Science Skills Guide

Safety

Safety Symbols

The following safety symbols are used in ***BC Science 10*** to alert you to possible dangers. Be sure you understand each symbol used in an activity or investigation before you begin.

	Disposal Alert This symbol appears when care must be taken to dispose of materials properly.
	Thermal Safety This symbol appears as a reminder to use caution when handling hot objects.
	Sharp Object Safety This symbol appears when a danger of cuts or punctures caused by the use of sharp objects exists.
	Electrical Safety This symbol appears when care should be taken when using electrical equipment.
	Skin Protection Safety This symbol appears when use of caustic chemicals might irritate the skin or when contact with micro-organisms might transmit infection.
	Clothing Protection Safety A lab apron should be worn when this symbol appears.
	Fire Safety This symbol appears when care should be taken around open flames.
	Eye Safety This symbol appears when a danger to the eyes exists. Safety goggles should be worn when this symbol appears.

Instant Practice—Safety Symbols

Find four of the *BC Science 10* safety symbols in activities or investigations in this textbook. For each symbol, identify the possible dangers in the activity that the symbol refers to.

WHMIS Symbols

Look carefully at the WHMIS (Workplace Hazardous Materials Information System) safety symbols shown here. The WHMIS symbols are used throughout Canada to identify dangerous materials. Make certain you understand what these symbols mean. When you see these symbols on containers, use safety precautions.

Compressed Gas	Flammable and Combustible Material
Oxidizing Material	Corrosive Material
Poisonous and Infectious Material Causing Immediate and Serious Toxic Effects	Poisonous and Infectious Material Causing Other Toxic Effects
Biohazardous Infectious Material	Dangerously Reactive Material

Instant Practice—WHMIS Symbols

1. Find any two WHMIS symbols on containers in your school, or ask a parent or guardian to look for WHMIS symbols in a workplace.
2. Record the name of the substance in each container.
3. What dangers are associated with this substance?

Scientific Inquiry

The rain has stopped, and the Sun is out. You notice that a puddle has disappeared from the sidewalk. What happened to that puddle of water? You could probably quickly answer that question, but how would you prove your answer? You would need to make observations and record data.

Making Observations

First, you might observe what happens to some other puddles. You would watch them closely until they disappeared and record what you observed.

One observation you might make is "The puddle is almost all gone." That would be a qualitative observation, an observation in which numbers are not used. A little later, you might also say, "It took five hours for the puddle to disappear completely." You have made a quantitative observation, an observation that uses numbers.

You probably already know that evaporation is the reason that the puddles are disappearing, but there are still lots of questions you can ask about evaporation. Although the two puddles were the same size, one evaporated much more quickly than the other one did. Your quantitative observations tell you that one evaporated in 4 h, whereas the other one took 5 h. Your qualitative observations tell you that the one that evaporated more quickly was in the Sun. The one that evaporated more slowly was in the shade. You now have a question to ask: Does water always evaporate more quickly in the Sun than in the shade?

Beginning your observations of water puddles

Concluding your observations of water puddles

Instant Practice—Making Qualitative and Quantitative Observations

Copy the observations below in your notebook. Beside each write "Qual" if you think it is a qualitative observation and "Quan" if you think it is a quantitative observation.

1. (a) The cup of tea was very hot.
(b) The refrigerator cooled the orange juice by 18°C.

2. (a) The chemical indicator turned the liquid pink.
(b) The electric guitar was louder than the acoustic guitar.

3. (a) The experiment required 50 mL of acid.
(b) Water boils at 100°C.

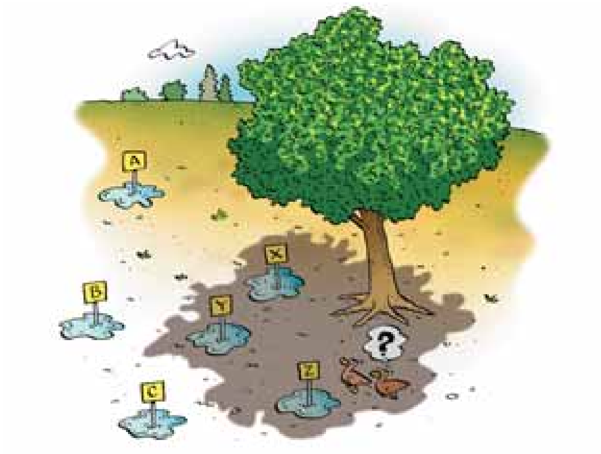
4. (a) The ball hit the ground at a high velocity.
(b) The speed limit in a school zone is 30 km/h.

5. (a) The solution was slightly acidic.
(b) The solution had a pH of 5.2 when measured.

6. (a) It took 6.0 min to travel to the store.
(b) The car is faster than the truck.

Stating an Hypothesis

Now you are ready to make an **hypothesis**, a statement about an idea that you can test, based on your observations. Your test will involve comparing two things to find the relationship between them. You know that the Sun is a source of thermal energy, so you might use that knowledge to make this hypothesis: Evaporation from natural pools of water is faster for pools in sunlight than for pools in shade.



Instant Practice—Stating an Hypothesis

Write an hypothesis for each of the following situations. You may wish to use an "If…then…" format. For example: *If* studying affects my quiz scores, *then* increasing the amount of time I spend studying will increase my quiz scores.

1. The relationship between driver training and the number of car accidents.
2. Does the strength of an acid influence the acid's electrical conductivity?
3. The relationship between atmospheric pressure and weather conditions.
4. The relationship between types of atmospheric gases and global warming.

Making a Prediction

As you prepare to make your observations, you can make a **prediction**, a forecast about what you expect to observe. In this case, you might predict that pools A, B, and C will dry up more quickly than pools X, Y, and Z.

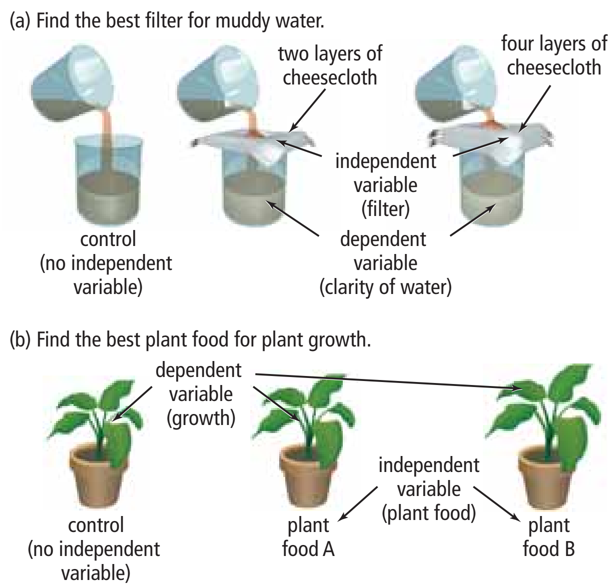
Identifying Variables

"But wait a minute," you think, as you look again at your recorded observations. "There was a strong breeze blowing today. What effect might that have had?" The breeze is one factor that could affect evaporation. The Sun is another factor that could affect evaporation. Scientists think about every possible factor that could affect tests they conduct. These factors are called **variables**. It is important to test only one variable at a time.

You need to control your variables. This means that you change only one variable at a time. The variable that you change is called the **independent variable**. In this case, the independent variable is the condition under which you observe the puddle. One variable would be adding thermal energy; another would be moving air across it. The independent variable may also be called the manipulated variable.

According to your hypothesis, adding thermal energy will change the time it takes for the puddle to evaporate. The time in this case is called the **dependent variable**. The dependent variable may also be called the responding variable.

Often, experiments have a **control**. This is a test that you carry out with no variables, so that you can observe whether your independent variable does indeed cause a change. Look at the illustrations below to see some examples of variables.



Instant Practice—Identifying Variables

For each of the following questions, state your control, your independent variable, and your dependent variable.

1. Does the amount of salt in salt water change the freezing point of the solution?
2. Does the temperature of the soil affect seed germination?
3. Do objects of the same mass, but different shape, fall at the same rate?

Designing a Fair Test

If you consider more than one variable in a test, you are not conducting a **fair test** (one that is valid and unbiased), and your results will not be useful. You will not know whether the breeze or the Sun made the water evaporate.

As you have been reading, a question may have occurred to you: How is it possible to do a fair test on puddles? How can you be sure that they are the same size? In situations such as this one, scientists often use **models**. A model can be a mental picture, a diagram, a working model, or even a mathematical expression. To make sure your test is fair, you can prepare model "puddles" that you know are all exactly the same. **Science Skill 8** gives you more information on using models.

Forming a Conclusion

Many investigations are much more complex than the one described here, and there are many more possibilities for error. That is why it is so important to keep careful qualitative and quantitative observations.

After you have completed all your observations, you are ready to analyze your data and draw a **conclusion**. A conclusion is a statement that indicates whether your results support or do not support your hypothesis. If you had hypothesized that the addition of thermal energy would have no effect on the evaporation of water, your results would not support your hypothesis. An hypothesis gives you a place to start and helps you design your experiment. If your results do not support your hypothesis, you use what you have learned in the experiment to come up with a new hypothesis to test.

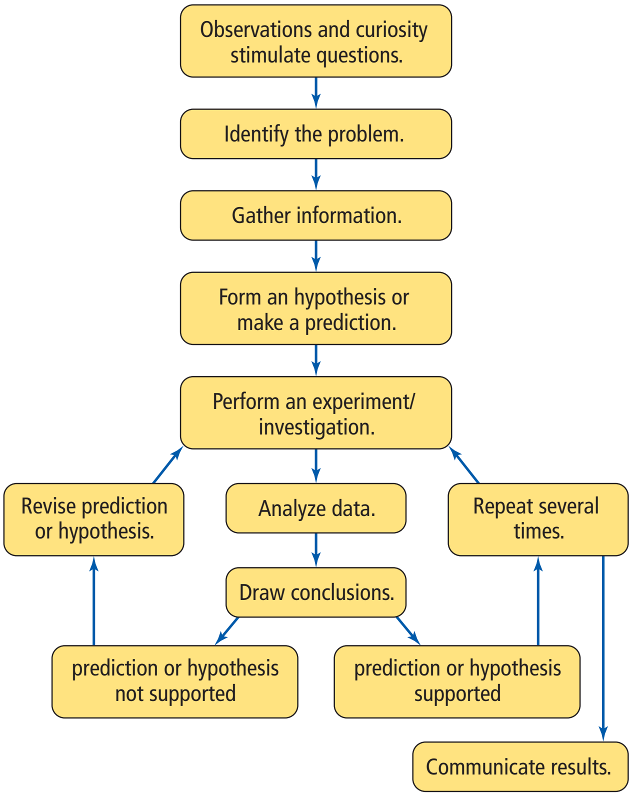
Scientists often set up experiments without knowing what will happen. Sometimes they deliberately set out to prove that something will not happen.

Eventually, when an hypothesis has been thoroughly tested and nearly all scientists agree that the results support the hypothesis, it becomes a **theory**.

A Process for Scientific Inquiry

One model of the scientific inquiry process is shown in the concept map below.

The Scientific Inquiry Process



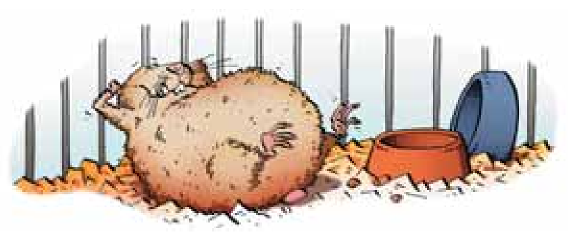
Technological Problem Solving

"Technology"—what does that word make you think of? Do you think of complicated electronic equipment? Do you think of the latest-model cars? Do you think of space exploration? Well, all of those have to do with technology, but think about this: Have you ever used a pencil to flip something out of a tight spot where your fingers could not reach? Have you ever used a stone to hammer bases or goal posts into the ground?

These, too, are examples of technology. **Technology** is the use of scientific knowledge, as well as everyday experience, to solve practical problems. You may not know why your pencil works as a lever or the physics behind levers, but your everyday experiences tell you how to use a lever successfully.

Identifying the Problem

When you used that pencil to move the small item you could not reach, you did so because you needed to move that item. In other words, you had identified a problem that needed to be solved. Clearly identifying a problem is a good first step in finding a solution. In the case of the lever, the solution was right before your eyes, but finding a solution is not always quite so simple.



Suppose school is soon to close for a 16-day winter holiday. Your science class has a hamster whose life stages the class observes. Student volunteers will take the hamster home and care for it over the holiday. However, there is a three-day period when no one will be available to feed the hamster. Leaving extra food in the cage is not an option because the hamster will eat it all at once. What kinds of devices could you invent to solve this problem?

First, you need to identify the exact nature of the problem you have to solve. You could state it as follows.

The hamster must receive food and water on a regular basis so that it remains healthy over a certain period and does not overeat.

Identifying Criteria

Now, how will you be able to assess how well your device works? You cannot invent a device successfully unless you know what criteria (standards) it must meet.

In this case, you could use the following as your criteria.

1. Device must feed and water the hamster.
2. Hamster must be thriving at the end of the three-day period.
3. Hamster must not appear to be "overstuffed."

How could you come up with such a device? On your own, you might not. If you work with a team, however, each of you will have useful ideas to contribute.

Planning and Constructing

You will probably come up with good ideas. Like all other scientists, though, you will want to make use of information and devices that others have developed. Do some research and share your findings with your group. Can you modify someone else's idea? With your group, brainstorm some possible designs. How would the designs work? What materials would they require? How difficult would they be to build? How many parts are there that could stop working during the three-day period? Make a clear, labelled drawing of each design, with an explanation of how it would work.

Examine all of your suggested designs carefully. Which do you think would work best? Why? Be prepared to share your choice and your reasons with your group. Listen carefully to what others have to say. Do you still feel yours is the best choice, or do you want to change your mind? When the group votes on the design that will be built, be prepared to co-operate fully, even if the group's choice is not your choice.

Get your teacher's approval of the drawing of the design your group wants to build. Then gather your materials and build a **prototype** (a model) of your design. Experiment with your design to answer some questions you might have about it. For example, should the food and water be provided at the same time? Until you try it out, you may be unsure if it is possible (or even a good idea) for your invention to deliver both at the same time. Keep careful, objective records of each of your tests and of any changes you make to your design.

You might find, too, that your invention fails in a particular way. Perhaps it always leaks at a certain point where two parts are joined. Perhaps the food and water are not kept separate. Perhaps you notice a more efficient way to design your device as you watch it operate. Make any adjustments and test them so that your device works in the best and most efficient way possible.

