

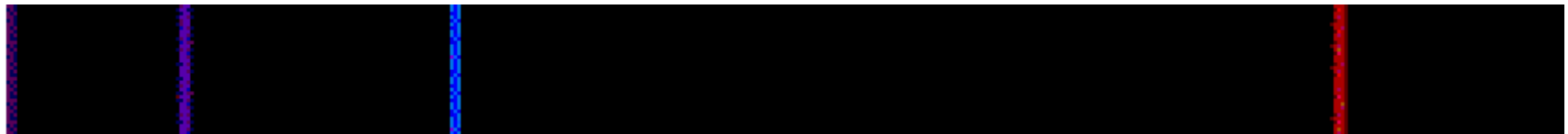
Atomic Structure

Part 3

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School of Chemistry

TCD



Emission Spectrum of Hydrogen



The Periodic Table

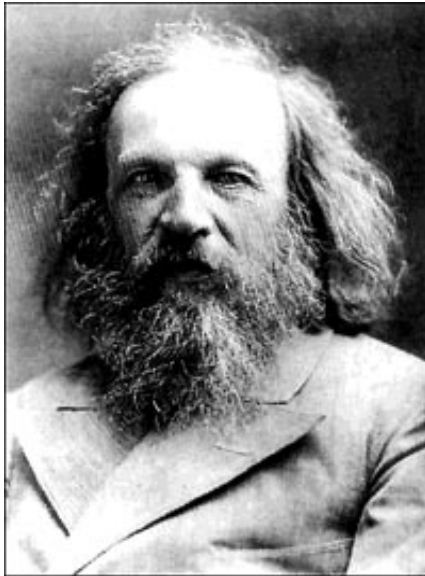


TABELLE II

REIHEN	GRUPPE I. — R ² O	GRUPPE II. — RO	GRUPPE III. — R ² O ³	GRUPPE IV. RH ⁴ RO ²	GRUPPE V. RH ³ R ² O ⁵	GRUPPE VI. RH ² RO ³	GRUPPE VII. RH R ² O ⁷	GRUPPE VIII. — RO ⁴
1	H=1							
2	Li=7	Be=9,4	B=11	C=12	N=14	O=16	F=19	
3	Na=23	Mg=24	Al=27,3	Si=28	P=31	S=32	Cl=35,5	
4	K=39	Cd=40	--=44	Ti=48	V=51	Cr=52	Mn=55	Fe=56, Co=59, Ni=59, Cu=63.
5	(Cu=63)	Zn=65	--=68	--=72	As=75	Se=78	Br=80	
6	Rb=85	Sr=87	?Yt=88	Zr=90	Nb=94	Mo=96	--=100	Ru=104, Rh=104, Pd=106, Ag=108.
7	(Ag=108)	Cd=112	In=113	Sn=118	Sb=122	Te=125	J=127	
8	Cs=133	Ba=137	?Di=138	?Ce=140	--	--	--	
9	(--)	--	--	--	--	--	--	
10	--	--	?Er=178	?La=180	Ta=182	W=184	--	Os=195, Ir=197, Pt=198, Au=199.
11	(Au=199)	Hg=200	Tl=204	Pb=207	Bi=208	--	--	
12	--	--	--	Th=231	--	U=240	--	

Figure 2.5 Dmitri Mendeleev's 1872 periodic table. The spaces marked with blank lines represent elements that Mendeleev deduced existed but were unknown at the time, so he left places for them in the table. The symbols at the top of the columns (e.g., R²O and RH⁴) are molecular formulas written in the style of the 19th century.

The Periodic Table

1 H 1.0079											19 K 39.098	20 Ca 40.078	31 Ga 69.723	32 Ge 72.64	33 As 74.922	34 Se 78.96	35 Br 79.904	36 Kr 83.798
2 He 4.0026											13 Al 26.981	14 Si 28.086	15 P 30.974	16 S 32.06	17 Cl 35.45	18 Ar 39.948		
3 Li 6.941	4 Be 9.0122											5 B 10.811	6 C 12.011	7 N 14.007	8 O 15.999	9 F 18.998	10 Ne 20.180	
11 Na 22.990	12 Mg 24.305	3 B 10.811	4 Be 9.0122	5 B 10.811	6 C 12.011	7 N 14.007	8 O 15.999	9 F 18.998	10 Ne 20.180	11 Na 22.990	12 Mg 24.305	13 Al 26.981	14 Si 28.086	15 P 30.974	16 S 32.06	17 Cl 35.45	18 Ar 39.948	
19 K 39.098	20 Ca 40.078	21 Sc 44.956	22 Ti 47.867	23 V 50.942	24 Cr 51.996	25 Mn 54.938	26 Fe 55.845	27 Co 58.933	28 Ni 58.693	29 Cu 63.546	30 Zn 65.409	31 Ga 69.723	32 Ge 72.64	33 As 74.922	34 Se 78.96	35 Br 79.904	36 Kr 83.798	
37 Rb 85.468	38 Sr 87.62	39 Y 88.906	40 Zr 91.224	41 Nb 92.906	42 Mo 95.94	43 Tc (98)	44 Ru 101.07	45 Rh 102.91	46 Pd 106.36	47 Ag 107.87	48 Cd 112.41	49 In 114.82	50 Sn 118.71	51 Sb 121.76	52 Te 127.60	53 I 126.90	54 Xe 131.29	
55 Cs 132.91	56 Ba 137.33	57-71 *	72 Hf 178.49	73 Ta 180.95	74 W 183.84	75 Re 186.21	76 Os 190.23	77 Ir 192.22	78 Pt 195.08	79 Au 196.97	80 Hg 200.59	81 Tl 204.38	82 Pb 207.2	83 Bi 208.98	84 Po (209)	85 At (210)	86 Rn (222)	
87 Fr (223)	88 Ra (226)	89-103 †	104 Rf (261)	105 Db (262)	106 Sg (263)	107 Bh (264)	108 Hs (265)	109 Mt (266)	110 Ds (271)	111 Rg (272)	112 Cp	113 Nh (284)	114 Fl (289)	115 Mc (288)	116 Lv (293)		118 Og (294)	

