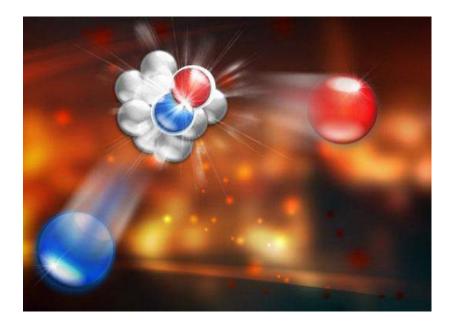
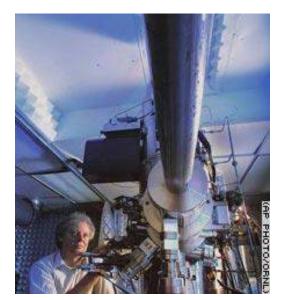
CHAPTER 2 ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND INTERATOMIC BONDING



What are **ATOMS**?

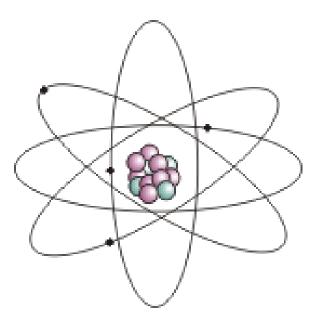
- All matter is made up of tiny particles called atoms.
- Since the atom is too small to be seen even with the most powerful microscopes, scientists rely upon on models to help us to understand the atom.



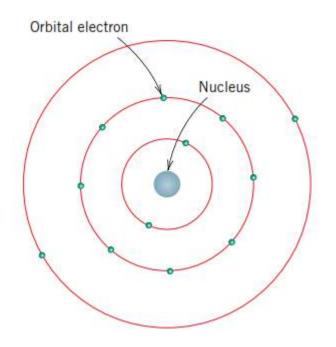
Even with the world's best microscopes we cannot clearly see the structure or behavior of the atom.

Is this really an ATOM?

Even though we do not know what an atom looks like, scientific models must be based on evidence. Many of the atom models that you have seen may look like the one below which shows the parts and structure of the atom.



Bohr Atomic Model



- Bohr model present early attempt to describe electron in atom
- Electrons are particles moving in discrete orbitals
- Electron energy is quantized into shells

ELECTRON ENERGY STATES Bohr's model vs Wave mechanical's models

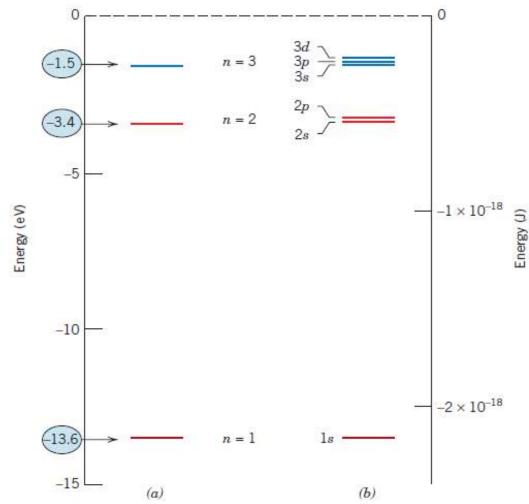


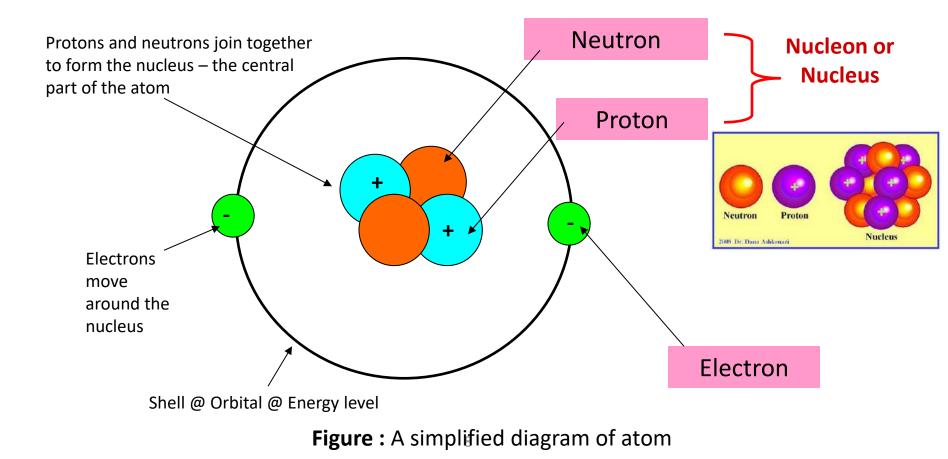
Figure 2.2 (a) The first three electron energy states for the Bohr hydrogen atom. (b) Electron energy states for the first three shells of the wave-mechanical hydrogen atom. (Adapted from W. G. Moffatt, G. W. Pearsall, and J. Wulff, The Structure and Properties of Materials, Vol. I, Structure, p. 10. Copyright © 1964 by John Wiley & Sons, New York. Reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.)

Disadvantages of Bohr's Model

- Electron couldn't circle around the nucleus like a planet – because they would lose energy (by emitting electromagnetic radiation & spiral to the nucleus)
- 2. Bohr was not able to explain electron orbits of large atoms with many electrons

What does an ATOM look like?

Atoms are made of a nucleus that contains *protons*, *neutrons* and *electrons* that orbit around the nucleus at different levels, known as shells.



Atomic Structure

- atom electrons 9.11 x 10⁻³¹ kg protons neutrons } 1.672623 / 1.674929 x 10⁻²⁷ kg
- atomic number = # of protons in nucleus of atom = # of electrons in neutral species
- A [=] atomic mass unit = amu = 1/12 mass of ${}^{12}C$
- 1 amu =1.660540x 10⁻²⁷ kg

Atomic wt = wt of 6.022×10^{23} molecules or atoms

1 amu/atom = 1 g/mol

C 12.011 H 1.008 etc. •These particles have the following properties:

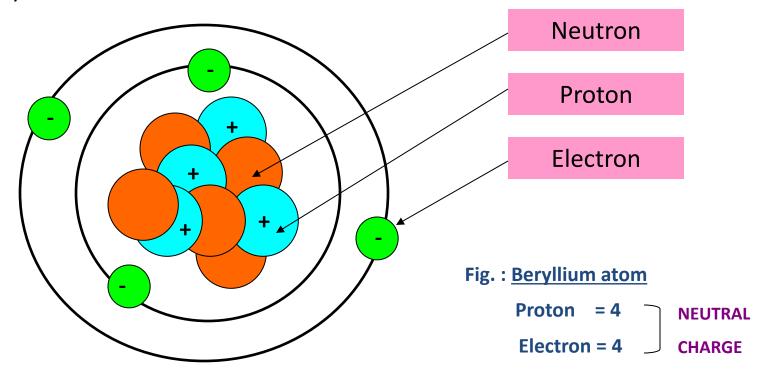
Particle	Charge	Location	Mass (amu)	Symbol
Proton	Positive (+ve)	Nucleus	1.0073	+
Neutron	Neutral	Nucleus	1.0087	
Electron	Negative (-ve)	Orbital	0.000549	-

•To describe the mass of atom, a unit of mass called the atomic mass unit (amu) is used.

