



DIXONS  
SIXTH FORM  
ACADEMY

# SUMMER WORK

**A LEVEL  
CHEMISTRY**

STUDENT NAME:

20  
25



# About the Summer Work

This booklet contains a number of tasks that you are expected to complete to a good standard in order to be able to be enrolled in this subject.

You can use revision guides from GCSE, and the links to websites and suggested textbooks below, to help you complete the tasks and to carry out further reading.

***On the first day in college you will sit an induction test. This test will be based on the summer work which has been set for you as your homework. Remember - first impressions are important.***

## Key websites and textbooks:

Hodder AQA A-level Chemistry textbook

CGP A-level Chemistry Revision Guide

<https://chemrevise.org/>

<https://www.physicsandmathstutor.com/chemistry-revision/a-level-aqa/>



# Welcome to Chemistry

Chemistry is the central science, with links to Biology, Physics, Mathematics, and Engineering. Chemists design and synthesise medicines, investigate climate change and energy, create our everyday products, and develop new materials.

Chemistry is split into three disciplines:

## **Physical Chemistry**

This is the study of macroscopic, atomic, subatomic and particulate phenomena in chemical systems. This encompasses a diverse range of topics including; atomic structure, bonding, amount of substance, kinetics, equilibria and pH.

## **Inorganic Chemistry**

This is the study of the structure, properties and reactions of inorganic compounds. This section focuses on trends visible in the periodic table and properties exhibited by elements in particular groups, e.g. the transition metals.

## **Organic Chemistry**

This is the study of the structure, properties and reactions of organic compounds. This section is concerned with the vast amount of covalent compounds of the element carbon, and links to topics studied in Biology. The nomenclature, structure, properties and reactions of these compounds is studied, in addition to analytical techniques.

**As an excellent student in Chemistry you will follow these routines in order to develop your understanding and master concepts.**

1. Review work after each lesson and complete the relevant independent study tasks.
2. Seek understanding and not be content until you have mastered a concept.
3. Practice daily.
4. Ask your teacher if unsure.

**Outline of the course**

	<b>Physical Chemistry</b>	<b>Inorganic Chemistry</b>	<b>Organic Chemistry</b>
<b>Y1 Topics</b>	Atomic structure Amount of substance bonding Bonding Energetics Kinetics Chemical equilibrium & Le Chatelier's Principle and K <sub>c</sub> Oxidation and reduction	Periodicity Group 2 the alkaline earth metals Group 7 the halogens	Introduction to organic chemistry Alkanes Halogenoalkanes Alkenes Alcohols Organic analysis
<b>Links to GSCE (AQA unit)</b>	Atomic structure (C1) The periodic table (C1) Bonding, structure and properties (C2) Quantitative chemistry (C3) Energy changes (C5) Rate of reaction (C6) Reversible reactions and equilibrium (C6) Oxidation and reduction (C4)	The periodic table (C1) Group 1 (C1) Group 7 (C1) Group 0 (C1) Metal oxides (C4) Oxidation and reduction (C4) Reactivity series (C4) Extraction of metals (C4) Gas tests (C8)	Crude oil (C8) Hydrocarbons (C8) Alkanes and alkenes (C8) Fractional distillation (C8) Cracking (C8) Earth's atmosphere (C9) Atmospheric pollutants (C9) Earth's resources and sustainable development (C10)

	<b>Physical Chemistry</b>	<b>Inorganic Chemistry</b>	<b>Organic Chemistry</b>
<b>Y2 topics</b>	Thermodynamics Rate equations Equilibrium constant K <sub>p</sub> Electrode Potentials and electrochemical cells Acids and bases	Properties of Period 3 elements and their oxides Transition Metals Reactions of ions in aqueous solution	Optical isomerism Aldehydes and ketones Carboxylic acids Aromatic chemistry Amines Polymers Amines, amino acids, proteins and DNA Organic Synthesis NMR Spectroscopy Chromatography
<b>Links to GSCE (AQA unit)</b>	Reactions of acids (C4) Electrolysis (C4) Energy changes (C5) Rate of reaction (C6) Reversible reactions and equilibrium (C6)	The periodic table (C1) Bonding, structure and properties (C2) Oxidation and reduction (C4)	Hydrocarbons (C8) Alkanes and alkenes (C8) Chromatography (C7)

**Links to key information:**

<https://www.dixons6a.com/uploads/files/Chemistry.pdf>

<https://www.aqa.org.uk/subjects/chemistry/a-level/chemistry-7405/specification/specification-at-a-glance>

**Higher Education & Careers**

There are a range of undergraduate courses you can access with an A-level in Chemistry, for example:

- Chemistry MChem, BSc
- Chemical Engineering MEng, BEng
- Chemistry and Mathematics BSc
- Chemistry and Mathematics MChem, BSc
- Medicinal Chemistry BSc
- Medicinal Chemistry MChem, BSc
- Medicine
- Dentistry
- Pharmacy
- Radiology
- Optometry

With a Chemistry degree you'll be able to work in a diverse range of industries and roles, for example:

- Research Chemist
- Chemical Engineer
- Cosmetic Chemist
- Resin Technology Scientist
- Analytical Development Technician
- Equity Analyst
- Analytical Chemist
- Process Technologist
- Systems Manager
- Graduate Chemist
- Product Testing Analyst
- Health Care Assistant, NHS
- Drug Discovery Chemist
- Chemical Analyst
- Graduate Trainee



# Summer Work Tasks

**\*\*SOME OF THE TASKS WILL REQUIRE YOU TO USE THIS PERIODIC TABLE\*\***



## 1) Practical Equipment

Below are images of most of the practical equipment that you will use during your Chemistry lessons. Name the pieces of apparatus using the options at the bottom of the page.