* Lanthanide series

57 La 138.91	58 Ce 140.12	59 Pr 140.91	60 Nd 144.24	61 Pm (145)	62 Sm 150.36	63 Eu 151.96	64 Gd 157.25	65 Tb 158.93	66 Dy 162.50	67 Ho 164.93	68 Er 167.26	69 Tm 168.93	70 Yb 173.04	71 Lu 174.97
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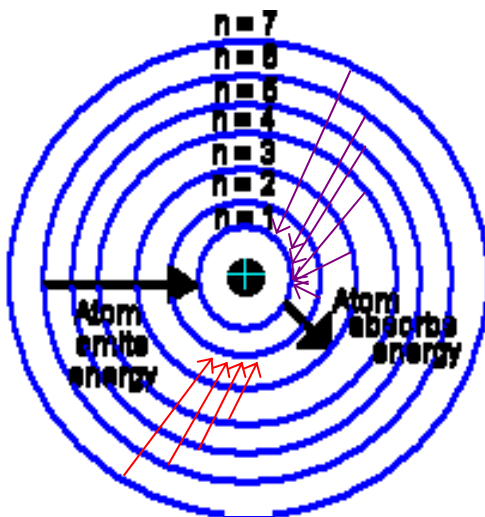
† Actinide series

89 Ac (227)	90 Th 232.04	91 Pa 231.04	92 U 238.03	93 Np (237)	94 Pu (244)	95 Am (243)	96 Cm (247)	97 Bk (247)	98 Cf (251)	99 Es (252)	100 Fm (257)	101 Md (258)	102 No (259)	103 Lr (262)
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Naturally Occurring Man-Made

The Bohr Model

- The electron in a hydrogen atom travels around the nucleus in a circular orbit.
- The energy of the electron in an orbit is proportional to its distance from the nucleus. The further the electron is from the nucleus, the more energy it has.
- Only a limited number of orbits with certain energies are allowed. In other words, the orbits are quantized.
- The only orbits that are allowed are those for which the *angular momentum* of the electron is an integral multiple of Planck's constant divided by 2π .

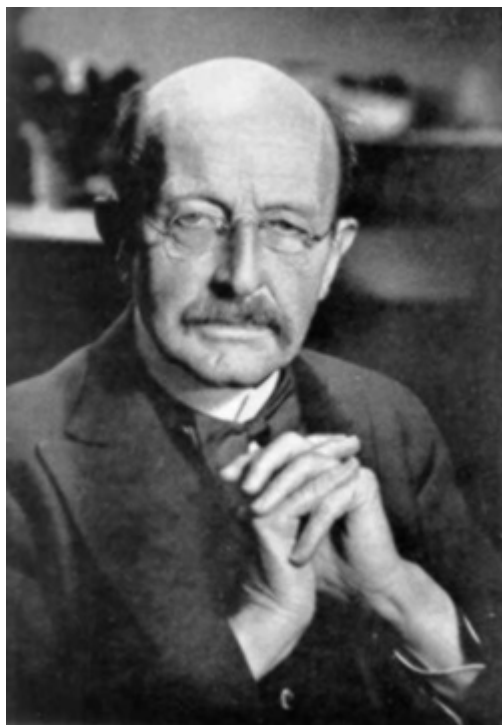


Any object moving along a straight line has a *momentum* equal to the product of its mass (m) times the velocity (v) with which it moves. An object moving in a circular orbit has an *angular momentum* equal to its mass (m) times the velocity (v) times the radius of the orbit (r). Bohr assumed that the angular momentum of the electron can take on only certain values, equal to an integer times Planck's constant divided by 2π .

$$mvr = n \left[\frac{h}{2\pi} \right]$$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

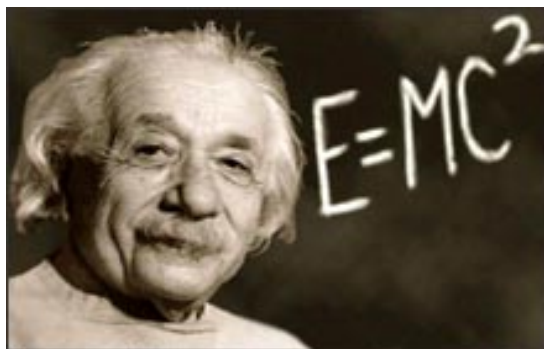
$$\Delta E = R_H \left[\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]$$



Electromagnetic Radiation has associated with it only discrete energies (quantized)

ie. light is an electromagnetic wave

$$E = h\nu$$



Electromagnetic Radiation can exhibit particle like behaviour



Schrödinger wave equation

$$H\Psi = E\Psi$$

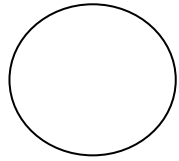


Wave-Particle Duality proposed by De Broglie

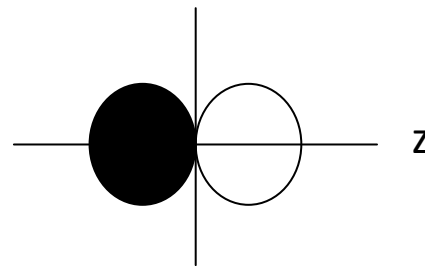
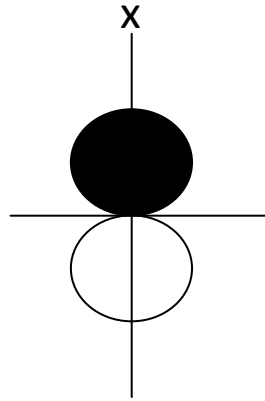
$$\lambda = h/mv$$

Complex physics and mathematics! BUT chemists want to know what it says about molecules not maths

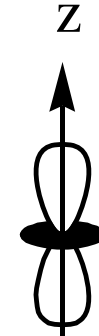
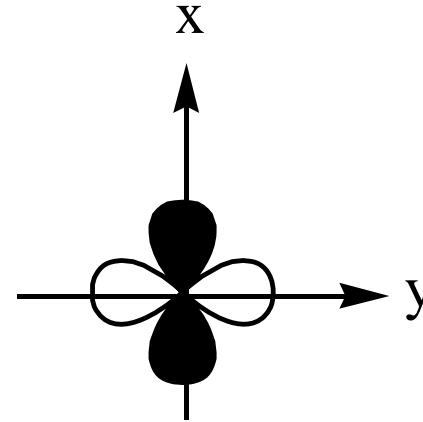
Shapes of orbitals



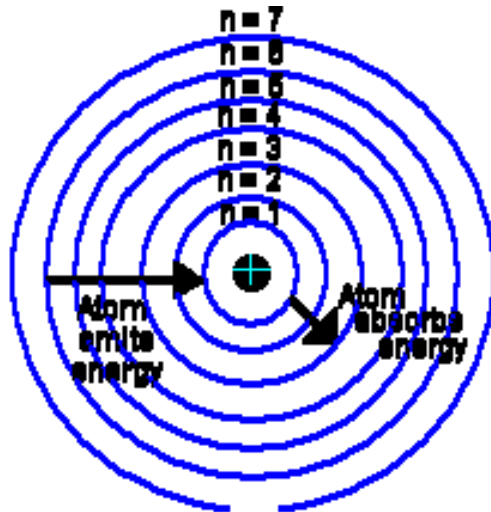
s orbital



p orbital



d orbital



Why do they take this shape?