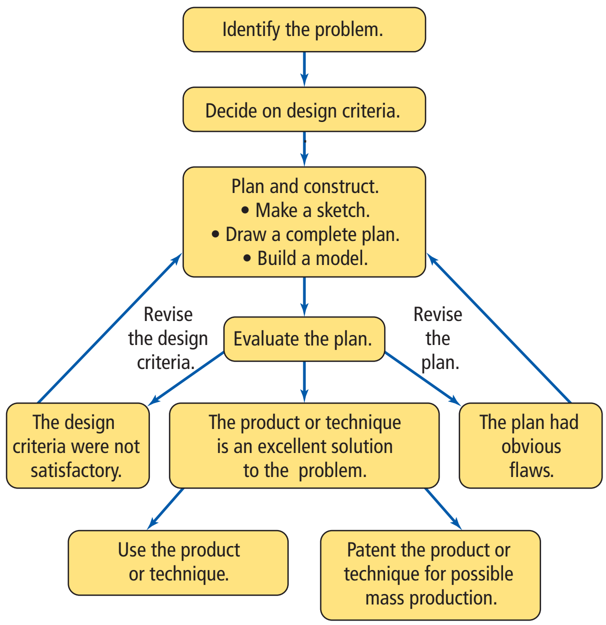
Evaluating

When you are satisfied with your device, you can demonstrate it and observe devices constructed by other groups. Evaluate each design in terms of how well it meets the design criteria. Think about the ideas other groups used and why they work better than (or not as well as) yours. What would you do differently if you were to redesign your device?

A Process for Technological Problem Solving

The problem-solving model you have just used is shown here.

Solving a Technological Problem



Societal Decision Making

Suppose you are part of a hockey team that practises at an arena in a town a few kilometres away. Every winter, there are days when you cannot get to the arena because the roads are too icy. The town council is in the middle of budget discussions, and one of the items under discussion is the salting of roads. The council is prepared to expand the salting program so that roads in your area will be salted in winter. You and your teammates are delighted. This will make your trip to the arena easier—and always possible.

Identifying the Issue

Soon after hearing the news about the road-salting, you go to your friend's house. You find your friend sitting in front of the computer, composing a letter to the town council. In it, your friend is asking that the salting program not be expanded to your area. You are surprised, but as you begin discussing the letter, you start to see your friend's point of view.

"What do you mean, damage the environment?" you ask. "Isn't it important to make our roads safer?"

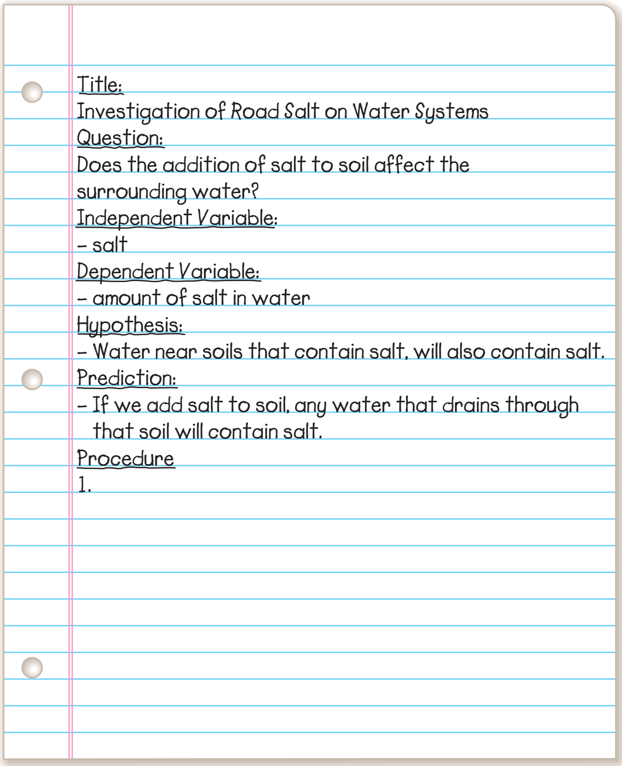
Gathering Information

"It is," answers your friend, "but is there some way we can make the roads safer without doing so much harm to the plants at roadsides and to the drinking water in springs and wells? I was going to research to find information about these questions I have written down."

"Whew," you say. "There is an awful lot to think about here. Let us see what we can find out from the Internet."

After researching you say, "Well, we found a lot of information, but I am still not completely convinced that salting the roads could cause a problem with our water. What sorts of things do we need to find out in order to answer that question?"

"We could do an investigation," your friend suggests. "Then I could use the results in my letter to the town council."



Identifying Alternatives

"I guess road salt does get into the water system," you admit after completing your investigation. "But we added quite a lot of salt. I wonder if any salt stays in the soil—maybe we could add less salt so that much less would get into the water, and our roads would still be safe for driving."

"Let us do some more research in the library and on the Internet, and see if we can find out how salt leaches through soil. Maybe we can also see what alternatives there are. We could look for something about using less salt on the roads—or even no salt."

Making a Decision

When you have all of the data that your scientific studies can provide, your decision will still involve some very human and personal elements. People have strong feelings about the social and environmental issues that affect them. Something that seems obvious to you might not be so obvious to another person. Even your scientific data might not change that person's mind. If you are going to encourage a group to make what you consider a good decision, you have to find ways to persuade the group to think as you do.

After all the data are in, and after all the persuading is done, it is time to take some action. The seemingly small actions done by you and your friends can have a snowball effect. You are very keen to show your sense of responsibility and community spirit by getting your ideas across to town council when one of your friends makes you stop and think. "I have noticed you putting a lot of salt out on your sidewalk," says your friend. "You could use a bit of time and muscle power to chip away the ice, but that is not the choice you make." You realize your friend is right—it is not only up to the town council or any other group to act responsibly; it is also up to you and your friends. How easy is it for you to give up an easy way of doing a task in order to make an environmentally responsible decision?

Evaluating the Decision

Issues rarely have easy answers. People who are affected have differing, valid points of view. It is easier for you to act as an individual, but if you can persuade a group to act, you will have greater influence. In the issue discussed here, you might write a letter to town council. As a compromise, you might suggest a combination of salt and sand on the roads. Your scientific study can provide you with appropriate statistics. As a group, you could attend a town council meeting or sign a petition to make your views known.

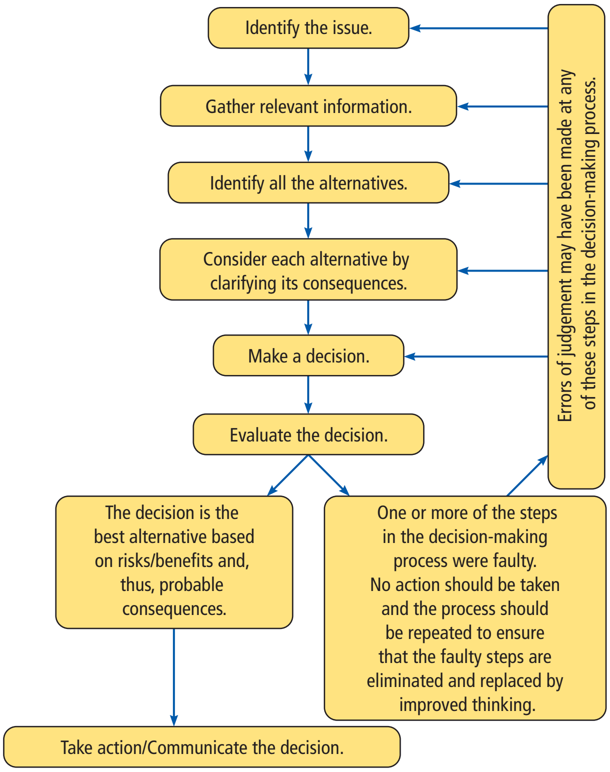
Over time, you can assess the effects of your actions: Are there fewer accidents on the salted/sanded roads? Does less salt end up in the water than when more salt alone is used?

A Process for Societal Decision Making

As you reached your decision, you went through various stages. Now you can think about how well each stage worked and how well you feel you completed each stage.

Examine the flowchart below. You can see that you used every step in this process. As with scientific inquiry and technological problem solving, having a process to use helps you to focus your thinking and stay on track.

A Process for Societal Decision Making



Instant Practice—Making Societal Decisions

Before pharmaceutical products such as drugs and cosmetics are made available to humans, they must go through a testing process. Often these products are tested on animals in a laboratory. Complete the following exercise as a group of four.

1. Divide your group into two pairs.
2. One pair will brainstorm and record the advantages of animal testing and how it has affected society in a positive way.
3. The second pair will brainstorm and record the disadvantages of animal testing, along with its negative affects on society.
4. The pairs will then regroup, and both sides can present their findings. Record key points on a chart for comparison.
5. Decide which pair has the more convincing evidence for its view on animal testing.
6. As a group, brainstorm alternative ways to test new products. Choose the best alternative, based on the information you have brainstormed in steps 2 and 3.

Organizing and Communicating Scientific Results with Graphs

In your investigations, you will collect information, often in numerical form. To analyze and report the information, you will need a clear, concise way to organize and communicate the data.

A graph is a visual way to present data. A graph can help you to see patterns and relationships among the data. The type of graph you choose depends on the type of data you have and how you want to present it. You can use line graphs, bar graphs, and circle graphs (pie charts).

Drawing a Line Graph

A line graph is used to show the relationship between two variables. The following example will demonstrate how to draw a line graph from a data table.

Example

Suppose you have conducted a survey to find out how many students in your school are recycling drink containers. Out of 65 students that you surveyed, 28 are recycling. To find out if more recycling bins would encourage students to recycle cans and bottles, you place temporary recycling bins at three other locations in the school. Assume that, in a follow-up survey, you obtained the data shown in Table 1. Compare the steps in the procedure with the graph on the next page to learn how to make a line graph to display your findings.

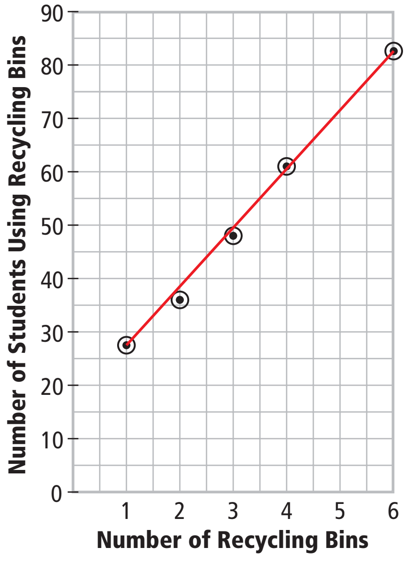
Table 1 Students Using Recycling Bins

Number of Bins	Number of Students Using Recycling Bins
1	28
2	36
3	48
4	62

Procedure

1. With a ruler, draw an *x*-axis and a *y*-axis on a piece of graph paper. (The horizontal line is the *x*-axis, and the vertical line is the *y*-axis.)
2. To label the axes, write "Number of recycling bins" along the *x*-axis and "Number of students using recycling bins" along the *y*-axis.
3. Now you have to decide what scale to use. You are working with two numbers (number of students and number of bins). You need to show how many students use the existing bin and how many would recycle if there were a second, a third, and a fourth bin. The scale on the *x*-axis will go from 0 to 6. There are 65 students, so you might want to use intervals of 5 for the *y*-axis. That means that every space on your *y*-axis represents 5 students. Use a tick mark at major intervals on your scale, as shown in the graph on the next page.
4. You want to make sure you will be able to read your graph when it is complete, so make sure your intervals on the *x*-axis are large enough.
5. To plot your graph, gently move a pencil up the *y*-axis until you reach a point just below 30 (you are representing 28 students). Now move along the line on the graph paper until you reach the vertical line that represents the first recycling bin. Place a dot at this point (1 bin, 28 students). Draw a small circle around the dot. This circle represents the inaccuracy of any measurement. Repeat this process until you have plotted all of the data for the four bins.

6. If it is possible, draw a line that connects all of the points on your graph. This might not be possible. Scientific investigations often involve quantities that do not change smoothly. On a graph, this means that you should draw a smooth curve (or straight line) that most closely fits the general shape outlined by the points. This is called a **line of best fit**. A best-fit line often passes through many of the points, but sometimes it goes between points. Think of the dots on your graph as clues about where the perfect smooth curve (or straight line) should go. A line of best fit shows the trend of the data. It can be extended beyond the first and last points to indicate what might happen.
7. Give your graph a title. Based on these data, what is the relationship between the number of students using recycling bins and the number of recycling bins?



8. How many recycling bins would be required to have 80 students use the bins? If six bins were provided, how many students would be using them?

Instant Practice—Line Graphs

The Moon has no atmosphere, so objects dropped near the Moon's surface have a constant acceleration. The data below represent the motion of such an object. Use this data to draw a best-fit line graph of velocity versus time.

Table 2 Velocity vs. Time

Time (s)	Velocity (m/s [down])
0	0
0.5	0.8
1.0	1.5
1.5	2.4
2.0	3.2
2.5	4.1
3.0	4.9
3.5	5.5
4.0	6.4

Constructing a Bar Graph

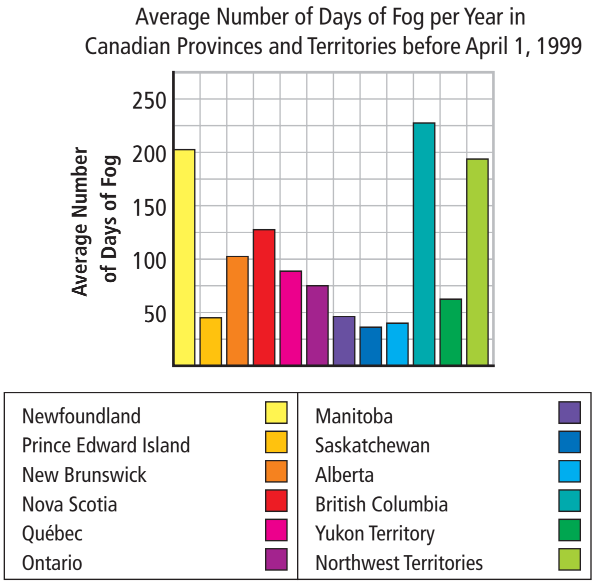
Bar graphs help you to compare a numerical quantity with some other category at a glance. The second category may or may not be a numerical quantity. It could be places, items, organisms, or groups, for example.

Example

To learn how to make a bar graph to display the data in Table 3 on the next page, examine the graph in the column next to the table as you read the steps that follow. The data show the number of days of fog recorded during one year at one weather station in each of the provinces and territories.

Province	Number of Days of Fog
Newfoundland	206
Prince Edward Island	47
New Brunswick	106
Nova Scotia	127
Québec	85
Ontario	76
Manitoba	48
Saskatchewan	37
Alberta	39
British Columbia	226
Yukon Territory	61
Northwest Territories	196

Table 3 Average Number of Days of Fog per Year in Canadian Provinces and Territories (prior to April 1, 1999)



Procedure

1. Draw your x-axis and y-axis on a sheet of graph paper. Label the x-axis with the names of the provinces and territories and the y-axis with the average number of days of fog.
2. Look at the data carefully in order to select an appropriate scale. Write the scale of your y-axis.
3. Decide on a width for the bars that will be large enough to make the graph easy to read. Leave the same amount of space between each bar.
4. Using Newfoundland and 206 as the first pair of data, move along the x-axis the width of your first bar, then go up the y-axis to 206. Use a pencil and ruler to draw in the first bar lightly. Repeat this process for the other pairs of data.
5. When you have drawn all of the bars, you might want to colour them so that each one stands out. If you have no colours, you could use cross-hatching, dots, or diagonal lines to distinguish one bar from another.
6. If you are comparing two or more manipulated variables that you have plotted on the x-axis, you will need to make a legend or key to explain the meaning of the colours. Write a title for your graph.

