

2 The particulate nature of matter

Content

- 2.1 Kinetic particle theory
- 2.2 Atomic structure
- 2.3 Structure and properties of materials
- 2.4 Ionic bonding
- 2.5 Covalent bonding
- 2.6 Metallic bonding

Learning outcomes

Candidates should be able to:

2.1 Kinetic particle theory

- (a) describe the solid, liquid and gaseous states of matter and explain their interconversion in terms of the kinetic particle theory and of the energy changes involved
- (b) describe and explain evidence for the movement of particles in liquids and gases (the treatment of Brownian motion is not required)
- (c) explain everyday effects of diffusion in terms of particles, e.g. the spread of perfumes and cooking aromas; tea and coffee grains in water
- (d) state qualitatively the effect of molecular mass on the rate of diffusion and explain the dependence of rate of diffusion on temperature
- (e) state qualitatively and explain the effects of temperature and pressure on the volumes of gases

2.2 Atomic structure

- (a) state the relative charges and approximate relative masses of a proton, a neutron and an electron
- (b) describe, with the aid of diagrams, the structure of an atom as containing protons and neutrons (nucleons) in the nucleus and electrons arranged in shells (energy levels) (no knowledge of s, p, d and f classification will be expected; a copy of the Periodic Table will be available in Papers 1 and 2)
- (c) define proton number and nucleon number
- (d) interpret and use symbols such as $^{12}_6\text{C}$
- (e) define the term *isotopes*
- (f) deduce the numbers of protons, neutrons and electrons in atoms and ions from proton and nucleon numbers

2.3 Structure and properties of materials

- (a) describe the differences between elements, compounds and mixtures
- (b) compare the structure of simple molecular substances, e.g. methane, iodine, with those of giant covalent substances, e.g. sand, diamond, graphite in order to deduce their properties
- (c) compare the bonding and structures of diamond and graphite in order to deduce properties such as electrical conductivity, lubricating or cutting action (candidates will not be required to draw the structures)
- (d) deduce the physical and chemical properties of substances from their structures and bonding and vice versa

2.4 Ionic bonding

- (a) describe the formation of ions by electron loss/gain in order to obtain the electronic configuration of an inert gas
- (b) describe the formation of ionic bonds between metals and non-metals, e.g. NaCl ; MgCl_2
- (c) state that ionic materials contain a giant lattice in which the ions are held by electrostatic attraction, e.g. NaCl (candidates will not be required to draw diagrams of ionic lattices)
- (d) relate the physical properties (including electrical property) of ionic compounds to their lattice structure

2.5 Covalent bonding

- (a) describe the formation of a covalent bond by the sharing of a pair of electrons in order to gain the electronic configuration of an inert gas
- (b) describe, using 'dot-and-cross' diagrams, the formation of covalent bonds between non-metallic elements, e.g. H_2 ; Cl_2 ; O_2 ; HCl ; N_2 ; H_2O ; CH_4 ; C_2H_4 ; CO_2
- (c) deduce the arrangement of electrons in other covalent molecules
- (d) relate the physical properties (including electrical properties) of covalent compounds to their structure and bonding

2.6 Metallic bonding

- (a) describe metallic bonding as the electrostatic attraction between positive ions in a lattice and a 'sea of electrons'
- (b) relate the malleability of metals to their structure and the electrical conductivity of metals to the mobility of the electrons in the structure

Particle Nature of Matter

Kinetic particle theory

According to this theory all matter is made up of particles which are in a constant motion.

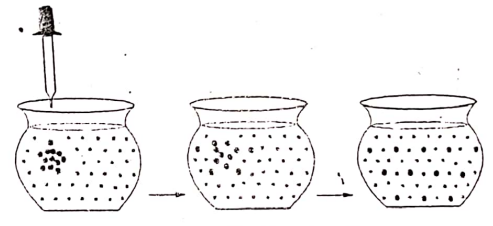
Verification or evidence of particle nature of matter

Diffusion is the evidence of kinetic particle theory, it can be defined as "mixing up of particles due to their motion".

Comparison of diffusion in solid, liquid and gases

EXAMPLES:

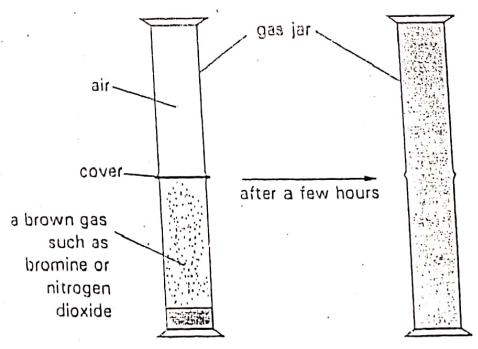
- ① When a crystal of potassium manganate(VII) is dropped into water, the purple colour will spread slowly throughout the liquid until a uniform purple colour is observed.



Diffusion of solid (potassium manganate(VII) crystals) in water

- ② When perfume is sprayed in one corner of a room, the particles spread until the scent is detected in all parts of the room. This is evidence of diffusion of a liquid.

- ③ When a few drops of bromine is put into a gas jar as in Figure 2.4, the bromine will vapourise to fill up the gas jar. A gas jar full of air is then placed on top of the gas jar full of bromine vapour and the jar lids are removed. The reddish brown vapour spreads throughout the two gas jars over a period of time, even though the bromine vapour is denser than air.



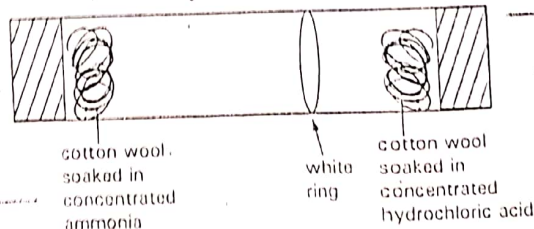
Diffusion of gas (bromine)

Factors affecting rate of diffusion

Rate of diffusion is affected by the temperature and molecular mass or density of the substance.

Temperature :- Higher the temperature, greater will be the rate of diffusion due to the faster motion of particles.

