

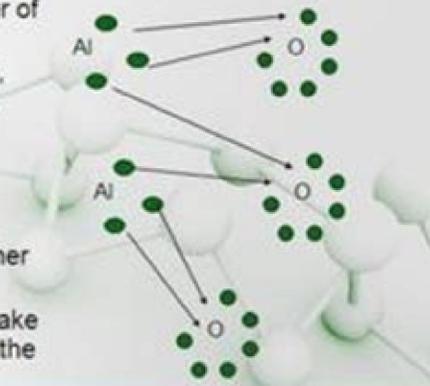
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Covalent Compounds Worksheet

- 1) Based on the properties of the following materials, determine whether they are made of primarily ionic compounds or covalent compounds
- aluminum acetate _____
 - granite _____
 - gasoline _____
 - table salt _____
- 2) Name the following covalent compounds
- SO_2 _____
 - N_2O_5 _____
 - H_2O _____
 - H_2 _____
- 3) Write the formulae for the following covalent compounds
- silicon tetrachloride _____
 - nitrogen trichloride _____
 - sulfur hexafluoride _____
 - diphosphorus pentoxide _____
- 4) Write the empirical formulae for the following compounds
- $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6\text{O}$ _____
 - boron trichloride _____
 - methane _____
 - $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$ _____
- 5) List three differences between ionic and covalent compounds

Illustrate the bonding between Aluminum and Oxygen. (Note the ratio here is a little harder to find.)

- Draw the Lewis Structures of the individual atoms.
- Use arrows to show the transfer of electrons.
- Aluminum has one electron left, we need another oxygen atom.
- The oxygen atom now needs more electrons so we need another aluminum atom.
- The extra electrons on the Aluminum mean we need another Oxygen.
- Since, we have been able to make both atoms stable, we have hit the correct ratio.



Glenn Dorn

Element	Symbol	Atomic Number	Group
Hydrogen	H	1	1
Helium	He	2	18
Lithium	Li	3	1
Beryllium	Be	4	2
Boron	B	5	13
Carbon	C	6	14
Nitrogen	N	7	15
Oxygen	O	8	16
Fluorine	F	9	17
Neon	Ne	10	18
Sodium	Na	11	1
Magnesium	Mg	12	2
Aluminum	Al	13	13
Silicon	Si	14	14
Phosphorus	P	15	15
Sulfur	S	16	16
Chlorine	Cl	17	17
Argon	Ar	18	18
Potassium	K	19	1
Calcium	Ca	20	2
Scandium	Sc	21	3
Titanium	Ti	22	4
Vanadium	V	23	5
Chromium	Cr	24	6
Manganese	Mn	25	7
Iron	Fe	26	8
Cobalt	Co	27	9
Nickel	Ni	28	10
Copper	Cu	29	11
Zinc	Zn	30	12
Gallium	Ga	31	13
Germanium	Ge	32	14
Arsenic	As	33	15
Selenium	Se	34	16
Bromine	Br	35	17
Krypton	Kr	36	18
Rubidium	Rb	37	1
Strontium	Sr	38	2
Yttrium	Y	39	3
Zirconium	Zr	40	4
Niobium	Nb	41	5
Molybdenum	Mo	42	6
Technetium	Tc	43	7
Ruthenium	Ru	44	8
Rhodium	Rh	45	9
Palladium	Pd	46	10
Silver	Ag	47	11
Cadmium	Cd	48	12
Indium	In	49	13
Tin	Sn	50	14
Antimony	Sb	51	15
Tellurium	Te	52	16
Iodine	I	53	17
Xenon	Xe	54	18
Cesium	Cs	55	1
Barium	Ba	56	2
Lanthanum	La	57	3
Cerium	Ce	58	4
Praseodymium	Pr	59	4
Neodymium	Nd	60	4
Europium	Eu	63	4
Gadolinium	Gd	64	4
Terbium	Tb	65	4
Dysprosium	Dy	66	4
Ytterbium	Yb	70	4
Lutetium	Lu	71	4
Hafnium	Hf	72	4
Tantalum	Ta	73	5
Tungsten	W	74	6
Rhenium	Re	75	7
Osmium	Os	76	8
Iridium	Ir	77	9
Rhodium	Rh	78	10
Palladium	Pd	79	11
Silver	Ag	80	12
Cadmium	Cd	81	13
Indium	In	83	13
Tin	Sn	84	14
Antimony	Sb	85	15
Tellurium	Te	86	16
Iodine	I	87	17
Xenon	Xe	88	18
Barium	Ba	88	2
Strontium	Sr	88	2
Calcium	Ca	88	2
Yttrium	Y	88	3
Zirconium	Zr	88	4
Niobium	Nb	88	5
Molybdenum	Mo	88	6
Technetium	Tc	88	7
Ruthenium	Ru	88	8
Rhodium	Rh	88	9
Palladium	Pd	88	10
Silver	Ag	88	11
Cadmium	Cd	88	12
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Gadolinium	Gd	88	4
Terbium	Tb		

