Chemistry Section 1

Periodic Table Elements

4.0026 helium **H@**

110	109	108	107	106	105	104
Ds	3	HS	Bh	Sg	DЬ	Rf
[271] darmstædtium	[268] meitnerium	[269] hassium	[264] bohrium	[266] seaborgium	dubnium	[261] therfordium
78	77	76	75	74	73	72
Pt	¥	80	Re	\$	Ta	Ħ
platinum	iridium	osmium	rhenium	tungsten	tantalum	nafnium
46	45	44	43	42	41	40
Pd	R	Ru	TC	3	N	N
106.42 palladium	102.9055 rhodium	101.07 ruthenium	[98] technetium	95.94 molybdenum	niobium	91.225 irconium
28	27	26	25	24	23	22
Z	င္ပ	Fe	3	Ç	<	=
58.6934 nickel	58.9332 cobalt	55.845 iron	54.938 manganese	51,9961 chromium	50.9415 vanadium	47.867 Itanium
		<u> </u>			8	
	·I			symbol	Syl	
	1.00794 hydrogen	₩ 1		element name _	elem	
)		7			`	

6.941 lithium Li 3 3 22.98977 sodium Na 11 39.0983 potassium K 19 85.4678 rubidium Rb 37 132.905 cesium CS 55 [223] francium FT 87

9.012
beryllium
Be
4
24.3050
magnesium
Mg
12
40.078
calcium
Ca
20
87.62
strontium
ST
38
137.327
barium
Ba
137.327
barium
Ba
137.327
barium
Ba
1726]
radium
Ra

44.95591 scandium **Sc 21**88.90585 yttrium **Y**39
174.967 lutetium **Lu**71
[262] lawrencium **Lr**103

63.546
copper
Cu
29
107.8682
silver
Ag
47
196.9665
gold
Au
79
[272]
i roentgenium
Rg
1111

- I		3	L			5				2													
	Uub	[285] ununbium	80	Hg	mercury	200.59	48	S C	cadmium	112.411	30	Zn	zinc	65.409									
			81	<u> </u>	thallium	204.383	49	H	indium	114.818	31	Ga	gallium	69.723	13	2	aluminium	26.9815	ر د	W	boron	10.811	
	Uuq 114	[289] ununquadium	82	PЬ	lead	207.2	50	Sn	Ħ	118.710	32	Ge	germanium	72.64	14	<u>S</u>	silicon	28.0855	6	റ	carbon	12.0107	
***			8	<u>Β</u>	bismuth	208.980	51	dS	antimony	121.760	33	AS	arsenic	74.9216	15	ס	phosphorus	30.9737	7	Z	nitrogen	14.00674	
			84	Po	polonium	[209]	52	Te	tellurium	127.60	34	Se	selenium	78.96	16	S	sulfur	32.065	œ	0	oxygen	15.9994	
			85	Ąŧ	astatine	[210]	53	Н	iodine	126.9045	35	Br	bromine	79.904	17	Ω	chlorine	35.453	9	П	fluorine	18.9984	
			86	R	radon	[222]	54	×e	xenon	131.293	36	즛	krypton	83.798	18	٩	argon	39.984	10	Z	neon	20.1797	7
			,—			-	_							_	_			_			_	_	-

	99	98	97	96	95	94	93	92	91	90	89
	-	ი	맞	CH	Αm	Pu	Z	C	Pa	Ŧ	Ac
_	nium m	califor	berkelium	curium	americium	plutonium	neptunium	uranium	protactinium	thorium	actinium
_	51	ผ	[247]	[247]	[243]	[244]	[237]	238.0289	231.0359	232.038	[227]
_	66		65	64	63	62	61	60	59	58	57
У	V		占	Gd	Ē	Sm	Pm	Nd	Pr	Ce	لم
_	rosium	dysp	terbium	gadolinium	europium	samarium	promethium	neodymium	praseodymium	cerium	lanthanum
-	2.50	16	158.9253	157.25	151.964	150.36	[145]	144.24	140.90765	140.116	138.9055

Chemistry

Lexile

Chemistry is the physical science that deals with the composition, structure, and properties of substances and also the transformations that these substances undergo. Because the study of **chemistry** encompasses the entire material universe, it is central to the understanding of other sciences.

