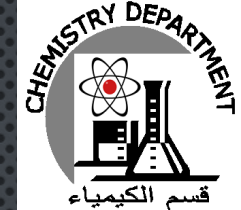




# General Chemistry I



## NAC 1101

### Lecture 5

# Periodic Properties of Elements

## Ahmad Alakraa

# Outline

- Development of the Periodic Table
- Effective Nuclear Charge
- Sizes of Atoms and Ions
- Ionization Energy
- Electron Affinity

# Discovering elements

H																	He
Li	Be											B	C	N	O	F	Ne
Na	Mg											Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
Cs	Ba	Lu	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
Fr	Ra	Lr	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt	Ds	Rg	Cn	Uut	Fl	Uup	Lv	Uus	Uuo

La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb
Ac	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No

Ancient Times

(9 elements)

Middle Ages–1700

(6 elements)

1735–1843

(42 elements)

1843–1886

(18 elements)

1894–1918

(11 elements)

1923–1961

(17 elements)

1965–

(15 elements)

**Copper**, **silver**, and **gold** have all been **known** since ancient times, whereas most of the other metals were not **isolated** until much later.

# Timeline of Periodic Table

## (1869) Dmitri Mendeleev and Lothar Meyer

- Arranged elements in order of increasing **atomic weight** (*atomic numbers were not discovered yet*) where similar chemical and physical properties recured **periodically**.

## Mendeleev

left blank spaces in his table for elements he **predicted** their existence and properties as gallium (Ga) and germanium (Ge) which he named **eka-aluminum** (“under” **aluminum**) and **eka-silicon** (“under” silicon), respectively.

# Comparison of Properties of Eka-Silicon Predicted by Mendeleev with Observed Properties of Germanium

Property	Mendeleev's Predictions for Eka-Silicon (made in 1871)	Observed Properties of Germanium (discovered in 1886)
Atomic weight	72	72.59
Density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	5.5	5.35
Specific heat (J/g-K)	0.305	0.309
Melting point (°C)	High	947
Color	Dark gray	Grayish white
Formula of oxide	XO <sub>2</sub>	GeO <sub>2</sub>
Density of oxide (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	4.7	4.70
Formula of chloride	XCl <sub>4</sub>	GeCl <sub>4</sub>
Boiling point of chloride (°C)	A little under 100	84

# (1913) Henry Moseley

- developed the concept of atomic numbers by bombarding different elements with high-energy electrons.
- He found that each element produced X-rays of a unique frequency that generally increased as the atomic mass increased.
- He arranged the X-rays frequencies in order by assigning a unique whole number, called an atomic number, to each element.
- He correctly identified the atomic number as the number of protons in the nucleus of the atom.

# Clarity of previous Problems

- Concept of **atomic number (AN)** clarified some problems in the periodic table (PT) of Moseley's day, which was based on **atomic weights (AW)**.
- The **atomic weight** of  $^{39.948}_{18}\text{Ar}$  is greater than that of  $^{39.0983}_{19}\text{K}$ , yet the chemical and physical properties of **Ar** are much more like those of **Ne** and **Kr** than like those of **Na** and **Rb**. If elements are arranged in order of increasing **AN**, **Ar** and **K** appear in their correct places **PT**.
- Moseley's studies also identified "holes" in **PT**, which led to the **discovery** of new elements.

# Effective Nuclear Charge

- Many properties of atoms depend on **electron configuration** and on how strongly the **outer electrons** in the atoms are attracted to the nucleus.

Coulomb's law  $F = \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^2}$

The attractive force between an **electron** and the **nucleus** depends on the magnitude of the **nuclear charge** and on the **average distance** between the nucleus and the electron.

Understanding **e-nucleus** attraction in a hydrogen atom (**1 e** + **1 proton**) is easy, in contrast to many-**e** atoms, that experience **attraction** of each **e** to nucleus and **e-e** repulsion.

# Electron's Screening

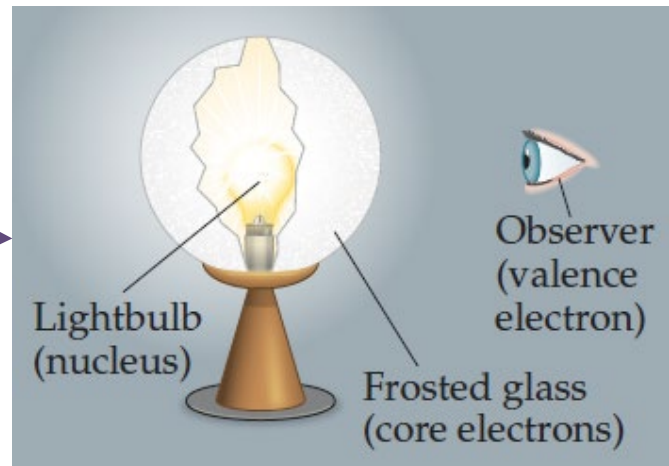
- refers to canceling some of e-nucleus attraction due to e-e repulsions in many-electron atoms.
- Each e experiences less attraction (screened by other es) than it would if the other electrons weren't there.

$$Z_{eff} = Z - S$$

- $Z_{eff}$ : effective nuclear charge,
- $Z$ : actual nuclear charge
- $S$ : a screening constant (a positive number)

$$Z_{eff} < Z$$

An **analogy** for effective nuclear charge.



## Valence's Electron

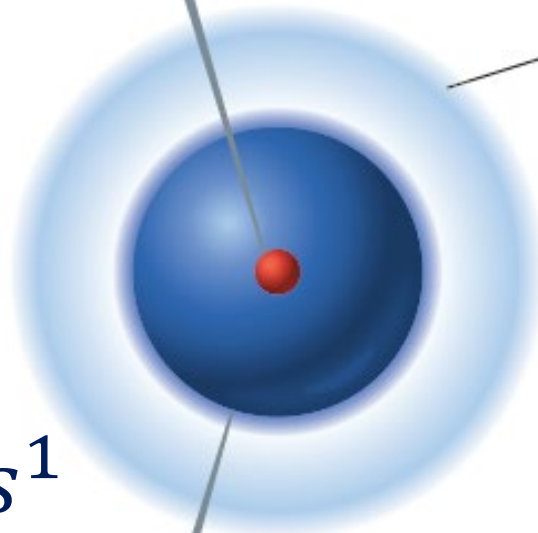
- For a valence  $e$ , most of the shielding is due to the core electrons, which are much closer to the nucleus.
- As a result, for the valence electrons in an atom the value of  $S$  is usually close to the number of core electrons in the atom.
- $e$ s in the same valence shell do not screen one another very effectively, but they do affect the value of  $S$  slightly.