Beaker

Round bottom flask

Bunsen burner

Mass balance

Stopwatch

Test tube

Boiling tube

Condenser

Conical flask

Measuring cylinder

Filter funnel

Separating funnel

Burette

Gas syringe

Volumetric pipette

Dropping pipette



## 2) Variables

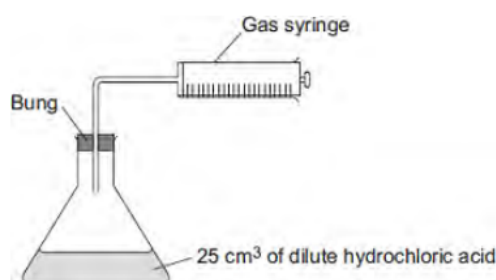
During a practical it is always important to be able to identify the variables:

- **Independent variable** is the thing you change/are investigating the effects of (there is only 1 of these)
- **Dependent variable** is the thing you are measuring in your experiment (there is only one of these)
- **Control variables** are the things you need to keep the same in order to make sure only 1 factor (the independent variable) is affecting the dependent variable, not same equipment (e.g. beaker). Always try to identify at least 3 of these, but 'use the same equipment' does not usually count as a control variable; as using a different beaker will not affect your dependent variable. You should usually justify how you will keep these variables the same e.g. to keep the temperature the same you should use a water bath set at 30 °C

Identify the variables in the investigation below. Explain how you would keep the control variables the same.

**Q2.** A student investigated the reaction between magnesium metal and dilute hydrochloric acid.

The student placed 25 cm<sup>3</sup> of dilute hydrochloric acid in a conical flask and set up the apparatus as shown in the diagram.

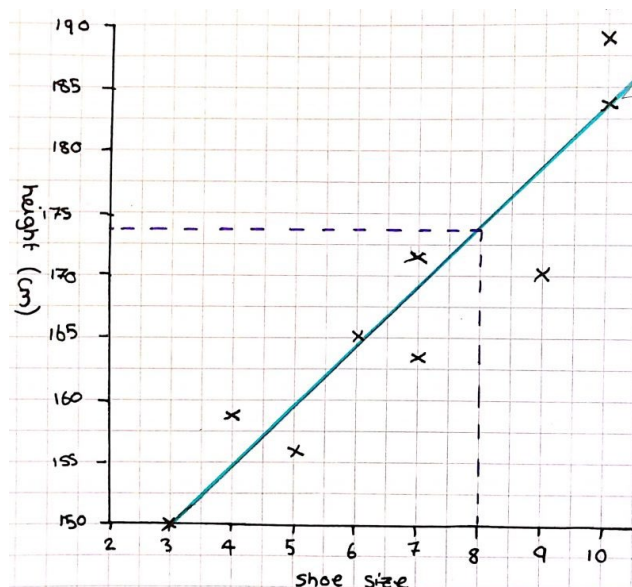
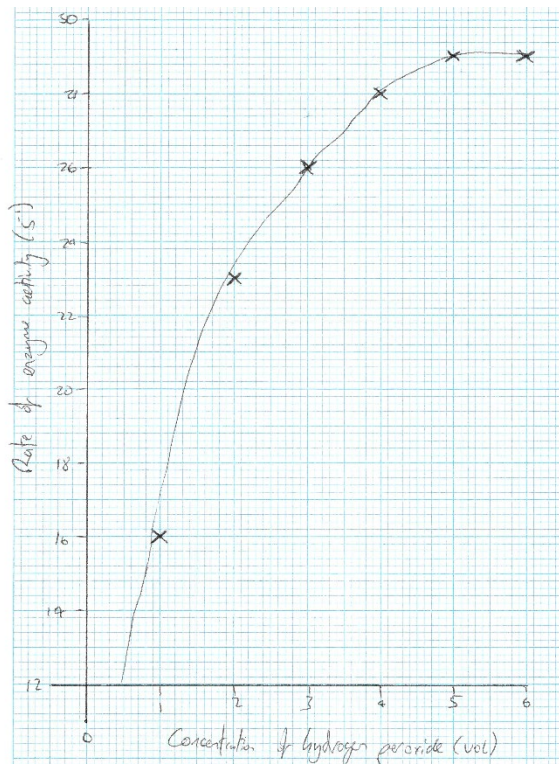


The student:

- took the bung out of the flask and added a single piece of magnesium ribbon 8 cm long
- put the bung back in the flask and started a stopwatch
- recorded the volume of gas collected after 1 minute
- repeated the experiment using different temperatures of acid.

