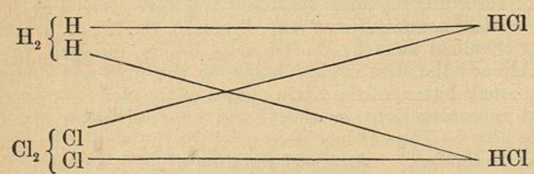
the two substances are *joined together by the chemical force.* If the two letters were placed one under the other, or at some distance apart, or were separated by a comma or a plus sign (+), they would be understood to mean a mere mixture of the elements; but placed as close as the printer's types will conveniently and consistently allow, they must be considered to stand for a compound of the elements, that is to say, hydrochloric acid gas (HCl). The collection of symbols representing a molecule is termed a *formula.* H_2, Cl_2, and HCl are the *formulæ* of hydrogen, chlorine, and hydrochloric acid gas.

$$H_2 + Cl_2 = 2HCl.$$

Such a set of letters, figures, and marks as that on the preceding line is collectively termed an *equation,* because it indicates the equality of the number and nature of the atoms before and after chemical action. On the left hand of the sign of equality are shown two molecules, and on the right hand two molecules; but, of the molecules on the left, one contains two atoms of hydrogen and the other two atoms of chlorine, while of the molecules on the right each contains one atom of hydrogen and one of chlorine. The equation forms a short and convenient plan of recording the facts of experiment.

Instead of an equation, a *diagram* may be employed to exhibit the same fact. Thus:—



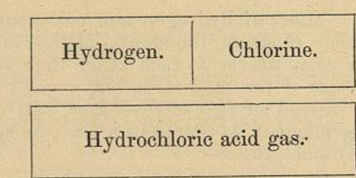
PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL CONSTITUTION OF MATTER.

Relations of Gases, Liquids, and Solids.

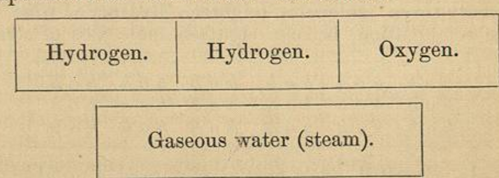
Molecules of gases are not in absolute contact, for a volume of gas may be compressed with very little force to half or one-fourth its bulk—in short, to such an extent that in many cases the molecules sufficiently approximate to form a liquid. In a liquid the molecules are still free to glide about with ease amongst each other; and though in solids they exhibit less mobility, still even solids may be compressed by powerful pressure, so that probably in *no* instance are molecules in absolute contact. (Moreover, from the researches of Caignard de la Tour and of Andrews there would seem to be no sharp lines of demarcation between the gaseous, liquid, and solid conditions of substances.) One's mental picture of the relative position of the molecules of gaseous, vaporous, liquid, or solid matter must be such a picture as that of the moving particles of dust in the air of a room, or such a relation to each other as that of the planets and stars suspended in space. There is abundant experimental evidence to warrant such a conception. A

clear transparent fluid appears perfectly homogeneous, but is not so. Its particles are not in contact. Every one who has mixed 5 pints of rectified spirit with 3 pints of water knows that the 100 fluidounces of spirit and 60 fluidounces of water do not when mixed give 160 ounces of "proof" spirit, but only 156 ounces; the molecules of the liquids have gone closer together, having probably a little attraction for each other. Why a gas under pressure should immediately return to its original bulk when the pressure is removed, while a liquefied or solidified gas only slowly resumes the gaseous or vaporous state, is a question which requires for discussion a knowledge of the nature of forces other than the chemical. For it must be remembered that the study of the chemical force is mainly the study of the internal constitution of molecules, the study of the properties of entire molecules forming the domain of *Physics* —sometimes termed *Natural Philosophy.* (Physics, from *φύσις*, *phusis,* nature, that is, visible and material nature; the study of actions and reactions which do not involve entire and permanent change in the properties of bodies—the study of the action of heat, light, electricity, magnetism, gravitation, etc., on matter.)

It is necessary, however, to state something more about the physical as well as the chemical conditions of the molecules of a *gas* in order that the learner may be prepared for the fact, that mixtures of certain gaseous elements, in combining to form gaseous compounds, diminish considerably in volume. Thus, while a pint of hydrogen and a pint of chlorine give a quart of hydrochloric acid gas,



two pints of hydrogen and one of oxygen are necessary to produce a quart of gaseous water (steam). It will be remembered that two volumes of hydrogen and one of oxygen were necessary in a previous experiment in which water was formed.



