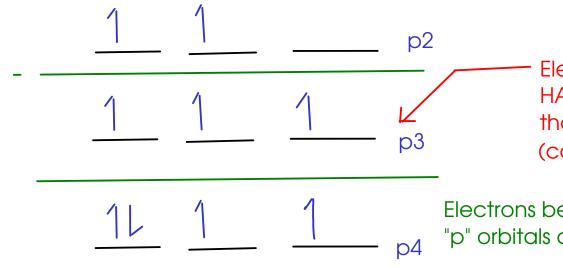


A note on chemical bonding and electron arrangement: - Filled and half-filled subshells seem to be preferred by atoms. Hund's Rule

- When you have two or more orbitals with equivalent energy, electrons will go into each equivalent orbital BEFORE pairing. Pairing costs a bit of energy - less than going to a higher-energy orbital, but more than going to another equivalent orbital.



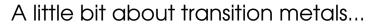
Electron configurations with filled subshells OR HALF-FILLED SUBSHELLS are more stable than other configurations. (can explain some transition metal chemistry)

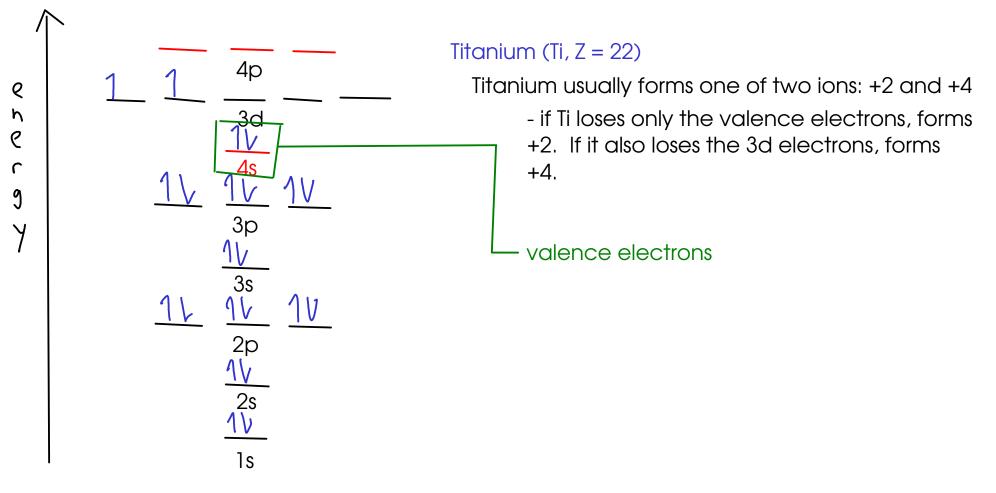
Electrons begin to pair only AFTER all equivalent "p" orbitals are full.

Experimental evidence for Hund's rule:

"Paramagnetism" - attraction of an atom to a magnetic field

- Spinning electrons are magnetic, but OPPOSITE spins cancel each other out.
- \* Atoms with unpaired electrons are paramagnetic, while atoms containing only paired electrons are not.

