## Introduction to

 CHEMISTRY
## CHEM 101

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## Lecture Presentation

## Chapter 2

## Atoms, Molecules, Ions and Periodicity

الذرات والجزيــات،
والأيونـات وتواتر ها

## Matter: Its Theories \& Laws

- Law of the Conservation of Matter

قانون حفظ المـادة

- Atomic Theory of Matter النظرية الأرية للمـادة
- Law of Definite Proportions
- Law of Multiple Proportions


## Law of the Conservation of Matter

## Matter is neither created nor destroyed in a chemical reaction.

Total mass of used reactants = Total mass of products produced Total number of reactant atoms $=$ Total number of product atoms


## Atomic Theory of Matter

## Dalton's atomic theory of matter proposes that:

- Atoms are small, discrete, indivisible pieces of matter.
- All elements are made up of particles called atoms.
- An element's atoms are identical in size, mass, \& chemical properties.
- Scientists did not know about isotopes.
- Isotopes are elemental atoms that differ in their mass due to different number of neutrons.
- Molecules (compounds) are formed when two or more elements combined.
- Molecules are simple whole-number ratios of the combined elements.


## Law of Definite Proportions

## Law of definite proportions:

$>$ For a given compound, the elements always combine in the same proportion.
$>$ All samples of a given compound, regardless of their source or how they were prepared, have the same proportions of their constituent elements
For example:

- Sodium chloride molecule $(\mathbf{N a C l})$ is always a $1: 1$ ratio of one sodium atom to chlorine atom.
- A 100.0 g sample of $\mathbf{N a C l}$ contains $39.3 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{Na} \& 60.7 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{Cl}$.

$$
\frac{\text { Mass Cl }}{\text { Mass Na }}=\frac{60.7 \mathrm{~g}}{39.3 \mathrm{~g}}=\underline{1.54}
$$

- A 58.44 g sample of NaCl contains $22.99 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{Na} \& 35.44 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{Cl}$.

$$
\frac{\text { Mass Cl }}{\text { Mass Na }}=\frac{35.44 \mathrm{~g}}{22.99 \mathrm{~g}}=\underline{1.54}
$$

## Law of Multiple Proportions

## Law of multiple proportions:

- Two elements $\mathbf{A}$ and $X$ can form different compounds by combining in different proportions.
- These combinations can be represented as a ratio.
- For example:
- A molecule of carbon dioxide $\left(\mathrm{CO}_{2}\right)$ has a ratio of 1 C atom to every 2 atoms of oxygen, or 1:2.
- A molecule of carbon monoxide (CO) has a ratio of 1 C atom to 1 atom of oxygen, or 1:1.




## Atomic Structure: Discovery of the Electron

## Discovery of electron:

- Millikan oil drop experiment
- Investigation led to determining the charge of the electron.



## Atomic Structure: Electron

- Electrons are particles found in all atoms.
- One of the fundamental pieces of matter
- The electron has a charge of $-1.60 \times 10^{-19} \mathrm{C}$.
- The electron has a mass of $9.1 \times 10^{-28} \mathrm{~g}$.
- If the particle has the same amount of charge as a hydrogen ion, then it must have a mass almost 2000x smaller than hydrogen atoms


## Atomic Structure: Plum-Pudding Model

- J. J. Thomson (plum-pudding model)
- The atom is composed of a positive cloud of matter in which electrons are embedded.
- Explains the positive ( + ), negative ( - ) charged behavior of matter



## Rutherford's Gold Foil Experiment Setup



## Gold foil experiment:

Could not explain Thomson's plum-pudding atom model.
Led to the discovery of the atom's nucleus.

## Rutherford \& the Nucleus: Gold Foil Experiment

From the gold foil experiment, the following conclusions were proposed:

- The atom contains a tiny, dense center called the nucleus.
- The nucleus has essentially the entire mass of the atom.
- The electrons weigh so little they give practically no mass to the atom.
- The nucleus is positively charged.
- The amount of positive charge balances the negative charge of the electrons.
- The electrons are dispersed in the empty space of the atom surrounding the nucleus.