•The number of protons, neutrons and electrons in an atom completely determine its properties and identity. This is what makes one atom different from another.

Why are all ATOMS are ELECTRICALLY NEUTRAL?

Most atoms are electrically neutral, meaning that they have an **equal number of protons and electrons**. The positive and negative charges cancel each other out. Therefore, the atom is said to be electrically neutral.



If an atom gains or loses electrons, the atom is no longer neutral and it become **electrically charged**. The atom is then called an *ION*.

cation - ion with a positive charge

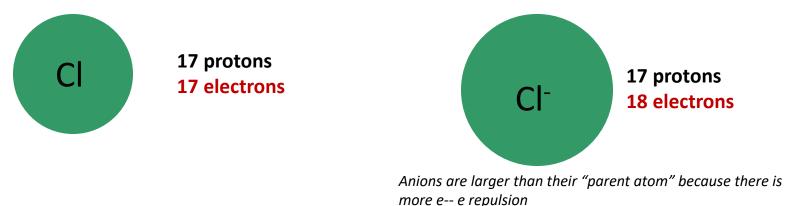
- If a neutral atom loses one or more electrons, it becomes a cation.

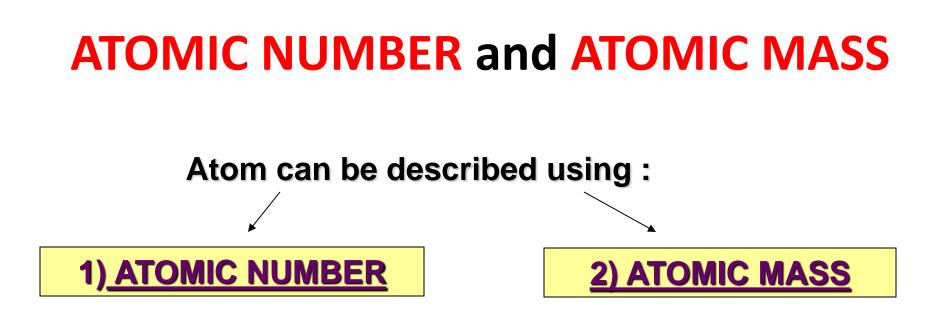


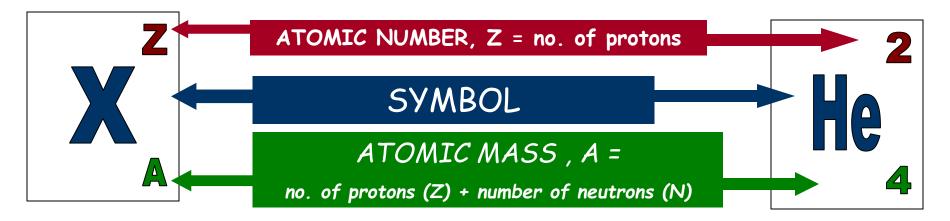
Cations are smaller than their "parent atom" because there is less e-e repulsion

anion - ion with a negative charge

- If a neutral atom gains one or more electrons, it becomes an anion.







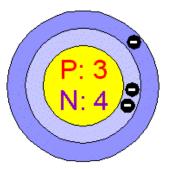
The element helium has the atomic number 2, is represented by the symbol He, its atomic mass is 4 and its name is helium.

1 H 1.0079	IIA											IIIA	IVA	VA	VI A	VII A	4.00200
3 Li 6.94	Be 9.01218											6 B 10.811	б 12.011	7 N 14.0067	° 15.9994	9 H 18998403	10 Ne 20.179
11 Na 22.96977	12 Mg 24.306	III B	IV B	VВ	VIВ	VII B		VIII		IВ	IIВ	13 Al 26.98154	5i 28.0655	P 30.97376	16 S 32.066	17 CI 35.453	18 Ar 38.948
19 K 39.0983	20 Ca 40.08	21 Sc 44.9559	22 Ti 47.88	23 V 60.9416	24 Cr 51.995	25 Mn 55.9381	26 Fe 58.847	27 Co 58.9332	28 Ni 68.69	29 Cu 63.546	20 Zn 65.39	Ga 69.723	32 Ge 72.61	33 As 74.9216	34 Se 78.96	35 Br 79.904	38 Kr 83.80
85.4678	38 Sr 87.62	¥ 88.9059	Zr 91.224	Nb 92,9064	42 Mo 95.94	43 Tc 98.9072	44 Ru 101.07	Rh 102.9055	46 Pd 106.42	47 Ag 107.868	Cd 112.41	49 In 114.82	50 Sn 118.710	51 Sb 121.75	52 Te 127.80	53 126.9047	54 Xe 131.30
Cs 132,9064	56 Ba 137.33	La 138.33	72 Hf 178.49	73 Ta 180.9479	74 W 183.85	75 Re 186.207	76 OS 190.2	177 Ir 192.22	78 Pt 195.08	79 Au 196.9665	[∞] Hg	B1 TI 204.383	Pb 207.2	B3 Bi 208.9804	Po (209)	⁸⁵ At (210)	Rn (222)
87 Fr (223)	88 Ra (226.0254)	89 Ac (227)		68	69	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	_69	70	71
			•	Ce 140.12	Pr 140.9077	Nd 144.24	Pm (145)	50.4 Sm	Eu 151.965	Gd 157.25	Tb 158.9254	Dy 162.50	HO 164.9303	Er 167.26	Tm 168.9342	Yb 173.04	LU 174.967
				Th 232.0381	P1 Pa (231.036)	U 238.029	⁹³ Np 237.0482	P4 Pu (244.069)	86 Am (243.06)	Cm (247.070)	97 Bk (247.070)	⁹⁸ Cf (261.08)	89 Es (262.083)	100 Fm (267.096)	101 Md (258.18)	102 No (259.101)	103 Lw (260.11)

ATOMIC NUMBER tells how many <u>PROTONS (Z)</u> are in its atoms which determine the <u>atom's identity</u>.

The list of elements (ranked according to an increasing no. of protons) can be looked up on the <u>Periodic Table</u>. So, if an atom has 2 protons (atomic no. = 2), it must be helium(He).

ATOMIC MASS tells the sum of the masses of <u>PROTONS (Z)</u> and <u>NEUTRONS (N)</u>. within the nucleus E.g :



lithium: Atomic number = 3 3 protons, Z 4 neutrons, N Atomic mass, A = 3 + 4 = 7

BUT... although each element has a defined number of protons, the number of neutrons

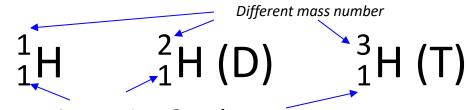
is not fixed



isotopes

ISOTOPES

•Atoms which have the <u>same</u> <u>number of protons</u> but <u>different</u> <u>numbers of neutrons.</u>



Same atomic no. @ no. of protons

•Atoms which have the <u>same</u> <u>atomic number</u> but <u>different atomic</u> <u>mass</u>.

•Eg : Hydrogen has 3 isotopes.