A basic chemical theory has been formulated as the result of centuries of observation and measurement of the various elements and compounds (see **chemistry**, history of). According to this theory, matter is composed of minute particles called <u>atoms</u>. The more than 100 different kinds of atoms that are known are called chemical <u>elements</u>. Atoms of the same element or of different elements can combine together to form <u>molecules</u> and <u>chemical compounds</u>. The atoms are held together by forces, primarily electrostatic, called <u>chemical bonds</u>. In a <u>chemical reaction</u> two or more molecules can undergo various changes to form different molecules by means of breaking and making the chemical bonds.

Branches of Chemistry

Five subdivisions traditionally are used to classify various aspects of chemistry. The study of organic chemistry originally was limited to compounds that were obtained from living organisms, but now the field deals with hydrocarbons (compounds of carbon and hydrogen) and their derivatives. The study of inorganic chemistry includes compounds derived from all of the elements except for hydrocarbons. Biochemistry is the subdivision in which the compounds and chemical reactions involved in processes of living systems are studied.

Physical chemistry deals with the structure of matter and the energy changes that occur during physical and chemical changes of matter. This field provides a theoretical basis for the chemical observations of the other subdivisions. Analytical chemistry is concerned with the identification of chemical substances, the determination of the amounts of substances present in a mixture, and the separation of mixtures into their individual components.

Special subdivisions of **chemistry** are now recognized that account for knowledge at the interface of **chemistry** and other physical sciences. For example, recent research has involved the chemical origin of <u>life</u>—reactions between simple molecules at low pressures to form such complex organic molecules as proteins found in living organisms.

Astrochemistry is the interdisciplinary physical science that studies the origin and interaction of the chemical constituents, especially interstellar matter, in the universe. Geochemistry is concerned with the chemical aspects of geology—for instance, the improvement of ore processing, coal utilization, shale oil recovery—and the use of chemicals to extract oil from wells that are considered dry by ordinary standards.

Nuclear **chemistry** deals with natural and induced transformations of the atomic nucleus. Studies in this field now center on the safe and efficient use of nuclear power and the disposal of nuclear wastes. Radiochemistry deals with radioactive <u>isotopes</u> of chemical elements and the utilization of those isotopes to further the understanding of chemical and biochemical systems. Environmental **chemistry** is a subdivision that has as its subject the impact of various elements and compounds on the ecosphere.

Tools of Chemistry

Chemistry is a precise laboratory science, and the equipment of a chemical laboratory is usually involved with measurement. <u>Balances</u> are used to measure mass, pipettes and burettes to measure volume, <u>colorimeters</u> to measure color intensities, and <u>thermometers</u> to measure temperature changes. Advances in electronics and computer technology have enabled the development of scientific instruments that determine the chemical properties, structure, and content of substances accurately and precisely.

Most modern chemical instrumentation has three primary components: a source of energy, a sample compartment within which a substance is subjected to the energy, and some sort of detector to determine the effect of the energy on the sample. An X-ray diffractometer, for instance, enables the chemist to determine the arrangement of atoms, ions, and molecules that constitute crystals by means of scattering X rays (see X-ray diffraction). Most modern laboratories contain ultraviolet, visible, and infrared spectrophotometers, which use light of various wavelengths on gaseous or

liquid samples. By such a means the chemist can determine the <u>electron</u> configuration and the arrangement of atoms in molecules. A <u>nuclear magnetic resonance</u> spectrophotometer subjects a sample in a strong magnetic field to radio frequency radiation. The absorption of this energy by the sample gives the chemist information concerning the bonding within molecules. Other instruments include <u>mass spectrometers</u>, which use electrons as an energy source, and differential thermal analyzers, which use heat.

