

## Chapter 1: Chemistry: Measurements and Methods

- 1.1 The Discovery Process
  - **Chemistry** - The study of matter...
  - **Matter** - Anything that has mass and occupies space, the stuff that things are made of.
    - This desk
    - A piece of Aluminum foil
    - What about air?
    - Yes it is matter.
      - All matter consists of chemicals. Chemicals can be used wisely or unwisely, but are not “good” or “bad” in themselves.
    - **Chemistry** - The study of matter and the changes it undergoes.
  - Chemical and physical changes
    - Energy changes
    - **Energy** - The capacity to do work to accomplish some change.
      - (We will discuss energy in chapter 8)
  - Major Areas of Chemistry
    - Biochemistry - the study of life at the molecular level
    - Organic Chemistry - the study of matter containing carbon and hydrogen.
    - Inorganic Chemistry - the study of matter containing all other elements.
    - Analytic Chemistry - analyze matter to determine identity and composition.
    - Physical Chemistry - attempts to explain the way matter behaves.
  - **THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD**
    - **The scientific method** - a systematic approach to the discovery of new information, a logical approach to the solution of scientific problems.
  - **Characteristics of the scientific process**
    - 1. Observation.
    - 2. Formulation of a question
    - 3. Pattern recognition (often looking for cause-and-effect relationships)
    - 4. Developing theories. This begins with a **hypothesis** - an attempt to explain an observation in a common sense way. If the hypothesis is supported by many experiments it then becomes a **theory**.
    - 5. Experimentation. Used to demonstrate the correctness of hypotheses and theories.
    - 6. Summarizing information. A scientific **law** - the summary of a large quantity of information.
  - This cycle is typical of the Scientific Method. The hypothesis may be revised and tested many times.
  - A Theory: a hypothesis or set of hypotheses that are supported by the results of many experiments.
  - A Law: expresses a principle that is true for every experimental observation so far, but does not attempt to explain the principle.
  - Theories are useful because:

- A well-developed theory allows scientists to predict the results of experiments.
    - The total of scientific theories gives the scientists' best explanation for how the physical universe functions.
- 1.2 Matter and Properties
  - Properties - characteristics of matter
    - chemical vs. physical
  - Three physical states of matter
    - 1. Gas - particles widely separated, no definite shape or volume solid (vapor)
    - 2. Liquid - particles closer together, definite volume but no definite shape
    - 3. Solid - particles are very close together, define shape and definite volume
  - Physical change - produces a difference in the appearance of a substance without causing any change in its composition or identity.
    - conversion from one state to another.
    - melting an ice cube
  - Physical property - a property or quality that is observed without changing the composition or identity of a substance.
  - Chemical property - result in a change in composition and can be observed only through a chemical reaction.
  - Chemical reaction (chemical change) a process of rearranging, replacing, or adding atoms to produce new substances.
  - Intensive properties - a property of matter that is independent of the quantity of the substance
    - Density, conductivity, malleability, melting point, boiling point, odor are examples
  - Extensive properties - depends on the quantity
    - Mass, volume, solubility are examples
  - **Pure substance** - a substance that has only one component
  - **Element** - a pure substance that cannot be changed into a simpler form of matter by any chemical reaction.
  - **Compound** – combination of 2 or more elements in a definite, reproducible way.
  - **Mixture** - a combination of two or more pure substances in which each substance retains its own identity
    - **Homogeneous mixture** - uniform composition
    - **Heterogeneous mixture** - non-uniform composition.
- 1.3 Measurement in Chemistry
  - **Data, Results and Units**
    - **Data** - individual result of a single measurement or observation.
      - obtain the mass of a sample
      - record the temperature of
    - **Results** - the outcome of the experiment
    - **Units** - the basic quantity of mass, volume or whatever being measured.
    - **A measurement is useless without its units.**
  - May Be of Two Kinds

- **Qualitative** - are evaluations (subjective) that describe or compare without values.
- **Quantitative** - evaluations that give results as numbers or values.
  - Also Depend on Accuracy and Precision
- **Accuracy** - how close a measurement is to the true value.
- **Precision** - refers to the reproducibility of the measurement, how often the same value is reached.
- **ENGLISH AND METRIC UNITS**
- **English system** - a collection of measures accumulated throughout English history.
  - no systematic correlation between measurements.
  - 1 gal = 4 quarts = 8 pints
- **Metric (SI) System** - composed of a set of units that are related to each other decimally.
  - That is, by powers of tens
- **UNIT CONVERSION**
  - You need to be able to convert between units within the metric system and between the English and metric system
  - The method used for conversion is called the Factor-Label Method or Dimensional Analysis
  - Let your units do the work for you by simply memorizing connections between units.
    - For example: How many donuts are in one dozen?
    - We say: "Twelve donuts are in a dozen."
    - Or: 12 donuts = 1 dozen donuts
    - What does any number divided by itself equal? ONE!
  - This fraction is called a **unit factor** or a **conversion factor**
    - What does any number times one equal? That number.
  - We use these two mathematical facts to do the factor label method
    - a number divided by itself = 1
    - any number times one gives that number back
  - **Example:** How many donuts are in 3.5 dozen?
  - You can probably do this in your head but let's see how to do it using the Factor-Label Method.
- 1.4 Significant Figures and Scientific Notation
  - The measuring device determines the number of significant figures a measurement has.
  - In this section you will learn
    - to determine the correct number of significant figures (sig figs) to record in a measurement
    - to count the number of sig figs in a recorded value
    - to determine the number of sig figs that should be retained in a calculation.
  - **Significant figures** - all digits in a number representing data or results that are known with certainty plus one uncertain digit.
  - **RECOGNITION OF SIGNIFICANT FIGURES**
    - All nonzero digits are significant.