- $Z = 11+$ , and there are 10 core  $e$ s which screen  $Z$  “seen” by the  $3s$   $e$ .
- We expect  $S$  to equal 10 and the  $3s$   $e$  to experience  $Z_{eff} = Z - S = 11 - 10 = 1+$ .

Sodium nucleus contains 11 protons (11+).

Valence electron cloud (3s)

# Sodium atom



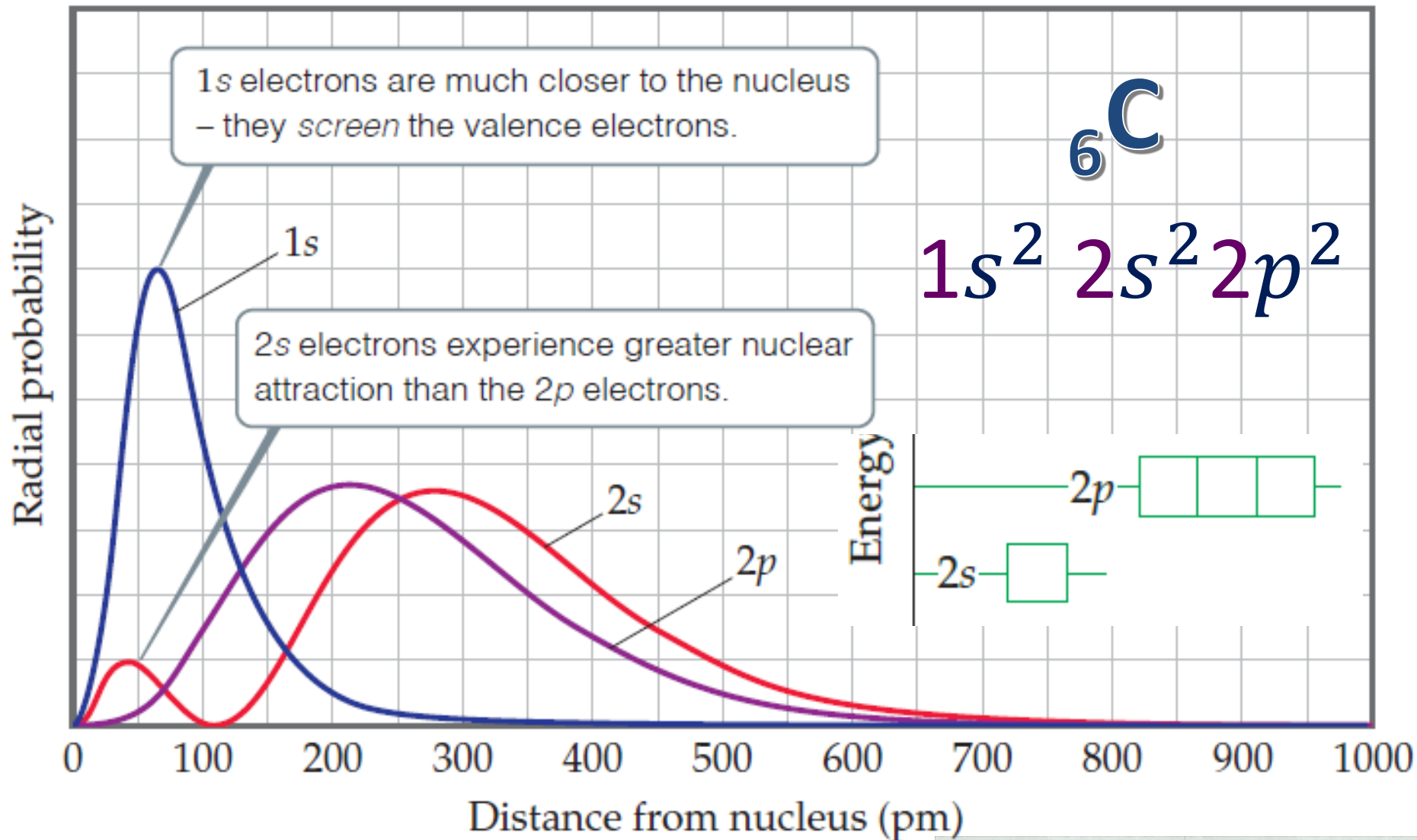
Ten core electrons ( $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$ ) screen the nucleus from the valence electron (10-).



# It is more complicated

- Because  $3s$   $e$  has a small probability of being very close to the nucleus, in the region occupied by the core  $es$ .
- Thus, this  $e$  experiences a greater net attraction than the simple  $S = 10$ . The actual  $Z_{eff} = 2.5 +$  for  $3s$   $e$  in Na &  $S$  changes from  $10$  to  $8.5$

# Electron's Screening & Undegeneracy



2s es are less screened than 2p es

(ns < np < nd in E)

# Trends in Valence e's $Z_{eff}$

$Z_{eff}$  increases from left to right across any period of the periodic table.

