 g/mL over the range 0°C–20°C, the specific heats of liquid water and ice are 4.184 J/(g•°C) and 2.062 J/(g•°C), respectively, and the enthalpy of fusion of ice is 6.01 kJ/mol.

Given: mass, volume, initial temperature, density, specific heats, and ΔH_{fus}

Asked for: final temperature

Strategy:

Substitute the values given into the general equation relating heat gained to heat lost (Equation 5.39) to obtain the final temperature of the mixture.

Solution:

When two substances or objects at different temperatures are brought into contact, heat will flow from the warmer one to the cooler. The amount of heat that flows is given by

$$q = mC_s\Delta T \tag{12.7.1}$$

where q is heat, m is mass, C_s is the specific heat, and ΔT is the temperature change. Eventually, the temperatures of the two substances will become equal at a value somewhere between their initial temperatures. Calculating the temperature of iced tea after adding an ice cube is slightly more complicated. The general equation relating heat gained and heat lost is still valid, but in this case we also have to take into account the amount of heat required to melt the ice cube from ice at 0.0°C to liquid water at 0.0°C.

Exercise 12.7.1: Death by Freezing

Suppose you are overtaken by a blizzard while ski touring and you take refuge in a tent. You are thirsty, but you forgot to bring liquid water. You have a choice of eating a few handfuls of snow (say 400 g) at −5.0°C immediately to quench your thirst or setting up your propane stove, melting the snow, and heating the water to body temperature before drinking it. You recall that the survival guide you leafed through at the hotel said something about not eating snow, but you cannot remember why—after all, it's just frozen water. To understand the guide's recommendation, calculate the amount of heat that your body will have to supply to bring 400 g of snow at −5.0°C to your body's internal temperature of 37°C. Use the data in Example 12.7.1

Answer

200 kJ (4.1 kJ to bring the ice from −5.0°C to 0.0°C, 133.6 kJ to melt the ice at 0.0°C, and 61.9 kJ to bring the water from 0.0°C to 37°C), which is energy that would not have been expended had you first melted the snow.

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12.8: Phase Diagrams

Learning Objectives

- To understand the basics of a one-component phase diagram as a function of temperature and pressure in a closed system.
- To be able to identify the triple point, the critical point, and four regions: solid, liquid, gas, and a supercritical fluid.

The state exhibited by a given sample of matter depends on the identity, temperature, and pressure of the sample. A phase diagram is a graphic summary of the physical state of a substance as a function of temperature and pressure in a closed system.

Introduction

A typical phase diagram consists of discrete regions that represent the different phases exhibited by a substance (Figure 12.8.1). Each region corresponds to the range of combinations of temperature and pressure over which that phase is stable. The combination of high pressure and low temperature (upper left of Figure 12.8.1) corresponds to the solid phase, whereas the gas phase is favored at high temperature and low pressure (lower right). The combination of high temperature and high pressure (upper right) corresponds to a supercritical fluid.