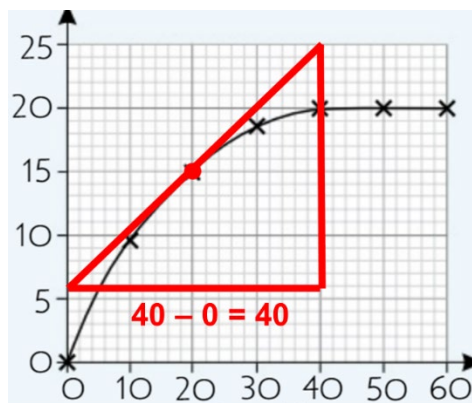
### 3) Graphs

Most graphs that you draw in Chemistry will be scatter graphs e.g.



Points to remember when drawing a graph:

- Appropriate scales need to be chosen; going up by the same amount, the plotted points need to fit at least half a page, you don't need to start the axes at 0
- Label the axes with units
- Plot points as clear crosses rather than small dots
- Circle any anomalous points
- Lines of best fit will either be a straight line using a ruler or a smooth curve. They will never be dot-to-dot
- The gradient can be calculated by doing  $\Delta y \div \Delta x$  (for a curve you will need to draw a tangent):

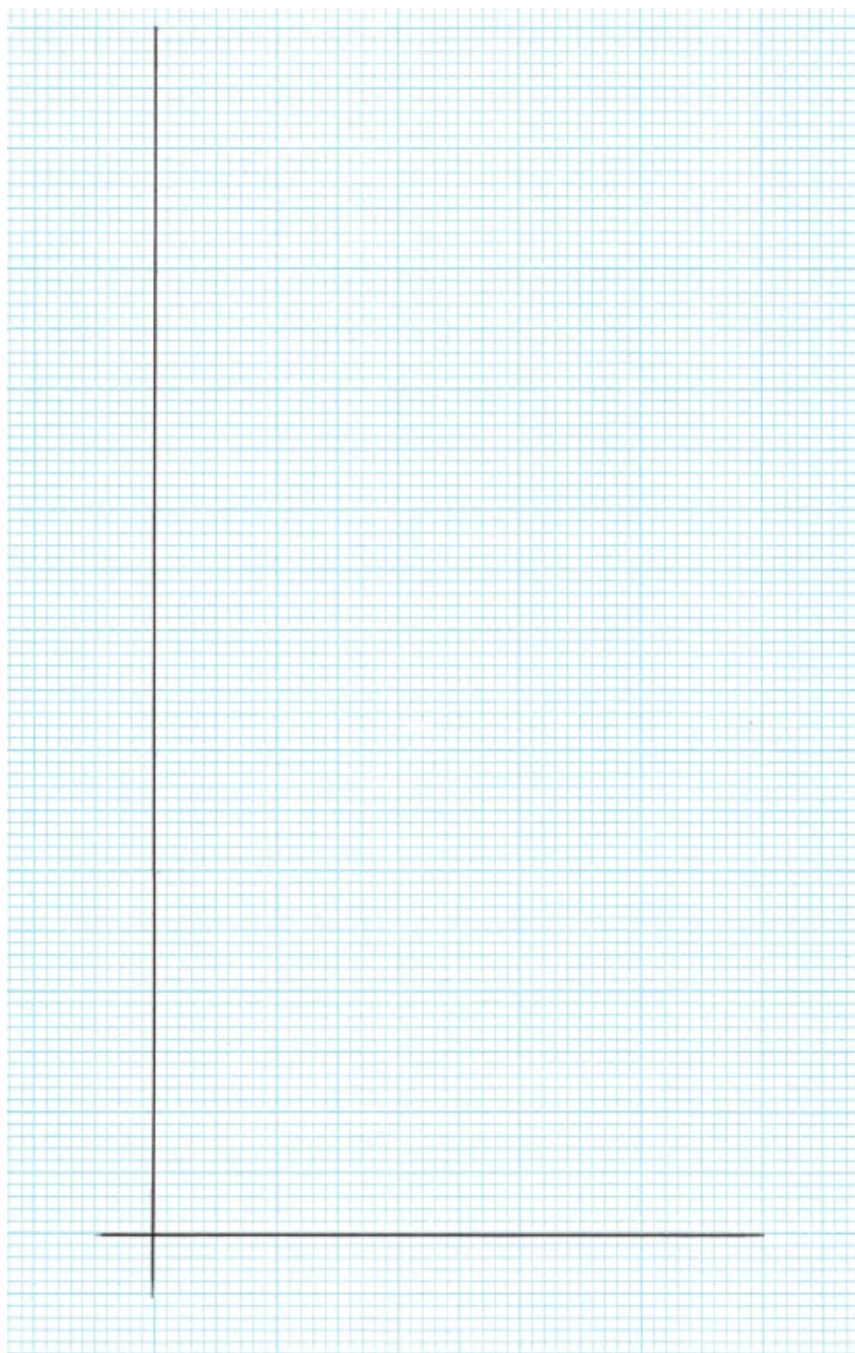


**Gradient =  $19 \div 40 = 0.475$**



Use the data in the table below to plot a graph of rate of reaction ( $\text{mol dm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) against concentration ( $\text{mol dm}^{-3}$ ). Plot both reactants on the same graph using a key.