Natural Isotope	Proton	Neutron	Atomic Mass	
Hydrogen 1 (hydrogen)	1	0	1	Ó
Hydrogen 2 (deuterium)	1	1	2	
Hydrogen 3 (tritium)	1	2	3	٩

Element	Name	Proton Number	Nucleon Number	Number of proton	Number of neutron
	Hydrogen	1	1	1	0
Hydrogen	Deuterium	1	12	1	1
	Tritium	1	23	1	2
	Oxygen-16	8	16	8	8
Oxygen	Oxygen-17	8	17	8	9
	Oxygen-18	8	18	8	10
	Carbon-12	6	12	6	6
Carbon	Carbon-13	6	13	6	7
	Carbon-14	6	14	6	8
Chloring	Chlorine-35	17	35	17	18
Chlorine	Chlorine-37	17	37	17	20
Sodium	Sodium-23	11	23	11	12
Soululli	Sodium-24	11	24	11	13

Atomic Weight

• Corresponds to the weighted average of the atomic masses of the atom's naturally occurring isotopes.

1 H 1.0079	IIA											IIIA	IVA	VA	VI A	VII A	4.00200
3 Li 6.94	Be 9.01218											6 B 10.811	б 12.011	7 N 14.0067	° 15.9994	9 H 18998403	10 Ne 20.179
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Cs 132,9064	56 Ba 137.33	La 138.33	72 Hf 178.49	73 Ta 180.9479	74 W 183.85	75 Re 186.207	76 OS 190.2	177 Ir 192.22	78 Pt 195.08	79 Au 196.9665	[∞] Hg	B1 TI 204.383	Pb 207.2	B3 Bi 208.9804	Po (209)	⁸⁵ At (210)	Rn (222)
87 Fr (223)	88 Ra (226.0254)	89 Ac (227)		68	69	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	_69	70	71
			•	Ce 140.12	Pr 140.9077	Nd 144.24	Pm (145)	50.4 Sm	Eu 151.965	Gd 157.25	Tb 158.9254	Dy 162.50	HO 164.9303	Er 167.26	Tm 168.9342	Yb 173.04	LU 174.967
				Th 232.0381	P1 Pa (231.036)	U 238.029	⁹³ Np 237.0482	P4 Pu (244.069)	86 Am (243.06)	Cm (247.070)	97 Bk (247.070)	⁹⁸ Cf (261.08)	89 Es (262.083)	100 Fm (267.096)	101 Md (258.18)	102 No (259.101)	103 Lw (260.11)

ATOMIC STRUCTURE

- Some of the following properties
 - 1) Chemical
 - 2) Electrical
 - 3) Thermal
 - 4) Optical

are determined by electronic structure

QUANTUM NUMBERS

Principle quantum number, n

- Refer to electron shell

Subsidiary quantum number, l

- Refer to subshell / orbital

The magnetic quantum number, m₁

- Refer to spatial orientation of a single atomic orbital

Electron spin quantum number, m_s

- Refer to spin directions for an electron (clockwise and counterclockwise)

ELECTRONIC STRUCTURE

- Electrons have wavelike and particulate properties.
- Two of the wavelike characteristics are
 - electrons are in orbitals defined by a probability.
 - each orbital at discrete energy level is determined by quantum numbers.

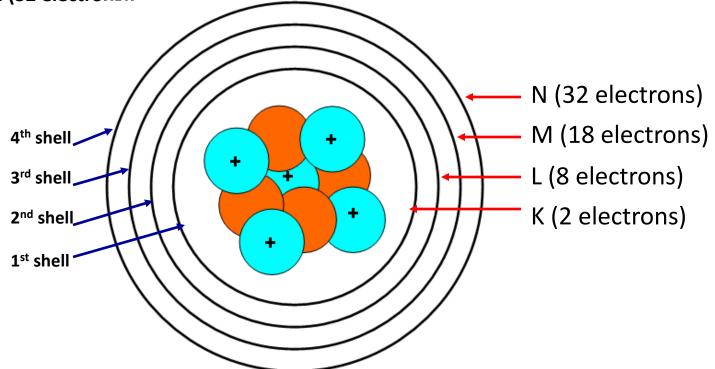
- Quantum #Designationn = principal (energy level-shell)K, L, M, N, O (1, 2, 3, etc.)I = subsidiary (orbitals)s, p, d, f (0, 1, 2, 3,..., n-1) $m_l = \text{no electron state in each}$ 1, 3, 5, 7 (-1 to +1)electron subshell $\gamma_2, -\gamma_2$ each electron $\gamma_2, -\gamma_2$

ELECTRON SHELLS

The electron cloud that surrounded the nucleus is divided into 7 shells (a.k.a energy level) – K (1st shell, closest to nucleus) followed by L, M, N, O, P, Q.



Each of the shell, hold a limited no. of electrons. E.g : K (2 electrons), L (8 electrons), M (18 electrons), N (32 electrons).



ORBITALS

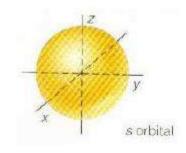
- Within each shell, the electrons occupy sub shell (energy sublevels)
 s, p, d, f, g, h, i. Each sub shell holds a different types of orbital.
- Each orbital holds a max. of 2 electrons.
- Each orbital has a characteristic energy state and characteristic shape.

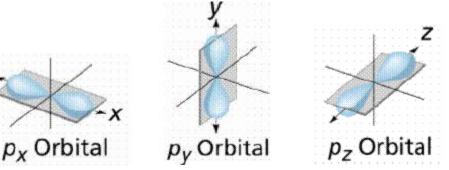
• s - orbital

–spherical shape
–Located closest to nucleus (first energy level)
–Max 2 electrons

p - orbital

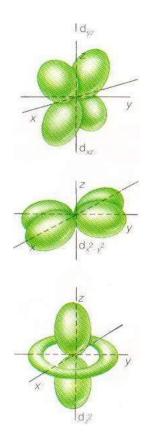
- There is 3 distinct p orbitals (px, py, pz)
- Dumbbell shape
- Second energy level
- 6 electrons





d- orbital

- There is 5 distinct d orbitals
- Max 10 electrons
- Third energy level



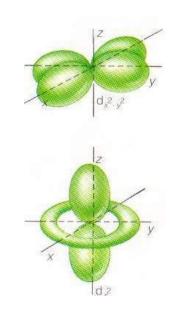


Table : The number of available electron states in some of the electrons shells and subshells.

Principal Quantum	Shell	- 50775	Number	Number of Electrons				
Number n	Designation	Subshells	of States	Per Subshell	Per Shell			
1	K	\$	1	2	2			
2	r.	\$	1	2	0			
	L	p	3	6	8			
3		\$	1	2				
	М	\boldsymbol{p}	3	6	18			
		d	5	10				
		\$	1	2				
4	N	p	3	6	22			
	IN	d	5	10	32			
		f	7	14				

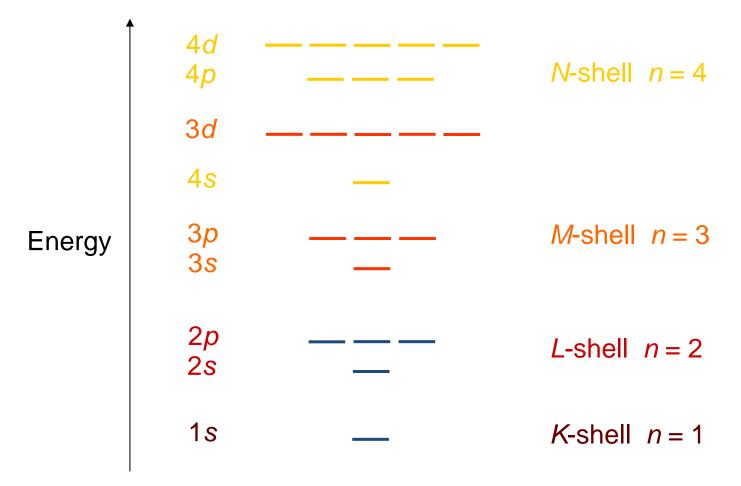
The max. no. of electrons that can occupy a specific shell can be found using the following formula:

Electron Capacity = $2n^2$

ELECTRON ENERGY STATES

Electrons...