An entirely different class of instruments are those which use chromatography to separate complex mixtures into their components. Chemists are also using extremely short pulses of laser light to investigate the atomic and molecular processes taking place in chemical reactions at the microsecond level. These and other devices generate so much data that chemists frequently must use computers to help analyze the results.

Impact On Society

Chemistry is closely associated with four basic needs of humans: food, clothing, shelter, and medical services. The applications of **chemistry** usually bring to mind industries engaged in the production of chemicals. A significant portion of the <u>chemical industry</u> is engaged in the production of inorganic and organic chemicals, which are then used by other industries as reactants for their chemical processes. In the United States the great majority of the leading chemicals being produced are inorganic, and their manufacture is a multibillion-dollar industry.

The **chemistry** of polymers—large molecules made up of simple repeating units linked together by chemical bonds (see <u>polymerization</u>)—includes <u>plastics</u>, <u>resins</u>, natural and synthetic <u>rubber</u>, <u>synthetic fibers</u>, and protective coatings. The growth of this segment of **chemistry** has been phenomenal since the late 1930s. The fabrication of natural rubber and coatings (paints, varnishes, lacquers, and enamels) derived from natural agricultural products has been a mainstay of the chemical industry for more than 150 years.

The search for new <u>energy sources</u> and the improvement of existing ones are in many ways chemical problems (see <u>fuel</u>). At the heart of the <u>petroleum</u> industry are the processes of refining crude hydrocarbons into such products as gasoline and <u>petrochemicals</u>. The utilization of nuclear power depends heavily on the chemical preparation and reprocessing of fuel, the treatment

and disposal of nuclear waste, and the problems of corrosion and heat transfer. The conversion and storage of <u>solar energy</u> as electrical energy is primarily a chemical process, and the development of <u>fuel cells</u> is based on either chemical or electrochemical technology (see <u>electrochemistry</u>).

Chemical research has been the basis of the pharmaceutical industry's production of <u>drugs</u>. The controlled introduction of specific chemicals into the body assists in the diagnosis, treatment, and often the cure of illness. <u>Chemotherapy</u> is a prime treatment in combating <u>cancer</u>.

Tremendous agricultural gains have been achieved since about 1940 as a result mainly of farmers' use of chemical <u>fertilizers</u> and <u>pesticides</u>. Other chemical industries include <u>soap and detergent</u> production; food processing; and the production of glass, paper, metals, and photographic supplies.

Specialized Uses

Outside the mainstream of what is traditionally considered **chemistry** is research that supports other professions. **Chemistry** is used by museums in art conservation and restoration, the dating of objects (see <u>radiometric agedating</u>), and the uncovering of frauds. Forensic chemists work in crime laboratories, carrying out tests to assist law-enforcement agencies (see <u>forensic science</u>; <u>forensic genetics</u>). Toxicologists study the potentially adverse effects of chemicals on biological systems (see <u>toxicology</u>), as do those involved in industrial hygiene. The **chemistry** involved in sanitary engineering and sewage treatment has come to be of major importance to society as populations increase and environmental concerns intensify.

Problems

Through the use of **chemistry** and related technology, chemical substances have been produced that either immediately or eventually are harmful to humans, animals, and the environment. Pollution is not a new problem, but the combination of a rapidly growing chemical industry and the use of sophisticated detection devices has brought the extent of pollution to public attention.

The discharge and disposal of industrial waste products into the atmosphere and water supply, for example, at <u>Love Canal</u>, have caused grave concern about environmental deterioration (see <u>pollution</u>, <u>air</u>; <u>pollution</u>, <u>water</u>). The

repeated exposure of workers to some toxic chemicals at their jobs has caused long-range health problems (see <u>diseases</u>, <u>occupational</u>). In addition, the use of some pesticides and herbicides can cause long-term toxicity, the effects of which are still only partially understood. The safe storage and disposal of <u>chemical and biological warfare</u> agents and <u>nuclear waste</u> continue to be a serious problem. An advance in chemical technology almost always involves some trade-off with regard to an alteration of the environment.

