

TOPIC 4

Chemical patterns

4.1 Overview

4.1.1 Why learn this?

To understand the way that chemicals react with each other, you need to take a look inside the atoms of chemical elements. When you do, you can find patterns that help explain the properties of the elements and the way in which elements and compounds behave when they react with each other. One property of elements is their physical state. The mercury shown in this photo is a metal, but it has such a low melting temperature that it is a liquid at room temperature.



4.1.2 Think about chemical patterns

assessment

- Who was Dmitri Mendeleev and how was he able to predict the future?
- What are metalloids?
- Why is the petrol used in motor vehicles unleaded?
- Why do we talk about shells when describing electrons?
- Why are you more likely to find pure gold on or near the Earth's surface than pure copper or iron?
- What is the connection between the reactivity of metals and the ancient Roman Empire?

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Numerous **videos** and **interactivities** are embedded just where you need them, at the point of learning, in your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. They will help you to learn the concepts covered in this topic.

Your quest

Inside the elements

Atoms are the building blocks of the chemical elements. They are, therefore, also the building blocks of compounds and mixtures. For thousands of years, alchemists and scientists have searched for patterns in the substances that make up the universe. Many of them succeeded to some extent. But the discovery by Lord Rutherford in 1911 that most of the atom was empty space, and subsequent discoveries about the particles inside that atom by Niels Bohr and other scientists, provided the missing links in the patterns. Answer the questions below to find out what you already know about the atom and the chemical elements.

Think and remember

1. Identify the subatomic particle or particles that:
 - (a) orbit the nucleus
 - (b) can be found inside the nucleus
 - (c) has/have no electric charge
 - (d) has/have a positive electric charge
 - (e) has/have a negative electric charge
 - (f) is/are lightest.
2. The atom shown in the diagram below belongs to a single chemical element.
 - (a) What is the atomic number of the element?
 - (b) Which particles are counted to determine the atomic number of the element?
 - (c) Identify the element in the diagram.

A simplified model of an atom

Electrons are about 1/2000th the size of protons and neutrons. Electrons have an electrical charge of negative one (-1). An atom has the same number of electrons as protons. The charges balance out so an atom has no electrical charge. It is said to be neutral.

Protons and neutrons are almost the same size. A proton has an electrical charge of positive one (+1). The number of protons in an atom determines what type of atom it is. For example, every atom with 79 protons is a gold atom, and every gold atom has 79 protons. Substances that are made up of only one type of atom are called **elements**.

A neutron has no electrical charge.

Protons and neutrons make up the nucleus. They are held together by very strong nuclear forces. Almost all of the mass of an atom is in the nucleus.

Electrons move rapidly around the nucleus. Although they follow no set paths, electrons are arranged in a series of energy levels around the nucleus. These energy levels are referred to as **electron shells**.

3. What is the electric charge of the nucleus of every atom?

- Identify the chemical element or elements that match each of the following descriptions.
 - They combine chemically to produce water.
 - It is neither a metal nor a non-metal and is used in electric circuits inside devices such as computers and mobile phones.
 - It has the symbol Na.
 - They combine chemically to produce the compound that we know as table salt.
 - It is the only metal that exists as a liquid at normal room temperatures.

Investigate

- Research and report on the contributions of Lord Rutherford, Niels Bohr and Sir James Chadwick to our knowledge of the atom.

4.2 The periodic table

4.2.1 The periodic table

The elements in the purple cells adjacent to the bold black border are neither metals nor non-metals. They are called metalloids.

Alkali metals ↓ Group 1		Alkaline earth metals ↓ Group 2		Transition metals									Non-metals		Halogens ↓ Group 17		Noble gases ↓ Group 18		
Period 2	3 Lithium Li 6.94	4 Beryllium Be 9.02										5 Boron B 10.81	6 Carbon C 12.01	7 Nitrogen N 14.01	8 Oxygen O 16.00	9 Fluorine F 19.00	10 Neon Ne 20.18		
Period 3	11 Sodium Na 22.99	12 Magnesium Mg 24.31	13 Aluminium Al 26.98	14 Silicon Si 28.09	15 Phosphorus P 30.97	16 Sulfur S 32.06	17 Chlorine Cl 35.45	18 Argon Ar 39.95											
Period 4	19 Potassium K 39.10	20 Calcium Ca 40.08	21 Scandium Sc 44.96	22 Titanium Ti 47.87	23 Vanadium V 50.94	24 Chromium Cr 52.00	25 Manganese Mn 54.94	26 Iron Fe 55.85	27 Cobalt Co 58.93	28 Nickel Ni 58.69	29 Copper Cu 63.55	30 Zinc Zn 65.38	31 Gallium Ga 69.72	32 Germanium Ge 72.63	33 Arsenic As 74.92	34 Selenium Se 78.96	35 Bromine Br 79.90	36 Krypton Kr 83.80	
Period 5	37 Rubidium Rb 85.47	38 Strontium Sr 87.62	39 Yttrium Y 88.91	40 Zirconium Zr 91.22	41 Niobium Nb 92.91	42 Molybdenum Mo 95.96	43 Technetium Tc 98.91	44 Ruthenium Ru 101.1	45 Rhodium Rh 102.91	46 Palladium Pd 106.4	47 Silver Ag 107.9	48 Cadmium Cd 112.4	49 Indium In 114.8	50 Tin Sn 118.7	51 Antimony Sb 121.8	52 Tellurium Te 127.8	53 Iodine I 126.9	54 Xenon Xe 131.3	
Period 6	55 Caesium Cs 132.9	56 Barium Ba 137.3	57–71 Lanthanides		72 Hafnium Hf 178.5	73 Tantalum Ta 180.9	74 Tungsten W 183.8	75 Rhenium Re 186.2	76 Osmium Os 190.2	77 Iridium Ir 192.22	78 Platinum Pt 195.1	79 Gold Au 197.0	80 Mercury Hg 200.6	81 Thallium Tl 204.4	82 Lead Pb 207.2	83 Bismuth Bi 209.0	84 Polonium Po (209)	85 Astatine At (210)	86 Radon Rn (222)
Period 7	87 Francium Fr	88 Radium Ra	89–103 Actinides		104 Rutherfordium Rf	105 Dubnium Db	106 Seaborgium Sg	107 Bohrium Bh	108 Hassium Hs	109 Meitnerium Mt	110 Darmstadtium Ds	111 Roentgenium Rg	112 Copernicium Cn						
				Key															
				1 Hydrogen H 1.008															
				2 Helium He 4.003															
				← Atomic number															
				← Name															
				← Symbol															
				← Relative atomic mass															

The period number refers to the number of the outermost shell containing electrons.

Lanthanides

57 Lanthanum La 138.91	58 Cerium Ce 140.122	59 Praseodymium Pr 140.91	60 Neodymium Nd 144.24	61 Promethium Pm (145)	62 Samarium Sm 150.4	63 Europium Eu 151.96	64 Gadolinium Gd 157.25	65 Terbium Tb 158.93	66 Dysprosium Dy 162.50	67 Holmium Ho 164.93	68 Erbium Er 167.26	69 Thulium Tm 168.93	70 Ytterbium Yb 173.04	71 Lutetium Lu 174.97
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Actinides

89 Actinium Ac (227)	90 Thorium Th 232.04	91 Protactinium Pa 231.04	92 Uranium U 238.03	93 Neptunium Np 237.05	94 Plutonium Pu (244)	95 Americium Am (243)	96 Curium Cm (247)	97 Berkelium Bk (247)	98 Californium Cf (251)	99 Einsteinium Es (254)	100 Fermium Fm (257)	101 Mendelevium Md (258)	102 Nobelium No (255)	103 Lawrencium Lr (260)
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Russian chemist Dmitri Mendeleev confidently predicted the properties of the element germanium 15 years before it was discovered. He was able to do this because he and other scientists had arranged all known elements into a set of rows and columns called the **periodic table**.

The periodic table above shows 112 elements. At the time of publication, scientists have reported the discovery of elements with atomic numbers up to 118. However, some of the discoveries have not been confirmed by the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC). Until they are, their existence

is 'unofficial'. Those yet to be confirmed are elements 113, 115, 117 and 118. The discoveries of elements 114 and 116 were confirmed in June 2011. The properties of new elements are predicted before their discovery, just as they were in Mendeleev's time.

4.2.2 The patterns emerge

Two thousand years ago, only 10 elements had been identified. They were carbon, sulfur, iron, copper, zinc, silver, tin, gold, mercury and lead. By the early nineteenth century, scientists had identified over 50 elements. Chemists had already begun to search for patterns among the elements in the hope of finding a way to classify them. It was difficult at that time to find patterns because many elements were still undiscovered.

In 1864, British chemist John Newlands arranged the elements in order of increasing atomic weight and found that every eighth element shared similar properties. In 1869, Mendeleev, building on the work of Newlands and other scientists, discovered a way of organising the elements into rows and columns. This arrangement formed the basis of what we now know as the periodic table. The elements were arranged in rows in order of increasing mass or atomic weight. Mendeleev called the rows of elements **periods** and the columns, which each contained a family of elements, **groups**. This arrangement is called the periodic table because elements with similar properties occur at regular intervals or periods. In a strange twist of fate, German chemist Lothar Meyer, who worked independently of Mendeleev, came up with a similar arrangement of the elements at about the same time.

The observation that the physical and chemical properties of the elements recur at regular intervals when elements are listed in order of atomic weight is known as the **periodic law**.

4.2.3 An educated guess

Mendeleev was so confident about the periodic law that he deliberately left gaps in his periodic table and was able to predict the properties of the unknown elements that would fill the gaps. Mendeleev predicted the existence of germanium, which he called eka-silicon. This element was discovered in 1886, 15 years later. The table below shows the accuracy of Mendeleev's predictions.

Properties of eka-silicon and germanium	
Properties of eka-silicon as predicted by Mendeleev	Properties of germanium, discovered in 1886
A grey metal	A grey-white metal
Melting point of about 800 °C	Melting point of 958 °C
Relative atomic mass of 73.4	Relative atomic mass of 72.6
Density of 5.5 g/cm ³	Density of 5.47 g/cm ³
Reacts with chlorine to form compounds with four chlorine atoms bonded to each eka-silicon atom	Reacts with chlorine and forms compounds in a ratio of four chlorine atoms to every germanium atom

Mendeleev's work led many scientists to search for new elements. By 1925, scientists had identified all 92 naturally existing elements.

The periodic table shown at the beginning of this section includes the names, **symbols** and **atomic numbers** of the first 112 elements. The symbols are a form of shorthand for writing the names of the elements and are recognised worldwide. Some periodic tables describe the properties of each element, including its physical state at room temperature, melting point, boiling point and **relative atomic mass**. Most elements exist as solids under normal conditions and a few exist as gases. Only two elements exist as liquids at normal room temperature — bromine and mercury.