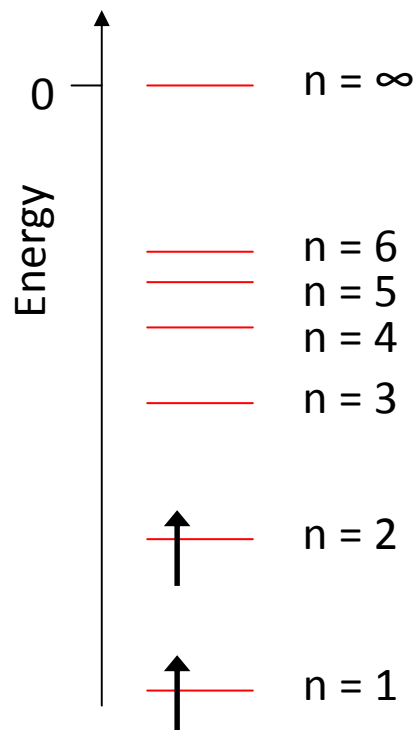
Quantum Mechanics!

Energies of orbitals

For a hydrogen atom the energies are ordered purely by quantum numbers.

So the 1s orbital is the lowest in energy.

For $n = 2$ all orbitals (2s and 2p) are the same in energy and said to be *degenerate*



$n = \infty$ is the ionisation energy i.e. the energy required to remove an electron

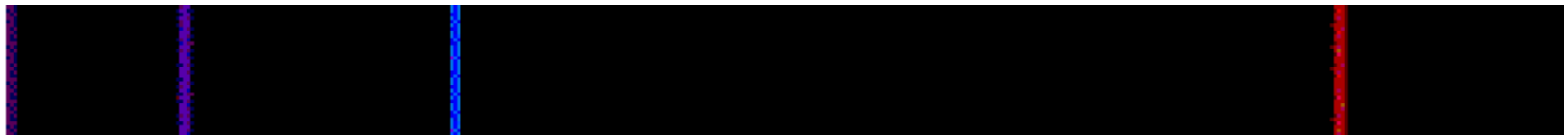
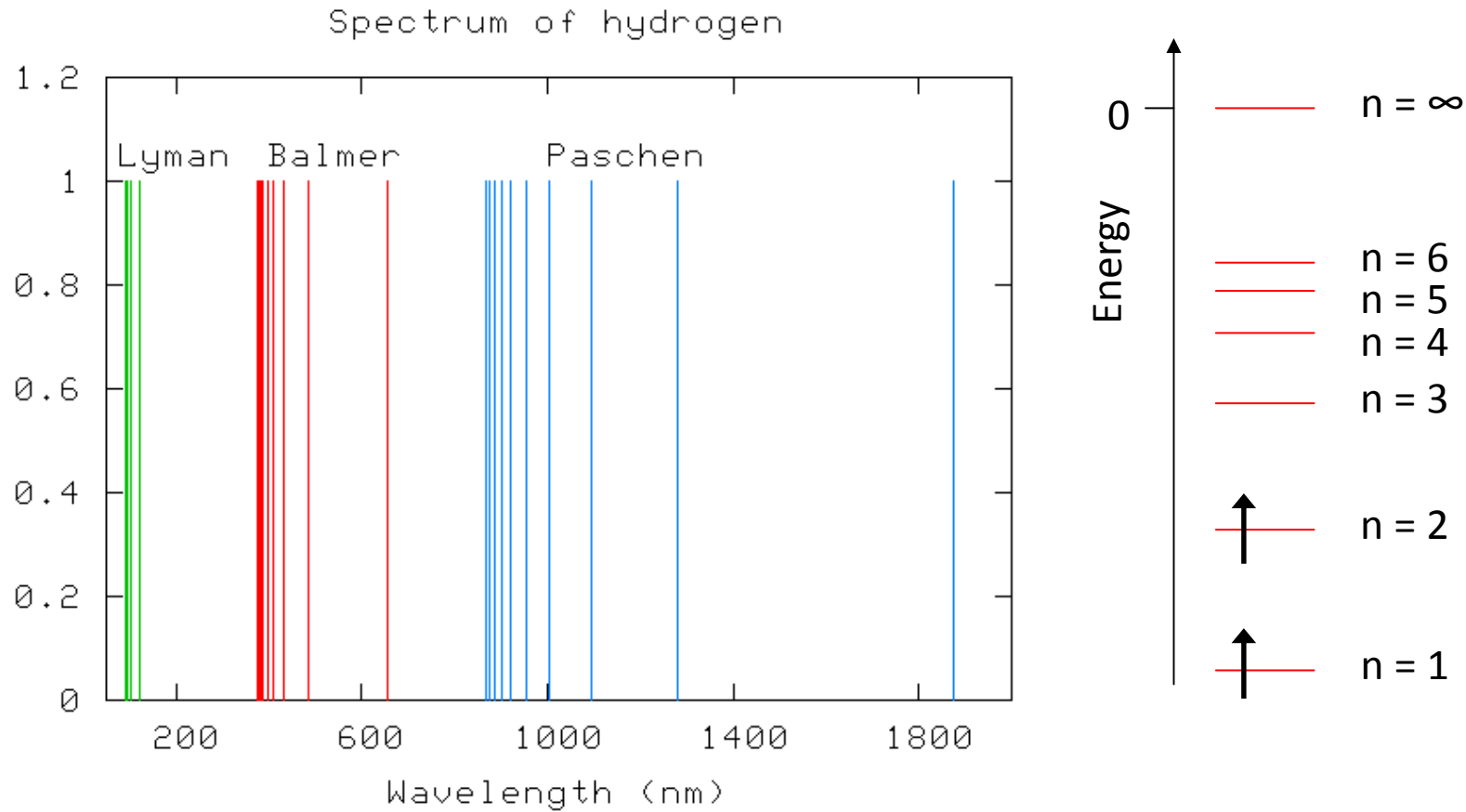
The scale shows a more negative energy as we go to lower quantum numbers – more stable

For hydrogen the electron is accommodated in the lowest energy orbital. This is known as its *ground state*.