## Atomic Structure: Historic Perspective

- Rutherford's model (solar system)
- The atom is mostly empty space with a DENSE center of mass (nucleus) and circling electrons.
- It proposed that the nucleus had a particle that had the same amount of charge as an electron but opposite sign.
- These particles are called protons.
- charge $=+1.60 \times 10^{-19} \mathrm{C}$
- mass $=1.67262 \times 10^{-24} \mathrm{~g}$
- Since protons and electrons have the same amount of charge, for the atom to be neutral, there must be equal numbers of protons and electrons.


## Elements

## Structure of the Atom

All matter is composed of the same basic building blocks called atoms.
Atoms are composed of three subatomic particles:

TABLE 2.3 Summary: The Properties of the Three Subatomic Particles

| Subatomic Particle | Charge | Mass (g) | Mass (amu) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Proton | +1 | $1.6726 \times 10^{-24}$ | 1 |
| Neutron | 0 | $1.6749 \times 10^{-24}$ | 1 |
| Electron | -1 | $9.1093 \times 10^{-28}$ | Negligible |

## Elements

- The number of protons located in an atom's nucleus determines the element's identity.
- The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom is called the atomic number.





## Isotopes

- Isotopes are elements whose atoms differ in mass only.
- They differ in mass because these elemental atoms have different number of neutrons.
- They are the same element because they have the same number of protons (atomic number).
- They are chemically identical.
- Isotopes are identified by their mass numbers.
- Protons $\boldsymbol{+}$ neutrons $=$ mass number
- Isotopic symbol

| 13 <br> Al <br> Alomic number, $Z$ <br> 26.981 | Atom symbol |
| :---: | :---: |
| Atomic weight |  |

## Carbon-12 Carbon - 13 Carbon - 14



## Ions: Losing and Gaining Electrons

- The number of electrons in a neutral atom is equal to the number of protons in its nucleus (designated by its atomic number Z ).
- In a chemical changes, however, atoms can lose or gain electrons and become charged particles called ions.
- Positively charged ions, such as $\mathrm{Na}^{+}$, are called cations.
- Negatively charged ions, such as $\mathrm{F}^{-}$, are called anions.


# Finding Patterns: The Periodic Law and the Periodic Table 

- In 1869, M endeleev noticed that certain groups of elements had similar properties.
- He found that when elements are listed in order of increasing mass, these similar properties recurred in a periodic pattern.
- To be periodic means to exhibit a repeating pattern.


## The Periodic Law



- Mendeleev summarized these observations in the periodic law:
- When the elements are arranged in order of increasing mass, certain sets of properties recur periodically.


## Periodic Table

- M endeleev organized the known elements in a table.
- He arranged the rows so that elements with similar properties fall in the same vertical columns.

A Sinnple Periodic Table


Elements with similar properties

- M endeleev's table


## Periodic Table

 contained some gaps, which allowed him to predict the existence (and even the properties) of yet undiscovered elements.- M endeleev predicted the existence of an element he called eka-silicon.
- In 1886, eka-silicon was discovered by German chemist Clemens Winkler (1838-1904), who named it germanium.


## Modern Periodic Table

- In the modern table, elements are listed in order of increasing atomic number rather than increasing relative mass.
- The modern periodic table also contains more elements than M endeleev's original table because more have been discovered since his time.


## Modern Periodic Table

## Major Divisions of the Periodic Table



Lanthanides Actinides

| $\begin{aligned} & 58 \\ & \mathrm{Ce} \end{aligned}$ | 59 Pr | $\begin{gathered} 60 \\ \mathrm{Nd} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 61 \\ \text { Pm } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 62 \\ \mathrm{Sm} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 63 \\ & \mathrm{Eu} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 64 \\ \text { Gd } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 65 \\ \mathrm{~Tb} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 66 \\ & \text { Dy } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 67 \\ & \text { Ho } \end{aligned}$ | 68 Er | $\begin{gathered} 69 \\ \mathrm{Tm} \end{gathered}$ | 70 $\mathbf{Y b}$ | 71 $\mathbf{L u}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 90 | 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 | 95 | 96 | 97 | 98 | 99 | 100 | 101 | 102 | 103 |
| Th | Pa | U | Np | Pu | Am | Cm | Bk | Cf | Es | Fm | Md | No | Lr |