Challenges and Trends

Much of the future of **chemistry** will lie in providing answers to such technological problems as the creation of new sources of energy and the eradication of disease, famine, and environmental pollution. The improvement of the safety of existing chemical products, for example, pesticides, is another challenge. Research into the chemical complexities of the human body may reveal new insights into a variety of diseases and dysfunctions. The improvement of industrial processes will serve to minimize the use of energy and raw materials, thereby diminishing negative environmental effects.

Norman V. Duffy

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	me			ate/ _	/
EL	EMENTAL S	YMBOLS			
Prov	ride the chemical sym	bols for the ele	ements listed below.		
1	bromine	4	11	lead	
2	calcium	3	12	magnesium	· <u> </u>
3	carbon		13	manganese	
4	chlorine		14	neon	
5	copper		15	nitrogen	
6	fluorine	ī 	16	phosphorus	
7	Gold		17	potassium	
8	helium		18	silver	3
9	hydrogen		19	sodium	
10	iron	<u> </u>	20	sulfur	
Provi	ide the name for the	element corres	ponding to the chem	ical symbols b	elow.
21	Ag		31	I _	
22	AI		32	Κ	
23	Au		33	Na _	
24	С		34	Ni _	
25	Ca		35	0 _	=0
26	Cu		36	Р _	
27	F		37	Pb	
28	Fe		38	S _	
29	Н		39	Sn _	
30	Нд		40	Zn	

Water Mixtures, Types of

<u>Lexile</u>

Chemists marvel at water's ability to dissolve other substances. Seawater contains over 70 elements dissolved in mineral form. This has earned water the somewhat-exaggerated title of "universal solvent." Water can also speed reactions between the chemicals dissolved in it. Many of these reactions would never take place in its absence.

Water in Mixtures

Pure water contains only water molecules. Each molecule consists of two hydrogen atoms bonded to one oxygen atom.

More commonly, water contains other substances. In other words, it is part of a mixture. There are several types. In homogeneous **mixtures**, one cannot see different components. Such **mixtures** look uniform. In heterogeneous **mixtures**, one can see distinct particles.

Heterogeneous **mixtures** include suspensions. In suspensions, particles can settle out of the mix. Muddy water is an example. It consists of soil particles that can settle, leaving the water clear.

Homogeneous **mixtures** include colloids and solutions. In a colloid, one substance disperses completely into another. The particles become too small to see. But they are large enough to scatter light. Thus, colloids are cloudy.

Blood is a colloid. It consists of cells and other substances dispersed in plasma. Plasma is mostly water.

In solutions, the different components are mere molecules. The mostabundant ingredient is called the solvent. The less-abundant ingredients are solutes. Sugar water is a solution. Water is the solvent, and sugar is the solute.

The solute molecules are too small to scatter light. Thus, solutions are clear. But they may be colored.

Water as a Solvent

As mentioned, water is a remarkable solvent. This quality traces to the water molecule's structure. Each molecule's oxygen end has a slightly negative charge. At the opposite end, its hydrogen atoms have a slightly positive charge. This turns each water molecule into a tiny magnet. It enables water to pull apart many compounds. Salts are good examples. They consist of positively charged and negatively charged ions. Water attracts these charged ions to its opposite poles. As a result, salts dissolve readily in water.

Rain and runoff remove salts and other minerals from soil and rocks. Rivers carry these dissolved minerals to the ocean. There, they concentrate to make seawater salty. Groundwater also delivers dissolved minerals to the roots of plants.

Water can also dissolve gases. Fish extract dissolved oxygen gas when they breathe underwater. Water carries away their exhaled carbon dioxide.