4.2.4 Counting sub-atomic particles

The periodic table is organised on the basis of atomic numbers. The atomic number of an element is the number of protons present in each atom. Atoms with the same atomic number have identical chemical properties. Because atoms are electrically neutral, the number of protons in an atom is the same as the

number of electrons. The **mass number** of an atom is the sum of the number of protons and neutrons in the atom. The number of neutrons in an atom can therefore be calculated by subtracting the atomic number from the mass number. This information is usually shown in the following way:



where A = the mass number (number of protons and neutrons), Z = the atomic number (number of protons) and E = the symbol of the element.

For example, the element iron has a mass number of 56 and an atomic number of 26. It can be represented as follows:



Once you know the atomic number and mass number of an element, you can work out how many electrons and neutrons it has.

The atomic number of iron is 26 because all iron atoms have 26 protons. Iron's mass number of 56 indicates that most iron atoms have a total of 56 protons and neutrons. To calculate the number of neutrons, the atomic number is subtracted from the mass number to give 30 neutrons. Since atoms are electrically neutral and protons have a positive charge, each iron atom has 26 electrons.

4.2.5 How heavy are atoms?

Measuring and comparing the masses of atoms is difficult because of their extremely small size. Chemists solve this problem by comparing equal numbers of atoms, rather than trying to measure the mass of a single atom.

A further problem arises because not all atoms of an element are identical. Although all atoms of a particular element have the same atomic number, they can have different numbers of neutrons. Hence, some elements contain atoms with slightly different masses.

These different masses are used to calculate an average or **weighted mean**, which is based on the relative amounts of each type of atom. This number is referred to as the relative atomic mass and is usually not a whole number. The mass number (A) of an element can usually be found by rounding the relative atomic mass.

4.2.6 Families of elements

The periodic table contains eight groups (or families) of elements, some of which have been given special names. (Remember that these groups form columns in the periodic table.)

- Group 1 elements are known as **alkali metals**. The alkali metals all react strongly with water to form basic solutions.
- Group 2 elements are referred to as **alkaline earth metals**.
- Group 17 elements are known as **halogens**. The halogens are brightly coloured elements. Chlorine is green, bromine is red-brown and iodine is silvery-purple.
- Group 18 elements are known as **noble gases**. The noble gases are inert and do not readily react with other substances.
- The block of elements in the middle of the table is known as the **transition metal block**.

The line that zigzags through the periodic table separates the **metals** from the **non-metals**. About three-quarters of all elements are classified as metals, which are found on

Illuminated signs use tubes filled with the noble gas neon.



the left-hand side of the table. The non-metals are found on the upper right-hand side of the table. Eight elements that fall along the line between metals and non-metals have properties belonging to both. They are called **metalloids**.

4.2.7 Metals

Metals have several features in common.

- They are solid at room temperature, except for mercury which is a liquid.
- They can be polished to produce a high shine or **lustre**.
- They are good **conductors** of electricity and heat.
- They can all be beaten or bent into a variety of shapes. We say they are **malleable**.
- They can be made into a wire. We say they are **ductile**.
- They usually melt at high temperatures. Mercury, which melts at -40°C , is one exception.

WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

The word *malleable* comes from the Latin word *malleus*, meaning 'hammer'.

4.2.8 Non-metals

Only 22 of the elements are non-metals. At room temperature, eleven of them are gases, ten are solid and one is liquid. The solid non-metals have most of the following features in common.

- They cannot be polished to give a shine like metals; they are usually dull or glassy.
- They are **brittle**, which means they shatter when they are hit.
- They cannot be bent into shape.
- They are usually poor conductors of electricity and heat.
- They usually melt at low temperatures.
- Many of the non-metals are gases at room temperature.

Common examples of non-metals are sulfur, carbon and oxygen.



INVESTIGATION 4.1

Chemical properties of metals and non-metals

AIM: To investigate and compare the chemical properties of metals and non-metals

Materials:

safety glasses, gloves and laboratory coat

1M hydrochloric acid

water

magnesium

iron filings

copper filings

sulfur powder

universal indicator

4 test tubes

4 gas jars filled with oxygen gas

4 deflagrating spoons

dropping pipette

spatula

Bunsen burner, heatproof mat and matches

Method and results

- Place a small quantity of magnesium in a test tube. Add about 2 mL of hydrochloric acid.

- Record your observations in a suitable table.

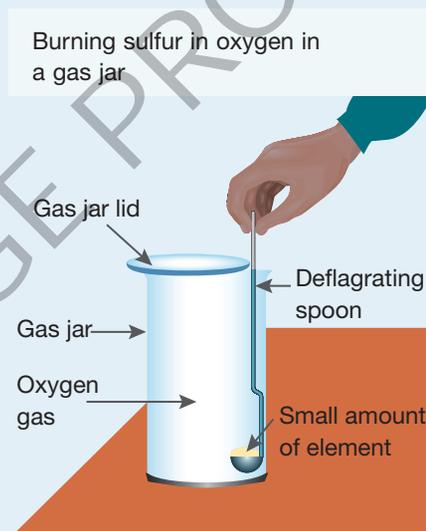
CAUTION

The heating part of this experiment should be done in a fume cupboard. Safety glasses, gloves and laboratory coats must be worn at all times.

- Repeat using the iron filings, copper filings and sulfur powder. Record your observations.
 - Place a small amount of magnesium in a deflagrating spoon and heat it. When hot, place it into the gas jar full of oxygen gas. **Do not look directly at the flame.**
- Record your observations.
- Repeat using the iron and copper filings. Record your observations.
- Repeat using a small amount of sulfur powder. Record your observations. **This part of the experiment must be performed in a fume cupboard.**
 - Add about 10 mL of water to each jar and shake. Add 3 drops of universal indicator.
- Record the colour and determine the pH of the solution.

Discuss and explain

- Use the periodic table to determine which of the elements tested were metals and which were non-metals.
- Describe any differences between the effect of acids on metals and non-metals.
- Describe what happened when the metals and non-metals reacted with oxygen.
- The metal or non-metal oxides formed in the gas jars dissolved in water to form acidic and basic solutions. What type of solution did the metals form? What type of solution did the non-metals form?



INVESTIGATION 4.2

Comparing the properties of two metal families

Calcium and magnesium are from group 2 of the periodic table (alkali earth metals). Copper and iron are transition metals.

AIM: To investigate and compare the chemical properties of metals from two different groups of the periodic table

Materials:

small samples of magnesium, iron and copper

'rice grain' equivalent amounts of calcium chloride, magnesium chloride, iron chloride and copper chloride
spatula

5 test tubes and a test-tube rack

electric circuit to measure conductivity (2-volt power supply, 3 connecting leads, 2 alligator clips, and a light globe and holder)

2M hydrochloric acid

water

matches

stirring rod

safety glasses and laboratory coat

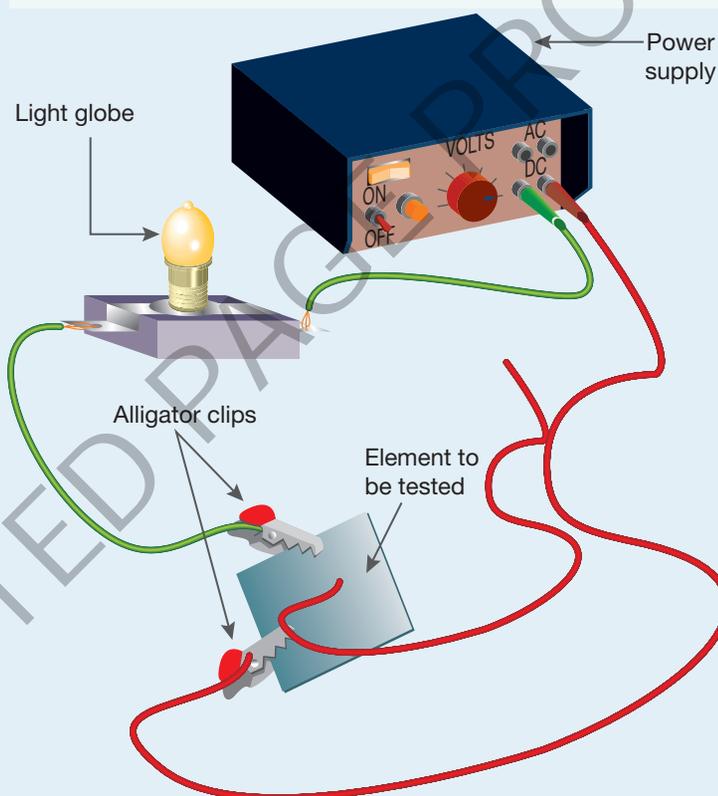
Method and results

- Record the results of each of the following experiments in an appropriate table.
 - Describe the physical state (solid, liquid or gas) of each element.
 - Describe the physical appearance of each element.
 - Set up the circuit as shown in the diagram below and determine whether each of the elements conducts electricity.
 - Determine whether any of the elements react with water by placing a small sample in 2 mL of water in a test tube. Record any changes that occur in your table.
 - Determine whether the metals react with acid by placing a small sample of each metal in 1 mL of 2M hydrochloric acid in a test tube. If a gas is produced, test it by holding a lit match at the mouth of the test tube. Make sure the test tube is pointed away from you. If hydrogen is present, you will hear a 'pop'. If oxygen is present, the match should burn more brightly. If carbon dioxide is present, the match should go out.
 - Your teacher may show or describe to you how the metal calcium responds to some of the tests described.
 - Add a small amount of each of the metal compounds (magnesium chloride, calcium chloride, iron chloride and copper chloride) to 5 mL of water. Comment on their solubility and the colour of any solution made.

Discuss and explain

- What are the properties of copper and iron? Are there any similarities?
- What are the properties of calcium and magnesium? Are there any similarities?
- List the metals in order of reactivity with water and acids. List them from most reactive to least reactive.
- Were there any differences between solubilities of the metal compounds or the colours of the solutions they formed? Describe these differences.
- What could you infer about the properties of elements in the same group? Give reasons for your answer.

