

Chemistry A Conceptual Approach

Fourth Edition

Mortimer



CHEMISTRY

A Conceptual Approach

FOURTH EDITION

Charles E. Mortimer

MUHLENBERG COLLEGE



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To
J. S. M. and C. E. M.⁽¹¹⁾

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Preface

The philosophy underlying **CHEMISTRY: A CONCEPTUAL APPROACH** has stood the test of twelve years of classroom use. Beginning college students can attain a true understanding of chemical principles with the help of a text whose approach is to explain chemistry, not just to present chemical facts. With each successive edition, I have renewed and strengthened my commitment to provide students with just such a text. Thus, the special character that distinguishes this **FOURTH EDITION** from previous ones is really an expression of my original goal to explain each concept as fully as necessary for understanding, simplifying where needed, but never distorting.

The special character to which I refer reflects a development of my thinking regarding the needs of today's students. My own experience in teaching freshman chemistry, as well as the teaching experience of many users of my book who have kindly sent me their suggestions, convinced me that this revision should have as its primary goal to make this book more than ever a source of help as well as of information. In past editions, I have concentrated on improving the text's clarity and precision. This time, I have, in addition, concentrated on improving another aspect: helpfulness. I have reexamined every statement in the text and constantly asked myself, "Can I give the student more help in understanding this point?" The result of this long and painstaking process is the most student-oriented edition of **CHEMISTRY: A CONCEPTUAL APPROACH**.

Preface

This effort to help the student more than ever has resulted in some important changes. The treatment of Chemical Kinetics is entirely new. The new chapter starts by defining rate in terms of change in concentration with respect to time and develops the relationship between concentration and reaction rates. Thus the student is introduced to kinetics by way of easily visualized, experimentally based concepts before the more abstract topics of molecular collisions and temperature effects are taken up.

Many changes have made the book more helpful. The Stoichiometry chapter now takes into account the need that many students have for help in problem solving. The new chapter explains the mole concept much more carefully. More detailed directions for working out problems are given throughout.

In the Chemical Bonding chapter, students will benefit from a new section giving step-by-step directions for drawing Lewis dot structures. I have reorganized the chapter on Molecular Geometry by treating VSEPR theory before taking up hybrid orbitals. This arrangement makes it much easier for the student to understand the need for hybridization. In certain places, I have deleted unnecessary rigor. For example, by simplifying the treatment of Bohr's atomic theory, I have removed what for some students was an early stumbling block. The new, expanded introductory chapter prepares the student better for the quantitative study of chemistry by explaining the basics of chemical calculations and reinforcing the explanation with a set of problems. The changes that have been made in these early chapters are of particular importance. For many students, the introductory college chemistry course is the first rigorous exposure to a quantitative science, and they need help in adjusting early in the course. This edition gives much more of this kind of help, without in any way "watering down" the content.

The problem sets have been revised. Over 1100 problems are now included. For the first time, problems are grouped into sections and are labeled according to the chapter sections to which they correspond. Problems that are particularly challenging are marked with an asterisk.

The basic organization of the book has proved workable and has been retained. To be useful to a large number of instructors, a textbook must be readily adaptable to many different course syllabi. This edition continues to have this flexibility. Many users of this book prefer to start the course with stoichiometry (Chapter 5), and some incorporate topics from nuclear chemistry (Chapter 21) into the treatment of atomic structure (Chapter 2).

The growing acceptance of the International System of Units (SI) makes it important that the scientists, engineers, and technicians of the future use this official metric system in their scientific education. For the most part, the units used in this edition conform to the standards formulated by the International Bureau of Weights and Measures and adopted by the National Bureau of Standards. In some cases, units that are not SI units have

been retained. For example, the standard atmosphere is used as the unit of pressure instead of the SI unit, the pascal; the liter is used rather than the SI designation for the same volume, the cubic decimeter. Both of these usages are currently acceptable to the International Bureau of Weights and Measures.

Supplementary study aids have become increasingly popular in introductory chemistry courses. I am delighted that in this edition I have once more the collaboration of Donald and Louise Shive as authors of the new *Student Self-Study Guide*. The earlier edition of this Guide proved extremely successful and helped many thousands of students to improve their study habits and develop their problem-solving skills. A *Solutions Manual* provides worked-out solutions for mathematical problems in the text. An *Answer Booklet* gives the answers to all mathematical problems (the text itself gives answers to selected problems in Appendix G).