The ground state electronic structure of hydrogen is $1s^1$

An electron can be raised in energy (promoted) to an orbital of higher energy. *This is an excited state.*

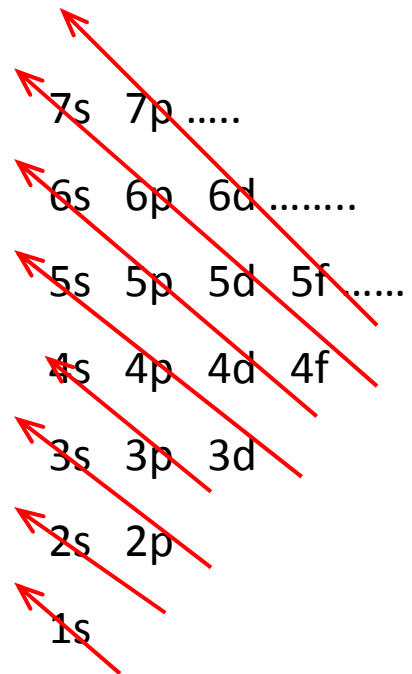
Energies of orbitals



Emission Spectrum of Hydrogen



Filling of electrons



An aid to remember the order

Electronic Configurations

The Octet Rule:

Atoms try to obtain the noble gas configuration by loss or gain of electrons.

How does that work?

Lithium has 3 electrons: $1s^2 2s^1$

If it loses an electron to form Li^+ : $1s^2$

$\Rightarrow \text{Li}^+ \equiv \text{He}$

Electronic Configurations

The Octet Rule:

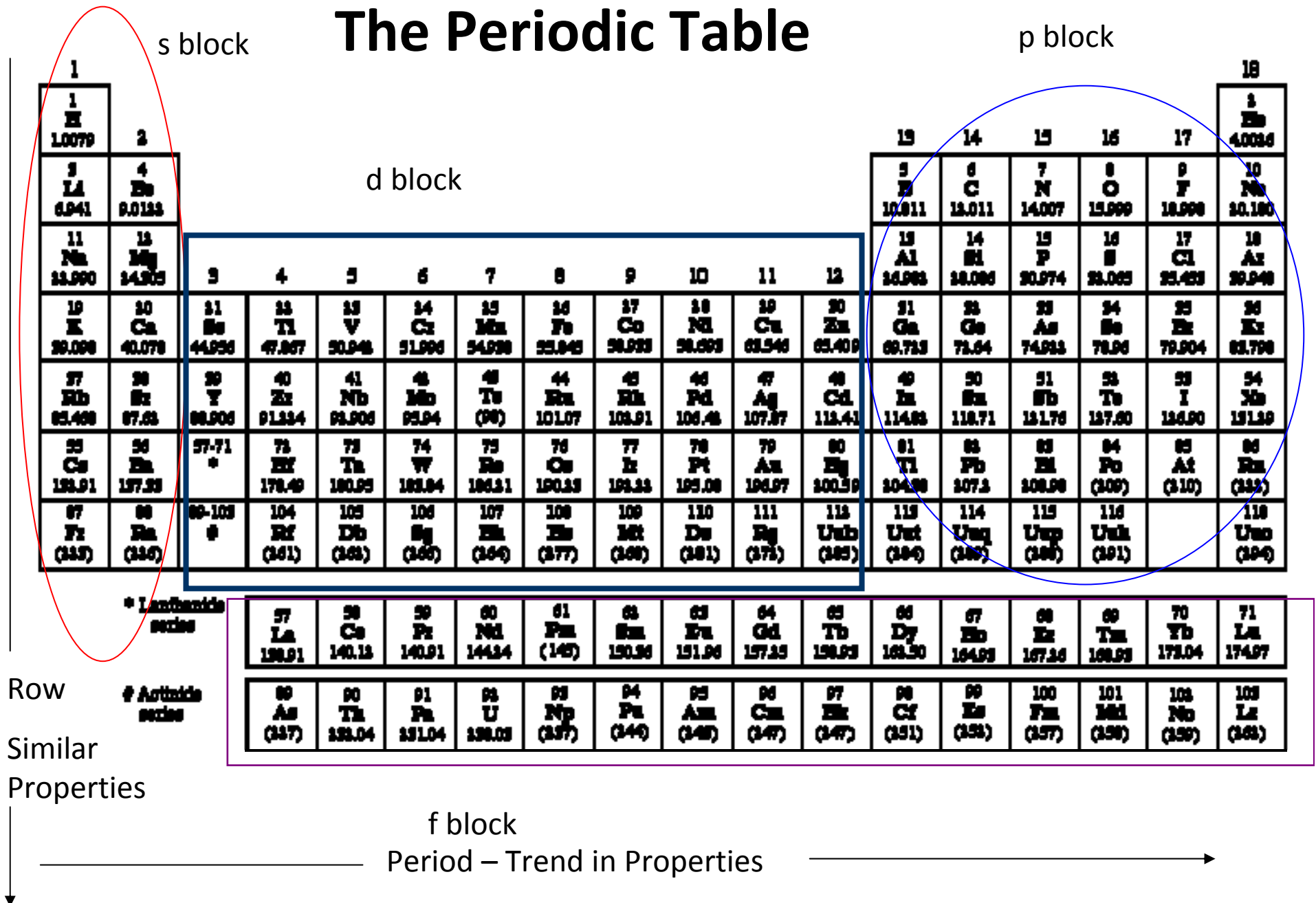
Atoms try to obtain the noble gas configuration by loss or gain of electrons.

Fluorine has 7 electrons: $1s^2 2s^2 2p^5$

If it gains an electron to form F^- : $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$

$\Rightarrow F^- \equiv Ne$

The Periodic Table



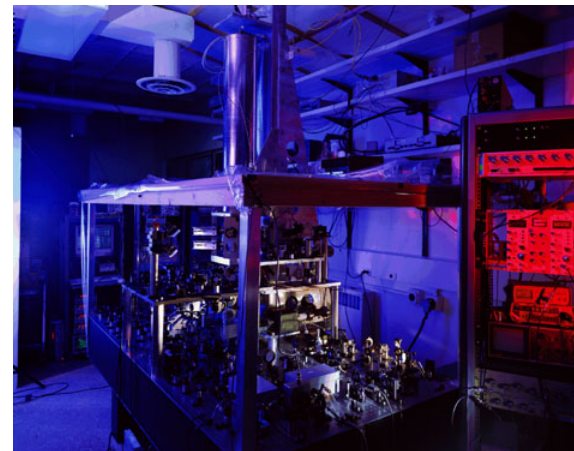
Group Trends -The Alkali Metals



LiCO_3 pills for mood disorders



Potassium is found in foods



Cs (and Rb) used in clocks



Li



Na
(145g)