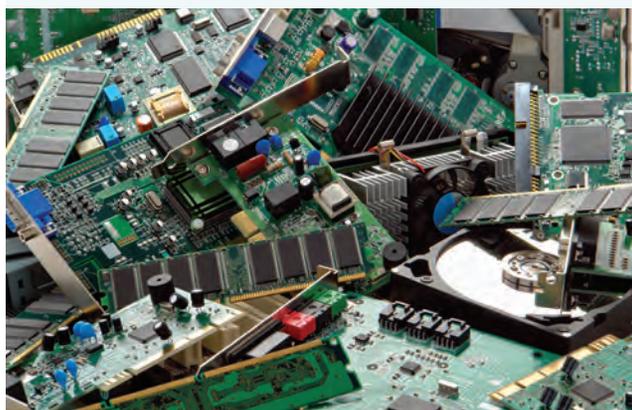
Circuit used to measure electrical conductivity



4.2.9 Metalloids

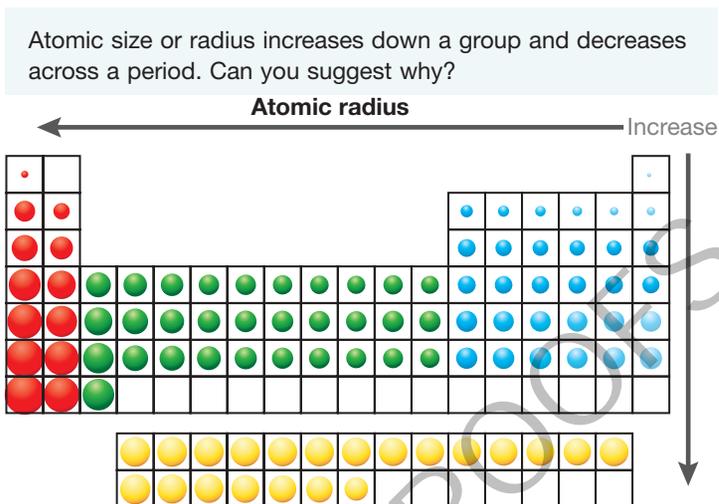
Some of the elements in the non-metal group look like metals. One example is silicon. While it can be polished like a metal, silicon is a poor conductor of heat and electricity and cannot be bent or made into wire. Elements that have features of both metals and non-metals are called metalloids. There are eight metalloids altogether: boron, silicon, arsenic, germanium, antimony, polonium, astatine and tellurium.

Metalloids are important materials often used in electronic components of computer circuits.



4.2.10 Following a trend

There are a number of repeating patterns in the periodic table. The most obvious is the change from metals on the left of each period to non-metals on the right. Other patterns exist in the physical and chemical properties of elements in the same group or period. Some of these trends are shown in the table below.



Patterns in the periodic table

Characteristic	Pattern down a group	Pattern across a period
Atomic number and mass number	Increases	Increases
Atomic radius	Increases	Decreases
Melting points	Decreases for groups 1 to 5 and increases for groups 15 to 18	Generally increases then decreases
Reactivity	Metals become more reactive and non-metals become less reactive	Is high, then decreases and then increases. Group 18 elements are inert and do not react.
Metallic character	Increases	Decreases

HOW ABOUT THAT!

Lead poisoning was a common occurrence in ancient Rome because the lead the Romans used to make water pipes and cooking utensils slowly dissolved into the water. Acute lead poisoning causes mental impairment and personality changes. The effects are not immediately noticeable, but occur gradually as the amount of lead in the body accumulates. Some historians attribute the strange behaviour of several Roman emperors to lead poisoning.

In the Middle Ages, plates, cups and other drinking vessels were often made from pewter, an alloy of lead and tin. The acids in food and drinks caused lead to leach out and cause poisoning.

Until 1986, lead was added to petrol to stop 'knocking' in car engines. Unleaded fuel allows a catalytic converter to prevent pollutants such as nitrous oxides and carbon monoxide from being emitted. With lead in the petrol, these devices couldn't work. Lead emissions from cars were possibly causing a build-up of lead in humans in built-up areas.

The word *plumber* is derived from the Latin word *plumbum*, meaning 'lead'. Look up the symbol for lead in the periodic table. Where do you think this symbol came from?

Unleaded petrol was introduced to Australia in 1986.



14. Find out which single element makes up about three-quarters of the mass of the universe.
15. Choose an element and research the following information about it:
 - when it was discovered
 - who discovered it
 - how it is found in nature
 - its properties and uses.
16. To find out more about the history of the periodic table and its elements, use the **Periodic table** weblink in your Resources section.

learn on RESOURCES — ONLINE ONLY

-  **Try out this interactivity:** Time Out: Periodic Table
Searchlight ID: int-0758
-  **Explore more with this weblink:** Periodic table
-  **Complete this digital doc:** Worksheet 4.1: Periodic table
Searchlight ID: doc-19432
-  **Complete this digital doc:** Worksheet 4.2: Elements and atomic numbers
Searchlight ID: doc-19433

4.3 Small but important

4.3.1 The influence of electrons

When atoms come into contact with one another, they often join together to form **molecules**. Other atoms join together to form giant **crystals** that contain billions of atoms. The electrons in each atom account for the chemical behaviour of all matter, because they form the outermost part of the atom.



Shells of electrons

Drawing an accurate picture of an atom using a diagram is difficult because electrons cannot be observed like most particles. Their exact location within the atom is never known — they tend to behave like a ‘cloud’ of negative charge. Furthermore, an atom is many times larger than its nucleus so it is not practical to draw a diagram to scale. Nonetheless, diagrams are useful because they help us to understand how atoms combine.

An **electron shell diagram** is a simplified model of an atom. In these diagrams, the nucleus of the atom, containing protons and neutrons, is drawn in the middle. Electrons are arranged in a series of energy levels around the nucleus. These energy levels are called **shells** and are drawn as concentric rings around the nucleus. The electrons in the inner shells are more strongly attracted to the nucleus than those in the outer shells.

Each shell contains a limited number of electrons. The first (or K) shell holds a maximum of two electrons. The second (or L) shell holds up to eight electrons. The third (M) shell holds up to 18 electrons. The fourth (N) shell holds up to 32 electrons. The maximum number of electrons in each shell can be calculated using the rule:

the n th shell holds a maximum of $2n^2$ electrons.

For example, the fourth shell holds a maximum of 2×4^2 electrons, which is 32 electrons.

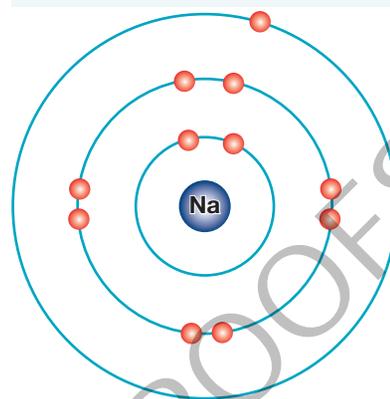
Electron configuration

The **electron configuration** of an element is an ordered list of the number of electrons in each shell. The electron configuration is determined from the atomic number of the element, which is the same as the number of protons in the nucleus of each atom. In a **neutral** atom, the total number of electrons is the same as the number of protons.

To work out the electron configuration of a particular atom, you need to remember that electrons occupy the innermost shells first. Once the first two shells are filled, the remaining electrons begin to fill the third shell. For example, the element sodium has an atomic number of 11. Each atom has 11 protons and 11 electrons. The electrons will fill the two innermost shells first — two in the first shell and eight in the second shell. That accounts for ten. The remaining electron must be in the third shell because the first two have already been filled.

The electron configuration of an atom is written by showing the number of electrons in each shell separated by commas. For example: sodium 2, 8, 1.

An electron shell diagram of a sodium atom



4.3.2 The periodic table explained

When Mendeleev and Meyer grouped elements on the basis of their similar chemical properties, they were not aware of the existence of electrons. We can now explain many of their observations using our understanding of electron shells.

Atoms in the same group of the periodic table have similar properties because they have the same number of electrons in their outer shells. (The outer shell is the last shell to be filled by electrons.) The number of electrons in the outer shell relates to the group number in the periodic table. Hence, all elements in group 1 have one electron in their outer shell and all elements in group 18 (with the exception of helium) have eight electrons in their outer shell.

Filling up in turn

The largest atoms contain up to seven shells of electrons. Thus, there are seven periods (rows) in the periodic table. (Look at the periodic table in section 4.1 to confirm this.) The period number tells you the number of shells containing electrons. The first shell can hold up to two electrons, so there are two elements in the first period, with hydrogen containing one electron and helium containing two. The second shell holds up to eight electrons, so there are eight elements in the second period.

Even though the third shell can hold up to 18 electrons, there are only eight elements in the third period. This is because the outer shell of an atom can never hold more than eight electrons as the atom would then become unstable. Therefore, while the third shell is yet to be filled completely, electrons begin to fill the fourth shell in both potassium and calcium atoms. This stabilises the atoms because the third shell is no longer the outer shell. The filling of the third shell resumes in the block of elements from scandium to zinc (the transition metals). Once the third shell is full, the fourth shell continues to fill from gallium to xenon.

Element	Symbol	Atomic number	Electron configuration
Oxygen	O	8	2, 6
Fluorine	F	9	2, 7
Neon	Ne	10	2, 8
Sodium	Na	11	2, 8, 1
Magnesium	Mg	12	2, 8, 2
Sulfur	S	16	2, 8, 6
Chlorine	Cl	17	2, 8, 7
Argon	Ar	18	2, 8, 8
Potassium	K	19	2, 8, 8, 1

Note that the fourth shell of the potassium atom begins filling before the third shell is full.

INVESTIGATION 4.3

Flame tests

AIM: To observe evidence of electrons dropping from one energy level to another

Materials:

safety glasses and laboratory coat

2M hydrochloric acid

Bunsen burner, heatproof mat and matches

5 evaporating dishes

barium carbonate

sodium carbonate

copper carbonate

potassium carbonate

strontium carbonate

10 mL measuring cylinder

spatula

Method and results

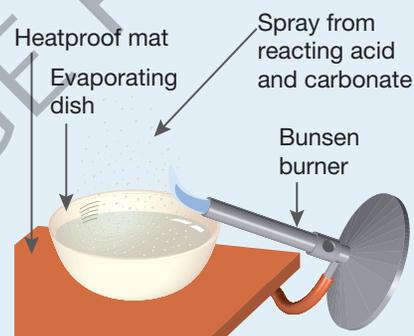
- Place 10 mL of 2M hydrochloric acid in an evaporating dish and place the dish on a heatproof mat.
 - Add a spatula full of the barium carbonate to the evaporating dish.
 - Carefully hold the lit Bunsen burner at an angle over the spray produced by the reacting acid and carbonate as shown in the diagram below. Observe the change in the colour of the flame.
 - Repeat using the other carbonates. Use a different evaporating dish each time.
1. Record the colours produced by the different carbonates in a suitable table.

Discuss and explain

2. Flame tests provide evidence that electrons do actually occupy different energy levels. Why do different elements produce different colours?
3. Is it the metal part of the compound or the carbonate part (carbon and oxygen) that produces the colour? How do you know?

CAUTION

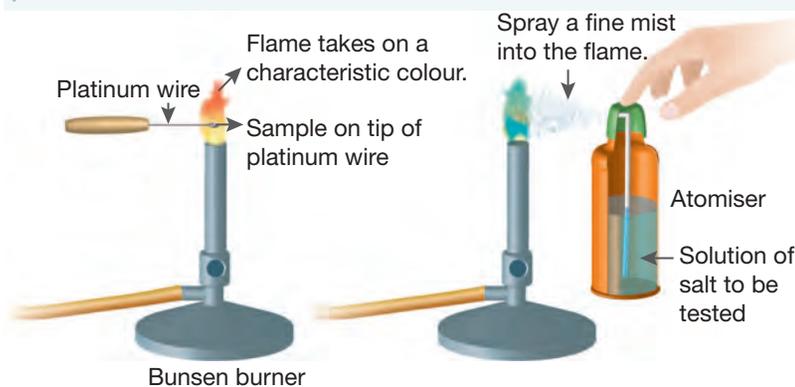
Laboratory coats and safety glasses must be worn at all times.



