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Chemistry

for the IB Diploma

SECOND EDITION

Steve Owen

with additional
online material



Chemistry

for the IB Diploma

Second edition

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with

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Options

Option A Materials

Option B Biochemistry

Option C Energy

Option D Medicinal chemistry

Self-test questions

Assessment guidance

Model exam papers

Nature of Science

Answers to exam-style questions

Answers to Options questions

Introduction

This second edition of *Chemistry for the IB Diploma* is fully updated to cover the content of the IB Chemistry Diploma syllabus that will be examined in the years 2016–2022.

Chemistry may be studied at Standard Level (SL) or Higher Level (HL). Both share a common core, and at HL the core is extended with additional HL material. In addition, at both levels, students then choose one Option to complete their studies. Each Option consists of common core and additional HL material. All common core and additional HL material is covered in this print book. The Options are included in the free online material that is accessible with the code available in this book.

The content is arranged in topics that match the syllabus topics, with core and additional HL material on each topic combined in the book topics. The HL content is identified by 'HL' included in relevant section titles, and by a yellow page border.

Each section in the book begins with learning objectives as starting and reference points. Test yourself questions appear throughout the text so students can check their progress and become familiar with the style and command terms used, and exam-style questions appear at the end of each topic. Many worked examples appear throughout the text to help students understand how to tackle different types of questions.

Theory of Knowledge (TOK) provides a cross-curricular link between different subjects. It stimulates thought about critical thinking and how we can say we know what we claim to know. Throughout this book, TOK features highlight concepts in Chemistry that can be considered from a TOK perspective. These are indicated by the 'TOK' logo, shown here.

Science is a truly international endeavour, being practised across all continents, frequently in international or even global partnerships. Many problems that science aims to solve are international, and will require globally implemented solutions. Throughout this book, International-Mindedness features highlight international concerns in Chemistry. These are indicated by the 'International-Mindedness' logo, shown here.

Nature of Science is an overarching theme of the Chemistry course. The theme examines the processes and concepts that are central to scientific endeavour, and how science serves and connects with the wider community. Throughout the book, there are 'Nature of Science' paragraphs that discuss particular concepts or discoveries from the point of view of one or more aspects of Nature of Science. A chapter giving a general introduction to the Nature of Science theme is available in the free online material.



Free online material

Additional material to support the IB Chemistry Diploma course is available online. Visit education.cambridge.org/ibsciences and register to access these resources.

Besides the Options and Nature of Science chapter, you will find a collection of resources to help with revision and exam preparation. This includes guidance on the assessments, interactive self-test questions and model exam papers. Additionally, answers to the exam-style questions in this book and to all the questions in the Options are available.

Stoichiometric relationships 1

1.1 Introduction to the particulate nature of matter and chemical change

1.1.1 The particulate nature of matter

The three states of **matter** are solid, liquid and gas and these differ in terms of the arrangement and movement of particles. The particles making up a substance may be individual atoms or molecules or ions. Simple diagrams of the three states of matter are shown in Figure 1.1 in which the individual particles are represented by spheres.

Sublimation is the change of state when a substance goes directly from the solid state to the gaseous state, without going through the liquid state. Both iodine and solid carbon dioxide (dry ice) sublime at atmospheric pressure. The reverse process (gas \rightarrow solid) is often called *deposition* (or sometimes *desublimation*, *reverse sublimation* or occasionally just sublimation).

The properties of the three states of matter are summarised in Table 1.1.

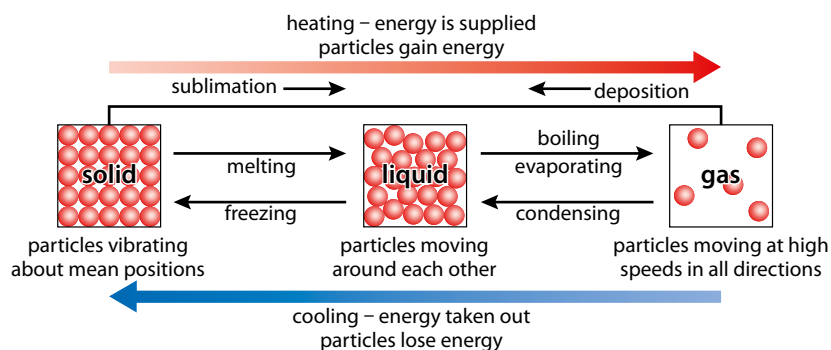


Figure 1.1 The arrangement of particles in solids, liquids and gases and the names of the changes of state. Note that evaporation can occur at any temperature – boiling occurs at a fixed temperature.

	Solids	Liquids	Gases
Distance between particles	close together	close but further apart than in solids	particles far apart
Arrangement	regular	random	random
Shape	fixed shape	no fixed shape – take up the shape of the container	no fixed shape – fill the container
Volume	fixed	fixed	not fixed
Movement	vibrate	move around each other	move around in all directions
Speed of movement	slowest	faster	fastest
Energy	lowest	higher	highest
Forces of attraction	strongest	weaker	weakest

Table 1.1 The properties of the three states of matter.

