Chemistry Knowledge organiser – Unit 1 Atomic Structure Bohr's Model of the Atom The Development of the In 1913, Neil Bohr explained that the electrons Periodic Table were not in a cloud, but on energy levels orbiting

In the past, masses were used by scientists trying to organise the elements. This was mainly because the idea of atoms being made up of smaller sub-atomic particles had not been developed.

Johan Dobereiner

In 1829, Johann Döbereiner recognised triads (threes) of elements with chemically similar properties, such as lithium, sodium and potassium, and showed that the properties of the middle element could be predicted from the properties of the other two.

John Newlands

Newlands noticed that there were similarities between elements with atomic weights of + or - 7. He called this The Law of Octaves. Newlands did not leave any gaps for undiscovered elements in his table, and sometimes had to cram two elements into one box in order to keep the pattern.

Dmitri Mendeleev

Mendeleev discovered the periodic table while attempting to organise the elements in February of 1869. He did it by writing the properties of the elements on pieces of card and arranging and rearranging them until he realised that, by putting them in order of increasing atomic weight, certain properties of elements regularly occurred.

Not only did Mendeleev arrange the elements in the correct way, but if an element appeared to be in the wrong place due to its atomic weight, he moved it to where it fitted with the pattern he had discovered.

The real genius of Mendeleev's achievement was to leave gaps for undiscovered elements in groups where he predicted they would have similar properties to the other elements in that group. Within 15 years, three of these elements were discovered and Mendeleev's predictions were shown to be incredibly accurate.



Model As the atom is so small, people found it hard to understand the way it was structured.

J.J Thomson Plum Pudding

The first person who discovered electrons, Sir J.J Thomson, put forth his 'Plum Pudding' Model of an atom. He believed that the atom was a sphere with a positive charge and had electrons stuck inside it.



Rutherford's Atomic Model Ernst Rutherford was studying radioactive substances. Through his experiment of hitting gold foil with alpha particles he found that most of the alpha particles passed through the gold foil – he suggested that the atom was mostly made up

of empty space.

Next he observed that some alpha particles were deflected through small and large angles. This proved that there was a 'centre of positive charge' in an atom. Rutherford proved that the nucleus was positively charged. The nucleus is very small, dense and hard when compared to the whole atom.

neutr Carbon ato Helium has the lowest boiling point of group 0. The trend shows that the boiling point increase down the group. He Boiling Poin Kr Xe Rn

the nucleus at different distances (a bit like the

Bohr's Idea - The negative electrons are in orbit

around the nucleus in shells and are kept in orbit

James Chadwick and Discovery of Neutrons

electrons, physicists could put forth a diagram of

an atom. They could explain that an atom is made

The centre of an atom is the nucleus that contains

positively charged. The electrons are present on

different shells or orbits that revolve around the

6 protons

protons and neutrons. This makes the nucleus

With the discovery of protons, neutrons and

up of electrons, neutrons and protons.

solar system model we have).

by the pull of the protons.

nucleus.

The Group 0 – Noble Gases

Group 0 are all gases.

He, Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe, Rn

Uses of the noble gases

RGON KRYPTO KENON





Electronic configurations for the first THREE noble gases are:



They all have full outer shells and as a result are INERT (unreactive with other elements). They exist as single atoms.

Relative Atomic Masses

23 is the atomic mass of sodium. This is called the **relative** atomic mass. Relative is because the protons and neutrons are too small to weigh individually. It is also an average of all the isotopes of sodium.

SODIUM 11

Isotope – This is an element with the same number of protons – but a different number of neutrons in its nucleus.

If you look at chlorine on the periodic table its RAM is **35.5** this is because it exists as the



Electronic Configuration

By looking at the periodic table we know how many protons, neutrons and electrons each element has.

In Chemistry, we need to know where we find the electrons. Electronic configuration – are the diagrams we draw to show where the electrons are. These are important in helping us to understand how the atoms bond together to make compounds.

> Surrounding the positive nucleus are the **negative** electrons.

> However, they are not randomly placed, but have specific places they can occupy.

These are called electron shells, levels or orbitals they all mean the same thing – the place where electrons are found.

The electron levels can only hold a set number of electrons.

The first – closest to the nucleus – fills first and can hold up to 2.

The second – fills next and can hold up to 8.

The third – fills next and can hold up to 8.

The fourth – fills next and can hold up to **18**.

(Luckily for us we only have to ever put on 2!)



If you look there are: 2 on the first 8 on the second 8 on the third 2 on the fourth We can write this as 2.8.8.2 It tells us the information above, without the need for a diagram.