NAMING MOLECULAR COMPOUNDS

Name _____

Name the following covalent compounds.

1. CO_2 Carbon dioxide
2. CO Carbon monoxide
3. SO_2 Sulfur dioxide
4. SO_3 Sulfur trioxide
5. N_2O Dinitrogen oxide
6. NO nitrogen oxide
7. NO_2 Dinitrogen trioxide
8. NO_2 Nitrogen dioxide
9. NO_2 Dinitrogen tetroxide
10. NO_2 Dinitrogen Pentoxide
11. PCl_3 Phosphorus trichloride
12. PCl_5 Phosphorus pentachloride
13. NH_3 Nitrogen trihydride
14. SCl_6 Sulfur hexachloride
15. P_2O_5 Diphosphorus pentoxide
16. CCl_4 Carbon tetrachloride
17. SiO_2 Silicon dioxide
18. CS_2 Carbon disulfide
19. OF_2 oxygen difluoride
20. PBr_3 Phosphorus tribromide

- 1- mono
- 2- di
- 3- tri
- 4- tetra
- 5- penta
- 6- hexa

6-13

Instructional foil

Do ionic compounds react with water. Are hydrates ionic compounds. Writing formula for ionic compounds worksheet. Nomenclature of hydrated ionic compounds worksheet. Worksheet #7 nomenclature of hydrated ionic compounds. Worksheet #7 nomenclature of hydrated ionic compounds answer key. Nomenclature of hydrated ionic compounds worksheet answers.