## Classification of Elements

- Elements in the periodic table are classified as the following:
-M etals
-Nonmetals
-M etalloids


## Metals

- Metals lie on the lower left side and middle of the periodic table and share some common properties:
- They are good conductors of heat and electricity.
- They can be pounded into flat sheets (malleability).
- They can be drawn into wires (ductility).
- They are often shiny.
- They tend to lose electrons when they undergo chemical changes.
- Chromium, copper, strontium, and lead are typical metals.


## Nonmetals

- Nonmetals lie on the upper right side of the periodic table.
- There are a total of 17 nonmetals:
- Five are solids at room temperature ( $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{P}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{Se}$, and I)
- One is a liquid at room temperature ( Br )
- Eleven are gases at room temperature (H, He, N, O, F, $\mathrm{Ne}, \mathrm{Cl}, \mathrm{Ar}, \mathrm{Kr}, \mathrm{Xe}$, and Rn )


## Nonmetals

- Nonmetals as a whole tend to
- be poor conductors of heat and electricity.
- be not ductile and not malleable.
- gain electrons when they undergo chemical changes.

Oxygen, carbon, sulfur, bromine, and iodine are nonmetals.

## Metalloids

- Metalloids are sometimes called semimetals.
- They are elements that lie along the zigzag diagonal line that divides metals and nonmetals.
- They exhibit mixed properties.
- Several metalloids are also classified as semiconductors because of their intermediate (and highly temperature-dependent) electrical conductivity.


## Periodic Table

- The periodic table can also be divided into
- main-group elements, whose properties tend to be largely predictable based on their position in the periodic table.
- transition elements or transition metals, whose properties tend to be less predictable based simply on their position in the periodic table.


## Periodic Table



## Periodic Table

- The periodic table is divided into vertical columns and horizontal rows.
- Each vertical column is called a group (or family).
- Each horizontal row is called a period.
- There are a total of 18 groups and 7 periods.
- The groups are numbered $1-18$ (or the $A$ and $B$ grouping).


## Periodic Table

- M ain-group elements are in columns labeled with a number and the letter A (1A-8A or groups 1, 2, and 13-18).
- Transition elements are in columns labeled with a number and the letter B (or groups 312).


## Noble Gas

- The elements within a group usually have similar properties.
- The group 8 A elements, called the noble gases, are mostly unreactive.
- The most familiar noble gas is probably helium, used to fill buoyant balloons. Helium is chemically stable-it does not combine with other elements to form compounds-and is therefore safe to put into balloons.
- Other noble gases are neon (often used in electronic signs), argon (a small component of our atmosphere), krypton, and xenon.


## Alkali metals

- The group 1 A elements, called the alkali metals, are all reactive metals.
- A marble-sized piece of sodium explodes violently when dropped into water.
- Lithium, potassium, and rubidium are also alkali metals.



## Alkaline Earth Metals

- The group 2 A elements are called the alkaline earth metals.
- They are fairly reactive, but not quite as reactive as the alkali metals.
- Calcium, for example, reacts fairly vigorously with water.
- Other alkaline earth metals include magnesium (a common low-density structural metal), strontium, and barium.


## Halogens

- The group 7A elements, the halogens, are very reactive nonmetals.
- They are always found in nature as a salt.
- Chlorine, a greenish-yellow gas with a pungent odor
- Bromine, a red-brown liquid that easily evaporates into a gas
- Iodine, a purple solid
- Fluorine, a pale-yellow gas



## Ions and the Periodic Table

- A main-group metal tends to lose electrons, forming a cation with the same number of electrons as the nearest noble gas.
- A main-group nonmetal tends to gain electrons, forming an anion with the same number of electrons as the nearest noble gas.