H 1							He 2
Li	Be	B	C	N	0	F	Ne
2, 1	2,2	2,3	2,4	2,5	2,6	2,7	2,8
Na	Mg	Д	Si	P	S	CI	Ar
2,8,1	2,8,2	2,8,3	2,8,4	2,8,5	2,8,6	2,8,7	2,8,8
K 2,8,8,1	Ca 2,8,8,2			<u> </u>			

The electronic configurations shows us:

The **Group** number = number of **outer** electrons

The **Period** number = number of electron shells.



The trend show an increase in the melting and boiling points of the halogens as the size of the atom increase.

Halogen	Formula	State	Colour	
Fluorine	F ₂	Gas	Pale yellow	
Chlorine	Cl ₂	Gas	Green	
Bromine	Br ₂	Liquid	Red	
Iodine	l ₂	Solid	Purple	
Astatine	At ₂	Solid	Grey	

Halogens will dissolve in water to produce acidic solutions eg hydrochloric acid

Halogens will react with silver nitrate to produce coloured precipitates.

	Colour of precipitate when silver nitrate is added	Equation
Potassium chloride	white	$AgNO_3 + KCI \rightarrow AgCI_{(s)} + KNO_3$
Potassium bromide	cream	$AgNO_3 + KBr \rightarrow AgBr_{(s)} + KNO_3$
Potassium iodide	yellow	AgNO3 + KI → AgI (s) + KNO3

Halogens will displace a less reactive halogen from a solution.

	Salt				
	sodium fluoride	sodium chloride	sodium bromide	sodium iodide	
fluorine		reaction	reaction	reaction	
chlorine	no reaction		reaction	reaction	
bromine	no reaction	no reaction		reaction	
iodine	no reaction	no reaction	no reaction		

Equations

 CI_2

Chlorine + potassium \rightarrow Potassium + Bromine

bromide Chloride + 2KBr \rightarrow 2

 \rightarrow 2KCl + Br₂

How do the Group 1 metals react with chlorine, oxygen and water?

Reaction	Lithium	Sodium	potassium	
With oxygen	Burns red	Burns more	Burns	
	flame	vigorously with	violently with	
		vellow flame	lilac flame	
		,		
		White ash of	White ash of	
	White ash of	sodium oxide	potassium	
	lithium oxide		oxide	
With water	Floats, fizzes	Floats and melts	Floats,	
	producing	, fizzes producing	hydrogen gas	
	hydrogen gas,	hydrogen gas,	sets on fire	
	produces	produces	with lilac	
	colourless	colourless	flame,	
	lithium	sodium	produces	
	hydroxide	hydroxide	colourless	
	solution	solution	potassium	
	(alkali)		hydroxide	
			solution	

What do all Group 1 elements have in common? *They all have one outer electron.*



The reactivity INCREASES down the group: More shielding of the nucleus Outer electron is easier to remove releasing more energy as heat.

Equations:

Lithium + oxygen \rightarrow Lithium oxide

 $4Li + O_2 \rightarrow 2Li_2O$

Lithium + chlorine \rightarrow lithium chloride

2Li + Cl₂ → 2LiCl

Lithium + water \rightarrow lithium hydroxide + hydrogen

 $2Li + H_2O \rightarrow 2LiOH + H_2$

This is the reaction pattern for all group 1 − just change the name and symbol ③

- 1. <u>Describe the position, charge and mass of a</u> <u>proton.</u>
- 2. <u>Describe the position, charge and mass of a</u> <u>neutron.</u>
- 3. <u>Describe the position, charge and mass of an</u> <u>electron.</u>
- 4. How many elements are in CaCO₃?
- 5. How many atoms are in CaCO₃?
- 6. What is a mixture?
- 7. <u>Why can't compounds be separated by</u> <u>physical processes?</u>
- 8. <u>What does distillation separate?</u>
- 9. What can crystallisation separate?
- 10. What can Filtration separate?
- 11. Who came up with the plum pudding theory?
- 12. Who came up with the idea of electron shells?
- 13. Who discovered protons in the nucleus?
- 14. What did Rutherford discover?
- 15. How did he discover it?
- 16. Why are atoms neutral?
- 17. What is an ion?
- 18. Why do ions form?
- 19. What are isotopes?
- 20. How many neutrons are in Carbon-14?
- 21. Where can you find the number of protons in an atom?
- 22. What is the number of electrons equal to?
- 23. What is the max number of electrons in each shell?
- 24. Draw the electron structure of phosphorus?
- 25. What does the group number tell you about an atom's electron structure?
- 26. What do all group 0 elements have in <u>common?</u>
- 27. Why are group 1 elements so reactive?
- 28. Why are group 7 elements so reactive?
- 29. What is the general equation for a group 1 metal reacting with water?
- 30. What do all of the formulas of group 7 elements have in common.
- 31. Describe the trend in reactivity as you go down group 1.
- 32. Why does this trend exist?
- 33. <u>Describe the reactivity trend as you go down</u> group7
- 34. Why does this trend exist?
- 35. <u>What will a more reactive halogen do to a less</u> reactive one?