Chemical compound with formula H_2O "H₂O" redirects here. For other uses, see H₂O (disambiguation) and Water (disambiguation). A globe of liquid water, and the concave depression and rebound in water caused by something dropping through the water surface. A block of solid water (ice). Clouds in Earth's atmosphere condense from gaseous water vapor. Water (chemical formula H_2O) is an inorganic, transparent, tasteless, odorless, and nearly colorless chemical substance, which is the main constituent of Earth's hydrosphere and the fluids of all known living organisms (in which it acts as a solvent[1]). It is vital for all known forms of life, even though it provides neither food, energy, nor organic micronutrients. Its chemical formula, H_2O , indicates that each of its molecules contains one oxygen and two hydrogen atoms, connected by covalent bonds. The hydrogen atoms are attached to the oxygen atom at an angle of 104.45°.[2] "Water" is also the name of the liquid state of H_2O at standard temperature and pressure. A number of natural states of water exist. It forms precipitation in the form of rain and aerosols in the form of fog. Clouds consist of suspended droplets of water and ice, its solid state. When finely divided, crystalline ice may precipitate in the form of snow. The gaseous state of water is steam or water vapor. Water covers about 71% of the Earth's surface, mostly in seas and oceans (about 96.5%).[3] Small portions of water occur as groundwater (1.7%), in the glaciers and the ice caps of Antarctica and Greenland (1.17%), and in the air as vapor, clouds (consisting of ice and liquid water suspended in air), and precipitation (0.001%).[4][5] Water moves continually through the water cycle of evaporation, transpiration (evapotranspiration), condensation, precipitation, and runoff, usually reaching the sea. Water plays an important role in the world economy. Approximately 70% of the freshwater used by humans goes to agriculture.[6] Fishing in salt and fresh water bodies is a major source of food for many parts of the world, providing 6.5% of global protein.[7] Much of the long-distance trade of commodities (such as oil, natural gas, and manufactured products) is transported by boats through seas, rivers, lakes, and canals. Large quantities of water, ice, and steam are used for cooling and heating, in industry and homes. Water is an excellent solvent for a wide variety of substances both mineral and organic; as such it is widely used in industrial processes, and in cooking and washing. Water, ice and snow are also central to many sports and other forms of entertainment, such as swimming, pleasure boating, boat racing, surfing, sport fishing, diving, ice skating and skiing. Etymology The word water comes from Old English water, from Proto-Germanic *watar (source also of Old Saxon water, Old Frisian weter, Dutch water, Old High German wazzar, German Wasser, wasser, vater, Gothic 𐍄𐍅𐍂𐍅𐍄 (wato), from Proto-Indo-European *wod- or, suffixed form of root *wed- ("water"; "wet").[8] Also cognate, through the Indo-European root, with Greek ύδωρ (ýdor), Russian вода (vodá), Irish uisce, and Albanian ujë. History Main articles: Origin of water on Earth's History of water on Earth, and Properties of water's History Properties Main article: Properties of water A water molecule consists of two hydrogen atoms and one oxygen atom. See also: Water (data page) and Water model Water (H_2O) is a polar inorganic compound that is at room temperature a tasteless and odorless liquid, nearly colorless with a hint of blue. This simplest hydrogen chalcogenide is by far the most studied chemical compound and is described as the "universal solvent" for its ability to dissolve many substances.[9][10] This allows it to be the "solvent of life".[11] Indeed, water as found in nature almost always includes various dissolved substances, and special steps are required to obtain chemically pure water. Water is the only common substance to exist as a solid, liquid, and gas in normal terrestrial conditions.[12] States The three common states of matter Along with oxidane, water is one of the two official names for the chemical compound H_2O .[13] It is also the liquid phase of H_2O .[14] The other two common states of matter of water are the solid phase, ice, and the gaseous phase, water vapor or steam. The addition or removal of heat can cause phase transitions: freezing (water to ice), melting (ice to water), vaporization (water to vapor), condensation (vapor to water), sublimation (ice to vapor) and deposition (vapor to ice).[15] Density See also: Frost weathering Water differs from most liquids in that it becomes less dense as it freezes.[17] In 1 atm pressure, it reaches its maximum density of 1,000 kg/m³ (62.43 lb/cu ft) at 3.98 °C (39.16 °F).[18] The density of ice is 917 kg/m³ (57.25 lb/cu ft), an expansion of 9%.[19][20] This expansion can exert enormous pressure, bursting pipes and cracking rocks.[21] In a lake or ocean, water at 4 °C (39.2 °F) sinks to the bottom, and ice forms on the surface, floating on the liquid water. This ice insulates the water below, preventing it from freezing solid. Without this protection, most aquatic organisms would perish during the winter.