Concentration ( $\text{mol dm}^{-3}$ )	Rate of reaction ( $\text{mol dm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$ )	
	Reactant A	Reactant B
0.0	0.00	0.00
0.2	0.11	0.01
0.4	0.19	0.03
0.6	0.21	0.08
0.8	0.40	0.16
1.0	0.49	0.29



Draw a tangent on the line of best fit for reactant B at  $0.7 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$  and calculate its gradient.

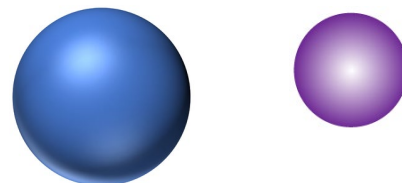


#### 4) Atomic Structure

The model of the atom has been developed over time. Fill in the blanks to describe each model of the atom.

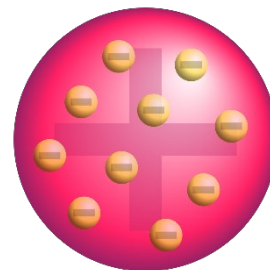
##### John Dalton 1803

John Dalton described atoms as being s\_\_\_\_\_ s\_\_\_\_\_.



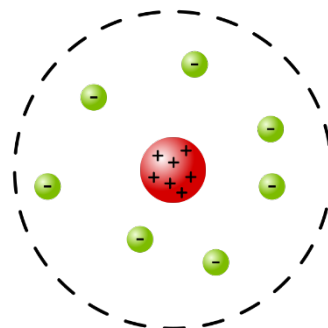
##### J J Thompson 1897

J J Thompson's model was called the p\_\_\_\_\_ p\_\_\_\_\_ model. It was a ball of p\_\_\_\_\_ charge that was evenly spread out, with n\_\_\_\_\_ charged e\_\_\_\_\_ embedded in it.



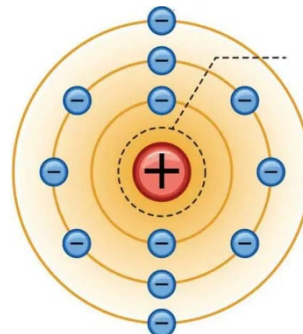
##### Ernest Rutherford 1909

Rutherford fired a positively charged a\_\_\_\_\_ particle at a sheet of g\_\_\_\_\_. Some of the particles went straight through showing that an atom is mostly e\_\_\_\_\_, s\_\_\_\_\_, and some of the particles were deflected straight which is evidence of a positively charged n\_\_\_\_\_.



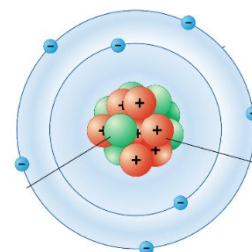
##### Niels Bohr 1913

Bohr proposed that in order to prevent the atoms from collapsing, the electrons must be in fixed s\_\_\_\_\_ set at a fixed distance from the nucleus.



##### Rutherford and Chadwick 1932

Rutherford and Chadwick proposed that the nucleus contains positively charged p\_\_\_\_\_ and neutral n\_\_\_\_\_, making the model that we still use today.



Complete the table to show the relative masses and relative charges of the subatomic particles found in an atom.

Subatomic particle	Relative mass	Relative charge
Proton		
Electron		
Neutron		

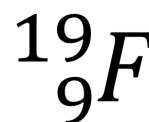
The mass number of an atom/ion tells you the number of protons and neutrons in the nucleus.



The atomic number tells you the number of protons in the nucleus.

You can use these values to work out the number of protons, electrons, and neutrons that an atom/ion has. Atoms are neutral because they have the same number of protons and electrons so their charges cancel out. Positive ions have lost electrons and negative ions have gained electrons.

For example: an atom of  $^{19}\text{F}$  has 9 protons, 9 electrons, and 10 neutrons.



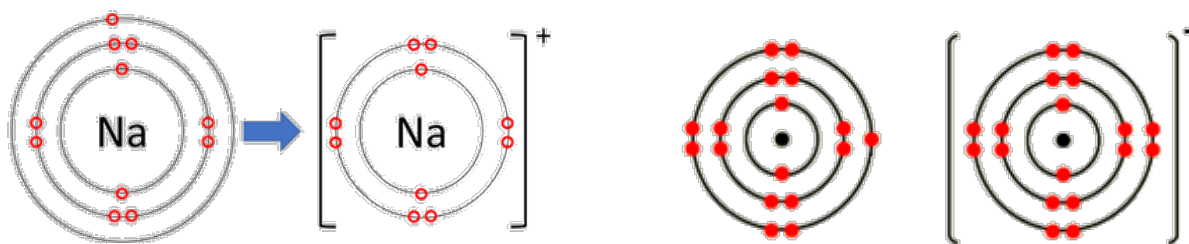
Calculate the number of protons, electrons, and neutrons for the following atoms or ions.