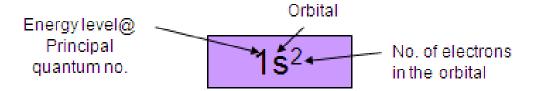
- have discrete energy states
- tend to occupy lowest available energy state.



ELECTRON CONFIGURATION

Electron configuration – the ways in which electrons are arranged around the nucleus of atoms.

• The following representation is used :



• Example: it means that there are two electrons in the 's' orbital of the first energy level. The element is helium.

ELECTRON CONFIGURATION

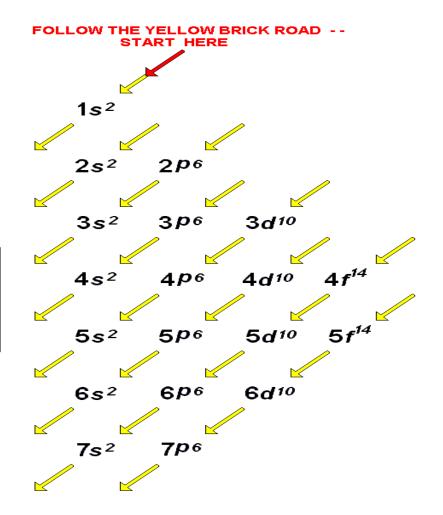
1. Aufbau principle: Electrons enter orbital of the lowest energy first.

2. Pauli exclusion principle: Each electron state can hold no more than two electrons that must have opposite spins.

Based on the Aufbau principle, which assumes that electrons enter orbital of lowest energy first.

The electrons in their orbital are represented as follows :

1s², 2s², 2p⁶, 3s², 3p⁶, 4s², 3d¹⁰, 4p⁶, 5s², 4d¹⁰, 5p⁶, 6s², 4f¹⁴, 5d¹⁰, 6p⁶, 7s², 5f¹⁴, 6d¹⁰, 7p⁶



ELECTRON CONFIGURATION

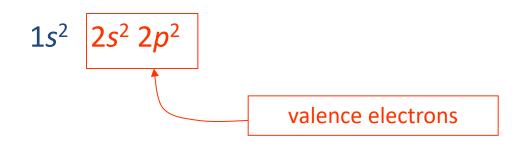
• Most elements: Electron configuration not stable.

able)
(stable)

• Why? Valence (outer) shell usually not filled completely.

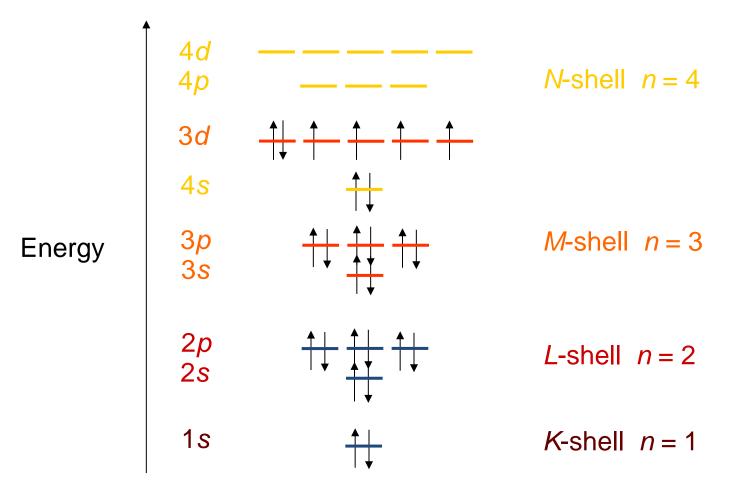
ELECTRON CONFIGURATION

- Valence electrons those in unfilled shells
- Filled shells more stable
- Valence electrons are most available for bonding and tend to control the chemical properties
 - example: C (atomic number = 6)

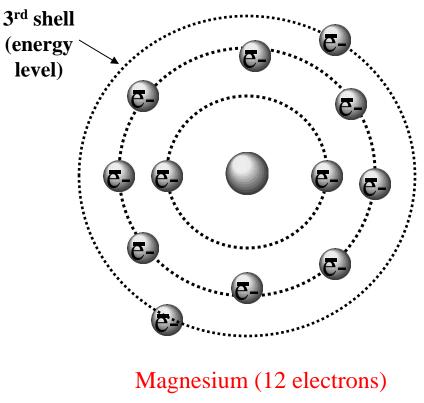


How to Write the Electron Configuration of the Element?

ex: Fe - atomic # = 26 $1s^2$ $2s^2 2p^6$ $3s^2 3p^6$ $3d^6 4s^2$



How to Write the Electron Configuration of the Element?



Answer: 1s² 2s² 2p⁶ 3s²

EXERCISE

Write the electron configuration of the following species:

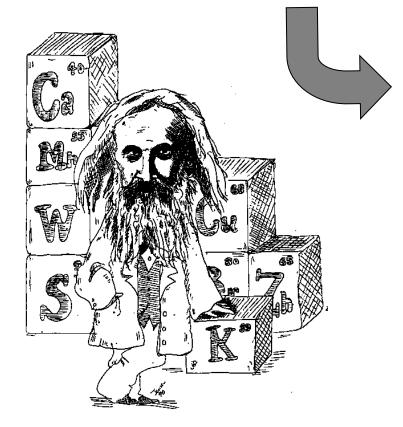
- 1.Ca (20 e)
- 2.0 (8 e)
- 3.Cu (29 e)
- 4.0²⁻ (0 = 8 e)
- 5.Fe²⁺ (Fe = 26 e)