Instant Practice—Bar Graphs

Construct a bar graph to display the data showing the average yearly precipitation in several British Columbia locations.

Table 4 Comparison of Precipitation

Location	Average Annual Precipitation (mm)
Ashcroft	206
Fort St. James	47
Kamloops	279
Kelowna	366
Prince Rupert	2593
Smithers	325
Vancouver	1219
Victoria	608

Constructing a Circle Graph

A circle graph (sometimes called a pie chart) uses a circle divided into sections (pieces of pie) to show the data. Each section represents a percentage of the whole. All sections together represent all (100 percent) of the data.

Example

To learn how to make a circle graph from the data in Table 5, study the corresponding circle graph on the right as you read the following steps.

Table 5 Birds Breeding in Canada

Type of Bird	Number of Species	Percent of Total	Degrees in Section
Ducks	36	9.0	32
Birds of prey	19	4.8	17
Shorebirds	71	17.7	64
Owls	14	3.5	13
Perching birds	180	45.0	162
Other	80	20.0	72

Procedure

1. Use a mathematical compass to make a large circle on a piece of paper. Make a dot in the centre of the circle.

2. Determine the percent of the total number of species that each type of bird represents by using the following formula.

$$\text{Percent of total} = \frac{\text{Number of species within the type}}{\text{Total number of species}} \times 100\%$$

For example, the percent of all species of birds that are ducks is:

$$\text{Percent that are ducks} = \frac{36 \text{ species of ducks}}{400 \text{ species}} \times 100\% = 9.0\%$$

3. To determine the degrees in the section that represents each type of bird, use the following formula.

$$\text{Degrees in “piece of pie”} = \frac{\text{Percent for a type of bird}}{100\%} \times 360°$$

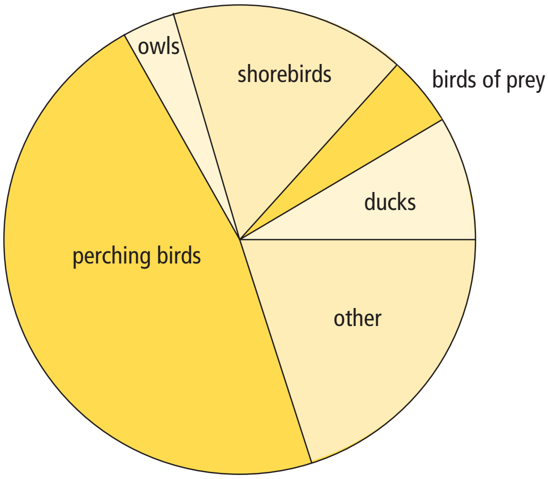
Round your answer to the nearest whole number. For example, the section for ducks is:

$$\text{Degrees for ducks} = \frac{9.0\%}{100\%} \times 360° = 32.4° \text{ or } 32°$$

4. Draw a straight line from the centre to the edge of the circle. Use your protractor to measure 32° from this line. Make a mark, then use your mark to draw a second line 32° from the first line.

5. Repeat steps 2 to 4 for the remaining types of birds.

Species of Birds Breeding in Canada



Instant Practice—Circle Graph

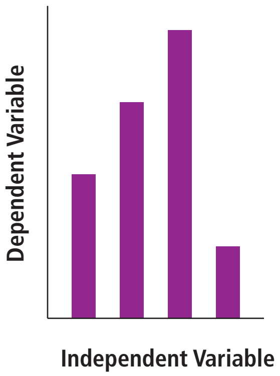
There are more than 70 elements dissolved in sea water. Make a circle graph using the elements in the table below.

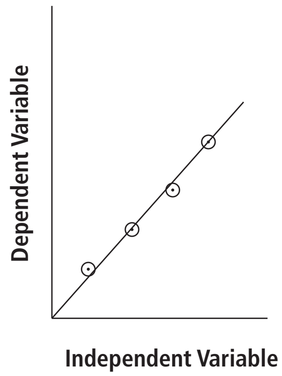
Table 6 Elements in Sea Water

Element	Percent of Sea Water
calcium (Ca)	1.2
chloride (Cl)	55.0
magnesium (Mg)	3.7
potassium (K)	1.1
sodium (Na)	31.0
Other	8.0

Independent and Dependent Variables

Line graphs and bar graphs are often used to show the relationship between two variables. A variable is a quantity that can change. The data from an experiment usually contain an independent variable and a dependent variable. The independent variable is the one that the experimenter changes. This variable is usually plotted on the *x*-axis (horizontal axis). The dependent variable responds to the change in the independent variable. The dependent variable is usually plotted on the *y*-axis (vertical axis), as shown below.



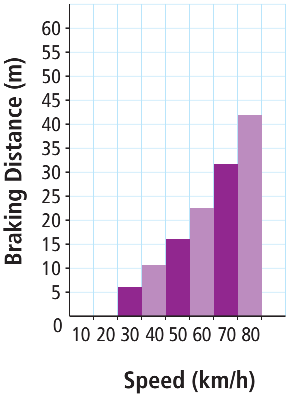


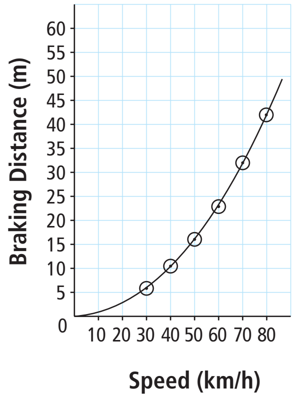
The first step in drawing a graph of experimental data is to analyze the procedure and data to determine the dependent and independent variables. For example, when you are learning to drive, you find that after you step on the brakes, the distance your car travels before it stops depends on how fast you were travelling. Suppose we set up an experiment in which a car is driven at different speeds and the distance it travels, after the brakes are applied, is recorded. The data for this experiment are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7 Relation of Braking Distance to Speed

Speed (km/h)	Braking Distance (m)
30	6.0
40	10.5
50	16.5
60	23.6
70	32.0
80	42.0

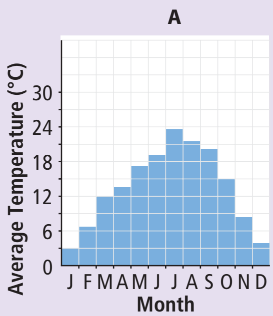
In this experiment, the procedure was to change the speed of the car and measure the braking distance. The variable that the experimenter changed was the speed. Therefore, speed is the independent variable and should be plotted on the *x*-axis. The braking distance varied as a result of the changes in speed and therefore is the dependent variable. The braking distance is plotted on the *y*-axis, as shown below.

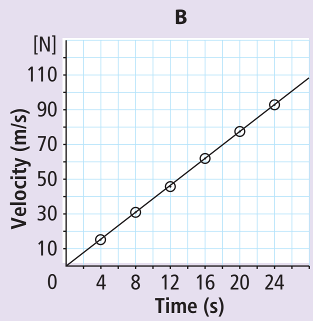




Instant Practice—Independent and Dependent Variables

1. State the independent variable and dependent variable for each of the graphs below.



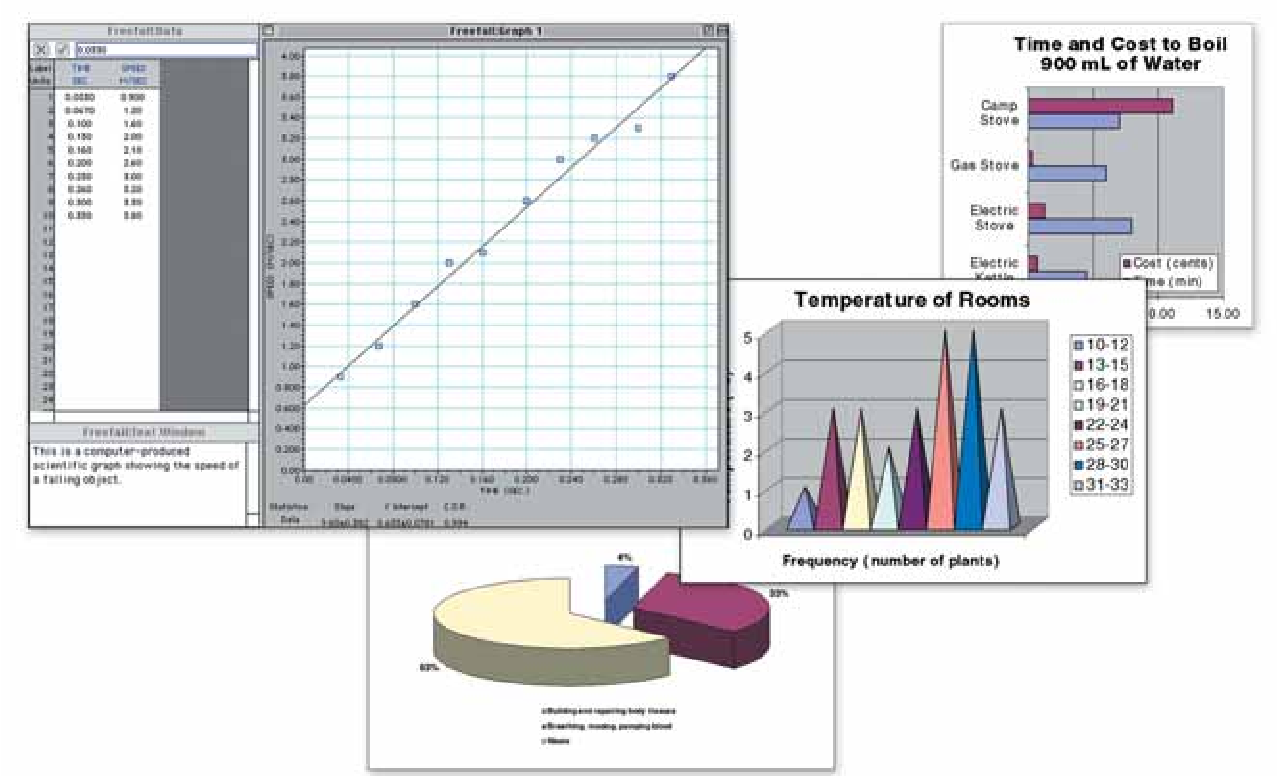


2. By a busy street, an experimenter records the amount of time, in seconds, required for every 25 cars to pass. State the independent and dependent variables in this description.

Graphing on a Computer

Computers are a useful tool for graph preparation for the following reasons.

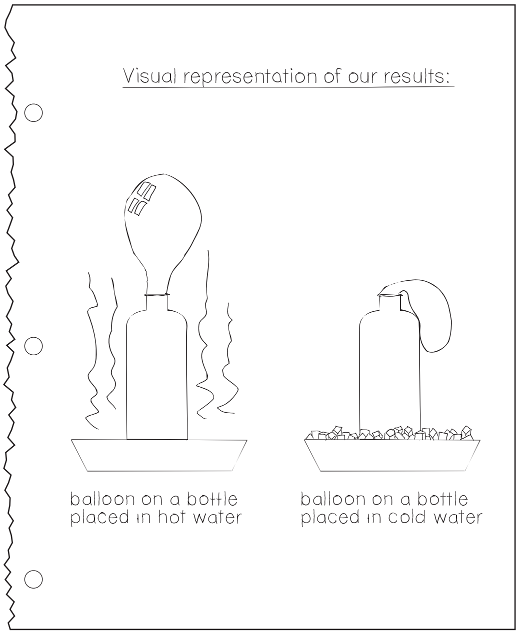
1. Data need be entered only once. As many graphs as you need can then be prepared without any more data entry.
2. Once the data are entered, you can use the computer to manipulate them. You can change the scale, zoom in on important parts of the graph, graph different parts of the data in different ways, and so on—all without doing any calculations!
3. Computers prepare graphs far more quickly than people working carefully.
4. Computers can be hooked up to sensors (thermometers, timers, etc.), so you do not need to read instruments and enter data by hand, with all the resulting possibilities for error. The computer can display the readings on a graph as data are collected (in "real" time), so you can quickly get a picture of how your experiment is going.
5. Errors can be corrected much more easily when working with a computer. Just correct the error and print again.
6. Computer graphs can be easily inserted into written lab reports, magazine articles, or Internet pages. It is possible to scan hand-drawn graphs into a computer, but it is not easy to do it well, and the resulting files are very large.
7. Once data have been entered into a computer, the computer can determine a line of best fit and a mathematical equation that describes the line. This line can help you to discover patterns in your data and make predictions to test your inferences.



Scientific Drawing

Have you ever used a drawing to explain something that was too difficult to explain in words? A clear drawing can often assist or replace words in a scientific explanation. In science, drawings are especially important when you are trying to explain difficult concepts or describe something that contains a lot of detail. It is important to make scientific drawings clear, neat, and accurate.

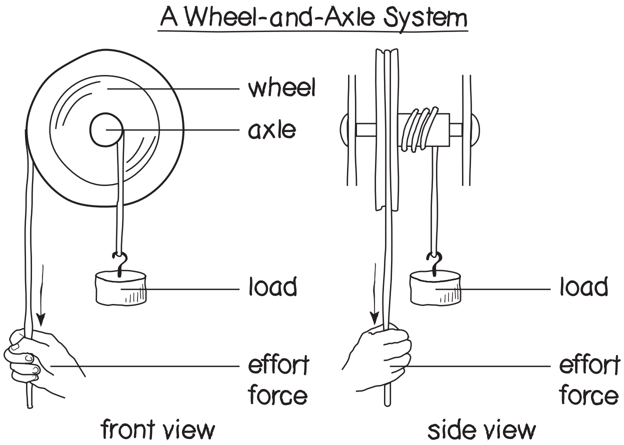
Examine the drawing shown below. It is taken from a student's lab report on an experiment to test the expansion of air in a balloon. The student's written description of results included an explanation of how the particle model can explain what happens to the balloon when the bottle is placed in hot water and in cold water. As you can see, the clear diagrams of the results can support or even replace many words of explanation. While your drawing itself is important, it is also important to label it clearly. If you are comparing and contrasting two objects, label each object and use labels to indicate the points of comparison between them.



Making a Scientific Drawing

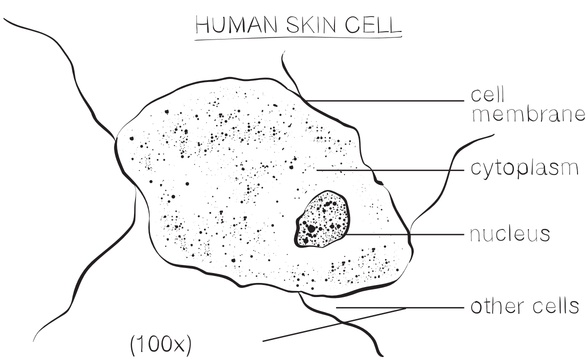
Follow these steps to make a good scientific drawing.

1. Use unlined paper and a sharp pencil with an eraser.
2. Give yourself plenty of space on the paper. You need to make sure that your drawing will be large enough to show all necessary details. You also need to allow space for labels. Labels identify parts of the object you are drawing. Place all of your labels to the right of your drawing, unless there are so many labels that your drawing looks cluttered.
3. Carefully study the object that you will be drawing. Make sure you know what you need to include.
4. Draw only what you see, and keep your drawing simple. Do not try to indicate parts of the object that are not visible from the angle you observed. If you think it is important to show another part of the object, do a second drawing, and indicate the angle from which each drawing is viewed.