## Ions and the Periodic Table

- In general, the alkali metals (group 1A) have a tendency to lose one electron and form $1+$ ions.
- The alkaline earth metals (group 2 A ) tend to lose two electrons and form $2+$ ions.
- The halogens (group 7A) tend to gain one electron and form 1- ions.
- The oxygen family nonmetals (group 6A) tend to gain two electrons and form 2- ions.


## Ions and the Periodic Table

- For the main-group elements that form cations with predictable charge, the charge is equal to the group number.
- For main-group elements that form anions with predictable charge, the charge is equal to the group number minus eight.
- Transition elements may form various different ions with different charges.


## Ions and the Periodic Table

Elements That Form Ions with Predictable Charges


## Atomic Mass: The Average Mass of an Element's Atoms

- Atomic mass is sometimes called atomic weight or standard atomic weight.
- The atomic mass of each element is directly beneath the element's symbol in the periodic table.
- It represents the average mass of the isotopes that compose that element, weighted according to the natural abundance of each isotope.


## Atomic Mass

- Naturally occurring chlorine consists of $75.77 \%$ chlorine-35 atoms (mass 34.97 amu ) and $24.23 \%$ chlorine- 37 atoms (mass 36.97 amu ). We can calculate its atomic mass:
- Solution:
- Convert the percent abundance to decimal form and multiply it with its isotopic mass:
$\mathrm{Cl}-37=0.2423(36.97 \mathrm{amu})=8.9578 \mathrm{amu}$
$\mathrm{Cl}-35=0.7577(34.97 \mathrm{amu})=26.4968 \mathrm{amu}$
Atomic Mass $\mathrm{Cl}=8.9578+26.4968=35.45 \mathrm{amu}$


## Atomic Mass

| 17 |
| :---: |
| $\mathbf{C l}$ |
| 35.45 |
| chlorine |

- In general, we calculate the atomic mass with the equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Atomic mass } & =\sum_{n}(\text { fraction of isotope } n) \times(\text { mass of isotope } n) \\
& =(\text { fraction of isotope } 1 \times \text { mass of isotope } 1) \\
& +(\text { fraction of isotope } 2 \times \text { mass of isotope } 2) \\
& +(\text { fraction of isotope } 3 \times \text { mass of isotope } 3)+\ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

# Molar Mass: Counting Atoms by Weighing Them 

- As chemists, we often need to know the number of atoms in a sample of a given mass. Why? Because chemical processes happen between particles.
- Therefore, if we want to know the number of atoms in anything of ordinary size, we count them by weighing.


## The M ole: A Chemist's "Dozen"

- When we count large numbers of objects, we often use units such as
-1 dozen objects $=12$ objects.
-1 gross objects $=144$ objects.
- The chemist's "dozen" is the mole (abbreviated $\mathrm{mol})$. A mole is the measure of material containing $6.02214 \times 10^{23}$ particles:

$$
1 \text { mole }=6.02214 \times 10^{23} \text { particles }
$$

- This number is Avogadro's number.


## The Mole

- First thing to understand about the mole is that it can specify Avogadro's number of anything.
- For example, 1 mol of marbles corresponds to $6.02214 \times 10^{23}$ marbles.
- 1 mol of sand grains corresponds to $6.02214 \times$ $10^{23}$ sand grains.
- One mole of anything is $6.02214 \times 10^{23}$ units of that thing.


## The Mole

- The second, and more fundamental, thing to understand about the mole is how it gets its specific value.
- The value of the mole is equal to the number of atoms in exactly $\mathbf{1 2}$ grams of pure C-12.
- $12 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{C}=1 \mathrm{~mol}$ C atoms $=6.022 \times 10^{23} \mathrm{C}$ atoms


## Converting between Number of Moles and Number of Atoms

- Converting between number of moles and number of atoms is similar to converting between dozens of eggs and number of eggs.
- For atoms, you use the conversion factor 1 mol atoms $=6.022 \times 10^{23}$ atoms.
- The conversion factors take the following forms:
$\frac{1 \text { mol atoms }}{6.022 \times 10^{23} \text { atoms }}$ or $\frac{6.022 \times 10^{23} \text { atoms }}{1 \mathrm{~mol} \text { atoms }}$


## Converting between Mass and Amount (Number of Moles)

- To count atoms by weighing them, we need one other conversion factor-the mass of 1 mol of atoms.
- The mass of 1 mol of atoms of an element is the molar mass.
- An element's molar mass in grams per mole is numerically equal to the element's atomic mass in atomic mass units (amu).