Molecular mass or density :- Substances with lower mass or lower density diffuse faster. This can be proved by the reaction HCl gas and ammonia gas

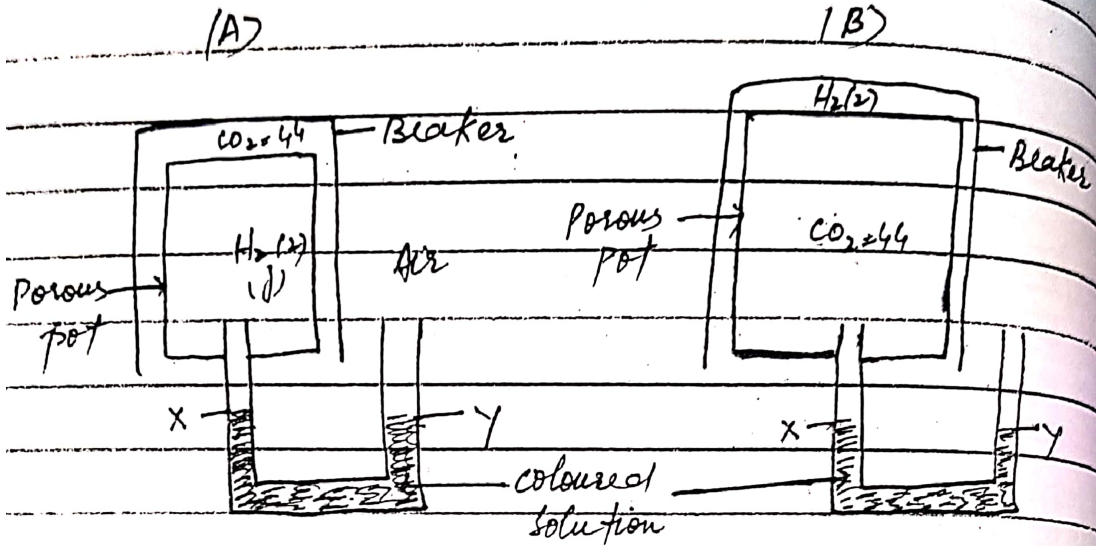


Reaction between hydrogen chloride gas and ammonia gas

After a few minutes a white ring of solid ammonium chloride appears inside the glass tube. This white ring is closer to the hydrogen chloride end rather than the ammonia end.

This is because HCl molecules have larger relative molecular mass as compared to ammonia molecules (17) so HCl molecules move slower than ammonia molecules and cover lesser distance.

Relative diffusion of gases



What will happen with the level of coloured solution at X in diagram A and in B?

Level of solution at X will rise and then after some time it will fall and come back to its original position.

Reason

H_2 has lower mass so its rate of diffusion from the porous pot will be faster. As a result vacuum will be created in the porous which will allow the level of solution to rise at X but after some time both the gases will diffuse in air and level of solution will fall back to its original position.

Level of solution at X will fall and then it will come back to its original position after some time.

Reason

H_2 being lighter and will diffuse faster inside the porous pot, this will cause an increase in pressure inside the porous pot and will cause the level of solution at X to fall but when both gases diffuse in air, level of solution rises and come back to its original position.

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States of Matter

or
Elements, compounds and mixtures

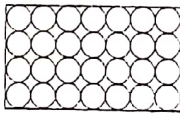
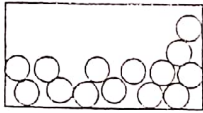
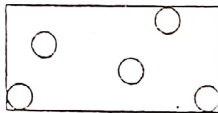
Anything which has mass and occupies space is called matter.

States of Matter

Solid	Liquid	Gas
Fixed volume	Fixed volume	No fixed volume
Fixed shape	No fixed shape. Takes the shape of the container it is in	No fixed shape. Takes the shape of the container it is in

Three states of matter

Difference between solid, liquid and gas

Property	Solid	Liquid	Gas
Packing between particles	Very closely packed	Closely packed	Very far apart
Forces of attraction between particles	Very strong forces of attraction between particles	Strong forces of attraction between particles	Very weak forces of attraction between particles
Motion of particles	Vibrate about a fixed position	Particles can slide over each other	Particles are in random motion
Diagrammatic representation of the particles in each of the physical states			

Differences between solid, liquid and gas

Types of Matter or Substances

Pure Substances

made up of same type of particles

Elements

Atomic elements

made up of atoms
C, S, Na, K
Mg, Fe, Si

Molecular elements

made up of molecules
H₂, O₂, O₃, N₂
F₂, Cl₂, Br₂, I₂, At₂

Compounds

When two or more different elements, chemically combined together are called compounds
CO₂, SO₂, NO₂, NaCl, MgO

Mixtures

made up of different types of particles

Homogeneous mixture

Mixture which has same composition throughout

of NaCl and water

Heterogeneous mixture

Mixture which does not have same composition throughout

e.g. mixture of sand and water

(50)

Difference between mixture and compound

Compound

It is formed when two or more substances chemically combine together.

It can be represented by a chemical formula.

Components of a compound lose their individual properties.

Components of a compound are always in a fixed proportion by mass.

Components of a compound cannot be separated by a physical method, rather a chemical method is required e.g. thermal decomposition or electrolysis

Mixture

⇒ It is formed when two or more substances physically combined

⇒ It cannot be represented by a chemical formula

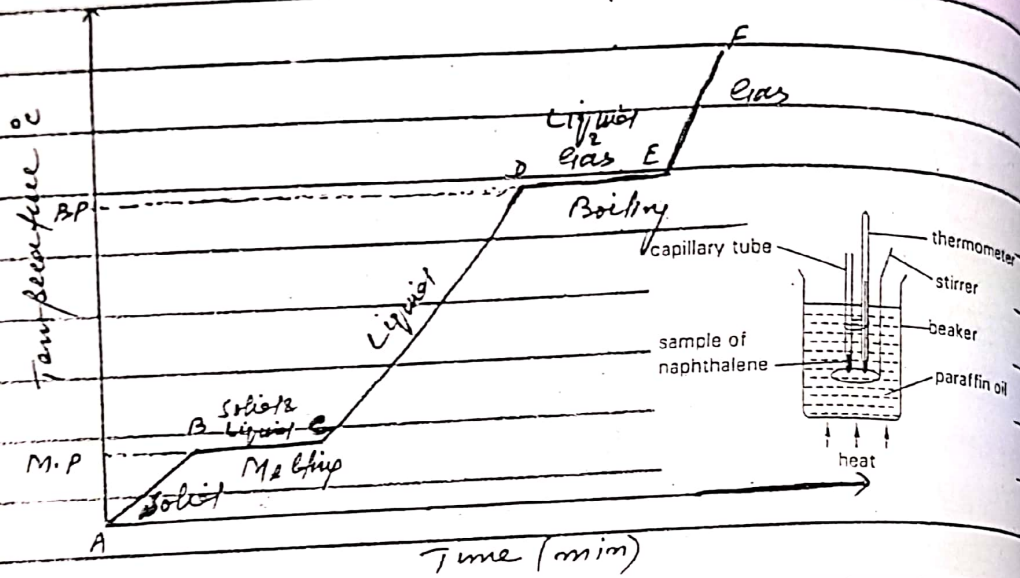
⇒ Components of mixture maintain their individual properties.