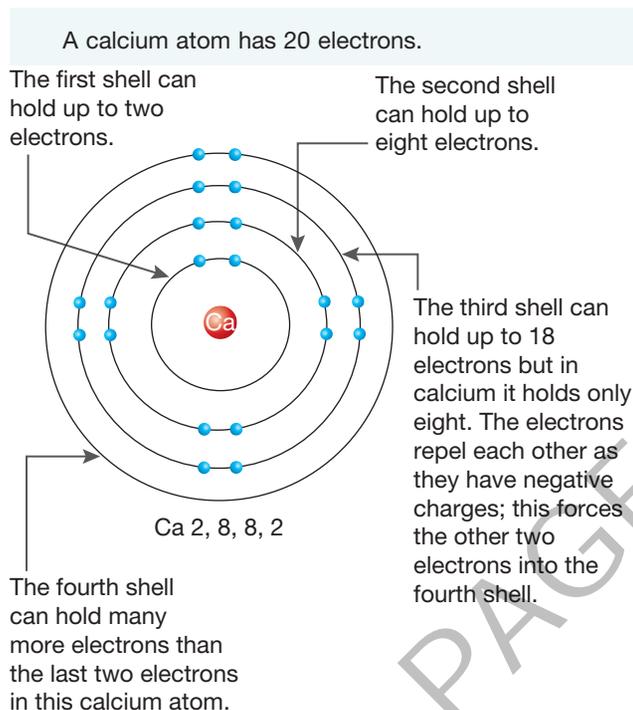
4.3.3 Upwardly mobile electrons

If enough energy is supplied to an atom, electrons can move from one shell (or energy level) to another (higher) energy level. This may occur when atoms are heated by a flame. When electrons move between

Various metal ions produce characteristic colours when they are volatilised in a flame.



energy levels, they either absorb or emit an amount of energy related to the difference in energy between the energy levels. Electrons returning to a lower energy level emit this energy in the form of light. The size of the difference in energy levels determines the colour of the light. Thus, flame colours can be used to identify elements.



4.3 Exercises: Understanding and inquiring

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Remember

1. What is the name given to the different energy levels in which electrons can be found?
2. How many electrons are needed to fill:
 - (a) the first shell
 - (b) the second shell
 - (c) the third shell
 - (d) the fourth shell?
3. What is meant by the term *outer shell*?
4. What information about the electron arrangement is given by the group number of an element?
5. What information about the electron arrangement is given by the period number of an element?

Think

6. Name the elements that have the following electron arrangements.
 - (a) 2, 4
 - (b) 2, 8, 5
 - (c) 2
 - (d) 2, 8, 8, 2
7. Write the electron arrangement for each of the following elements.
 - (a) Boron
 - (b) Neon
 - (c) Potassium
 - (d) Fluorine
 - (e) Silicon

8. (a) If an element has one electron in its outer shell, is it a metal or a non-metal? Explain your answer.
(b) If an element has seven electrons in its outer shell, is it a metal or a non-metal? Explain your answer.
(c) What is special about elements that have eight electrons in their outer shell?
9. What experimental evidence is there to show that electron shells actually exist?

Investigate

10. The electron arrangement of elements is more complex than the explanation in this section. Find out about subshells and orbitals and how they are involved in determining how electrons are arranged in atoms.
11. A lithium atom has three protons, two neutrons and three electrons. Make a 3-dimensional model of this atom.

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-  **Try out this interactivity:** Shell-shocked?
Searchlight ID: int-0676
-  **Complete this digital doc:** Worksheet 4.3: Electron shells
Searchlight ID: doc-19435
-  **Complete this digital doc:** Worksheet 4.4: The structure of the atom
Searchlight ID: doc-19436

4.4 When atoms meet

4.4.1 It's the shell structure that counts

Knowledge of the electron shell structures of atoms helps us to understand how compounds such as sodium chloride (table salt) form. When atoms react with each other to form compounds, it is the electrons in the outer shell that are important in determining the type of reaction that occurs.

It's great to be noble

In 1919, Irving Langmuir suggested that the noble gases do not react to form compounds because they have a stable electron configuration of eight electrons in their outer shell. Most other atoms react because their electron arrangements are less stable than those of the noble gases. Atoms become more stable when they attain an electron arrangement that is the same as that of the noble gases. Chemical reactions can allow atoms to obtain this arrangement. The table of electron arrangements in section 4.3.2 shows that the two noble gases neon and argon have eight electrons in their outer shells. The atoms of other elements must gain or lose electrons to attain full outer shells. In this way they become more stable, ending up with the electron arrangement of the nearest noble gas in the periodic table.

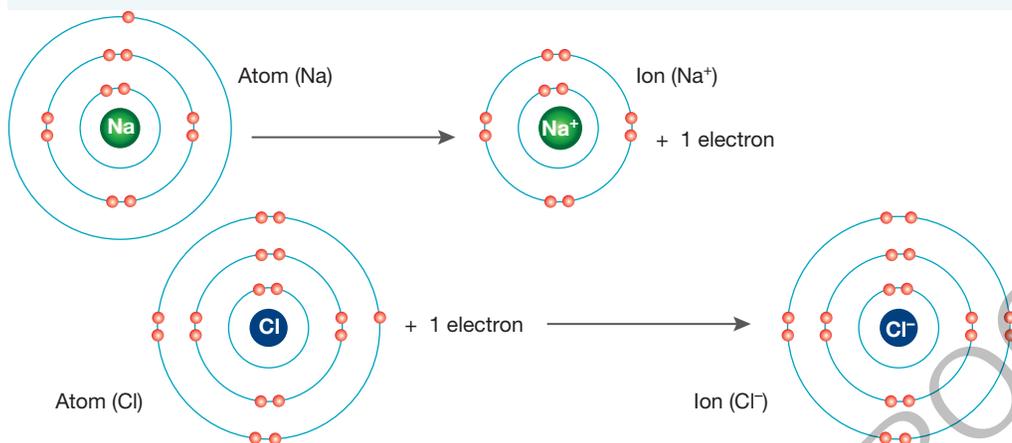
4.4.2 Some gain, some lose

Atoms that have lost or gained electrons and therefore carry an electric charge are called **ions**. Metal atoms, such as sodium, magnesium and potassium, have a small number of outer shell electrons. They form ions by losing the few electrons in their outer shell. This means that metal ions have more protons than electrons and so are positively charged. For example, the magnesium atom loses its two outer shell electrons to become a positively charged magnesium ion. The symbol for the magnesium ion is Mg^{2+} . The '2+' means that two electrons have been lost to form the ion. Positively charged ions are called **cations**.

Non-metal atoms form ions by gaining electrons to fill their outer shell. These ions contain more electrons than protons, so they are negatively charged. For example, the chlorine atom gains one electron to fill its outer shell, becoming a negatively charged chloride ion. Its symbol is Cl^- . The '-' means that one electron has been gained to form the ion. Negatively charged ions are called **anions**.

The diagram on the next page shows how sodium and chlorine atoms lose and gain electrons respectively to form ions. Note that the sodium atom becomes a sodium ion and that the chlorine atom becomes a chloride ion. (When non-metals form ions, the suffix '-ide' is used.)

How sodium and chlorine atoms form ions



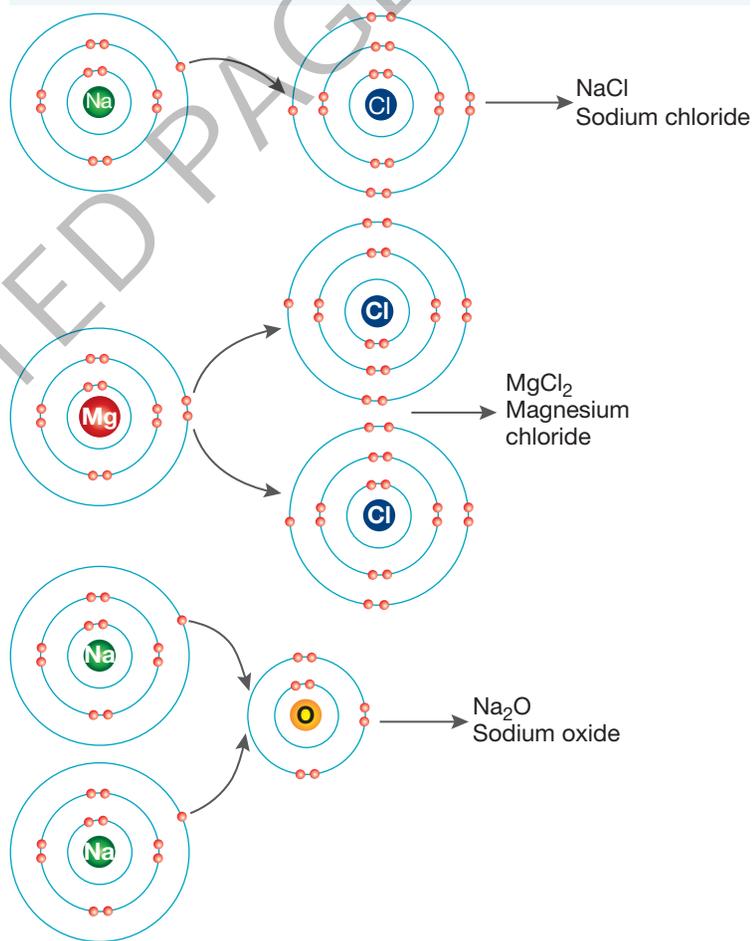
4.4.3 It's a game of give and take

Compounds such as sodium chloride, copper sulfate, calcium carbonate and sodium hydrogen carbonate all form when atoms come in contact with each other and lose or gain electrons. Compounds formed in this way are called **ionic compounds**.

Ionic compounds form when metal and non-metal atoms combine. A sodium atom loses an electron to form an ion and a chlorine atom gains an electron to form an ion. The electrons are transferred from one atom to the other, and the oppositely charged ions produced attract each other and form a compound. This electrical force of attraction between the ions is called an **ionic bond**.

The diagram at right shows some examples of the transfer of electrons that occurs when ionic compounds are formed. Note that more than two atoms may be involved to ensure that all the elements achieve eight electrons in their outer shell. For example, when magnesium reacts with chlorine to form magnesium chloride, each magnesium atom loses two electrons. Since each chlorine atom needs to gain only one electron, a magnesium atom gives one electron to each of two chlorine atoms. The resulting Mg^{2+} and Cl^- ions are attracted to each other to form the compound MgCl_2 .

The give and take of electrons that occurs in the formation of the ionic compounds sodium chloride, magnesium chloride and sodium oxide



4.4.4 What do ionic compounds have in common?

Ionic compounds have the following properties.

- They are made up of positive and negative ions.
- They are usually solids at room temperature.