I sincerely thank the following persons for their suggestions and comments: Robert C. Brasted, University of Minnesota; S. A. Carrano, Fairfield University; Maxwell L. Eidinoff, Queens College; David W. Herlocker, Western Maryland College; Frank A. Kanda, Syracuse University; Robert Kren, University of Michigan–Flint; Betty Leventhal, University of Toronto; George Moriber, Brooklyn College; W. D. Perry, Auburn University; J. W. Viers, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

I will welcome suggestions for improvements of this edition.

Charles E. Mortimer

Contents

Chapter 1	Introduction	1
1.1	Matter	2
1.2	The Metric System	5
1.3	Energy	7
1.4	Significant Figures	10
1.5	Chemical Calculations	13
	Problems	16
Chapter 2	Atomic Structure	18
2.1	The Atom	18
2.2	The Electron	19
2.3	The Proton	22
2.4	The Neutron	23
2.5	The Nuclear Atom	23
2.6	Atomic Symbols	25
2.7	Isotopes	26
2.8	Atomic Weights	28
2.9	Electromagnetic Radiation	30
2.10	Atomic Spectra	32
2.11	Atomic Number and the Periodic Law	35
2.12	Wave Mechanics	40
2.13	Quantum Numbers	42
2.14	Orbital Filling and Hund's Rule	47

Contents

2.15	Electronic Structures of the Elements	51
2.16	Half-filled and Filled Subshells	55
2.17	Types of Elements	58
	Problems	59
Chapter 3	Chemical Bonding	64
3.1	Atomic Sizes	64
3.2	Ionization Energies	67
3.3	Electron Affinities	70
3.4	The Ionic Bond	72
3.5	Types of Ions	74
3.6	Ionic Radius	78
3.7	The Covalent Bond	81
3.8	Formal Charge	83
3.9	Lewis Structures	86
3.10	Transition Between Ionic and Covalent Bonding	90
3.11	Electronegativity	92
3.12	Oxidation Numbers	95
3.13	Nomenclature of Inorganic Compounds	99
	Problems	103
Chapter 4	Molecular Geometry	107
4.1	Resonance	107
4.2	Exceptions to the Octet Rule	109
4.3	Electron-Pair Repulsions and Molecular Geometry	110
4.4	Hybrid Orbitals	119
4.5	Molecular Orbitals	122
4.6	Molecular Orbitals in Polyatomic Species	131
4.7	Intermolecular Forces of Attraction	134
4.8	The Metallic Bond	137
4.9	Properties and Structure	141
	Problems	145
Chapter 5	Chemical Equations and Quantitative Relations	149
5.1	The Mole	149
5.2	Derivation of Formulas	153
5.3	Percentage Composition of Compounds	156
5.4	Chemical Equations	159
5.5	Problems Based on Chemical Equations	161
5.6	Heat Measurements	165
5.7	Thermochemical Equations	168
5.8	Law of Hess	171

5.9	Enthalpies of Formation	173
5.10	Born–Haber Cycle	177
	Problems	179
Chapter 6	Gases	186
6.1	Pressure	186
6.2	Boyle’s Law	188
6.3	Charles’ Law	192
6.4	Amontons’ Law	194
6.5	Ideal Gas Law	195
6.6	Kinetic Theory of Gases	199
6.7	Gay-Lussac’s Law of Combining Volumes and Avogadro’s Principle	202
6.8	Avogadro’s Principle as a Basis for Atomic and Molecular Weights	205
6.9	Stoichiometry and Gas Volumes	206
6.10	Dalton’s Law of Partial Pressures	208
6.11	Molecular Speeds	211
6.12	Graham’s Law of Effusion	213
6.13	Real Gases	216
6.14	Liquefaction of Gases	217
	Problems	220
Chapter 7	Liquids and Solids	226
7.1	The Liquid State	226
7.2	Evaporation	228
7.3	Vapor Pressure	229
7.4	Boiling Point	231
7.5	Heat of Vaporization	232
7.6	The Freezing Point	236
7.7	The Vapor Pressure of a Solid	237
7.8	Phase Diagrams	238
7.9	Crystals	241
7.10	X-Ray Diffraction of Crystals	245
7.11	Crystal Structure of Metals	247
7.12	Ionic Crystals	249
7.13	Lattice Energy	251
7.14	Defect Structures	255
	Problems	257
Chapter 8	Oxygen and Hydrogen	263
8.1	Occurrence and Preparation of Oxygen	263
8.2	Properties of Oxygen	265
8.3	Acidic and Basic Oxides	269
8.4	Ozone	270