[22] Magnetism Water is a diamagnetic material.[23] Though interaction is weak, with superconducting magnets it can attain a notable interaction.[23] Phase transitions At a pressure of one atmosphere (atm), ice melts or water freezes at 0 °C (32 °F) and water boils or vapor condenses at 100 °C (212 °F). However, even below the boiling point, water can change to vapor at its surface by evaporation (vaporization throughout the liquid is known as boiling). Sublimation and deposition also occur on surfaces.[15] For example, frost is deposited on cold surfaces while snowflakes form by deposition on an aerosol particle or ice nucleus.[24] In the process of freeze-drying, a food is frozen and then stored at low pressure so the ice on its surface sublimates.[25] The melting and boiling points depend on pressure. A good approximation for the rate of change of the melting temperature with pressure is given by the Clausius-Clapeyron relation: $dT/dP = T \cdot (\Delta V / \Delta H)$, where ΔV is the change in volume and ΔH is the change in enthalpy. In most substances, the volume increases when melting occurs, so the melting temperature increases with pressure. However, because ice is less dense than water, the melting temperature decreases. [16] In glaciers, pressure melting can occur under sufficiently thick volumes of ice, resulting in subglacial lakes.[26][27] The Clausius-Clapeyron relation also applies to the boiling point, but with the liquid/gas transition the vapor phase has a much lower density than the liquid phase, so the boiling point increases with pressure.[28] Water can remain in a liquid state at high temperatures in the deep ocean or underground. For example, temperatures exceed 205 °C (401 °F) in Old Faithful, a geyser in Yellowstone National Park.[29] In hydrothermal vents, the temperature can exceed 400 °C (752 °F).[30] At sea level, the boiling point of water is 100 °C (212 °F). As atmospheric pressure decreases with altitude, the boiling point decreases by 1 °C every 274 metres. High-altitude cooking takes longer than sea-level cooking. For example, at 1,524 metres (5,000 ft), cooking time must be increased by a fourth to achieve the desired result.[31] (Conversely, a pressure cooker can be used to decrease cooking times by raising the boiling temperature.[32]) In a vacuum, water will boil at room temperature.[33] Triple and critical points Phase diagram of water (simplified). On a pressure-temperature phase diagram (see figure), there are curves separating solid from vapor, vapor from liquid, and liquid from solid. These meet at a single point called the triple point, where all three phases can coexist. The triple point is at a temperature of 273.16 K (0.01 °C or 32.01 °F) and a pressure of 611.657 pascals (0.00604 atm).[34] It is the lowest pressure at which liquid water can exist. Until 2019, the triple point was used to define the Kelvin temperature scale.[35][36] The water/vapor phase curve terminates at 647.096 K (373.946 °C; 705.102 °F) and 22.064 megapascals (220.64 MPa; 3,200.1 psi; 217.75 atm).[37] This is known as the critical point. At higher temperatures and pressures the liquid and vapor phases form a continuous phase called a supercritical fluid. It can be gradually compressed or expanded between gas-like and liquid-like densities, its properties (which are quite different from those of ambient water) are sensitive to density. For example, for suitable pressures and temperatures it can mix freely with nonpolar compounds, including most organic compounds. This makes it useful in a variety of applications including high-temperature electrochemistry and as an ecologically benign solvent or catalyst in chemical reactions involving organic compounds. In Earth's mantle, it acts as a solvent during mineral formation, dissolution and deposition.[38][39] Phases of ice and water The normal form of ice on the surface of Earth is Ice I_h, a phase that forms crystals with hexagonal symmetry. Another with cubic crystalline symmetry, Ice Ic, can occur in the upper atmosphere.[40] As the pressure increases, ice forms other crystal structures. As of 2019, 17 have been experimentally confirmed and several more are predicted theoretically.[41] The 18th form of ice, ice XVIII, a face-centred-cubic, superionic ice phase, was discovered when a droplet of water was subject to a shock wave that raised the water's pressure to millions of atmospheres and its temperature to thousands of degrees, resulting in a structure of rigid oxygen atoms in which hydrogen atoms flowed freely.[42][43] When sandwiched between layers of