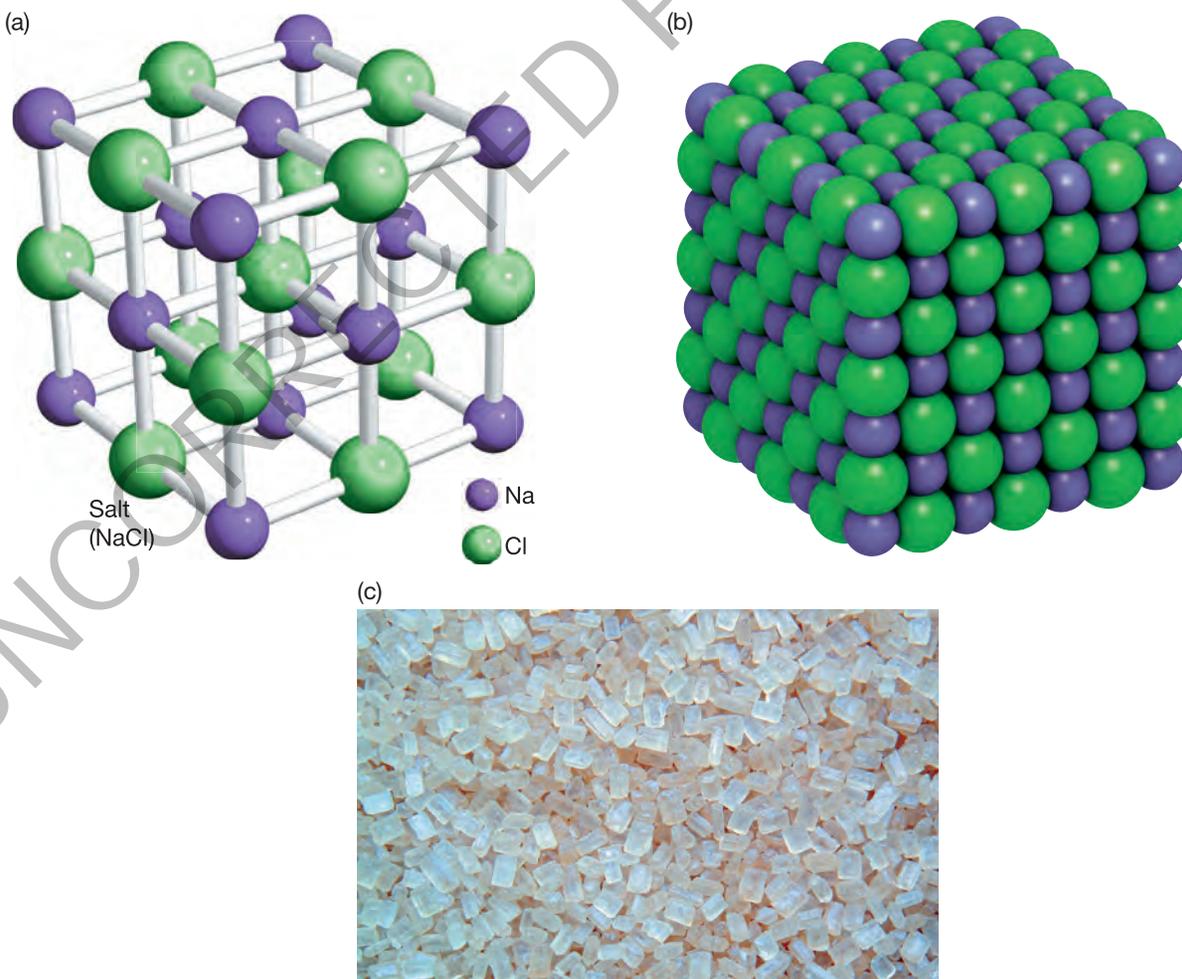
- They normally have very high melting points because the electrostatic force of attraction between the ions is very strong.
- They usually dissolve in water to form **aqueous solutions**.
- Their aqueous solutions normally conduct electricity.

WHAT DOES IT MEAN?

The word *aqueous* comes from the Latin word *aqua*, meaning 'water'. Other words beginning with the prefixes *aque-* or *aqua-* relate to water (for example, aqueduct, aquatic, aqualung).

Positive ions			Negative ions		
Atom name	Ion name	Chemical symbol	Atom name	Ion name	Chemical symbol
lithium	lithium	Li ⁺	iodine	iodide	I ⁻
sodium	sodium	Na ⁺	fluorine	fluoride	F ⁻
potassium	potassium	K ⁺	chlorine	chloride	Cl ⁻
calcium	calcium	Ca ²⁺	oxygen	oxide	O ²⁻
aluminium	aluminium	Al ³⁺	nitrogen	nitride	N ³⁻

- (a) A stick and ball representation of the lattice structure of sodium chloride; the sticks represent the bonds between the atoms.
- (b) The ions in the lattice are effectively held in a tight arrangement.
- (c) Individual salt crystals form regular square blocks because of the ionic lattice.



4.4 Exercises: Understanding and inquiring

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Remember

1. Why do ions form?
2. What is a positively charged ion called?
3. What is a negatively charged ion called?
4. What properties do most ionic compounds have in common?
5. What types of elements combine to form ionic compounds?

Think

6. Write the symbol for the ion formed by each of the following elements.
 - (a) Sodium
 - (b) Potassium
7. Copy and complete the following table using the information here as well as the periodic table on page 185. The first entry has been done for you.

Ion symbol	Ion name	Gained electron or lost electrons?	Number of electrons lost/gained	Total number of electrons in ion
F ⁻	fluoride	gained	1	10
Be ²⁺				
N ³⁻				
Cl ⁻				
Sn ²⁺				
Ag ⁺				

8. How many electrons have been gained or lost by the following ions?
 - (a) Pb⁴⁺
 - (b) Br⁻
 - (c) Cr³⁺
 - (d) Se²⁻
9. Draw diagrams like those on page 198 to show how each of the following ionic compounds form.
 - (a) Magnesium fluoride
 - (b) Lithium chloride
 - (c) Aluminium sulfide
 - (d) Calcium oxide

Imagine

10. Imagine that you are the outer shell electron of a sodium atom and you are going to form the ionic compound sodium chloride. Describe your experiences in a piece of creative writing. Discuss details such as the physical states and properties of the elements and compound involved, their atomic structure, reasons for forming ions and, finally, the reasons why the ions form the ionic compound.

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-  **Try out this interactivity:** Pass the salt
Searchlight ID: int-0675
-  **Complete this digital doc:** Worksheet 4.5: Ionic bonding
Searchlight ID: doc-19437
-  **Complete this digital doc:** Worksheet 4.6: Writing formulae for ionic compounds
Searchlight ID: doc-19438
-  **Complete this digital doc:** Worksheet 4.7: Electron configurations
Searchlight ID: doc-19439

4.5 When sharing works best

4.5.1 Covalent bonding

Ionic compounds form when atoms lose or gain electrons. Atoms can also achieve stable electron configurations by sharing electrons with other atoms to gain a full outer shell. When two or more atoms share electrons, a molecule is formed. A chemical bond formed by sharing electrons is called a **covalent bond**. The compounds formed are called **covalent** or **molecular compounds**. Non-metal atoms share electrons to form covalent bonds.

Molecules can be made of more than one type of atom or made of atoms of the same element. For example, oxygen gas consists of molecules formed when two oxygen atoms share electrons. Individual atoms of oxygen are not stable and become more stable by sharing electrons with each other.

4.5.2 Electron dots: what's the point?

It is possible to draw diagrams to show how elements share electrons to form covalent compounds. These diagrams are called **electron dot diagrams**. They show the symbol for the atom and dots for the electrons in the outer shell of atoms. The table at the right shows electron dot diagrams for some elements. Note that the electrons in the diagrams are arranged in four regions around the atom. Wherever possible, they are grouped in pairs.

When elements combine to form covalent compounds, they share electrons to achieve a full outer shell with eight electrons. Hydrogen has a full outer shell when it has two electrons, but all the other elements in the table need eight electrons to fill the outer shell.

The table below shows how some covalent compounds form. The shared electrons are called **bonding electrons**. It is also possible to draw a **structural formula**, where a dash is used to represent these shared electrons. The dash represents the covalent bond and the other electrons are not drawn. It is also possible for double or triple covalent bonds to form. The way electrons are shared determines the ratio in which elements combine to form a covalent compound. It also determines the **chemical formula** of the compound.

Electron dot diagrams for some elements		
Symbol	Electron configuration	Electron dot diagram
H	1	H •
C	2, 4	• • C • •
O	2, 6	•• •• O • •
S	2, 8, 6	•• •• S • •
Cl	2, 8, 7	•• •• Cl • ••
N	2, 5	• •• N • •
F	2, 7	•• •• F • •

The formation of covalent molecules

Name and formula	Atoms	Compound	Structural formula	Explanation
Chlorine Cl ₂	•• • Cl • + • Cl • ••	•• • Cl • Cl • ••	Cl — Cl <i>Note:</i> The line represents a sharing of two electrons and is called a single covalent bond.	Each chlorine atom needs to share one electron to gain a full outer shell.
Hydrogen chloride HCl	H • + • Cl • ••	H • Cl • ••	H — Cl	Both the hydrogen and chlorine atom need to share one electron to gain a full outer shell.

Name and formula	Atoms	Compound	Structural formula	Explanation
Oxygen O ₂			O = O <i>Note:</i> The double line represents a double covalent bond.	Each oxygen atom needs to share two electrons to gain a full outer shell.
Nitrogen N ₂			N ≡ N <i>Note:</i> The triple line represents a triple covalent bond.	Each nitrogen atom shares three electrons to gain a full outer shell.
Water H ₂ O				Each hydrogen atom needs one electron and the oxygen atom needs two to gain a full outer shell.
Carbon dioxide CO ₂			O = C = O	Each oxygen atom needs two electrons and the carbon atom needs four electrons to gain a full outer shell.

4.5.3 Covalent compounds

Most covalent compounds have the following properties.

- They exist as gases, liquids or solids with low melting points because the forces of attraction between the molecules are weak.
- They generally do not conduct electricity because they are not made up of ions.
- They are usually insoluble in water.

4.5 Exercises: Understanding and inquiring

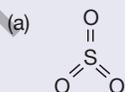
To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Remember

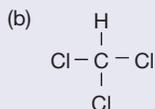
1. What kinds of elements combine to form covalent compounds?
2. What is a covalent bond?
3. What does an element's electron dot diagram represent?
4. What properties do most covalent compounds have in common?

Think

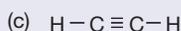
5. What is the difference between a single covalent bond and a triple covalent bond in terms of the number of electrons involved?
6. For the covalent compounds shown below, state whether their bonds are single, double or triple covalent bonds.



Sulfur trioxide — a gas used to make sulfuric acid



Chloroform — a liquid once used as an anaesthetic



Acetylene — a colourless gas used in welding

7. (a) Draw electron dot diagrams to show how the following covalent compounds form.
- Hydrogen fluoride (HF)
 - Methane (CH₄)
 - Phosphorus chloride (PCl₃)
 - Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S)
 - Tetrachloromethane (CCl₄)
 - Ammonia (NH₃)
 - Carbon disulfide (CS₂)
- (b) What pattern emerges between the structural formula of the compound and the number of electrons involved in bonding?
- (c) State whether the covalent bonds in the compounds are single, double or triple bonds.
8. Why don't the noble gases form covalent compounds?
9. Explain why CO₂ (a compound) and O₂ (an element) are both molecules.