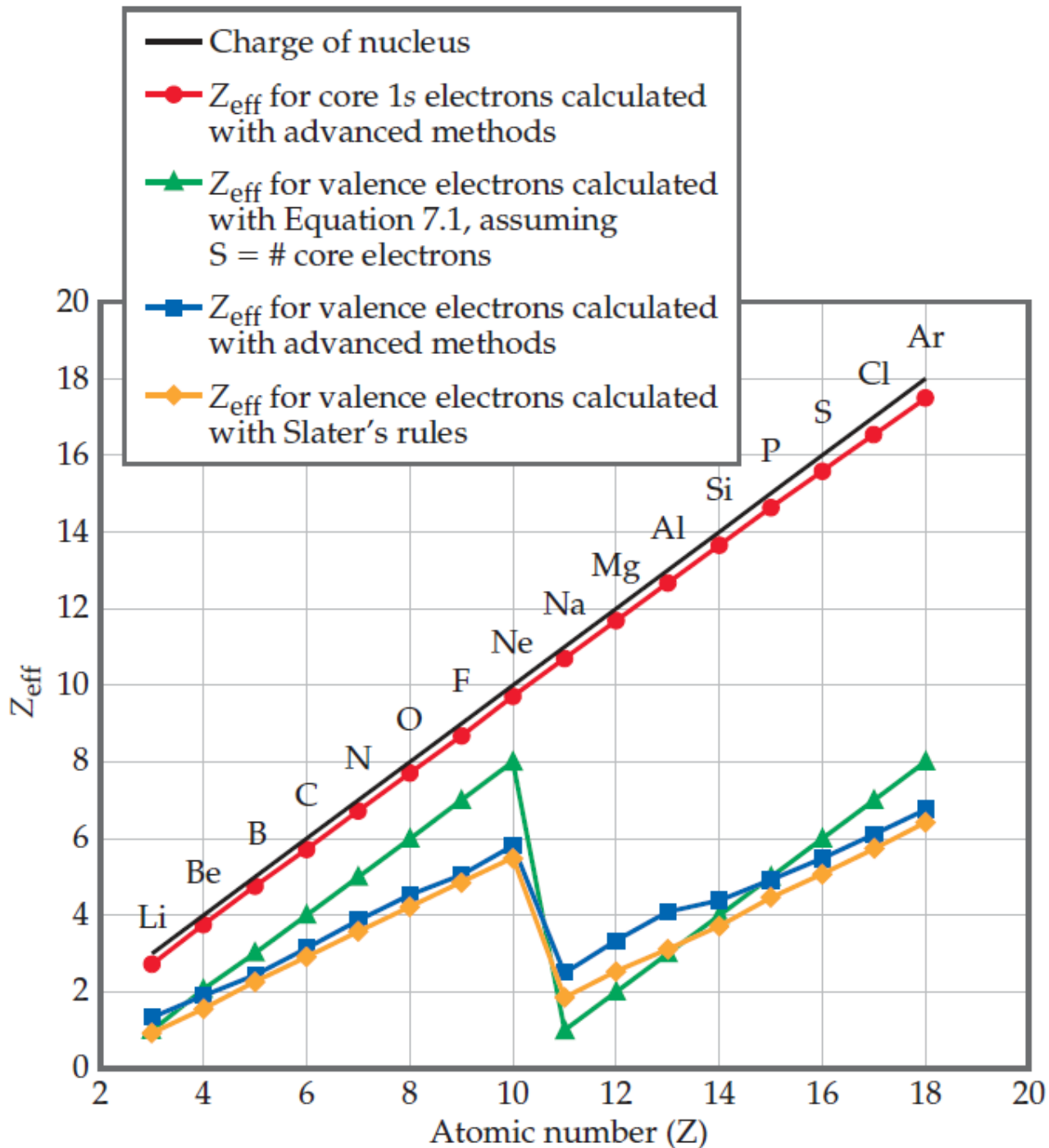
- Although the number of core es stays the same across the period, the number of protons increases.
  - The valence es added to counterbalance the increasing nuclear charge screen one another ineffectively, thus,  $Z_{eff}$  increases steadily.
- For  ${}_3\text{Li}$  the two core es ( $1s^2$ ) screen the  $2s$  valence e from the  $3+$  nucleus efficiently. Consequently, the valence e experiences  $Z_{eff} \approx 3 - 2 = 1 +$ .

- For  ${}_4\text{Be}$  ( $1s^2 2s^2$ ),  $Z_{eff}$  experienced by each valence  $e$  is larger because here the two core  $1s$   $e$ s screen a  $4+$  nucleus, and each  $2s$  electron only partially screens the other. Consequently,  $Z_{eff} \approx 4 - 2 = 2$  that is experienced by each  $2s$  electron.

# Trends in Valence e's $Z_{eff}$

Going down a **column**,  $Z_{eff}$  experienced by valence electrons changes far **less** than it does across a **period**.

- A simple estimate for  $S$  would expect same  $Z_{eff}$  for the valence electrons in lithium ( $Z_{eff} = 3 - 2 = 1 +$ ) and sodium ( $Z_{eff} = 11 - 10 = 1 +$ ).
- However,  $Z_{eff}$  increases slightly as we go down a **column** because the more diffuse core electron cloud is less able to screen the valence **es** from the **nuclear charge**.
- In the case of the alkali metals,  $Z_{eff}$  increases from **1.3 +** for **Li**, to **2.5 +** for **Na**, to **3.5 +** for **K**.

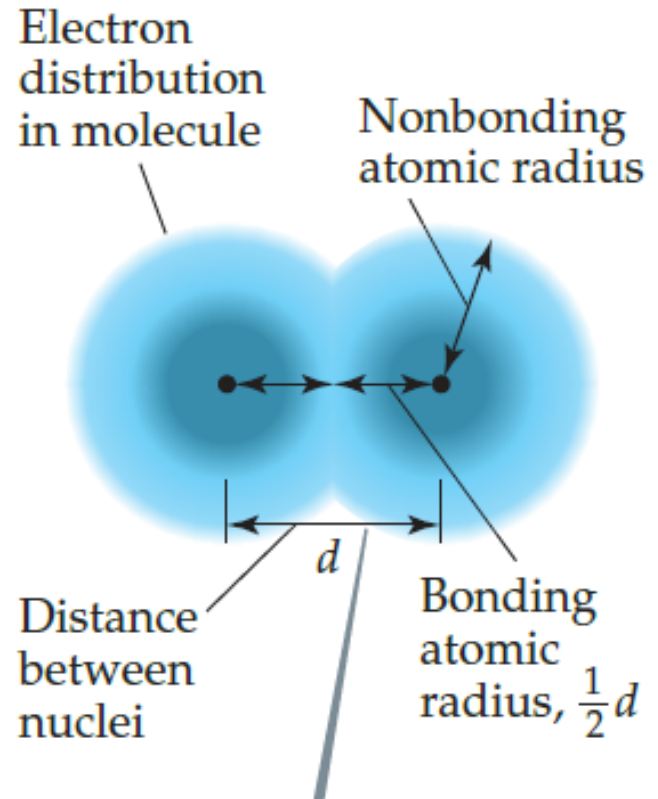


- Variations in  $Z_{eff}$  for Period 2 and Period 3 elements.
- Across periods,  $Z_{eff}$  felt by innermost 1s electrons increases (red circles) closely as the increase in Z (black line) because these electrons are not screened much.

# Sizes of atoms & ions

- It is tempting to think of atoms as **hard, spherical** objects. According to the **quantum mechanical** model, however, atoms do not have **sharply** defined boundaries at which the electron distribution becomes zero.

We can define atomic size in several ways, based on the **distances** between atoms in various situations.



Nuclei cannot get any closer to each other due to repulsion between core electrons on neighboring atoms.

**2 colliding Ar atoms**

# Distance between nuclei of 2 bonded atoms

- Atomic radius is defined based on the distance between the nuclei when two atoms are bonded to each other.
- The **shortest** distance separating the two **nuclei** during such collisions is **TWICE** the **radii** of atoms.
- The *bonding atomic radius* (also known as the **covalent radius**) for any atom in a molecule is equal to **half** of the bond distance, **d**, and is smaller than the *nonbonding atomic (van der Waals) radius*.
- Unless otherwise noted, we mean *bonding atomic radius* when we speak of the “size” of an atom.

# Periodic Trends in Atomic Radii

Within each **group**, bonding atomic radius tends to **increase** from **top** to **bottom**.

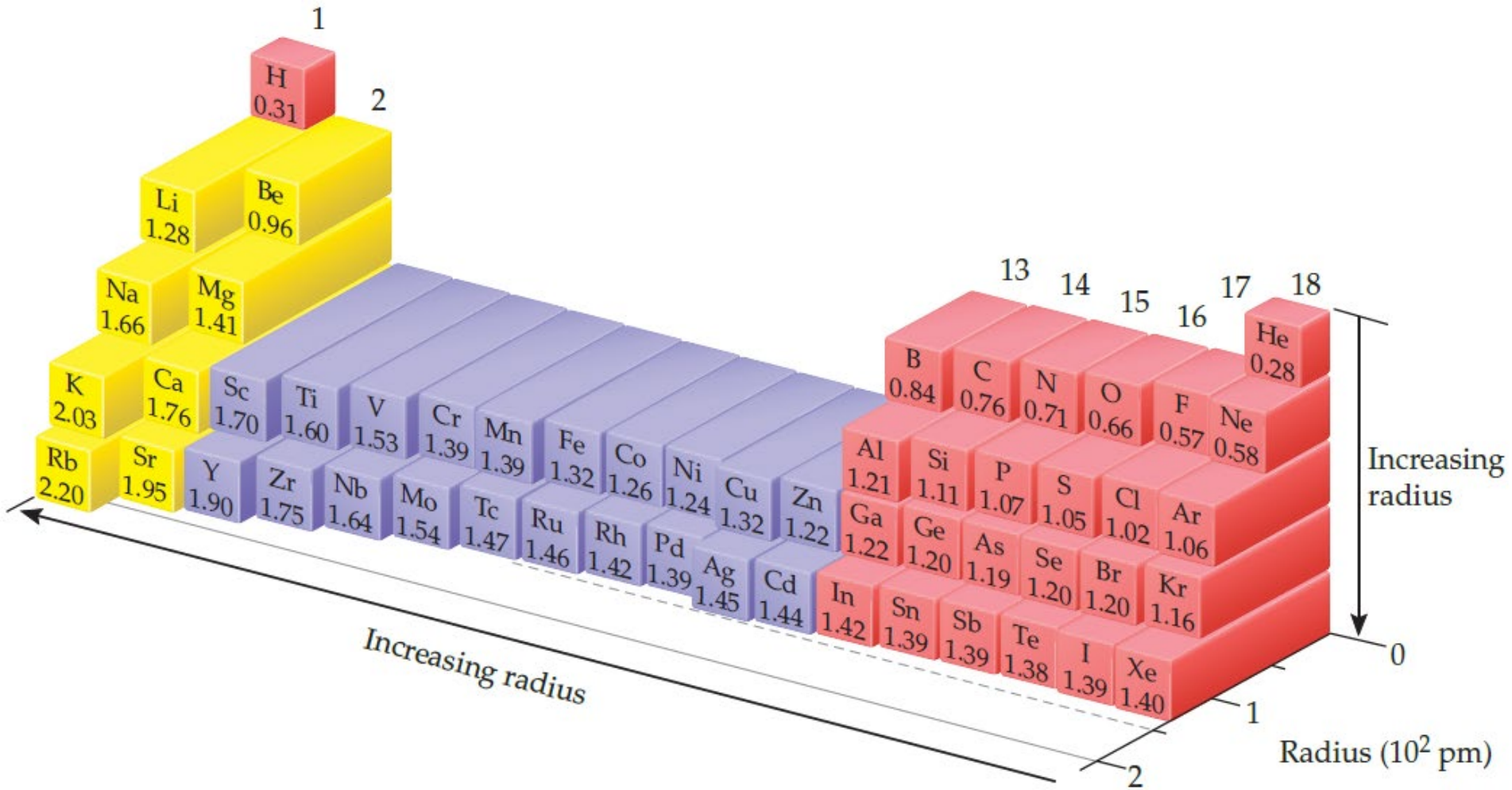
- This results primarily from the increase in the principal quantum number ( $n$ ) of the outer **es**.
- As we go down a **column**, the outer **es** have a greater probability of being **farther** from the nucleus, causing the atomic radius to **increase**.

# Periodic Trends in Atomic Radii

Within each **period**, bonding atomic radius tends to **decrease** from **left** to **right**.

- There are some minor exceptions, such as for Cl to Ar or As to Se).
- The major factor influencing this trend is the increase in  $Z_{eff}$  across a period that steadily draws the valence **es closer** to the nucleus, causing the bonding atomic radius to **decrease**.

# Trends in bonding atomic radii for Periods 1-5

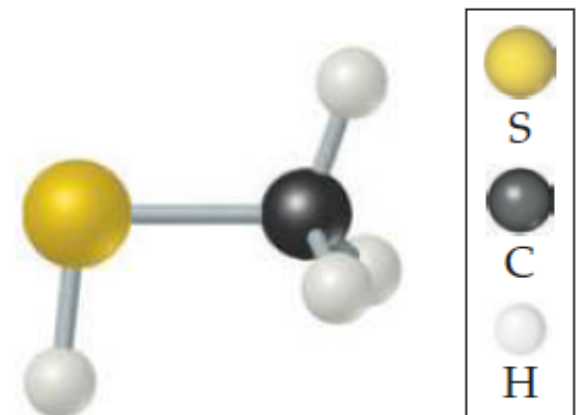


# Exercise

- Natural gas used in home heating and cooking is odorless. Because natural gas leaks pose the danger of explosion or suffocation, various smelly substances are added to the gas to allow detection of a leak. One such substance is **methyl mercaptan**,  $\text{CH}_3\text{SH}$ . Use previous figure to predict the lengths of the C–S, C–H, and S–H bonds in this molecule.

## Answer

- C–S bond length = bonding atomic radius of C + bonding atomic radius of S = 76 pm + 105 pm = 181 pm
- C–H bond length = 76 pm + 31 pm = 107 pm
- S–H bond length = 105 pm + 31 pm = 136 pm



Methyl mercaptan

# Periodic Trends in Ionic Radii

- Ionic radii can also be determined from interatomic distances in ionic compounds.
- The size of an ion also depends on its nuclear charge ( $Z$ ), the number of  $e$ s it possesses, and the orbitals in which the valence  $e$ s reside.

# When a cation is formed:


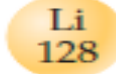




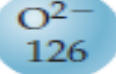

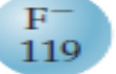

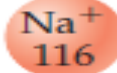


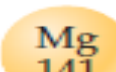

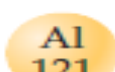
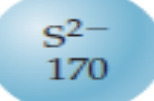

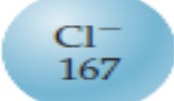

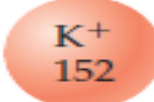
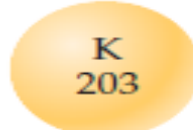

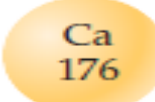
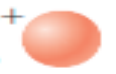

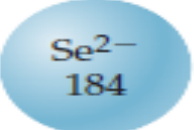
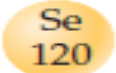
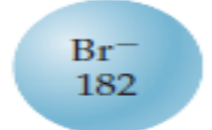
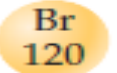
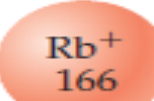

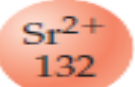
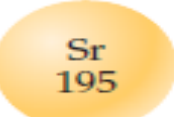
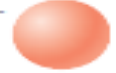
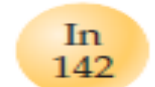
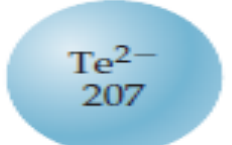
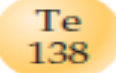
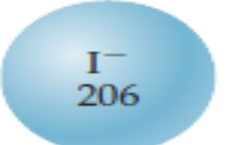
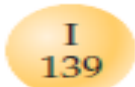
- $e^-$ s are removed from the occupied atomic orbitals that are the most spatially extended from the nucleus.
- the number of  $e^-e^-$  repulsions is reduced.


Cations are smaller than their parent atoms


# When an anion is formed:


- When **es** are **added** to an atom to form an anion, the increased **e–e** repulsions cause the electrons to spread out more in space.

**Anions** are **larger** than their parent atoms.

Group 1	Group 2	Group 13	Group 16	Group 17
$\text{Li}^+$ 90   Li 128	$\text{Be}^{2+}$ 59   Be 96	$\text{B}^{3+}$ 41   B 84	 $\text{O}^{2-}$ 126  O 66	 $\text{F}^-$ 119  F 57
 $\text{Na}^+$ 116  Na 166	$\text{Mg}^{2+}$ 86   Mg 141	$\text{Al}^{3+}$ 68   Al 121	 $\text{S}^{2-}$ 170  S 105	 $\text{Cl}^-$ 167  Cl 102
 $\text{K}^+$ 152  K 203	$\text{Ca}^{2+}$ 114   Ca 176	$\text{Ga}^{3+}$ 76   Ga 122	 $\text{Se}^{2-}$ 184  Se 120	 $\text{Br}^-$ 182  Br 120
 $\text{Rb}^+$ 166  Rb 220	 $\text{Sr}^{2+}$ 132  Sr 195	$\text{In}^{3+}$ 94   In 142	 $\text{Te}^{2-}$ 207  Te 138	 $\text{I}^-$ 206  I 139

 = cation

 = anion

 = neutral atom

# For isoelectronic ions

**Isoelectronic** ions= ions carrying the same charge, e.g.,  $O^{2-}$ ,  $F^{-}$ ,  $Na^{+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , and  $Al^{3+}$  (all have **10 es**)

Ionic radius **increases** on moving **down** a **column** in **PT**, i.e., with increasing the principal quantum number of the outermost occupied orbital of an ion.

- list members in order of increasing **atomic number**; therefore, the **nuclear charge** increases as we move through the series.
- Because the number of **es** remains constant, ionic radius decreases with increasing **nuclear charge** as **es** are more strongly attracted to the nucleus.

Increasing nuclear charge  $\longrightarrow$

8 protons	9 protons	11 protons	12 protons	13 protons
10 electrons	10 electrons	10 electrons	10 electrons	10 electrons
$O^{2-}$	$F^{-}$	$Na^{+}$	$Mg^{2+}$	$Al^{3+}$
126 pm	119 pm	116 pm	86 pm	68 pm

Decreasing ionic radius  $\longrightarrow$

## Exercise

- Arrange  $Mg^{2+}$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ , and  $Ca$  in order of decreasing radius.

## Answer

- Cations are smaller than their parent atoms, and so  $Ca^{2+} < Ca$ .
- Because  $Ca$  is below  $Mg$  in Group 2,  $Ca^{2+}$  is larger than  $Mg^{2+}$ .
- Consequently,  $Ca > Ca^{2+} > Mg^{2+}$ .

# Ionization Energy

is the **minimum energy** required to remove an **electron** from the ground state of the isolated gaseous atom or ion.

- If the **electron** in an H atom is excited from  $n = 1$  (the ground state) to  $n = \infty$  (the **electron** is completely removed from the atom), it means it is **ionized**.

*All **ionization energies** for atoms are **positive**:  
Energy must be **absorbed** to remove an **electron**.*

# Ionization Energy vs. Work Function

Feature	Ionization Energy	Work Function
System →	Isolated, gaseous atom	Surface of a bulk solid
Electrons →	Outermost shell e	Delocalized e from the surface
Energy, same element →	higher	lower
Reason →	e is more strongly bound to a single nucleus	es are attracted to multiple nuclei and are shielded by other electrons

## 1<sup>st</sup> Ionization Energy, $I_1$

the energy needed to remove the **first electron** from a neutral atom.



## 2<sup>nd</sup> Ionization Energy, $I_2$

the energy needed to remove the **second electron** from an atom, and so forth,  $I_3$ , etc.



# Variations in Successive Ionization Energies

- IEs for a given element increase as successive electrons are removed:  $I_1 < I_2 < I_3$ , and so forth, because with each successive removal, an electron is being pulled away from an increasingly positive ion, requiring increasingly more energy.

# Inner shell electrons

- IE increases sharply when an inner-shell e is removed.
  - For  ${}_{14}\text{Si}$ :  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^2$ , IEs increase steadily from 786 to 4356 kJ/mol for the four es in the  $3s$  and  $3p$  subshells.
  - Removal of the fifth e, which comes from the  $2p$  subshell, requires **16091** kJ/mol because this e is much closer to nucleus than the four  $n = 3$  es, and experiences a much greater  $Z_{eff}$ .

only outermost es are involved in the sharing and transfer of electrons that give rise to **chemical bonding** and reactions.

**TABLE 7.2 Successive Values of Ionization Energies,  $I$ , for the Elements Sodium to Argon (kJ/mol)**

Element	$I_1$	$I_2$	$I_3$	$I_4$	$I_5$	$I_6$	$I_7$
Na	496	4562					
Mg	738	1451	7733		(inner-shell electrons)		
Al	578	1817	2745	11577			
Si	786	1577	3232	4356	16091		
P	1012	1907	2914	4964	6274	21267	
S	1000	2252	3357	4556	7004	8496	27107
Cl	1251	2298	3822	5159	6542	9362	11018
Ar	1521	2666	3931	5771	7238	8781	11995

# Exercise

- Three elements are indicated in the periodic table in the margin. Which one has the largest second ionization energy?

The diagram shows a simplified periodic table with the following elements highlighted:

- Red box: Sodium (Na), located in the first column of the second row.
- Blue box: Calcium (Ca), located in the second column of the third row.
- Green box: Sulfur (S), located in the sixth column of the third row.

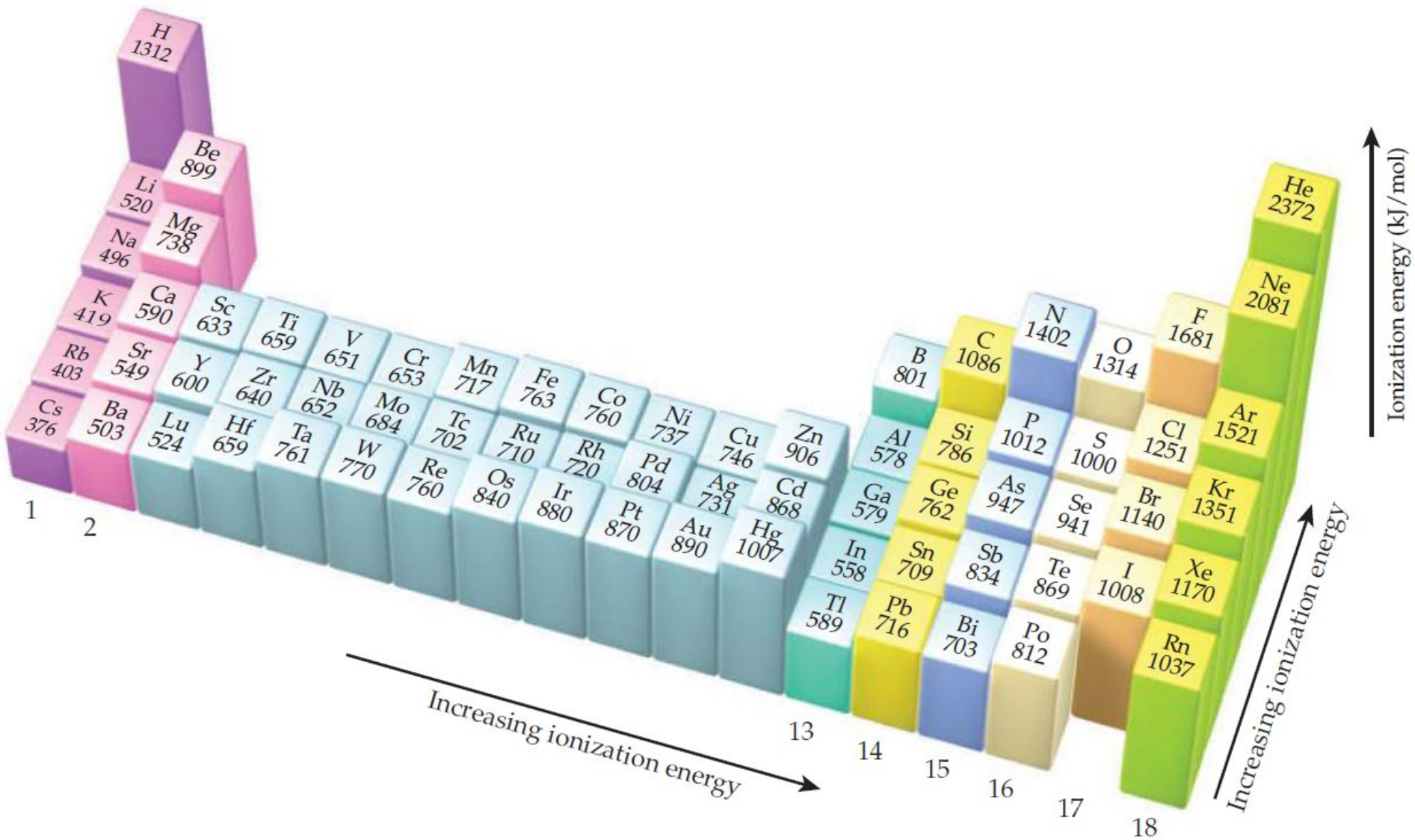
Answer

- The red box represents **Na**, which has one valence **e**.  $I_2$  of **Na** is associated with the removal of a **core e**.
- The other elements, **S** (**green**) and **Ca** (**blue**), have two or more valence **es**.
- Thus, **Na** should have the largest  $I_2$ .

# Periodic Trends in $I_1$

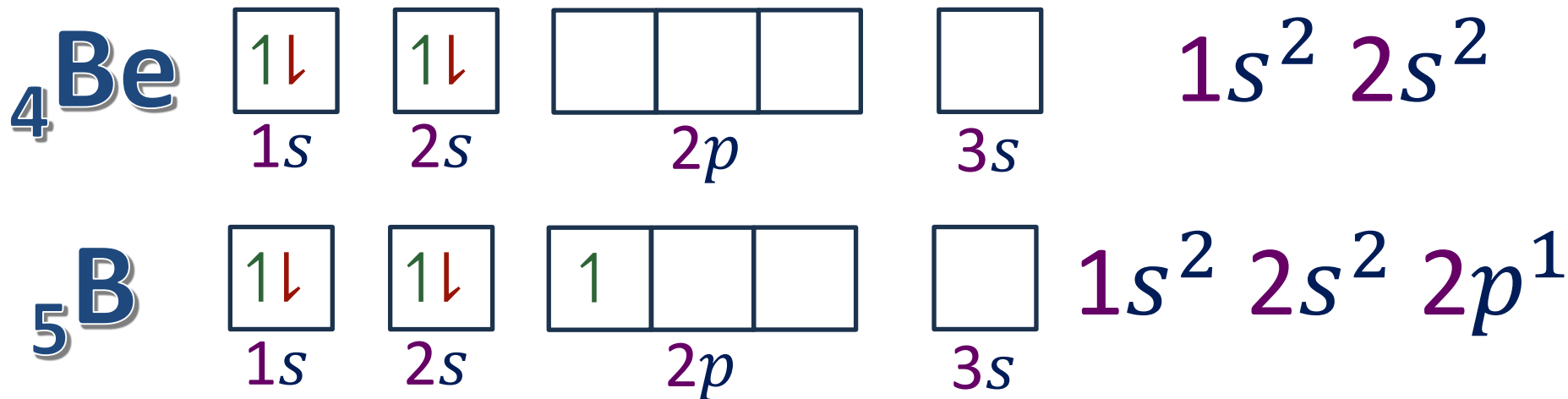
- $I_1$  generally **increases** from **left** to **right** across a period.
  - The alkali metals show the **lowest**  $I_1$  in each period, and the noble gases show the **highest**.
  - There are slight irregularities in this trend.
- $I_1$  generally **decreases down** any **column** in PT.
  - $I_1$  of the noble gases follow the order **He > Ne > Ar > Kr > Xe**.
- The **s-** and **p-**block elements show a **larger** range of  $I_1$  values than do the transition metal elements.
  - Generally, the  $I_1$  of the transition metals increase slowly from left to right in a period.
  - The f-block metals also show only a small variation in the values of  $I_1$  .

# Periodic Trends in $I_1$



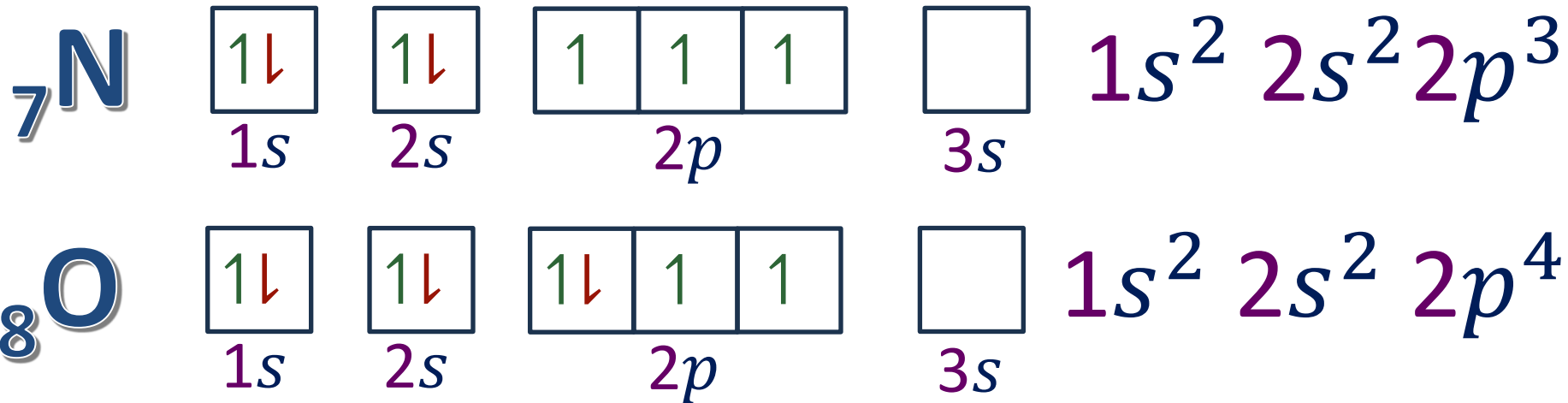
- In general, **smaller** atoms have **higher**  $I_1$  .
- The same factors that influence atomic size also influence ionization energies.
- The energy needed to remove an **e** from the outermost occupied shell depends on both the  $Z_{eff}$  and the average distance of the **e** from the nucleus.
- Either **increasing**  $Z_{eff}$  or **decreasing** the distance from the nucleus **increases** the attraction between the **e** and the nucleus, and it becomes more difficult to remove the **e**, and, thus,  $I_1$  **increases**.
- Across a period, there is both an **increase** in  $Z_{eff}$  and a **decrease** in atomic radius, causing the  $I_1$  to **increase**.
- Down a column, the atomic radius **increases**, while  $Z_{eff}$  **increases** only gradually. The **increase** in radius **dominates**, so the attraction between the nucleus and **e** decreases, causing the  $I_1$  to decrease.

# Irregularity



- The decrease in  $I_1$  from beryllium to boron occurs because the third valence e of B must occupy the  $2p$  subshell, which is empty for Be. Recall that the  $2p$  subshell is at a higher energy than the  $2s$  subshell.

# Irregularity



- The slight decrease in  $I_1$  when moving from nitrogen to oxygen is the result of the repulsion of paired electrons in the  $p^4$  configuration.
  - Remember that according to Hund's rule, each electron in the  $p^3$  configuration resides in a different  $p$  orbital, which minimizes the e-e repulsion among the three  $2p$  electrons.

# Electron Configurations of Ions

- When **es** are removed from an atom to form a **cation**, they are always removed first from the occupied orbitals having the **largest** principal quantum number,  $n$ .



# Filling vs. Removing es

- It may seem odd that  $4s$  es are removed before  $3d$  es in forming transition-metal cations, as we fill  $4s$  first.
- On filling es, we add both an e to an orbital and a proton to the nucleus to change the identity of the element.
- In ionization, we do not reverse this process because no protons are being removed.
- Ca and  $Ti^{2+}$  have 20 es, but a  $Ti^{2+}$  ion has more protons than a Ca atom (22 vs. 20). That changes the relative energy levels of the orbitals enough that the two species have different electron configurations: Ca ( $[Ar]4s^2$ ) and  $Ti^{2+}$  ( $[Ar]3d^2$ ).

# Electron Configurations of Ions

- If there is more than one occupied subshell for a given value of  $n$ , the  $es$  are first removed from the orbital with the highest value of  $l$ .
- A tin atom loses its  $5p$   $es$  before its  $5s$   $es$ .



# Addition of $e^-$ to form anions

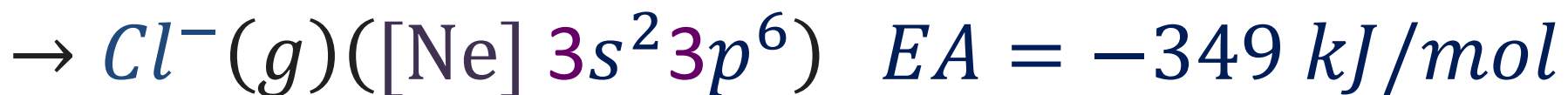
- $e^-$  added to an atom to form an anion are added to the **empty** or **partially filled** orbital having the lowest value of  $n$ .
- An  $e^-$  added to a fluorine atom to form the  $F^-$  ion goes into the one remaining vacancy in the  $2p$  subshell.



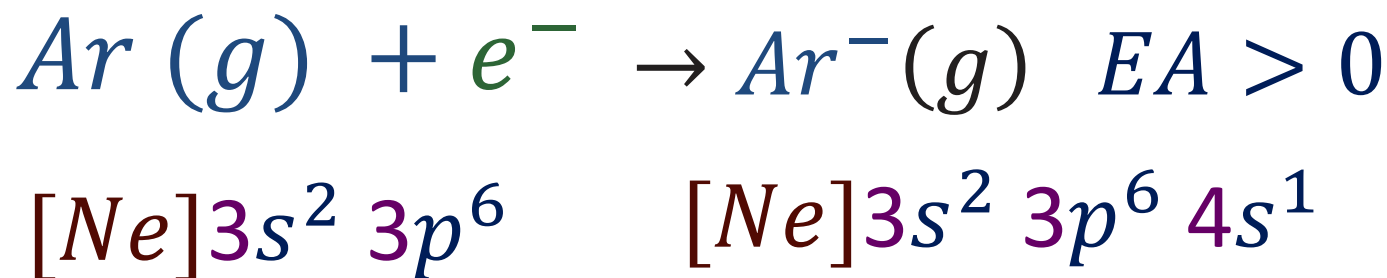
# Electron Affinity, EA

The energy change that occurs when an **electron** is added to a gaseous atom

- It measures the **attraction**, or affinity, of the atom for the added **electron**.
- For most atoms, **energy** is **released** when an **e** is added.
- Addition of an **e** to **Cl** atom is accompanied by an energy change of **-349** kJ/mol (=EA).



- The **greater** the attraction between an atom and an added **e**, the **more negative** the atom's **EA**.
- For some elements, such as the noble gases, the electron affinity has a positive value, meaning that the anion is higher in energy than are the separated atom and electron:



**EA** is positive means that an **e** will not attach itself to an **Ar** atom; in other words, the **Ar<sup>-</sup>** ion is **unstable** and **does not form**.

# Periodic Trends in EA

1						18	
H -73						He > 0	
Li -60	2 Be > 0	13 B -27	14 C -122	15 N > 0	16 O -141	17 F -328	Ne > 0
Na -53	Mg > 0	Al -43	Si -134	P -72	S -200	Cl -349	Ar > 0
K -48	Ca -2	Ga -30	Ge -119	As -78	Se -195	Br -325	Kr > 0
Rb -7	Sr -5	In -30	Sn -107	Sb -103	Te -190	I -295	Xe > 0

EA in **kJ/mol** for selected *s*- and *p*-block elements

- **Trends** are not as evident as they are for *I*.
- Halogens (are one **e** shy of a filled *p* subshell) have the most negative **EA**. By gaining an **e**, they form stable anions of noble-gas configuration.

- Addition of an  $e$  to a noble gas requires that the  $e$  resides in a higher-energy subshell that is empty in the atom that is **energetically unfavorable**, hence, EA is highly positive.



- EA of Be and Mg are **positive** for the same reason; the added electron would reside in a previously empty  $p$  subshell that is higher in energy.

Group 15 elements have half-filled  
 $p$  subshells,



14	15	16
C -122	N > 0	O -141
Si -134	P -72	S -200
Ge -119	As -78	Se -195
Sn -107	Sb -103	Te -190

- The added  $e$  must be put in an orbital that is already occupied, resulting in larger  $e-e$  repulsions.

- Consequently, these elements have EA that are either **positive** (N) or less negative than those of their neighbors to the left (P, As, Sb).

- Recall the discontinuity in the trends in  $I_1$  for the same reason.

- EAs do not change greatly down a group.
- As we proceed from F (added electron goes into a  $2p$  orbital) to I (added electron goes into a  $5p$  orbital), the average distance between the added e and the nucleus steadily increases, causing the e–nucleus attraction to decrease.
- Yet, the orbital that holds the outermost e is increasingly spread out, so that as we proceed from F to I, the e–e repulsions are also reduced.
- As a result, the reduction in the e–nucleus attraction is counterbalanced by the reduction in e–e repulsions.



Thank You