Learning objectives

- Describe the three states of matter
- Understand the changes involved when there is a change in state

If a pure substance is heated slowly, from below its melting point to above its **boiling point**, a graph of temperature against time can be obtained (Figure 1.2).

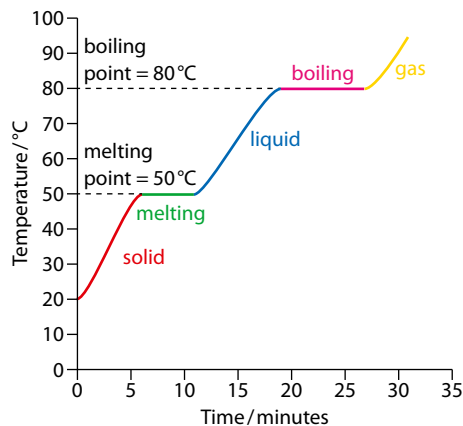


Figure 1.2 A heating curve showing changes of state.

As a solid is heated, its particles vibrate more violently – they gain **kinetic energy** and the temperature of the solid rises. At 50°C, the solid in Figure 1.2 begins to melt – at this stage there is solid and liquid present together and the temperature remains constant until all the solid has melted. All the **heat energy** being supplied is used to partially overcome the forces of attraction between particles so that they can move around each other. When all the solid has melted, the continued supply of heat energy causes the kinetic energy of the particles to increase so that the particles in the liquid move around each other more quickly. The kinetic energy of the particles increases until the boiling point of the liquid is reached. At this point (80°C) the continued supply of heat energy is used to overcome the forces of attraction between the particles completely and the temperature of the substance remains constant until all the liquid has been converted to gas. The continued supply of heat energy increases the kinetic energy of the particles of the gas so they move around faster and faster as the temperature of the gas increases.



Both refrigeration and air-conditioning involve changes of state of liquids and gases. In a refrigerator, heat energy is absorbed from the inside of the refrigerator and is used to convert a liquid coolant to a gas – the heat energy is given out to the surrounding as the gas is compressed back to a liquid. Refrigeration is essential in warm countries to preserve food and without it the food would go ‘off’ much more quickly and be wasted – but how essential is air-conditioning? CFCs (which cause destruction of the ozone layer) have been used as a refrigerant and in making the insulation for refrigerators. In many countries the disposal of old refrigerators is controlled carefully. More environmentally friendly refrigerators are being manufactured using alternatives to CFCs – they also use less electricity.



1.1.2 Chemical change

Elements and compounds

Chemistry is partly a study of how chemical elements combine to make the world and the Universe around us.

Gold is an **element** and all samples of pure gold contain only gold atoms.

An element is a pure substance that contains only one type of atom (but see *isotopes* in Topic 2).

An atom is the smallest part of an element that can still be recognised as that element.

The physical and chemical properties of a compound are very different to those of the elements from which it is formed.

Sodium and chlorine are elements – when they are mixed and heated they combine chemically to form a compound called sodium chloride. Sodium is a grey, reactive metal with a low melting point and chlorine is a yellow-green poisonous gas – but sodium chloride (common salt) is a non-toxic, colourless compound with a high melting point.

Similarly, when iron (a magnetic metal) is heated with sulfur (a non-magnetic yellow solid) a grey, non-metallic solid called iron sulfide is formed (Figure 1.3).

Chemical properties dictate how something reacts in a chemical reaction.

Physical properties are basically all the other properties of a substance – such as melting point, density, hardness, electrical conductivity etc.

The meaning of chemical equations

When elements combine to form compounds, they always combine in **fixed ratios** depending on the numbers of atoms required. When sodium and chlorine combine, they do so in the mass ratio 22.99 : 35.45 so that 22.99 g of sodium reacts exactly with 35.45 g of chlorine. Similarly, when hydrogen (an explosive gas) combines with oxygen (a highly reactive gas) to form water (liquid at room temperature), 1 g of hydrogen combines with 8 g of oxygen, or 2 g of hydrogen reacts with 16 g of oxygen (using rounded relative atomic masses) – that is, they always combine in a mass ratio of 1 : 8.

Learning objectives

- Understand that compounds have different properties to the elements they are made from
- Understand how to balance chemical equations
- Understand how to use state symbols in chemical equations
- Describe the differences between elements, compounds and mixtures
- Understand the differences between homogeneous and heterogeneous mixtures

A compound is a pure substance formed when two or more elements combine chemically.



Figure 1.3 Iron (left) combines with sulfur (centre) to form iron sulfide (right).

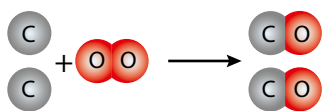


Figure 1.4 Two carbon atoms react with one oxygen molecule to form two molecules of carbon monoxide.