Investigate

10. Silicon dioxide, commonly known as silica or sand, is a hard, solid, covalent compound with a very high melting point. Find out about its structure.
11. Although carbon and graphite are both made up of carbon atoms, they have very different properties. Investigate their properties and explain why they are so different in terms of their covalent structure.
12. To find out more about atomic structure and bonding, use the **Atomic structures** weblink in your Resources section.

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-  **Try out this interactivity:** Making molecules
Searchlight ID: int-0228
-  **Watch this eLesson:** Perkin's mauve
Watch a video from *The story of science* about the first artificial dye.
Searchlight ID: eles-1774
-  **Explore more with this weblink:** Atomic structures

4.6 How reactive?

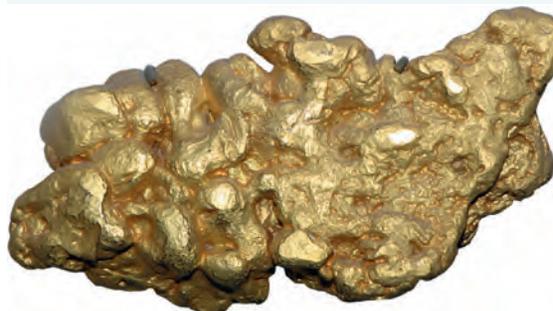
4.6.1 Reactivity of metals

Have you ever wondered why gold can be found lying near the surface of the Earth and yet we need to mine iron ore and smelt it in large furnaces before we can obtain iron? The answer lies in the reactivity of the metals. Gold is a very unreactive element. It does not combine readily with other elements to form compounds. Most metals are much more reactive than gold.

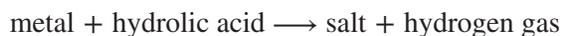
When the Earth formed, the more reactive metals — including aluminium, copper, zinc and iron — reacted with other elements to form ionic compounds. These compounds are the **mineral ores** from which the metal elements are obtained. Iron ores include haematite (Fe₂O₃), magnetite (Fe₃O₄), siderite (FeCO₃), pyrite (FeS₂) and chalcopyrite (CuFeS₂).

The reactivity of metals is dependent on how easily they are able to give up their outer shell electrons. For example, it is easier for an atom to give up a single electron from an outer shell than to give up two electrons.

Few metals are found as elements like gold; most are found as compounds or ores.



The reactivity of metals can be investigated by observing their reactions with acids. A metal reacts with hydrochloric acid according to the equation:



In these reactions electrons are transferred away from the metal atoms to the hydrogen in the acid, forming positive metal ions and hydrogen gas. The metal is said to have displaced the hydrogen from the acid. For this reason, these reactions are also **displacement reactions**.

4.6.2 Metals in ancient times

The most powerful ancient civilisations succeeded and prospered because they developed better weapons than their enemies by using metals such as copper, tin and iron. The Mesopotamians, who occupied a large region of the Middle East, learned almost 5000 years ago how to separate copper and tin from their ores using a process called **smelting**. Smelting is a chemical process in which carbon reacts with molten ore to separate the relatively pure metal. In ancient times, charcoal was used in furnaces to provide the carbon. They combined molten copper and tin to produce an **alloy** known as **bronze**, which is resistant to corrosion and harder than both copper and tin. The ancient Egyptians, Persians and Chinese also used bronze in weapons, ornaments, statues and tools.

INVESTIGATION 4.4

Investigating reactivity

AIM: To investigate the reactivity of a range of metals

Materials:

5 test tubes and a test-tube rack

safety glasses

1 cm × 4 cm piece of magnesium ribbon (or equivalent amount)

1 cm × 4 cm piece of zinc, copper, aluminium and iron

1M hydrochloric acid

measuring cylinder, small funnel, thermometer and steel wool

Method and results

- Polish each of the metal pieces with steel wool.
- Pour 10 mL of acid into each test tube.
 1. Measure and record the temperature.
- Add one metal to each test tube. Look for the presence of bubbles on the surface of the metals.
 2. Arrange the test tubes in order of increasing bubble production and record your observations.

Discuss and explain

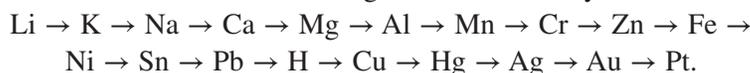
3. List the metals in order of increasing reactivity.
4. Discuss the limitations of this experiment.

CAUTION

Wear safety glasses.

4.6.3 The activity series

The **activity series** places the elements in decreasing order of reactivity:



In order to react with acid and release hydrogen gas, the metal must be before hydrogen in the activity series.

Lithium, potassium, sodium and calcium are the most reactive metals. They will react with water to produce hydrogen gas. Magnesium through to lead will react with acid to form hydrogen gas, but copper, mercury and silver will not. Gold and platinum are even less reactive than copper and silver. Most of the

elements at the top of the activity series were discovered much later than those at the bottom. Gold, silver, mercury and copper were all discovered over 2000 years ago. Potassium, sodium and calcium were not discovered until 1808. Why do you think this is so?

HOW ABOUT THAT!

The ancient Romans used the smelting process to separate iron from iron ore. They strengthened it by pounding it with a hammer and used it to produce weapons, shields and armour that was harder and stronger than bronze. The use of iron weapons allowed the Roman legions to rule the Mediterranean world and beyond for over 400 years.

The gladius (a short iron sword), together with a long iron shield, gave the Roman army a huge advantage over its enemies. The shields were often used by groups of soldiers to form a protective wall and roof known as a *testudo* (tortoise) around themselves.



INVESTIGATION 4.5

Quantified reactivity

AIM: To quantify and measure the reactivity of metals

Materials:

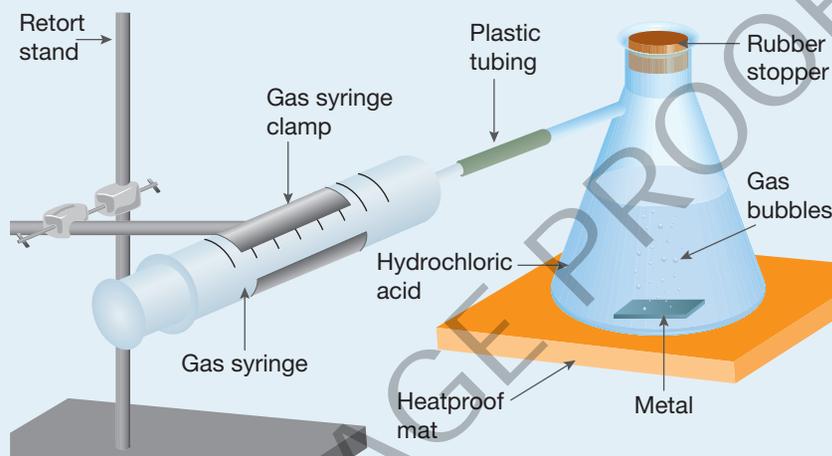
safety glasses, heatproof mat, steel wool and gas syringe
1 cm × 4 cm piece of zinc, copper, aluminium and iron
1 cm × 4 cm piece of magnesium ribbon (or equivalent amount)
1M hydrochloric acid
retort stand, bosshead and gas syringe clamp
1 cm × 6 cm length of plastic tubing
250 mL side-arm conical flask
rubber stopper to fit conical flask
stopwatch or clock with second hand
50 mL measuring cylinder
distilled water

CAUTION

Wear safety glasses.

Method and results

- Polish each of the metal pieces with steel wool.
- Mount the gas syringe in the clamp as shown in the diagram below. Your teacher will tell you if the syringe needs to be lubricated. Push the plunger fully in and attach the plastic tubing to the nozzle.
- Pour 50 mL of acid into the flask.
- Connect the other end of the plastic tubing to the conical flask.
- Place one of the pieces of metal in the conical flask and quickly seal with the rubber stopper.
- Have one student act as a timer and another as a recorder.
- As soon as the metal is dropped in, start timing.
 1. Using a suitable table, record the volume of gas in the syringe every 30 seconds until gas is no longer produced, the syringe is full or 10 minutes has passed, whichever occurs first.
- Repeat the procedure with the other metals, taking care to rinse out the flask carefully each time with distilled water.
 2. In your workbook, plot the results for all of the metals on one set of axes. Put the volume of gas on the vertical axis and time on the horizontal axis.



Discuss and explain

3. Use your graph to list the five metals in increasing order of reactivity and explain your reasoning.
4. Write a word equation for the reaction of each of the metals with the acid. If no reaction occurred, write 'no reaction'.
5. Write an equation using formulae for the reaction of each of the metals with the acid. If no reaction occurred, write 'no reaction'.
6. To which general reaction type or types do reactions between metals and acids belong?
7. Some of the variables in this investigation were not carefully controlled. List them and explain how this may have affected your results and conclusions.

4.6 Exercises: Understanding and inquiring

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Remember

1. Name the gas produced in the reaction of a metal with hydrochloric acid.
2. Why is iron usually found in the form of a compound in the Earth's crust?

Think

3. Explain why the reactivity of metals decreases from left to right across the periods of the periodic table.

Investigate

4. Design and carry out an experiment that investigates the reactivity of alloys, such as stainless steel and brass. Compare these results with those obtained for the metal elements.
5. Research and report on the science of metallurgy and the role of metallurgists in the mining industry.

Create

6. When scientists attend conferences, they often present the results of their investigations as a poster. A poster can describe their work with photographs, drawings and concise written summaries. Present the findings of your investigation into the reactivity of metals as a poster to display in your classroom.

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Watch this eLesson: Davey and potassium

Watch a video from *The story of science* about the discovery of potassium.

Searchlight ID: eles-1773

4.7 Finding the right formula

4.7.1 Chemical ID

The chemicals used in your school science laboratory are usually identified by both a name and a formula. Most people are able to recognise the formula of common compounds such as water (H_2O) and carbon dioxide (CO_2). A chemical formula (plural *formulae*) is a shorthand way to write the name of an element or compound. It tells us the number and type of atoms that make up an element or compound. Writing the correct formula is of paramount importance in chemistry. Most chemical problems cannot be solved without the knowledge of chemical formulae.

4.7.2 It's elementary

Often the formula of a substance is simply the symbol for the element. Metals such as iron and copper, which contain only one type of atom, are identified simply by the symbol for that element (for example, Fe and Cu). Noble gases such as neon (Ne) have a similar formula.

Some non-metal elements such as hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen exist as simple molecules. These molecules form when atoms of the same non-metal are joined together by covalent bonds. For example, the formula for the element hydrogen is H_2 , indicating that two hydrogen atoms are joined together to make each molecule of hydrogen. A **molecular formula** is a way to describe the number and type of atoms that join to form a molecule.