5. Shading or colouring is not usually used in scientific drawings. If you want to indicate a darker area, you can use stippling (a series of dots). You can use double lines to indicate thick parts of the object.

6. If you do use colour, try to be as accurate as you can and choose colours that are as close as possible to the colours in the object you are observing.
7. Label your drawing carefully and completely, using lower-case (small) letters. Think about what you would need to know if you were looking at the object for the first time. Remember to place all your labels to the right of the drawing, if possible. Use a ruler to draw a horizontal line from the label to the part you are identifying. Make sure that none of your label lines cross.
8. Give your drawing a title. The drawing of a human skin cell shown below is from a student's notebook. This student used stippling to show darker areas, horizontal label lines for the cell parts viewed, and a title—all elements of an excellent final drawing.

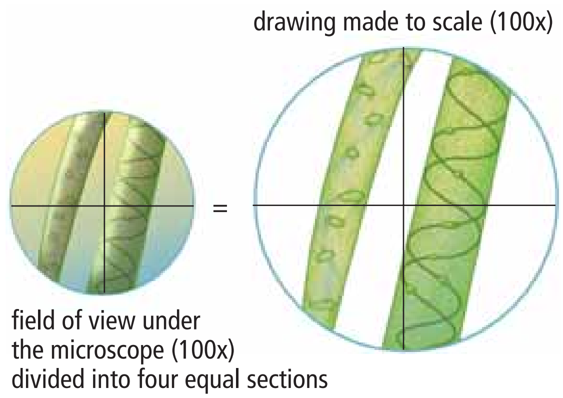


The stippling on this drawing of a human skin cell shows that some areas are darker than others.

Drawing to Scale

When you draw objects seen through a microscope, the size of your drawing is important. Your drawing should be in proportion to the size of the object as the object appears when viewed through the microscope. This type of drawing is called a scale drawing. A scale drawing allows you to compare the sizes of different objects and to estimate the actual size of the object being viewed. Here are some steps to follow when making scale drawings of magnified objects.

1. Use a mathematical compass to draw an accurate circle in your notebook. The size of the circle does not matter. The circle represents the microscope's field of view.
2. Imagine the circle is divided into four equal sections (see the diagram below). Use a pencil and a ruler to draw these sections in your circle, as shown here.
3. Using low or medium power, locate an object under the microscope. Imagine that the field of view is also divided into four equal sections.
4. Observe how much of the field of view is taken up by the object. Note the location of the object in the field of view.
5. Draw the object in the circle. Position the object in about the same part of the circle as it appears in the field of view. Draw the object so that it takes up about the same amount of space within the circle as it takes up in the field of view, as shown in the diagram.



Instant Practice—Scale Drawings

Place three objects on top of your desk (for example, a textbook, an eraser, and a calculator). Design a scale drawing of the top of your desk, using the shape of the desktop rather than a circle as in the example above. Include the shape and location of each object in your diagram.

Estimating and Measuring

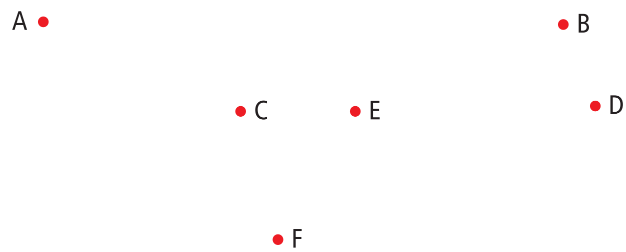
Estimating

How long will it take you to read this page? How heavy is this textbook? What is the height of your desk? You could probably answer all of these questions by **estimating**—making an informed judgement about a measurement. An estimate gives you an idea of the measure but is not an exact measurement.

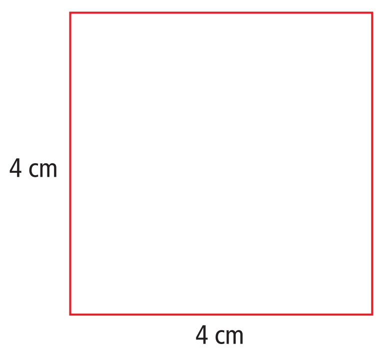
Scientists often make estimates when exact measurements are not essential. You will find it useful to be able to estimate as accurately as possible, too. For example, suppose you wanted to know how many ants live in a local park. Counting every ant would be very time-consuming—and the ants would be most unlikely to stay in one spot for your convenience! What you can do is count the number of ants in a typical square-metre area. Multiply the number of ants by the number of square metres in the total area you are investigating. This will give you an estimate of the total population of ants in that area.

Measuring Length and Area

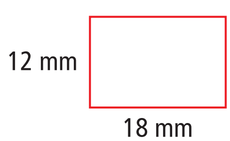
You can use a metre stick or a ruler to measure short distances. These tools are usually marked in centimetres and/or millimetres. Use a ruler to measure the length in millimetres between points A and F, C and E, F and B, and A and D. Convert your measurements to centimetres and then to metres.



To calculate an area, you can use length measurements. For example, for a square or a rectangle, you can find the area by multiplying the length by the width.



Area of square is 4 cm × 4 cm = 16 cm^2.



Area of rectangle is 18 mm × 12 mm = 216 mm^2.

Make sure you always use the same units—if you mix up centimetres and millimetres, your calculations will be wrong. Remember to ask yourself if your answer is reasonable (you could make an estimate to consider this).

Instant Practice—Estimating

1. An elevator has a maximum carrying capacity of 1200 kg. If the average person has a mass of 60 kg, estimate the number of people this elevator can safely hold.
2. A 747 jet has a wingspan of 70 m. If the average person is 1.7 m tall, estimate the length of the wings measured in human body lengths.
3. You purchase a 350 g bag of almonds from the store. How can you make a good estimate of the number of almonds in the bag?
   (a) Decide how you can use a centigram balance and a small number of almonds to estimate the total number of almonds in the bag.
   (b) Carry out your plan.
   (c) Compare your results with those of two or three classmates.

Instant Practice—Measuring Length and Area

1. The dimensions of a CFL football field and a tennis court are as follows:
   Football field – 102 m × 60 m
   Tennis court – 24 m × 11 m
   (a) Calculate the area of the CFL football field.
   (b) Calculate the area of the tennis court.
2. Measure the dimensions of the front cover of your *BC Science 10* textbook. Calculate the area of the cover in m^2.
3. State how many *BC Science 10* covers are needed to cover the surface of:
   (a) the football field
   (b) the tennis court

Measuring Volume

The **volume** of an object is the amount of space that the object occupies. There are several ways of measuring volume, depending on the kind of object you want to measure. A cubic metre is the space occupied by a 1 m × 1 m × 1 m cube. This unit of volume is used to measure large quantities, such as the volume of concrete in a building. In this course, you are more likely to use cubic centimetres (cm^3) or cubic millimetres (mm^3) to record the volume of an object.

You can calculate the volume of a cube by multiplying its sides. For example, volume = 1 cm × 1 cm × 1 cm = 1 cm^3.

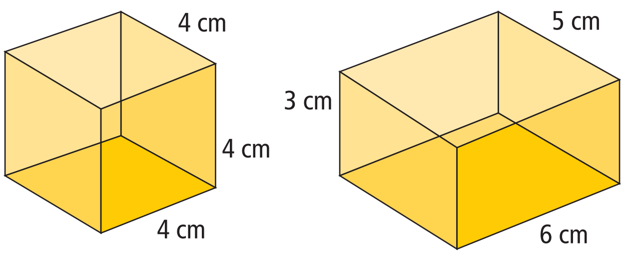
You can calculate the volume of a rectangular solid if you know its length, width, and height.

volume = length × width × height

If all the sides are measured in millimetres (mm), the volume will be in cubic millimetres (mm^3). If all the sides are measured in centimetres (cm), the volume will be in cubic centimetres (cm^3). The units for measuring the volume of a solid are called cubic units.

As you can see in Diagram A, the volume of a regularly shaped solid object can be measured directly.

A



Measuring the volume of a regularly shaped solid

The units used to measure the volume of liquids are called capacity units. The basic unit of volume for liquids is the litre (L). In this course, you also measure volume using millilitres (mL). Recall that 1 L = 1000 mL. You have probably seen capacity in litres and millilitres printed on juice, milk, and soft drink containers.

Cubic units and capacity units are interchangeable. For example:

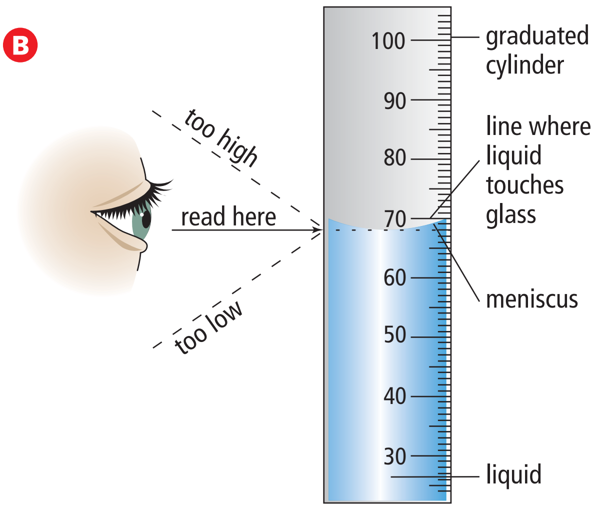
$1\ cm^3 = 1\ mL$

$1\ dm^3 = 1\ L$

$1\ m^3 = 1\ kL$

The volume of a liquid can be measured directly, as shown in Diagram B. Make sure you measure to the bottom of the **meniscus**, the slight curve where the liquid touches the sides of the container. To measure accurately, make sure your eye is at the same level as the bottom of the meniscus.

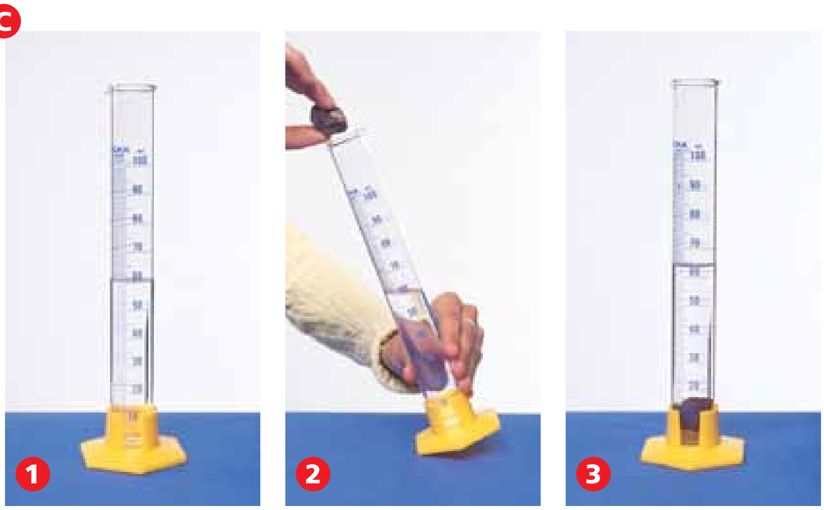
B



Measuring the volume of a liquid

The volume of an irregularly shaped solid object, however, must be measured indirectly as shown in Diagram C. This is done by determining the volume of a liquid it will displace.

C



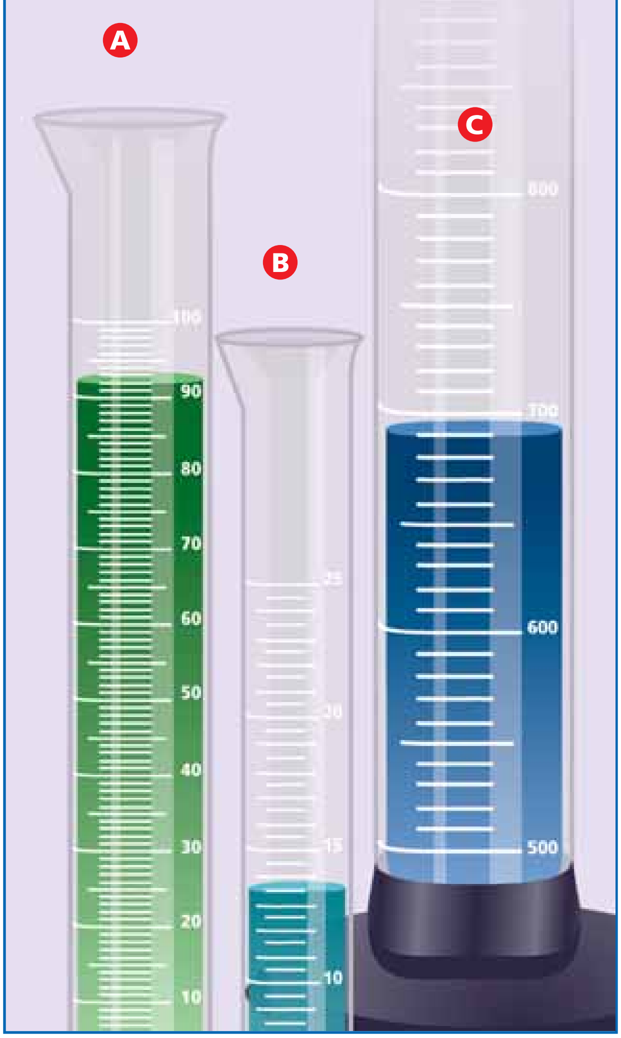
1. Record the volume of the liquid.
2. Carefully lower the object into the cylinder containing the liquid. Record the volume again.
3. The volume of the object is equal to the difference between the two volumes of the liquid. The equation below the photograph shows you how to calculate this.

Measuring the volume of an irregularly shaped solid

volume of object = volume of water with object − original volume of water
= 85 mL − 60 mL
= 25 mL

Instant Practice—Measuring Volume

1. Write the steps you would take to find the volume of a rock, using a graduated cylinder containing water.
2. Determine the volume of liquid in each of these graduated cylinders.



Measuring Mass

Is your backpack heavier than your friend's backpack? You can check by holding a backpack in each hand. The **mass** of an object is the amount of matter in a substance or object. Mass is measured in milligrams, grams, kilograms, and tonnes. You need a balance, such as a triple beam balance, for measuring mass.

Use the following steps to measure the mass of a solid object.

1. Set the balance to zero. Do this by sliding all three riders back to their zero points. Using the adjusting screw, make sure the pointer swings an equal amount above and below the zero point at the far end of the balance.
2. Place the object on the pan. Observe what happens to the pointer.
3. Slide the largest rider along until the pointer is just below zero. Then move it back one notch.
4. Repeat with the middle rider and then with the smallest rider. Adjust the last rider until the pointer swings equally above and below zero again.
5. Add the readings on the three scales to find the mass.