Now, that a pint of hydrogen gas and a pint of chlorine gas should, after chemical reaction or rearrangement of the atoms of the molecules has taken place, form two pints of hydrochloric acid gas, is quite what we should expect. For, first, the reader, by this time, is not astonished that the chemical combination is attended by entire change of properties: and, secondly, the experience of years has led him to expect that a pint of one thing added to a pint of another gives two pints of the mixture. But that two pints of hydrogen and one pint of oxygen should, after combination (and under like conditions of temperature and pressure), give, not three, but two pints of product (steam) is perhaps somewhat astonishing, and needs explanation. To this end let us picture a few of the molecules of hydrogen and as many molecules of chlorine. Draw with a pencil on paper several pairs of crosses (+ +) to represent hydrogen molecules, and circles (○ ○) for chlorine molecules, or, if colored ink is at hand, red pairs of dots for hydrogen and green for chlorine. Or, at once, for facility in printing, let the following pairs of letters *h h* represent a few (say, nine) molecules of hydrogen, and *c c* molecules (nine) of chlorine—before combination.

h h	*h h*	*h h*	*c c*	*c c*	*c c*
h h	*h h*	*h h*	*c c*	*c c*	*c c*
h h	*h h*	*h h*	*c c*	*c c*	*c c*

Then, after combination, we shall have eighteen molecules of hydrochloric acid gas:—

h c	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*
h c	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*
h c	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*	*h c*

But when two volumes of hydrogen and one of oxygen combine and give two volumes of steam, the mental picture must be not that of molecules somewhat nearer to each other than before, nor any difference in the size of the molecules, but a picture of molecules containing three instead of two atoms—thus, still using pairs of letters, just for the moment, to represent a few (the space will allow only twenty-seven) molecules:—

h h	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*o o*	*o o*	*o o*
h h	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*o o*	*o o*	*o o*
h h	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*h h*	*o o*	*o o*	*o o*

The twenty-seven molecules (eighteen hydrogen, nine oxygen) will, after combination, become eighteen molecules of steam:

h o h	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*
h o h	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*
h o h	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*	*h o h*

As already suggested, one's mental picture of a number of molecules may well give them such a relation to each other as that of a number of solar systems in the universe, equally distant from each other and each occupying a similar space, yet one system containing a sun and one planet, another a sun and two planets, and so on, or even one or more of the planets having one or more moons. Indeed

the atoms in some very complex molecules really appear to have very much the relation to each other of the sun, planets, and moons of a solar system. To indicate such molecules by letters as above would, of course, require more space than is there given to the assumed pictures of molecules.

Here occurs an opportunity that must not be lost of stating a mode of reasoning by which a molecule of oxygen (or of many other elements) is shown to be a double structure—shown to contain two atoms. Five equal-sized bottles are before us, two filled with hydrogen, one with oxygen, and two with steam. (The bottles are hot enough to prevent the steam condensing to water, and all five are at the same temperature.) Apply heat so that all shall be equally heated, *the three different substances expand equally*. Cool equally, *the contents contract equally*. Apply equal pressure to all five, *each is equally affected*. Diminish pressure equally, *each portion of the three substances equally expands*. Gases (practically steam is a gas, it is simply not a permanent gas) thus similarly affected must be, physically, similarly constructed or constituted (a law which will again be referred to, on page 54); each bottle must contain the same number of particles or molecules, and at any one temperature and pressure the molecules in each must be equally distant from each other. We do not know what actual number or distance, but whatever the number and distance it is the same for each bottle. Say that one million is the number, then we shall have a million of molecules in the first hydrogen bottle, a million in the second, a million in the oxygen bottle, and a million in each of the steam bottles. We will cause chemical combination between the two millions of hydrogen molecules and one million of oxygen molecules, producing (as we have seen) two millions of steam molecules, having the properties already stated. But a molecule of steam contains an atom of oxygen. Hence two millions of steam molecules contain two millions of oxygen atoms, which two millions of oxygen atoms have been obtained from one million of oxygen molecules. Therefore each molecule of oxygen was a double structure—each molecule of oxygen contained two atoms of oxygen. As Clifford says, "you cannot put 50 horses into 100 stables, so that there shall be exactly the same amount of horse in each stable; but you can divide 50 *pairs* of horses among 100 stables."

Thus much respecting the constitution of gaseous or vaporous matter. Our knowledge of the constitution of liquid and solid matter is still more limited.

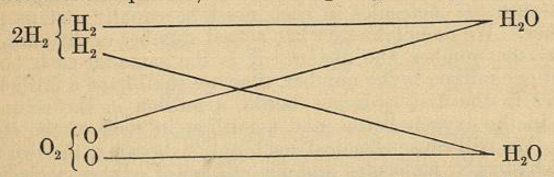
With regard to the notation of the subject, it will be sufficient to state here that while a *symbol* usefully represents one volume of any gas, *a formula of any gas or vapor represents two volumes*. By remembering this general rule we may, by looking at a formula, tell how many volumes of constituents were concerned in the formation of a compound, and therefore what amount of condensation, if any, occurred during the act of formation. By thus reading and interpreting the formula for water, H_2O, we see that two volumes of steam (at any temperature) may be obtained from two volumes of hydrogen and one volume of oxygen (at the same temperature), and thus that the extent of condensation when hydrogen and oxygen (at a stated temperature) unite to form gaseous water (at the same temperature) is from three to two. This subject will again be treated of in connection with those of Chemical Combination and the Specific Gravity of Gases.