Atom/ion	Protons	Neutrons	Electrons
$^{12}_6\text{C}$			
$^{31}_{15}\text{P}$			
$^{40}_{18}\text{Ar}$			
$^{23}_{11}\text{Na}^+$			
$^{35}_{17}\text{Cl}^-$			
$^{24}_{12}\text{Mg}^{2+}$			
$^{16}_8\text{O}^{2-}$			
$^{51}_{23}\text{V}^{3+}$			

### 5) Ionic Bonding

Ionic bonding occurs between a metal and a non-metal. The metal atom loses electrons to become a positively charged ion with a full outer shell of electrons, the non-metal atom gains electrons to form a negatively charged ion with a full outer shell of electrons.

For example, when sodium reacts with chlorine to form sodium chloride (NaCl):



- Na atom loses 1 electron to form an  $\text{Na}^{1+}$  ion
- Cl atom gains 1 electron to form a  $\text{Cl}^{1-}$  ion

Describe what happens when magnesium reacts with oxygen. Name and give the formula of the product.

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Describe what happens when sodium reacts with oxygen. Name and give the formula of the product.

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Describe what happens when magnesium reacts with chlorine. Name and give the formula of the product.

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Compound ions are groups of atoms that have an overall charge. Common examples include:

Phosphate =  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$

Sulphate =  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$

Carbonate =  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$

Nitrate =  $\text{NO}_3^-$

Hydroxide =  $\text{OH}^-$

Ammonium =  $\text{NH}_4^+$

Ionic compounds are neutral overall, so the charges of the positive and negative ions have to balance each other. For example, magnesium bromide is  $\text{MgBr}_2$  because you need 2  $\text{Br}^-$  ions to balance the charge of the  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  ion, sodium carbonate is  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  because you need 2  $\text{Na}^+$  ions to balance the charge of the  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  ion, and, calcium hydroxide is  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$  because you need 2  $\text{OH}^-$  ions to balance the charge of the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ion.

Name or give the formula of the following ionic compounds:

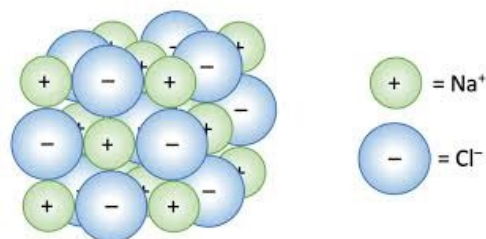
- 1) Lithium fluoride \_\_\_\_\_
- 2) Calcium chloride \_\_\_\_\_
- 3) Aluminium oxide \_\_\_\_\_
- 4) Magnesium hydroxide \_\_\_\_\_
- 5) Sodium nitrate \_\_\_\_\_
- 6) Ammonium sulphate \_\_\_\_\_

- 1)  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$  \_\_\_\_\_
- 2)  $\text{KNO}_3$  \_\_\_\_\_
- 3)  $\text{NaOH}$  \_\_\_\_\_
- 4)  $\text{Mg}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$  \_\_\_\_\_
- 5)  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  \_\_\_\_\_
- 6)  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{O}$  \_\_\_\_\_

Ionic compounds have strong electrostatic forces of attraction between oppositely charged ions, in a giant lattice structure:

Ionic compounds have high melting and boiling points due to the strong electrostatic forces of attraction between oppositely charged ions in the giant lattice

which requires lots of energy to overcome, so they are solids at room temperature. The greater the charge of the ion (more positive or more negative), the stronger the electrostatic forces of attraction between the oppositely charged ions.



Explain why  $\text{MgCl}_2$  has a higher melting point than  $\text{NaCl}$ .

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Explain why  $\text{MgO}$  has a higher melting point than  $\text{MgCl}_2$ .

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Which ionic compound has a higher melting point:  $\text{CaBr}_2$  or  $\text{KCl}$ ? Explain your answer.

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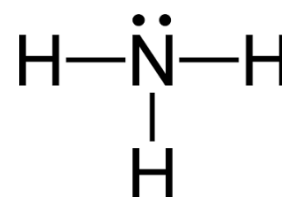
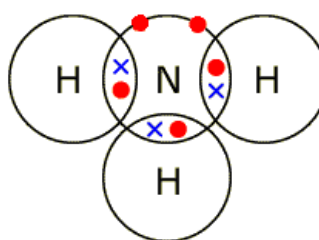


## 6) Covalent Bonding

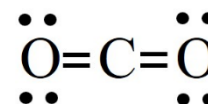
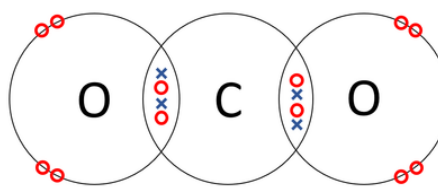
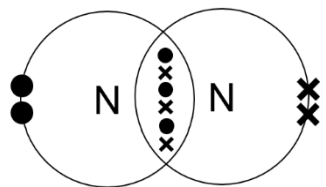
Covalent bonding occurs between 2 or more non-metal atoms, where they share electrons in order to have a full outer shell of electrons.