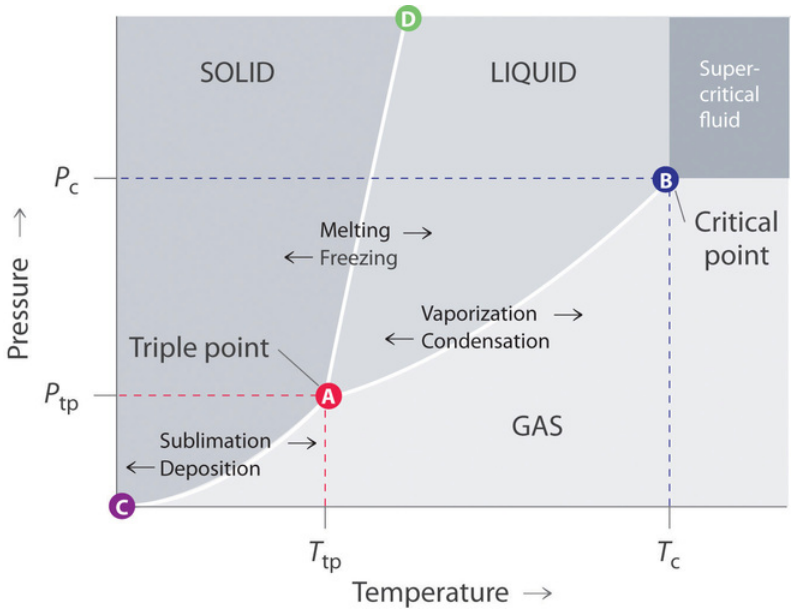


Figure 12.8.1: A Typical Phase Diagram for a Substance That Exhibits Three Phases—Solid, Liquid, and Gas—and a Supercritical Region

The solid phase is favored at low temperature and high pressure; the gas phase is favored at high temperature and low pressure.

The lines in a phase diagram correspond to the combinations of temperature and pressure at which two phases can coexist in equilibrium. In Figure 12.8.1, the line that connects points A and D separates the solid and liquid phases and shows how the melting point of a solid varies with pressure. The solid and liquid phases are in equilibrium all along this line; crossing the line horizontally corresponds to melting or freezing. The line that connects points A and B is the vapor pressure curve of the liquid, which we discussed in Section 11.5. It ends at the critical point, beyond which the substance exists as a supercritical fluid. The line that connects points A and C is the vapor pressure curve of the *solid* phase. Along this line, the solid is in equilibrium with the vapor phase through sublimation and deposition. Finally, point A, where the solid/liquid, liquid/gas, and solid/gas lines intersect, is the triple point; it is the *only* combination of temperature and pressure at which all three phases (solid, liquid, and gas) are in equilibrium and can therefore exist simultaneously. Because no more than three phases can ever coexist, a phase diagram can never have more than three lines intersecting at a single point.

Remember that a phase diagram, such as the one in Figure 12.8.1, is for a single pure substance in a closed system, not for a liquid in an open beaker in contact with air at 1 atm pressure. In practice, however, the conclusions reached about the behavior of a substance in a closed system can usually be extrapolated to an open system without a great deal of error.

The Phase Diagram of Water

Figure 12.8.2 shows the phase diagram of water and illustrates that the triple point of water occurs at 0.01°C and 0.00604 atm (4.59 mmHg). Far more reproducible than the melting point of ice, which depends on the amount of dissolved air and the atmospheric pressure, the triple point (273.16 K) is used to define the absolute (Kelvin) temperature scale. The triple point also represents the lowest pressure at which a liquid phase can exist in equilibrium with the solid or vapor. At pressures less than 0.00604 atm, therefore, ice does not melt to a liquid as the temperature increases; the solid sublimes directly to water vapor. Sublimation of water at low temperature and pressure can be used to "freeze-dry" foods and beverages. The food or beverage is first cooled to subzero temperatures and placed in a container in which the pressure is maintained below 0.00604 atm. Then, as the temperature is increased, the water sublimes, leaving the dehydrated food (such as that used by backpackers or astronauts) or the powdered beverage (as with freeze-dried coffee).

