

RRB

Junior Engineers (JE)

Railway Recruitment Board

Volume - 4

General Science



Index

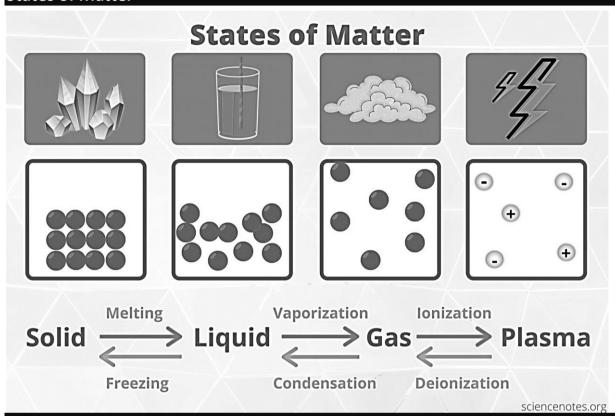
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] CHAPTER

Chemistry

States of Matter



Solids

- Matters which have fixed volume and shape.
- Eg stone, wood, brick, ice, sugar, salt, coal, etc.
- All metals are solid except mercury and gallium.

Properties of solids

- Fixed volume.
- Fixed shape.
- High density.
- Heavy.
- Do not flow.

Liquids

- Matters which have **fixed volume** but **indefinite shape**.
- Eg milk, water, petrol, kerosene, alcohol, oil, etc.
- Since **liquid** can **flow**, it is also called **fluid**.

Properties of liquids

- Definite volume.
- No definite shape.
- Get the shape of container in which they are kept.

- Cannot be compressed much.
- Have less density compare to solid.
- Lighter than solid.
- Liquids flow and hence are called fluids.

Gas

- Matters which have indefinite shape and volume
- Eg air, oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, carbondioxide, etc.

Properties of gases

- Indefinite shape
- No fixed volume.
- Get the shape and volume of container.
- Fill the container completely.
- Have very low density.
 - o So, gases are light.
- Can flow easily and hence are called fluids.

Cause of different physical states of matters

The physical states of matter depend upon three main factors:

- The force of attraction between particles.
- The **space** between the **particles**.
- The kinetic energy of particles.

Solids

- The force of attraction between the particles of solids is very strong.
- There are **minimum spaces** between the particles of solids.
- The particles of solids have minimum kinetic energy.
- Because of great force of attraction particles of solids are closely packed together.
 - o This makes the **space** between particles of solids **almost negligible**.
- The lowest kinetic energy of particles is not able to move the particles of solids.
- Hence, the great force of attraction and least space between particles of solids and lowest kinetic energy of particles keep the particles at fixed places.
- Because of the combination of these characters **matter** exists in **solid state**.

Liquids

- The force of attraction between particles is strong but less strong than solids.
- The space between particles is more than that of solids but not less than liquids.
- The kinetic energy of particles is greater than solid.
- Strong force of attraction keeps the particles of liquids packed together.
 - o But the **force** of attraction between particles of liquids is **less strong** than that of solid.
 - Because of this particles of liquids are loosely packed compared to solid.
- The kinetic energy of particles of liquids is greater than that of solids.
- Because of more space between particles and more kinetic energy than solids the particles of liquids slide over one
- These characters make a matter to exist in liquid state.
- Liquid can flow because its particles can slide over one another.

Properties	Solids	Liquids	Gases
Shape	Definite shape	Do not have a definite shape, will take the shape of the container	No definite shape
Volume	Definite volume. As intermolecular forces between the constituent particles are strong	Definite volume. As intermolecular forces between the constituent particles are strong	No definite volume As intermolecular forces between the constituent particles are weak
Compressibility	Negligible	Negligible	High
Diffusion	Can diffuse into liquids	Diffusion is higher than solids	Highly diffusible as particles move randomly at high speed
Fluidity or rigidity	Very rigid and cannot flow from one place to another		No rigidity and can flow most easily among the three states of matter. They usually flow from high pressure to low pressure areas

Gases

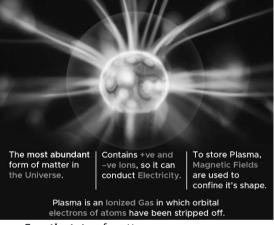
- The force of attraction between particles of gas is almost negligible.
- The space between particles of solid is greatest.
- The particles of gases have the greatest kinetic energy.
 - Because of negligible force of attraction the particles of gases are loosely packed consequently there are lots of spaces between their particles.
 - o Because of the greatest kinetic energy the particles of gas move with high speed.
- Because of negligible force of attraction between particles and greatest kinetic energy the particles of gas have a tendency to escape out.
 - o Because of these characteristics a matter exists in gaseous state.
 - A matter exists in solid state because of the greatest force of attraction between its particles which makes the particles closely packed.
 - A matter exists in **liquid** state because of **less force of attraction** between its particles than a solid, which makes the **particles** closely packed but allow them to **slide** over one another.
 - A matter exists in **gaseous** state because of an almost **negligible force of attraction** between its particles, which is unable to keep the particles bonded together.