Further Remarks on General Chemical Notation.

We may now take an experiment already made as an additional example of chemical action, and describe the simplest way of expressing the same by notation. When two volumes of hydrogen and one of oxygen were caused to combine, the production of flame and noise proved that chemical action of some kind had taken place; had the experiment been performed in dry vessels, evidence of the precise action would have been found in the bedewment or moisture produced by the condensation of the water on the sides of the tube. Similar evidence was afforded on holding a cool glass surface over the hydrogen-flame. The action is expressed in the following equation:—

$$2H_2 + O_2 = 2H_2O.$$

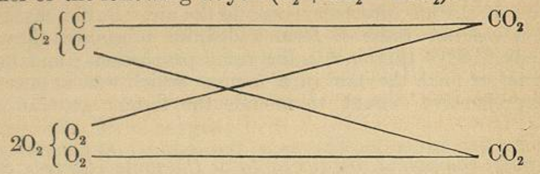
Instead of an equation, the following diagram may be employed:—



The foregoing aggregation of symbols or short-hand characters, or *formula*, H_2O, is, then, a convenient picture of the facts that have already come before us, viz., that water is formed of the elements hydrogen, H, and oxygen, O; moreover, that it is formed of two measures or volumes of hydrogen, H_2, to one of oxygen, O; and, thirdly, that the molecule of water (H_2O) is formed of two atoms of hydrogen (H_2) and one of oxygen (O). The formula also fulfils the *fourth function* of indicating that the two volumes of hydrogen and one of oxygen in combining condensed to two volumes of steam. That the resulting bulk of steam afterwards shrunk most considerably in condensing to water is another matter altogether, a physical and not a chemical result, and due to the approximation of the molecules of water *after* formation.

Another experiment already performed, illustrating the character of the manifestations of chemical force (symbolically noted as follows), was that in which the red-hot carbon of wood was plunged into oxygen. The evidence of chemical action in that case was the sudden inflammation of the carbonaceous extremity of the wood. The particles of carbon and oxygen, having intense attraction or affinity for each other at that temperature, rush together so impetuously as suddenly to produce a large additional quantity of heat, an amount sufficient to cause the particles to emit an intense white

light. The action between carbon and oxygen is expressed on paper in either of the following ways—($C_2 + 2O_2 = 2CO_2$):—



CO_2 is the formula of the well-known gaseous body commonly termed carbonic acid gas.

The reader should here draw for himself equations or diagrams similar to those on page 46, and thus show the formation of the three bodies he has already produced—namely, phosphoric anhydride (P_2O_5), sulphurous acid gas (SO_2), and iodide of iron (FeI_2), submitting the same, if possible, to a tutor or other authority to assure himself of their correctness.

Note.—In the foregoing experiments several illustrations occur of the formation of compounds having the gaseous, liquid, and solid conditions, in one of which three forms all matter in the universe apparently exists.

Laws of Chemical Combination (by Weight).

Chemistry as a science is little more than a hundred years old, though very many of the facts and operations we now term chemical have been known as isolated items of knowledge for centuries. Thus, the ancient Egyptians made glass, vitriol, soap, and vinegar; and the Greeks started the idea that matter was composed of a few elements, imagining earth, air, fire, and water to be elements. But the great general principles which interlace and bind together separate facts, those which from their extensive application and importance are denominated *laws*, have all been brought to light since the year 1770.

First Law relating to Chemical Combinations.

Between 1785 and 1800, Bryan Higgins, William Higgins, Wenzel Richter, and Proust made analyses and researches which led up to the following generalizations: *When compounds unite to form definite chemical substances, they always combine in the same proportions.* The curious character of this fact could but be most striking, and indeed is so now, to the mind receiving it for the first time. Thus water (a compound) added to quicklime (a compound) gives slaked lime, a perfectly definite chemical substance. But whereas sand and water, sugar and water, sand and sugar, and such *mixtures* may be obtained by adding together the ingredients in any proportions whatever, say 90 of sugar and 10 of sand, or 10 of sugar and 90 of sand, slaked lime (say 100 parts) invariably results from the combination of $75\frac{3}{4}$ of quicklime and $24\frac{1}{4}$ of water. If a larger proportion than $75\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. of quicklime be employed, the excess remains as quicklime mixed with the slaked lime; and if more than 24¼ per cent. of water be used, an excess of water remains with the slaked lime and evaporates if the mixture be exposed to the air. Dalton discovered that when *elements* unite to form a definite substance, they, like compounds, always combine in the same proportions; and he was the first to set forth the law in a manner which was at once clear and comprehensive enough to include the former generalization. Thus:—

A definite compound always contains the same elements in the same proportions.