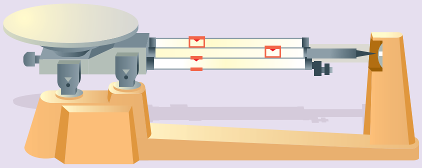
How can you find the mass of a certain quantity of a substance, such as table salt, that you have added to a beaker? First, find the mass of the beaker. Next, pour the salt into the beaker and find the mass of the beaker and salt together. To find the mass of the salt, simply subtract the beaker's mass from the combined mass of the beaker and salt.

The mass of the beaker is 160 g.

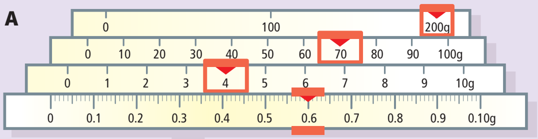
The mass of the table salt and beaker together is 230 g. Therefore, the mass of the salt is 70 g.

Instant Practice—Measuring Mass

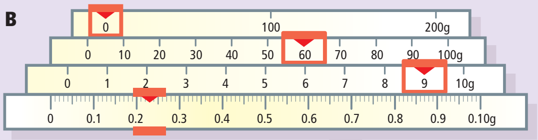
1. A friend gives you two identical juice bottles. One is empty, and the other is full and unopened. Write the steps you would take to find the mass of only the juice, without opening the bottle.
2. Determine the masses represented on the following centigram balances.



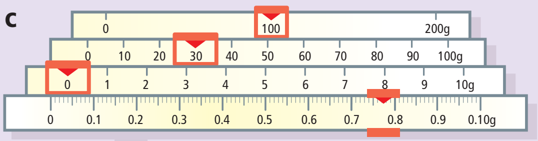
A



B



C



Measuring Angles

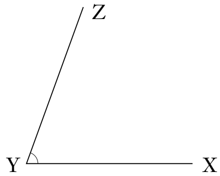
You can use a protractor to measure angles. Protractors usually have an inner scale and an outer scale. The scale you use depends on how you place the protractor on an angle (symbol =∠). Look at the following examples to learn how to use a protractor.

Example 1

What is the measure of ∠XYZ?

Solution

Place the centre of the protractor on point Y. YX crosses 0° on the outer scale. YZ crosses 70° on the outer scale. So ∠XYZ is equal to 70°.



Example 2

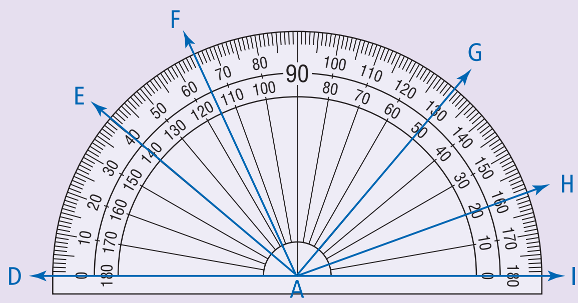
Draw ∠ABC = 155°.

Solution

First, draw a straight line, AB. Place the centre of the protractor on B and line up AB with 0° on the inner scale. Mark C at 155° on the inner scale. Join BC. The angle you have drawn, ∠ABC, is equal to 155°.

Instant Practice—Measuring Angles

1. State the measure of each of the following angles using the diagram below.
   (a) ∠DAE (d) ∠HAG (g) ∠EAH
   (b) ∠DAG (e) ∠GAE (h) ∠EAF
   (c) ∠IAF (f) ∠DAH (i) ∠FAI



2. Use a protractor to draw angles with the following measures. Label each angle.
   (a) DEF 30° (c) DEF 40°
   (b) XYZ 75° (d) PQR 15°

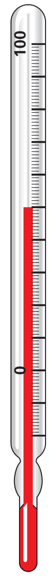
Measuring Temperature

Temperature is a measure of the thermal energy of the particles of a substance. In the very simplest terms, you can think of temperature as a measure of how hot or how cold something is. The temperature of a material is measured with a thermometer.

For most scientific work, temperature is measured on the Celsius scale. On this scale, the freezing point of water is zero degrees (0°C) and the boiling point of water is 100 degrees (100°C). Between these points, the scale is divided into 100 equal divisions. Each division represents one degree Celsius. On the Celsius scale, average human body temperature is 37°C and a typical room temperature may be between 20°C and 25°C.

The SI unit of temperature is the kelvin (K). Zero on the Kelvin scale (0 K) is the coldest possible temperature. This temperature is also known as absolute zero. It is equivalent to −273°C, which is about 273 degrees below the freezing point of water. Notice that degree symbols are not used with the Kelvin scale.

Most laboratory thermometers are marked only with the Celsius scale. Because the divisions on the two scales are the same size, the Kelvin temperature can be found by adding 273 to the Celsius reading. This means that on the Kelvin scale, water freezes at 273 K and boils at 373 K.



Tips for using a thermometer

When using a thermometer to measure the temperature of a substance, here are three important tips to remember.

- Handle the thermometer extremely carefully. It is made of glass and can break easily.
- Do not use the thermometer as a stirring rod.
- Do not let the bulb of the thermometer touch the walls of the container.

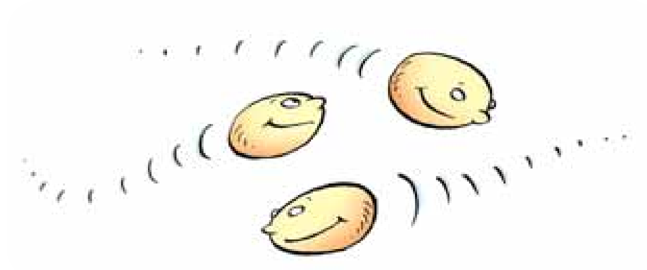
Using Models in Science

When you think of a model, you might think of a toy such as a model airplane. Is a model airplane similar to a scientific model? If building a model airplane helps you learn about flight, then you could say it is a scientific model.

In science, a model is anything that helps you better understand a scientific concept. A model can be a picture, a mental image, a structure, or even a mathematical formula. Sometimes, you need a model because the objects you are studying are too small to see with the unaided eye. You may have learned about the particle model of matter, for example, which is a model that states that all matter is made of tiny, invisible particles. Sometimes a model is useful because the objects you are studying are extremely large—the planets in our solar system, for example. In other cases, the object may be hidden from view, like the interior of Earth or the inside of a living organism. A mathematical model can show you how to perform a calculation.

Scientists often use models to communicate their ideas to other scientists or to students. They also use models to test an idea, to find out if an hypothesis is supported, and to plan new experiments in order to learn more about the subject they are studying. Sometimes, scientists discover so much new information that they have to modify their models. Examine the models in the illustrations on this page. How can these models help you learn about science?

You can learn about day and night by using a globe and a flashlight to model Earth and the Sun.



The particles shown here are models representing the atoms and molecules of a gas.

Instant Practice—Using Models

Certain genetic traits are passed down from your ancestors. Dark hair is a dominant trait.

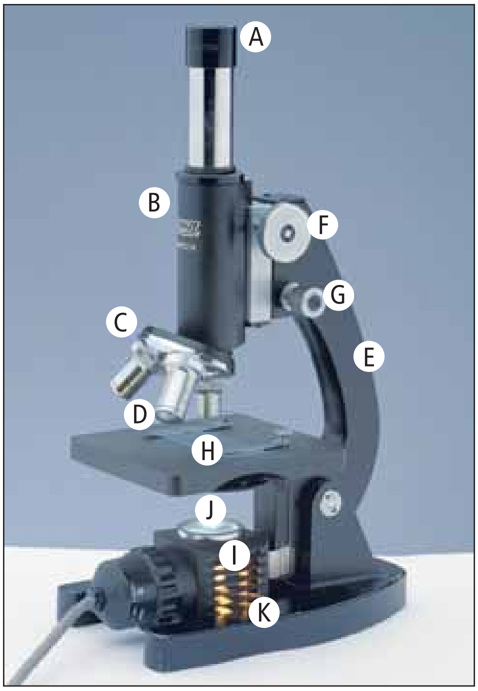
1. Draw a diagram of your heritage "family tree," starting with your grandparents.
2. Identify, with a dark circle, each person on the family tree that has dark hair.
3. Using this model of your heritage, explain what the statement "Dark hair is dominant" means.
4. Suggest another use for the model you just drew.

Using a Microscope

The light microscope is an optical instrument that greatly increases our powers of observation by magnifying objects that are usually too small to be seen with the unaided eye. The microscope you will use is called a compound light microscope because it uses a series of lenses (rather than only one as in a magnifying glass) and it uses light to view the object.

A microscope is a delicate instrument, so you must use proper procedure and care. This *Science Skill* reviews the skills that you will need to use a microscope effectively. Before you use your microscope, you need to know the parts of a microscope and their functions.

A. Eyepiece (or ocular lens)
You look through the eyepiece. It has a lens that magnifies the object, usually by 10 times (10×). The magnifying power is engraved on the side of the eyepiece.



B. Tube
The tube holds the eyepiece and the objective lenses at the proper working distance from each other.

C. Revolving nosepiece
This rotating disk holds two or more objective lenses. Turn it to change lenses. Each lens clicks into place.

D. Objective lenses
The objective lenses magnify the object. Each lens has a different power of magnification, such as 4×, 10×, 40×. (Your microscope may instead have 10×, 40×, and 100× objective lenses.) The objective lenses are referred to as low, medium, and high power. The magnifying power is engraved on the side of each objective lens. Be sure you can identify each lens.

E. Arm
The arm connects the base and the tube. Use the arm for carrying the microscope.

F. Coarse focus knob
The coarse focus knob moves the tube up and down to bring the object into focus. Use it only with the low-power objective lens.

G. Fine focus knob
Use the fine focus knob with medium- and high-power magnification to bring the object into sharper focus.

H. Stage
The stage supports the microscope slide. Stage clips hold the slide in position. An opening in the centre of the stage allows light from the light source to pass through the slide.

I. Condenser lens
The condenser lens directs light to the object being viewed.

J. Diaphragm
The diaphragm controls the amount of light reaching the object being viewed.

K. Light source
Shining a light through the object being viewed makes it easier to see the details. If your microscope has a mirror instead of a light, adjust the mirror to direct light through the lenses. CAUTION: Use an electric light, not sunlight, as the light source for focussing your mirror.

Troubleshooting

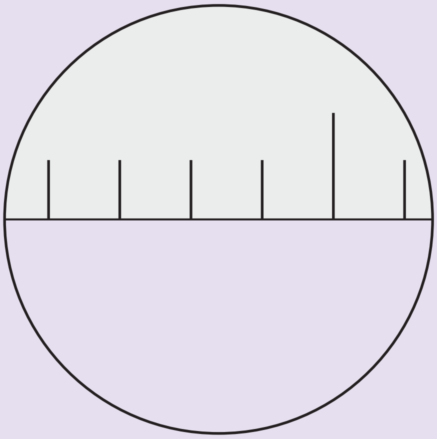
You may encounter difficulties when using your microscope. The following list details the more common problems and how you can deal with them.

- *You cannot see anything.* Make sure the microscope is plugged in and the light is turned on. If the microscope has no light, adjust your mirror.
- *Are you having trouble finding anything on the slide?* Be patient. Make sure the object being viewed is in the middle of the stage opening. While watching from the side, lower the low-power objective as far as it will go. Then look through the ocular lens and slowly raise the objective lens using the coarse-adjustment knob.
- *Are you having trouble focussing, or is the image very faint?* Try closing the diaphragm slightly. Some objects are almost transparent. If there is too much light, a specimen may be difficult to see or will appear "washed out."
- *Do you see lines and specks floating across the slide?* These are probably structures in the fluid of your eyeball that you see when you move your eyes. Do not worry; this is normal.
- *Do you see a double image?* Check that the objective lens is properly clicked into place.
- *Do you close one eye while you look through the microscope with the other eye?* You might try keeping both eyes open. This will help prevent eye fatigue. It also lets you sketch an object while you are looking at it.
- Always place the part of the slide you are interested in at the centre of the field of view before changing to a higher-power objective lens. Otherwise, when you turn to medium and high power, you may not see the object you were viewing under low power.

Instant Practice—Field of View

The field of view is the entire area you see when you look through a microscope. The diameter of the field of view is the distance from one side of the view to the other. This diameter varies with the magnification. The diameter can be used to estimate the size of the object being viewed.

1. Rotate the low-power objective lens into position.
2. Place a transparent metric ruler, calibrated in mm, on the stage so that the edge of the ruler crosses the centre of the field of view, as shown below.



3. Using the adjustment knob(s), bring the ruler into clear focus.
4. Record the diameter of the field of view.
5. Repeat steps 2 to 4 for the medium-power objective lens.
6. Make a wet-mount slide of one of the hairs from your head.
7. Place the slide on the stage and view it on low power. Using the diameter of the field of view you recorded, estimate the thickness of your hair.
8. Repeat step 7 using medium power.

Science Skill 10

Chemistry Reference

Periodic Table of the Elements

METALS ← | → NON-METALS

Atomic Number	Symbol	Name	Atomic Mass	Ion charge(s)
22	Ti	Titanium	47.9	4+ 3+

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1 + **H** Hydrogen 1.0																1 – **H** Hydrogen 1.0	2 0 **He** Helium 4.0
3 + **Li** Lithium 6.9	4 2+ **Be** Beryllium 9.0											5 **B** Boron 10.8	6 **C** Carbon 12.0	7 3– **N** Nitrogen 14.0	8 2– **O** Oxygen 16.0	9 – **F** Fluorine 19.0	10 0 **Ne** Neon 20.2
11 + **Na** Sodium 23.0	12 2+ **Mg** Magnesium 24.3											13 3+ **Al** Aluminum 27.0	14 **Si** Silicon 28.1	15 3– **P** Phosphorus 31.0	16 2– **S** Sulfur 32.1	17 – **Cl** Chlorine 35.5	18 0 **Ar** Argon 39.9
19 + **K** Potassium 39.1	20 2+ **Ca** Calcium 40.1	21 3+ **Sc** Scandium 45.0	22 4+ 3+ **Ti** Titanium 47.9	23 5+ 4+ **V** Vanadium 50.9	24 3+ 2+ **Cr** Chromium 52.0	25 2+ 3+ 4+ **Mn** Manganese 54.9	26 3+ 2+ **Fe** Iron 55.8	27 2+ 3+ **Co** Cobalt 58.9	28 2+ 3+ **Ni** Nickel 58.7	29 2+ 1+ **Cu** Copper 63.5	30 2+ **Zn** Zinc 65.4	31 3+ **Ga** Gallium 69.7	32 4+ **Ge** Germanium 72.6	33 3– **As** Arsenic 74.9	34 2– **Se** Selenium 79.0	35 – **Br** Bromine 79.9	36 0 **Kr** Krypton 83.8
37 + **Rb** Rubidium 85.5	38 2+ **Sr** Strontium 87.6	39 3+ **Y** Yttrium 88.9	40 4+ **Zr** Zirconium 91.2	41 3+ 5+ **Nb** Niobium 92.9	42 2+ 3+ **Mo** Molybdenum 95.9	43 7+ **Tc** Technetium (98)	44 3+ 4+ **Ru** Ruthenium 101.1	45 3+ 4+ **Rh** Rhodium 102.9	46 2+ 4+ **Pd** Palladium 106.4	47 1+ **Ag** Silver 107.9	48 2+ **Cd** Cadmium 112.4	49 3+ **In** Indium 114.8	50 4+ 2+ **Sn** Tin 118.7	51 3+ 5+ **Sb** Antimony 121.8	52 2– **Te** Tellurium 127.6	53 – **I** Iodine 126.9	54 0 **Xe** Xenon 131.3
55 + **Cs** Cesium 132.9	56 2+ **Ba** Barium 137.3	57 3+ **La** Lanthanum 138.9	72 4+ **Hf** Hafnium 178.5	73 5+ **Ta** Tantalum 180.9	74 6+ **W** Tungsten 183.8	75 4+ 7+ **Re** Rhenium 186.2	76 3+ 4+ **Os** Osmium 190.2	77 3+ 4+ **Ir** Iridium 192.2	78 4+ 2+ **Pt** Platinum 195.1	79 3+ 1+ **Au** Gold 197.0	80 2+ 1+ **Hg** Mercury 200.6	81 1+ 3+ **Tl** Thallium 204.4	82 2+ 4+ **Pb** Lead 207.2	83 3+ 5+ **Bi** Bismuth 209.0	84 2+ 4+ **Po** Polonium (209)	85 – **At** Astatine (210)	86 0 **Rn** Radon (222)
87 + **Fr** Francium (223)	88 2+ **Ra** Radium (226)	89 3+ **Ac** Actinium (227)	104 **Rf** Rutherfordium (261)	105 **Db** Dubnium (262)	106 **Sg** Seaborgium (263)	107 **Bh** Bohrium (262)	108 **Hs** Hassium (265)	109 **Mt** Meitnerium (266)	110 **Ds** Darmstadtium (281)	111 **Rg** Roentgenium (272)	112 **Uub** Ununbium (285)	113 **Uut** Ununtrium (284)	114 **Uuq** Ununquadium (289)	115 **Uup** Ununpentium (288)	116 **Uuh** Ununhexium (292)	117 **Uus** Ununseptium (?)	118 **Uuo** Ununoctium (294)
Alkali Metals	Alkaline Earth Metals															Halogens	Noble Gases