⇒ Components of a mixture are not in a fixed proportion

⇒ Components of a mixture can be easily separated by using simple physical methods e.g. filtration, sublimation, distillation etc

Change in the state of Matter

Heating curve



Melting point :- It is the temperature at which the two states (solid & liquid) of a substance coexist.

Boiling point :- It is the temperature at which the two states (liquid & gas) of a substance coexist.

Cooling curve

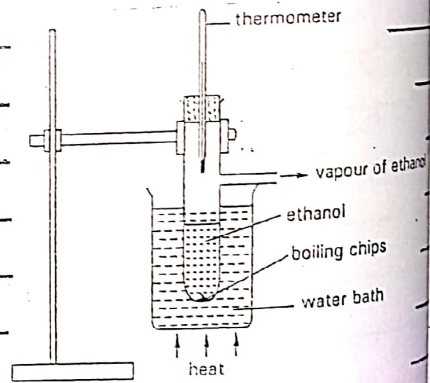
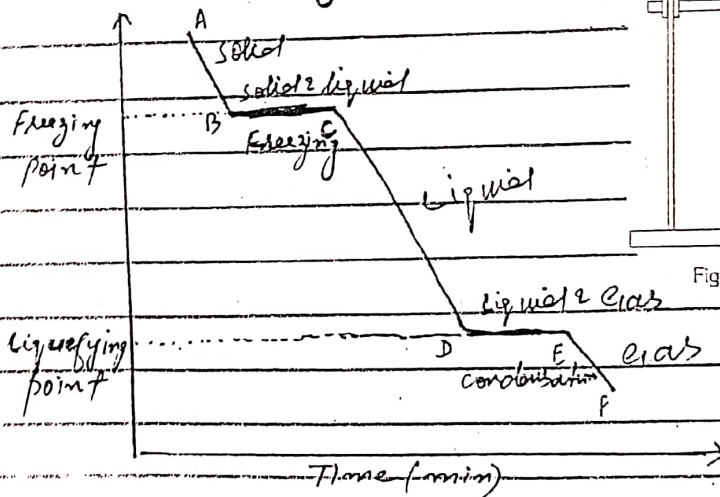
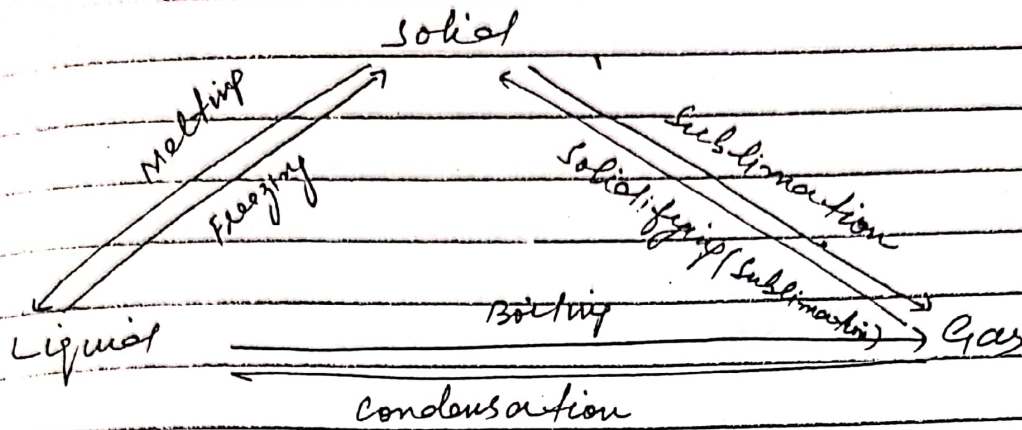


Fig 1.9 Boiling point determination



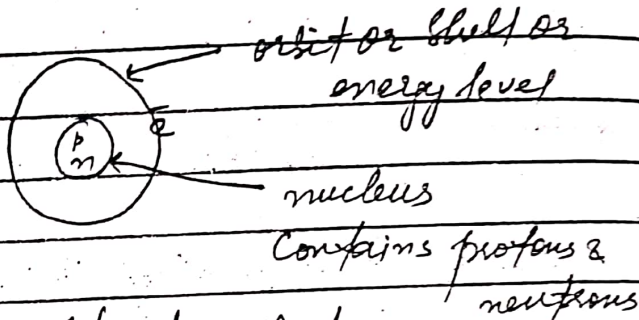
Effect of impurities on the melting point and boiling point

Impurities always ^{decrease} the melting point of solids while ^{Increase} the boiling point of liquids.

(01)

Atomic structure & Chemical Bonding

Atoms - Atoms are the building blocks of matter. An atom is represented by a sphere.



Structure of atom

- An atom is electrically neutral due to equal number of positively charged particles (protons) and negatively charged particles (electrons).
- Protons and electrons have same but opposite charges.

Properties of electrons, protons and neutrons

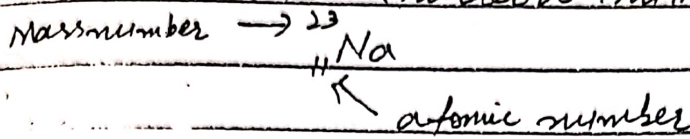
Particle	Relative charge	Relative mass
Proton	+1	1
neutron	0	1
electron	-1	$\frac{1}{1840}$ of the mass of proton

Atomic number or Proton number

The number of protons present in an atom is called its atomic number or proton number.

Atomic mass or mass number or nucleon number

The sum of protons and neutrons present in the nucleus of an atom is called its mass number or nucleon number.



Relative atomic mass (A_r)

The mass of an atom of an element as compared to the $\frac{1}{12}$ th of the mass of an atom of carbon 12 which is taken as 12.

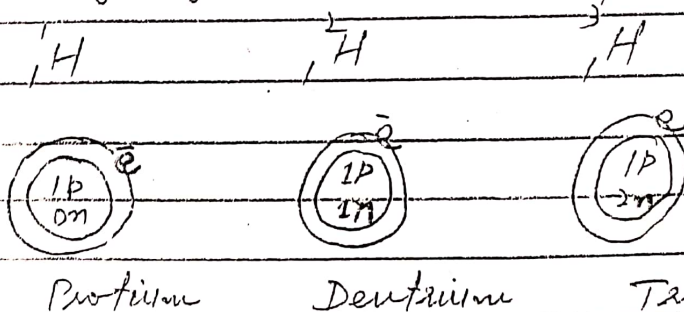
$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{12}$ of 12 is equal to 1.

$\Rightarrow A_r$ of ^{24}Mg , so one atom of magnesium is 24 times heavier than $\frac{1}{12}$ th of the mass of an atom of carbon 12 .