Take another example. Common salt always contains 39⅓ per cent. of the metal sodium to 60⅔ of chlorine, and water always 89 of oxygen and 11 per cent. of hydrogen (more exactly 88.89 to 11.11). As with quicklime and water, so with the chlorine and sodium, and the constituents of many (not all) chemical compounds; in such cases if either be added to the other in any quantity beyond stated proportions, the excess plays no part whatever in the act of combination. (In *some* cases, as will be seen directly, excess of either plays a very simple but very remarkable part.) In short, whether a compound be made directly from its elements, or by the combination of other compounds, or indirectly as one of two products of the action of substances chemically on each other, whatever be its origin, if it is a definite compound it always contains the same elements in the same proportions.

Second Law relating to Chemical Combinations.

Dalton further made such experimental researches as enabled him to lay down a second great law. He found that, while many substances only united chemically in one proportion, others combined in two or even more, and he studied several such naturally related bodies. He found that while carbonic oxide (a gas formed when charcoal is burned with an insufficient supply of air) contains such a proportional weight of carbon and oxygen as is represented by (to use the simplest figures) 3 and 4, carbonic acid (a gas formed when charcoal is burned with excess of air) contains 3 of carbon to exactly twice 4 of oxygen. He proved that a similar relation existed between two compounds of carbon and hydrogen, and between a cluster of compounds of nitrogen and oxygen. The first of the latter, to a given quantity of nitrogen, contains a certain proportion of oxygen; the next, to the same quantity of nitrogen, has exactly twice the proportion of oxygen: and the others have exactly three, four, and five times as much oxygen as the first, the quantity of nitrogen remaining the same throughout. Dalton thus generalized these facts:—

When two elements unite in more than one proportion, the resulting compounds contain, to a constant proportion of one element, simple multiple proportions of the other—or the weights of the constituent elements bear some similar simple relations to each other.

Thus carbonic oxide gas is a definite compound always containing fixed proportions of carbon and oxygen, and carbonic acid gas is also a definite compound always containing fixed proportions of carbon and oxygen. Both thus obey the first law of combination. But whereas carbonic oxide contains, or may be made from, 30 parts (ounces, grains, or other weights) of carbon and 40 of oxygen, carbonic acid contains, or may be made from, 30 parts of carbon and exactly twice 40 of oxygen.

This second law cannot but be as striking as the first when freshly unveiled to the mind. Sand and sugar, or any substances which do not act *chemically* on each other, may be mixed in the proportions of 30 to 40, 30 to 80, 30 to 60, or any other quantities; but if an attempt be made to burn 30 parts of carbon in 60 of oxygen, the elements will themselves naturally assert their own special combining powers, and refuse, so to say, to unite in these proportions: the 30 of carbon will first combine with 40 of oxygen and form 70 of carbonic oxide, and this gas, which, had it the opportunity, would combine with 40 more of oxygen and form carbonic acid gas, finding only half that quantity, namely, 20, of oxygen present, contents itself by one-half (that is, 35 of carbonic oxide), accepting the 20 of oxygen and becoming carbonic acid gas, while the other half remains as carbonic oxide. This is a most wonderful fact. Again, if 30 parts of carbon be burnt in more than 80, say 85, of oxygen, only 80 will be used, the other 5 remaining as oxygen merely *mixed* with the resulting carbonic acid gas. If we attempt to burn 30 parts of carbon in less than 40 of oxygen, the oxygen will take up three-fourths its weight of carbon and form carbonic oxide, while the excess of carbon will remain as carbon.

RECAPITULATION.

Nature does not always permit man to mix things in any proportions he pleases. She does sometimes. She does if he only stirs things together, or if he only uses the attractions of adhesion or cohesion in binding the materials together; but if he employs chemical attraction, she restricts him to special proportions. That is to say, if the things mixed do not attack one another or intimately combine, then admixture may be effected in any proportion; and the mixture is a mere mixture having the mean properties of its components. Examples of such mixtures are seen in compound plasters, pill-masses, confections, and plum-puddings. But if the things do unite to form, not a mere mixture having the mean properties of its components, but a compound having new and distinct and definite characters of its own, then nature does not permit man to mix the things in any proportion he pleases. The proportion is one fixed and constant; and if he substitutes proportions of his own, the things unite in the proportions fixed by nature, and the excess he has added either remains in its original uncombined condition, or it combines with the compound already produced to form a second *different* compound. Any one compound, that is, the *same* compound, always contains the same elements in the same proportions, and can only be made from the same elements in the same proportions. An attempt to mix the same elements in other proportions would result in one of two failures, namely, either the extra proportion would remain free and uncombined, or it would combine and convert the first compound, or a portion of it, into a *different* compound. The fresh compound thus produced, like the first, and indeed like all definite compounds, of course always contains the same elements in the same proportions.

In short (law 1) any definite compound always contains the same elements in the same proportions, and (law 2) any two elements uniting in more than one proportion unite in multiples of that proportion, and produce so many different definite compounds. Taking hydrogen as uniting in proportions of 1, oxygen unites in proportions of 16—that is, 16, twice 16, thrice 16, and so on, never in intermediate proportions. Carbon unites in proportions of 12, sulphur of 32, chlorine of 35½. And every other element has its combining proportion fixed by nature.