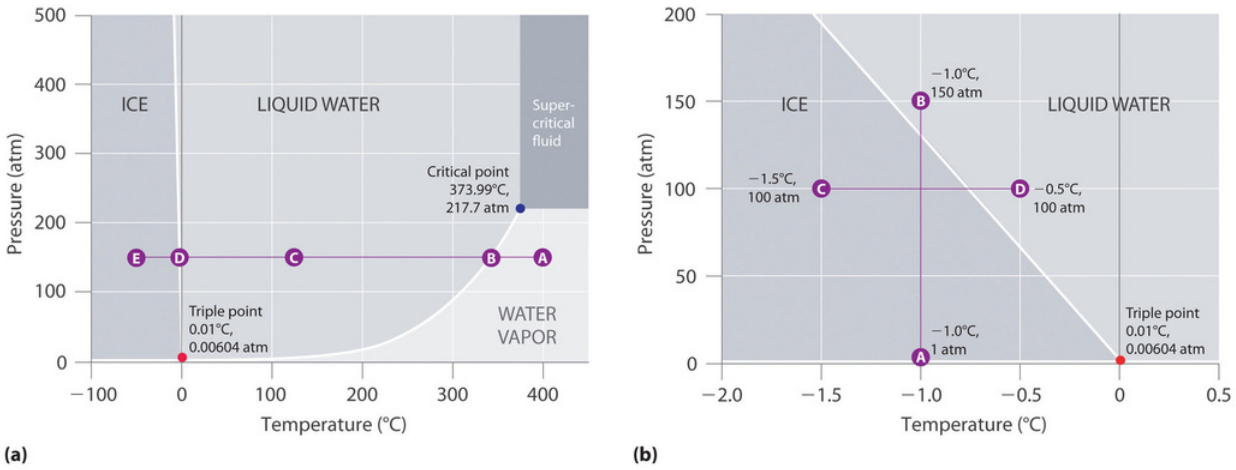


Figure 12.8.2: Two Versions of the Phase Diagram of Water. (a) In this graph with linear temperature and pressure axes, the boundary between ice and liquid water is almost vertical. (b) This graph with an expanded scale illustrates the decrease in melting point with increasing pressure. (The letters refer to points discussed in Example 12.8.1).

The phase diagram for water illustrated in Figure 12.8.2*b* shows the boundary between ice and water on an expanded scale. The melting curve of ice slopes up and slightly to the left rather than up and to the right as in Figure 12.8.1; that is, the melting point of ice *decreases* with increasing pressure; at 100 MPa (987 atm), ice melts at −9°C. Water behaves this way because it is one of the few known substances for which the crystalline solid is *less dense* than the liquid (others include antimony and bismuth). Increasing the pressure of ice that is in equilibrium with water at 0°C and 1 atm tends to push some of the molecules closer together, thus decreasing the volume of the sample. The decrease in volume (and corresponding increase in density) is smaller for a solid or a liquid than for a gas, but it is sufficient to melt some of the ice.

In Figure 12.8.2*b* point A is located at P = 1 atm and T = −1.0°C, within the solid (ice) region of the phase diagram. As the pressure increases to 150 atm while the temperature remains the same, the line from point A crosses the ice/water boundary to point B, which lies in the liquid water region. Consequently, applying a pressure of 150 atm will melt ice at −1.0°C. We have already indicated that the pressure dependence of the melting point of water is of vital importance. If the solid/liquid boundary in the phase diagram of water were to slant up and to the right rather than to the left, ice would be denser than water, ice cubes would sink, water pipes would not burst when they freeze, and antifreeze would be unnecessary in automobile engines.

Ice Skating: An Incorrect Hypothesis of Phase Transitions

Until recently, many textbooks described ice skating as being possible because the pressure generated by the skater's blade is high enough to melt the ice under the blade, thereby creating a lubricating layer of liquid water that enables the blade to slide across the ice. Although this explanation is intuitively satisfying, it is incorrect, as we can show by a simple calculation.



Pressure from ice skates on ice. from wikihow.com.

Recall that pressure (*P*) is the force (*F*) applied per unit area (*A*):

$$P = \frac{F}{A}$$

To calculate the pressure an ice skater exerts on the ice, we need to calculate only the force exerted and the area of the skate blade. If we assume a 75.0 kg (165 lb) skater, then the force exerted by the skater on the ice due to gravity is

$$F = mg$$

where *m* is the mass and *g* is the acceleration due to Earth's gravity (9.81 m/s^2). Thus the force is

$$F = (75.0\ kg)(9.81\ m/s^2) = 736\ (kg \bullet m)/s^2 = 736N$$

If we assume that the skate blades are 2.0 mm wide and 25 cm long, then the area of the bottom of each blade is

$$A = (2.0 \times 10^{-3}\ m)(25 \times 10^{-2}\ m) = 5.0 \times 10^{-4} m^2$$

If the skater is gliding on one foot, the pressure exerted on the ice is

$$P = \frac{736\ N}{5.0 \times 10^{-4}\ m^2} = 1.5 \times 10^6\ N/m^2 = 1.5 \times 10^6\ Pa = 15\ atm$$