58 3+ 4+ **Ce** Cerium 140.1	59 3+ 4+ **Pr** Praseodymium 140.9	60 3+ **Nd** Neodymium 144.2	61 3+ **Pm** Promethium (145)	62 3+ 4+ **Sm** Samarium 150.4	63 3+ 2+ **Eu** Europium 152.0	64 3+ **Gd** Gadolinium 157.3	65 3+ 4+ **Tb** Terbium 158.9	66 3+ **Dy** Dysprosium 162.5	67 3+ **Ho** Holmium 164.9	68 3+ **Er** Erbium 167.3	69 3+ 2+ **Tm** Thulium 168.9	70 3+ 2+ **Yb** Ytterbium 173.0	71 3+ **Lu** Lutetium 175.0
90 4+ **Th** Thorium 232.0	91 5+ 4+ **Pa** Protactinium 231.0	92 6+ 4+ 5+ **U** Uranium 238.0	93 5+ 3+ 4+ 6+ **Np** Neptunium (237)	94 4+ 6+ 3+ 5+ **Pu** Plutonium (244)	95 3+ 4+ 5+ 6+ **Am** Americium (243)	96 3+ **Cm** Curium (247)	97 3+ 4+ **Bk** Berkelium (247)	98 3+ **Cf** Californium (251)	99 3+ **Es** Einsteinium (252)	100 3+ **Fm** Fermium (257)	101 2+ 3+ **Md** Mendelevium (258)	102 2+ 3+ **No** Nobelium (259)	103 3+ **Lr** Lawrencium (262)

Based on mass of C-12 at 12.00.

Any value in parentheses is the mass of the most stable or best known isotope for elements that do not occur naturally.

Names, Formulas, and Charges of Some Polyatomic Ions

Name	Formula
acetate	CH_3COO^-
ammonium	NH_4^+
carbonate	CO_3^{2-}
chlorate	ClO_3^-
chlorite	ClO_2^-
chromate	CrO_4^{2-}
cyanide	CN^-
dichromate	$Cr_2O_7^{2-}$
hydrogen carbonate, bicarbonate	HCO_3^-
hydrogen sulfate, bisulfate	HSO_4^-
hydrogen sulfide, bisulfide	HS^-
hydrogen sulfite, bisulfite	HSO_3^-
hydroxide	OH^-
hypochlorite	ClO^-
nitrate	NO_3^-
nitrite	NO_2^-
perchlorate	ClO_4^-
permanganate	MnO_4^-
phosphate	PO_4^{3-}
phosphite	PO_3^{3-}
sulfate	SO_4^{2-}
sulfite	SO_3^{2-}

Electron Arrangements of the First 20 Elements

Atom			Ion		
H	1 p	1	H^+	1 p	0
			H^-	1 p	2
He	2 p	2	He	Does not form an ion	
Li	3 p	2, 1	Li^+	3 p	2
Be	4 p	2, 2	Be^{2+}	4 p	2
B	5 p	2, 3	B^{3+}	5 p	2
C	6 p	2, 4	C^{4-}	6 p	2, 8
N	7 p	2, 5	N^{3-}	7 p	2, 8
O	8 p	2, 6	O^{2-}	8 p	2, 8
F	9 p	2, 7	F^-	9 p	2, 8
Ne	10 p	2, 8	Ne	Does not form an ion	
Na	11 p	2, 8, 1	Na^+	11 p	2, 8
Mg	12 p	2, 8, 2	Mg^{2+}	12 p	2, 8
Al	13 p	2, 8, 3	Al^{3+}	13 p	2, 8
Si	14 p	2, 8, 4	Si^{4-}	14 p	2, 8, 8
P	15 p	2, 8, 5	P^{3-}	15 p	2, 8, 8
S	16 p	2, 8, 6	S^{2-}	16 p	2, 8, 8
Cl	17 p	2, 8, 7	Cl^-	17 p	2, 8, 8
Ar	18 p	2, 8, 8	Ar	Does not form an ion	
K	19 p	2, 8, 8, 1	K^+	19 p	2, 8, 8
Ca	20 p	2, 8, 8, 2	Ca^{2+}	20 p	2, 8, 8

Common Isotope Pairs

Common Isotope Pairs

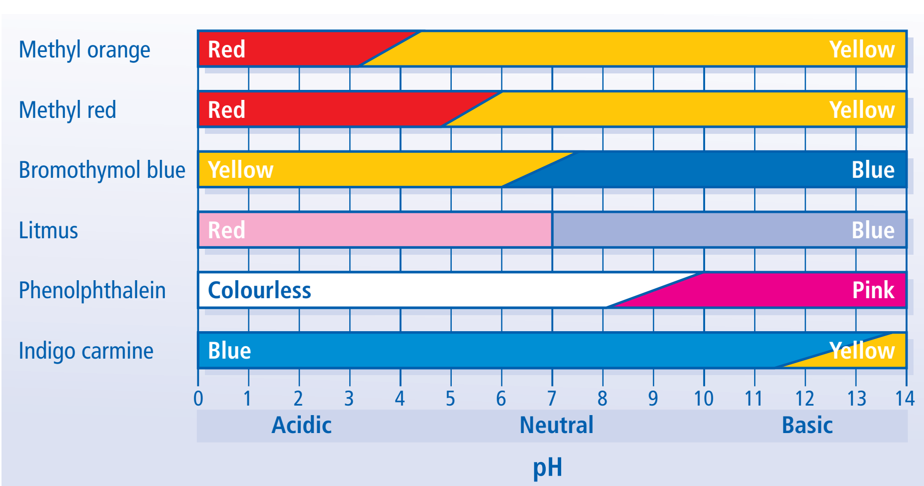
Isotope		Half-Life of Parent (years)	Effective Dating Range (years)
Parent	Daughter		
carbon-14	nitrogen-14	5730	up to 50 000
uranium-235	lead-207	710 million	>10 million
potassium-40	argon-40	1.3 billion	10 000 to 3 billion
uranium-238	lead-206	4.5 billion	>10 million
thorium-235	lead-208	14 billion	>10 million
rubidium-87	strontium-87	47 billion	>10 million

Boiling to Dryness

If you want to get a solid sample of a compound dissolved in a liquid, you can often use the "boiling to dryness" method. In this procedure, you heat the solution in a test tube over a flame until all the water has boiled off. Here are some points to help ensure success and safety.

- First, make sure that the solid will not react or decompose when heated. If it will, you cannot get a pure sample of the substance by the boiling method. For these compounds, evaporation at room temperature might work better.
- Use boiling chips. These are small solid lumps of a non-reactive substance such as glass. Boiling chips have a rough surface, giving them a large surface area. Bubbles of steam will develop on them and prevent "bumping," the sudden formation of large bubbles. Bumping can cause the solution to spatter out of the test tube.
- Be sure to hold the test tube in the flame at a 45° angle, as shown in the photograph. Do not hold the test tube straight up and down, or the solution at the bottom may boil too quickly and shoot out of the top.
- Keep the flame near the top level of the solution so the liquid will boil without spattering.
- As the solution dries, the danger of spattering increases. Heat slowly and, if necessary, remove the test tube from the flame for a few seconds. Be patient.

Acid-Base Indicators



Using Your Textbook as a Study Tool

How can you use your textbook effectively to understand science concepts better? This *Science Skill* will give you strategies to help you better understand what you read. It will also explain how to use textbook visuals and describe different types of graphic organizers that can help you organize your information.

Using Your Textbook to Read for Information

Reading a textbook is different from reading a novel or magazine. A textbook contains many different terms and concepts that you must understand and apply throughout each section. Here are several strategies to help you record the information.

1. Before reading a section, scan the pages. While you are scanning, look at the pictures and try to predict what you think the section will be about. Try to figure out the definitions for bolded words with the help of the Glossary or from the sentence the bolded word is in.
2. A light brown shaded box at the beginning of each section summarizes the key ideas covered in the section. Read this summary. You may not completely understand everything in the summary at first. When you finish working through the section, reread this summary. If you still do not understand something in the summary, ask your teacher for help.
3. Rewrite the section headings and subheadings as questions. Then look for the answer to each question as you read.
4. When you finish reading the text under a heading or subheading, think about what you have just read. Then write brief notes that explain the key ideas discussed there. Try to do this without looking at the text. After you make your notes, go back to the text you have just read. Add or change anything you have just written to help you understand the text better.
5. As you read each section, you will encounter Reading Checks. You should be able to answer these questions. If you cannot answer them correctly, go back and review the material you just read.

Using Your Textbook Visuals

As you read each page, look at any photographs, illustrations, or graphs that appear on the page. Read the captions and labels that accompany the photographs as well as the titles of graphs. Think about the information each visual provides, and note how it helps you to understand the ideas presented in the text. For example, look closely at the illustration on this page. What information does it convey to you?

Water on Earth moves in an endless water cycle.

Using the Glossary

Notice the terms that are in bold (dark, heavy) type. These terms are important words that you will need in order to understand and write about the information in each topic. Make sure that you understand these terms and how they are used. Each boldfaced term appears in the Glossary at the back of this book.

Using the Review Questions

At the end of every section, you will find review questions under the heading Check Your Understanding. At the end of every chapter, there are questions in the Chapter Review. If you are unable to answer the questions at the end of the sections and chapters, reread the material to find the answers. Ask your teacher to explain anything you still do not understand.

Instant Practice—Reading for Information

1. Go to the unit that your teacher tells you your class will be studying next. Scan the unit to predict the key ideas you will be studying.
2. In the first section of the unit, use strategies 1 and 2 on the previous page before you read the section.
3. Read the first section of the unit using strategies 3 and 4 to make notes.

Using Graphic Organizers

A good way to organize information you are learning is to use a graphic organizer. One kind of graphic organizer you will find useful is a concept map.

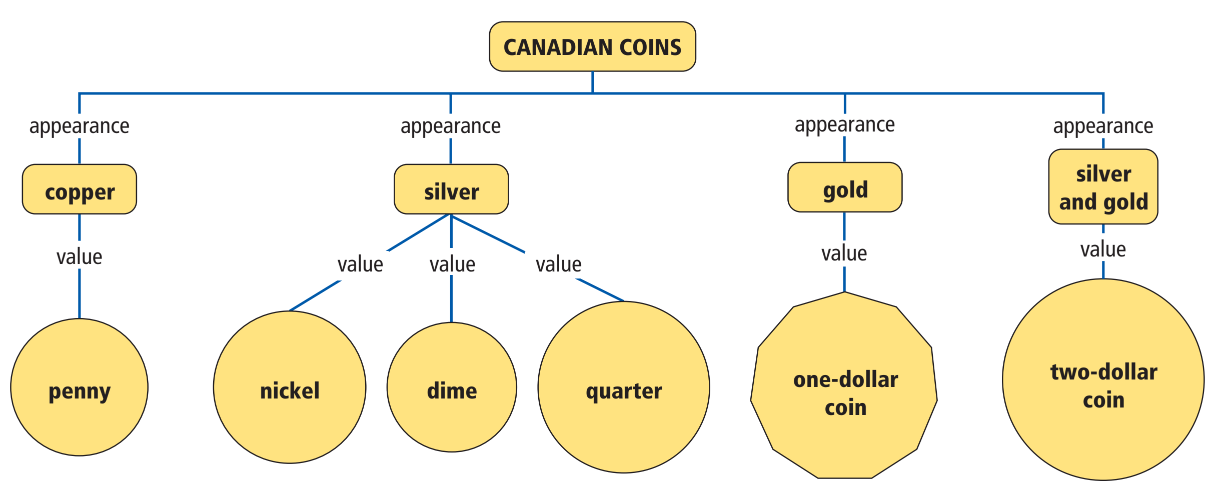
Concept Map

A concept map is a diagram that represents visually how ideas are related. Because the concept map shows the relationships among concepts, it can clarify the meaning of the ideas and terms and help you to understand what you are studying.

Study the construction of the concept map below. Notice how some words are enclosed while others are written on connecting lines. The enclosed words are ideas or terms called concepts. The lines in the map show related concepts, and the words written on them describe relationships between the concepts.

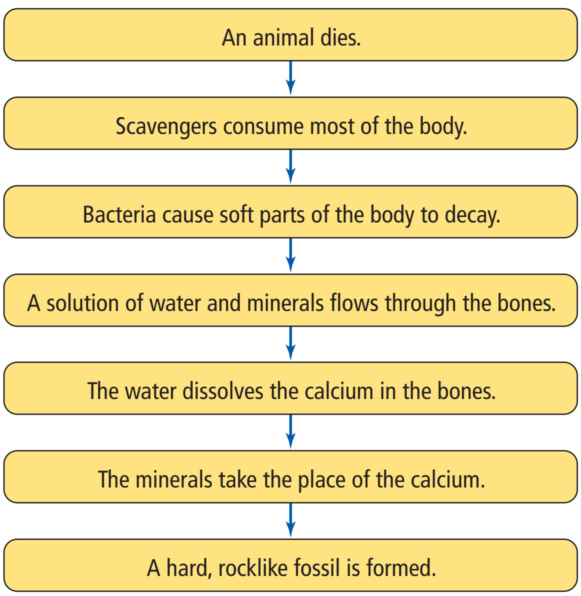
As you learn more about a topic, your concept map will grow and change. There is no single "correct" concept map, there are only the connections that make sense to you. Make your map as neat and clear as possible. Make sure you have reasons for suggesting the connections between the concepts.