Element	Symbol	Atomic Number	Electron Configuration
Hydrogen	Н	1	$1s^1$
Helium	He	2	$1s^2$
Lithium	Li	3	$1s^22s^1$
Beryllium	Be	4	$1s^2 2s^2$
Boron	В	5	$1s^22s^22p^1$
Carbon	С	6	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$
Nitrogen	N	7	$1s^22s^22p^3$
Oxygen	0	8	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^4$
Fluorine	F	9	$1s^22s^22p^5$
Neon	Ne	10	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$
Sodium	Na	11	$1s^22s^22p^63s^1$
Magnesium	Mg	12	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2$
Aluminum	Al	13	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ¹
Silicon	Si	14	$1s^22s^22p^63s^23p^2$
Phosphorus	Р	15	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ³
Sulfur	S	16	$1s^22s^22p^63s^23p^4$
Chlorine	CI	17	1s22s22p63s23p5
Argon	Ar	18	$1s^22s^22p^63s^23p^6$
Potassium	K	19	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ¹
Calcium	Ca	20	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 4s ²
Scandium	Sc	21	1s22s22p63s23p63d14s2
Titanium	Ti	22	1s22s22p63s23p63d24s2
Vanadium	V	23	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ³ 4s ²
Chromium	Cr	24	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ⁵ 4s ¹
Manganese	Mn	25	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ⁵ 4s ²
Iron	Fe	26	1s22s22p63s23p63d64s2
Cobalt	Со	27	1s22s22p63s23p63d74s2
Nickel	Ni	28	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ⁸ 4s ²
Copper	Cu	29	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ¹⁰ 4s ¹
Zinc	Zn	30	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ¹⁰ 4s ²
Gallium	Ga	31	1s22s22p63s23p63d104s24p
Germanium	Ge	32	1s22s22p63s23p63d104s24p
Arsenic	As	33	1s22s22p63s23p63d104s24p
Selenium	Se	34	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p
Bromine	Br	35	1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ¹⁰ 4s ² 4p
Krypton	Kr	36	1s22s22p63s23p63d104s24p

Basics of the PERIODIC TABLE

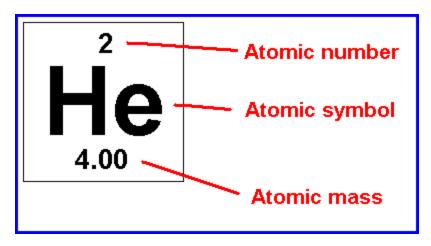
periodic: a repeating pattern

table: an organized collection of information



Periodic Table (P.T.)

An arrangement of elements in order of atomic number; elements with similar properties are in the same group. The periodic table below is a simplified representation which usually gives the :



Two main classifications in P.T.

1) period: horizontal row on the P.T.

- Designate electron energy levels
- 2) group or family: vertical column on the P.T.

Groups to know

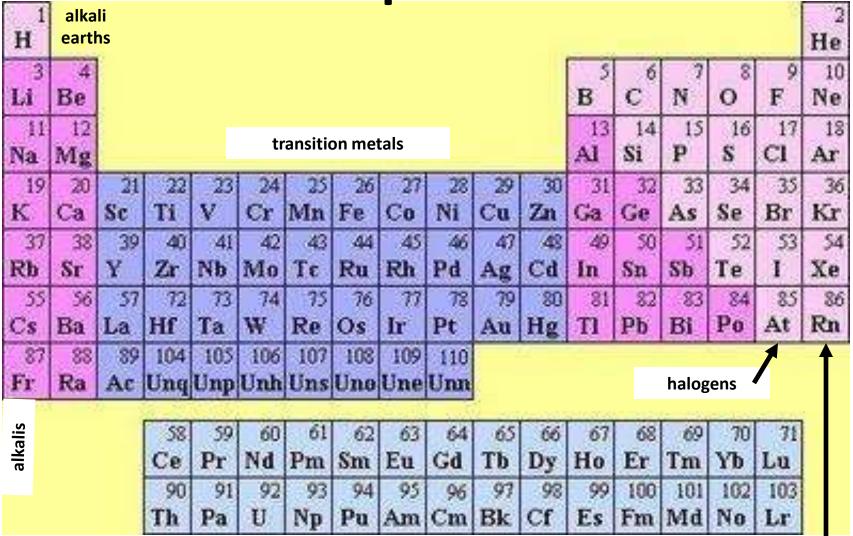


Fig. : The periodic table of the elements.

noble gases

5 Periodic Trends to Know

<u>Periodic trend</u>: property of an element that can be predicted by position on Periodic Table.

Trend #1:

Elements in the same group have similar properties because they have same number of **valence e-** (e- in outermost energy level).

H 1							He 2	
Li 2,1	Be 2,2	В 2,3	C 2,4	N 2,5	0 2,6	F 2,7	Ne 2,8	
Na 2,8,1	Mg 2,8,2	AI 2,8,3	Si 2,8,4	Р 2,8,5	S 2,8,6	CI 2,8,7	Ar 2,8,8	
K 2,8,8,1	Ca 2,8,8,2							

The number of valence eincreases as you go from left to right across a period; there is no change going down a group.

Trend #2: ATOMIC RADIUS

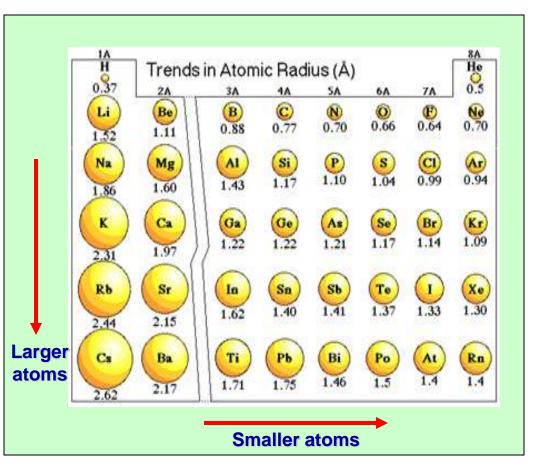
It is a distance from center of nucleus to valence e- energy level.

<u>Atoms get smaller as you go</u> <u>across (left to right) a</u> <u>period.</u>

- Caused by increasing # of protons in nucleus.
- More protons pull e- closer = smaller radius

Atoms get larger as you go down a group.

- Each new period represents a new energy level.
- More energy levels = larger radius



Trend #3: IONIZATION ENERGY (I.E.)

It is an energy required to remove one e- from a neutral atom.

Eg : Na + energy \rightarrow Na¹⁺ + e⁻

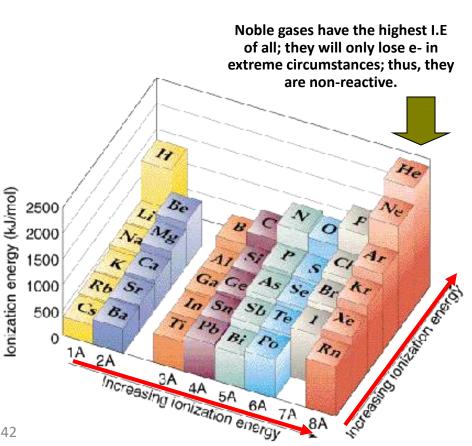
Down a group, I.E. decrease

 e- are removed <u>more easily</u> from energy levels farther from the nucleus.

Across a period, I.E. increase

e- are removed less easily from atoms which are close to have filled energy levels.

Atoms are more stable if they have filled energy levels; therefore, atoms close to filling their energy levels will not easily give up their e-.