Isotopes

Atoms of the same element which have same proton number but different mass number due to the different number of neutrons are called isotopes.

e.g; Hydrogen has 3 isotopes



Mass number of chlorine is in fraction i.e. 35.5

As of Chlorine is 35.5, it has 17 protons and 18 neutrons.

Sum of 17 and 18 is 35.

Atomic mass of chlorine is the average of the atomic masses of its isotopes with respect to their abundance.

³⁵ Cl	³⁷ Cl
Abundance 75%	25%

$$A_r = \frac{\text{Mass of isotope} \times \text{Abundance} + \text{Mass of isotope} \times \text{Abundance}}{\text{Total abundance}}$$

$$35 \times 75 + 37 \times 25 = 35.5$$

Radioactive isotopes 100

Some isotopes emit radioactive rays (alpha, beta) and gamma rays) and are used in the treatment of cancer.

Relative molecular mass (Mr)

The mass of a molecule of a compound or element as compared to $\frac{1}{12}$ th of the mass of an atom of Carbon ¹².

$$M_r \text{ of } H_2 = 2$$

$$M_r \text{ of } O_2 = 32$$

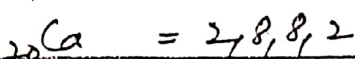
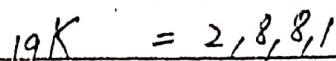
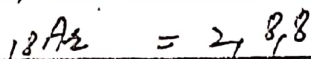
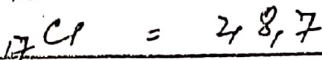
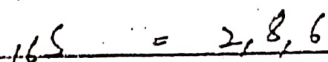
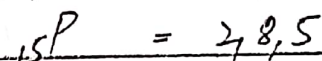
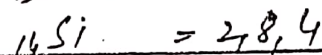
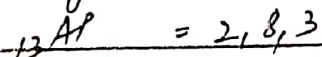
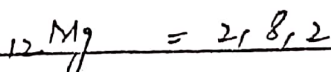
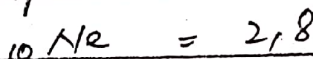
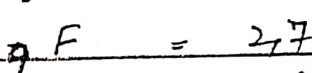
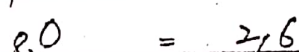
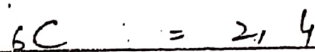
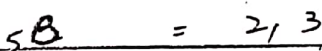
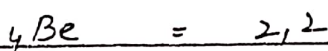
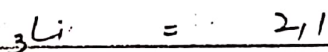
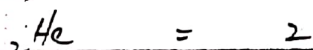
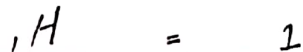
one molecule of O_2 is 32 times heavier than $\frac{1}{12}$ th of the mass of an atom of carbon taken as 12.

Electronic Configuration

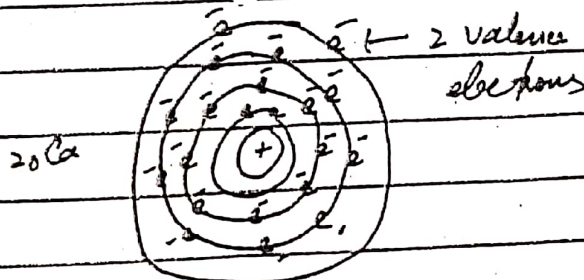
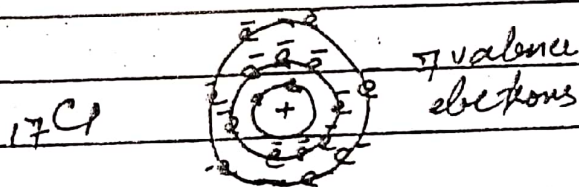
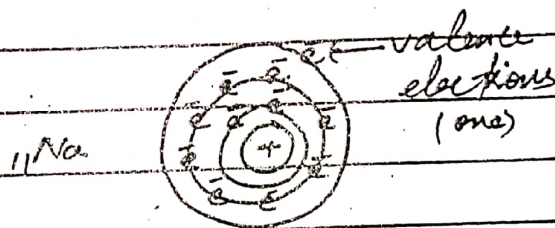
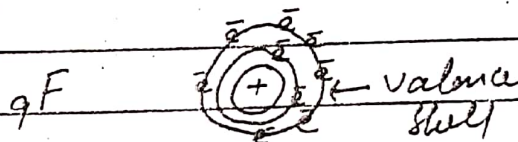
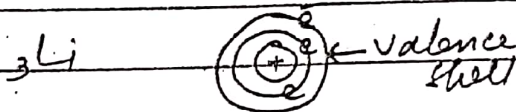
Arrangement of electrons in different shells or orbits is called electronic configuration.

Shells	Electrons
1	2
2	8
3	8
4	8

Electronic configuration of 1st twenty elements

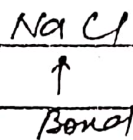
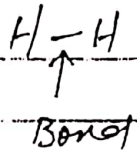


Atomic structure



(05) Chemical Bonding

Chemical Bond:- Chemical bond is a force of attraction which holds atoms together in the form of molecule or compound.



Why atoms form chemical bond?

Atoms form chemical bond to complete their valence shell by 2 electrons or by 8 electrons.

Presence of two electrons in the valence shell is called duplet.

Presence of 8 electrons in the valence shell is called octet.

Types of Chemical bond

There are three types of chemical bond

- (i) Ionic bond
- (ii) Covalent bond
- (iii) Metallic bond

Ionic bond

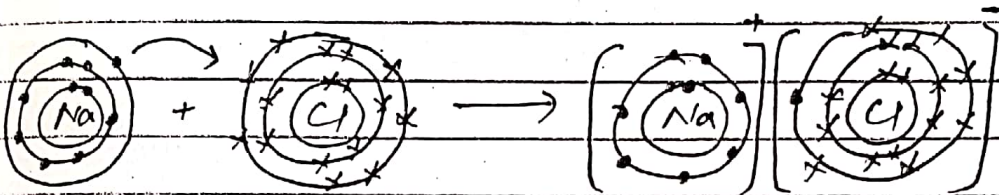
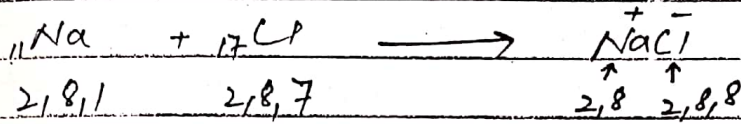
Charge containing substances are called ions.

Ionic bond is formed by the transfer of electron from metal atoms to non metal atoms.