- The number of significant digits is independent of the position of the decimal point
- Zeros located between nonzero digits are significant
  - 4055 has 4 sig figs
- Zeros at the end of a number (trailing zeros) are significant if the number contains a decimal point.
  - 5.700
- Trailing zeros are insignificant if the number does not contain a decimal point
  - 2000. versus 2000
- Zeros to the left of the first nonzero integer are not significant.
  - 0.00045
- **SCIENTIFIC NOTATION**
  - Represents a number as a power of ten.
  - Often used to represent very large or very small numbers or to clarify the number of significant figures in a number.
    - Example:  $4,300 = 4.3 \times 1,000 = 4.3 \times 10^3$
  - RULE: To convert a number greater than 1 to scientific notation, the original decimal point is moved  $x$  places to the left, and the resulting number is multiplied by  $10^x$ .
    - Example:  $53,000,000 = 5.3 \times 10^7$
  - What if you want to show the above number has four sig figs?
    - $= 5.300 \times 10^7$
  - RULE: To convert a number less than 1 to scientific notation, the original decimal point is moved  $x$  places to the right, and the resulting number is multiplied by  $10^{-x}$ .
    - Example:  $0.000430 = 4.30 \times 10^{-4}$
- **SIGNIFICANT FIGURES IN CALCULATION OF RESULTS**
  - I. Rules for Addition and Subtraction
    - The answer in a calculation cannot have greater significance than any of the quantities that produced the answer.
    - example:  $54.4 \text{ cm} + 2.02 \text{ cm}$
  - $54.4 \text{ cm}$
  - $\underline{2.02 \text{ cm}}$
  - $56.42 \text{ cm}$
  - correct answer  $56.4 \text{ cm}$
  - II. Rules for Multiplication and Division
    - The answer can be no more precise than the least precise number from which the answer is derived.
    - The least precise number is the one with the fewest sig figs.
- **Rules for Rounding Off Numbers**
  - When the number to be dropped is less than 5 the preceding number is not changed.
  - When the number to be dropped is 5 or larger, the preceding number is increased by one unit.
  - Round the following number to 3 sig figs:  $3.34966 \times 10^4 = 3.35 \times 10^4$

- 1.5 Experimental Quantities
  - **Mass** - the quantity of matter in an object
    - Not synonymous with weight.
  - **Weight** = mass x acceleration due to the force of gravity
    - Mass must be measured on a balance (not a scale.)
    - Use the appropriate mass scale for the size object.
      - A dump truck is measured in tons
      - A person is measured in kg or pounds
      - A paperclip is measured in g or ounces
      - An atom?
    - For atoms, we use the atomic mass unit (amu)
      - $1 \text{ amu} = 1.661 \times 10^{-24} \text{ g}$
  - **Length** - the distance between two points
    - long distances are measured in km
    - distances between atoms are measured in nm.  $1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$
  - **Volume** - the space occupied by an object.
    - the liter is the volume occupied by 1000 grams of water at 4 degrees Celsius ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )
    - $1 \text{ mL} = 1/1000 \text{ L} = 1 \text{ cm}^3$
    - The milliliter and the cubic centimeter are equivalent
  - **Time**
    - Metric unit is the second
  - **Temperature** - the degree of “hotness” of an object
  - **Conversions between Fahrenheit and Celsius**
    - The Kelvin scale is another temperature scale. Absolute zero!
    - It is of particular importance because it is directly related to molecular motion.
    - As molecular speed increases, the Kelvin temperature proportionately increases.
      - $^{\circ}\text{C} = (^{\circ}\text{F} - 32) / 1.8$
      - $^{\circ}\text{F} = (1.8 \times ^{\circ}\text{C}) + 32$
      - $\text{K} = ^{\circ}\text{C} + 273, ^{\circ}\text{C} = \text{K} - 273$
  - **Energy** - the ability to do work
    - **kinetic energy** - the energy of motion
    - **potential energy** - the energy of position (stored energy)
    - Energy can also be categorized by form:
      - light
      - heat
      - electrical
      - mechanical
      - chemical
    - Characteristics of Energy
      - Energy may be converted from one form to another.
      - Energy cannot be created or destroyed.
      - All chemical reactions involve either a “gain” or “loss” of energy.

- Energy conversion always occurs with less than 100% efficiency.
- Units of Energy:
  - calorie or joule
  - 1 calorie (cal) = 4.184 joules (J)
- A kilocalorie (kcal) also known as the large Calorie. This is the same Calorie as Food Calories.
  - 1 kcal = 1 Calorie = 1000 calories
- 1 calorie = the amount of heat energy required to increase the temperature of 1 gram of water 1°C.
- **Concentration** - the number of particles of a substance, or the mass of those particles, that are contained in a specified volume.
  - We will look at this in more detail in sections 7.6 and 9.2
- **Density** - the ratio of mass to volume.
  - $d = \text{mass/volume or } m/V$
- **Specific gravity** - the ratio of the density of the object in question to the density of pure water at 4°C.
  - Specific gravity is a unitless term.
  - $\text{Specific Gravity} = \text{density of object (g/mL)}/\text{density of water (g/mL)}$
  - Often the health industry uses specific gravity to test urine and blood samples