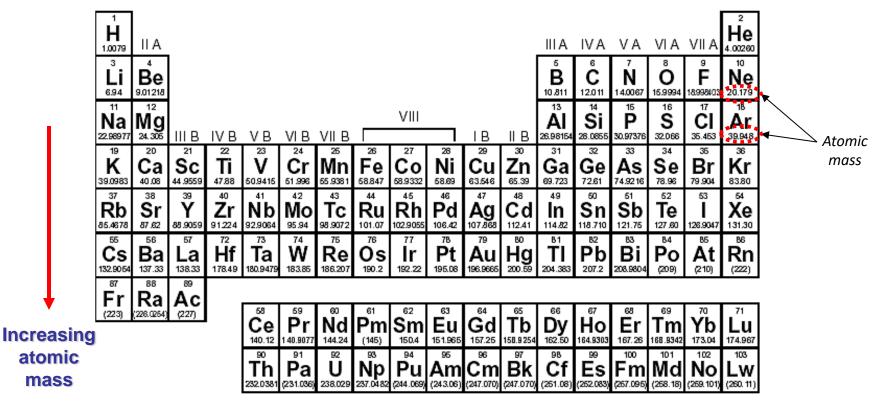
Trend #4 : ATOMIC MASS

Down a group, atomic mass increase

Protons (and e-) are added, increasing the mass.

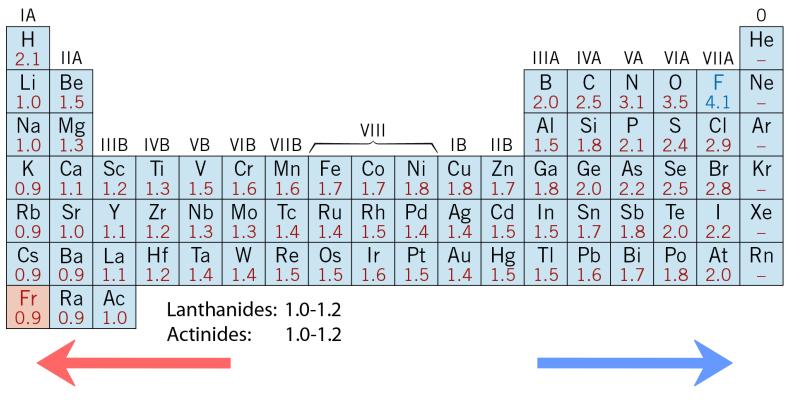
Across (left to right) a period, atomic mass increase

• The same reason.



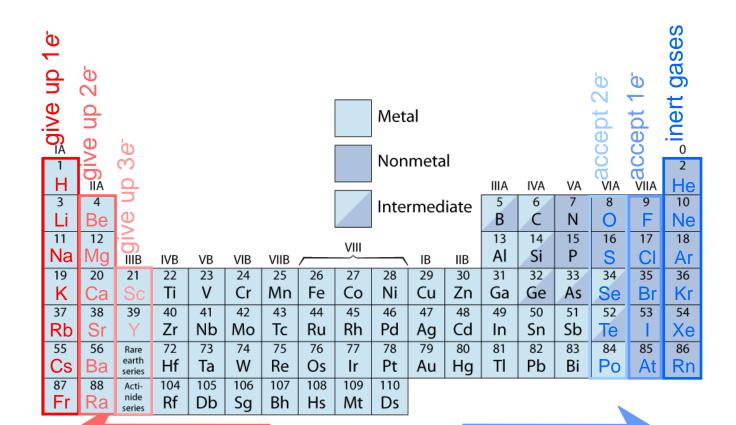
Increasing atomic mass

Trend #5 : Electronegativity (EN)



Smaller electronegativity

Larger electronegativity



Electropositive elements: Readily give up electrons to become + ions. Electronegative elements: Readily acquire electrons to become - ions.

Bonding Forces and Energies Considering the interaction between two isolated atoms as Attraction they are brought into close Force P 0 proximity from an infinite Interatomic separation r separation. Repulsion Repulsive force F_R Net force FN At larger distances, the interactions are negligible. (a) As the atoms approach, each exerts forces on the other. Repulsive energy ER Repulsion Attractive Potential energy E Repulsive Interatomic separation r 0 Ultimately, the outer electron shells of the two atoms begin to Net energy E_N Attraction E_{α} overlap, and a strong repulsive force comes into play. Attractive energy EA

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Bonding Models

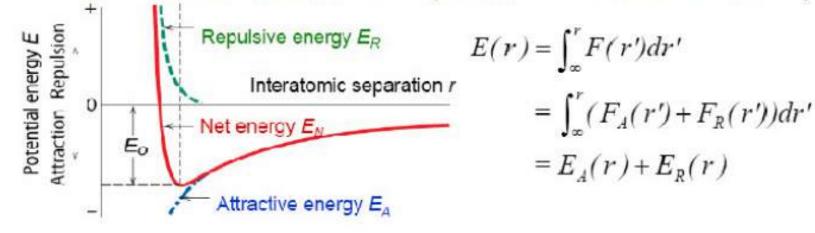
- Bonding holds atoms together to form solids materials
- In solids, atoms are held at preferred distances from each other (equilibrium distances)
- Distances larger or smaller than equilibrium distances are not preferred. Equilibrium spacing r₀ is approximately 0.3nm
- Consequently, as atomic bonds are stretched, atoms tend to attract each other, and as the bonds are compressed, atoms repel each other.
- Simple bonding models assume that the total bonding results from the sum of two forces: an attractive force (F_A) and a repulsive (F_R).

the net force
$$F_N = F_A + F_R$$

 The repulsive force dominates at small distances, and the attractive force dominates at larger distances. At equilibrium they are just equal.

Bonding Forces and Energies

- It is convenient to work with energy than forces.
- Bonding energy (also called interaction energy or potential energy) between two isolated atoms at separation r is related to the force by

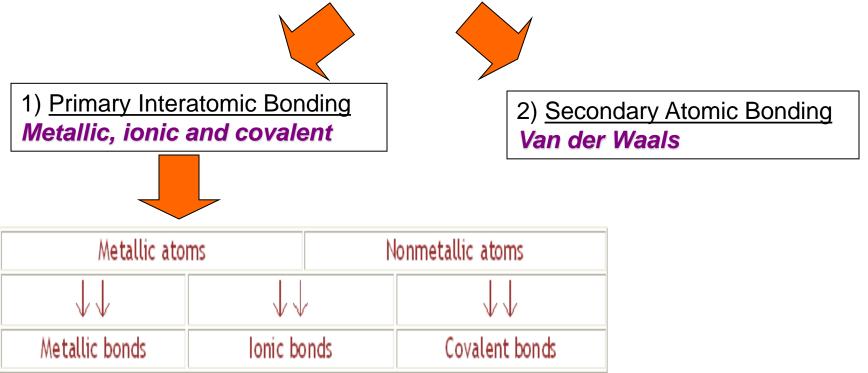


Bonding energy between two atoms

- The interaction energy at equilibrium is called the bonding energy between the two atoms.
- To break the bond, this energy must be supplied from outside.
- Breaking the bond means that the two atoms become infinitely separated.
- In real materials, containing many atoms, bonding is studied by expressing the bonding energy of the entire materials in terms of the separation distances between all atoms, see later discussion.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY ATOMIC BONDING

• The forces of attraction that hold atoms together are called chemical bonds which can be divided into 2 categories :



• Chemical reactions between elements involve either the releasing/receiving or sharing of electrons .