4.7.3 Formulae of compounds

The formula of a compound shows the symbols of the elements that have combined to make the compound and the ratio in which the atoms have joined together. For example, the chemical formula for the covalent compound methane, a constituent of natural gas, is CH_4 — one carbon atom for every four hydrogen atoms. The formula for the ionic compound calcium chloride, which is used as a drying agent, is CaCl_2 — two chlorine ions for every calcium ion.

4.7.4 Valency: formulae made easy

Knowledge of the **valency** of an element is essential if we wish to write formulae correctly.

The valency of an element is equal to the number of electrons that each atom needs to gain, lose or share to fill its outer shell. For example, the chlorine atom has only seven electrons in its outer shell, which

A hydrogen molecule and an oxygen molecule



Some common non-metal molecules and their molecular formulae

Name	Formula
Hydrogen	H_2
Nitrogen	N_2
Chlorine	Cl_2
Bromine	Br_2
Oxygen	O_2
Sulfur	S_2
Phosphorus	P_2

can hold eight electrons. By gaining one electron, its outer shell becomes full. Chlorine therefore has a valency of one. The magnesium atom has two electrons in its outer shell. By losing two electrons, it is left with a full outer shell. Magnesium therefore has a valency of two.

A simple guide to remembering the valency of many elements is to remember which group in the periodic table they belong to. The number of outer shell electrons allows you to work out how many electrons are required to fill the outer shell. The table right provides a simple guide to the valency of many elements.

Valency of groups in the periodic table

Group	Valency
Group 1	1
Group 2	2
Group 13	3
Group 14	4
Group 15	3
Group 16	2
Group 17	1

4.7.5 Writing formulae for covalent compounds

To write the formula of a non-metal compound made up of only two elements, use the valency of each element and follow the steps shown below.

Example 1

Write the formula for carbon dioxide.

Step 1	<i>Determine the valency of the elements involved.</i> Carbon has a valency of four; oxygen a valency of two. (That is, carbon needs to share four electrons, while oxygen needs to share two electrons.)
Step 2	<i>Determine the ratio of atoms that need to combine so that each element can share the same number of electrons.</i> A ratio of one carbon atom to two oxygen atoms would result in both sharing four electrons.
Step 3	<i>Write the formula using the symbols of the elements and writing the ratios as subscripts next to the element. (The number 1 can be left out as writing the symbol for the element assumes that one atom is present.)</i> The formula for carbon dioxide is CO ₂ .

Example 2

Write the formula for phosphorus chloride.

Step 1	<i>Determine the valency of the elements involved.</i> Phosphorus has a valency of three; chlorine has a valency of one.
Step 2	<i>Determine the ratio of atoms that need to combine so that each element can share the same number of electrons.</i> A ratio of one phosphorus atom to three chlorine atoms would result in both sharing three electrons.
Step 3	<i>Write the formula using the symbols of the elements and writing the ratios as subscripts next to the element.</i> The formula for phosphorus chloride is PCl ₃ .

Example 3

Write the formula for hydrogen oxide (water).

Step 1	<i>Determine the valency of the elements involved.</i> Hydrogen has a valency of one; oxygen has a valency of two.
Step 2	<i>Determine the ratio of atoms that need to combine so that each element can share the same number of electrons.</i> A ratio of two hydrogen atoms to one oxygen atom would result in both sharing two electrons.
Step 3	<i>Write the formula using the symbols of the elements and writing the ratios as subscripts next to the element.</i> The formula for hydrogen oxide is H ₂ O.

4.7.6 Writing formulae for ionic compounds

The formulae for ionic compounds can be written from knowledge of the ions involved in making up the compound. In ionic compounds, metal ions combine with non-metal ions. The tables below list common positive and negative ions and their names.

Metal atoms usually form positive ions. The number of positive charges on the ion is called its **electrovalency**. For example, a sodium ion has one positive charge (Na^+), the calcium ion has two positive charges (Ca^{2+}) and the aluminium ion has three (Al^{3+}). Note that some of the transition metals (e.g. iron) have more than one valency, as shown in the table below. The Roman numerals in brackets after iron and copper identify the valency.

Non-metals usually form negative ions. The number of negative charges is the electrovalency of the ion. For example, chloride has one negative charge (Cl^-), oxide has two negative charges (O^{2-}) and phosphide has three (P^{3-}). There are also some more complex negative ions called **molecular ions**, such as hydroxide ions (OH^-) and sulfate ions (SO_4^{2-}). These groups of atoms have an overall negative charge and are treated as a single entity. Note that the hydrogen ion, although a non-metal ion, exists as a positive ion.

The following examples show how to determine the formulae for ionic compounds.

Electrovalencies of some common positive ions

Number of positive charges in each ion		
+1	+2	+3
Hydrogen (H^+)	Calcium (Ca^{2+})	Aluminium (Al^{3+})
Potassium (K^+)	Copper(II) (Cu^{2+})	Iron(III) (Fe^{3+})
Silver (Ag^+)	Iron(II) (Fe^{2+})	
Sodium (Na^+)	Lead (Pb^{2+})	
Ammonium (NH_4^+)	Magnesium (Mg^{2+})	
	Zinc (Zn^{2+})	

Electrovalencies of some common negative ions

Number of negative charges in each ion		
-1	-2	-3
Bromide (Br^-)	Carbonate (CO_3^{2-})	Phosphate (PO_4^{3-})
Chloride (Cl^-)	Oxide (O^{2-})	Nitride (N^{3-})
Hydrogen carbonate (HCO_3^-)	Sulfate (SO_4^{2-})	
Hydroxide (OH^-)	Sulfide (S^{2-})	
Iodide (I^-)		
Nitrate (NO_3^-)		

Example 1

Write the formula for sodium chloride.

Step 1	Determine the electrovalency of the ions that comprise the compound and write down their symbols. The symbol for the sodium ion is Na^+ and the symbol for the chloride ion is Cl^- .
Step 2	Determine the ratio of ions required in order to achieve electrical neutrality. (Remember compounds have no overall charge.) The ratio of negative to positive charges for sodium and chloride ions is 1 : 1. That is, it takes one negatively charged chloride ion to balance the charge of one positively charged sodium ion.
Step 3	Write the formula for the compound using the numbers in the ratios as subscripts. (Remember the number 1 does not need to be included.) The formula for the compound is NaCl .

Example 2

Write the formula for aluminium oxide.

Step 1	Determine the electrovalency of the ions that comprise the compound and write down their symbols. The symbol for the aluminium ion is Al^{3+} and the symbol for the oxide ion is O^{2-} .
Step 2	Determine the ratio of ions required in order to achieve electrical neutrality. (Remember compounds have no overall charge.) The ratio of negative to positive charges for aluminium and oxide ions is 2 : 3. That is, it takes three negatively charged oxide ions to balance the charge of the two positively charged aluminium ions.
Step 3	Write the formula for the compound using the numbers in the ratios as subscripts. The formula for aluminium oxide is Al_2O_3 .

Example 3

Write the formula for calcium phosphate.

Step 1	Determine the electrovalency of the ions that comprise the compound and write down their symbols. The symbol for the calcium ion is Ca^{2+} and the symbol for the phosphate ion is PO_4^{3-} .
Step 2	Determine the ratio of ions required in order to achieve electrical neutrality. (Remember compounds have no overall charge.) The ratio of negative to positive charges for calcium and phosphate ions is 3 : 2. That is, it takes two negatively charged phosphate ions to balance the charge of the three positively charged calcium ions.
Step 3	Write the formula for the compound using the numbers in the ratios as subscripts. The formula for calcium phosphate is $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$.

Note the use of brackets in the formula to show that more than one molecular ion is needed to balance the electric charge.

INVESTIGATION 4.6

The ionic compound formula game

AIM: To practise deriving the chemical formulae for ionic compounds

Materials:

a set of playing cards with the name and valency of each of the positive and negative ions listed in the electrovalency tables in this section. You will need four identical cards for each ion.

Method and results

- Organise a group of four students to play the card game. The aim of this game is to collect as many cards as possible by producing compounds with correct chemical formulae.
- Shuffle the cards and distribute them to the players.
- The dealer puts down one card.
- The rest of the players try to produce a chemical formula using their cards. The first person to come up with a correct chemical formula wins the hand and keeps the cards. They are put aside until the end of the game. The dealer will decide the winner of the hand.
- The person to the left of the dealer then puts down one of their cards.
- The other players in the game now try to produce a chemical formula using the cards they have in their hands. Again, the person to come up with a correct chemical formula wins that hand and the cards are put aside until the end of the game.
- The game continues moving to the next person until no one is able to produce a chemical formula. The game stops at this point.
- Each player then counts the number of cards they have produced formulae with. The winner is the person with the most cards.
 1. Write a list of the formulae and the name of the compounds formed.

Discuss and explain

2. What is the best strategy to win the game?
3. Did you find the game useful in learning the formulae of compounds? Explain.

4.7 Exercises: Understanding and inquiring

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

Remember

1. What is a chemical formula?
2. What is a molecular formula?
3. What does the formula of a compound tell you about the compound?
4. Write the symbols for the following elements: sodium, hydrogen, potassium, lead, chlorine, iodine and sulfur.
5. Which elements are present in each of the following compounds?

- (a) HNO_3
 - (b) NaHCO_3
 - (c) FeS
6. How is the valency of an element determined?
7. How many chloride (Cl^-) ions would be required to combine with each of the following ions to form an ionic compound?
- (a) calcium (Ca^{2+})
 - (b) aluminium (Al^{3+})
 - (c) silver (Ag^+)
8. Write down the valencies for the following elements: sodium, hydrogen, lead, chlorine, iodine, magnesium and sulfur.

Think

9. The ions listed below can combine in many different ways to form 25 different compounds. Write the formulae and names of these compounds.
 Na^+ Fe^{3+} Li^+ Cu^{2+} Al^{3+}
 Cl^- OH^- N^{3-} O^{2-} SO_4^{2-}
10. The chloride ion has the same valency as the sodium ion. However, it has a different electrovalency. Why?
11. Write a formula for each of the following.
- (a) Oxygen gas
 - (b) Chlorine gas
 - (c) Lead
 - (d) Nitrogen oxide
 - (e) Zinc oxide
 - (f) Potassium sulfate
 - (g) Calcium hydroxide
12. Name the following compounds.
- (a) NH_4Cl
 - (b) KI
 - (c) $\text{Al}(\text{NO}_3)_3$
 - (d) $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3$
 - (e) KHCO_3
 - (f) MgCO_3
 - (g) HNO_3
13. Explain why group 18 is not listed in the table in this section showing valency of groups in the periodic table.

Imagine

14. Imagine that there was no recognised system for naming elements and compounds. Describe some of the problems this would lead to.

Create

15. Create your own ionic compound formula game. It could be an improved version of Investigation 4.6 above; however, it does not have to be a card game.
16. Use the **Chemical formulae** weblink in your Resources section and take the quiz to check your understanding of how chemical formulae are written.