Metals after losing electron get positive charge while non metals after gaining

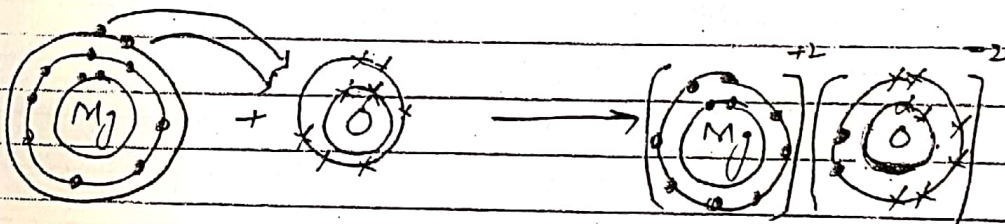
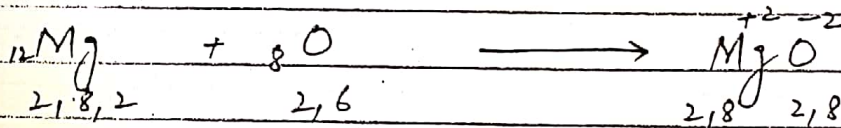
electrons get negative charge.

Formation of NaCl



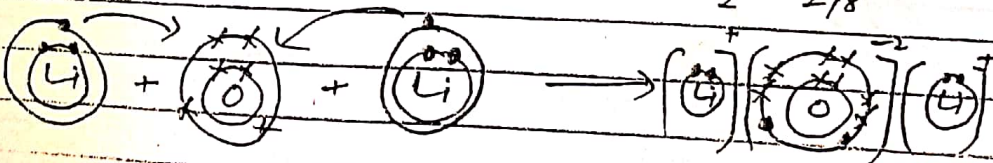
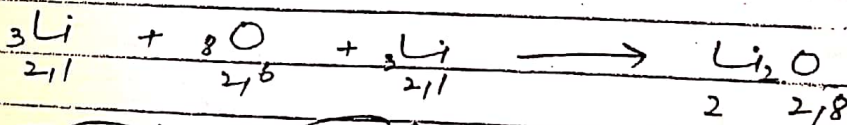
Electrostatic force of attraction (Dot & cross structure)

Formation of MgO



Dot & cross structure

Formation of Li₂O



Definition of Ionic bond

It is an electrostatic force of attraction which holds oppositely charged ions together.

Covalent bond

A type of Bond which is formed by sharing one or more pairs of electrons between two non-metals.

Types of Covalent bond

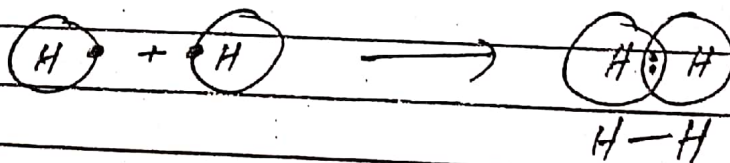
- (i) Single covalent bond
- (ii) Double covalent bond
- (iii) Triple covalent bond

Single covalent bond

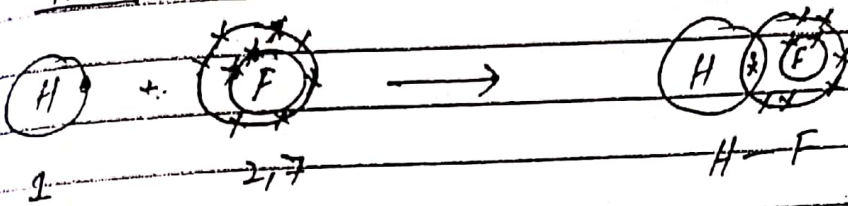
A covalent bond which is formed by sharing one pair of electrons.

Following are the examples of molecule have single covalent bond.