## Converting between Mass and Moles

26.98 g aluminum $=1 \mathrm{~mol}$ aluminum $=6.022 \times 10^{23} \mathrm{Al}$ atoms
12.01 g carbon $=1 \mathrm{~mol}$ carbon $=6.022 \times 10^{23} \mathrm{C}$ atoms
4.003 g helium $=1 \mathrm{~mol}$ helium $=6.022 \times 10^{23} \mathrm{He}$ atoms

- The lighter the atom, the less mass in 1 mol of atoms.


## Converting between Mass and Moles

- The molar mass of any element is the conversion factor between the mass (in grams) of that element and the amount (in moles) of that element. For carbon,

$$
12.01 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{C}=1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{C} \text { or } \frac{12.01 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{C}}{\mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{C}} \text { or } \frac{1 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{C}}{12.01 \mathrm{~g} \mathrm{C}}
$$

## Conceptual Plan

- We now have all the tools to count the number of atoms in a sample of an element by weighing it.
- First, we obtain the mass of the sample.
- Then, we convert it to the amount in moles using the element's molar mass.
- Finally, we convert it to the number of atoms using Avogadro's number.
- The conceptual plan for these kinds of calculations takes the following form:



## Electron Configurations

- Quantum-mechanical theory describes the behavior of electrons in atoms.
- The electrons in atoms exist in orbitals.
- A description of the orbitals occupied by electrons is called an electron configuration.



## Principal Quantum Number, n

- The principal quantum number, n, describes the energy level on which the orbital resides.
- The values of $n$ are integers $\geq 0$.


## Azimuthal Quantum Number, I

- This quantum number defines the shape of the orbital.
- Allowed values of I are integers ranging from 0 to n - 1 .
- We use letter designations to communicate the different values of I and, therefore, the shapes and types of orbitals.

| Value of I | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Type of orbital | s | p | d | f |

## Magnetic Quantum Number, $\mathrm{m}_{1}$

- Describes the three-dimensional orientation of the orbital.
- Values are integers ranging from -| to l:

$$
-1 \leq m_{1} \leq 1 .
$$

- Therefore, on any given energy level, there can be up to 1 s orbital, 3 p orbitals, 5 d orbitals, 7 f orbitals, etc.


## Energies of Orbitals

General Energy Ordering of Orbitals for Multielectron Atoms


## Electron Configurations

- Distribution of all electrons in an atom
- Consist of
- Number denoting the energy level


## Electron Configurations

- Distribution of all electrons in an atom
- Consist of
- Number denoting the energy level
- Letter denoting the type of orbital


## Electron Configurations

- Distribution of all electrons in an atom.
- Consist of

- Number denoting the energy level.
- Letter denoting the type of orbital.
- Superscript denoting the number of electrons in those orbitals.


## Orbital Diagrams

- Each box represents one orbital.
- Half-arrows represent the electrons.

- The direction of the arrow represents the spin of the electron.


## Filling the Orbitals with Electrons

- Energy levels and sublevels fill from lowest energy to high:

$$
\checkmark s \rightarrow p \rightarrow d \rightarrow f
$$

$\checkmark$ Aufbau principle

- Orbitals that are in the same sublevel have the same energy.
- No more than two electrons per orbital.
$\checkmark$ Pauli exclusion principle
- When filling orbitals that have the same energy, place one electron in each before completing pairs.