graphene, ice forms a square lattice.[44] The details of the chemical nature of liquid water are not well understood; some theories suggest that its unusual behaviour is due to the existence of 2 liquid states.[18][45][46][47] Taste and odor Pure water is usually described as tasteless and odorless, although humans have specific sensors that can feel the presence of water in their mouths.[48][49] and frogs are known to be able to smell it.[50] However, water from ordinary sources (including bottled mineral water) usually has many dissolved substances, that may give it varying tastes and odors. Humans and other animals have developed senses that enable them to evaluate the potability of water in order to avoid water that is too salty or putrid.[51] Color and appearance Main article: Color of water See also: Electromagnetic absorption by pure water Pure water is visibly blue due to absorption of light in the region ca. 600 nm – 800 nm.[52] The color can be easily observed in a glass of tap-water placed against a pure white background, in daylight. The principal absorption bands responsible for the color are overtones of the O–H stretching vibrations. The apparent intensity of the color increases with the depth of the water column, following Beer's law. This also applies, for example, with a swimming pool when the light source is sunlight reflected from the pool's white tiles. In nature, the color may also be modified from blue to green due to the presence of suspended solids or algae. In industry, near-infrared spectroscopy is used with aqueous solutions as the greater intensity of the lower overtones of water means that glass cuvettes with short path-length may be employed. To observe the fundamental stretching absorption spectrum of water or of an aqueous solution in the region around 3,500 cm^{-1} (2.85 μm)[53] a path length of about 25 μm is needed. Also, the cuvette must be both transparent around 3,500 cm^{-1} and insoluble in water; calcium fluoride is one material that is in common use for the cuvette windows with aqueous solutions. The Raman-active fundamental vibrations may be observed with, for example, a 1 cm sample cell. Aquatic plants, algae, and other photosynthetic organisms can live in water up to hundreds of meters deep, because sunlight can reach them. Practically no sunlight reaches the parts of the oceans below 1,000 metres (3,300 ft) of depth. The refractive index of liquid water (1.333 at 20 °C (68 °F)) is much higher than that of air (1.0), similar to those of alkanes and ethanol, but lower than those of glycerol (1.473), benzene (1.501), carbon disulfide (1.627), and common types of glass (1.4 to 1.6). The refraction index of ice (1.31) is lower than that of liquid water. Polar molecule Tetrahedral structure of water In a water molecule, the hydrogen atoms form a 104.5° angle with the oxygen atom. The hydrogen atoms are close to two corners of a tetrahedron centered on the oxygen. At the other two corners are lone pairs of valence electrons that do not participate in the bonding. In a perfect tetrahedron, the atoms would form a 109.5° angle, but the repulsion between the lone pairs is greater than the repulsion between the hydrogen atoms.[54][55] The O–H bond length is about 0.096 nm.[56] Other substances have a tetrahedral molecular structure, for example, methane (CH₄) and hydrogen sulfide (H₂S). However, oxygen is more electronegative (holds on to its electrons more tightly) than most other elements, so the oxygen atom retains a negative charge while the hydrogen atoms are positively charged. Along with the bent structure, this gives the molecule an electrical dipole moment and it is classified as a polar molecule.[57] Water is a good polar solvent, that dissolves many salts and hydrophilic organic molecules such as sugars and simple alcohols such as ethanol. Water also dissolves many gases, such as oxygen and carbon dioxide—the latter giving the fizz of carbonated beverages, sparkling wines and beers. In addition, many substances in living organisms, such as proteins, DNA and polysaccharides, are dissolved in water. The interactions between water and the subunits of these biomolecules shape protein folding, DNA base pairing, and other phenomena crucial to life (hydrophobic effect). Many organic substances (such as fats and oils and alkanes) are hydrophobic, that is, insoluble in water. Many inorganic substances are insoluble too, including most metal oxides, sulfides, and silicates. Hydrogen bonding See also: Chemical bonding of water Model of hydrogen bonds (1) between molecules of water Because of its polarity, a molecule of water in the liquid or solid state can form up to four hydrogen bonds with neighboring molecules. Hydrogen bonds are about ten times as strong as the Van der Waals force that attracts molecules to each other in most liquids. This is the reason why the melting and boiling points of water are much higher than those of other analogous compounds like hydrogen sulfide. They also explain its exceptionally high specific heat capacity (about 4.2 J/gK), heat of fusion (about 333 J/g), heat of vaporization (2257 J/g), and thermal conductivity (between 0.561 and 0.679 W/mK). These properties make water more effective at moderating Earth's climate, by storing heat and transporting it between the oceans and the atmosphere. The hydrogen bonds of water are around 23 kJ/mol (compared to a covalent O–H bond at 492 kJ/mol). Of that, it is estimated that 90% is attributable to electrostatics, while the remaining 10% is partially covalent.