The pressure is much lower than the pressure needed to decrease the melting point of ice by even 1°C, and experience indicates that it is possible to skate even when the temperature is well below freezing. Thus pressure-induced melting of the ice cannot explain the low friction that enables skaters (and hockey pucks) to glide. Recent research indicates that the surface of ice, where the ordered array of water molecules meets the air, consists of one or more layers of almost liquid water. These layers, together with melting induced by friction as a skater pushes forward, appear to account for both the ease with which a skater glides and the fact that skating becomes more difficult below about −7°C, when the number of lubricating surface water layers decreases.

✔ Example 12.8.1: Water

Referring to the phase diagram of water in Figure 12.8.2

a. predict the physical form of a sample of water at 400°C and 150 atm.
b. describe the changes that occur as the sample in part (a) is slowly allowed to cool to −50°C at a constant pressure of 150 atm.

Given: phase diagram, temperature, and pressure

Asked for: physical form and physical changes

Strategy:

A. Identify the region of the phase diagram corresponding to the initial conditions and identify the phase that exists in this region.
B. Draw a line corresponding to the given pressure. Move along that line in the appropriate direction (in this case cooling) and describe the phase changes.

Solution:

a. **A** Locate the starting point on the phase diagram in part (a) in Figure 12.8.2 The initial conditions correspond to point A, which lies in the region of the phase diagram representing water vapor. Thus water at *T* = 400°C and *P* = 150 atm is a gas.

b. **B** Cooling the sample at constant pressure corresponds to moving left along the horizontal line in part (a) in Figure 12.8.2. At about 340°C (point B), we cross the vapor pressure curve, at which point water vapor will begin to condense and the sample will consist of a mixture of vapor and liquid. When all of the vapor has condensed, the temperature drops further, and we enter the region corresponding to liquid water (indicated by point C). Further cooling brings us to the melting curve, the line that separates the liquid and solid phases at a little below 0°C (point D), at which point the sample will consist of a mixture of liquid and solid water (ice). When all of the water has frozen, cooling the sample to −50°C takes us along the horizontal line to point E, which lies within the region corresponding to solid water. At P = 150 atm and T = −50°C, therefore, the sample is solid ice.

? Exercise 12.8.2

Referring to the phase diagram of water in Figure 12.8.2, predict the physical form of a sample of water at −0.0050°C as the pressure is gradually increased from 1.0 mmHg to 218 atm.

Answer

The sample is initially a gas, condenses to a solid as the pressure increases, and then melts when the pressure is increased further to give a liquid.

The Phase Diagram of Carbon Dioxide

In contrast to the phase diagram of water, the phase diagram of CO_2 (Figure 12.8.3) has a more typical melting curve, sloping up and to the right. The triple point is −56.6°C and 5.11 atm, which means that liquid CO_2 cannot exist at pressures lower than 5.11 atm. At 1 atm, therefore, solid CO_2 sublimes directly to the vapor while maintaining a temperature of −78.5°C, the normal sublimation temperature. Solid CO_2 is generally known as dry ice because it is a cold solid with no liquid phase observed when it is warmed.



Dry ice ($CO_2(s)$) sublimed in air under room temperature and pressure. from Wikipedia.

Also notice the critical point at 30.98°C and 72.79 atm. Supercritical carbon dioxide is emerging as a natural refrigerant, making it a low carbon (and thus a more environmentally friendly) solution for domestic heat pumps.