Bonding

Primary bonding:

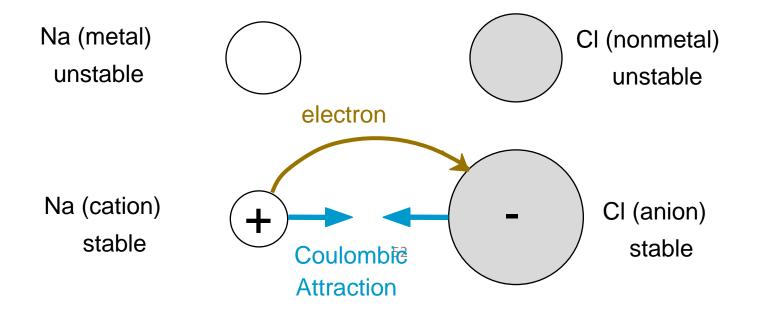
Ionic (transfer of valence electrons) Covalent (sharing of valence electrons, directional) Metallic (delocalization of valence electrons)

Secondary or van der Waals Bonding:

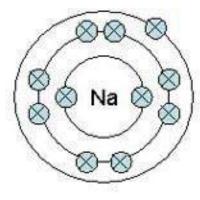
(Common, but weaker than primary bonding) Dipole-dipole H-bonds Polar molecule-induced dipole Fluctuating dipole (weakest)

PRIMARY INTERATOMIC BONDING 1) IONIC BONDING

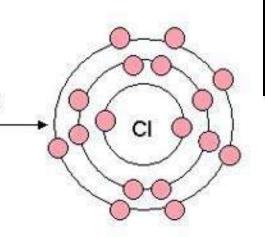
- Occurs between + and ions.
- Requires electron transfer.
- Large difference in electronegativity required.
- Example: NaCl

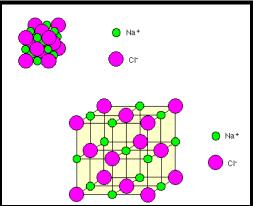


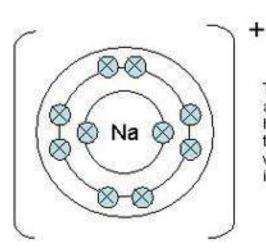
• Example: NaCl



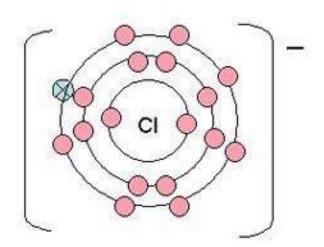
One electron is completely transferred







The electrostatic attraction is what holds the ions together. This is what we call the ionic bond.



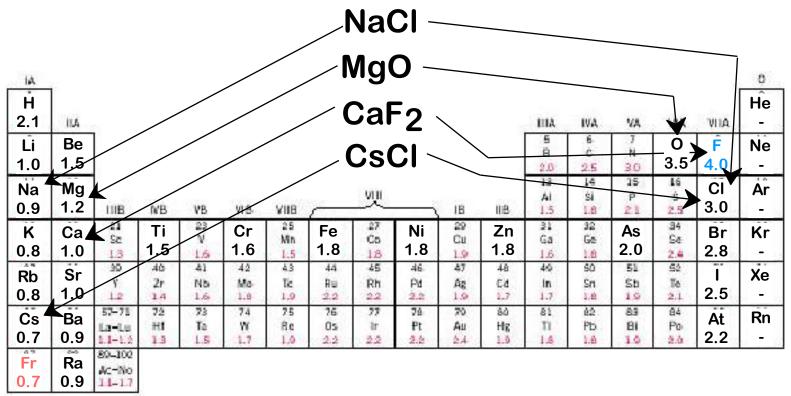
IONIC BONDING

• <u>Properties</u> :

- ✓ Solid at room temperature (made of ions)
- $\checkmark\,$ High melting and boiling points
- ✓ Hard and brittle
- $\checkmark\,$ Poor conductors of electricity in solid state
- ✓ Good conductor in solution or when molten

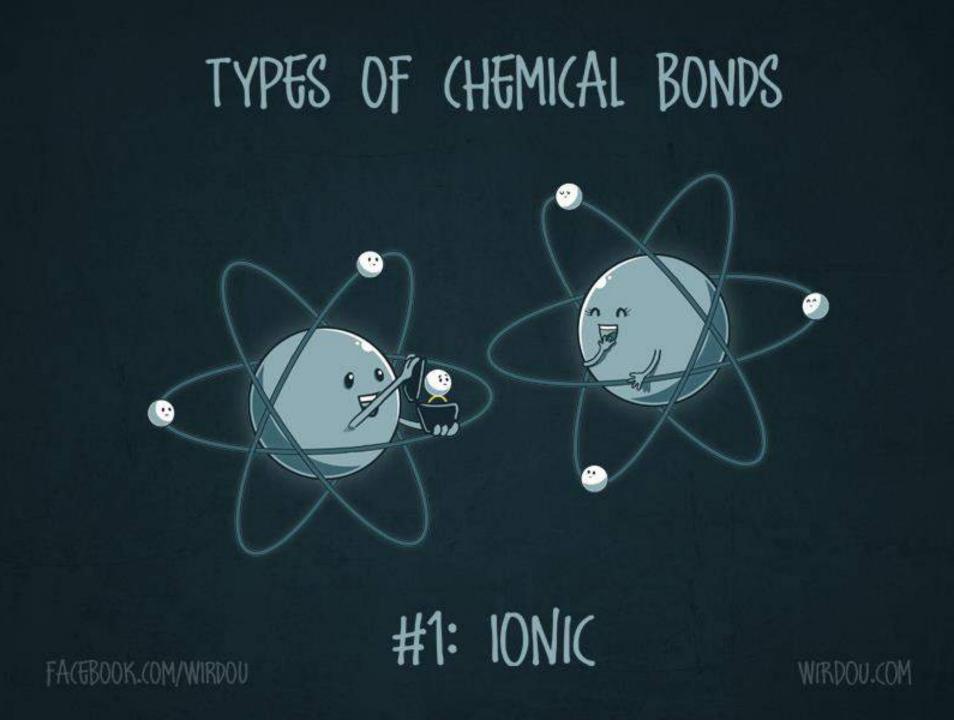
EXAMPLE : IONIC BONDING

• Predominant bonding in Ceramics







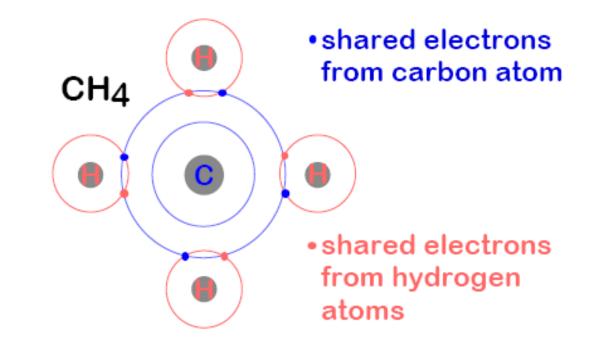


2) COVALENT BONDING

How is covalent bonding formed??

- Electrons are **shared** to form a bond.
- Most frequently occurs between atoms with similar electronegativities.
- Often found in:
 - Molecules with nonmetals (H₂, Cl₂, F₂, etc)
 - Molecules with metals and nonmetals (aluminum phosphide (AIP))
 - Elemental solids (diamond, silicon, germanium)
 - Compound solids (about column IVA) (gallium arsenide GaAs, indium antimonide InSb and silicone carbide SiC).