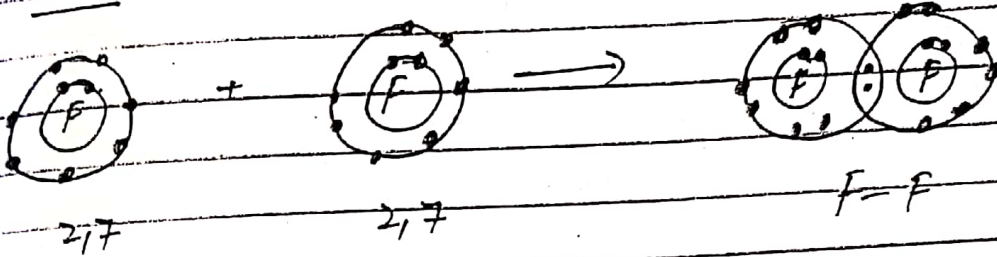
H₂



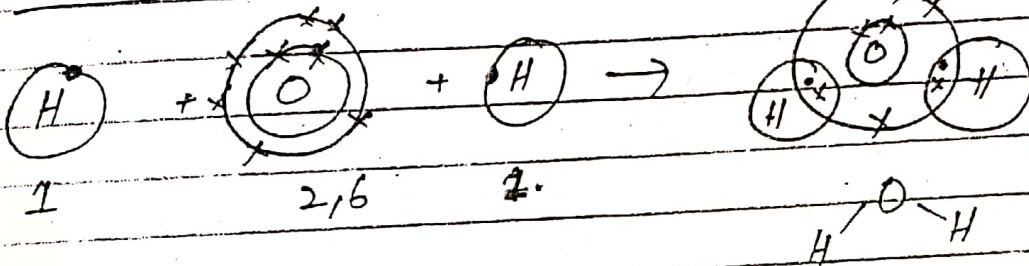
HF



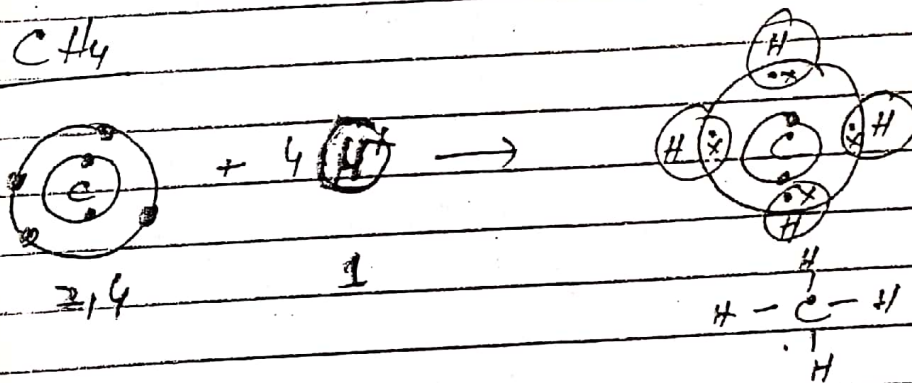
F₂



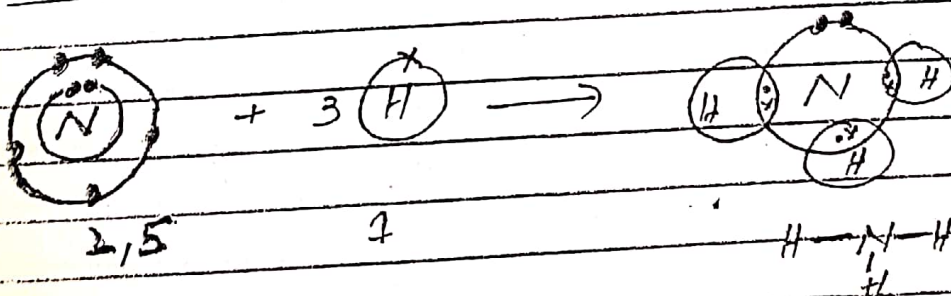
H₂O



CH₄

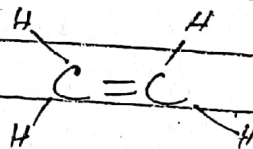
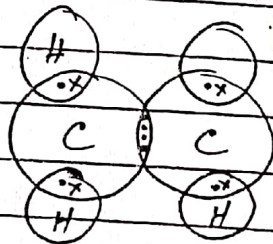
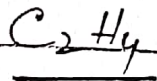
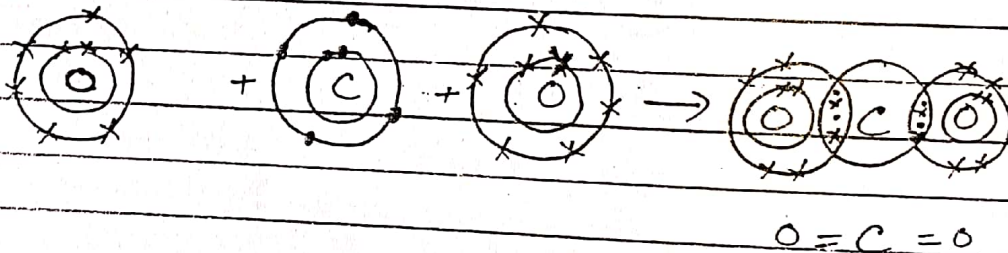
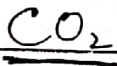
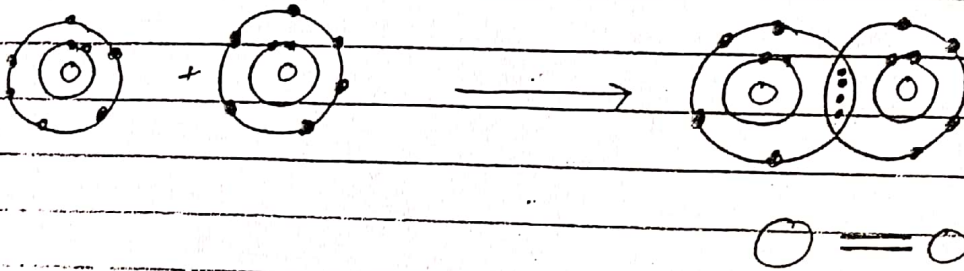
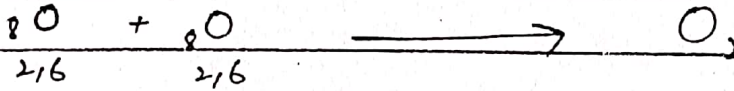


NH₃



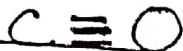
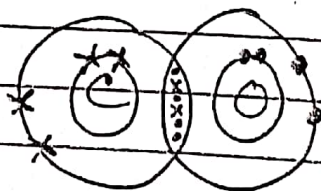
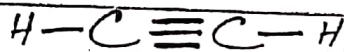
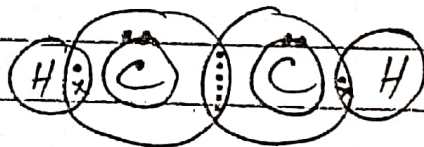
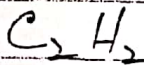
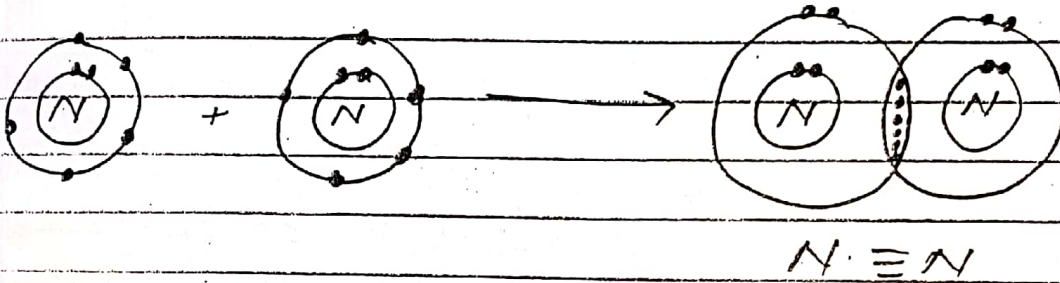
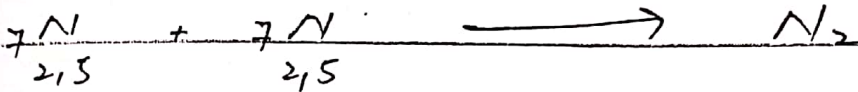
Double Covalent bond

A covalent bond which is formed by sharing two pairs of electrons between two atoms.



Triple covalent bond

A covalent bond which is formed by sharing three pairs of electrons between two atoms.



B.P

n

very

Properties of Ionic & Covalent compounds

Ionic Compounds

(i) Most are solids with high M.P., B.P and high density

Reason

Due to many strong electrostatic forces between opposite ions, which need high energy to separate ions

(ii) Can conduct electricity in their molten and aqueous state but not in their solid state.

Reason

When solid, their ions are fixed but in molten and aqueous state, ions can move freely

(iii) ^{Most} Are soluble in water but are insoluble in organic solvents e.g; in petrol, ethanol etc

Covalent compounds

(i) Most are gases and liquids with low M.P., B.P and low density

Due to weak van der Waal's forces between molecules which need lesser energy to break these forces.

(ii) Cannot conduct electricity in any of their state.

Reason

Do not have freely moving ions in any of their state, only molecules

(iii) ^{Most} are insoluble in water but are soluble in organic solvents.