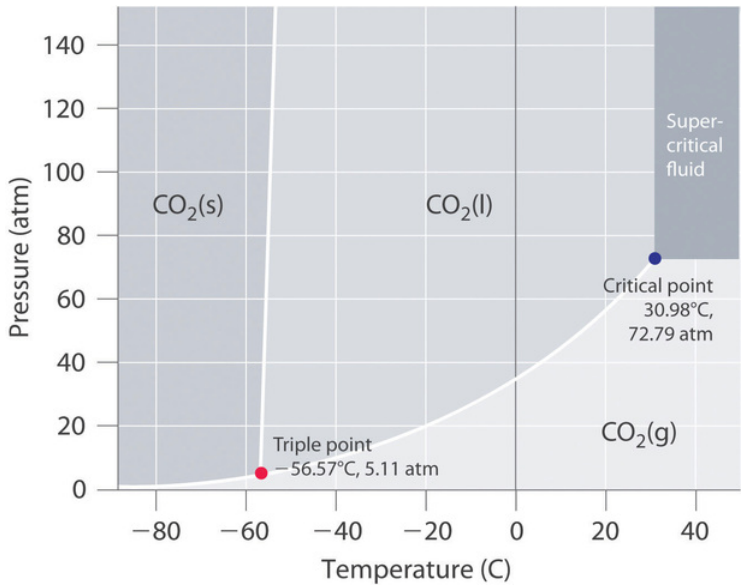


Figure 12.8.3: The Phase Diagram of Carbon Dioxide. Note the critical point, the triple point, and the normal sublimation temperature in this diagram.

The triple point is at -57.57 degrees C and 5.11 atm. The critical point is at 30.98 degree C and 72.79 atm.

The Critical Point

As the phase diagrams above demonstrate, a combination of high pressure and low temperature allows gases to be liquefied. As we increase the temperature of a gas, liquefaction becomes more and more difficult because higher and higher pressures are required to overcome the increased kinetic energy of the molecules. In fact, for every substance, there is some temperature above which the gas can no longer be liquefied, regardless of pressure. This temperature is the critical temperature (T_c), the highest temperature at which a substance can exist as a liquid. Above the critical temperature, the molecules have too much kinetic energy for the intermolecular attractive forces to hold them together in a separate liquid phase. Instead, the substance forms a single phase that completely occupies the volume of the container. Substances with strong intermolecular forces tend to form a liquid phase over a very large temperature range and therefore have high critical temperatures. Conversely, substances with weak intermolecular interactions have relatively low critical temperatures. Each substance also has a critical pressure (P_c), the minimum pressure needed to liquefy it at the critical temperature. The combination of critical temperature and critical pressure is called the critical point. The critical temperatures and pressures of several common substances are listed in Figure 12.8.1.

Figure 12.8.1: Critical Temperatures and Pressures of Some Simple Substances

Substance	T_c (°C)	P_c (atm)
NH_3	132.4	113.5
CO_2	31.0	73.8
CH_3CH_2OH (ethanol)	240.9	61.4
He	−267.96	2.27
Hg	1477	1587
CH_4	−82.6	46.0
N_2	−146.9	33.9
H_2O	374.0	217.7

High-boiling-point, nonvolatile liquids have high critical temperatures and vice versa.



A Video Discussing Phase Diagrams. Video Source: Phase Diagrams(opens in new window) [youtu.be]

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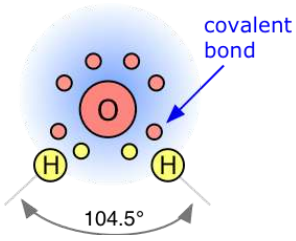
12.9: Water - An Extraordinary Substance

Learning Objectives

- Identify three special properties of water that make it unusual for a molecule of its size, and explain how these result from hydrogen bonding.
- Explain what is meant by hydrogen bonding and the molecular structural features that bring it about.
- Describe the "structure", such as it is, of liquid water.
- Sketch out structural examples of hydrogen bonding in three small molecules other than H_2O.
- Describe the roles of hydrogen bonding in proteins and in DNA.