Dot and cross diagrams can be used to show how atoms share electrons in a covalent bond and the displayed formula shows how atoms are bonded, with a line representing a covalent bond (a shared pair of electrons). Any electrons in the outer shell not involved in a covalent bond are called lone pairs and are represented as 2 dots in the displayed structure.

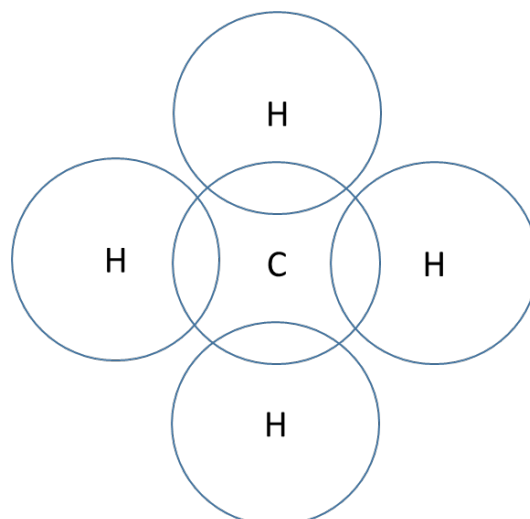
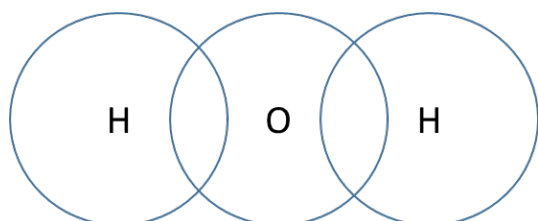
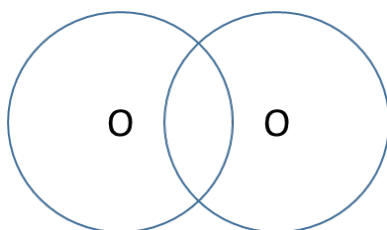
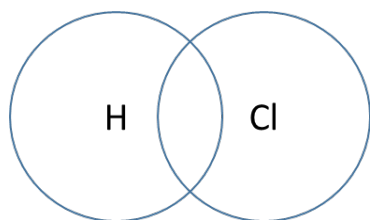
For example, ammonia has 3 H atoms bonded to 1 N atom. N is in group 5, so has 5 electrons in its outer shell. It needs 3 more electrons to have a full outer shell so needs to share a total of 3 pairs of electrons. H has 1 electron (in the first shell, which can hold a maximum of 2), so to have a full outer shell each atom needs to share 1 pair of electrons.



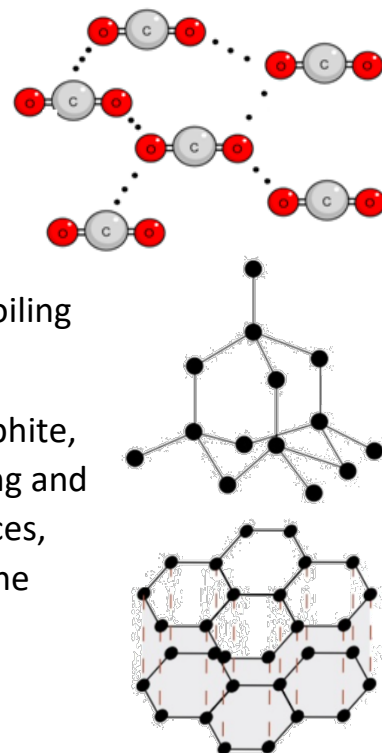
When atoms share more than 1 pair of electrons, this results in a double bond (2 shared pairs) or a triple bond (3 shared pairs). For example, in  $N_2$  and  $CO_2$ .



Complete the dot and cross diagram and draw the displayed formula for the molecules below.



Simple covalent molecules (e.g.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , etc.) are small molecules made up of only a few atoms. The small molecules are held together by weak intermolecular forces. When they are heated, the covalent bonds between the atoms (e.g. the double bond between the  $\text{C}=\text{O}$ ) are not being broken, but the weak intermolecular forces holding the  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules together require little energy to overcome, so they have low melting and boiling points and are normally gases or liquids at room temperature.



Giant covalent structures (macromolecules) such as diamond, graphite, and graphene are made up of lots of atoms. They have high melting and boiling points because rather than overcoming intermolecular forces, you have to break the many strong covalent bonds holding all of the atoms together, so they are solids at room temperature.

Explain why  $\text{F}_2$  has a low melting point.