Ionic compounds
 Ionic compounds exist as
 giant ionic crystal lattice

Covalent compounds
 covalent compounds
 exist as simple
 and giant molecular
 lattice.

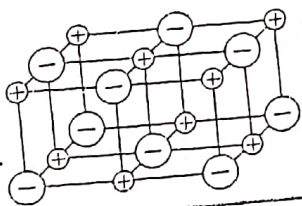
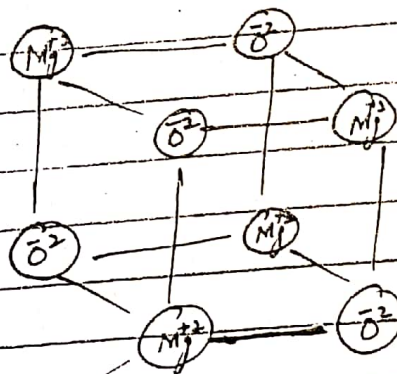
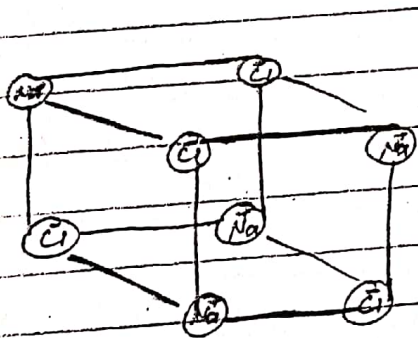
Ionic crystal lattice

All Ionic compounds exist as giant ionic
 lattice.

Lattice :- Regular, repeating and three
 dimensional arrangement of particles is
 called lattice.

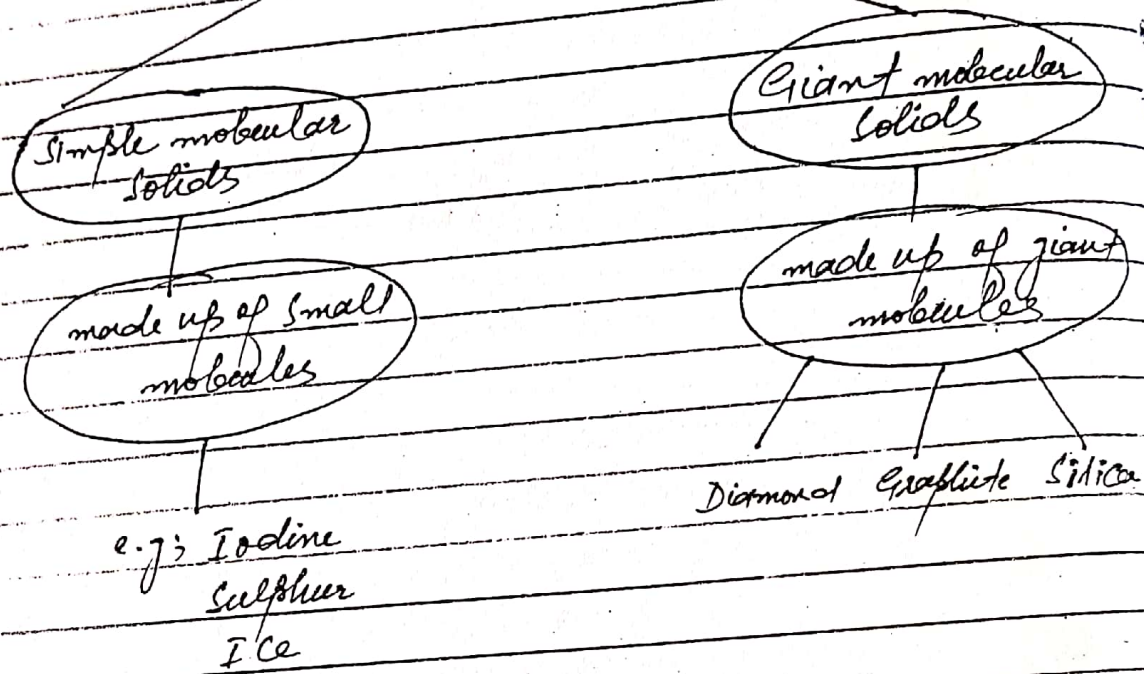
Crystal lattice of NaCl and MgO

NaCl and MgO both have cubic crystal
 lattice.



MgO has higher M.P & B.P
 than NaCl due to greater
 charges over opposite ion
 and have stronger
 electrostatic forces
 which need greater energy
 to separate ions.

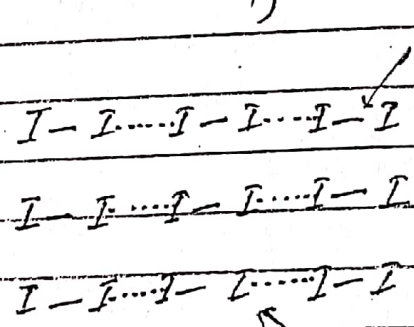
Types of Covalent Solids



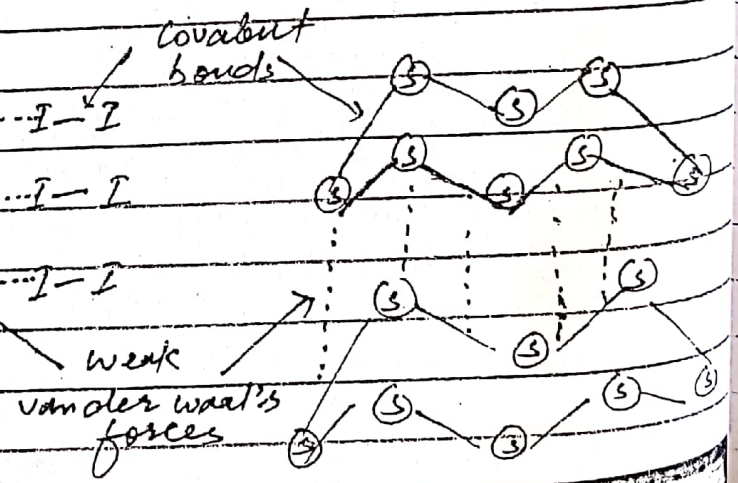
Simple molecular solids

Simple molecular solids are made up of small molecules, which have weak van der Waals forces between their molecules, therefore they have low M.P & B.P and lower density.