Concentration

Solutions come in different concentrations. Concentration refers to the amount of solute dissolved in the solvent. A dilute solution has a relatively small amount of solute. A concentrated solution has a relatively large amount. Sugar water is a familiar example. It consists of sugar dissolved in water. Extremely sweet sugar water has a higher sugar concentration than slightly sweet sugar water.

Saturation

Water can dissolve only so much of a substance. A cup of tea, for example, dissolves only so much sugar. Add more, and the extra settles to the bottom. Similarly, only so much salt will dissolve in a given amount of water. A solution that is holding all the solute it can hold is called saturated. Further solute will not dissolve.

Heat increases water's saturation point. One sees this in everyday life. One can dissolve more salt or sugar in hot liquids than in cold ones.

Sometimes, one can create supersaturated solutions. Mix sugar in hot water. When the water cools, it holds more sugar than it normally would at room

temperature. But supersaturated solutions are unstable. Disturb it and the extra solute may come out of solution.

Solubility of Substances in Water

Solubility is the extent to which one substance will dissolve in another. For instance, 36 grams of salt will dissolve in 100 grams of water at room temperature. Two substances are called insoluble if they will not form a solution. Oil, for example, is insoluble in water.

Like Dissolves Like

Water is a polar molecule. It readily dissolves other polar substances.

Temperature and Solubility

As mentioned, heat increases water's ability to dissolve solids such as salt and sugar. This is because heat energy helps solids break apart.

By contrast, gases become less soluble with increasing temperature. Gas molecules must slow down, or lose energy, to enter liquid. Heat only encourages them to break free.

What about the solubility of liquids in liquids? Temperature changes have little effect either way.

Pressure and Solubility

Increased pressure encourages gases to dissolve in water. This is why we keep soda bottles capped tightly. The cap prevents gas from escaping. This increases pressure inside the bottle. The increased pressure, in turn, keeps more bubbles dissolved in the water. When we open the bottle, gas escapes and pressure decreases. We see the fizz of gas rushing out of solution.

Chemical Properties of Water

Water reacts differently with different substances. Many metals react with water. At the extreme, metallic sodium can produce explosive reactions in water at room temperature.

Many common compounds react with water to form acids or bases. Water reacts with carbon dioxide to produce carbonic acid. This weak acid is found

in blood and other body fluids. Calcium oxide and water combine to form calcium hydroxide. This base is used in plasters and cement.

Water also reacts with many salts. Water and ammonium chloride form an acidic solution. Water and sodium carbonate form a basic solution. Water and sodium chloride (table salt) produce a neutral solution.

Water can also form unique compounds called hydrates. The blue crystals of copper sulfate pentahydrate are a beautiful example. Inside each crystal, every copper sulfate molecule is surrounded by five water molecules.

Substances Found in Water

Because it is such a good solvent, water is seldom found in pure form in nature. As mentioned, seawater contains many kinds of mineral salts. Fresh water contains these same salts in smaller quantities. Both fresh and ocean water contain dissolved oxygen.

Other dissolved substances are not so desirable. Water can become polluted by animal, human, and industrial waste. Fortunately, nature continually filters and purifies water. Soil is especially good at filtering groundwater clean. But natural purification methods are no match for the waste of modern industries and populations. Today, most communities need sewer-treatment and water-purification plants.

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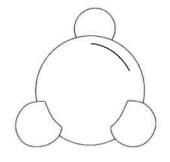
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SUBSTANCES AND MIXTURES

If a specific chemical formula can be written for a material can be provided (e.g., elements or compounds), the material is called a "substance." Other materials in which the components or parts are not chemically boned are termed "mixtures."



In the table below, classify the following materials as substances or mixtures by writing S or M respectively in the empty boxes.

1	air	11	milk	
2	alcohol	12	nail polish	
3	blood	13	nitrogen	
4	cake batter	14	oxygen	
5	carbon dioxide	15	salt water	
6	coffee	16	sodium	
7	cola	17	soil	
8	eggs	18	soup	
9	ice cream	19	table salt	
10	iron	20	water	