Contents

8.5	Oxidation-Reduction Reactions	271
8.6	Occurrence and Preparation of Hydrogen	278
8.7	Properties of Hydrogen	281
8.8	The Hydrogen Bond	284
	Problems	288
Chapter 9	Solutions	291
9.1	Nature of Solutions	291
9.2	The Solution Process	293
9.3	Hydrated Ions	294
9.4	Heat of Solution	296
9.5	Effect of Temperature and Pressure on Solubility	299
9.6	Concentration of Solutions	300
9.7	Equivalent Weights and Normal Solutions	305
9.8	Vapor Pressure of Solutions	309
9.9	Boiling Point and Freezing Point of Solutions	315
9.10	Osmosis	318
9.11	Distillation	320
9.12	Solutions of Electrolytes	322
9.13	Interionic Attractions in Solution	323
9.14	Metathesis Reactions	326
	Problems	330
Chapter 10	Electrochemistry	337
10.1	Metallic Condition	337
10.2	Electrolytic Conduction	339
10.3	Electrolysis	341
10.4	Faraday's Laws	344
10.5	Voltaic Cells	348
10.6	Electromotive Force	349
10.7	Electrode Potentials	352
10.8	Effect of Concentration on Cell Potentials	359
10.9	Concentration Cells	362
10.10	Electrode Potentials and Electrolysis	363
10.11	Some Commercial Voltaic Cells	365
10.12	Fuel Cells	367
	Problems	368
Chapter 11	The Nonmetals, Part I	373
■	The Noble Gases	374
11.1	Properties of the Noble Gases	374
■	The Halogens	376
11.2	Group Properties	377

11.3	Preparation of the Halogens	379
11.4	The Interhalogen Compounds	381
11.5	The Hydrogen Halides	382
11.6	The Metal Halides	384
11.7	Oxyacids of the Halogens	386
■	Sulfur, Selenium, and Tellurium	393
11.8	Group Properties	393
11.9	The Elements	395
11.10	Hydrogen Compounds and Derivatives	398
11.11	The 4+ Oxidation State	401
11.12	The 6+ Oxidation State	404
11.13	Sulfur Electrode Potential Diagrams	409
	Problems	410
Chapter 12	The Nonmetals, Part II	413
■	The Group V A Elements	413
12.1	Group Properties	414
12.2	The Elements	416
12.3	Nitrides and Phosphides	419
12.4	Hydrogen Compounds	420
12.5	Halogen Compounds	423
12.6	Sulfides	426
12.7	Oxides and Oxyacids of Nitrogen	426
12.8	Oxides and Oxyacids of Phosphorus, Arsenic, Antimony, and Bismuth	432
■	Carbon and Silicon	438
12.9	Group Properties	438
12.10	The Elements	441
12.11	Carbides and Silicides	444
12.12	Oxides and Oxyacids	446
12.13	Sulfur Compounds and Halogen Compounds	451
12.14	Carbon-Nitrogen Compounds	452
■	Boron	452
12.15	Group Properties	452
12.16	The Element	454
12.17	Compounds of Boron	455
	Problems	459
Chapter 13	Chemical Kinetics and Chemical Equilibrium	462
13.1	Reaction Rates	463
13.2	Concentrations and Reaction Rates	466
13.3	Single-step Reactions	469
13.4	Rate Equations for Single-step Reactions	475
13.5	Reaction Mechanisms	477