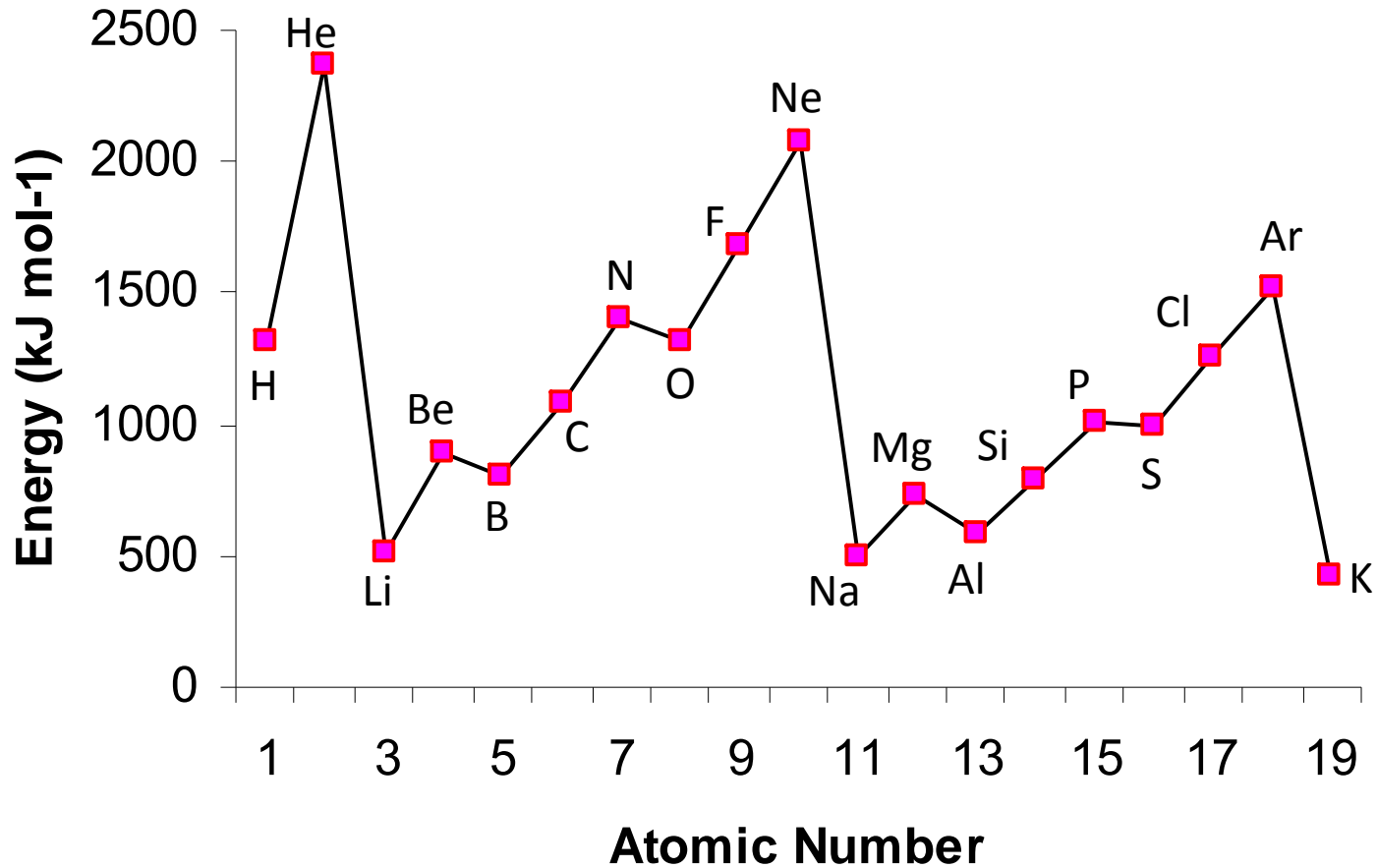
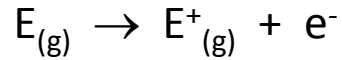
K



Rb and Cs

Ionisation Energy

The energy required to completely remove an electron from an atom in the gas phase:



First ionisation enthalpies (kJ mol⁻¹) for the elements Hydrogen to Potassium

Electronegativity



Jöns Berzelius (1820s)

Electronegativity is defined as **the power of an atom in a molecule to attract electrons to itself**

Very powerful principle for understanding the nature of the elements and the types of compounds they form with each other



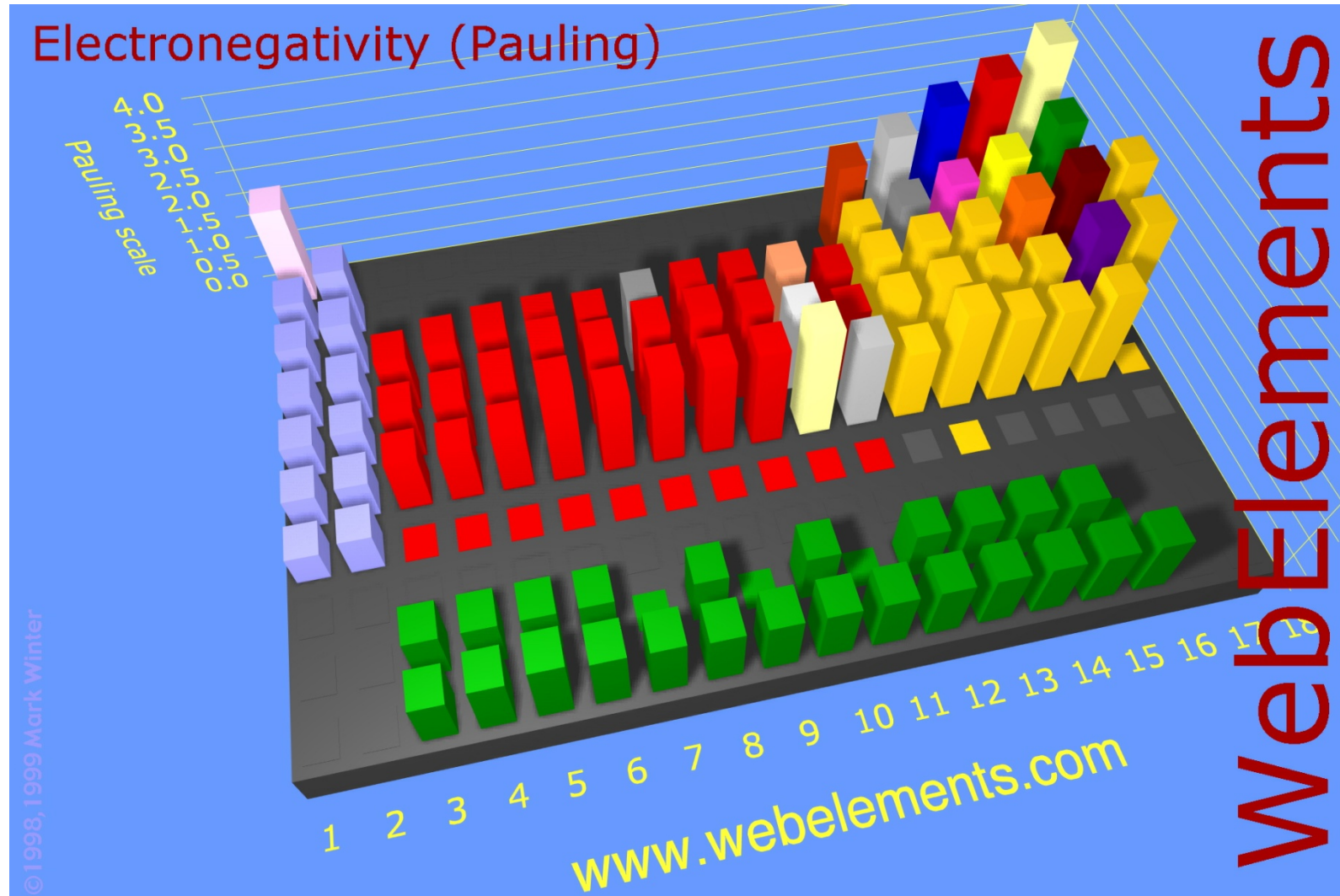
Pauling
Electronegativity (χ^P)

Empirical relationship - Pauling assigned the most electronegative element, F, to 4.

He noticed that the bond energy $E(AB)$ in a molecule AB is always greater than the mean of the bond energies $E(AA) + E(BB)$ in the homonuclear species AA and BB. His argument was that in an "ideal" covalent bond $E(AB)$ should equal this mean, and that the "excess" bond energy is caused by electrostatic attraction between the partially charged atoms in the heteronuclear species AB.

Electronegativity

The 3rd dimension of the periodic table?



Electronegativity

Periodic Trends: As you go across a period the electronegativity **increases**.
As you go down a group, electronegativity **decreases**.

Explaining the Trends in Electronegativity

The attraction that a bonding pair of electrons feels for a particular nucleus depends on:

- the number of protons in the nucleus
- the distance from the nucleus
- the number (and type) of inner electrons.

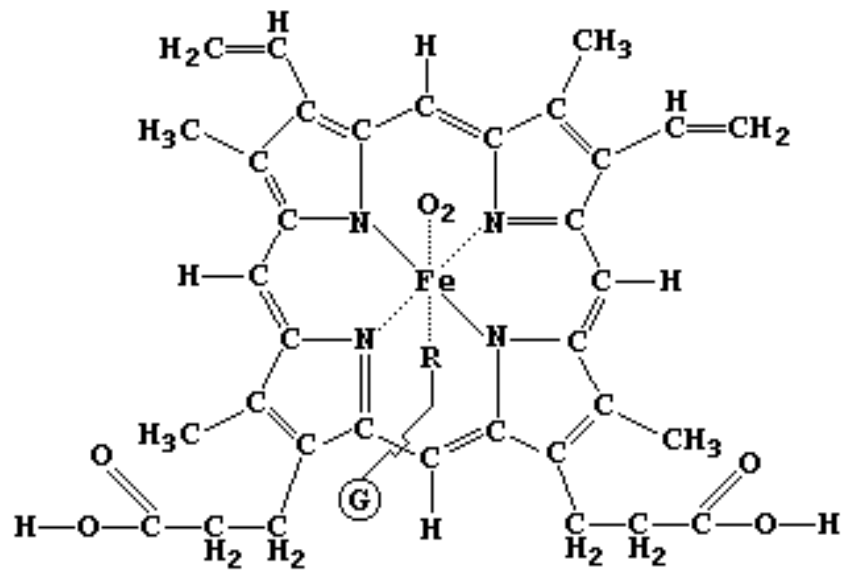
Naming Oxoacids

Oxoanion		Oxoacid	
Formula	Name	Formula	Name
ClO^-	hypochlorite	$\text{HClO}(\text{aq})$	hypochlorous acid
ClO_2^-	chlorite	$\text{HClO}_2(\text{aq})$	chlorous acid
ClO_3^-	chlorate	$\text{HClO}_3(\text{aq})$	chloric acid
ClO_4^-	perchlorate	$\text{HClO}_4(\text{aq})$	perchloric acid
NO_2^-	nitrite	$\text{HNO}_2(\text{aq})$	nitrous acid
NO_3^-	nitrate	$\text{HNO}_3(\text{aq})$	nitric acid
SO_3^{2-}	sulfite	$\text{H}_2\text{SO}_3(\text{aq})$	sulfurous acid
SO_4^{2-}	sulfate	$\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{aq})$	sulfuric acid
HSO_3^-	hydrogen sulfite	$\text{H}_2\text{SO}_3(\text{aq})$	sulfurous acid
HSO_4^-	hydrogen sulfate	$\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{aq})$	sulfuric acid

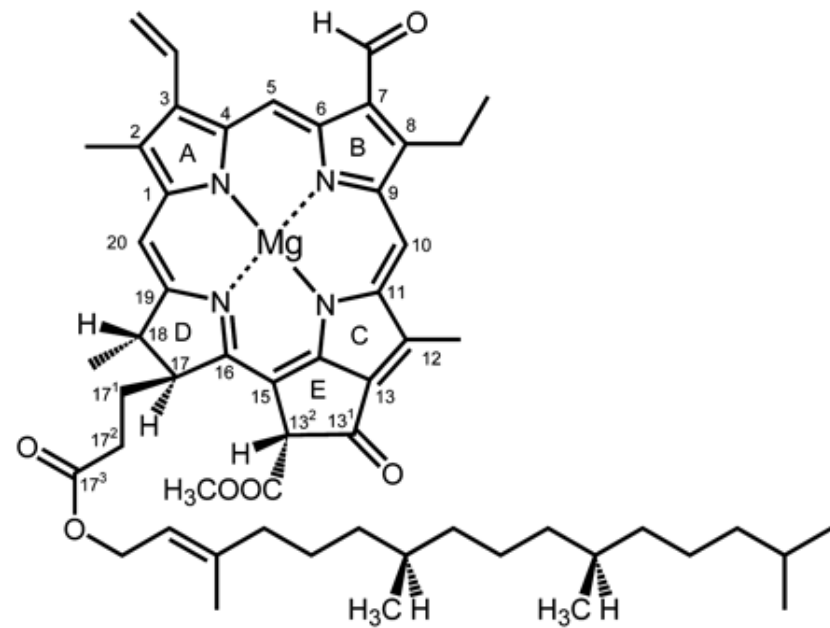
if oxoanion ends in "ite" acid ends in "ous"

if oxoanion ends in "ate" acid ends in "ic"

Bonding



Haemoglobin



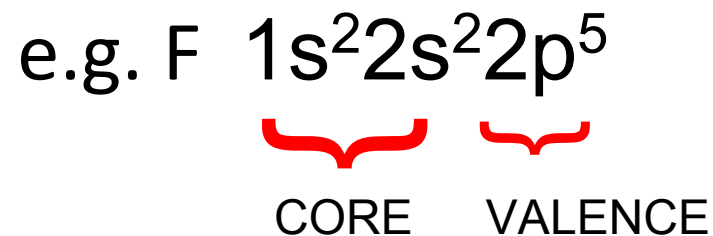
Chlorophyll

Bonding

How can we use the ideas previously discussed to understand bonding?

Valence orbitals – those electrons that participate in chemistry – the highest energy electrons.

Core orbitals – those that do not participate in the chemistry – held tightly to the nucleus

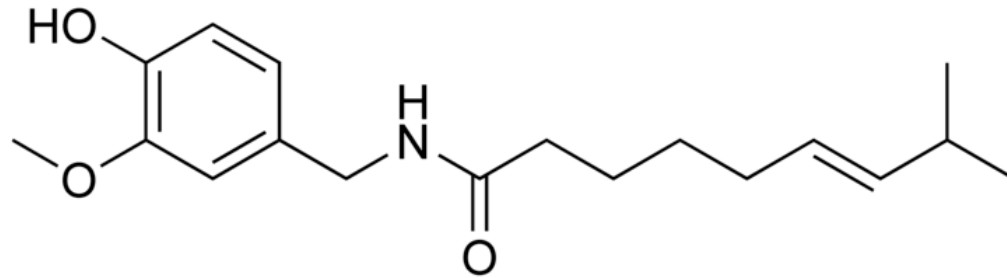


Bonding

2 major types of bond

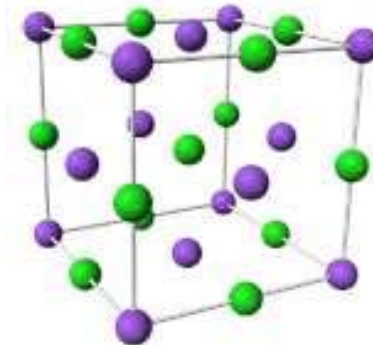
1. COVALENT

2. IONIC



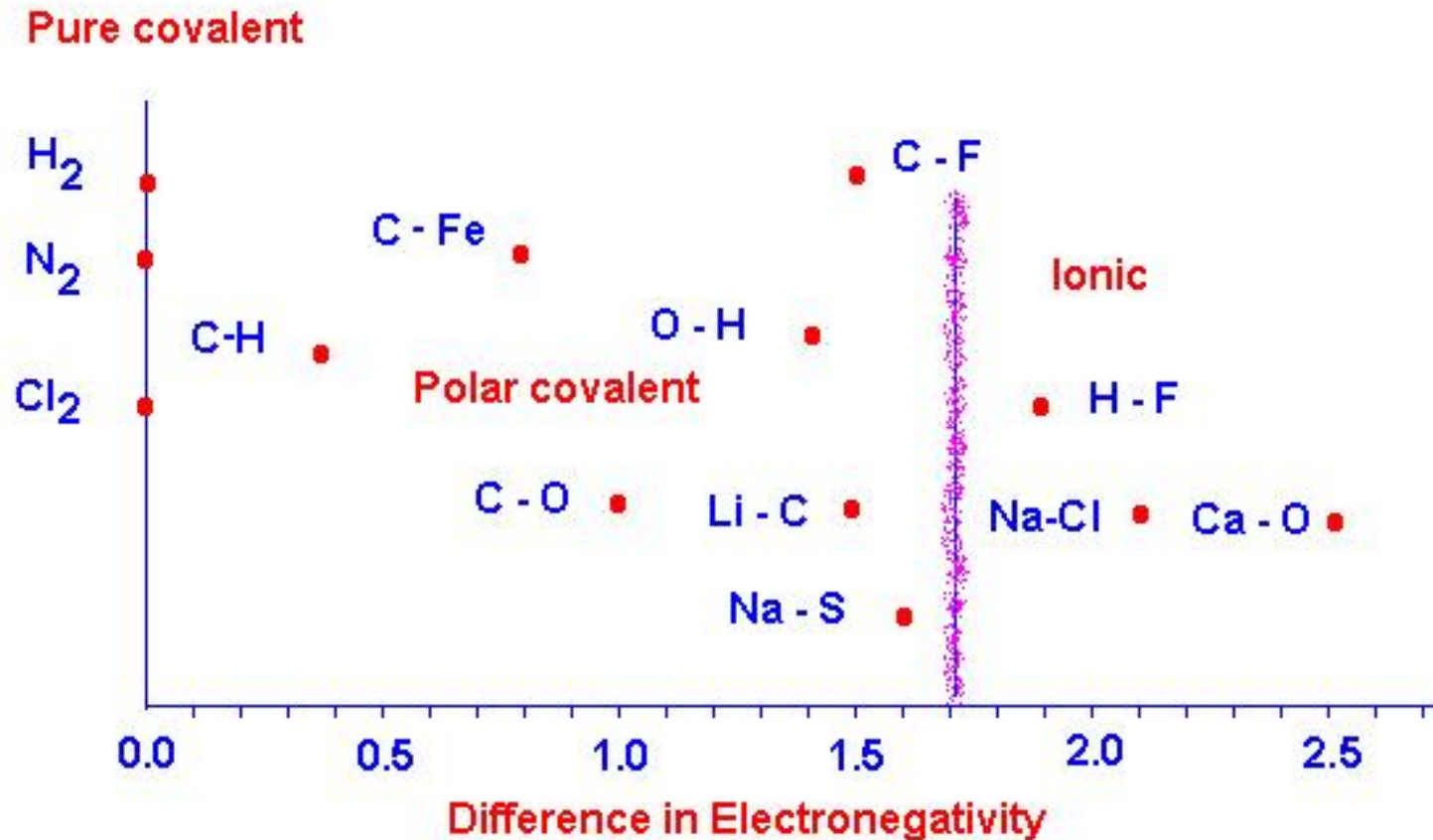
Covalent is a sharing of electrons to form a bond

Ionic is loss/gain of electrons

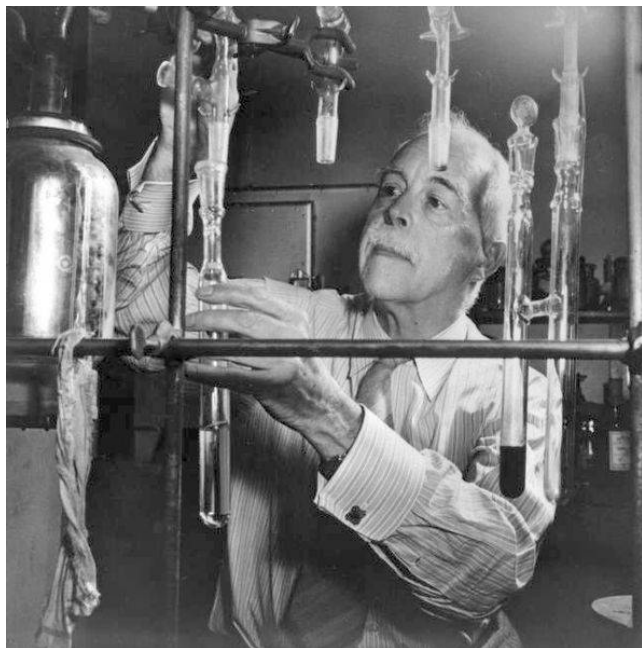


Electronegativity

We can use the difference in electronegativity to understand covalent and ionic bonding



Lewis Structures



What is a bond?

-Sharing of electrons

-Covalent bond, bonding electrons localised, or fixed, between two atoms

Electrons that are not shared are localised as lone pairs

Lewis theory states that all atoms are trying to achieve a noble gas configuration \Rightarrow OCTET rule

Some rules for Lewis dot diagrams:

Only use valence electrons

Under most circumstances symmetrical geometry is correct!

Oxygen is commonly and Hydrogen always peripheral

Arrange electrons so that all non-H atoms obtain an octet (exceptions for elements in the 3rd and 4th row)

Lewis Structures - Complex Structures

1 – Determine the total number of valence electrons

Neutral complexes sum the valence electrons

Cationic complexes *subtract* the charge

Anionic complexes *add* the charge

2 – Draw the skeletal structure with single bonds. (H is NEVER a central atom)

3 – Place pairs of electrons around the outermost atom

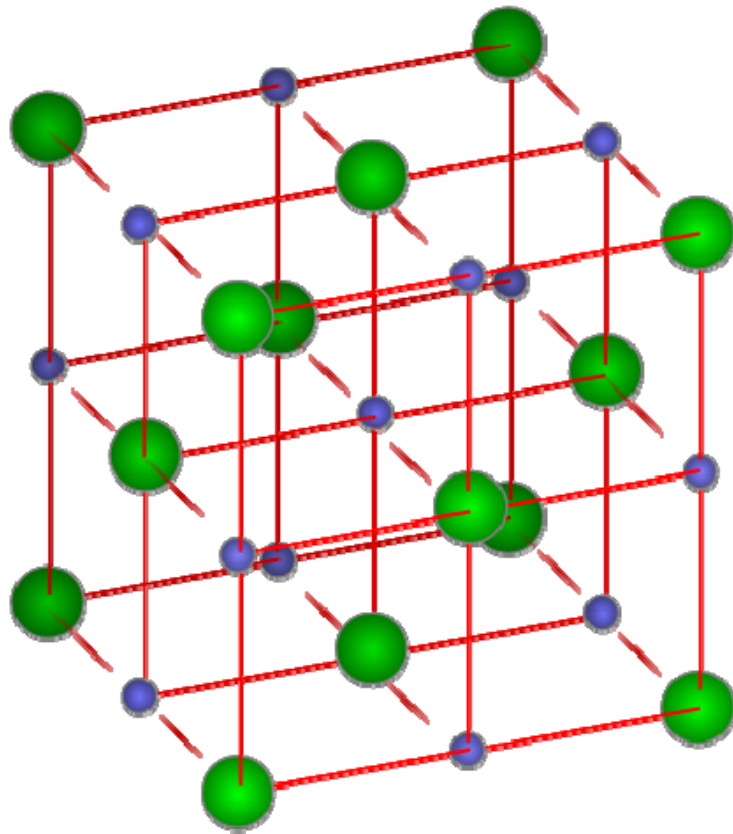
4 – Place any surplus electrons on the central atom

5 – If the central atom does NOT have 8 electrons form a double bond

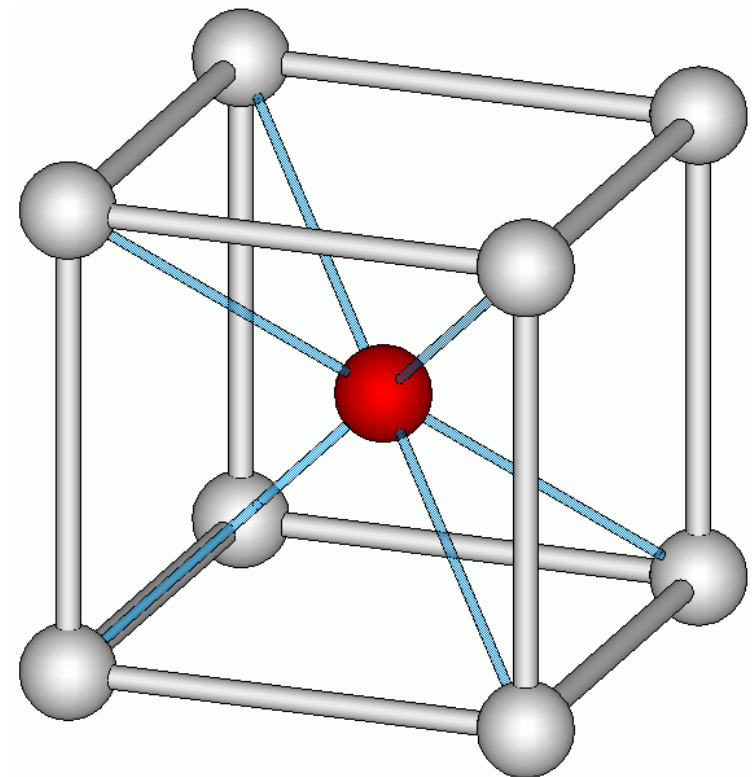
Ionic Compounds

What are the structures of ionic solids e.g. NaCl?

- Can be thought of as effectively packed arrays of ions
- Efficient means maximising the contacts with oppositely charged ions



The structure of Sodium Chloride shows a coordination number of 6.



The structure of Cesium Chloride shows a coordination number of 8.