## $\checkmark$ Hund's rule



- The electron configurations of the first ten elements illustrate this point.

|  | Electron C | figurations |  | Orbi | ox | rams |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Condensed | Expanded | $1 s$ | $2 s$ |  | $2 p$ |  |
| H | $1 s^{1}$ |  | $\uparrow$ |  |  |  |  |
| He | $1 s^{2}$ |  | $\uparrow \downarrow$ |  |  |  |  |
| Li | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{1}$ |  | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow$ |  |  |  |
| Be | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2}$ |  | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ |  |  |  |
| B | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{1}$ |  | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow$ |  |  |
| C | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{2}$ | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{1} 2 p^{1}$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow$ | $\uparrow$ |  |
| N | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{3}$ | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{1} 2 p^{1} 2 p^{1}$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow$ | $\uparrow$ | $\uparrow$ |
| O | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{4}$ | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p_{x}^{2} 2 p^{1} 2 p^{1}$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow$ | $\uparrow$ |
| F | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{5}$ | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{2} 2 p^{2} 2 p^{1}$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow$ |
| Ne | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6}$ | $1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{2} 2 p^{2} 2 p^{2}$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ | $\uparrow \downarrow$ |

## Order of Sublevel Filling in Ground State Electron Configurations

Start by drawing a diagram, putting each energy shell on a row and listing the sublevels ( $s, p, d, f$ ) for that shell in order of energy (from left to right).

Next, draw arrows through the diagonals, looping back to the next diagonal each time.


## Valence Electrons

- The electrons in all the sublevels with the highest principal energy shell are called the valence electrons.
- Electrons in lower energy shells are called core electrons.
- One of the most important factors in the way an atom behaves, both chemically and physically, is the number of valence electrons.

Outer Electron Configurations of Elements 1-18

| 1 A |  |  |  |  |  |  | 8A |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} 1 \\ \mathbf{H} \\ 1 s^{1} \end{gathered}$ | 2 A | 3A | 4A | 5A | 6A | 7A | $\begin{gathered} 2 \\ \mathbf{H e} \\ 1 s^{2} \end{gathered}$ |
| $\begin{gathered} 3 \\ \mathbf{L i} \\ 2 s^{1} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 4 \\ \mathbf{B e} \\ 2 s^{2} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 5 \\ \mathbf{B} \\ 2 s^{2} 2 p^{1} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{C} \\ 2 s^{2} 2 p^{2} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 7 \\ \mathbf{N} \\ 2 s^{2} 2 p^{3} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 8 \\ 2 s^{2} 2 p^{4} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 9 \\ \mathbf{F} \\ 2 s^{2} 2 p^{5} \end{gathered}$ |  |
| 11 Na $3 s^{1}$ | $\begin{gathered} 12 \\ \mathbf{M g} \\ 3 s^{2} \end{gathered}$ |  |  |  | $\begin{gathered} 16 \\ \mathbf{S} \\ 3 s^{2} 3 p^{4} \end{gathered}$ |  |  |

## Properties and Electron Configuration

- The properties of the elements follow a periodic pattern.
- Elements in the same column have similar properties.
- The elements in a period show a pattern that repeats.
- The quantum-mechanical model explains this because the number of valence electrons and the types of orbitals they occupy are also periodic.



## Electron Configuration and Ion Charge

- We have seen that many metals and nonmetals form one ion, and that the charge on that ion is predictable based on its position on the periodic table.
- Group $1 A=1+$, group $2 A=2+$, group $7 A=1-$, group 6A $=2-$, etc.
- These atoms form ions that will result in an electron configuration that is the same as the nearest noble gas.


## Elements That Form Ions with Predictable Charges



- The sulfur atom has six valence electrons.

S atom $=1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6} 3 s^{2} 3 p^{4}$

- To have eight valence electrons, sulfur must gain two more.
$S^{2-}$ anion $=1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6} 3 s^{2} 3 p^{6}$
- The magnesium atom has two valence electrons.

Mg atom $=1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6} 3 s^{2}$

- When magnesium forms a cation, it loses its valence electrons.
$M g^{2+}$ cation $=1 s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 p^{6}$


## Trend in Atomic Radius - Main Group

- There are several methods for measuring the radius of an atom, and they give slightly different numbers.
$\checkmark$ Van der Waals radius = nonbonding
$\checkmark$ Covalent radius = bonding radius
$\checkmark$ Atomic radius is an average radius of an atom based on measuring large numbers of elements and compounds.