[58] These bonds are the cause of water's high surface tension[59] and capillary forces. The capillary action refers to the tendency of water to move up a narrow tube against the force of gravity. This property is relied upon by all vascular plants, such as trees.[citation needed] Specific heat capacity of water[60] Self-ionisation Main article: Self-ionisation of water Water is a weak solution of hydronium hydroxide - there is an equilibrium $2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{OH}^-$, in combination with solvation of the resulting hydronium ions. Electrical conductivity and electrolysis Pure water has a low electrical conductivity, which increases with the dissolution of a small amount of ionic material such as common salt. Liquid water can be split into the elements hydrogen and oxygen by passing an electric current through it—a process called electrolysis. The decomposition requires more energy input than the heat released by the inverse process (285.8 kJ/mol, or 15.9 MJ/kg).[61] Mechanical properties Liquid water can be assumed to be incompressible for most purposes: its compressibility ranges from 4.4 to 5.1 $\times 10^{-10}$ Pa^{−1} in ordinary conditions.[62] Even in oceans at 4 km depth, where the pressure is 400 atm, water suffers only a 1.8% decrease in volume.[63] The viscosity of water is about 10–3 Pa·s or 0.01 poise at 20 °C (68 °F), and the speed of sound in liquid water ranges between 1,400 and 1,540 meters per second (4,600 and 5,100 ft/s) depending on temperature. Sound travels long distances in water with little attenuation, especially at low frequencies (roughly 0.03 dB/m for 1 kHz), a property that is exploited by cetaceans and humans for communication and environmental sensing (sonar).[64] Reactivity Metallic elements which are more electropositive than hydrogen, particularly the alkali metals and alkaline earth metals such as lithium, sodium, calcium, potassium and cesium displace hydrogen from water, forming hydroxides and releasing hydrogen. At high temperatures, carbon reacts with steam to form carbon monoxide and hydrogen. On Earth Main articles: Hydrology and Water distribution on Earth Hydrology is the study of the movement, distribution, and quality of water throughout the Earth. The study of the distribution of water is hydrography. The study of the distribution and movement of groundwater is hydrogeology, of glaciers is glaciology, of inland waters is limnology and distribution of oceans is oceanography. Ecological processes with hydrology are in the focus of ecohydrology. The collective mass of water found on, under, and over the surface of a planet is called the hydrosphere. Earth's approximate water volume (the total water supply of the world) is 1.386 $\times 10^9$ cubic kilometers (3.33 $\times 10^8$ cubic miles).[4] Liquid water is found in bodies of water, such as an ocean, sea, lake, river, stream, canal, pond, or puddle. The majority of water on Earth is seawater. Water is also present in the atmosphere in solid, liquid, and vapor states. It also exists as groundwater in aquifers. Water is important in many geological processes. Groundwater is present in most rocks, and the pressure of this groundwater affects patterns of faulting. Water in the mantle is responsible for the melt that produces volcanoes at subduction zones. On the surface of the Earth, water is important in both chemical and physical weathering processes. Water, and to a lesser but still significant extent, ice, are also responsible for a large amount of sediment transport that occurs on the surface of the earth. Deposition of transported sediment forms many types of sedimentary rocks, which make up the geologic record of Earth history. Water cycle Main article: Water cycle Water cycle The water cycle (known scientifically as the hydrologic cycle) refers to the continuous exchange of water within the hydrosphere, between the atmosphere, soil water, surface water, groundwater, and plants. Water moves perpetually through each of these regions in the water cycle consisting of the following transfer processes: evaporation from oceans and other water bodies into the air and transpiration from land plants and animals into the air, precipitation, from water vapor condensing from the air and falling to the earth or ocean, runoff from the land usually reaching
the sea. Most water vapors found mostly in the ocean return to it, but winds carry water vapor over land at the same rate as runoff into the sea, about 47 Tt per year whilst evaporation and transpiration happening in land masses also contribute another 72 Tt per year. Precipitation, at a rate of 119 Tt per year over land, has several forms: most commonly rain, snow, and hail, with some contribution from fog and dew.[65] Dew is small drops of water that are condensed when a high density of water vapor meets a cool surface. Dew usually forms in the morning when the temperature is the lowest, just before sunrise and when the temperature of the earth's surface starts to increase.