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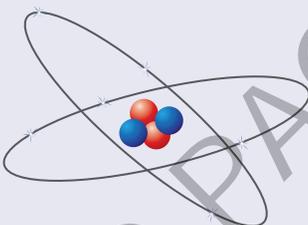
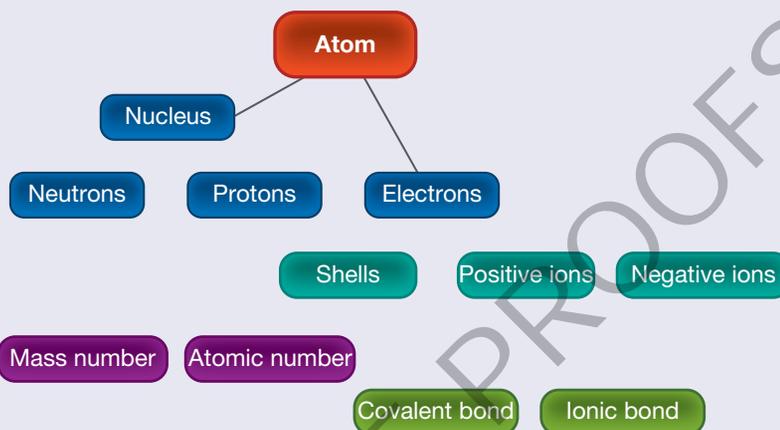
-  Explore more with this weblink: Chemical formulae
-  Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.8: Covalent bonding
Searchlight ID: eles-19443
-  Complete this digital doc: Worksheet 4.9: Chemical formulae
Searchlight ID: eles-19444

4.8 Exercises: Understanding and inquiring

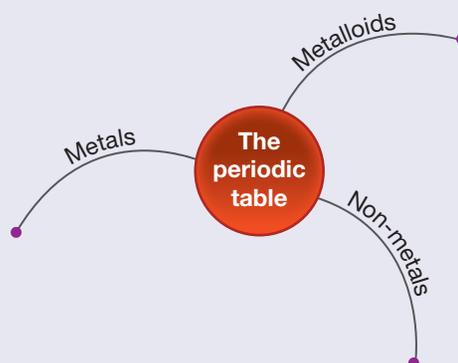
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Think and create

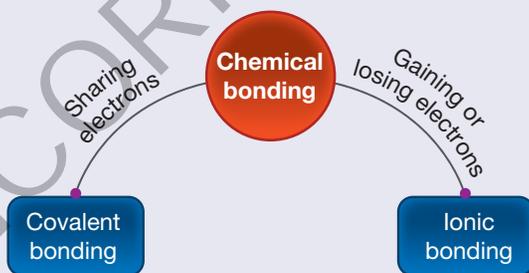
1. A concept map can be used to illustrate some of the important ideas associated with the atom and the links between them.
 - a. Copy the concept map below into your workbook and complete it by adding links between the ideas.
 - b. Construct your own concept map to show how ideas about what is inside substances are linked. Begin by working in a group to brainstorm the main ideas of the topic.
2. Create a concept map to illustrate ideas and links related to:
 - a. the structure of the atom
 - b. the periodic table.



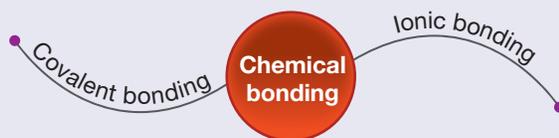
3. A mind map is similar to a concept map, but doesn't explain the links between the major concepts and ideas. Complete the mind map below to represent your knowledge of metals, non-metals and metalloids.
4. In a small group, brainstorm a list of important words, concepts and ideas associated with covalent bonding and ionic bonding. Use the list to create either a concept map or a mind map beginning with the term *chemical bonding*.



Concept map



Mind map



HOW ABOUT THAT!

Oxygen gas consists of molecules in which two oxygen atoms share electrons. The formula for oxygen gas is therefore O_2 . Ozone gas, which exists naturally in the upper atmosphere, consists of 'triplets' of oxygen atoms sharing electrons. The formula for ozone is therefore O_3 .

4.9 Project: The mystery metal

Scenario

Your eccentric aunt loves combing through junk shops in search of overlooked treasures, and every time you spend a day with her she'll make you go into one grubby store smelling of mangy mink coats after another. One day during the school holidays, you are wandering idly in one of these old junk shops while your aunt haggles for an old vase with the owner. You find a lump of metal in a drawer of an old dresser. The shopkeeper says that you can keep it and you put it in your pocket. Occasionally over the next few days you wonder what the metal is. Is it something valuable like platinum, or useful like aluminium? Or is it just an old lump of lead? By the end of the holidays, you've forgotten all about the lump of mystery metal.

When you get back to school, your science teacher announces that everyone in your class is to enter a competition that the Australian Chemistry Teachers' Association is running. The competition requires you to write an online 'Choose your own adventure' story that has a chemistry theme. You and your friends are scratching your heads trying to come up with an idea when, suddenly, you remember that lump of mystery metal you found in the junk shop. Maybe you could use that as the theme for your competition entry ...

Your task

Either on your own or as part of a group, develop a 'Choose your own adventure' story exploring the identification of the mystery metal. Create a series of interconnected PowerPoint slides that can be uploaded. A player starting at the first screen will advance through a storyline according to the choices they make at each slide. The choices will relate to various chemical and physical characteristics of the metal. The right sequence of choices will eventually lead to the correct identification of the mystery metal.

Process

Open the ProjectsPLUS application for this chapter located in your Resources section. Watch the introductory video lesson and then click the 'Start Project' button to set up your project group.



4.10 Review

4.10.1 Study checklist

Atoms and the periodic table

- recall the characteristics and location in the atom of protons, neutrons and electrons
- explain how the electron structure of an atom determines its position in the periodic table and its properties
- recognise that elements in the same group of the periodic table have similar properties
- recognise that the atomic numbers of elements in the periodic table increase from left to right across each period
- distinguish between the atomic number, mass number and relative atomic mass of an atom
- describe common properties of elements in each of the alkali metals, halogen and noble gas groups of the periodic table
- distinguish between the properties of metals, non-metals and metalloids

Electron shells and bonding

- describe the structure of atoms in terms of electron shells
- relate the energy of electrons to shells
- explain the movement of electrons to higher energy levels and the emission of light when they return to a lower level
- describe covalent bonding in terms of the sharing of electrons in the outer shells of atoms
- describe ionic bonding in terms of the formation of ions and relate it to the number of electrons in the outer electron shells of atoms
- relate the reactivity of metals to the electron shell structure of their atoms and their location in the periodic table

Valency and chemical formulae

- define the valency of an element as the number of electrons an atom needs to gain, lose or share to fill its outer shell
- relate the valency of an atom to its group in the periodic table
- deduce the formula of a variety of simple covalent and ionic compounds from the valency of their constituent elements

Science as a human endeavour

- investigate how the periodic table was developed and how this depended on experimental evidence at the time
- describe the hazards associated with the use of lead and describe recent attempts to reduce its use
- relate the reactivity of metals to the mining industry
- describe the extraction of copper, tin and iron by ancient civilisations
- describe the uses of bronze and iron by ancient civilisations

Individual pathways

ACTIVITY 4.1

Revising chemical patterns
doc-8470

ACTIVITY 4.2

Investigating chemical patterns
doc-8471

ACTIVITY 4.3

Investigating chemical patterns further
doc-8472

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4.9 Review 1: Looking back

To answer questions online and to receive **immediate feedback** and **sample responses** for every question, go to your learnON title at www.jacplus.com.au. *Note:* Question numbers may vary slightly.

1. Explain why it is more useful to display the elements as a periodic table than as a list.
2. The periodic table is an arrangement of all the known elements. What information is given by the group and period numbers on the periodic table?
3. Explain how the periodic table has helped chemists of both the past and present when they are searching for new elements.
4. Explain why water does not appear in the periodic table.
5. Write the atomic number and mass number of the following atoms and then calculate the number of protons, neutrons and electrons they have.
 - (a) $^{28}_{14}\text{Si}$
 - (b) $^{52}_{24}\text{Cr}$
 - (c) $^{197}_{79}\text{Au}$
 - (d) $^{206}_{82}\text{Pb}$
 - (e) $^{242}_{94}\text{Pu}$
6. To which group of elements in the periodic table does the neon used in lighting belong?
7. List five properties that all (or almost all) metals have in common.
8. List five properties that most solid non-metals have in common.
9. As you move down the groups in the periodic table, how does the reactivity change for:
 - (a) metals
 - (b) non-metals?
10. As you move across the periodic table, what changes occur in:
 - (a) atomic number
 - (b) mass number
 - (c) melting points
 - (d) metallic character?
11. Although they look very different from each other and have very different uses, arsenic, germanium and silicon belong to the group of elements known as metalloids. How are metalloids different from all of the other elements in the periodic table?
12. Copy and complete the following table.

Name	Symbol	Atomic number	Electron configuration
Lithium	Li	3	2, 1
	C	6	
			2, 6
Neon			
	Na		
		13	
			2, 8, 5
Chlorine			
	K		2, 8, 8, 1
	Ca	20	

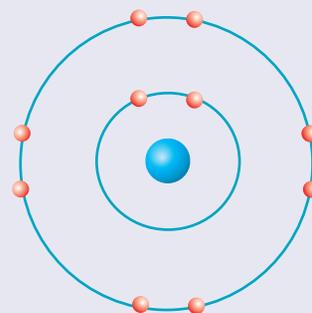
13. All atoms of the element magnesium have 12 protons. Of those atoms, 80 per cent have 12 neutrons.
 - (a) State the atomic number of magnesium.
 - (b) What is the mass number of most magnesium atoms?
 - (c) How many electrons orbit a neutral magnesium atom?
 - (d) Explain why all magnesium atoms don't have the same mass number.

14. Copy and complete the following table.

Ion	Ion symbol	Atomic number	Electron configuration
		3	2
	Na ⁺		
		12	2, 8, 8
	N ³⁻		
		9	2, 8
Sulfide			

15. The electron shell diagram at right has its first two shells filled. It could represent a neutral atom, a positive ion or a negative ion. Identify the names and symbols of the atom or ion if it represents:

- a neutral atom (identify one)
 - a positive ion (identify two)
 - a negative ion (identify two).
16. Show how the following ionic compounds form.
- Lithium fluoride (LiF)
 - Sodium oxide (Na₂O)
17. Show how the following covalent compounds form.
- Hydrogen chloride (HCl)
 - Ammonia (NH₃)
18. What are the differences between the properties of ionic and covalent compounds?
19. Explain why you are more likely to find pure gold than pure copper in the ground.
20. Explain why metals such as gold, silver and copper were discovered about 2000 years ago while the metals potassium, sodium and calcium were not discovered until about 200 years ago.
21. Write formulae for the following substances.
- Oxygen gas
 - Carbon dioxide gas
 - Aluminium oxide
 - Sodium fluoride
 - Calcium carbonate
 - Zinc chloride
 - Iron(III) sulfide
 - Sulfur dioxide
 - Carbon
 - Lead



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