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Silicon dioxide has a giant covalent structure. Explain why it has a high melting point.

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Which has got a higher melting point:  $\text{NO}_2$  or diamond? Explain your answer

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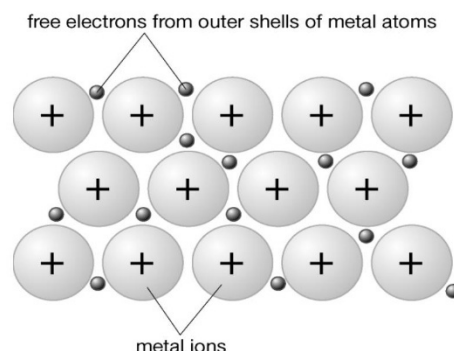
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## 7) Metallic Bonding

In metals the outer electron(s) of the metal atom become delocalised to form a sea of delocalised electrons and a positive metal ion. These are held in a giant lattice structure by the electrostatic attraction between the positive metal ions and the sea of delocalised electrons. This attraction is strong and requires a lot of energy to overcome. In an electrical circuit, the delocalised electrons are able to carry charge and flow through the structure.



Explain why iron is a solid at room temperature.

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Explain why copper is used in electrical wires.

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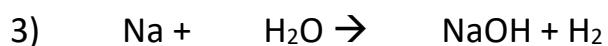
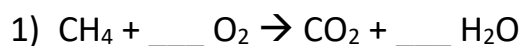
### 8) Balancing equations

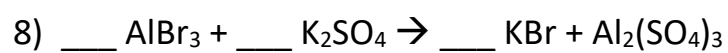
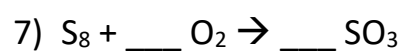
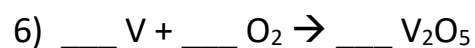
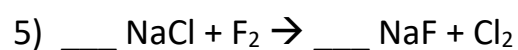
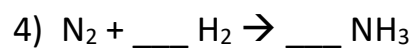
Balanced equations need to have the same number of all atoms on both sides of the equation. If the number of atoms is not the same on both sides, it must be balanced by placing 'big number' in front of the substance rather than by changing the 'small number' e.g. if you need 4 oxygen atoms you would do 2 CO<sub>2</sub> rather than changing it to CO<sub>4</sub>.

It might be useful to use a table and count the number of each atoms on both sides of the equation:

Atom	Left	Right

Balance the equations below:







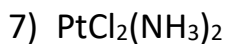
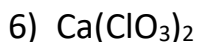
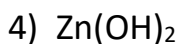
### 9) Relative molecular mass ( $M_r$ )

The relative molecular mass ( $M_r$ ) is the average mass of a molecule on a scale where the mass of an atom of  $^{12}\text{C}$  is exactly 12. It is calculated by adding up the relative atomic masses ( $A_r$ ) of all the atoms in a molecule using the top number from the periodic table (there is one at the front of this booklet.). In A-level Chemistry,  $M_r$  and  $A_r$  should be recorded to 1 decimal place.

Examples:

- $\text{CO}_2$  – there is 1 C atom which has a mass of 12.0 and 2 O atoms which each have a mass of 16.0. So  $M_r = (1 \times 12.0) + (2 \times 16.0) = 44.0$
- $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$  – there is 1 Mg atom which has a mass of 24.3, 2 O atoms which each have a mass of 16.0, and, 2 H atoms which each have a mass of 1.0. So  $M_r = (1 \times 24.3) + (2 \times 16.0) + (2 \times 1.0) = 58.3$
- $\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$  – there are 2 Al atoms which each have a mass of 27.0, 3 S atoms which each have a mass of 32.1, and, 12 O atoms which each have a mass of 16.0. So  $M_r = (2 \times 27.0) + (3 \times 32.1) + (12 \times 16.0) = 342.3$

Use the periodic table at the front of the booklet to calculate the  $M_r$  of the molecules below. Make sure all of your answers are given to 1 decimal place.





### 9) Atom economy

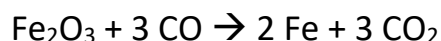
When a chemical company is trying to produce a desired product, they want as much of the reactants to turn into the product they want as possible; rather than making lots of waste products.

They can calculate this by working out the atom economy of the reaction below:

$$\text{Atom economy} = \frac{M_r \text{ of desired product}}{M_r \text{ of all products}} \times 100$$

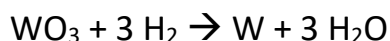
You will need to multiply the  $M_r$  of the substance by the number of moles from the balanced equation.