Structure of iodine



Structure of sulphur



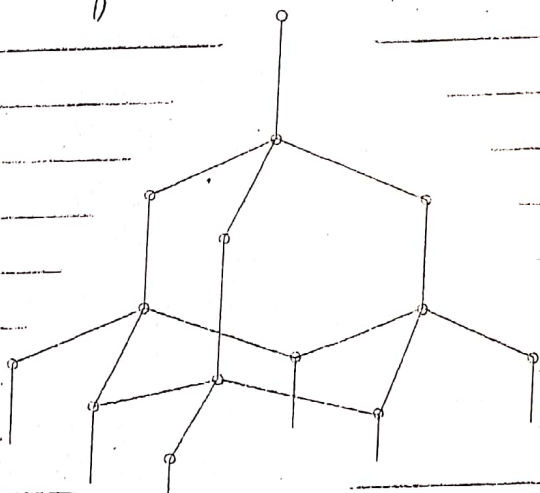
Giant molecular solids

Giant molecular solids are made up of large number of atoms with many strong covalent bonds between atoms.

Structure of Diamond

Diamond is an allotrope of carbon. In diamond large number of carbon atoms are bonded to form a giant tetrahedral structure.

In diamond each carbon atom is covalently bonded with four other carbon atoms.



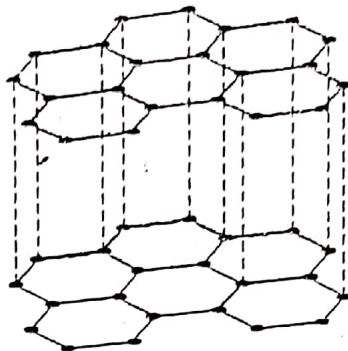
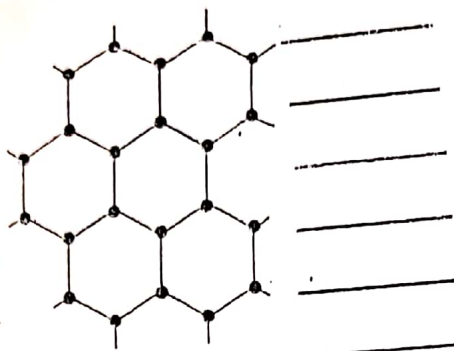
Structure of Graphite

Graphite is another allotrope of carbon.

Graphite has a layered structure.

In graphite each carbon atom is covalently bonded with 3 other carbon atoms to form hexagonal rings.

Layers in graphite are held together by weak van der Waals forces.



Allotropes: Different forms of the same element which are same chemically but have different structures.

Properties of Diamond and Graphite

Diamond

(i) High M.P, B.P and density

Due to many strong covalent bonds which need high energy to break.

(ii) Cannot conduct electricity due to the absence of freely moving electrons.

(iii) Hard and strong due to high M.P and giant structure and is used as drills to cut rocks and cut glass.

Graphite

High M.P, B.P and density

Due to many strong covalent bonds which need higher energy to break.

Graphite has lesser number of covalent bonds therefore its M.P is slightly lower than that of diamond.

Can conduct electricity due to the presence of freely moving electrons. Therefore used as electrodes in batteries.

Soft and slippery due to weak van der Waal's forces between layer which allow layers to slide. Therefore graphite

Diamond

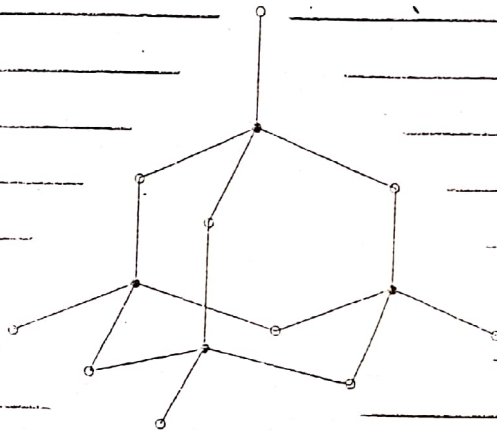
(16)

Graphite

is used as lubricant in machines and as lead in pencils.

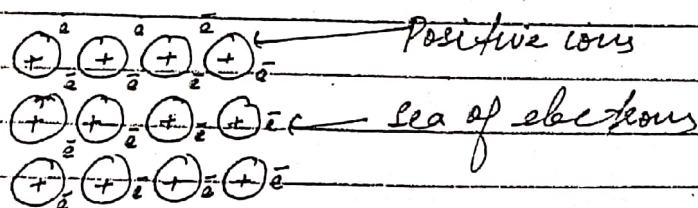
Structure of silica (SiO_2)

In silica each silicon atom is covalently bonded with four oxygen and each oxygen is bonded with two silicon atoms to form a giant tetrahedral structure.



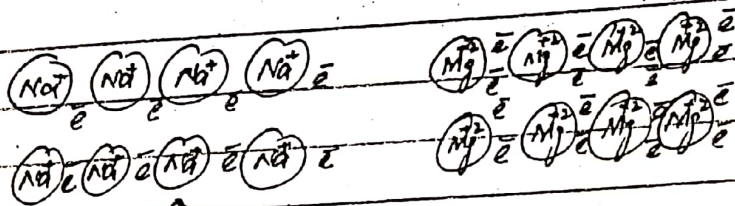
Metallic bonding

Metallic bonding is an electrostatic force of attraction between positive ions and sea of electrons.

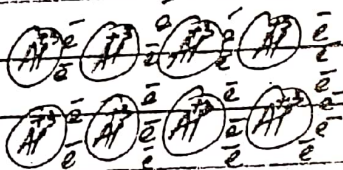


Strength of Metallic bonding

Strength of metallic bonding depends upon number of valence electrons. Greater the number of valence electrons stronger will be the metallic bonding.



↑
weakest metallic bonding
Lower M.P & B.P

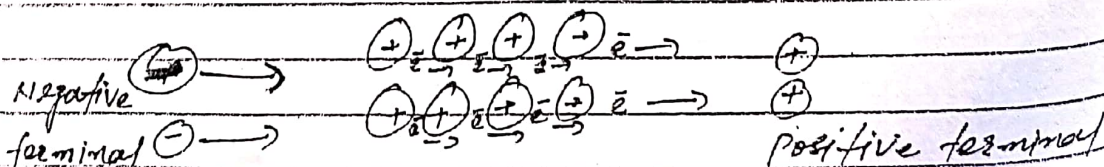


↑
strongest metallic bonding
Higher M.P & B.P

Properties of metals

⇒ Metals have high M.P & B.P & density due to many strong electrostatic forces between positive ions and sea of electrons.

⇒ Metals are good conductors of heat and electricity due to the sea of electrons.



Metals are malleable and ductile, i.e. can be converted into sheets and wires. This is due to the presence of metal atoms in the form of rows or layers which slide over each other when force is applied over metal.

○○○○○○○ ← force
○○○○○○○
○○○○○○○
○○○○○○○

Metal

○○○○○○○
○○○○○○○
○○○○○○○
○○○○○○○

After force is applied