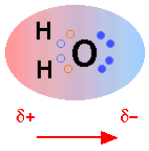
Most students of chemistry quickly learn to relate the structure of a molecule to its general properties. Thus we generally expect small molecules to form gases or liquids, and large ones to exist as solids under ordinary conditions. And then we come to H_2O, and are shocked to find that many of the predictions are way off, and that water (and by implication, life itself) should not even exist on our planet! In this section we will learn why this tiny combination of three nuclei and ten electrons possesses special properties that make it unique among the more than 15 million chemical species we presently know.

In water, each hydrogen nucleus is covalently bound to the central oxygen atom by a pair of electrons that are shared between them. In H_2O, only two of the six outer-shell electrons of oxygen are used for this purpose, leaving four electrons which are organized into two non-bonding pairs. The four electron pairs surrounding the oxygen tend to arrange themselves as far from each other as possible in order to minimize repulsions between these clouds of negative charge. This would ordinarily result in a tetrahedral geometry in which the angle between electron pairs (and therefore the H-O-H *bond angle*) is 109.5°. However, because the two non-bonding pairs remain closer to the oxygen atom, these exert a stronger repulsion against the two covalent bonding pairs, effectively pushing the two hydrogen atoms closer together. The result is a distorted tetrahedral arrangement in which the H—O—H angle is 104.5°.

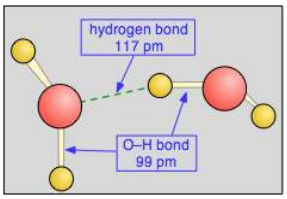


Water's large dipole moment leads to hydrogen bonding

The H_2O molecule is electrically neutral, but the positive and negative charges are not distributed uniformly. This is illustrated by the gradation in color in the schematic diagram here. The electronic (negative) charge is concentrated at the oxygen end of the molecule, owing partly to the nonbonding electrons (solid blue circles), and to oxygen's high nuclear charge which exerts stronger attractions on the electrons. This charge displacement constitutes an *electric dipole*, represented by the arrow at the bottom; you can think of this dipole as the electrical "image" of a water molecule.

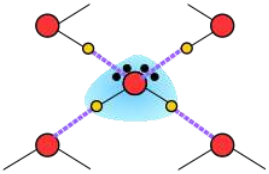


Opposite charges attract, so it is not surprising that the negative end of one water molecule will tend to orient itself so as to be close to the positive end of another molecule that happens to be nearby. The strength of this *dipole-dipole attraction* is less than that of a normal chemical bond, and so it is completely overwhelmed by ordinary thermal motions in the gas phase. However, when the H_2O molecules are crowded together in the liquid, these attractive forces exert a very noticeable effect, which we call (somewhat misleadingly) *hydrogen bonding*. And at temperatures low enough to turn off the disruptive effects of thermal motions, water freezes into ice in which the hydrogen bonds form a rigid and stable network.



Notice that the hydrogen bond (shown by the dashed green line) is somewhat longer than the covalent O—H bond. It is also *much weaker*, about 23 kJ mol^{-1} compared to the O–H covalent bond strength of 492 kJ mol^{-1}.

Water has long been known to exhibit many physical properties that distinguish it from other small molecules of comparable mass. Although chemists refer to these as the "anomalous" properties of water, they are by no means mysterious; all are entirely predictable consequences of the way the size and nuclear charge of the oxygen atom conspire to distort the electronic charge clouds of the atoms of other elements when these are chemically bonded to the oxygen.