[66] Condensed water in the air may also refract sunlight to produce rainbows. Water runoff often collects over watersheds flowing into rivers. A mathematical model used to simulate river or stream flow and calculate water quality parameters is a hydrological transport model. Some water is diverted to irrigation for agriculture. Rivers and seas offer opportunities for travel and commerce. Through erosion, runoff shapes the environment creating river valleys and deltas which provide rich soil and level ground for the establishment of population centers. A flood occurs when an area of land, usually low-lying, is covered with water which occurs when a river overflows its banks or a storm surge happens. On the other hand, drought is an extended period of months or years when a region notes a deficiency in its water supply. This occurs when a region receives consistently below average precipitation either due to its topography or due to its location in terms of latitude. Water resource Main article: Water resource Water occurs as both "stocks" and "flows". Water can be stored as lakes, water vapor, ground water or aquifers, and ice and snow. Of the total volume of globe's water, an estimated 69 percent is stored in glaciers and permanent snow cover; 30 percent is in groundwater, and the remaining 1 percent in lakes, rivers, the atmosphere, and biota.[67] The length of time water remains in storage is highly variable: some aquifers consist of water stores over thousands of years, but lake volumes may fluctuate on a seasonal basis, decreasing during dry periods and increasing during wet ones. A substantial fraction of the water supply for some regions consists of water extracted from water stored in stocks, and when withdrawals exceed recharge, stocks decrease. By some estimates, as much as 30 percent of total water used for irrigation comes from unsustainable withdrawals of groundwater, causing groundwater depletion.[68] Seawater and tides Main articles: Seawater and Tides Seawater contains about 3.5% sodium chloride on average, plus smaller amounts of other substances. The physical properties of seawater differ from fresh water in some important respects. It freezes at a lower temperature (about −1.9 °C (28.6 °F)) and its density increases with decreasing temperature to the freezing point, instead of reaching maximum density at a temperature above freezing. The salinity of water in major seas varies from about 0.7% in the Baltic Sea to 4.0% in the Red Sea. (The Dead Sea, known for its ultra-high salinity levels of between 30 and 40%, is really a salt lake.) Tides are the cyclic rising and falling of local sea levels caused by the tidal forces of the Moon and the Sun acting on the oceans. Tides cause changes in the depth of the marine and estuarine water bodies and produce oscillating currents known as tidal streams. The changing tide produced at a given location is the result of the changing positions of the Moon and Sun relative to the Earth coupled with the effects of Earth rotation and the local bathymetry. The strip of seashore that is submerged at high tide and exposed at low tide, the intertidal zone, is an important ecological product of ocean tides. The Bay of Fundy at high tide and low tide High tide Low tide Effects on life Overview of photosynthesis (green) and respiration (red) From a biological standpoint, water has many distinct functions. It is essential for the survival of most organisms. It is the universal solvent of life. It carries out its role by allowing organic compounds to react in ways that ultimately allow replication. All known forms of life depend on water. Water is vital both as a solvent in which many of the body's solutes dissolve and as an essential part of many metabolic processes within the body. Metabolism is the sum total of anabolism and catabolism. In anabolism, water is removed from molecules (through energy requiring enzymatic chemical reactions) in order to grow larger molecules (e.g., starches, triglycerides, and proteins for storage of fuels and information). In catabolism, water is used to break bonds in order to generate smaller molecules (e.g., glucose, fatty acids, and amino acids to be used for fuels for energy use or other purposes). Without water, these particular metabolic processes could not exist. Water is fundamental to photosynthesis and respiration. Photosynthetic cells use the sun's energy to split off water's hydrogen from oxygen.[69] Hydrogen is combined with CO₂ (absorbed from air or water) to form glucose and release oxygen.[citation needed] All living cells use such fuels and oxidize the hydrogen and carbon to capture the sun's energy and reform water and CO₂ in the process (cellular respiration). Water is also central to acid-base neutrality and enzyme function. An acid, a hydrogen ion (H⁺, that is, a proton) donor, can be neutralized by a base, a proton acceptor such as a hydroxide ion (OH[−]) to form water. Water is considered to be neutral, with a pH (the negative log of the hydrogen ion concentration) of 7. Acids have pH values less than 7 while bases have values greater than 7. Aquatic life forms Further information: Hydrobiology, Marine life, and Aquatic plant Earth surface waters are filled with life. The earliest life forms appeared in water; nearly all fish live exclusively in water, and there are many types of marine mammals, such as dolphins and whales. Some kinds of animals, such as amphibians, spend portions of their lives in water and portions on land. Plants such as kelp and algae grow in the water and are the basis for some underwater ecosystems. Plankton is generally the foundation of the ocean food web. Aquatic vertebrates must obtain oxygen to survive, and they do so in various ways. Fish have gills instead of lungs, although some species of fish, such as the lungfish, have both. Marine mammals, such as dolphins, whales, otters, and seals, need to surface periodically to breathe air. Some amphibians are able to absorb oxygen through their skin. Invertebrates exhibit a wide range of modifications to survive in poorly oxygenated waters including breathing tubes (see insect and mollusc siphons) and gills (Carcinus). However, as invertebrate life evolved in an aquatic habitat, most have little or no specialization for respiration in water. Some of the biodiversity of a coral reef Some marine diatoms – a key phytoplankton group Squat lobster and Alvinocarididae shrimp at the Von Damm hydrothermal field survive by altered water chemistry Effects on human civilization This section needs additional citations for verification. Please help improve this article by adding citations to reliable sources. Unsourced material may be challenged and removed. (May 2018) (Learn how and when to remove this template message) Water founded Civilization has historically flourished around rivers and major waterways; Mesopotamia, the so-called cradle of civilization, was situated between the major rivers Tigris and Euphrates; the ancient society of the Egyptians depended entirely upon the Nile. The early Indus Valley civilization (c. 3300 BCE to 1300 BCE) developed along the Indus River and tributaries that flowed out of the Himalayas. Rome was also founded on the banks of the Italian river Tiber. Large metropolises like Rotterdam, London, Montreal, Paris, New York City, Buenos Aires, Shanghai, Tokyo, Chicago, and Hong Kong owe their success in part to their easy accessibility via water and the resultant expansion of trade. Islands with safe water ports, like Singapore, have flourished for the same reason. In places such as North Africa and the Middle East, where water is more scarce, access to clean drinking water was and is a major factor in human development. Health and pollution An environmental science program – a student from Iowa State University sampling water Water fit for human consumption is called drinking water or potable water. Water that is not potable may be made potable by filtration or distillation, or by a range of other methods. More than 660 million people do not have access to safe drinking water.[70][71] Water that is not fit for drinking but is not harmful to humans when used for swimming or bathing is called by various names other than potable or drinking water, and is sometimes called safe water, or "safe for bathing". Chlorine is a skin and mucous membrane irritant that is used to make water safe for bathing or drinking. Its use is highly technical and is usually monitored by government regulations (typically 1 part per million (ppm) for drinking water, and 1–2 ppm of chlorine not yet reacted with impurities for bathing water). Water for bathing may be maintained in satisfactory microbiological condition using chemical disinfectants such as chlorine or ozone or by the use of ultraviolet light. Water reclamation is the process of converting wastewater (most commonly sewage, also called municipal wastewater) into water that can be reused for other purposes. Freshwater is a renewable resource, recirculated by the natural hydrologic cycle, but pressures over access to it result from the naturally uneven distribution in space and time, growing economic demands by agriculture and industry, and rising populations. Currently, nearly a billion people around the world
lack access to safe, affordable water. In 2000, the United Nations established the Millennium Development Goals for water to halve by 2015 the proportion of people worldwide without access to safe water and sanitation. Progress toward that goal was uneven, and in 2015 the UN committed to the Sustainable Development Goals of achieving universal access to safe and affordable water and sanitation by 2030. Poor water quality and bad sanitation are deadly; some five million deaths a year are caused by water-related diseases. The World Health Organization estimates that safe water could prevent 1.4 million child deaths from diarrhoea each year.[72] In developing countries, 90% of all municipal wastewater still goes untreated into local rivers and streams.[73] Some 50 countries, with roughly a third of the world's population, also suffer from medium or high water scarcity and 17 of these extract more water annually than is recharged through their natural water cycles.[74] The strain not only affects surface freshwater bodies like rivers and lakes, but it also degrades groundwater resources. 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