Other states of matter

Plasma

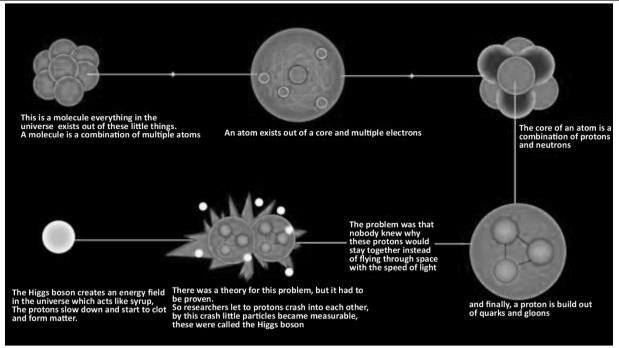
PLASMA

4TH STATE OF MATTER



- Fourth state of matter.
- Similar to gas.
- Particles of plasma are made of free electrons and ions.
- Do **not** have a **definite shape** or a **definite volume** unless enclosed in a container.
- Defined as electrically neutral medium of positive and negative particles.
- Plasma is one of the most commonly occurring states of matter in universe.
- Plasma occurs naturally in the stars.
- All stars are made of plasma.
 - Because of the presence of plasma stars glow.
- Plasma is formed because of nuclear fusion in stars.
 - Our **sun glows** because of presence of plasma.
 - Plasma TV got its name because of presence of plasma in it.
 - O Plasma is also found in **fluorescent light** or **neon sign**.
 - O Plasma is formed when **electricity** is **passed** in a **fluorescent** tube or **neon sign**, which makes them glow.

Bose-Einstein Condensate (BEC)



- Fifth state of matter.
- Satyendra Nath Bose and Albert Einstein were predicted about this state of matters, that's why it got its name as Bose-Einstein Condensate (BEC).
- Plasma and BEC are has opposite characters.
 - Plasma is a super hot and super excited atom
 - Condensate has super cool and super unexcited atoms.
- BEC was obtained by **cooling the vapour of rubidium-87** at super **low temperature** by Eric Cornell and Carl Wieman on June 5 1995.
- After sometimes Wolfgang Ketterle also obtained BEC from sodium-23 at MIT, USA.
- Cornell, Wieman and Ketterle got Nobel Prize in Physics for this achievement in 2001.

Atomic Structure

Fundamental Constituents of an Atom

- An atom contains three basic particles namely protons, neutrons and electrons.
- The nucleus of the atom contains protons and neutrons.
 - o Protons are positively charged.
 - O Neutrons are neutral.
- The electrons are located at the outermost regions called the electron shell.



Electron

- J. J. Thomson, in 1897, discovered negatively charged particles emitted by the cathode towards the anode in a cathode ray experiment.
- These **negatively** charged particles are **Electrons**.

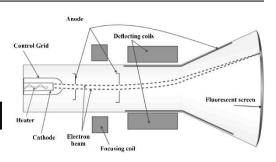
Cathode ray experiment

- J. J. Thomson discovered the existence of electrons.
- He did this using a cathode ray tube, which is a **vacuum-sealed tube** with a **cathode** and **anode** on one end that created a **beam** of electrons travelling towards the other end of the tube.
- The air inside the **chamber** is subjected to **high voltage** and **electricity** flows through the air from the **negative electrode** to the **positive electrode**.

- The characteristics of cathode rays (electrons) do not depend upon the material of electrodes and the nature of the gas present in the cathode ray tube.
- The experiment showed that the **atom** was **not** a **simple**, **indivisible** particle and contained **at least one subatomic particle** the electron.

Protons

• Ernest Goldstein, in 1886, discovered that with a different condition in the same chamber, anode emitted positively charged particles known as Canal rays or later named as Protons.



Neutrons

- J. Chadwick discovered a subatomic particle with no charge and a mass equivalent to protons in the nucleus of all atoms.
- These **neutrally charged** particles are Neutrons.

Properties of electrons, protons, and neutrons

Property	Electrons	Protons	Neutrons
Charge	Negatively Charged	Positively Charged	No Charge
Affinity	Attracts to positively charged	Attracts to negatively charged	Get attracted neither to positive nor negative
Weight	Mass is negligible	1 a.m.u	1 a.m.u
Location	Outside the nucleus	Within the nucleus	Inside the nucleus

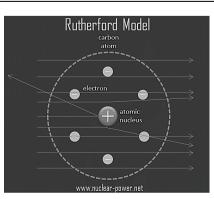
Different Models on Structure of an Atom

Thomson's Model of an Atom

- J. J. Thomson proposed that the structure of an atom is similar to that of a Christmas pudding where electrons are embedded like currants in the sphere.
- He proposed that:
 - The structure of an atom is a positively charged sphere that embeds electrons in it
 - An atom is electrically neutral as the protons and electrons are equal in magnitude
- **Drawbacks** of Thomson's Model:
 - O Thomson's structure of an atom failed to explain the arrangement of protons and electrons in its structure.

Rutherford's Model of an Atom

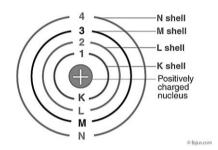
- Rutherford conducted an experiment bombarding the alpha (α)-particles on a gold foil.
- He observed the **trajectory** of the **alpha** (α)-particles after passing through an atom and **drafted** some **postulates** of the experiment, which are:
 - Most of the space in an atom is empty as the particles passed through the gold foil without any hindrance
 - The positively charged centre is called the Nucleus, and all the mass of an atom resides in the centre.
 - The particles deflected 180° after bombarding the nucleus
 - The **electrons orbit** the centre in a **defined path**
 - The **size** of the **nucleus** is **small** compared to the total size of the atom
- Drawbacks of the Model:
 - Although **Rutherford** presented an **entirely new model** regarding the structure of the atom, there were a lot of drawbacks which he failed to explain, are-
 - The electrons revolve in an unstable path, and they undergo acceleration radiating energy.



- When the **electrons revolve**, they **lose energy**.
- Soon electrons would collapse into the nucleus.
- This tendency would make an atom highly unstable while the atom is highly stable
- Rutherford's structure of an atom failed to explain the atomic number concept as it explained only the presence of protons in the nucleus

Bohr's Model of an Atom

- Bohr devised a model in order to overcome the objections that Rutherford's model raised.
- So, he stated the following postulates:
 - An atom permits only a discrete amount of orbitals for the electrons to orbit and make the outer structure of an atom
 - While revolving, the negatively charged particles do not lose energy in these orbitals or energy levels
 - When the electron jumps from one energy shell to another, a change in magnitude takes place
- Bohr's model gives an elaborative explanation on the structure of an atom and overcomes the objections faced by all the other models on the structure of an atom.



Distribution of Electrons in Distinct Shells

- Bohr-Bury Scheme suggested the arrangement of particles in different orbits.
- The following are the rules to write the number of particles in different orbitals:
 - The formula **2n^2** gives the accommodation of the **maximum number of electrons** in each shell, n=1, 2, 3, 4 for K=2, L=8, M=18, N=32.
 - The **outermost orbit** can hold a **maximum** of **8 electrons**.
 - o The electrons fill the inner levels first as they follow the stepwise filling of orbitals
- Number of electrons in K-shell: n = 1
 - o $2n^2 = 2 \times 1^2 = 2$
 - Maximum number of electrons in K-shell, first shell = 2
- Number of electrons in L-shell, n = 2,
 - o $2n^2 = 2 \times 2^2 = 8$
 - Maximum number of electrons in L-shell, Second shell = 8
- Using the formula 2n^2 number of electrons in any shell can be calculated.

Valency

- Valence Electrons The negatively charged particles present in the outermost shell.
 - These valence electrons are **responsible** for the **valency** of an atom.
- Valency tendency of an atom to react with the other atoms of the same or various elements.
 - o The atoms that fill the **outermost paths** show **chemical activity** towards other valence electrons.
 - O This reactivity is **responsible** for the **formation** of **molecules** between two or more atoms.
- The valency becomes zero for an atom when the outer bounds have eight electrons or no electrons to lose.
- The particle with eight electrons in the outermost shell is an octet, and these molecules are mostly inert in nature.
- Eg:
 - Magnesium (Mg) has a configuration (2, 8, and 2), so the valency is two.
 - Oxygen (O) (2, 8, and 6) has the valency two as the number electrons it can gain is two to achieve a packed outer energy level.
 - Helium (He) has 2 electrons in its outer shell, Neon (Ne) (2, 8, and 8) has eight electrons in its outer shell.
 - Hence, they do not show any chemical activity.

Atomic Number (Z)

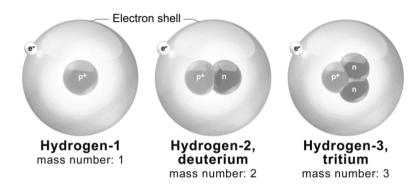
- Atomic number = **number of protons** present in one atom of an element.
- As the atom is electrically neutral, the number of protons and electrons are the same.
- The notation Z denotes an Atomic number.
- The atomic number of Hydrogen is one as it has **only one proton.**
 - Number of Protons present in an atom = Atomic number (Z)
 - Number of Electrons present in an atom= Atomic number (Z)
 - O Number of Neutrons = Mass number (A)- Atomic number (Z)

Mass Number (A)

- Measure of the **total** number of **protons** and **neutrons** in the nucleus of an atom.
- The notation A indicates the Mass number.
- N = total number of **neutrons**.
- Mass Number = Atomic Number + Number of Neutrons in the Nucleus
 - O A = Z + n°
- aka Nucleon number.

Isotopes

- The atoms of the same elements with the same atomic number and different mass numbers.
- Hydrogen has three isotopes: Protium, Deuterium, Tritium.



Isobars

- The atoms of different molecules with the same mass number.
- Eg, in Calcium, atomic number 20, and argon, atomic number 18, the mass number of both these elements is 40.
 - O This shows that the total number of **nucleons** is the **same** in the atoms.

Metals, Non-metals and Metalloids

Metalloids

- Elements which have the properties of both metals and non-metals are known as metalloids.
 - For example, Boron, Arsenic, etc.

METALS

- Solid.
- Lustrous.
- Malleable and ductile.

Physical Properties

- Hard and have high density.
- Good conductors of heat and electricity.
- High melting and boiling points.

Chemical Properties

- React with dilute acids to liberate hydrogen gas
- React with oxygen to form basic oxides.
- Do not combine with hydrogen.
- React with water to form metal oxides or metal hydroxides.
- Electropositive i.e. form positive ions by losing electrons.
- Reducing agents.

Corrosion

The eating up of metals by the action of air and moisture or a chemical on their surface.

Alloys

It is a homogeneous mixture of two or more metals (or a metal and a non-metal). For e.g. Brass is an alloy of 2 metals-copper and zinc.

Ionic Compounds

- 1. Usually crystalline solids
- Have high melting point and boiling point.
- Conduct electricity when dissolved in water or melted.
- Usually soluble in water and insoluble in organic
 Soluble

NON-METALS

Physical Properties

- Solids, liquids and gases.
- Non-lustrous.
- Non-malleable and non-ductile.
 Varying hardness and have low density
- varying nardness and nave low density.
 Poor conductors of heat and electricity.
- Low melting and boiling points.

Chemical Properties

- Do not displace hydrogen on reaction with dilute acids.
- React with oxygen to form acidic or neutral oxides
- Combine with hydrogen to form stable hydrides.
- Do not react with water.
- Electronegative i.e. form negative ions by gaining electrons.
- Oxidising agents.

Rusting

METALS AND NON-METALS

The corrosion of iron is known as rusting. Rust is hydrated iron (III) oxide, Fe $_2O_3$. xH_2O .

Presence of air and water are the two conditions necessary for rust. It can be prevented by painting, applying grease, by galvanization and by alloying.

Covalent Compounds

- 1. Usually liquids / gases, few are solids.
- 2. Have low melting and boiling point.
- Do not conduct electricity.
- Usually insoluble in water and soluble in organic solvents.

Table 5.6 Modern Periodic Table

The zigzag line separates the

						Me	tals		Met	alloids		N	Ion-metals				als from metals.	the	
	G	ROUP	NUMBE	ER															
		1	1												GR	OUP NU	MBER	1	18
	1	H Hydrogen	2											13	14	15	16	17	2 He
	500	3	4											5	6	7	8	9	10
	2	Li Lithium 6.9	Be Beryllium 9.0				G	ROUP 1	NUMBE	R				B Boron 10.8	C Carbon 12.0	N Nitrogen 14.0	Oxygen 16.0	F Fluorine 19.0	Ne Neon 20.2
P	3	11	12 Ma	←	2000			2007						13	14	15 D	16	17 C1	18 Ar
E		Na Sodium 23.0	Mg Magnesium 24.3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Al Aluminium 27.0	Si Silicon 28.1	P Phosphorus 31.0	Sulphur 32.1	Cl Chlorine 35.5	Argon 39.9
R I	4	19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu		31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
O		Potassium 39.1	Calcium 40.1	Scandium 45.0	Titanium 47.8 40	Vanadium 50.9	Chromium 52.0 42	Manganese 54.9 43	Iron 55.9	Cobalt 58.9 45	58.7 46	63.5 47	65.4	Gallium 69.7	Germanium 72.6	Arsenic 74.9	Selenium 79.0	Bromine 79.9	Krypton 83.8 54
S	5	37 Rb	Sr	39 Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	44 Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	Xe
		Rubidium 85.5	Strontium 87.6	Yttrium 88.9	Zirconium 91.2 72	Niobium 92.9	Molybdenum 95.9 74	Technetium (99)	Ruthenium 101.1	Rhodium 102.3	Palladiu 106.4 78	m Silver 107.9	112.4	Indium 114.8	Tin 118.7	Antimony 121.8	Tellurium 127.6	Iodine 126.9 85	Xenon 131.3 86
	6	Cs Caesium	56 Ba	La*	Hf Hafnium	Ta Tantalum	W	Re Rhenium	Os Osmium	Ir Iridium	Pt Platinu	1000	10000	81 Ti	Pb Lead	83 Bi	84 Po	At Astatine	Rn Radon
		132.9 87	Barium 137.3	Lanthanum 138.9	178.5 104	181.0 105	Tungsten 183.9	186.2 107	190.2 108	192. 2 109	195.1 110	197.0	200.6	Thallium 204.4	207.2 114	Bismuth 209.0	Polonium (210)	Astatine (210)	(222)
	7	Fr	Ra Radium	Ac**	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt	Ds	Rg		-	Uuq	-	Uuh	-	-
		(223)	(226)	(227)															
				58	59	60	61	62	63	6	1	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	
	* I	Lanthano	oides	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu		d	Tb	Dy Dysprosium 162.5	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	
			-	Cerium 140.1	Praseodymium 140.9	Neodymium 144.2	Promethium (145) 93	Samariur 150.4 94	152.0 95		7.3 6	158.9 97	Dysprosium 162.5 98	Holmium 164.9	167.3 100	Thulium 168.9	Ytterbium 173.0	175.5	
	*	* Actino	oides	90 Th	91 Pa	U	Np	Pu	An		cm	Bk	Cf Cf	Es	Fm	101 Md	102 No	103 Lr	
				Thorium 232.0	Protactinium (231)	Uranium 238.1	Neptunium (237)	Plutoniur (242)	n America (243)	um Cu	rium 47)	Berkelium (245)	Californium (251)	Einstenium (254)	Femium (253)	Md Mendelevsum (256)	Nobelium (254)	Lawernciur (257)	a

Properties of Metalloids

- They have a metallic luster but behave like non-metals.
- They are brittle, shiny substances
- They are solid at ambient temperatures and have relatively high melting points.

Melting Temperatures of Metalloids

Element	Melting Temperature (°C)
Boron	2079
Silicon	1410
Germanium	938.3
Arsenic	817
Tellurium	449.5
Antimony	631

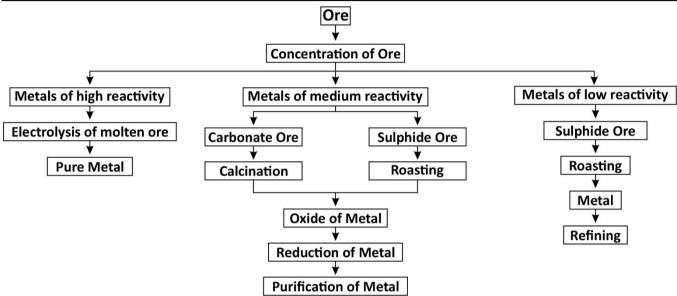
- They are good electric conductors but poorer than metals.
- They have intermediate energies of ionisation and values of electronegativity
- Like non-metals, they form anions, have multiple oxidation states, and form covalent bonds
- They form metallic alloys.

Metalloids and their applications

Element	Description	Application
Boron	An allotropic semimetal that is extremely hard and heat resistant. Has an atomic number of 5.	Used with silicon to make thermal shock-resistant glass.
Silicon	A grey and shiny semiconductive metal. It has high melting (1,410 °C) and boiling points (3,265 °C). Has an atomic number of 14.	Commonly used for semiconductors.
Germanium	Is hard and brittle in its elemental form. Has an atomic number of 32.	Less commonly used for semiconductors.

Element	Description	Application
Arsenic	A steel-grey semimetal known for being poisonous. It has an atomic number of 33.	Often used as an insecticide.
Tellurium	Brittle in its elemental form. It is a chalcogen, along with selenium and sulfur. It has an atomic number of 52.	Used as a steel additive to improve machinability.
Antimony	A hard and brittle semimetal with an atomic number of 51.	Used to colour paints; often alloyed with lead.

Metallurgical Principles and methods



- Metallurgy a process that is used for the extraction of metals in their pure form.
- Minerals The compounds of metals mixed with soil, limestone, sand, and rocks.
- Metals are commercially extracted from minerals at low cost and minimum effort.
 - o These minerals are known as **ores**.
- A substance which is added to the charge in the furnace to remove the gangue (impurities) is known as flux.
- Metallurgy deals with the process of purification of metals and the formation of alloys.

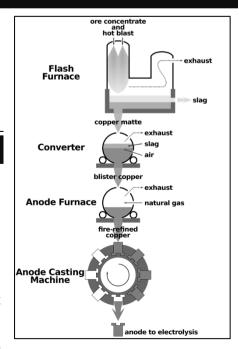
Steps in Metallurgical Process

- The following are the various **steps** in the metal extraction or metallurgical process:
 - Crushing and grinding the ore.
 - The **concentration of ore**, is also known as ore enrichment.
 - o Metal extraction from concentrated ore.
 - o Impure metals are **refined** or **purified**.

Fig. Copper Flash Smelting Process

Principles of Metallurgy

- The metallurgical process can be classified as the following:
 - Crushing and grinding
 - The first process in metallurgy.
 - Crushing of ores into a fine powder in a crusher or ball mill.
- This process is known as pulverization.
 - o Concentration of ores
 - aka ore dressing.
 - It is the process of **removing impurities** from ore.
 - In metallurgy, we concentrate the ores mainly by the following methods.
 - Hydrolytic method
 - The **ore** is **poured** over a sloping, **vibrating** corrugated **table** with grooves.



- A jet of water is allowed to flow over the surface.
- The denser ore particles settle in the grooves, and the impurities are washed away by water.
- Magnetic separation
 - The crushed ore is placed on a conveyor belt.
 - This belt **rotates** around **two wheels** in which one of the **wheels** is **magnetic**, and therefore the **magnetic particles** get **attracted** to the **magnetic wheel** and fall apart from the **non-magnetic particles**.
- Froth floatation
 - The crushed ore is taken in a large tank which contains oil and water.
 - A current of compressed air is passed through it.
 - The ore gets wet by oil and is separated from the impurities in the form of froth.
 - Ore is lighter, and so it comes on the surface and impurities are left behind.
- Roasting and calcination
 - Roasting The process of heating a concentrated ore in the presence of oxygen.
- This process is applied in the case of sulfide ores.
 - Calcination For ores containing carbonate or hydrated oxides, heating is done in the absence of air to melt the
 ores.

Important ores and alloys

Ores

- A mineral from which a metal can be extracted economically is called an ore.
- In it, a metal is present in appreciable quantities and from which the metal can be extracted economically.
- The main active substances present in nature, expecially in the atmosphere are oxygen and carbon dioxide.
- In the earth's crust, sulphur and silicon are found in large quantities.
- Sea-water contains large quantities of chloride ions (obtained from dissolved sodium chloride).
- Most active metals are highly electropositive and therefore exist as ions.
- It is for this reason that most of the important ores of these metals occur as
 - Oxides
 - o Sulphides
 - o carbonates
 - o halides
 - silicates
- Some sulphide ores undergo oxidation by air to form sulphates.
 - This explains the occurrence of sulphate ores.
- Ores are invariably found in nature in contact with rocky materials.
 - These rocky or earthy impurities accompanying the ores are termed as gangue or matrix.

Important metals and their ores

	Important metals	and their ores
Metal	Ores	Chemical Formula
Sodium (Na)	Chile saltpeter	NaNO ₃
	Trona	Na ₂ CO ₃ , 2NaHCO ₃ · 3H ₂ O
	Borax	Na ₂ B ₄ O ₇ ·10H ₂ O
	Common salt	NaCl
Aluminium (Al)	Bauxite	Al ₂ O ₃ ·2H ₂ O
	Corundum	Al ₂ O ₃
	Felspar	K Al Si ₃ O ₈
	Cryolite	Na ₃ AlF ₆
	Alunite	K2SO4·Al2(SO4)3·4 Al(OH)3
	Kaolin	3 Al ₂ O ₃ · 6 SiO ₂ · 2H ₂ O
Potassium (K)	Nitre (salt peter)	KNO ₃
	Carnalite	KCI · MgCl, ·6 H,O
Magnesium (Mg)	Magnesite	MgCO ₃
	Dolomite	MgCO ₃ ·CaCO ₃
	Epsom salt	MgSO ₄ ·7 H,O
	Kieserite	MgSO ₄ ·H,O
	Carnalite	KCI · MgCl ₂ ·6 H ₂ O

Calcium (Ca)	Dolomite	CaCO ₃ ·MgCO ₃
	Calcite	CaCO ₃
	Gypsum	CaSO 2 H,O
	Fluorspar	CaF,
	Asbestus	CaSiO ₃ ·MgSiO ₃
Strontium (Sr)	Strontianite	SrCO,
	Silestine	SrSO ₄
Copper (Cu)	Cuprite	Cu ₂ O
	Copper glance	Cu,S
	Copper pyrites	CuFeS ₂
Silver (Ag)	Ruby Silver	3 Ag ₂ S·Sb ₂ S ₃
	Horn Silver	AgCi
Gold (Au)	Calaverite	AuTe,
	Silvenites	[(Ag, Au) Te ₂]
Barium (Ba)	Barytes	BaSO,
Zinc (Zn)	Zinc blende	ZnS
	Zincite	ZnO
	Calamine	ZnCO ₃
Mercury (Hg)	Cinnabar	HgS
Tin (Sn)	Casseterite	SnO,
Lead (Pb)	Galena	.PbS
Antimony (Sb)	Stibenite	Sb ₂ S ₃
Cadmium (Cd)	Greenocite	CdS
Bismuth (Bi)	Bismuthite	Bi ₂ S ₃
Iron (Fe)	Haemetite	Fe ₂ O ₃
	Lemonite	2Fe ₂ O ₃ ·3H ₂ O
	Magnetite	Fe ₃ O ₄
	Siderite	FeCO,
	Iron Pyrite	FeS,
	Copper Pyrites	CuFeS,
Cobalt (Co)	Smelite	CoAsS,
Nickel (Ni)	Milarite	Nis ¹
Magnese (Mn)	Pyrolusite	MnO,
	Magnite	Mn ₂ O ₃ · 2H ₂ O
Uranium (U)	Carnetite	K(UO), VO, 3H2O
	Pitch blende	U308

Alloys

- Alloys are mixtures of two or more metals and are formed by mixing molten metals thoroughly.
 - o In a few cases, non-metals are mixed with metals to produce alloys.
- Alloying produces a metallic substance with more useful properties than the original pure metals from which it is made.
 - o For example, the alloy brass is made from copper and zinc.

Properties of alloys

Alloys are prepared to impart some desirable properties which the individual metals do not possess. These are,

- Change in the chemical reactivity: Sodium acts vigorously with water, but Na–Hg amalgam reacts slowly to suit the requirement of some chemical reactions.
- Hardness: Silver, gold, and soft metals become hard when alloyed with copper.
- **Melting Points:** Melting points of an alloy may be higher or lower than any of its components. Wood-metal, which is an alloy of *Bi, Pb, Sn* and Cd, fuses at 60°C, while none of these metals fuses at this low temperature.
- Change of colour: Aluminium bronze is an alloy of aluminium and copper. It is of golden, yellow colour and is used in making decoration articles, jewellery and coins while the colour of aluminium is white and that of copper is red.

- Corrosion resistance: Iron gets corroded soon, whereas stainless Steel, an alloy of iron and chromium, resists corrosion.
- Casting: An alloy of lead and antimony is known as type metal and is used for casting type required in printing works.

Advantages of alloys

- Alloys do not get corroded or get corroded to a very less extent.
- They are harder and stronger than pure metals (For example, gold is mixed with copper, and it is harder than pure gold)
- They have less conductance than pure metals (For example, copper is a good conductor of heat and electricity, whereas brass and bronze are not good conductors)
- Some alloys have lower melting points than pure metals (For example, solder is an alloy of lead and tin, which has a lower melting point than each of the metals)
- When metal is alloyed with mercury, it is called amalgam.

Important Alloys

Alloys of Silver

Alloy	Percentage composition	Uses
Coin silver	Ag = 90, Cu = 10	For making silver coins.
Silver solder	Ag = 63, Cu = 30, Zn = 7	For soldering and joining metals
Dental alloy	Ag = 33, Hg = 52, Sn = 12.5, Cu = 2.0, Zn = 0.5	For filling teeth
Silver palladium	Ag = 40, Pd = 60	Potentiometers, and winding of some special instruments.

Alloys of Iron

Name	Percentage	Uses
Stainless steel	Fe = 73%, Cr = 18%, Ni = 8% and carbon	For making utensils, cutlery and ornamental pieces.
Manganese steel	Fe = 86%, Mn = 13% and carbon	For Making rock drills, safes etc.
Tungsten steel	Fe = 94%, W = 5% and carbon	For making high speed cutting tools.
Invar	Fe = 64%, Ni = 36%	For making watches, meter scales, pendulum rods etc.
Nickel steel	Fe = 98?96%, Ni = 2?4%	For making wire cables, gears, drive shafts etc.
Permalloy	Fe = 21%, Ni = 78% and carbon	For making electromagnets, ocean cables etc.
Chrome steel	Fe = 98?96%, Cr = 2?4%	For making axles, ball bearings and cutting tools such as files.
Alnico	Fe = 60%, Al =12%, Ni = 20%, Co = 8%	For making permanent magnents.

Alloys of Copper

Alloy	Percentage Composition	Uses
Brass	Cu = 80, Zn = 20	For making utensils, condenser tubes, wires parts of machinery etc.
Bronze or Copper bronze	Cu = 80, Zn = 10, Sn = 10	For making cooking utensils, statues, coins etc.
Aluminium bronze	Al = 95, Cu = 5	Coins, picture frames, cheap jewellery
Gun metal	Cu = 90, Sn = 10	For making gun barrels.
Bell metal	Cu = 90, Sn = 20	For making bells, gongs etc.
Constantan	Cu = 60, Ni = 40	For electrical apparatus
German silver	Cu = 60, Zn = 20, Ni = 20	For making silver wire, resistance wires etc.
Monel metal	Cu = 30, Ni = 67, Fe and Mn = 3	For making acid pumps and acid containers.
Phosphor bronze	Cu = 95, Sn = 4.8, P = 0.2	For making springs, electrical equipment
Gold-copper alloy	Au = 90, Cu = 10	For making gold coins, jewellery, watch cases, spectacle rims etc.

Alloys of Lead and Tin

Alloy	Percentage Composition	Uses
Solder	Pb = 50, Sn = 50	For soldering.
Pewter	Pb = 20, Sn = 80	In making cups, mugs and other utensils.
Type metal	Pb = 70, Sb = 20 and Sn = 10	For making printing type.
Rose metal	Pb = 22, Sn = 28, Bi = 50	For making electric fuses.
Britannia metals	Sn = 90, Sb = 8, Cu = 2	For making table wares.

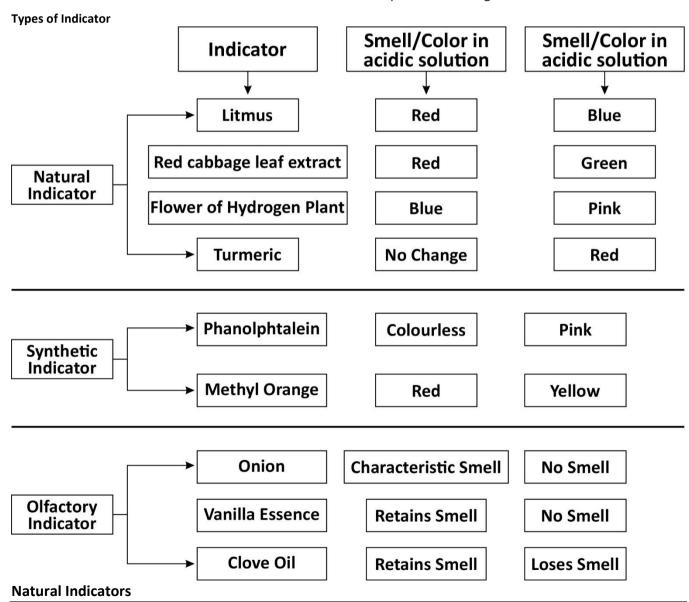
Alloys of Aluminium

Alloy	Percentage		Uses
Aluminium bronze	AI Cu	95% 5%	Coins, utensils, jewellery picture frames etc.
Magnalium	AI Mg	95% 5%	Light instruments, balance beam, pressure cookers etc.
Duralumin	Al Cu Mg Mn	95% 4% 0.5% 0.5%	Making aeroplanes, automobile parts pressure cookers etc.

Acids, Bases and Salts

Indicators

Substances which indicate the acidic or basic nature of the solution by the colour change.



- Indicators obtained from **natural sources**.
- Eg:
 - o Litmus