The student of chemistry is recommended to accept these two great natural facts, great enough to be dignified by the name of *laws*, in all their inherent solidity and simplicity. Of course, he will wonder *why* substances should combine, chemically, only in fixed proportions when forming a definite body, and *why*, when a substance combines in more than one proportion to form different compound bodies, the proportions should only be multiple proportions; and an extremely ingenious and useful explanation has been suggested by Dalton (see the following paragraphs on the theory that matter is built up of atoms); but man has not yet succeeded in so questioning nature as to gain from her a *satisfactory* answer to such questions; hence, until he does succeed, any hypothesis, such as Dalton's, should be held intelligently but loosely. The facts themselves, however, should be grasped with the student's utmost tenacity.

Third Law relating to Chemical Combination.

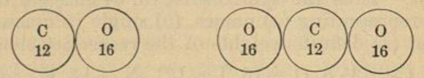
Careful consideration of the foregoing two great laws has suggested an important truth sometimes termed *The Law of Chemical Combination*, namely: *The proportions in which two elements unite with a third are the proportions (or simple multiples or submultiples of the proportions) in which they unite with each other.* Thus oxygen in proportions of 16 unites with hydrogen, and carbon in proportions of 12 unites with hydrogen; therefore 16 and 12 are the proportions in which oxygen and carbon will unite with each other.*

* See Axiom 1 in Hawtrey's fascinating "Introduction to the Elements of Euclid," Longmans & Co., London, 2s. 6d., a book strongly recommended to any chemical student who is not familiar with the mode of reasoning commonly termed geometrical.

The Atomic Theory.

The laws which Dalton (1803 to 1808) so largely aided to unveil—two grand and wonderful truths—he explained and correlated by a simple and beautiful hypothesis. *Dalton suggested that matter was not infinitely divisible, but composed of minute particles or* ATOMS *having an invariable character.* In the words of Wurtz, "*To an old and vague notion he attached an exact meaning by supposing that the atoms of each kind of matter possess a constant weight, and that combination between two kinds of matter takes place not by penetration of their substance, but by juxtaposition of their atoms.*"

Thus under this hypothesis, or atomic theory as it is generally termed, carbonic oxide is a definite compound always containing the same elements in the same proportions, *because* each particle of it is composed of an atom of carbon and an atom of oxygen chemically united, the weights of the atoms being in the proportion of 3 and 4, that is, having a constant weight of 12 and 16, as we now believe. Carbonic acid gas is also a definite compound always containing the same elements in the same proportions, and the proportion of oxygen is just double that in carbonic oxide, *because* each particle of it is composed of an atom of carbon (weighing 12) and two atoms of oxygen (each weighing 16).



Imaginary pictures of molecules of carbonic oxide gas and carbonic acid gas.*

Again, the facts that with 12 of carbon oxygen unites in the proportion of 16, or a multiple of 16; that with 12 of carbon sulphur unites in the proportion of 32, or a multiple of 32 (the liquid known as disulphide of carbon is a chemical compound of 12 of carbon to twice 32 of sulphur); and, thirdly, that oxygen and sulphur unite in proportions of 16 and 32, are at once explained on the assumption that these elements exist in atoms which have the respective weights mentioned. Existing in indivisible particles (atoms) which weigh 16, 12, and 32, oxygen, carbon, and sulphur *must* unite in indivisible weights of 16, 12, and 32.

Atomic Weights.

What has just been stated respecting two or three elements is true of all the elements. It is a fact, that, when elements unite with one another in the peculiar and intimate manner termed chem-

* The size of atoms, their shape, their absolute weight—whether or not they are in actual contact—whether or not they are fixed in relation to each other, free to move about each other, or in a constant state of motion—and whether or not the chemical force actuates them as the force of gravitation influences our earth, and moon, and solar systems, are matters of which at present we know almost nothing. The two pictures are not intended to convey any impression that the following formulæ do not give: CO or OC, OCO or OOC or COO or CO_2.

ical, they do not combine in the haphazard proportions of a mere mixture, but in one fixed and constant proportion. Such proportions or weights represent, according to Dalton, the weights of their atoms. Oxygen unites with other elements in proportions of 16, therefore 16 is the weight of the atom of oxygen. Chlorine unites with other elements in proportions of 35½, therefore 35½ is the atomic weight of chlorine. And for a similar reason the atomic weights of hydrogen will be 1, carbon 12, sulphur 32, nitrogen 14, and iodine 127. Of course it will be understood that these are the *relative* weights of atoms, for we cannot know the absolute weights. All that is known is that the chlorine atom, for instance, is 35.5 times as heavy as the hydrogen atom, whatever the absolute weight of the latter may be, and the iodine atom 127 times as heavy. The quantity of metal which with 35.5 of chlorine will form a chloride, and with twice 35.5 a second chloride (dichloride or bichloride), will require 127 of iodine to form an iodide, and twice 127 of iodine to form a second iodide (a diniodide or biniodide).* In other words, the atomic weight of an element is the *ratio* of the weight, quantity of matter, or mass of an atom to the weight, quantity of matter, or mass of an atom of hydrogen.