The combination of large bond dipoles and short dipole–dipole distances results in very strong dipole–dipole interactions called hydrogen bonds, as shown for ice in Figure 12.9.6. A hydrogen bond is usually indicated by a dotted line between the hydrogen atom attached to O, N, or F (the *hydrogen bond donor*) and the atom that has the lone pair of electrons (the *hydrogen bond acceptor*). Because each water molecule contains two hydrogen atoms and two lone pairs, a tetrahedral arrangement maximizes the number of hydrogen bonds that can be formed. In the structure of ice, each oxygen atom is surrounded by a distorted tetrahedron of hydrogen atoms that form bridges to the oxygen atoms of adjacent water molecules. The bridging hydrogen atoms are *not* equidistant from the two oxygen atoms they connect, however. Instead, each hydrogen atom is 101 pm from one oxygen and 174 pm from the other. In contrast, each oxygen atom is bonded to two H atoms at the shorter distance and two at the longer distance, corresponding to two O–H covalent bonds and two O···H hydrogen bonds from adjacent water molecules, respectively. The resulting open, cagelike structure of ice means that the solid is actually slightly less dense than the liquid, which explains why ice floats on water rather than sinks.

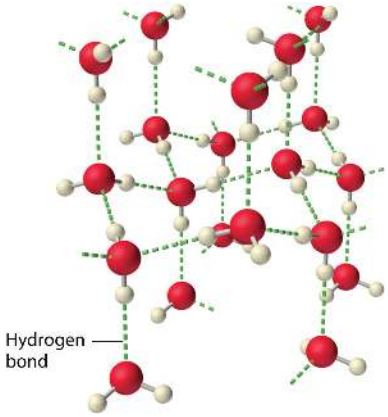


Figure* 12.9.6*: *The Hydrogen-Bonded Structure of Ice.*

Each water molecule accepts two hydrogen bonds from two other water molecules and donates two hydrogen atoms to form hydrogen bonds with two more water molecules, producing an open, cagelike structure. The structure of liquid water is very similar, but in the liquid, the hydrogen bonds are continually broken and formed because of rapid molecular motion.

> *Hydrogen bond formation requires both a hydrogen bond donor and a hydrogen bond acceptor.*

Boiling Point

Molecules with hydrogen atoms bonded to electronegative atoms such as O, N, and F (and to a much lesser extent Cl and S) tend to exhibit unusually strong intermolecular interactions. These result in much higher boiling points than are observed for substances in which London dispersion forces dominate, as illustrated for the covalent hydrides of elements of groups 14–17 in Figure 12.9.5. Methane and its heavier congeners in group 14 form a series whose boiling points increase smoothly with increasing molar mass. This is the expected trend in nonpolar molecules, for which London dispersion forces are the exclusive intermolecular forces. In contrast, the hydrides of the lightest members of groups 15–17 have boiling points that are more than 100°C greater than predicted on the basis of their molar masses. The effect is most dramatic for water: if we extend the straight line connecting the points for H_2Te and H_2Se to the line for period 2, we obtain an estimated boiling point of −130°C for water! Imagine the implications for life on Earth if water boiled at −130°C rather than 100°C.

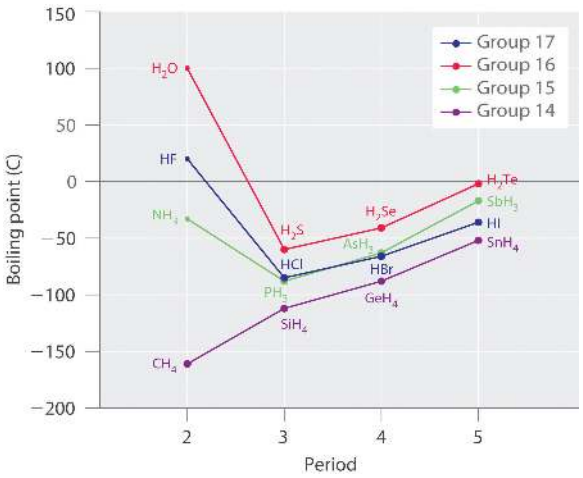
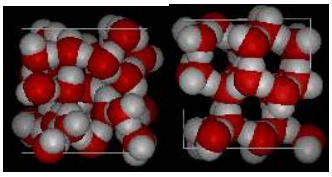


Figure 12.9.5: The Effects of Hydrogen Bonding on Boiling Points. These plots of the boiling points of the covalent hydrides of the elements of groups 14–17 show that the boiling points of the lightest members of each series for which hydrogen bonding is possible (HF, NH_3, and H_2O) are anomalously high for compounds with such low molecular masses.