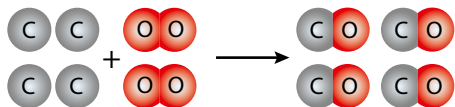


Figure 1.5 Four carbon atoms react with two oxygen molecules to form four molecules of carbon monoxide.

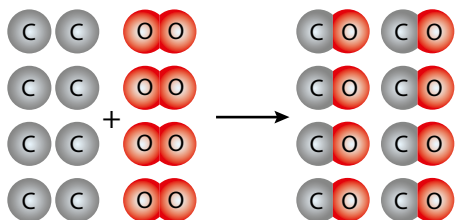


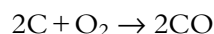
Figure 1.6 Eight carbon atoms react with four oxygen molecules to form eight molecules of carbon monoxide.

Mass is conserved in all chemical reactions.

Elements always combine in the same mass ratios because their atoms always combine in the same ratios, and each type of atom has a fixed mass.

Consider the reaction between carbon and oxygen to form carbon monoxide. This is shown diagrammatically in Figure 1.4. In this reaction, two carbon atoms combine with one oxygen molecule to form two molecules of carbon monoxide. Now look at Figure 1.5. If we started with four carbon atoms, they will react with two oxygen molecules to form four molecules of carbon monoxide.

The ratio in which the species combine is fixed in these equations. The number of molecules of oxygen is always half the number of carbon atoms, and the number of carbon monoxide molecules produced is the same as the number of carbon atoms (see Figures 1.4–1.6). So, we can construct the equation:



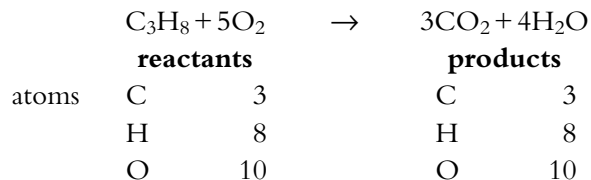
which tells us that two carbon atoms react with one oxygen molecule to form two carbon monoxide molecules, and that this ratio is constant however many carbon atoms react.

Balancing equations

If a reaction involves 5.00 g of one substance reacting with 10.00 g of another substance in a closed container (nothing can be added or can escape), then at the end of the reaction there will still be exactly 15.00 g of substance present. This 15.00 g may be made up of one or more products and some reactants that have not fully reacted, but the key point is that there will no more and no less than 15.00 g present.

A chemical reaction involves atoms joining together in different ways and electrons redistributing themselves between the atoms, but it is not possible for the reaction to involve atoms or electrons being created or destroyed.

When a chemical reaction is represented by a chemical equation, there must be exactly the same number and type of atoms on either side of the equation, representing the same number of atoms before and after this reaction:



So this equation is balanced. It is important to realise that only coefficients (large numbers in front of the substances) may be added to balance a chemical equation. The chemical formula for water is H_2O , and this cannot be changed in any way when balancing an equation. If, for instance, the formula is changed to H_2O_2 then it represents a completely different chemical substance – hydrogen peroxide.



State symbols are often used to indicate the physical state of substances involved in a reaction:

(s) = solid

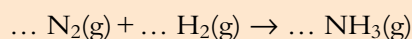
(l) = liquid

(g) = gas

(aq) = aqueous (dissolved in water)

Worked examples

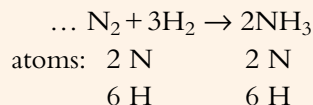
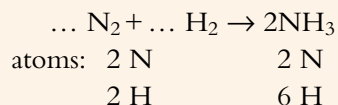
1.1 Balance the following equation



and work out the sum of the coefficients in the equation.

In the unbalanced equation, there are two N atoms and two H atoms on the left-hand side of the equation but one N atom and three H atoms on the right-hand side. It is not possible for two N atoms to react with two H atoms to produce one N atom and three H atoms; therefore, this equation is not balanced.

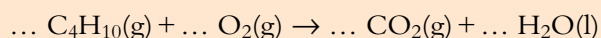
It can be balanced in two stages, as follows:



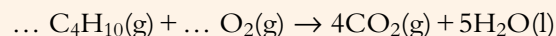
This equation is now balanced because there is the same number of each type of atom on both sides of the equation.

The sum of the coefficients in this equation is $1 + 3 + 2 = 6$. The coefficient of N_2 is 1, although we do not usually write this in an equation.

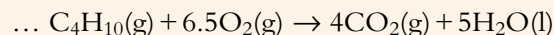
1.2 Balance the following equation:



Compounds are balanced first, then elements:



There are two oxygen atoms on the left-hand side of the equation, and O_2 needs to be multiplied by 6.5 to give 13 oxygen atoms, which is the number of oxygen atoms on the other side $[(4 \times 2) + (5 \times 1)]$:



The equation is balanced as shown, but it looks much neater when balanced with whole numbers. To achieve this, all the coefficients are multiplied by 2:

