Reading Material
Class X (2026-27)
Science 086

Unit 1
Periodic Classification of Elements

In Class IX we have learnt that matter around us is present in the form of elements, compounds and mixtures and the elements contain atoms of only one type. Do you know how many elements are known till date? At present, 118 elements are known to us. All these have different properties. Out of these 118, only 94 are naturally occurring. As different elements were being discovered, scientists gathered more and more information about the properties of these elements. They found it difficult to organise all that was known about the elements. They started looking for some pattern in their properties, on the basis of which they could study such a large number of elements with ease.

1.1 Making Order Out Of Chaos–Early Attempts at the Classification of Elements

We have been learning how various things or living beings can be classified on the basis of their properties. Even in other situations, we come across instances of organisation based on some properties. For example, in a shop, soaps are kept together at one place while biscuits are kept together elsewhere. Even among soaps, bathing soaps are stacked separately from washing soaps. Similarly, scientists made several attempts to classify elements according to their properties and obtain an orderly arrangement out of chaos.

The earliest attempt to classify the elements resulted in grouping the then known elements as metals and non-metals. Later further classifications were tried out as our knowledge of elements and their properties increased.

Figure 5.1
Imagine you and your friends have found pieces of an old map to reach a treasure. Would it be easy or chaotic to find the way to the treasure? Similar chaos was there in Chemistry as elements were known but there was no clue as to how to classify and study about them.

1.1.1 Döbereiner’s Triads

In the year 1817, Johann Wolfgang Döbereiner, a German chemist, tried to arrange the elements with similar properties into groups. He identified some groups having three elements each. So he called these groups ‘triads’. Döbereiner showed that when the three elements in a triad were written in the order of increasing atomic masses; the atomic mass of the middle element was roughly the average of the atomic masses of the other two elements.

For example, take the triad consisting of lithium (Li), sodium (Na) and potassium (K) with the respective atomic masses 6.9, 23.0 and 39.0. What is the average of the atomic masses of Li and K? How does this compare with the atomic mass of Na?

Given below (Table 1) are some groups of three elements. These elements are arranged downwards in order of increasing atomic masses. Can you find out which of these groups form Döbereiner triads?

Table 1

Group A elements	Atomic Mass	Group B elements	Atomic Mass	Group C elements	Atomic Mass
N	14.0	Ca	40.1	Cl	35.5
P	31.0	Sr	87.6	Br	79.9
As	74.9	Ba	137.3	I	126.9

You will find that groups B and C form Döbereiner triads. Döbereiner could identify only three triads from the elements known at that time (Table 2). Hence, this system of classification into triads was not found to be useful.

Johann Wolfgang Döbereiner (1780-1849)

Johann Wolfgang Döbereiner studied as a pharmacist at Münchberg in Germany, and then studied chemistry at Strasbourg. Eventually he became a professor of chemistry and pharmacy at the University of Jena. Döbereiner made the first observations on platinum as a catalyst and discovered similar triads of elements which led to the development of the Periodic Table of elements.

Table 2 Döbereiner triads

Li	Ca	Cl
Na	Sr	Br
K	Ba	I

1.1.2 Newlands' Law of Octaves

The attempts of Döbereiner encouraged other chemists to correlate the properties of elements with their atomic masses. In 1866, John Newlands, an English scientist, arranged the then known elements in the order of increasing atomic masses. He started with the element having the lowest atomic mass (hydrogen) and ended at thorium which was the 56th element. He found that every eighth element had properties similar to that of the first. He compared this to the octaves found in music. Therefore, he called it the 'Law of Octaves'. It is known as 'Newlands' Law of Octaves'. In Newlands' Octaves, the properties of lithium and sodium were found to be the same. Sodium is the eighth element after lithium. Similarly, beryllium and magnesium resemble each other. A part of the original form of Newlands' Octaves is given in Table 3.

Table 3: Newlands' Octaves

Notes of music:	sa (do)	re (re)	ga (mi)	ma (fa)	pa (so)	da (la)	ni (ti)
	H	Li	Be	B	C	N	O
	F	Na	Mg	Al	Si	P	S
	Cl	K	Ca	Cr	Ti	Mn	Fe
	Co and Ni	Cu	Zn	Y	In	As	Se
	Br	Rb	Sr	Ce and La	Zr	—	—

Do You Know?

Are you familiar with musical notes?

In the Indian system of music, there are seven musical notes in a scale – *sa, re, ga, ma, pa, da, ni*. In the west, they use the notations – *do, re, mi, fa, so, la, ti*. The notes in a scale are separated by whole and half-step frequency intervals of tones and semitones. A musician uses these notes for composing the music of a song. Naturally, there must be some repetition of notes. Every eighth note is similar to the first one and it is the first note of the next scale.

- It was found that the Law of Octaves was applicable only upto calcium, as after calcium every eighth element did not possess properties similar to that of the first.
- It was assumed by Newlands that only 56 elements existed in nature and no more elements would be discovered in the future. But, later on, several new elements were discovered, whose properties did not fit into the Law of Octaves.
- In order to fit elements into his Table, Newlands adjusted two elements in the same slot, but also put some unlike elements under the same note. Can you find examples of these from Table 3? Note that cobalt and nickel are in the same slot and these are placed in the same column as fluorine, chlorine and bromine which have very different properties than these elements. Iron, which resembles cobalt and nickel in properties, has been placed far away from these elements.

Thus, Newlands' Law of Octaves worked well with lighter elements only.

Questions

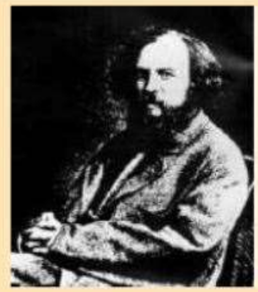
1. Did Döbereiner's triads also exist in the columns of Newlands' Octaves? Compare and find out.
2. What were the limitations of Döbereiner's classification?
3. What were the limitations of Newlands' Law of Octaves?

1.2 Making Order Out of Chaos – Mendeléev's Periodic Table

Even after the rejection of Newlands' Law of Octaves, many scientists continued to search for a pattern that correlated the properties of elements with their atomic masses.

The main credit for classifying elements goes to Dmitri Ivanovich Mendeléev, a Russian chemist. He was the most important contributor to the early development of a Periodic Table of elements wherein the elements were arranged on the basis of their fundamental property, the atomic mass, and also on the similarity of chemical properties.

Dmitri Ivanovich Mendeléev (1834-1907)



Dmitri Ivanovich Mendeléev was born in Tobolsk in Western Siberia, Russia on 8 February 1834. After his early education, Mendeléev could join a university only due to the efforts of his mother. Dedicating his investigations to his mother he wrote, "She instructed with example, corrected with love and travelled with me to places spending her last resources and strength. She knew that with the aid of science without violence, with love but firmness, all superstitions, untruth and errors can be removed." The arrangement of elements he proposed is called Mendeléev's Periodic Table. The Periodic Table proved to be the unifying principle in chemistry. It was the motivation for the discovery of some new elements.

When Mendeléev started his work, 63 elements were known. He examined the relationship between the atomic masses of the elements and their physical and chemical properties. Among chemical properties, Mendeléev concentrated on the compounds formed by elements with oxygen and hydrogen. He selected hydrogen and oxygen as they are very reactive and formed compounds with most elements. The formulae of the hydrides and oxides formed by an element were treated as one of the basic properties of an element for its classification. He then took 63 cards and on each card he wrote down the properties of one element. He sorted out the elements with similar properties and pinned the cards together on a wall. He observed that most of the elements got a place in a Periodic Table and were arranged in the order of their increasing atomic masses. It was also observed that there occurs a periodic recurrence of elements with similar physical and chemical properties. On this basis, Mendeléev formulated a Periodic Law, which states that 'the properties of elements are the periodic function of their atomic masses'.

Mendeléev's Periodic Table contains vertical columns called 'groups' and horizontal rows called 'periods' (Table 4).

Table 4: Mendeléev's Periodic Table

Group	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Oxide Hydride	R_2O RH	RO RH_2	R_2O_3 RH_3	RO_2 RH_4	R_2O_5 RH_3	RO_3 RH_2	R_2O_7 RH	RO_4
Periods ↓	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	A B	Transition series
1	H 1.008							
2	Li 6.939	Be 9.012	B 10.81	C 12.011	N 14.007	O 15.999	F 18.998	
3	Na 22.99	Mg 24.31	Al 29.98	Si 28.09	P 30.974	S 32.06	Cl 35.453	
4 First series: Second series:	K 39.102 Cu 63.54	Ca 40.08 Zn 65.37	Sc 44.96 Ga 69.72	Ti 47.90 Ge 72.59	V 50.94 As 74.92	Cr 50.20 Se 78.96	Mn 54.94 Br 79.909	Fe 55.85 Co 58.93 Ni 58.71
5 First series: Second series:	Rb 85.47 Ag 107.87	Sr 87.62 Cd 112.40	Y 88.91 In 114.82	Zr 91.22 Sn 118.69	Nb 92.91 Sb 121.75	Mo 95.94 Te 127.60	Tc 99 I 126.90	Ru 101.07 Rh 102.91 Pd 106.4
6 First series: Second series:	Cs 132.90 Au 196.97	Ba 137.34 Hg 200.59	La 138.91 Tl 204.37	Hf 178.49 Pb 207.19	Ta 180.95 Bi 208.98	W 183.85		Os 190.2 Ir 192.2 Pt 195.09

Mendeléev's Periodic Table was published in a German journal in 1872. In the formula for oxides and hydrides at the top of the columns, the letter 'R' is used to represent any of the elements in the group. Note the way formulae are written. For example, the hydride of carbon, CH_4, is written as RH_4 and the oxide CO_2, as RO_2.

1.2.1 Achievements of Mendeléev's Periodic Table

While developing the Periodic Table, there were a few instances where Mendeléev had to place an element with a slightly greater atomic mass before an element with a slightly lower atomic mass. The sequence was inverted so that elements with similar properties could be grouped together. For example, cobalt (atomic mass 58.9) appeared before nickel (atomic mass 58.7). Looking at Table 4, can you find out one more such anomaly?

Further, Mendeléev left some gaps in his Periodic Table. Instead of looking upon these gaps as defects, Mendeléev boldly predicted the existence of some elements that had not been discovered at that time. Mendeléev named them by prefixing a Sanskrit numeral, Eka (one) to the name of preceding element in the same group. For instance, scandium, gallium and germanium, discovered later, have properties similar to Eka–boron, Eka–aluminium and Eka–silicon, respectively. The properties of Eka–Aluminium predicted by Mendeléev and those of the element, gallium which was discovered later and replaced Ekaaluminium, are listed as follows (Table 5).

Table 5 : Properties of eka–aluminium and gallium

Property	*Eka*-aluminium	Gallium
Atomic Mass	68	69.7
Formula of Oxide	E_2O_3	Ga_2O_3
Formula of Chloride	ECl_3	$GaCl_3$

Compounds of H	Compounds of Na
HCl	NaCl
H_2O	Na_2O
H_2S	Na_2S

This provided convincing evidence for both the correctness and usefulness of Mendeléev's Periodic Table. Further, it was the extraordinary success of Mendeléev's prediction that led chemists not only to accept his Periodic Table but also recognise him, as the originator of the concept on which it is based. Noble gases like helium (He), neon (Ne) and argon (Ar) have been mentioned in many a context before this. These gases were discovered very late because they are very inert and present in extremely low concentrations in our atmosphere. One of the strengths of Mendeléev's Periodic Table was that, when these gases were discovered, they could be placed in a new group without disturbing the existing order.

1.2.2 Limitations of Mendeléev's Classification

Electronic configuration of hydrogen resembles that of alkali metals. Like alkali metals, hydrogen combines with halogens, oxygen and sulphur to form compounds having similar formulae, as shown in the examples here.

On the other hand, just like halogens, hydrogen also exists as diatomic molecules and it combines with metals and non-metals to form covalent compounds.

Activity 1

- Looking at its resemblance to alkali metals and the halogen family, try to assign hydrogen a correct position in Mendeléev's Periodic Table.
- To which group and period should hydrogen be assigned?

Certainly, no fixed position can be given to hydrogen in the Periodic Table. This was the first limitation of Mendeléev's Periodic Table. He could not assign a correct position to hydrogen in his Table.

Isotopes were discovered long after Mendeléev had proposed his periodic classification of elements. Let us recall that isotopes of an element have similar chemical properties, but different atomic masses.

Activity 2

- Consider the isotopes of chlorine, Cl-35 and Cl-37.
- Would you place them in different slots because their atomic masses are different?
- Or would you place them in the same position because their chemical properties are the same?

Thus, isotopes of all elements posed a challenge to Mendeleev's Periodic Law. Another problem was that the atomic masses do not increase in a regular manner in going from one element to the next. So it was not possible to predict how many elements could be discovered between two elements — especially when we consider the heavier elements.

Questions

1. Use Mendeléev's Periodic Table to predict the formulae for the oxides of the following elements:
   K, C, Al, Si, Ba.
2. Besides gallium, which other elements have since been discovered that were left by Mendeléev in his Periodic Table? (any two)
3. What were the criteria used by Mendeléev in creating his Periodic Table?
4. Why do you think the noble gases are placed in a separate group?

1.3 Making Order Out of Chaos – The Modern Periodic Table

In 1913, Henry Moseley showed that the atomic number (Symbolised as Z) of an element is a more fundamental property than its atomic mass as described below. Accordingly, Mendeléev's Periodic Law was modified and atomic number was adopted as the basis of Modern Periodic Table and the Modern

Periodic Law can be stated as follows:

'Properties of elements are a periodic function of their atomic number.'

Let us recall that the atomic number gives us the number of protons in the nucleus of an atom and this number increases by one in going from one element to the next. Elements, when arranged in order of increasing atomic number Z, lead us to the classification known as the Modern Periodic Table (Table 6). Prediction of properties of elements could be made with more precision when elements were arranged on the basis of increasing atomic number.

Activity 3

- How were the positions of cobalt and nickel resolved in the Modern Periodic Table?
- How were the positions of isotopes of various elements decided in the Modern Periodic Table?
- Is it possible to have an element with atomic number 1.5 placed between hydrogen and helium?
- Where do you think should hydrogen be placed in the Modern Periodic Table?

Metals | Metalloids | Non-metals

The zigzag line separates the metals from the non-metals.

GROUP NUMBER

PERIODS		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	1 H Hydrogen 1.0																	2 He Helium 4.0
2	3 Li Lithium 6.9	4 Be Beryllium 9.0											5 B Boron 10.8	6 C Carbon 12.0	7 N Nitrogen 14.0	8 O Oxygen 16.0	9 F Fluorine 19.0	10 Ne Neon 20.2
3	11 Na Sodium 23.0	12 Mg Magnesium 24.3											13 Al Aluminium 27.0	14 Si Silicon 28.1	15 P Phosphorus 31.0	16 S Sulphur 32.1	17 Cl Chlorine 35.5	18 Ar Argon 39.9
4	19 K Potassium 39.1	20 Ca Calcium 40.1	21 Sc Scandium 45.0	22 Ti Titanium 47.8	23 V Vanadium 50.9	24 Cr Chromium 52.0	25 Mn Manganese 54.9	26 Fe Iron 55.9	27 Co Cobalt 58.9	28 Ni Nickel 58.7	29 Cu Copper 63.5	30 Zn Zinc 65.4	31 Ga Gallium 69.7	32 Ge Germanium 72.6	33 As Arsenic 74.9	34 Se Selenium 79.0	35 Br Bromine 79.9	36 Kr Krypton 83.8
5	37 Rb Rubidium 85.5	38 Sr Strontium 87.6	39 Y Yttrium 88.9	40 Zr Zirconium 91.2	41 Nb Niobium 92.9	42 Mo Molybdenum 95.9	43 Tc Technetium (99)	44 Ru Ruthenium 101.1	45 Rh Rhodium 102.3	46 Pd Palladium 106.4	47 Ag Silver 107.9	48 Cd Cadmium 112.4	49 In Indium 114.8	50 Sn Tin 118.7	51 Sb Antimony 121.8	52 Te Tellurium 127.6	53 I Iodine 126.9	54 Xe Xenon 131.3
6	55 Cs Caesium 132.9	56 Ba Barium 137.3	57 La* Lanthanum 138.9	72 Hf Hafnium 178.5	73 Ta Tantalum 181.0	74 W Tungsten 183.9	75 Re Rhenium 186.2	76 Os Osmium 190.2	77 Ir Iridium 192. 2	78 Pt Platinum 195.1	79 Au Gold 197.0	80 Hg Mercury 200.6	81 Tl Thallium 204.4	82 Pb Lead 207.2	83 Bi Bismuth 209.0	84 Po Polonium (210)	85 At Astatine (210)	86 Rn Radon (222)
7	87 Fr Francium (223)	88 Ra Radium (226)	89 Ac** Actinium (227)	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Cn	113 Uut	114 Fl	115 Uup	116 Lv	117 Uus	118 Uuo

* Lanthanoides	58 Ce Cerium 140.1	59 Pr Praseodymium 140.9	60 Nd Neodymium 144.2	61 Pm Promethium (145)	62 Sm Samarium 150.4	63 Eu Europium 152.0	64 Gd Gadolinium 157.3	65 Tb Terbium 158.9	66 Dy Dysprosium 162.5	67 Ho Holmium 164.9	68 Er Erbium 167.3	69 Tm Thulium 168.9	70 Yb Ytterbium 173.0	71 Lu Lutetium 175.5
** Actinoides	90 Th Thorium 232.0	91 Pa Protactinium (231)	92 U Uranium 238.1	93 Np Neptunium (237)	94 Pu Plutonium (242)	95 Am Americium (243)	96 Cm Curium (247)	97 Bk Berkelium (245)	98 Cf Californium (251)	99 Es Einsteinium (254)	100 Fm Fermium (253)	101 Md Mendelevium (256)	102 No Nobelium (254)	103 Lr Lawrencium (257)

Table 6: Modern Periodic Table

As we can see, the Modern Periodic Table takes care of three limitations of Mendléev's Periodic Table. The anomalous position of hydrogen can be discussed after we see what are the bases on which the position of an element in the Modern Periodic Table depends.

1.3.1 Position of Elements in the Modern Periodic Table

The Modern Periodic Table has 18 vertical columns known as 'groups' and 7 horizontal rows known as 'periods'. Let us see what decides the placing of an element in a certain group and period.

Activity 4

- Look at the group 1 of the Modern Periodic Table, and name the elements present in it.
- Write down the electronic configuration of the first three elements of group 1.
- What similarity do you find in their electronic configurations?
- How many valence electrons are present in these three elements?

You will find that all these elements contain the same number of valence electrons. Similarly, you will find that the elements present in any one group have the same number of valence electrons. For example, elements fluorine (F) and chlorine (Cl), belong to group 17, how many electrons do fluorine and chlorine have in their outermost shells? Hence, we can say that groups in the Periodic Table signify an identical outershell electronic configuration. On the other hand, the number of shells increases as we go down the group.

There is an anomaly when it comes to the position of hydrogen because it can be placed either in group 1 or group 17 in the first period.

Can you say why?

Activity 5

- If you look at the long form of the Periodic Table, you will find that the elements Li, Be, B, C, N, O, F, and Ne are present in the second period. Write down their electronic configuration.
- Do these elements also contain the same number of valence electrons?
- Do they contain the same number of shells?

You will find that these elements do not have the same number of valence electrons, but they contain the same number of shells. You also observe that the number of valence shell electrons increases by one unit, as the atomic number increases by one unit on moving from left to right in a period.

Or we can say that atoms of different elements with the same number of occupied shells are placed in the same period. Na, Mg, Al, Si, P, S, Cl and Ar belong to the third period of the Modern Periodic Table, since the electrons in the atoms of these elements are filled in K, L and M shells. Write the electronic configuration of these elements and confirm the above statement. Each period marks a new electronic shell getting filled.

How many elements are there in the first, second, third and fourth periods?

We can explain the number of elements in these periods based on how electrons are filled into various shells. You will study the details of this in higher classes. Recall that the maximum number of electrons that can be accommodated in a shell depends on the formula $2n^2$ where 'n' is the number of the given shell from the nucleus.

For example,
K Shell – $2 \times (1)^2 = 2$, hence the first period has 2 elements.
L Shell – $2 \times (2)^2 = 8$, hence the second period has 8 elements.
M Shell – $2 \times (3)^2 = 18$, but the outermost shell can have only 8 electrons, so the third period also has only 8 elements.

The position of an element in the Periodic Table tells us about its chemical reactivity. As you have learnt, the valence electrons determine the kind and number of bonds formed by an element. Can you now say why Mendeléev's choice of formulae of compounds as the basis for deciding the position of an element in his Table was a good one? How would this lead to elements with similar chemical properties being placed in the same group?

1.3.2 Trends in the Modern Periodic Table

Valency: As you know, the valency of an element is determined by the number of valence electrons present in the outermost shell of its atom.

Activity 6

- How do you calculate the valency of an element from its electronic configuration?
- What is the valency of magnesium with atomic number 12 and sulphur with atomic number 16?
- Similarly find out the valencies of the first twenty elements.
- How does the valency vary in a period on going from left to right?
- How does the valency vary in going down a group?

Atomic size: The term atomic size refers to the radius of an atom. The atomic size may be visualised as the distance between the centre of the nucleus and the outermost shell of an isolated atom. The atomic radius of hydrogen atom is 37 pm (picometre, 1 pm = 10^{-12}m).

Let us study the variation of atomic size in a group and in a period.

Activity 7

- Atomic radii of the elements of the second period are given below:

Period II elements:	B	Be	O	N	Li	C
Atomic radius (pm):	88	111	66	74	152	77

- Arrange them in decreasing order of their atomic radii.
- Are the elements now arranged in the pattern of a period in the Periodic Table?
- Which elements have the largest and the smallest atoms?
- How does the atomic radius change as you go from left to right in a period?

You will see that the atomic radius decreases in moving from left to right along a period. This is due to an increase in nuclear charge which tends to pull the electrons closer to the nucleus and reduces the size of the atom.

Activity 8

- Study the variation in the atomic radii of first group elements given below and arrange them in an increasing order.

Group 1 Elements:	Na	Li	Rb	Cs	K
Atomic Radius (pm):	186	152	244	262	231

- Name the elements which have the smallest and the largest atoms.
- How does the atomic size vary as you go down a group?

You will see that the atomic size increases down the group. This is because new shells are being added as we go down the group. This increases the distance between the outermost electrons and the nucleus so that the atomic size increases in spite of the increase in nuclear charge.

Metallic and Non-metallic Properties

Activity 9

- Examine elements of the third period and classify them as metals and non-metals.
- On which side of the Periodic Table do you find the metals?
- On which side of the Periodic Table do you find the non-metals?

As we can see, the metals like Na and Mg are towards the left-hand side of the Periodic Table while the non-metals like sulphur and chlorine are found on the right-hand side. In the middle, we have silicon, which is classified as a semi-metal or metalloid because it exhibits some properties of both metals and non-metals.

In the Modern Periodic Table, a zig-zag line separates metals from non-metals. The borderline elements – boron, silicon, germanium, arsenic, antimony, tellurium and polonium – are intermediate in properties and are called metalloids or semi-metals.

As you have seen in Metals and Non-Metals, metals tend to lose electrons while forming bonds, that is, they are electropositive in nature.

Activity 10

- How do you think the tendency to lose electrons will change in a group?
- How will this tendency change in a period?

As the effective nuclear charge acting on the valence shell electrons increases across a period, the tendency to lose electrons will decrease. Down the group, the effective nuclear charge experienced by valence electrons is decreasing because the outermost electrons are farther away from the nucleus. Therefore, these can be lost easily. Hence metallic character decreases across a period and increases down a group.

Non-metals, on the other hand, are electronegative. They tend to form bonds by gaining electrons. Let us learn about the variation of this property.

Activity 11

- How would the tendency to gain electrons change as you go from left to right across a period?
- How would the tendency to gain electrons change as you go down a group?

As the trends in the electronegativity show, non-metals are found on the right-hand side of the Periodic Table towards the top.

These trends also help us to predict the nature of oxides formed by the elements because it is known to you that the oxides of metals are basic and that of non-metals are acidic in general.

Questions

1. How could the Modern Periodic Table remove various anomalies of Mendeléev's Periodic Table?
2. Name two elements you would expect to show chemical reactions similar to magnesium. What is the basis for your choice?
3. Name
   (a) three elements that have a single electron in their outermost shells.

(b) two elements that have two electrons in their outermost shells.
(c) three elements with filled outermost shells.

4. (a) Lithium, sodium, potassium are all metals that react with water to liberate hydrogen gas. Is there any similarity in the atoms of these elements?
   (b) Helium is an unreactive gas and neon is a gas of extremely low reactivity. What, if anything, do their atoms have in common?
5. In the Modern Periodic Table, which are the metals among the first ten elements?
6. By considering their position in the Periodic Table, which one of the following elements would you expect to have maximum metallic characteristic?
   Ga Ge As Se Be

What you have learnt

- Elements are classified on the basis of similarities in their properties.
- Döbereiner grouped the elements into triads and Newlands gave the Law of Octaves.
- Mendeléev arranged the elements in increasing order of their atomic masses and according to their chemical properties.
- Mendeléev even predicted the existence of some yet to be discovered elements on the basis of gaps in his Periodic Table.
- Anomalies in arrangement of elements based on increasing atomic mass could be removed when the elements were arranged in order of increasing atomic number, a fundamental property of the element discovered by Moseley.
- Elements in the Modern Periodic Table are arranged in 18 vertical columns called groups and 7 horizontal rows called periods.
- Elements thus arranged show periodicity of properties including atomic size, valency or combining capacity and metallic and non-metallic character.

Exercise

1. Which of the following statements is not a correct statement about the trends when going from left to right across the periods of periodic Table.
   (a) The elements become less metallic in nature.
   (b) The number of valence electrons increases.
   (c) The atoms lose their electrons more easily.
   (d) The oxides become more acidic.
2. Element X forms a chloride with the formula XCl_2, which is a solid with a high melting point. X would most likely be in the same group of the Periodic Table as
   (a) Na (b) Mg (c) Al (d) Si
3. Which element has
   (a) two shells, both of which are completely filled with electrons?
   (b) the electronic configuration 2, 8, 2?
   (c) a total of three shells, with four electrons in its valence shell?
   (d) a total of two shells, with three electrons in its valence shell?
   (e) twice as many electrons in its second shell as in its first shell?
4.
   (a) What property do all elements in the same column of the Periodic Table as boron have in common?
   (b) What property do all elements in the same column of the Periodic Table as fluorine have in common?
5. An atom has electronic configuration 2, 8, 7.
   (a) What is the atomic number of this element?

(b) To which of the following elements would it be chemically similar? (Atomic numbers are given in parentheses.)

N(7) F(9) P(15) Ar(18)

6. The position of three elements A, B and C in the Periodic Table are shown below –

Group 16	*Group 17*
-	-
-	A
-	-
B	C

(a) State whether A is a metal or non-metal.
(b) State whether C is more reactive or less reactive than A.
(c) Will C be larger or smaller in size than B?
(d) Which type of ion, cation or anion, will be formed by element A?

7. Nitrogen (atomic number 7) and phosphorus (atomic number 15) belong to group 15 of the Periodic Table. Write the electronic configuration of these two elements. Which of these will be more electronegative? Why?
8. How does the electronic configuration of an atom relate to its position in the Modern Periodic Table?
9. In the Modern Periodic Table, calcium (atomic number 20) is surrounded by elements with atomic numbers 12, 19, 21 and 38. Which of these have physical and chemical properties resembling calcium?
10. Compare and contrast the arrangement of elements in Mendeléev's Periodic Table and the Modern Periodic Table.

Group Activity

I. We have discussed the major attempts made for classifying elements. Find out (from the internet or library) about other attempts to classify elements.

II. We have studied the long form of the Periodic Table. The Modern Periodic Law has been used to arrange elements in other ways too. Find out what are these.

Unit 2
Heredity and Evolution

2.1 Evolution

We have noted that there is an inbuilt tendency to variation during reproduction, both because of errors in DNA copying, and as a result of sexual reproduction. Let us now look at some consequences of this tendency.

2.1.1 An Illustration

Consider a group of twelve red beetles. They live, let us assume, in some bushes with green leaves. Their population will grow by sexual reproduction, and therefore, can generate variations. Let us imagine also that crows eat these beetles. The more beetles the crows eat; the fewer beetles are available to reproduce. Now, let us think about some different situations (Fig. 1) that can develop in this beetle population.

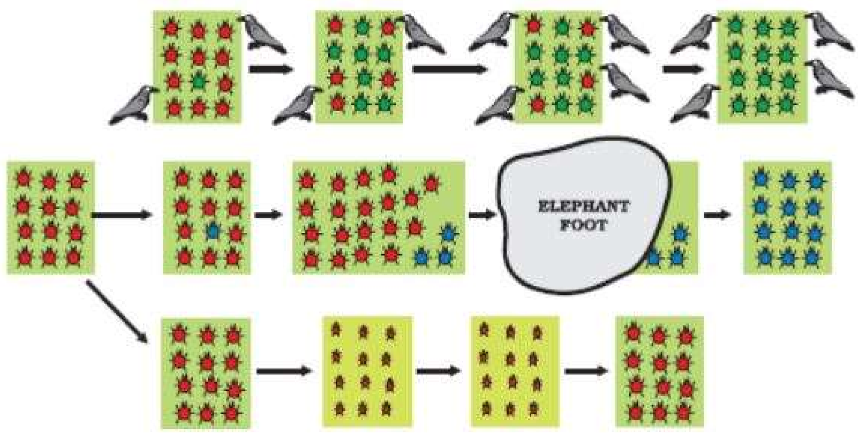


Fig. 1 *Variation in a population – inherited and otherwise*

In the first situation, a colour variation arises during reproduction, so that there is one beetle that is green in colour instead of red. This beetle, moreover, can pass the colour on to its progeny, so that all its progeny beetles are green. Crows cannot see green-coloured beetles on the green leaves of the bushes, and therefore cannot eat them. What happens then? The progeny of green beetles is not eaten, while the progeny of red beetles continues to be eaten. As a result, there are more and more green beetles than red ones in the beetle population.

In a second situation, again, a colour variation arises during reproduction, but now it results in a beetle that is blue in colour instead of red. This beetle can also pass the colour on to its progeny, so that all its progeny beetles are blue. Crows can see blue-coloured beetles in the green leaves of the bushes as well as they can see red ones, and therefore can eat them. What happens initially? In the population, as it expands, there are a few blue beetles, but most are red. But at this point, an elephant comes by, and stamps on the bushes where the beetles live. This kills most of the beetles. By chance, the few beetles that have survived are mostly blue. The beetle population slowly expands again, but now, the beetles in the population are mostly blue.

It is obvious that in both situations, what started out as a rare variation came to be a common characteristic in the population. In other words, the frequency of an inherited trait changed over generations. Since genes control traits, we can say that the frequency of certain genes in a population changed over generations. This is the essence of the idea of evolution.

But there are interesting differences, too, in the two situations. In the first case, the variation became common because it gave a survival advantage. In other words, it was naturally selected. We can see that the natural selection is exerted by the crows. The more crows there are, the more red beetles would be eaten, and the more the proportion of green beetles in the population would be. Thus, natural selection is directing evolution in the beetle population. It results in adaptations in the beetle population to fit their environment better.

In the second situation, the colour change gave no survival advantage. Instead, it was simply a matter of accidental survival of beetles of one colour that changed the common characteristic of the resultant population. The elephant would not have caused such major havoc in the beetle population if the beetle population had been very large. So, accidents in small populations can change the frequency of some genes in a population, even if they give no survival advantage. This is the notion of genetic drift, which provides diversity without any adaptations.

Now consider a third situation. In this, as the beetle population begins to expand, the bushes start suffering from a plant disease. The amount of leaf material for the beetles is reduced. The beetles are poorly nourished as a result. The average weight of adult beetles decreases from what it used to be when leaves were plentiful, but there is no genetic change occurring. After a few years and a few beetle generations of such scarcity, the plant disease is eliminated. There is a lot of leaf food. At this time, what would we expect the weight of the beetles to be?

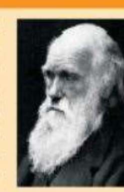
2.1.2 Acquired and Inherited Traits

We discussed the idea that the germ cells of sexually reproducing populations are made in specialised reproductive tissue. If the weight of the beetle is reduced because of starvation, that will not change the DNA of the germ cells. Therefore, low weight is not a trait that can be inherited by the progeny of a starving beetle. Therefore, even if some generations of beetles are low in weight because of starvation, that is not an example of evolution, since the change is not inherited over generations. Change in non-reproductive tissues cannot be passed on to the DNA of the germ cells. Therefore, the experiences of an individual during its lifetime cannot be passed on to its progeny, and cannot direct evolution.

Consider another example of how an individual cannot pass on to its progeny the experiences of its lifetime. If we breed a group of mice, all their progeny will have tails, as expected. Now, if the tails of these mice are removed by surgery in each generation, do these tailless mice have tailless progeny? The answer is no, and it makes sense because removal of the tail cannot change the genes of the germ cells of the mice.

This is the reason why the ideas of heredity and genetics that we have discussed earlier are so essential for understanding evolution. Even Charles Darwin, who came up with the idea of evolution of species by natural selection in the nineteenth century, could not work out the mechanism. It is ironic that he could have done so if he had seen the significance of the experiments his

Charles Robert Darwin (1809–1882)



Charles Darwin set out on a voyage when he was 22 years old. The five-year voyage took him to South America and the islands off its coast. The studies that he conducted during this voyage were to change forever the way we look at the variety of life on earth. Interestingly, after he got back to England, he never left its shores again. He stayed at home and conducted various experiments that led him to formulate his hypothesis that evolution took place due to natural selection. He did not know the mechanism whereby variations arose in the species. He would have been enlightened by Mendel's experiments, but these two gentlemen did not know of each other or their work!

We often associate Darwin solely with the theory of evolution. But he was an accomplished naturalist, and one of the studies he conducted was to do with the role of earthworms in soil fertility.

Austrian contemporary, Gregor Mendel, was doing. But then, Mendel too did not notice Darwin's work as relevant to his!

Do You Know? Origin of life on earth

Darwin's theory of evolution tells us how life evolved from simple to more complex forms and Mendel's experiments give us the mechanism for the inheritance of traits from one generation to the next. But neither tells us anything about how life began on earth in the first place. J.B.S. Haldane, a British scientist (who became a citizen of India later), suggested in 1929 that life must have developed from the simple inorganic molecules which were present on earth soon after it was formed. He speculated that the conditions on earth at that time, which were far from the conditions we see today, could have given rise to more complex organic molecules that were necessary for life. The first primitive organisms would arise from further chemical synthesis.

How did these organic molecules arise? An answer was suggested by the experiment conducted by Stanley L. Miller and Harold C. Urey in 1953. They assembled an atmosphere similar to that thought to exist on early earth (this had molecules like ammonia, methane and hydrogen sulphide, but no oxygen) over water. This was maintained at a temperature just below 100°C and sparks were passed through the mixture of gases to simulate lightning. At the end of a week, 15% of the carbon (from methane) had been converted to simple compounds of carbon including amino acids which make up protein molecules. So, can life arise afresh on earth even now?

Question

1. What are the different ways in which individuals with a particular trait may increase in a population?
2. Why are traits acquired during the life-time of an individual not inherited?
3. Why are the small numbers of surviving tigers a cause of worry from the point of view of genetics?

2.2 Speciation

What we have seen so far is micro-evolution. That means that the changes are small, even though they are significant. Also, they simply change the common characteristics of a particular species. But this does not properly explain how new species come into existence. That can be said to have happened only if this group of beetles we are thinking about, splits into two populations that cannot reproduce with each other. When this happens, they can be called two independent species. So, can we extend the reasoning we have used above to explain such speciation?

Consider what would happen if the bushes the beetles feed on are spread widely over a mountain range. The beetle population becomes very large as a result. But individual beetles feed mostly on a few nearby bushes throughout their lifetime. They do not travel far. So, in this huge population of beetles, there will be sub-populations in neighbourhoods. Since male and female beetles have to meet for reproduction to happen, most reproduction will be within these sub-populations. Of course, an occasional adventurous beetle might go from one site to another. Or a beetle is picked up by a crow from one site and dropped in the other site without being eaten. In either case, the migrant beetle will reproduce with the local population. This will result in the genes of the migrant beetle entering a new population. This kind of gene flow is bound to happen between populations that are partly, but not completely separated. If, however, between two such sub-populations a large river comes into existence, the two populations will be further isolated. The levels of gene flow between them will decrease even further.

Over generations, genetic drift will accumulate different changes in each sub-population. Also, natural selection may also operate differently in these different geographic locations. Thus, for example, in the territory of one sub-population, crows are eliminated by eagles. But this does not happen for the other sub-population, where crow numbers are very high. As a result, the green variation will not be selected at the first site, while it will be strongly selected at the second.

Together, the processes of genetic drift and natural selection will result in these two isolated sub-populations of beetles becoming more and more different from each other. Eventually, members of these two groups will be incapable of reproducing with each other even if they happen to meet.

There can be a number of ways by which this can happen. If the DNA changes are severe enough, such as a change in the number of chromosomes, eventually the germ cells of the two groups cannot fuse with each other. Or a new variation emerges in which green females will not mate with red males, but only with green males. This allows very strong natural selection for greenness. Now, if such a green female beetle meets a red male from the other group, her behaviour will ensure that there is no reproduction between them. Effectively, new species of beetles are being generated.

Questions

1. What factors could lead to the rise of a new species?
2. Will geographical isolation be a major factor in the speciation of a self-pollinating plant species? Why or why not?
3. Will geographical isolation be a major factor in the speciation of an organism that reproduces asexually? Why or why not?

2.3 Evolution and Classification

Based on these principles, we can work out the evolutionary relationships of the species we see around us. It is a sort of going backwards in time. We can do this by identifying hierarchies of characteristics between

species. In order to understand this process, let us think back to our discussion on the classification of organisms in Class IX.

Similarities among organisms will allow us to group them and then study the groups. For this, which characteristics decide more fundamental differences among organisms, and which ones decide less basic differences? What is meant by ‘characteristics’, anyway? Characteristics are details of appearance or behaviour; in other words, a particular form or a particular function. That we have four limbs is thus a characteristic. That plants can do photosynthesis is also a characteristic.

Some basic characteristics will be shared by most organisms. The cell is the basic unit of life in all organisms. The characteristics in the next level of classification would be shared by most, but not all organisms. A basic characteristic of cell design that differs among different organisms is whether the cell has a nucleus. Bacterial cells do not, while the cells of most other organisms do. Among organisms with nucleated cells, which ones are unicellular and which ones multi-cellular? That property marks a very basic difference in body design, because of specialisation of cell types and tissues. Among multi-cellular organisms, whether they can undertake photosynthesis or not will provide the next level of classification. Among the multi-cellular organisms that cannot do photosynthesis, whether the skeleton is inside the body or around the body will mark another fundamental design difference. We can see that, even in these few questions that we have asked, a hierarchy is developing that allows us to make classification groups.

The more characteristics two species will have in common, the more closely they are related. And the more closely they are related, the more recently they will have had a common ancestor. An example will help. A brother and a sister are closely related. They have common ancestors in the first generation before them, namely, their parents. A girl and her first cousin are also related, but less than the girl and her brother. This

is because cousins have common ancestors, their grandparents, in the second generation before them, not in the first one. We can now appreciate that classification of species is in fact a reflection of their evolutionary relationship.

We can thus build up small groups of species with recent common ancestors, then super-groups of these groups with more distant common ancestors, and so on. In theory, we can keep going backwards like this

until we come to the notion of a single species at the very beginning of evolutionary time. If that is the case, then at some point in the history of the earth, non-living material must have given rise to life. There are many theories about how this might have happened. It would be interesting to come up with theories of our own!

2.3.1 Tracing Evolutionary Relationships

When we try to follow evolutionary relationships, how do we identify characteristics as common? These characteristics in different organisms would be similar because they are inherited from a common ancestor.

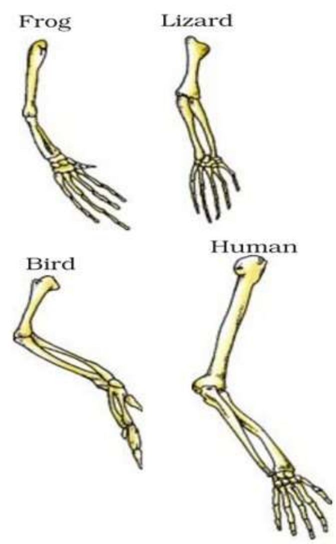


Fig. 2 Homologous organs

As an example, consider the fact that mammals have four limbs, as do birds, reptiles and amphibians (Fig. 2). The basic structure of the limbs is similar though it has been modified to perform different functions in various vertebrates. Such a homologous characteristic helps to identify an evolutionary relationship between apparently different species.

However, all similarities simply in organ shape are not necessarily because of common ancestry. What would we think about the wings of birds and bats, for example (Fig. 3)? Birds and bats have wings, but squirrels and lizards do not. So are birds and bats more closely related to each other than to squirrels or lizards?

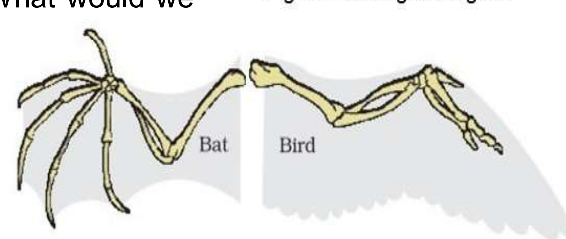


Fig 3 Analogous organs – The wing of a bat and the wing of a bird.

Before we jump to this conclusion, let us look at the wings of birds and bats more closely. When we do that, we find that the wings of bats are skin folds stretched mainly between elongated fingers. But the wings of birds are a feathery covering all along the arm. The designs of the two wings, their structure and components, are thus very different. They look similar because they have a common use for flying, but their origins are not common. This makes them analogous characteristics, rather than homologous characteristics. It would now be interesting to think about whether bird arms and bat arms should be considered homologous or analogous!

2.3.2 Fossils

Such studies of organ structure can be done not only on current species, but also on species that are no longer alive. How do we know that these extinct species ever existed? We know this from finding fossils (Fig. 4). What are fossils? Usually, when organisms die, their bodies will decompose and be lost. But every once in a while, the body or at least some parts may be in an environment that does not let it decompose completely. If a dead insect gets caught in hot mud, for example, it will not decompose quickly, and the mud will eventually harden and retain the impression of the body parts of the insect. All such preserved traces of living organisms are called fossils.

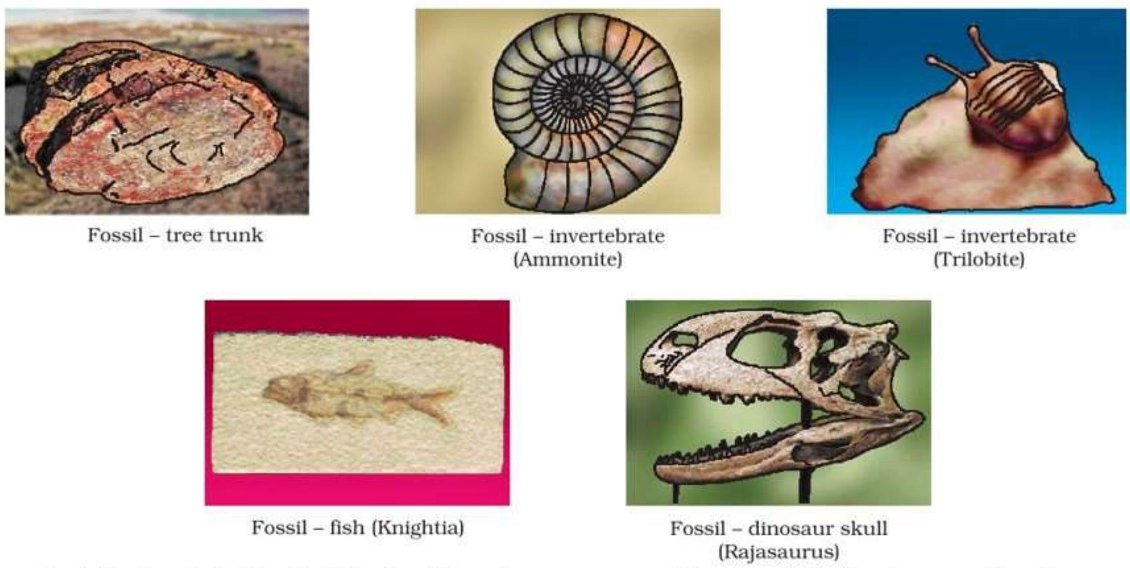
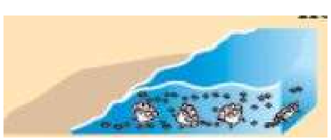


Fig. 4: Various kind of fossils. Note the different appearances and degrees of detail and preservation. The dinosaur skull fossil shown was found only a few years ago in the Narmada valley.

How do we know how old the fossils are? There are two components to this estimation. One is relative. If we dig into the earth and start finding fossils, it is reasonable to suppose that the fossils we find closer to the surface are more recent than the fossils we find in deeper layers. The second way of dating fossils is by detecting the ratios of different isotopes of the same element in the fossil material. It would be interesting to find out exactly how this method works!

How do fossils form layer by layer?

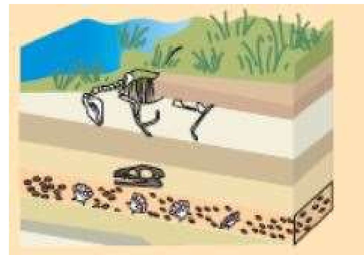


Let us start 100 million years ago. Some invertebrates on the sea-bed die, and are buried in the sand. More sand accumulates, and sandstone forms under pressure.

Millions of years later, dinosaurs living in the area die, and their bodies, too, are buried in mud. This mud is also compressed into rock, above the rock containing the earlier invertebrate fossils.

Again, millions of years later, the bodies of horse-like creatures dying in the area are fossilised in rocks above these earlier rocks.

Much later, by erosion or water flow wears away some of the rock and exposes the horse-like fossils. As we dig deeper, we will find older and older fossils.



2.3.3 Evolution by Stages

A question that arises here is – if complicated organs, such as the eye, are selected for the advantage they provide, how can they be generated by a single DNA change? Surely such complex organs will be created bit-by-bit over generations? But how can each intermediate change be selected for? There are a number of possible explanations. Even an intermediate stage (Fig. 5), such as a rudimentary eye, can be useful to some extent. This might be enough to give a fitness advantage. In fact, the eye – like the wing – seems to be a very popular adaptation. Insects have them, so does an octopus, and so do vertebrates. And the structure of the eye in each of these organisms is different – enough for them to have separate evolutionary origins.

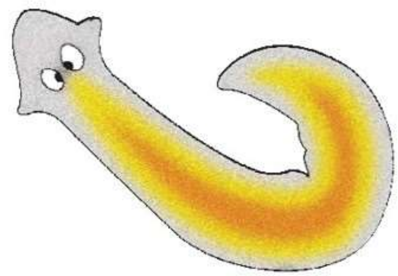
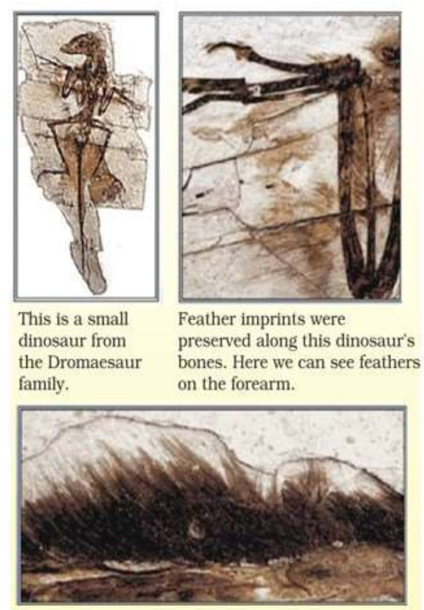


Fig. 5: A flatworm named Planaria has very simple 'eyes' that are really just eye-spots which detect light

Also, a change that is useful for one property to start with can become useful later for quite a different function. Feathers, for example, can start out as providing insulation in cold weather (Fig. 6). But later, they might become useful for flight. In fact, some dinosaurs had feathers, although they could not fly using the feathers. Birds seem to have later adapted the feathers to flight. This, of course, means that birds are very closely related to reptiles, since dinosaurs were reptiles!



This is a small dinosaur from the Dromaesaur family.

Feather imprints were preserved along this dinosaur's bones. Here we can see feathers on the forearm.

Here's a close-up of the fossil's head feathers.

This dinosaur could not fly, and it is possible that the evolution of feathers had nothing to do with flight.

Fig. 6: Dinosaurs and the evolution of feathers

It is all very well to say that very dissimilar looking structures evolve from a common ancestral design. It is true that analysis of the organ structure in fossils allows us to make estimates of how far back evolutionary relationships go. But those are guesses about what happened in history. Are there any current examples of such a process?

The wild cabbage plant is a good example. Humans have, over more than two thousand years, cultivated wild cabbage as a food plant, and generated different vegetables from it by selection (see Fig. 7). This is, of course, artificial selection rather than natural selection. So some farmers have wanted to select for very short distances between leaves, and have bred the cabbage we eat. Some have wanted to select for arrested flower development, and have bred broccoli, or for sterile flowers, and have made the cauliflower. Some have selected for swollen parts, and come up with kohlrabi. Some have simply looked for slightly larger leaves, and come up with a leafy vegetable called kale. Would we have thought that all these structures are descended from the same ancestor if we had not done it ourselves?

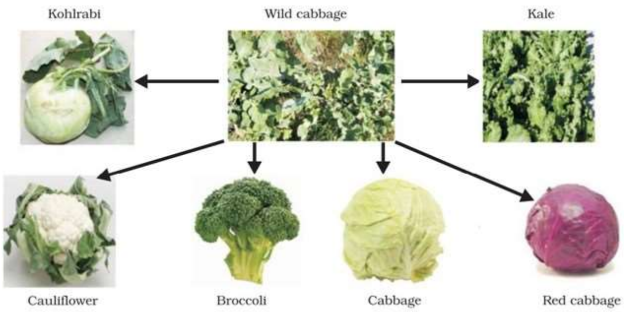


Fig. 7 Evolution of wild cabbage!

Another way of tracing evolutionary relationships depends on the original idea that we started with. That idea was that changes in DNA during reproduction are the basic events in evolution. If that is the case, then comparing the DNA of different species should give us a direct estimate of how much the DNA has changed during the formation of these species. This method is now extensively used to define evolutionary relationships.

Molecular phylogeny

We have been discussing how changes in the DNA during cell division would lead to changes in the proteins that are made from this new DNA. Another point that has been made is that these changes would accumulate from one generation to the next. Could this be used to trace the changes in DNA backwards in time and find out where each change diverged from the other? Molecular phylogeny does exactly this. This approach is based on the idea that organisms which are more distantly related will accumulate a greater number of differences in their DNA. Such studies trace the evolutionary relationships and it has been highly gratifying to find that the relationships among different organisms shown by molecular phylogeny match the classification scheme that we learnt in Class IX.

Questions

1. Give an example of characteristics being used to determine how close two species are in evolutionary terms.
2. Can the wing of a butterfly and the wing of a bat be considered homologous organs? Why or why not?
3. What are fossils? What do they tell us about the process of evolution?

2.4 Evolution should not be equated with ‘Progress’

In an exercise of tracing the family trees of species, we need to remember certain things. Firstly, there are multiple branches possible at each and every stage of this process. So it is not as if one species is eliminated to give rise to a new one. A new species has emerged. But that does not necessarily mean, like the beetle example we have been thinking about, that the old species will disappear. It will all depend on the environment. Also, it is not as if the newly generated species are in any way ‘better’ than the older one. It is just that natural selection and genetic drift have together led to the formation of a population that cannot reproduce with the original one. So, for example, it is not true that human beings have evolved from chimpanzees. Rather, both human beings and chimpanzees have a common ancestor a long time ago. That common ancestor is likely to have been neither human or chimpanzee. Also, the first step of separation from that ancestor is unlikely to have resulted in modern chimpanzees and human beings. Instead, the two resultant species have probably evolved in their own separate ways to give rise to the current forms.

In fact, there is no real ‘progress’ in the idea of evolution. Evolution is simply the generation of diversity and the shaping of the diversity by environmental selection. The only progressive trend in evolution seems to be that more and more complex body designs have emerged over time. However, again, it is not as if the older designs are inefficient! So many of the older and simpler designs still survive. In fact, one of the simplest life forms – bacteria – inhabit the most inhospitable habitats like hot springs, deep-sea thermal vents and the ice in Antarctica. In other words, human beings are not the pinnacle of evolution, but simply yet another species in the teeming spectrum of evolving life.

2.4.1 Human Evolution

The same tools for tracing evolutionary relationships – excavating, time-dating and studying fossils, as well as determining DNA sequences – have been used for studying human evolution. There is a great diversity of human forms and features across the planet. So much so that, for a long time, people used to talk about human ‘races’. Skin colour used to be the commonest way of identifying these so called races. Some were called yellow, some black, white or brown. A major question debated for a long time was, have these apparent groups evolved differently? Over recent years, the evidence has become very clear. The answer is that there is no biological basis to the notion of human races. All humans are a single species.

Not only that, regardless of where we have lived for the past few thousand years, we all come from Africa. The earliest members of the human species, Homo sapiens, can be traced there. Our genetic footprints can be traced back to our African roots. A couple of hundred thousand years ago, some of our ancestors left Africa while others stayed on. While the residents spread across Africa, the migrants slowly spread across the planet – from Africa to West Asia, then to Central Asia, Eurasia, South Asia, East Asia. They travelled down the islands of Indonesia and the Philippines to Australia, and they crossed the Bering land bridge to the Americas. They did not go in a single line, so they were not travelling for the sake of travelling, obviously. They went forwards and backwards, with groups sometimes separating from each other, sometimes coming back to mix with each other, even moving in and out of Africa. Like all other species on the planet, they had come into being as an accident of evolution, and were trying to live their lives the best they could.

Questions

1. Why are human beings who look so different from each other in terms of size, colour and looks said to belong to the same species?
2. In evolutionary terms, can we say which among bacteria, spiders, fish and chimpanzees have a ‘better’ body design? Why or why not?

Unit 3
Magnetic Effects of Electric Current

3.1 Electric Motor

An electric motor is a rotating device that converts electrical energy to mechanical energy. Electric motor is used as an important component in electric fans, refrigerators, mixers, washing machines, computers, MP3 players etc. Do you know how an electric motor works?

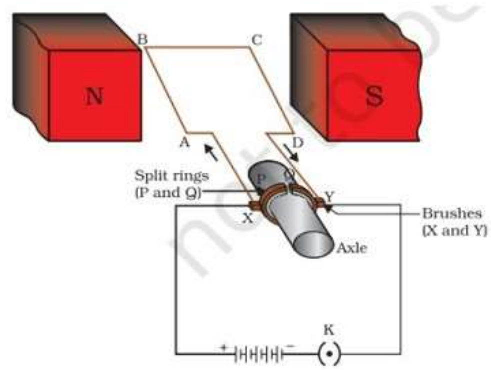


Fig. 1: A simple electric motor

An electric motor, as shown in Fig. 1, consists of a rectangular coil ABCD of insulated copper wire. The coil is placed between the two poles of a magnetic field such that the arm AB and CD are perpendicular to the direction of the magnetic field. The ends of the coil are connected to the two halves P and Q of a split ring. The inner sides of these halves are insulated and attached to an axle. The external conducting edges of P and Q touch two conducting stationary brushes X and Y, respectively, as shown in the Fig. 1.

Current in the coil ABCD enters from the source battery through conducting brush X and flows back to the battery through brush Y. Notice that the current in arm AB of the coil flows from A to B. In arm CD it flows from C to D, that is, opposite to the direction of current through arm AB. On applying Fleming's left hand rule for the direction of force on a current-carrying conductor in a magnetic field (see Fig. 13.13). We find that the force acting on arm AB pushes it downwards while the force acting on arm CD pushes it upwards. Thus the coil and the axle O, mounted free to turn about an axis, rotate anti-clockwise. At half rotation, Q makes contact with the brush X and P with brush Y. Therefore, the current in the coil gets reversed and flows along the path DCBA. A device that reverses the direction of flow of current through a circuit is called a commutator. In electric motors, the split ring acts as a commutator. The reversal of current also reverses the direction of force acting on the two arms AB and CD. Thus the arm AB of the coil that was earlier pushed down is now pushed up and the arm CD previously pushed up is now pushed down. Therefore, the coil and the axle rotate half a turn more in the same direction. The reversing of the current is repeated at each half rotation, giving rise to a continuous rotation of the coil and to the axle.

The commercial motors use (i) an electromagnet in place of permanent magnet; (ii) large number of turns of the conducting wire in the current carrying coil; and (iii) a soft iron core on which the coil is wound. The soft iron core, on which the coil is wound, plus the coils, is called an armature. This enhances the power of the motor.

Questions

1. State Fleming's left-hand rule.
2. What is the principle of an electric motor?
3. What is the role of the split ring in an electric motor?

3.2 Electromagnetic Induction

We have studied that when a current-carrying conductor is placed in a magnetic field such that the direction of current is perpendicular to the magnetic field, it experiences a force. This force causes the conductor to move. Now let us imagine a situation in which a conductor is moving inside a magnetic field or a magnetic field is changing around a fixed conductor. What will happen? This was first studied by English physicist Michael Faraday. In 1831, Faraday made an important breakthrough by discovering how a moving magnet can be used to generate electric currents. To observe this effect, let us perform the following activity.