Note on Notation.—A *fourth function* of a symbol is to represent atomic *weight*. Thus the symbols H, Cl, O, etc., not only perform the office of representing (*a*) names, (*b*) single volumes, and (*c*) single atoms, but (*d*) definite weights of the respective elements.

$$H=1,\ Cl=35.5,\ O=16,\ I=127,\ N=14,\ K=39, \text{ etc.}$$

Laws of Chemical Combination (by Volume).

In 1809 Gay-Lussac showed it to be a fact that when gaseous elements unite with one another in the intimate manner termed chemical, they do not combine in the haphazard proportions (that is, proportions by measure or volume) of a mere mixture, but in constant proportions in the case of any single definite compound, and in simple multiple proportions in cases where two elements form more than one definite compound. He thus proved that the laws respecting the constancy of weight with which elements combine hold good with reference to volume, at all events in those cases in which elements exist in or can be made to assume the gaseous condition. A volume of hydrogen gas and an equal one of chlorine gas give hydrochloric acid gas. Two volumes of hydrogen and one of oxygen give water-vapor or steam. Such volumes or simple multiples are alone the proportions by bulk in which elements combine. If any excess of either gas be mixed and combination attempted, only the stated proportions really combine, the excess remaining unaltered. Further, following Gay-Lussac, on weighing these similar and equal

* Only the atomic weights of the above and a few of the chief metallic elements need be committed to memory; others can be sought out as occasion may require. A complete Table of *combining proportions* of elements, or Atomic Weights, is given at the end of the volume.

volumes of hydrogen, chlorine, and oxygen, we find that the chlorine is 35.5 times as heavy as hydrogen, and oxygen 16 times as heavy as hydrogen.

In 1811 and 1814, Avogadro and Ampère, reasoning on the fact that all gases are similarly affected by variations of pressure (Boyle, 1662, verified by Mariotte) and temperature (Charles), concluded that all gases must be similarly constituted—similarity in properties always indicating similarity in character or nature; in other words, that, if *equal volumes of gases* be taken *under like conditions*, each will *contain the same number of molecules*, similar in *size* and equally distant apart. The deduction is obvious. *The weights of molecules of gaseous elements* (*that is, pairs of atoms, and therefore of atoms themselves*) *must differ to the extent that the weights of equal volumes of those elements differ.* Equal volumes of hydrogen, chlorine, and oxygen, weighing respectively 1, 35.5, and 16, and each of these volumes containing an equal number of molecules, each formed of two atoms, it follows that the relative weights of the atoms will be 1, 35.5, and 16.

It will thus be seen that the weight of the *volume* in which an element combines, and the *actual weight* in which it combines, irrespective of volume, are identical. For instance, we should find by experiment that, as a simple matter of fact, oxygen unites with other elements in proportions of 16 by weight, while hydrogen combines in proportions of 1. Turning, then, to experiments on the volumes in which hydrogen or oxygen combine, and having ascertained those volumes, and then having weighed them, we should find that the oxygen volume weighs 16, while the hydrogen weighs 1. In compounds in which proportions of 1 grain of hydrogen were found, oxygen would be found in proportions of 16 grains. In gaseous compounds in which hydrogen existed in proportions of, say, 27 ounces by measure, oxygen would be found in proportions of 27 ounces by measure; the 27 ounces of hydrogen would be found to weigh 1 grain, and the 27 ounces of oxygen to weigh 16 grains.

Thus the two great facts or laws respecting chemical compounds which Dalton laid down by ascertaining the exact weights in which bodies combine, Gay-Lussac confirmed by experiments on the exact volumes in which elements combine. Further, Gay-Lussac's experiments and Avogadro's reasoning strongly supported Dalton's theory of atoms.

Recapitulation.