Example: calculate the atom economy for producing Fe in the equation below

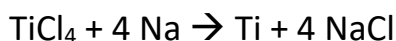


$$\frac{M_r(2 \text{ Fe})}{M_r(2 \text{ Fe}) + M_r(3 \text{ CO}_2)} = \frac{(2 \times 55.8)}{(2 \times 55.8) + (3 \times 44.0)} \times 100 = 45.8\%$$

1) Calculate the atom economy of producing W in the equation below

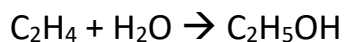


2) Calculate the atom economy of producing Ti in the equation below





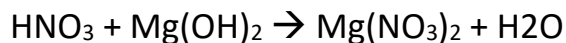
- 3) Calculate the atom economy of producing  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$  in the equation below



- 4) Calculate the atom economy of producing Al in the equation below



- 5) Calculate the atom economy of producing  $\text{Mg}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  in the equation below



- 6) Calculate the atom economy of producing  $\text{NH}_3$  in the equation below





**10) Moles**

Because atoms are so small, even a very small mass of a substance can contain a very large number of atoms i.e. a 0.05 g raindrop contains roughly 170,000,000,000,000,000,000 H<sub>2</sub>O molecules.

To make the number of atoms easier to use, in Chemistry we have a unit called the mole: 1 mole of particles contains  $6.022 \times 10^{23}$  particles, 0.5 moles of particles contains  $3.011 \times 10^{23}$  particles, and 2 moles of particles contains  $1.2044 \times 10^{24}$  particles.

The mass and moles of a substance are linked by the equation below:

$$\text{Mass} = M_r \times \text{moles}$$

- 1) Calculate the mass of 2 moles of CO<sub>2</sub>
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
- 2) Calculate the mass of 0.1 moles of NaOH
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
- 3) Calculate the mass of 0.4 moles of MgBr<sub>2</sub>
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
- 4) Calculate the number of moles of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in 3.62 g of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
- 5) Calculate the number of moles of CaCl<sub>2</sub> in 2.18 g of CaCl<sub>2</sub>
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
- 6) Calculate the number of moles of BaSO<sub>4</sub> in 1.89 g of BaSO<sub>4</sub>
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
- 7) Calculate the number of moles of KNO<sub>3</sub> in 3.25 g of KNO<sub>3</sub>

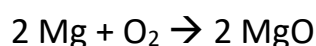
11) Percentage Yield

The percentage yield of a chemical reaction is based on the mass of product that you make compared to how much you theoretically should have made given how much of the reactants that you started with. The percentage yield will always be less than 100% for reasons such as: product may be lost in glassware when transferring solutions, a side reaction may occur to give unexpected products, and the reaction may not go to completion. The percentage yield can be calculated using the equation below:

$$\text{Percentage yield} = \frac{\text{Actual yield}}{\text{Theoretical yield}} \times 100$$

Examples:

12.2 g of Mg reacts with an excess of O<sub>2</sub> to form 6.9 g of MgO



- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 1) Use mass and M <sub>r</sub> to calculate the moles of the reactant                        | 1) Moles(Mg) = 12.2 ÷ 24.3 = 0.50                    |
| 2) Use the ratio of reactant:product to calculate the moles of product that can be formed    | 2) Mg:MgO = 2:2 = 1:1<br>Moles(MgO) = 0.5 × 1 = 0.50 |
| 3) Use the moles and M <sub>r</sub> from limiting reagent to calculate the theoretical yield | 3) Mass = 40.3 × 0.50 = 20.15g                       |
| 4) Calculate the percentage yield  | 4) (6.9 ÷ 20.15) × 100 = 34.2%                       |

3.6 g of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> reacts with an excess of Al to form 4.6 g of Fe.

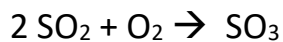


- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 1) Use mass and M <sub>r</sub> to calculate the moles of the reactant                        | 1) Moles(Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> ) = 3.6 ÷ 159.6 = 0.023               |
| 2) Use the ratio of reactant:product to calculate the moles of product that can be formed    | 2) Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> : Fe = 1:2<br>Moles(Fe) = 0.023 × 2 = 0.046 |
| 3) Use the moles and M <sub>r</sub> from limiting reagent to calculate the theoretical yield | 3) Mass = 56.0 × 0.046 = 2.58g  |
| 4) Calculate the percentage yield  | 4) (2.58 ÷ 4.6) × 100 = 56.1%   |

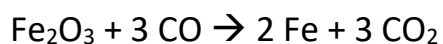


Calculate the percentage yields for the questions below.

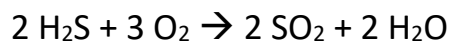
- 1) 2.5 g of SO<sub>2</sub> reacts with an excess of O<sub>2</sub> to form 1.3 g of SO<sub>3</sub>



- 2) 4.6 g of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> reacts with an excess of CO to form 2.5 g of CO<sub>2</sub>

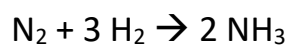


- 3) 0.8 g of H<sub>2</sub>S reacts with an excess of O<sub>2</sub> to form 1.3 g of SO<sub>2</sub>





- 4) An excess of  $\text{N}_2$  reacts with 0.6 g of  $\text{H}_2$  to form 2.8 g of  $\text{NH}_3$



- 5) 1.7 g of  $\text{C}_4\text{H}_8$  reacts with an excess of  $\text{O}_2$  to form 4.6 g of  $\text{CO}_2$