Activity

- Take a coil of wire AB having a large number of turns.
- Connect the ends of the coil to a galvanometer as shown in Fig. 13.16.
- Take a strong bar magnet and move its north pole towards the end B of the coil. Do you find any change in the galvanometer needle?
- There is a momentary deflection in the needle of the galvanometer, say to the right. This indicates the presence of a current in the coil AB. The deflection becomes zero the moment the motion of the magnet stops.
- Now withdraw the north pole of the magnet away from the coil. Now the galvanometer is deflected toward the left, showing that the current is now set up in the direction opposite to the first.
- Place the magnet stationary at a point near to the coil, keeping its north pole towards the end B of the coil. We see that the galvanometer needle deflects toward the right when the coil is moved towards the north pole of the magnet. Similarly, the needle moves toward left when the coil is moved away.
- When the coil is kept stationary with respect to the magnet, the deflection of the galvanometer drops to zero. What do you conclude from this activity?

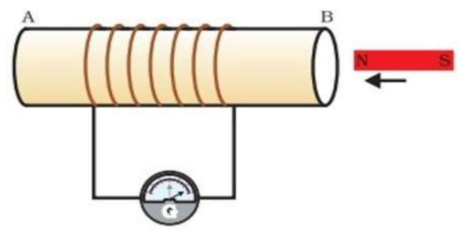
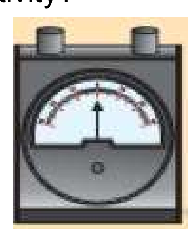


Fig. 2: Moving a magnet towards a coil sets up a current in the coil circuit, as indicated by deflection in the galvanometer needle.

A galvanometer is an instrument that can detect the presence of a current in a circuit. The pointer remains at zero (the centre of the scale) for zero current flowing through it. It can deflect either to the left or to the right of the zero mark depending on the direction of current.



You can also check that if you had moved south pole of the magnet towards the end B of the coil, the deflections in the galvanometer would just be opposite to the previous case. When the coil and the magnet are both stationary, there is no deflection in the galvanometer. It is, thus, clear from this activity that motion of a magnet with respect to the coil produces an induced potential difference, which sets up an induced electric current in the circuit.

Michael Faraday was an experimental physicist. He had no formal education. He worked in a book-binding shop during his early years. He used to read books that came for binding. This way Faraday developed his interest in science. He got an opportunity to listen to some public lectures by Humphrey Davy of Royal Institute. He made careful notes of Davy’s lectures and sent them to Davy. Soon he was made an assistant in Davy's laboratory at the Royal Institute. Faraday made several path-breaking discoveries that include electromagnetic induction and the laws of electrolysis. Several universities conferred on him the honorary degrees but he turned down such honours. Faraday loved his science work more than any honour.

Let us now perform a variation of Activity 13.8 in which the moving magnet is replaced by a current-carrying coil and the current in the coil can be varied.

Activity

- Take two different coils of copper wire having large number of turns (say 50 and 100 turns respectively). Insert them over a non-conducting cylindrical roll, as shown in Fig. 3. (You may use a thick paper roll for this purpose.)
- Connect the coil-1, having larger number of turns, in series with a battery and a plug key. Also connect the other coil-2 with a galvanometer as shown.

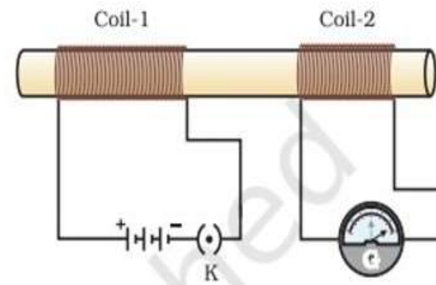


Fig. 3 Current is induced in coil-2 when current in coil-1 is changed

- Plug in the key. Observe the galvanometer. Is there a deflection in its needle? You will observe that the needle of the galvanometer instantly jumps to one side and just as quickly returns to zero, indicating a momentary current in coil-2.
- Disconnect coil-1 from the battery. You will observe that the needle momentarily moves, but to the opposite side. It means that now the current flows in the opposite direction in coil-2.

In this activity we observe that as soon as the current in coil-1 reaches either a steady value or zero, the galvanometer in coil-2 shows no deflection.

From these observations, we conclude that a potential difference is induced in the coil-2 whenever the electric current through the coil–1 is changing (starting or stopping). Coil-1 is called the primary coil and coil-2 is called the secondary coil. As the current in the first coil changes, the magnetic field associated with it also changes. Thus the magnetic field lines around the secondary coil also change. Hence the change in magnetic field lines associated with the secondary coil is the cause of induced electric current in it. This process, by which a changing magnetic field in a conductor induces a current in another conductor, is called electromagnetic induction. In practice we can induce current in a coil either by moving it in a magnetic field or by changing the magnetic field around it. It is convenient in most situations to move the coil in a magnetic field.

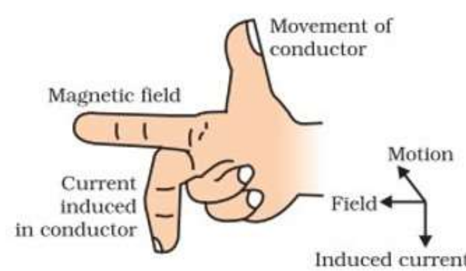


Fig. 4: Fleming's right-hand rule

The induced current is found to be the highest when the direction of motion of the coil is at right angles to the magnetic field. In this situation, we can use a simple rule to know the direction of the induced current. Stretch the thumb, forefinger and middle finger of right hand so that they are perpendicular to each other, as shown in Fig. 4. If the forefinger indicates the direction of the magnetic field and the thumb shows the direction of motion of conductor, then the middle finger will show the direction of induced current. This simple rule is called Fleming's right-hand rule.

Question

1. Explain different ways to induce current in a coil.

3.3 Electric Generator

Based on the phenomenon of electromagnetic induction, the experiments studied above generate induced current, which is usually very small. This principle is also employed to produce large currents for use in homes and industry. In an electric generator, mechanical energy is used to rotate a conductor in a magnetic field to produce electricity.

An electric generator, as shown in Fig. 4, consists of a rotating rectangular coil ABCD placed between the two poles of a permanent magnet. The two ends of this coil are connected to the two rings R1 and R2. The inner side of these rings are made insulated. The two conducting stationary brushes B1 and B2 are kept pressed separately on the rings R1 and R2, respectively. The two rings R1 and R2 are internally attached to an axle. The axle may be mechanically rotated from outside to rotate the coil inside the magnetic field. Outer ends of the two brushes are connected to the galvanometer to show the flow of current in the given external circuit.

When the axle attached to the two rings is rotated such that the arm AB moves up (and the arm CD moves down) in the magnetic field produced by the permanent magnet. Let us say the coil ABCD is rotated clockwise in the arrangement shown in Fig. 4. By applying Fleming's right-hand rule, the induced currents are set up in these arms along the directions AB and CD. Thus an induced current flows in the direction ABCD. If there are larger numbers of turns in the coil, the current generated in each turn adds up to give a large current through the coil. This means that the current in the external circuit flows from B2 to B1.

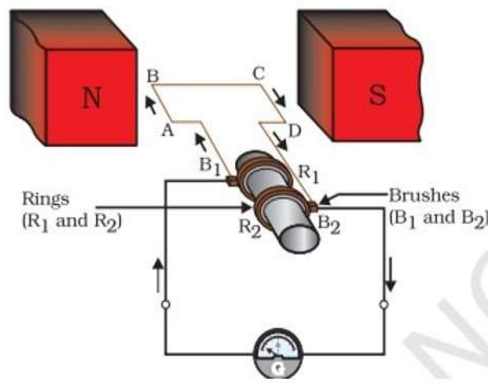


Fig. 4: Illustration of the principle of electric generator

After half a rotation, arm CD starts moving up and AB moving down. As a result, the directions of the induced currents in both the arms change, giving rise to the net induced current in the direction DCBA. The current in the external circuit now flows from B1 to B2. Thus after every half rotation the polarity of the current in the respective arms changes. Such a current, which changes direction after equal intervals of time, is called an alternating current (abbreviated as AC). This device is called an AC generator.

To get a direct current (DC, which does not change its direction with time), a split-ring type commutator must be used. With this arrangement, one brush is at all times in contact with the arm moving up in the field, while the other is in contact with the arm moving down. We have seen the working of a split ring commutator in the case of an electric motor (see Fig. 4). Thus a unidirectional current is produced. The generator is thus called a DC generator.

The difference between the direct and alternating currents is that the direct current always flows in one direction, whereas the alternating current reverses its direction periodically. Most power stations constructed these days produce AC. In India, the AC changes direction after every 1/100 second, that is, the frequency of AC is 50 Hz. An important advantage of AC over DC is that electric power can be transmitted over long distances without much loss of energy.