What are atomic weights or combining weights? First, they are represented by the smallest proportion (relative to 1 part of hydrogen) in which an element migrates from compound to compound. Thus 1 part by weight of hydrogen can be eliminated from 18 similar parts of water by action of certain metals, leaving 1 of hydrogen and 16 of oxygen combined with the metal. From the latter compound 1 more of hydrogen is eliminated by a second experiment with more metal, leaving 16 of oxygen combined with the metal. In these and other well-known reactions 16 parts of oxygen take part in the various operations; 16, therefore, is the probable atomic weight of oxygen; and so with other elements and radicals. Secondly, the weights of the atoms, or the atomic weights, of the gaseous elements already studied, must differ from each other to the extent that equal volumes of those elements differ in weight. For equal volumes of an element contain an equal number of molecules equal in size (Avogadro's and Ampère's conclusion), and each molecule is composed of two atoms; so that equal volumes of elements contain an equal number of atoms. Now, bulk for bulk, chlorine is thirty-five and a half (35.5) times as heavy as hydrogen; so that the molecule of chlorine must be 35.5 times the weight of the molecule of hydrogen; for molecules are equal in bulk. And as the molecules of chlorine and hydrogen contain two atoms each, the atom of chlorine must be 35.5 times as heavy as that of hydrogen. The actual weight of atoms can never be ascertained, but that is of little consequence if we can only determine, with exactitude, their comparative weights. Comparing, then, all atomic weights, sometimes obscurely termed equivalents, with each other, and selecting hydrogen as the standard of comparison (because it is the lightest body known, and therefore, probably, will have the smallest atomic weight), and assigning to it the number 1, we see that the atomic weight of chlorine will be represented by the number 35.5. By parity of reasoning the atomic weight of oxygen is 16; for oxygen is found, by experiment, to be 16 times as heavy as hydrogen. Similarly the atomic weight of nitrogen is found to be 14. The atomic weight of carbon is 12—not because its vapor has been proved to be 12 times as heavy as hydrogen, for it has never yet been converted into the gaseous state, but because no gaseous compound of carbon, which has been analyzed, has been found to contain in 2 volumes (one of which, if hydrogen, would weigh 1 part) less than 12 parts of carbon.

By thus weighing equal volumes of gaseous elements, or equal volumes of gaseous compounds of non-volatile elements, and ascertaining by analysis the proportion of the non-volatile element whose atomic weight is being sought to the volatile element whose atomic weight is known, the atomic weights of a large number of the elements have been determined. Some of the elements, however, do not form volatile compounds of any kind; the stated atomic weights of these elements, therefore, are at present simply the proportions by weight in which they combine with or displace elements whose atomic weights have been determined, the proportion being in most cases checked by isomorphic considerations and the relation of the element to other forces, especially heat.* (*Vide infra.*)

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* *Isomorphous* bodies (from ἴσος, *isos*, equal, and μορφή, *morphē*, form) are those which are similar in the shape of their crystals. The identity in crystalline form is so commonly associated with similarity of constitution that non-crystalline substances resembling each other in structure are often regarded as isomorphous. When one element unites with another in more than one proportion, and its atomic weight is so far uncertain, the isomorphism of either of its compounds with some other compound of known constitution is usually accepted as decisive evidence as to which proportion is atomic. The specific heat of elements will be treated of subsequently.

Molecular Weight and Molecular Volume.

The weight of the molecule is simply the sum of the weights of its atoms, thus

$$H_2 = 2;\ O_2 = 32;\ Cl_2 = 71;\ H_2O = 18;\ HCl = 36.5.$$

Molecular Volume.—If the quantities just mentioned be weighed out (in grains or other weights), or if the molecular weight of any gases or liquids be taken and exposed to similar (high) temperatures and pressures, *they will all be found to occupy the same volume.* Conversely, if equal volumes of gases or vapors be measured out, and then the whole weighed, the resulting figures (all referred to 2 of hydrogen as a starting-point or standard) are the molecular weights of the respective substances. Thus a volume of hydrogen (about 54 fluidounces), which, at a temperature of, say, 300° F. or 400° F., and common atmospheric pressure, would weigh 2 grains, would in the case of vapor of water (steam) weigh 18 grains. Hence we are justified in considering, indeed compelled to consider, the molecule of water to contain two atoms of hydrogen (= 2) and one of oxygen (= 16), and its formula to be H_2O (= 18), and not H_4O_2, in which case its vapor would be twice as heavy as it really is found to be.

Construction of Formulæ.—The composition of hydrochloric acid (HCl), water (H_2O), ammonia (NH_3), carbonic acid gas (CO_2), or any other compound, as well as the weight of an element that may be concerned in its formation, cannot be ascertained by actual experiment until the student is far advanced in practical chemistry—until he is able to *analyze* not only *qualitatively*, but, by help of a balance, *quantitatively*. The percentage composition of a substance having been determined by quantitative analysis, its formula is constructed by aid of the foregoing and other theoretical considerations. The correctness of such formulæ can be verified by expert analysts, but must be taken for granted by learners. This subject will again be referred to in the latter part of this Manual.

Quantivalence of Atoms.

Turning from the *weights* of atoms, their *value* may now be considered; their *quantivalence* may be stated. The chemical value of atoms in relation to each other may be compared to the exchangeable value of coins. As compared with a penny (1*d.*) a groat (4*d.*) is four-valued; as compared with hydrogen, carbon is quadrivalent. Here again hydrogen is conveniently adopted as the standard of comparison. An atom of oxygen in its relations to an atom of hydrogen is bivalent (biv′-a-lent; of double worth, from *bis*, twice, and *valens*, being worth); an atom of it will displace two atoms of hydrogen, or combine with the same number; nitrogen is usually trivalent (triv′-a-lent; from *tres*, three, and *valens*); and carbon, quad-riv′-a-lent (from *quatuor*, four, or *quater*, four times, and *valens*). Chlorine, iodine, and bromine, as well as potassium, sodium, and silver among the metals, are, like hydrogen, univalent (u-niv′-a-lent;