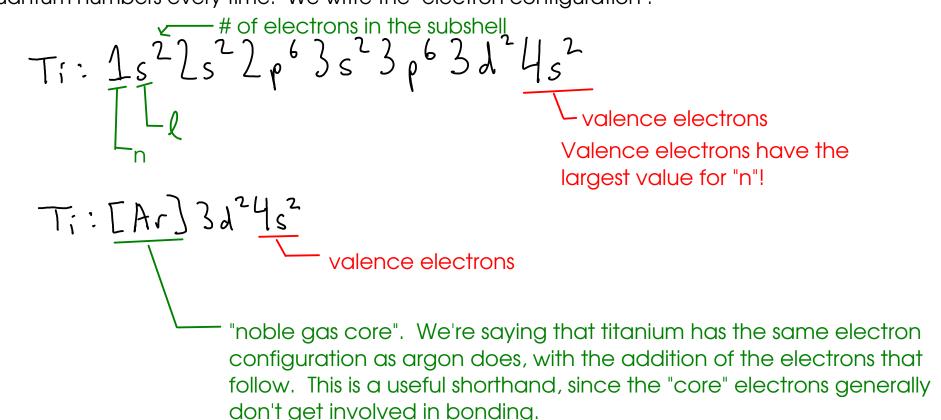


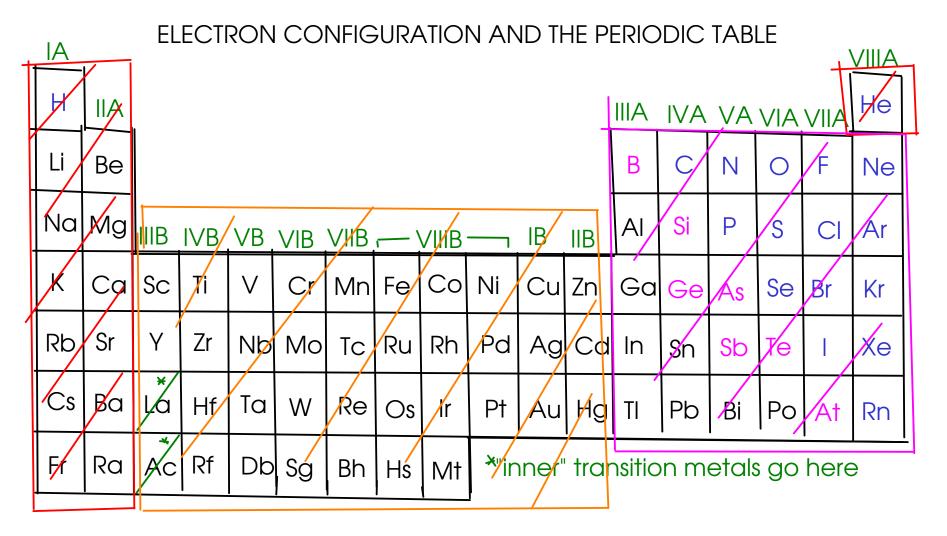


- Most transition metals have TWO valence electrons (in an "s" subshell), and the other ions they form come from electron loss in "d" subshells.

#### ELECTRON CONFIGURATION (SHORT FORM)

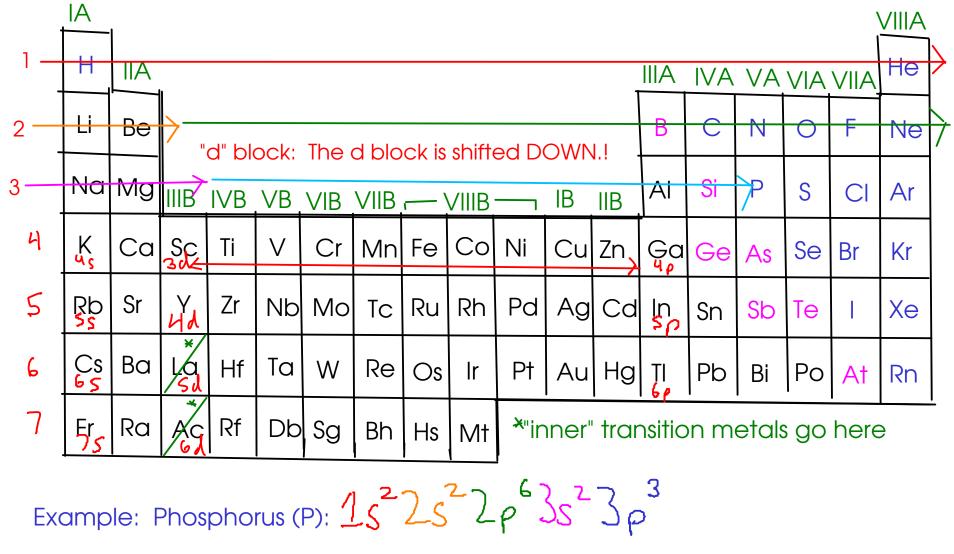
- We can represent the electron configuration without drawing a diagram or writing down pages of quantum numbers every time. We write the "electron configuration".





- "s" block: last electron in these atoms is in an "s" orbital!
- "p" block: last electron in these atoms is in a "p" orbital!
- "d" block: last electron in these atoms is in a "d" orbital

- To write an electron configuration using the periodic table, start at hydrogen, and count up the electrons until you reach your element!



Noble gas core notation for P:  $(Ne]_3c^23p^3$ 

EXAMPLES: $F \left[ s^{2} 2 s^{2} 2 \rho^{S} \right]$	Remember - valence electrons are ALL of the electrons in the outermost SHELL (n)! More that one subshell (I) may be included in the valence electrons
s 1s <sup>2</sup> 2s <sup>2</sup> 2p <sup>6</sup> 3s <sup>2</sup>	when the +2 ion forms, while the 4s AND 3d electrons are lost to form the +4!
CI $ s^{2}2s^{2}2\rho^{6}3s^{2}3r^{5}$ CNe] $3s^{2}3\rho^{5}$ Ti $ s^{2}2s^{2}2\rho^{6}3s^{2}3r^{5}$	You can order the subshells in numeric order OR in filling order $p^{6}3d^{2}4s^{2}$ or $1s^{2}2s^{2}2p^{6}3s^{2}3p^{6}4s^{2}3d^{2}$
Se 1s <sup>2</sup> 2s <sup>2</sup> 2p <sup>6</sup> 3s <sup>2</sup> 3p or [Ar]3a <sup>10</sup> 4s <sup>2</sup> 4p <sup>4</sup>	or CAr] 322452 or CAr]45232
Kr [Ar] 3a104s24p6 $Ce:[$	Sample f-block element $xe ] 6c^2 Sd^1 4f^1$

# PERIODIC TRENDS

- Some properties of elements can be related to their positions on the periodic table.

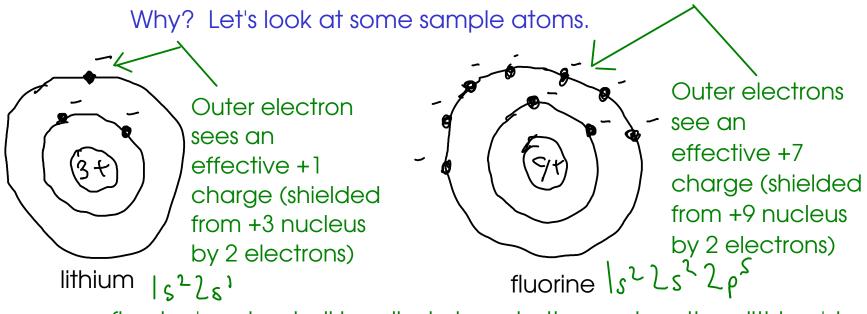
ATOMIC RADIUS

- The distance between the nucleus of the atoms and the outermost shell of the electron cloud.

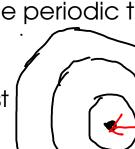
- Relates to the size of the atom.
- As you go DOWN A GROUP (  $\sqrt{}$  ), the atomic radius INCREASES.

- Why? As you go down a period, you are ADDING SHELLS!

- As you go ACROSS A PERIOD ( $\longrightarrow$ ), the atomic radius DECREASES



... so fluorine's outer shell is pulled closer to the nucleus than lithium's!



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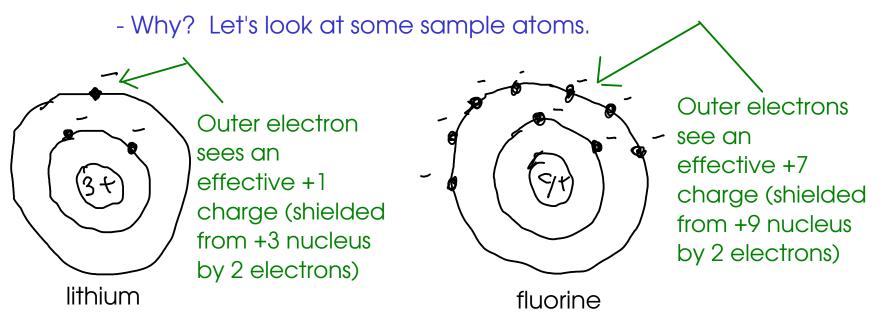
- The amount of energy required to remove a single electron from the outer shell of an atom.

- Relates to reactivity for metals. The easier it is to remove an electron, the more reactive the metal.

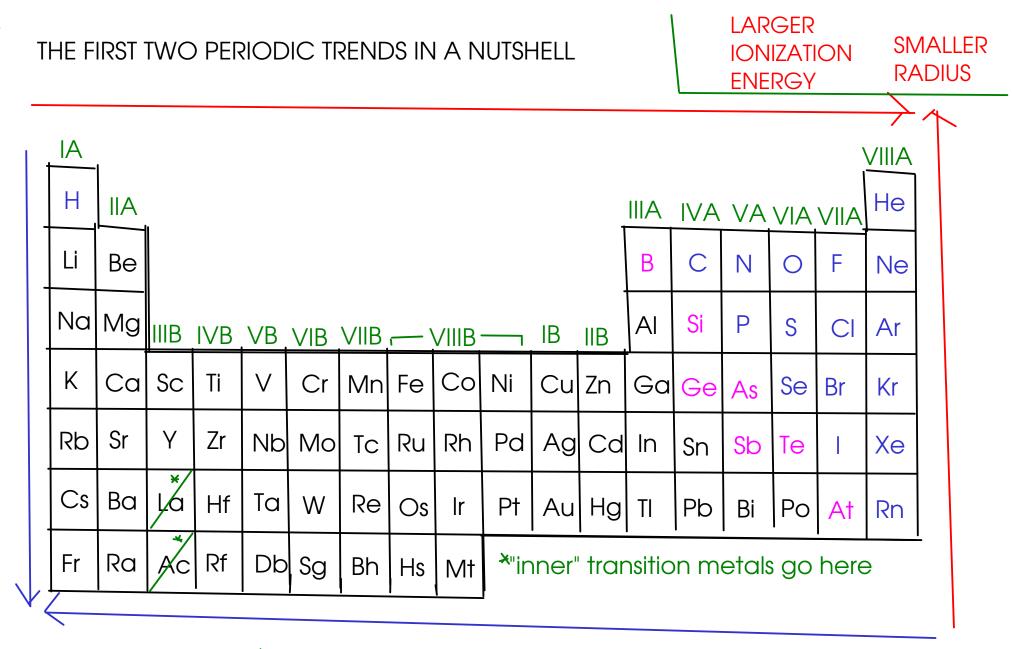
- As you go DOWN A GROUP (  $\int$  ), the ionization energy DECREASES.

- Why? As you go down a period, you are ADDING SHELLS. Since the outer electrons are farther from the nucleus and charge attraction lessens with distance, this makes electrons easier to remove as the atoms get bigger!

- As you go ACROSS A PERIOD (  $\longrightarrow$  , the ionization energy INCREASES.



... since fluorine's outer electrons are held on by a larger effective charge, they are more difficult to remove than lithium's.



LARGER SMALLER RADIUS IONIZATION ENERGY

#### **ELECTRON AFFINITY** 184

- the electron affinity is the ENERGY CHANGE on adding a single electron to an atom.

- Atoms with a positive electron affinity cannot form anions.
- The more negative the electron affinity, the more stable the anion formed!

- General trend: As you move to the right on the periodic table, the electron affinity becomes more negative.

## **EXCEPTIONS**

- Group IIA does not form anions (positive electron affinity)!  $NS^2$  valence electrons for Group IIA!

C period number

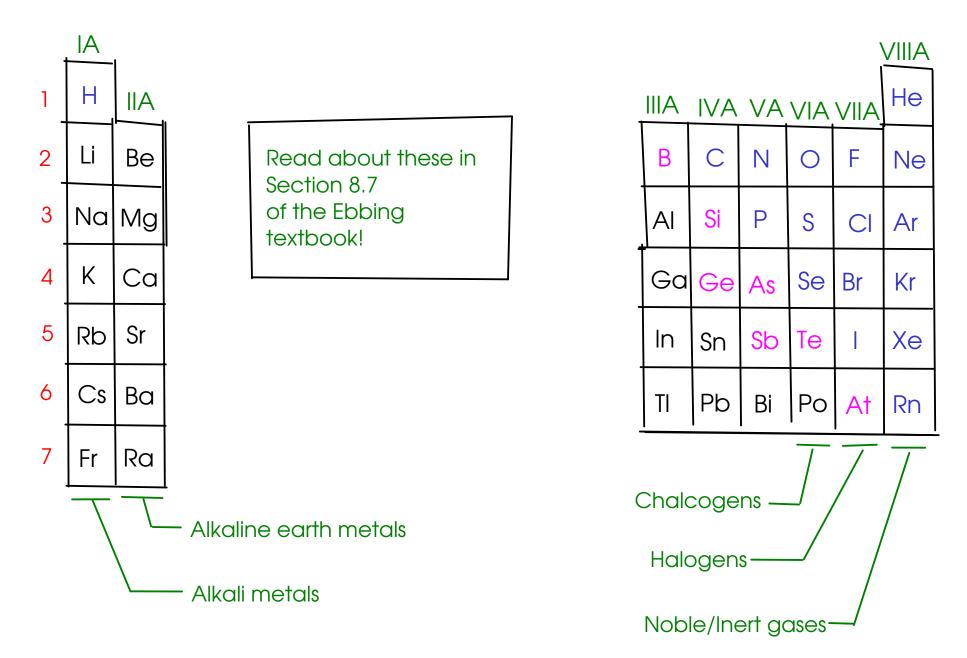
- To add an electron, the atom must put it into a higher-energy (p) subshell.

- Group VA: can form anions, but has a more POSITIVE electron affinity than IVA

 $NS^{2}Np^{3}$  valence electrons for Group VA!  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$  Half-full "p" subshell! To add an electron, must start pairing!

- Group VIIIA (noble gases) does not form anions full "s" and "p" subshells!

## "MAIN" or "REPRESENTATIVE" GROUPS OF THE PERIODIC TABLE



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The representative (main) groups GROUP IA - the alkali metals



nsi

- React with water to form HYDROXIDES

$$2M + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2MOH + H_2$$
  
alkali metals form BASES when put into water!

- Alkali metal OXIDES also form bases when put into water. (This is related to METALLIC character. The more metallic something is, the more basic its oxide. Nonmetals have ACIDIC oxides!)  $M_2O$ 

- Physical properties: All of these elements are soft metals with relatively low melting points.

GROUP IIA - the alkaline earth metals

valence electrons:

ns

- May react with water in a reaction similar to the alkali metals, producing hydroxides and hydrogen gas. For some of the alkaline earth metals, this reaction takes place at a significant rate only at high temperatures..

- Form basic oxides, formula: MO

- These elements are soft and low-melting ... but harder and higher melting than alkali metals.

- The name "alkaline earth" comes from the observation that the "earths" (oxides) of these metals are basic.

valence electrons:  $Ns^2N\rho'$ 

- most of the elements in this group are metals, but there is also a semiconductor (boron).

- The oxides of these elements are of the form  $M_2O_3$ 

- oxides of boron are acidic (metalloids tend to behave more like nonmetals in the acidity of their oxides).

- Aluminum and gallium have AMPHOTERIC oxides (react as acids or bases), and the larger Group IIIA oxides are basic

- These elements do not react directly with water to make hydroxides, unlike Groups IA and IIA.

**GROUP IVA** 

valence electrons  $NS^2Np^2$ 

-contains some elements of each type: nonmetal, metalloid, and metal.

- oxides range from acidic to amphoteric, with formulas  $MO_2 \circ r MO(c, Pb form both')$ 

- don't react with water to make hydroxides

valence electrons  $NS^2N\rho^3$ 

-range from nonmetal to metallic, but with only one metal (bismuth).

- Oxides of group VA nonmetals are acidic, while the group VA metalloids have amphoteric oxides. Bismuth's oxide is basic

- Formulas of these oxides vary considerably, but the most common variants are:  $RO_2$ ,  $RO_3$ 

GROUP VIA - the chalcogens

valence electrons

- Like Group VA, formulas of oxides of these elements vary. Common ones are:  $RO_{2}$ ,  $RO_{3}$  - mostly nonmetals/metalloids, plus one metal (polonium). Oxides range from acidic to amphoteric.

- This group's name means - "ore producers" Many metal ores contain oxygen and/or sulfur!

electron configuration:  $NS^2N\rho^5$ 

- react with water, but form ACIDS when they do so! (ex: chlorine and water make HCI and HOCI).
- Oxides of the halogens are not very stable, but they are acidic.
- nonmetals, exist primarily as DIATOMIC MOLECULES.
- halogens are very similar in their chemical reactions, even though their physical appearance varies considerably!
- This group's name means "salt formers" (think sodium chloride)

GROUP VIIIA - the noble or inert gases

electron configuration:

nsznpb

- characterized by their lack of chemical reactivity. The lighter noble gases have no known compounds, while the heavier ones sometimes form molecules with reactive elements like oxygen and fluorine.

- exist primarily as single (uncombined) atoms - NOT diatomic molecules like the halogens.

- A CHEMICAL BOND is a strong attractive force between the atoms in a compound.

**3 TYPES OF CHEMICAL BOND** 

TYPE	Held together by	Etample
lonic bonds	attractive forces between oppositely charged ions	sodium chloride
<u>Covalent</u> bonds	sharing of valence electrons between two atoms (sometimes more - "delocalized bonds")	water
.⊀ Metallic bonds	sharing of valence electrons with all atoms in the metal's structure - make the metal conduct electricity	any metal

★For CHM 110, you don't need to know anything more about metallic bonds than what's in this table. If you take physics, you may learn more about the characteristics of the metallic bond. <sup>192</sup> ... so how can you tell what kind of bond you have? You can use the traditional rules of thumb:

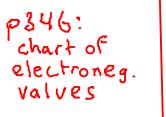
- Metal-Nonmetal bonds will be ionic

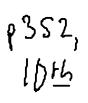
Metalloids act like NONMETALS, here.

- Nonmetal-nonmetal bonds are usually covalent

... but for better information about bonding, you can use ELECTRONEGATIVITY.

ELECTRONEGATIVITY: -A measure of how closely to itself an atom will hold shared electrons





... in other words, how ELECTRON-GREEDY an atom is!

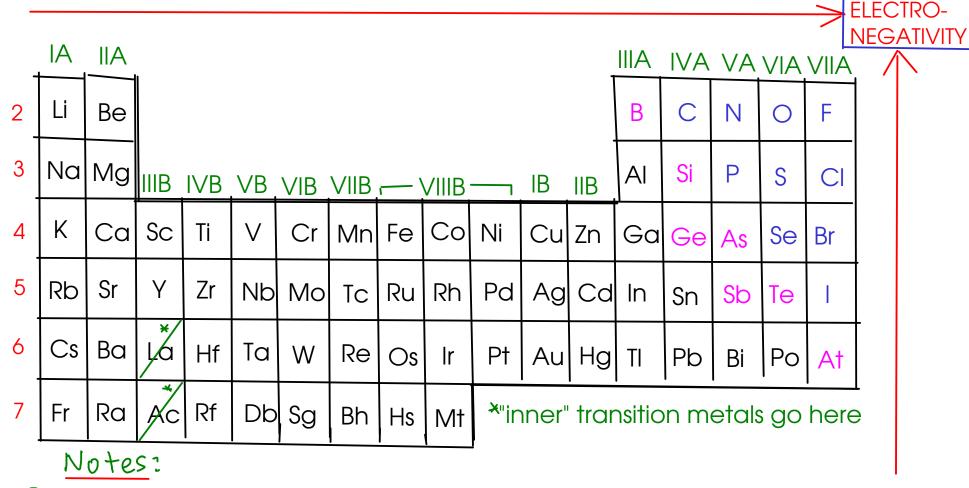
Bonds with	are	Examples
Little or no difference in electronegativity between atoms	NONPOLAR COVALENT	C-C, C-H, etc.
Larger differences in electronegativity between atoms	* POLAR COVALENT	H-F, C-F, C-Cl, etc.
Very large differences in electronegativity between atoms	IONIC	NaCl, KBr, etc.

★ A POLAR bond is a bond where electrons are shared unevenly - electrons spend more time around one atom than another, resulting in a bond with slightly charged ends <sup>193</sup> ELECTRONEGATIVITY TRENDS



**INCREASING** 

(p346)



O - FLUORINE is the most electronegative element, while FRANCIUM is the least!

2 - All the METALS have low electronegativity

(3)

- HYDROGEN is similar in electronegativity to CARBON

... so C-H bonds are NONPOLAR

## DESCRIBING CHEMICAL BONDING

# "octet rule"

- a "rule of thumb" (NOT a scienfitic law) predicting how atoms will exchange or share electrons to form chemical compounds

- atoms will gain, lose, or share enough electrons so that they end up with full "s" and "p" subshells in their outermost shell.

- Why "octet"? An "s" subshell can hold two electrons, while a "p" subshell can hold six. 2+6 = 8

IONIC COMPOUNDS

- When atoms react to form IONS, they GAIN or LOSE enough electrons to end up with full "s" and "p" subshells.

example:  $A| + 3Br \rightarrow A|Br_{3}|^{s^{2}2r^{2}\rho^{6}}$   $[Ne]3s^{2}3p' \rightarrow [Ar]3d'^{b}4s^{2}4p^{5}$   $A|^{3^{+}}: [Ne]$   $A|^{3^{+}}: [Ne]$   $Br^{-}: [Ar]3d'^{b}4s^{2}4p^{6}$   $Br^{-}: [Ar]3d'^{b}4s^{2}4p^{6}$   $Br^{-}: [Ar]3d'^{b}4s^{2}4p^{6}$   $Br^{-}: [Ar]3d'^{b}4s^{2}4p^{6}$  $Br^{-}: [Ar]3d'^{b}4s^{2}4p^{6}$ 

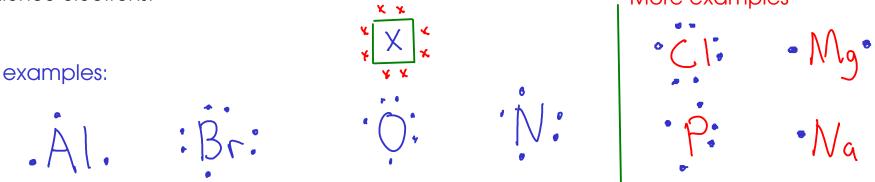
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<sup>195</sup> ... but using electron configurations to describe how aluminum bromide forms is a bit cumbersome! Can we simplify the picture a bit?

## LEWIS NOTATION / ELECTRON-DOT NOTATION

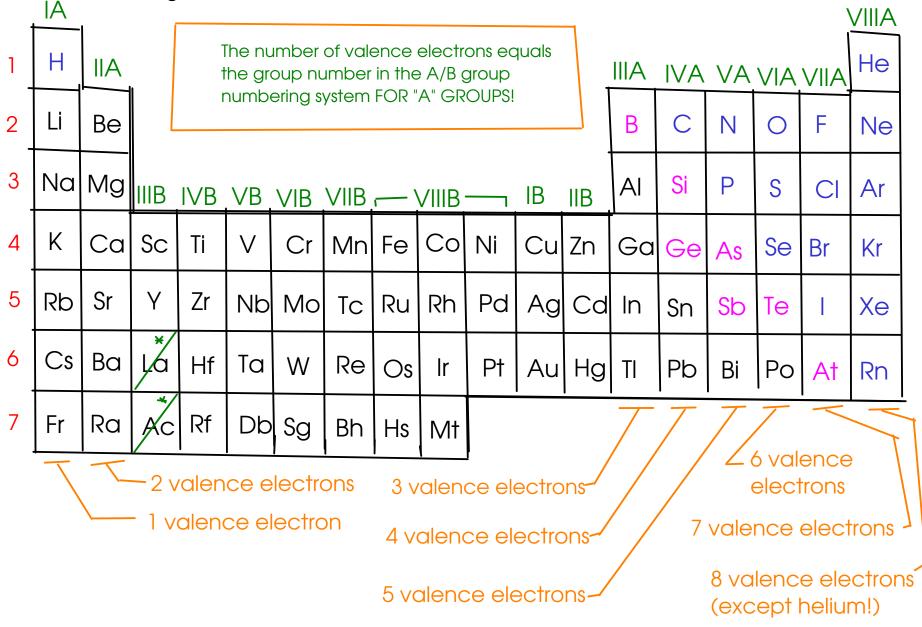
- Lewis notation represents each VALENCE electron with a DOT drawn around the atomic symbol. Since the valence shell of an atom contains only "s" and "p" electrons, the maximum number of dots drawn will be EIGHT.

- To use electron-dot notation, put a dot for each valence electron around the atomic symbol. Put one dot on each "side" of the symbol (4 sides), then pair the dots for atoms that have more than four valence electrons.

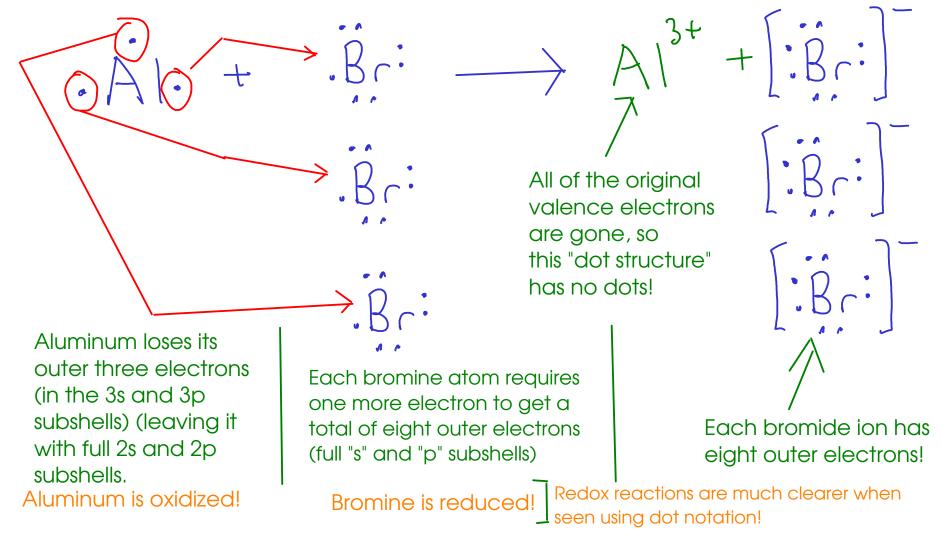


Which "side" you draw the dots on isn't important, as long as you have the right number of electrons and the right number of "pairs"

To draw a dot structure for an atom, you need to know HOW MANY valence electrons it has! You can determine this simply from the periodic table, WITHOUT writing the whole electron configuration!



... but how do we use this to describe a reaction that produces ions? Let's look at our previous example!

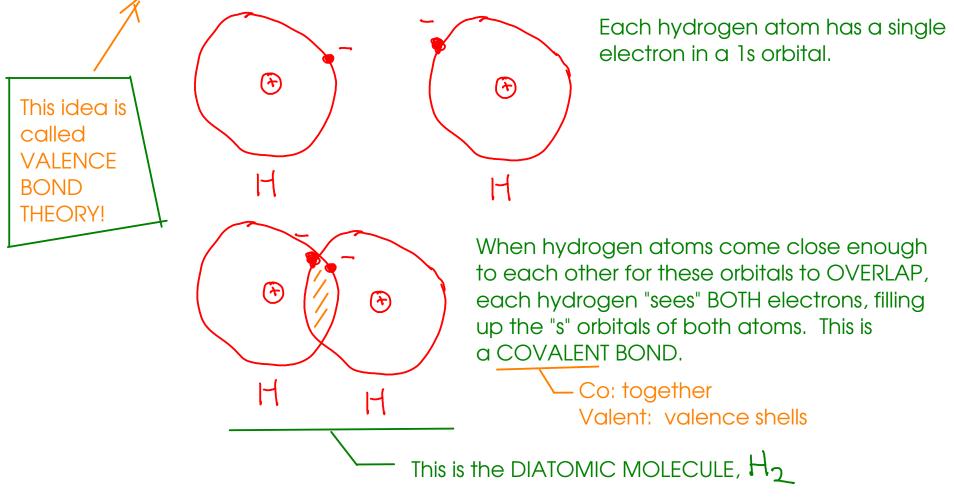


... this is a bit easier to follow than looking at all those letters and numbers in the electron configurations for these elements!

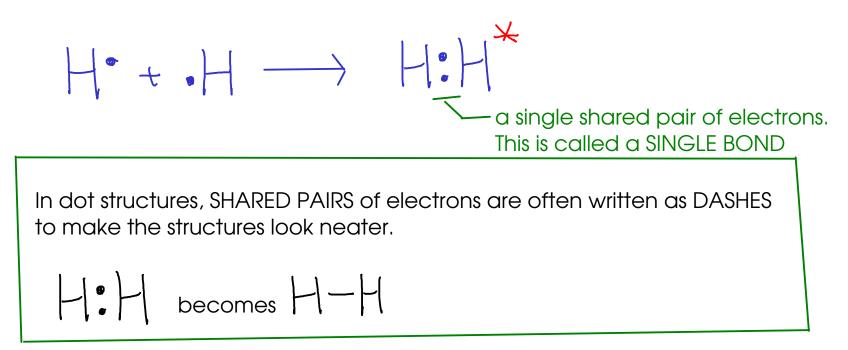
#### MOLECULAR COMPOUNDS

- Form when atoms SHARE electrons instead of transferring them. This results in the formation of MOLECULES ... groups of atoms held together by electron-sharing.

How might atoms SHARE electrons? By coming together close enough so that their atomic ORBITALS overlap each other:







☆ Why doesn't hydrogen end up with eight electrons? Because hydrogen has only the first shell, which contains only a single "s" subshell (NO "p" subshell). This "s" subshell is full with two electrons, and that's all hydrogen needs to get. Let's look at OXYGEN ...



We know that oxygen exists in air as the diatomic molecule  $O_2$ 

The oxygen atoms share TWO pairs of electrons. This is called a DOUBLE BOND

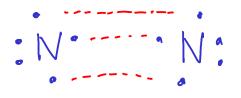
Each oxygen atom has a share in eight electrons!

A few notes on the double bond:

 $\hat{(}$ 

- For atoms to share more than one pair of electrons, they have to move closer to one another than they would if they were only sharing one pair of electrons. This BOND DISTANCE is measurable!

 It takes more energy to break a double bond between two atoms than it
 would to break a single bond between the same two atoms. This BOND ENERGY is also measurable! Let's look at NITROGEN ...



We know that nitrogen exists in air as the diatomic molecule  $N_{\rm 2}$ 

OR

:NEN:

The nitrogen atoms share THREE pairs of electrons. This is called a TRIPLE BOND

Nitrogen gas is fairly inert ... it's hard to break the triple bond in nitrogen gas apart!

A few notes on the triple bond:



- For atoms to share three pairs of electrons, they have to move closer to one another than they would if they were sharing one or two pairs of electrons. Triple bonds have the shortest BOND DISTANCE of all covalent bonds.

2

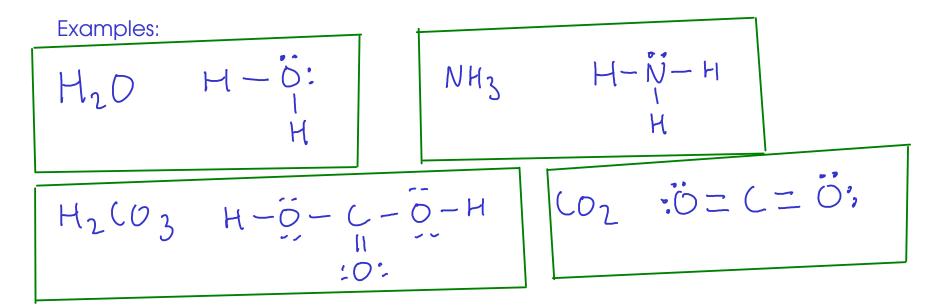
- It takes more energy to break a triple bond between two atoms than it would to break either a single or double bond between the same two atoms. The triple bond has the largest BOND ENERGY of all three kinds of covalent bonds. Atoms may share one, two, or three pairs of electrons with each other.

2 Atoms will usually share enough electrons so that each atom ends up with a share in EIGHT electrons - the "octet rule"

- HYDROGEN will only end up with two electrons!

- Some other atoms may end up with more or less than eight electrons. Exceptions to the octet rule are covered in Chapter 9.

NOW, how could we come up with dot structures for some more complicated (and therefore, more interesting) molecules?



<sup>203</sup> DRAWING DOT STRUCTURES FOR SIMPLE MOLECULES

) Count valence electrons

Pick central atom and draw skeletal structure

- central atom is usually the one that needs to gain the most electrons!

- skeletal structure has all atoms connected to center with single bonds

Distribute remaining valence electrons around structure, outer atoms first. Follow octet rule until you run out of electrons.

Check octet rule - each atom should have a share in 8 electrons (H gets 2). if not, make double or triple bonds.

(: 1×4 20000:176 C1:2x7=14 24e  $\square$ Pick CARBON as central atom, since it needs more electrons than either O or Cl. (4 more for 8!) 0, Distribute remaining electrons to structure, stop when we've used all 24. CARBON has a share in only SIX electrons (not 8!) **`D**', Make a double bond between OXYGEN and CARBON, by repurposing one of the lone pairs of oxygen as a shared pair.

Now, each atom has a share in 8 electrons! Why oxygen? It needed two electrons, and was likely to make two bonds to get those two electrons. Chlorine only needed one!