When you have completed the concept map, you may have dozens of interesting ideas. Your map is a record of your thinking. Although it may contain many of the same concepts as other students' maps, your ideas may be recorded and linked differently. You can use your map for study and review. You can refer to it to help you recall concepts and relationships. At a later date, you can use your map to see what you have learned and how your ideas have changed.



Flowchart

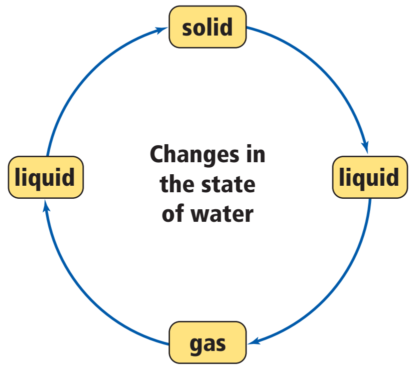
A flowchart describes ideas in order. In science, a flowchart can be used to describe a sequence of events, the steps in a procedure, or the stages of a process. When making a flowchart, you must first find the one event that starts the sequence. This event is called the initiating event. You then find the next event and continue until you reach an outcome. Here is a flowchart showing how an animal fossil may be formed.



Cycle Chart

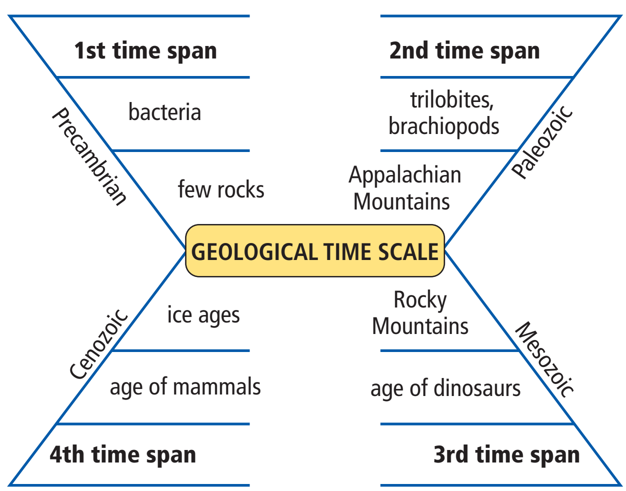
A cycle chart is a special type of flowchart. In a cycle chart, the series of events do not produce a final outcome. This type of chart has no beginning and no end.

To construct a cycle chart, you first decide on a starting point and then list each important event in order. Since there is no outcome and the last event relates back to the first event, the cycle repeats itself. Look at the cycle chart in the next column, which shows changes in the state of water.



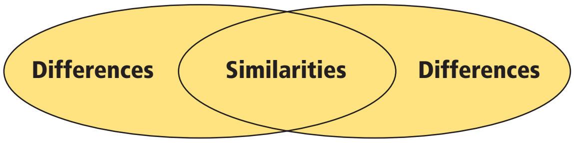
Spider Map

A spider map is a concept map that you may find useful for brainstorming. You may, for example, have a central idea and a jumble of associated concepts, but they may not necessarily be related to each other. By placing these associated ideas outside the main concept, you can begin to group these ideas so that their relationships become easier to understand. Examine the following spider map of the geological time scale to see how various concepts related to this time scale may be grouped to provide clearer understanding.

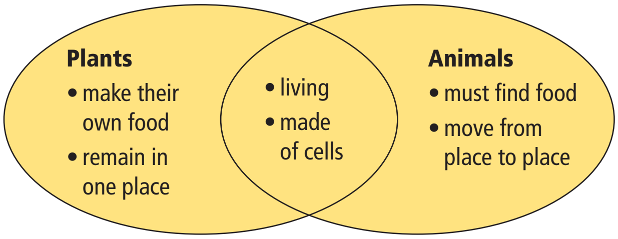


Venn Diagram

Comparing and contrasting information is another way to help solidify your learning. When you compare, you look for similarities between two concepts or objects. When you contrast, you look for differences. You can do this by listing ways in which two things are similar and ways in which they are different. You can also use a graphic organizer called a Venn diagram to do this, using two circles.



Example



Instant Practice—Graphic Organizers

1. Create a concept map with the word "motion" at the centre. Include the following terms: uniform motion, acceleration, average speed, average velocity, displacement, distance, $\Delta d \div \Delta t$, $\Delta v \div \Delta t$. Show how each term is connected to motion and to the other terms.
2. Create a flowchart that takes you through all the steps involved in making a peanut butter and jelly sandwich.
3. Design a spider map with the central theme of climate change.
4. Create a Venn diagram in which you compare and contrast one of the following pairs.
   (a) car and bicycle
   (b) fission and fusion
   (c) tropical rainforest and temperate rainforest

Units of Measurement and Scientific Notation

Throughout history, people have developed systems of numbering and measurement. When different groups of people began to communicate with each other, they discovered that their systems and units of measurement were different. Some groups within societies created their own unique systems of measurement.

Today, scientists around the world use the metric system of numbers and units. The metric system is the official system of measurement in Canada.

The Metric System

The metric system is based on multiples of 10. For example, the basic unit of length is the metre. All larger units of length are expressed in units based on metres multiplied by 10, 100, 1000, or more. Smaller units of length are expressed in units based on metres divided by 10, 100, 1000, or more.

Each multiple of 10 has its own prefix (a word joined to the beginning of another word). For example, "kilo-" means multiplied by 1000. Thus, one kilometre is 1000 metres.

$$1 \text{ km} = 1000 \text{ m}$$

The prefix "milli-" means divided by 1000. Thus, one millimetre is one-thousandth of a metre.

$$1 \text{ mm} = \frac{1}{1000} \text{ m}$$

In the metric system, the same prefixes are used for nearly all types of measure, such as mass, weight, area, and energy. A table of the most common metric prefixes is given at the top of the next column.

Commonly Used Metric Prefixes

Prefixes	Symbol	Relationship to the Base Unit
giga-	G	10^9 = 1 000 000 000
mega-	M	10^6 = 1 000 000
kilo-	k	10^3 = 1 000
hecto-	h	10^2 = 100
deca-	da	10^1 = 10
–	–	10^0 = 1
deci-	d	10^{-1} = 0.1
centi-	c	10^{-2} = 0.01
milli-	m	10^{-3} = 0.001
micro-	μ	10^{-6} = 0.000 001
nano-	n	10^{-9} = 0.000 000 001

Example 1

The distance from Penticton to Prince Rupert is 1431 km. Express this distance in metres.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} 1431 \text{ km} &= ? \text{ m} \\ 1 \text{ km} &= 1000 \text{ m} \\ 1431 \text{ km} &= 1431 \times 1000 \text{ m} \\ &= 1\ 431\ 000 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

Example 2

There are 250 g of cereal in a package. Express this mass in kilograms.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ kg} &= 1000 \text{ g} \\ 250 \text{ g} \times 4 &= 1000 \text{ g} \\ \frac{1000}{4} \text{ g} &= 250 \text{ g} \\ \frac{1}{4} \text{ kg} &= 0.25 \text{ kg} \end{aligned}$$

The next table lists most of the frequently used metric quantities you will encounter in your science classes.

Frequently Used Scientific Quantities, Units, and Symbols		
Quantity	**Unit**	**Symbol**
Length	nanometre micrometre millimetre centimetre metre kilometre	nm μm mm cm m km
Mass	gram kilogram tonne	g kg t
Area	square centimetre square metre hectare	cm^2 m^2 ha
Volume	cubic centimetre cubic metre millilitre litre	cm^3 m^3 mL L
Time	second	s
Temperature	degree Celsius	°C
Force	newton	N
Energy	joule kilojoule	J kJ
Pressure	pascal kilopascal	Pa kPa
Electric current	ampere	A
Quantity of electric charge	coulomb	C
Electrical resistance	ohm	Ω
Frequency	hertz	Hz
Power	watt	W

Instant Practice—Using Metric Measurements

1. A container holds 250 mL of juice. Express the volume in L.
2. A hockey puck has a mass of 160 g. What is the puck's mass in kg?
3. The average length of a person's foot is 0.265 m. What is this length in cm?
4. You walk 1.2 km to school. Express this distance in m.
5. A student adds 0.0035 L of acid to water. Express the volume in mL.
6. A hamburger contains 23 g of fat. Express the mass in mg.

SI Units

In science classes, you will often be instructed to report your measurements and answers in SI units. The term SI is taken from the French name *Le Système international d'unités*. In SI, the unit of mass is the kilogram, the unit of length is the metre, the unit of time is the second, the unit of temperature is the kelvin, and the unit of electric current is the ampere. Nearly all other units are defined as combinations of these units.

Example 1

Convert 527 cm to SI units.

Solution

The SI unit of length is the metre.

1 m = 100 cm

$$527\ \cancel{\text{cm}} \times \frac{1\ \text{m}}{100\ \cancel{\text{cm}}} = 5.27\ \text{m}$$

Example 2

Convert 3.2 h to SI units.

Solution

The SI unit of time is the second.

1 min = 60 s; 1 h = 60 min

$$\frac{3.2\ \cancel{\text{h}} \times 60\ \cancel{\text{min}}}{\cancel{\text{h}}} \times \frac{60\ \text{s}}{1\ \cancel{\text{min}}} = 11\ 520\ \text{s}$$

Instant Practice—Converting to SI Units

Convert the following quantities to SI units.

1. 14.5 g
2. 147 cm
3. 2.4 km
4. 5.0 min
5. 0.35 h
6. 1600 mg
7. 65 km/h
8. 250 cm/s^2

Exponents of Scientific Notation

An exponent is the symbol or number denoting the power to which another number or symbol is to be raised. The exponent shows the number of repeated multiplications of the base. In 10^2, the exponent is 2 and the base is 10. The place table below shows the powers of 10 as numbers in standard form and in exponential form.

	Standard Form	Exponential Form
Ten thousands	10 000	10^4
Thousands	1 000	10^3
Hundreds	100	10^2
Tens	10	10^1
Ones	1	10^0
Tenths	0.1	10^{-1}
Hundredths	0.01	10^{-2}
Thousandths	0.001	10^{-3}
Ten-thousandths	0.000 1	10^{-4}

Why use exponents? Consider this. Mercury is about 58 000 000 km from the Sun. If a zero were accidentally added to this number, the distance would appear to be 10 times larger than it actually is. To avoid mistakes when writing many zeros, scientists express very large and very small numbers in scientific notation.

Example 1

Mercury is about 58 000 000 km from the Sun. Write 58 000 000 in scientific notation.

Solution

In scientific notation, a number has the form $x \times 10^n$, where x is greater than or equal to 1 but less than 10, and 10^n is a power of 10.

58 000 000. ← The decimal point starts here. Move the decimal point 7 places to the left.

$= 5.8 \times 10\ 000\ 000$

$= 5.8 \times 10^7$

When you move the decimal point to the left, the exponent of 10 is positive. The number of places you move the decimal point is the number in the exponent.

Example 2

The electron in a hydrogen atom is, on the average, 0.000 000 000 053 m from the nucleus. Write 0.000 000 000 053 in scientific notation.

Solution

To write the number in the form $x \times 10^n$, move the decimal point to the right until there is one non-zero number to the left of the decimal point.

The decimal point starts here. 0.000 000 000 053
Move the decimal point 11 places to the right.

$= 5.3 \times 0.000\ 000\ 000\ 01$

$= 5.3 \times 10^{-11}$

When you move the decimal point to the right, the exponent of 10 is negative. The number of places you move the decimal point is the number in the exponent.

Instant Practice—Scientific Notation

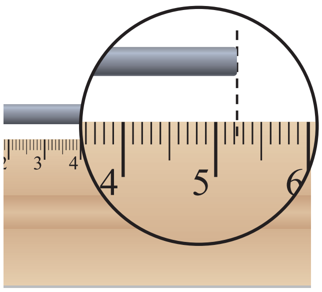
1. Express each of the following in scientific notation.
   (a) The radius of Earth: 6 380 000 m
   (b) The speed of light in a vacuum: 299 800 000 m/s
   (c) Average Earth–Moon distance: 384 000 km
   (d) The approximate radius of a proton: 0.000 000 000 001 2 mm

2. Change the following to standard form.
   (a) 1.4×10^4 kg
   (b) 6.3×10^7 m
   (c) 4.9×10^{-3} s
   (d) 5.8×10^{-6} g

Working with Significant Digits

Measurement and Accuracy

You might think that a measurement can be an exact quantity. But in fact, whenever you take a measurement, you are only making an estimate. **Accuracy** is the difference between a measurement and its true value. No measuring device is 100 percent accurate. For example, the illustration below shows a ruler measuring the length of a rod. The ruler can give a quite accurate reading, as it is divided into millimetre marks. But the end of the rod falls between two marks. There is still uncertainty in the measurement.



Significant Digits

Significant digits are used to represent the amount of uncertainty in a measurement. The significant digits in a measured quantity include all the certain digits plus the first uncertain digit. In the example above, the length of the rod is between 5.2 cm and 5.3 cm. We must estimate the distance between the 2 mm and 3 mm marks. Suppose we estimate the length to be 5.23 cm. The first two digits (5 and 2) are certain (we can see those marks), but the last digit (0.03) was estimated. The measurement 5.23 cm has three significant digits.

Determining the Number of Significant Digits

The following rules will help you determine the number of significant digits in a given measurement.

1. All non-zero digits (1–9) are considered significant.

   Examples:
   - 123 m – three significant digits
   - 23.56 km – four significant digits

2. Zeros between non-zero digits are also significant.

   Examples:
   - 1207 m – four significant digits
   - 120.5 km/h – four significant digits

3. Any zero that follows a non-zero digit *and* is to the right of the decimal point is significant.

   Examples:
   - 12.50 m/s^2 – four significant digits
   - 6.0 km – two significant digits

4. Zeros used to indicate the position of the decimal are *not* significant. These zeros are sometimes called spacers.

   Examples:
   - 500 km – one significant digit (the decimal point is assumed to be after the final zero)
   - 0.325 m – three significant digits
   - 0.000 34 km – two significant digits

5. All counting numbers have an infinite number of significant digits.

   Examples:
   - 6 apples – infinite number of significant digits
   - 125 people – infinite number of significant digits

How Many Significant Digits?

Determine the number of significant digits in each measurement.

(a) 25 g
(b) 584 mL
(c) 0.003 56 km
(d) 505.2 m
(e) 1.030 L
(f) 12 000 cm
(g) 0.0070 kg

Using Significant Digits in Mathematical Operations

When you use measured values in mathematical operations, the calculated answer cannot be more certain than the measurements on which it is based. Often the answer on your calculator will have to be rounded to the correct number of significant digits.

Rules for rounding

1. When the first digit to be dropped is less than 5, the preceding digit is not changed.

   Example:

   6.723 m rounded to two significant digits is 6.7 m. The digit after the 7 is less than 5, so the 7 does not change.

2. When the first digit to be dropped is 5 or greater, the preceding digit is increased by one.

   Example:

   7.237 m rounded to three significant digits is 7.24 m. The digit after the 3 is greater than 5, so the 3 is increased by one.