from *unus*, one, and *valens*). Barium, strontium, calcium, magnesium, zinc, cadmium, mercury, and copper, like oxygen, are bivalent. Phosphorus, arsenium, antimony, and bismuth, like nitrogen, usually exhibit trivalent properties; but the composition of certain compounds of these five elements shows that the several atoms are sometimes quinquivalent (quin-quiv′-a-lent; *quinquies*, five times, and *valens*). Gold and boron are trivalent. Silicon (the characteristic element of flint and sand), tin, aluminium, platinum, and lead resemble carbon in being quadrivalent. Sulphur, chromium, manganese, iron, cobalt, and nickel are sexivalent (sex-iv′-a-lent; from *sex*, six, or *sexies*, six times, and *valens*), but frequently exert only bivalent, trivalent, or quadrivalent activity. This *quantivalence* (quant-iv′-a-lence; from *quantitas*, quantity, and *valens*), also termed *atomicity* (maximum quantivalence), *dynamicity*, and *equivalence* of elements, may be ascertained at any time on referring to the table of the Elements at the end of this volume, where Roman numerals, I, II, III, IV, V, VI, are attached to the symbols of each element to indicate atomic univalence, bivalence, trivalence, quadrivalence, quinquivalence, or sexivalence. Dashes (H', O'', N''') similar to those used in accentuating words are often used instead of figures in expressing quantivalence. The quantivalence of elements, as they one after another come under notice, should be carefully committed to memory; for the composition of compounds can often be thereby predicated with accuracy and remembered with ease. For instance, the hydrogen compounds of chlorine, Cl', oxygen, O'', nitrogen, N''', and carbon, C'''', will be respectively $H'Cl'$, H'_2O'', H'_3N''', and H'_4C'''',—one univalent atom, H', balancing or saturating one univalent atom, Cl'; two univalent atoms, H'_2, and one bivalent atom, O'', saturating each other; three univalent atoms, H'_3, and one atom having trivalent activity, N''', saturating each other; and four univalent atoms, H'_4, and one quadrivalent atom, C'''', saturating each other. Carbonic acid gas, $C^{IV}O^{II}_2$, again, is a saturated molecule containing one quadrivalent and two bivalent atoms.

The subject of quantivalence will be further explained after the first six metals have been studied, when abundant illustrations of it will have occurred.

DEFINITIONS.

Chemistry is the study of the chemical force.

The Chemical Force, like other forces, cannot itself be described, for, like them, it is only known by its effects. It is distinguished from other forces by the facts that (*a*) it produces an entire change of properties in the bodies on which it is exerted, and that (*b*) it is exerted only between definite weights and volumes of matter. Like the *force of cohesion*, which is the name given to the attraction which molecules have for each other, and which is great in solids, small in liquids, and apparently absent in gases, and like the *force of adhesion*, which is the name given to the attraction which a mass of molecules has for another mass, *the chemical force* acts only within immeasurable distances: indeed, inasmuch as the chemical force appears to reside in atoms, that is to say, is exerted inside a molecule, while all other forces affect entire molecules, the chemical force may be said to be distinguished (*c*) by being exerted within a smaller distance than that at which any other force is exerted.

An Element is a substance which cannot by any known means be resolved into any simpler form of matter.

An Atom of any element is a particle so small that it undergoes no further subdivision in chemical transformations.

A Molecule is the smallest particle of matter that can exist in a free state.

A mere Mixture of substances is one in which each ingredient retains its properties.

A Chemical Compound is one in which definite weights of constituents have combined, and during combination have undergone an entire change of properties. A "compound" in pharmacy is an intimate mixture of substances, but still only a mixture; it is not a *chemical* compound, the ingredients have not entered into *chemical* union or combination.

Combustion is a variety of chemical combination, a variety in which the chemical union is sufficiently intense to produce heat and, generally, light.

The Law of Diffusion is one under which gases mix with each other at a rate which is in inverse proportion to the square root of their relative weights; that is, irrespective of and even in spite of their comparative lightness or heaviness.

A Chemical Symbol is a capital letter, or a capital and one small letter. It has four functions, namely:—

1. It is short-hand for the *name* of the element.
2. It represents one *atom* of the element.
3. It stands for a constant *weight* of the element—the atomic weight or combining weight.
4. Symbols represent single and equal *volumes* of gaseous elements.

A Chemical Formula represents *a molecule* either of an element or of a compound. It has four other functions:—

1. It indicates at a glance the *names* of the elements in the molecule.
2. Its symbol or symbols, together with a small figure attached to the foot of any symbol, show the *number of atoms* in the molecule.
3. It stands for a constant weight of a compound—the molecular weight—the sum of the combining *weights* or of the weights of the atoms in the molecule.
4. It represents *two volumes* of the substance, if volatilizable, in the state of gas or vapor, and the number of volumes of gaseous elements from which two volumes of any gaseous compound were obtained.