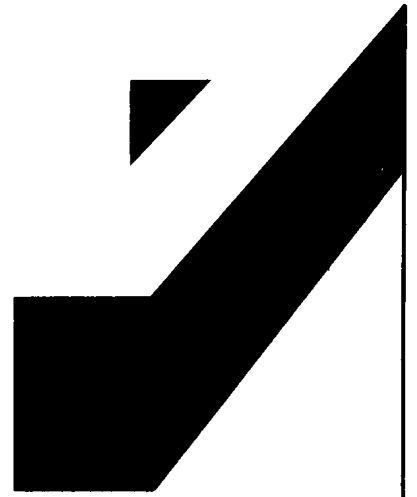
Contents

13.6	Rate Equations and Temperature	483
13.7	Catalysts	488
13.8	Reversible Reactions and Chemical Equilibrium	494
13.9	Equilibrium Constants	497
13.10	Equilibrium Constants Expressed in Pressures	502
13.11	LeChatelier's Principle Problems	506 509
Chapter 14	Elements of Chemical Thermodynamics	516
14.1	First Law of Thermodynamics	517
14.2	Enthalpy	518
14.3	Bond Energies	522
14.4	Second Law of Thermodynamics	525
14.5	Gibbs Free Energy	527
14.6	Measurement of ΔG and ΔS	531
14.7	Standard Free Energies	534
14.8	Absolute Entropies	536
14.9	Free Energy and Equilibrium Problems	537 541
Chapter 15	Acids and Bases	547
15.1	The Arrhenius Concept	547
15.2	Solvent Systems	549
15.3	The Brønsted-Lowry Concept	550
15.4	Strengths of Brønsted Acids and Bases	552
15.5	Hydrolysis	555
15.6	Acid Strength and Molecular Structure	558
15.7	The Lewis Concept Problems	563 567
Chapter 16	Ionic Equilibria, Part I	570
16.1	Weak Electrolytes	570
16.2	The Ionization of Water	576
16.3	pH	578
16.4	Measurement of pH	582
16.5	Indicators	585
16.6	The Common-Ion Effect	587
16.7	Buffers	588
16.8	Polyprotic Acids Problems	593 598

Chapter 17	Ionic Equilibria, Part II	602
17.1	The Solubility Product	602
17.2	Precipitation and the Solubility Product	606
17.3	Precipitation of Sulfides	610
17.4	Equilibria Involving Complex Ions	612
17.5	Amphoterism	616
17.6	Hydrolysis	618
17.7	Acid-Base Titrations	623
	Problems	630
Chapter 18	Metals	633
18.1	Physical Properties of Metals	633
18.2	Natural Occurrence of Metals	637
18.3	Metallurgy: Preliminary Treatment of Ores	638
18.4	Metallurgy: Reduction	640
18.5	Metallurgy: Refining	646
18.6	The Group I A Metals	649
18.7	The Group II A Metals	652
18.8	The Transition Metals	656
18.9	The Lanthanides	662
18.10	The Metals of Group III A	665
18.11	The Metals of Group IV A	666
	Problems	670
Chapter 19	Complex Compounds	673
19.1	Structure	673
19.2	Labile and Inert Complexes	679
19.3	Nomenclature	681
19.4	Isomerism	682
19.5	The Bonding in Complexes	686
	Problems	696
Chapter 20	Organic Chemistry	699
20.1	The Alkanes	700
20.2	The Alkenes	706
20.3	The Alkynes	708
20.4	Aromatic Hydrocarbons	709
20.5	Reactions of the Hydrocarbons	712
20.6	Alcohols and Ethers	718
20.7	Carbonyl Compounds	724
20.8	Carboxylic Acids and Esters	728
20.9	Amines and Amides	733
20.10	Amino Acids and Proteins	736

Contents

20.11	Carbohydrates	738
20.12	Polymers	741
	Problems	744
Chapter 21	Nuclear Chemistry	748
21.1	The Nucleus	748
21.2	Radioactivity	752
21.3	Rate of Radioactive Decay	757
21.4	Radioactive Disintegration Series	762
21.5	Nuclear Reactions	764
21.6	Nuclear Fission and Fusion	768
21.7	Uses of Isotopes	772
	Problems	775
Appendix A	International System of Units	778
Appendix B	Values of Some Constants and Conversion Factors	780
Appendix C	Notes on Mathematical Operations	782
Appendix D	Logarithms	789
Appendix E	Standard Electrode Potentials at 25°C	792
Appendix F	Equilibrium Constants at 25°C	795
Appendix G	Answers to Selected Numerical Problems	799
Index		803



Introduction

Chemistry may be defined as the science that is concerned with the characterization, composition, and transformations of matter. This definition, however, is far from adequate. The interplay between the branches of modern science has caused the boundaries between them to become so vague that it is almost impossible to stake out a field and say "this is chemistry." Not only do the interests of scientific fields overlap, but concepts and methods find universal application. Moreover, this definition fails to convey the spirit of chemistry, for it, like all science, is a vital, growing enterprise, not an accumulation of knowledge. It is self-generating; the very nature of each new chemical concept stimulates fresh observation and experimentation that lead to progressive refinement as well as to the development of other concepts. In the light of scientific growth, it is not surprising that a given scientific pursuit frequently crosses artificial, human-imposed boundaries.