Adding or subtracting measurements

Perform the mathematical operation, and then round off the answer to the value having the fewest decimal places.

Example:

Add the following measured lengths and express the answer to the correct number of significant digits.

$x = 2.3 \text{ cm} + 6.\ 47 \text{ cm} + 13.689 \text{ cm}$
$\quad = 22.459 \text{ cm}$
$\quad = 22.5 \text{ cm}$

Since 2.3 cm has only one decimal place, the answer can have only one decimal place.

Multiplying or dividing measurements

Perform the mathematical operation, and then round off the answer to the least number of significant digits of the data values.

Example:

Multiply the following measured lengths and express the answer to the correct number of significant digits.

$x = (2.342 \text{ m})(0.063 \text{ m})(306 \text{ m})$
$\quad = 45.149\ 076 \text{ m}^3$
$\quad = 45 \text{ m}^3$

Since 0.063 m has only two significant digits, the final answer must also have two significant digits.

Calculations with Significant Digits

Perform the following calculations, rounding off your answer to the correct number of significant digits.

(a) (2.475 m) + (3.5 m) + (4.65 m)
(b) (47 g) − (12.27 g) − (8.384 g)
(c) (15.3 cm) × (0.2265 cm)
(d) (12.34 km) / (0.50 h)
(e) (12 ml) × (3.56 ml) / (4.060 ml)

Answers to Units 1 and 2 Practice Problems

Unit 1

Chapter 1, Page 13

1. The region with an average annual precipitation of 200 cm and an average annual temperature of 14°C is in the boreal forest biome.
2. The region that ranges in temperature between 0°C and 20°C and receives about 100 cm of rain is in the temperate deciduous forest biome.
3. The region with a low average annual precipitation and an average annual temperature that ranges between –18°C and –8°C is in the tundra biome.
4. The region with a high average annual precipitation and an average annual temperature of 15°C is in the temperate rainforest biome.

Unit 2

Chapter 4, Page 176

1. (a) 4
   (b) 4
   (c) 3
   (d) 5
2. (a) 7
   (b) 2
   (c) 2
   (d) 7

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1. (a) lithium nitride
   (b) magnesium bromide
   (c) silver oxide
   (d) rubidium fluoride
   (e) silver iodide
   (f) aluminum bromide
   (g) calcium iodide
   (h) gallium iodide
   (i) silver nitride
   (j) magnesium selenide
   (k) calcium phosphide
   (l) sodium oxide
   (m) cadmium sulfide
   (n) strontium phosphide
   (o) cesium fluoride

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1. (a) $NaBr$
   (b) ZnI_2
   (c) K_2S
   (d) Al_2S_3
   (e) CaO
   (f) AlP
2. (a) Sr_3N_2
   (b) Li_2O
   (c) Ag_2S
   (d) Ba_3P_2
   (e) Na_3N
   (f) K_2Se
   (g) Cs_2S
   (h) AlN
   (i) ZnO
   (j) AlI_3
   (k) LiF
   (l) Na_2S
   (m) Zn_3P_2
   (n) $MgCl_2$
   (o) $RbBr_2$

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1. (a) Cu_3N
   (b) Fe_3P_2
   (c) MnO
   (d) MnO_2
   (e) $CrBr_2$
   (f) $CrBr_3$
   (g) $PbCl_4$
   (h) FeP
   (i) SnS
   (j) Sn_3N_2
   (k) Sn_3N_4
   (l) HgF_2
   (m) CuI
   (n) CuI_2
   (o) $CuSe$

Page 191

1. (a) iron(III) oxide
   (b) lead(IV) fluoride
   (c) iron(II) iodide
   (d) mercury(II) iodide
   (e) mercury(II) nitride
   (f) tin(IV) phosphide
   (g) manganese(II) sulfide
   (h) manganese(IV) sulfide
   (i) vanadium(V) chloride
   (j) nickel(III) sulfide
   (k) nickel(II) sulfide
   (l) molybdenum(III) oxide
   (m) uranium(VI) chloride
   (n) rhenium(VII) fluoride
   (o) titanium(I) sulfide

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1. (a) potassium acetate
   (b) calcium acetate
   (c) ammonium phosphide
   (d) ammonium phosphate
   (e) aluminum hydroxide
   (f) iron(III) hydroxide
   (g) potassium chromate
   (h) potassium dichromate
   (i) calcium hydrogen carbonate
   (j) magnesium phosphate
2. (a) $KMnO_4$
   (b) Na_2CrO_4
   (c) NH_4NO_3
   (d) $LiOH$
   (e) $Al(OH)_3$
   (f) $Pb(ClO_4)_2$
   (g) $Fe(HS)_3$
   (h) $V(NO_3)_5$
   (i) $Mg(CH_3COO)_2$
   (j) $Sn(CN)_2$

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1. (a) dinitrogen monoxide
   (b) carbon dioxide
   (c) phosphorus triiodide
   (d) phosphorus pentachloride
   (e) sulfur dioxide
   (f) dinitrogen tetraoxide
   (g) tetraphosphorus decasulfide
   (h) disulfur decafluoride
   (i) nitrogen triiodide
   (j) nitrogen monoxide
2. (a) NBr_3
   (b) SF_6
   (c) N_2S_4
   (d) OF_2
   (e) CI_4
   (f) SO_3
   (g) PBr_5
   (h) I_2Cl_6
   (i) Cl_2O
   (j) XeF_6

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1. (a) ionic
   (b) covalent
   (c) ionic
   (d) ionic
   (e) covalent
   (f) covalent
   (g) covalent
   (h) ionic
2. (a) vanadium(IV) oxide (ionic); nitrogen dioxide (covalent)
   (b) chromium(II) bromide (ionic); cadmium bromide (ionic); sulfur dibromide (covalent)
   (c) sodium dichromate (ionic); sodium chromate (ionic); chromium(III) oxide (ionic); dinitrogen trioxide (covalent)
   (d) sulfur trioxide (covalent); lithium sulfite (ionic); lithium sulfate (covalent); sulfur dioxide (covalent)
   (e) oxygen dichloride (covalent); beryllium fluoride (ionic); iron(II) fluoride (ionic)
   (f) carbon dioxide (covalent); sodium hydrogen carbonate (ionic); lead(II) carbonate (ionic)

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1. 4 hydrogen, 2 oxygen, 2 sodium, 2 fluorine
2. 6 bromine, 2 iron, 6 iodine
3. 2 lead, 2 nitrogen, 6 oxygen, 2 sodium, 2 iodine
4. 6 potassium, 2 phosphorus, 20 oxygen, 6 nitrogen, 24 hydrogen, 1 sulfur

Page 211

1. (a) $3NaI + AlCl_3 \rightarrow 3NaCl + AlI_3$
   (b) $2Li + Br_2 \rightarrow 2LiBr$
   (c) $CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O$
   (d) $2PbO \rightarrow 2Pb + O_2$
   (e) $Na_4C + 2Ca \rightarrow 4Na + Ca_2C$
   (f) $C_3H_8 + 5O_2 \rightarrow 3CO_2 + 4H_2O$
   (g) $Ca(NO_3)_2 + Cu_2SO_4 \rightarrow CaSO_4 + 2CuNO_3$
   (h) $2NaN_3 \rightarrow 2Na + 3N_2$
   (i) $Mg(ClO_4)_2 + 2Na \rightarrow 2NaClO_4 + Mg$
   (j) $2AlCl_3 \rightarrow 2Al + 3Cl_2$
2. Skeleton equation; balanced equation
   (a) $NO + O_2 \rightarrow NO_2$; $2NO + O_2 \rightarrow 2NO_2$
   (b) $FeBr_3 + NaOH \rightarrow NaBr + Fe(OH)_3$; $2FeBr_3 + 6NaOH \rightarrow 6NaBr + 2Fe(OH)_3$
   (c) $CH_4 + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$; $CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O$

(d) $Ca(NO_3)_2 + K_2CO_3 \rightarrow KNO_3 + CaCO_3$; $Ca(NO_3)_2 + K_2CO_3 \rightarrow 2KNO_3 + CaCO_3$
(e) $PCl_3 + Cl_2 \rightarrow PCl_5$; $PCl_3 + Cl_2 \rightarrow PCl_5$
(f) $KMnO_4 + Ni(NO_3)_2 \rightarrow KNO_3 + Ni(MnO_4)_2$; $2KMnO_4 + Ni(NO_3)_2 \rightarrow 2KNO_3 + Ni(MnO_4)_2$
(g) $Fe + CuCl_2 \rightarrow FeCl_2 + Cu$; $Fe + CuCl_2 \rightarrow FeCl_2 + Cu$
(h) $Na_3PO_4 + Ba(OH)_2 \rightarrow NaOH + Ba_3(PO_4)_2$; $2Na_3PO_4 + 3Ba(OH)_2 \rightarrow 6NaOH + Ba_3(PO_4)_2$

Chapter 5, Page 236

1. $HCl + KOH \rightarrow KCl + H_2O$
Reactants: hydrochloric acid, potassium hydroxide
Products: potassium chloride, water
2. $H_2CO_3 + Mg(OH)_2 \rightarrow MgCO_3 + 2H_2O$
Reactants: carbonic acid, magnesium hydroxide
Products: magnesium carbonate, water
3. $CH_3COOH + CsOH \rightarrow CsCH_3COO + H_2O$
Reactants: acetic acid, cesium hydroxide
Products: cesium acetate, water
4. $H_3PO_4 + 3NaOH \rightarrow Na_3PO_4 + 3H_2O$
Reactants: phosphoric acid, sodium hydroxide
Products: sodium phosphate, water
5. $2HNO_3 + Ca(OH)_2 \rightarrow Ca(NO_3)_2 + 2H_2O$
Reactants: nitric acid, calcium hydroxide
Products: calcium nitrate, water

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1. $2HCl + Zn \rightarrow ZnCl_2 + H_2$
2. $H_2SO_4 + Mg \rightarrow MgSO_4 + H_2$
3. $6HBr + 2Al \rightarrow 2AlBr_3 + 3H_2$
4. $2HCl + Ca \rightarrow CaCl_2 + H_2$
5. $3H_2SO_3 + 2Al \rightarrow Al_2(SO_3)_3 + 3H_2$

Chapter 6, Page 259

1. (a) $3Mg + N_2 \rightarrow Mg_3N_2$
(b) $2Al + 3F_2 \rightarrow 2AlF_3$
(c) $4K + O_2 \rightarrow 2K_2O$
(d) $Cd + I_2 \rightarrow CdI_2$
(e) $12Cs + P_4 \rightarrow 4Cs_3P$
2. (a) synthesis
(b) not synthesis
(c) not synthesis
(d) synthesis
(e) synthesis

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1. (a) $2AuCl_3 \rightarrow 2Au + 3Cl_2$
(b) $2K2O \rightarrow 4K + O_2$
(c) $MgF_2 \rightarrow Mg + F_2$
(d) $Ca_3N_2 \rightarrow 3Ca + N_2$
(e) $2CsI \rightarrow 2Cs + I_2$
2. (a) decomposition
(b) neither
(c) synthes
(d) neither
(e) decomposition

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1. (a) $3PbCl_4 + 4Al \rightarrow 4AlCl_3 + 3Pb$
(b) $2Na + Cu_2O \rightarrow Na2O + Cu$
(c) $CuF_2 + Mg \rightarrow MgF_2 + Cu$
(d) $Cl2 + 2CsBr \rightarrow 2CsCl + Br_2$
(e) $Be + Fe(NO_3)_2 \rightarrow Be(NO_3)_2 + Fe$
(f) $3O_2 + 2Mg_3N_2 \rightarrow 6MgO + 2N_2$
2. (a) decomposition
(b) single replacement
(c) decomposition
(d) single replacement
(e) synthesis

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1. (a) $CaS + 2NaOH \rightarrow Ca(OH)_2 + Na_2S$
(b) $2K_3PO_4 + 3MgI_2 \rightarrow 6KI + Mg_3(PO_4)_2$
(c) $SrCl_2 + Pb(NO3)_2 \rightarrow Sr(NO_3)_2 + PbCl_2$
(d) $AlCl_3 + 3CuNO_3 \rightarrow Al(NO_3)_3 + 3CuCl$
(e) $2AgNO_3 + Na_2CrO_4 \rightarrow Ag_2CrO_4 + 2NaNO_3$
2. (a) single replacement
(b) double replacement
(c) single replacement
(d) synthesis
(e) decomposition

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1. (a) $HBr + NaOH \rightarrow NaBr + H_2O$
(b) $2H_3PO_4 + 3Mg(OH)_2 \rightarrow Mg_3(PO_4)_2 + 6H_2O$
(c) $2HCl + Pb(OH)_2 \rightarrow PbCl_2 + 2H_2O$
(d) $Al(OH)_3 + 3HClO_4 \rightarrow Al(ClO_4)_3 + 3H_2O$
2. (a) single replacement
(b) decomposition
(c) neutralization
(d) double replacement

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1. (a) $C_3H_8 + 5O_2 \rightarrow 3CO_2 + 4H_2O$
(b) $2C_4H_{10} + 13O_2 \rightarrow 8CO_2 + 10H_2O$
(c) $C_2H_4 + 3O_2 \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 2H_2O$
(d) $C_6H_{12}O_6 + 6O_2 \rightarrow 6CO_2 + 6H_2O$
(e) $C_{12}H_{22}O_{11} + 12O_2 \rightarrow 12CO_2 + 11H_2O$
2. (a) double replacement
(b) neutralization
(c) combustion
(d) synthesis
(e) combustion

Chapter 7, Page 291

1.

Isotope	Atomic Number (number of protons)	Number of Neutrons	Mass Number
neon-21	**10**	**11**	21
silicon-30	**14**	**16**	**30**
lithium-7	**3**	**4**	7
aluminum-27	13	14	**27**
lithium-6	3	3	**6**
carbon-14	6	8	**14**
magnesium-25	**12**	13	25
fluorine-19	**9**	10	19

2. (a) 35
(b) 46
(c) bromine-81
(d) $^{81}_{35}Br$
3. (a) 17
(b) chlorine-37
(c) $^{37}_{17}Cl$
4. (a) 16
(b) 33
(c) sulfur-33
(d) $^{33}_{16}$sulfur

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1. (a) $^{204}_{82}Pb$
(b) $^{227}_{89}Ac$
(c) $^{225}_{89}Ac$
(d) $^{196}_{79}Au$
(e) $^{211}_{87}Fr$

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1. (a) $^{14}_{7}N$
(b) $^{6}_{3}Li$
(c) $^{24}_{12}Mg$
(d) $^{201}_{79}Au$
(e) $^{52}_{26}Fe$
(f) $^{42}_{19}K$

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1. 5730 y
2. 2 half-lives
3. (a) about 55 percent
(b) about 30 percent
(c) about 8 percent
4. (a) about 3200 y
(b) about 7500 y
(c) about 24 000 y

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1. 3:1 (from 750:250)
2. 7:1 (from 875:125)
3. (a) The sample is less than one half-life old.
(b) less than 1.3 billion years

Page 317

1. (a) $^{90}_{37}Se$
(b) $^{139}_{50}Sn$
(c) $^{93}_{32}Ge$