Why do strong intermolecular forces produce such anomalously high boiling points and other unusual properties, such as high enthalpies of vaporization and high melting points? The answer lies in the highly polar nature of the bonds between hydrogen and very electronegative elements such as O, N, and F. The large difference in electronegativity results in a large partial positive charge on hydrogen and a correspondingly large partial negative charge on the O, N, or F atom. Consequently, H–O, H–N, and H–F bonds have very large bond dipoles that can interact strongly with one another. Because a hydrogen atom is so small, these dipoles can also approach one another more closely than most other dipoles.

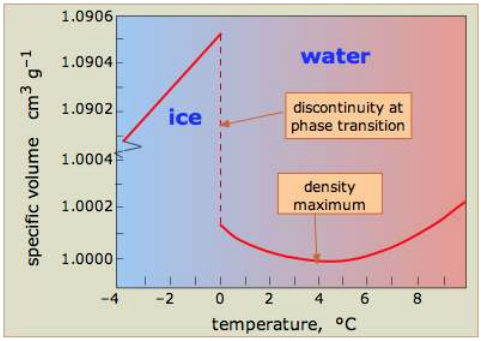
Ice Floats on Water

The most energetically favorable configuration of H_2O molecules is one in which each molecule is hydrogen-bonded to four neighboring molecules. Owing to the thermal motions described above, this ideal is never achieved in the liquid, but when water freezes to ice, the molecules settle into exactly this kind of an arrangement in the ice crystal. This arrangement requires that the molecules be somewhat farther apart then would otherwise be the case; as a consequence, ice, in which hydrogen bonding is at its maximum, has a more open structure, and thus a lower density than water.



Here are three-dimensional views of a typical local structure of water (left) and ice (right.) Notice the greater openness of the ice structure which is necessary to ensure the strongest degree of hydrogen bonding in a uniform, extended crystal lattice. The more crowded and jumbled arrangement in liquid water can be sustained only by the greater amount of thermal energy available above the freezing point.

When ice melts, the more vigorous thermal motion disrupts much of the hydrogen-bonded structure, allowing the molecules to pack more closely. Water is thus one of the very few substances whose solid form has a lower density than the liquid at the freezing point. Localized clusters of hydrogen bonds still remain, however; these are continually breaking and reforming as the thermal motions jiggle and shove the individual molecules. As the temperature of the water is raised above freezing, the extent and lifetimes of these clusters diminish, so the density of the water increases.



At higher temperatures, another effect, common to all substances, begins to dominate: as the temperature increases, so does the amplitude of thermal motions. This more vigorous jostling causes the average distance between the molecules to increase, reducing the density of the liquid; this is ordinary thermal expansion. Because the two competing effects (hydrogen bonding at low temperatures and thermal expansion at higher temperatures) both lead to a decrease in density, it follows that there must be some temperature at which the density of water passes through a maximum. This temperature is 4° C; this is the temperature of the water you will find at the bottom of an ice-covered lake in which this most dense of all water has displaced the colder water and pushed it nearer to the surface.

Because ice is less dense than liquid water, rivers, lakes, and oceans freeze from the top down. In fact, the ice forms a protective surface layer that insulates the rest of the water, allowing fish and other organisms to survive in the lower levels of a frozen lake or sea. If ice were denser than the liquid, the ice formed at the surface in cold weather would sink as fast as it formed. Bodies of water would freeze from the bottom up, which would be lethal for most aquatic creatures. The expansion of water when freezing also explains why automobile or boat engines must be protected by “antifreeze” and why unprotected pipes in houses break if they are allowed to freeze.

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