Nevertheless, there is a common, if somewhat vague, understanding of the province of chemistry, and we must return to our preliminary definition; a fuller understanding should emerge as this book unfolds. Chemistry is concerned with the composition and the structure of substances and with the forces that hold the structures together. The physical properties of substances are studied since they provide clues for structural determinations, serve as a basis for identification and classification, and indicate possible uses for specific materials. The focus of chemistry, however, is probably the chemical reaction. The interest of chemistry extends

Chapter 1 Introduction

to every conceivable aspect of these transformations and includes such considerations as: detailed descriptions of how and at what rates reactions proceed, the conditions required to bring about desired changes and to prevent undesired changes, the energy effects that accompany chemical changes, the syntheses of substances that occur in nature and those that have no natural counterparts, and the quantitative mass relations between the materials involved in chemical changes.

1.1 Matter Science interprets nature in terms of energy (discussed in Section 1.3) and matter. **Matter**, the material of which the universe is composed, may be defined as anything that occupies space and has mass. **Mass** is a measure of quantity of matter. A body that is not being acted upon by some external force has a tendency to remain at rest or, when it is in motion, to continue in uniform motion in the same direction. This property is known as **inertia**. The mass of a body is proportional to the inertia of the body.

The mass of a body is invariable; the weight of a body is not. **Weight** is the gravitational force of attraction exerted by the earth on a body; the weight of a given body varies with the distance of that body from the center of the earth. The weight of a body is directly proportional to its mass as well as to the earth's gravitational attraction. At any given place, therefore, two objects of equal mass have equal weights.

The ancient Greeks originated the concept that all matter is composed of a limited number of simple substances called **elements**. The Greeks assumed that all terrestrial matter is derived from four elements: *earth*, *air*, *fire*, and *water*. Since heavenly bodies were thought to be perfect and unchangeable, celestial matter was assumed to be composed of a different element, which later came to be known as *quintessence* (from Latin, meaning *fifth element*). This Greek theory dominated scientific thought for centuries.

In 1661, Robert Boyle proposed an essentially modern definition of an element in his book *The Sceptical Chymist*:

I now mean by Elements . . . certain Primitive and Simple, or perfectly unmingled bodies; which not being made of any other bodies, or of one another, are the Ingredients of which all those call'd perfectly mixt Bodies are immediately compounded, and into which they are ultimately resolved.

Boyle made no attempt to identify specific substances as elements. He did, however, emphasize, that the proof of the existence of elements, as well as the identification of them, rested on chemical experimentation.

Boyle's concept of a chemical element was firmly established by Antoine Lavoisier in the following century. Lavoisier accepted a substance as an element if it could not be decomposed into simpler substances. Furthermore, he showed that a compound is produced by the union of elements. Lavoisier correctly identified 23 elements (although he incorrectly included light, heat, and several simple compounds in his list).

At the present time, 106 elements are known. Of these, 85 have been isolated from natural sources; the remainder have been prepared by nuclear reactions (Section 21.5).

The 15 most abundant elements in the earth's crust, bodies of water, and atmosphere are listed in Table 1.1. This classification includes those parts of the universe from which we can obtain the elements. The earth consists of a core (which is probably composed of iron and nickel) surrounded successively by a mantle and a thin crust. The crust is about 20 to 40 miles thick and constitutes only about 1% of the earth's mass.

If the entire earth were considered, a list different from that of Table 1.1 would result, and the most abundant element would be iron. On the other hand, the most abundant element in the universe as a whole is hydrogen, which is thought to constitute about 75% of the total mass of the universe.

Whether an element finds wide commercial use depends not only upon its abundance but also upon its accessibility. Some familiar elements (such as copper, tin, and lead) are not particularly abundant but are found in nature in deposits of ores from which they can be obtained readily. Other elements that are more abundant (such as titanium, rubidium, and zirconium) are not widely used because either their ores are widespread in nature or the extraction of the elements from their ores is difficult or expensive.

Compounds are substances that are composed of two or more elements in fixed proportions. The **law of definite proportions** (first proposed by Joseph Proust in 1799) states that a pure compound always consists of

TABLE 1.1 Abundance of the elements (earth's crust, bodies of water, and atmosphere)

RANK	ELEMENT	SYMBOL	PERCENT BY MASS
1	oxygen	O	49.2
2	silicon	Si	25.7
3	aluminum	Al	7.5
4	iron	Fe	4.7
5	calcium	Ca	3.4
6	sodium	Na	2.6
7	potassium	K	2.4
8	magnesium	Mg	1.9
9	hydrogen	H	0.9
10	titanium	Ti	0.6
11	chlorine	Cl	0.2
12	phosphorus	P	0.1
13	manganese	Mn	0.1
14	carbon	C	0.09
15	sulfur	S	0.05
	all others		0.56