Br radius $=\frac{228 \mathrm{pm}}{2}=114 \mathrm{pm}$


## Trend in Atomic Radius - Main Group

- Atomic radius decreases across period (left to right)
$\checkmark$ Adding electrons to same valence shell $\checkmark$ Effective nuclear charge increases $\checkmark$ Valence shell held closer
- Atomic radius increases down group
$\checkmark$ Valence shell farther from nucleus
$\checkmark$ Effective nuclear charge fairly close



## Effective Nuclear Charge

- The effective nuclear charge is a net positive charge that is attracting a particular electron.
- $\mathbf{Z}$ is the nuclear charge, and $\mathbf{S}$ is the number of electrons in lower energy levels.
- Electrons in the same energy level contribute to screening but since their contribution is so small they are not part of the calculation.
- Trend is $s>p>d>f$.

$$
Z_{\text {effective }}=Z-S
$$

## Trends in Ionic Radius

- Ions in the same group have the same charge.
- Ion size increases down the column.
$\checkmark$ Higher valence shell, larger
- Cations are smaller than neutral atoms; anions are larger than neutral atoms.
- Cations are smaller than anions.
$\checkmark$ Except Rb+ and $\mathrm{Cs}^{+}$bigger or same size as $\mathrm{F}^{-}$and $\mathrm{O}^{2-}$.
- Larger positive charge = smaller cation
$\checkmark$ For isoelectronic species
$\checkmark$ Isoelectronic = same electron configuration
- Larger negative charge = larger anion
$\checkmark$ For isoelectronic species


## Ionization Energy (IE)

- Minimum energy needed to remove an electron from an atom or ion
$\checkmark$ Gas state
$\checkmark$ Endothermic process
$\checkmark$ Valence electron easiest to remove, lowest IE
$\checkmark \mathrm{M}(\mathrm{g})+\mathrm{IE}_{1} \rightarrow \mathrm{M}^{1+}(\mathrm{g})+1 \mathrm{e}^{-}$
$\checkmark \mathrm{M}^{+1}(\mathrm{~g})+\mathrm{IE}_{2} \rightarrow \mathrm{M}^{2+}(\mathrm{g})+1 \mathrm{e}^{-}$
$>$ First ionization energy $=$ energy to remove electron from neutral atom, second $I E=$ energy to remove from $1+$ ion, etc.


## General Trends in First lonization Energy

- The larger the effective nuclear charge on the electron, the more energy it takes to remove it.
- The farther the most probable distance the electron is from the nucleus, the less energy it takes to remove it.
- First IE decreases down the group.
- Valence electron farther from nucleus
- First IE generally increases across the period.
- Effective nuclear charge increases

Trends in First Ionization Energy


## Electron Affinity

- Energy is released when an neutral atom gains an electron.

```
\checkmark ~ G a s ~ s t a t e
\checkmark \mathrm { M } ( \mathrm { g } ) + 1 \mathrm { e } ^ { - } \rightarrow \mathrm { M } ^ { 1 - } ( \mathrm { g } ) + E A
```

- Electron affinity is defined as exothermic ( - ), but may actually be endothermic (+).
$\checkmark$ Some alkali earth metals and all noble gases are endothermic. Why?
- The more energy that is released, the larger the electron affinity.
$\checkmark$ The more negative the number, the larger the EA.


## Trends in Electron Affinity

- Alkali metals decrease electron affinity down the column.
- But not all groups do
- Generally irregular increase in EA from second period to third period
- "Generally" increases across period
- Becomes more negative from left to right
- Not absolute
- Group 5A generally lower EA than expected because extra electron must pair
- Groups 2A and 8A generally very low EA because added electron goes into higher energy level or sublevel
- Highest EA in any period = halogen


## Metallic Character

- Metallic character is how closely an element's properties match the ideal properties of a metal.
- M ore malleable and ductile, better conductors, and easier to ionize
- Metallic character decreases left to right across a period.
- M etals found at the left of the period and nonmetals to the right
- Metallic character increases down the column.
- Nonmetals found at the top of the middle main group elements and metals found at the bottom


## Trends in Metallic Character

Metallic character decreases