- Example: CH4
 - C: has 4 valence e, needs 4 more
 - H: has 1 valence e, needs 1 more
 - Electronegativities are comparable.

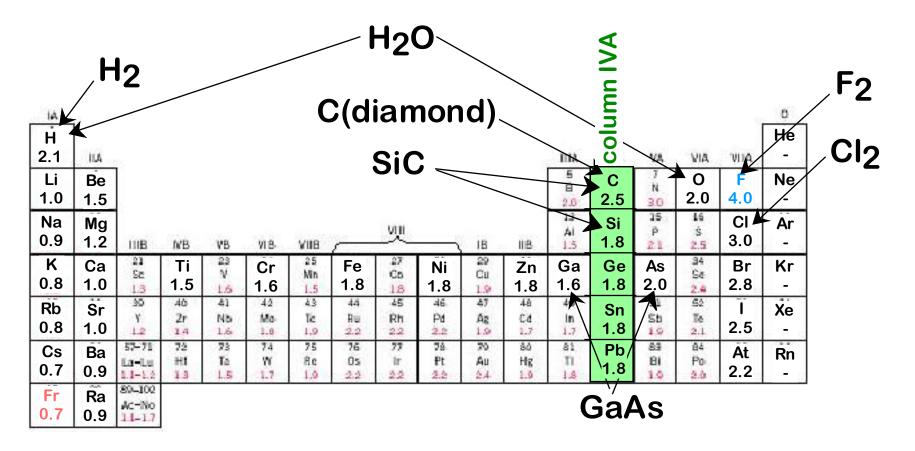


COVALENT BONDING

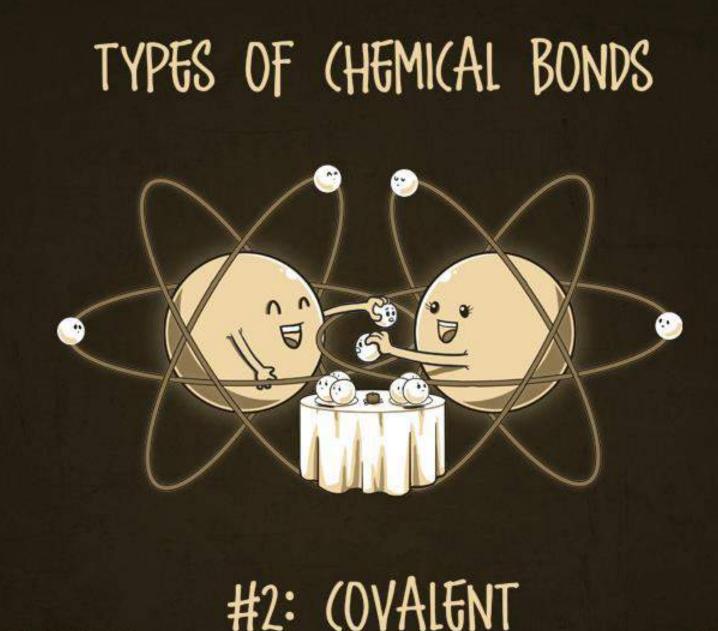
Properties

- Gases, liquids, or solids (made of molecules)
- Poor electrical conductors in all phases
- Variable (hard, strong, melting temperature, boiling point)

EXAMPLE : COVALENT BONDING



- Molecules with nonmetals
- Molecules with metals and nonmetals
- Elemental solids
- Compound solids (about column IVA)



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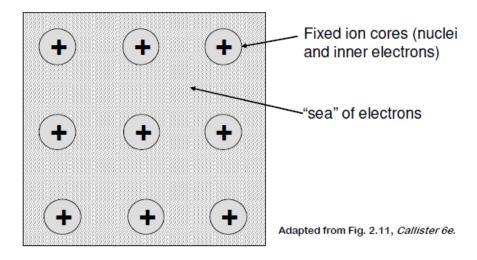


3) METALLIC BONDING

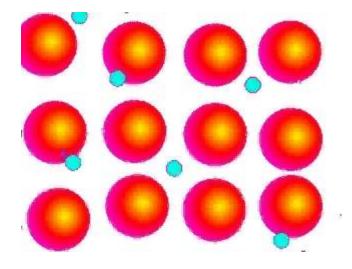
How is metallic bonding formed??

- Occur when some electrons in the valence shell separate from their atoms and exist in a cloud surrounding all the positively charged atoms.
- The valence electron form a 'sea of electron'
- Found for group IA and IIA elements
- Found for all elemental metals and its alloy

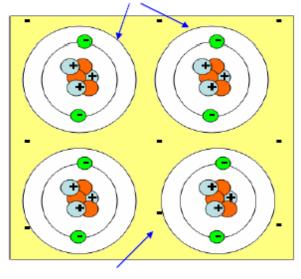
Arises from a sea of donated valence electrons



3) METALLIC BONDING



Positive charged metallic ion



Negative electron cloud

METALLIC BONDING

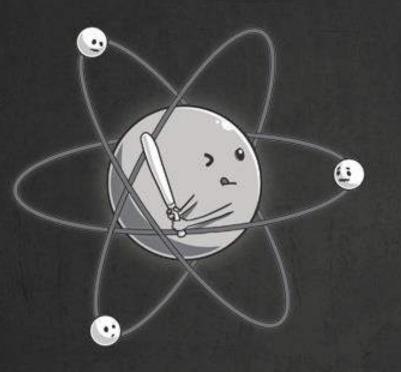
Properties:

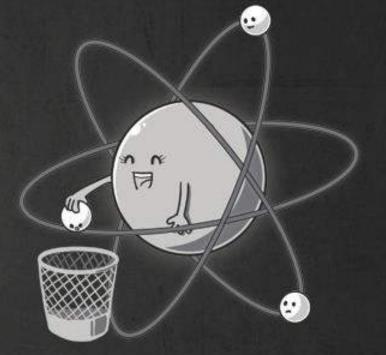
✓ Good electrical conductivity-cloud electron are free to move to conduct electricity

✓ Good heat conductivity

✓ Ductile

TYPES OF (HEMICAL BONDS





#3: METALLI(

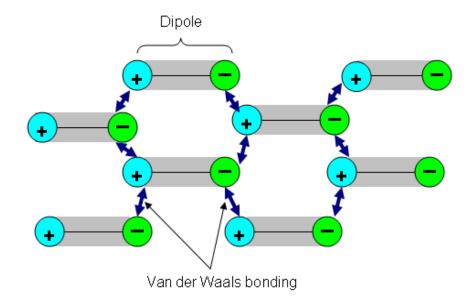
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SECONDARY INTERATOMIC BONDING

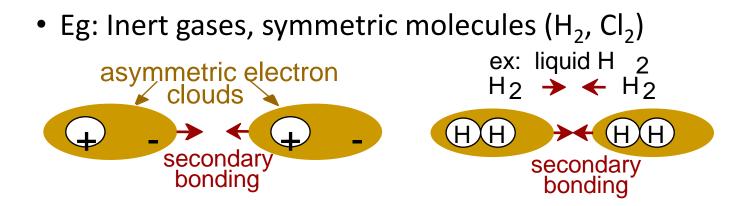
VAN DER WAALS

• Arise from atomic or molecular dipoles



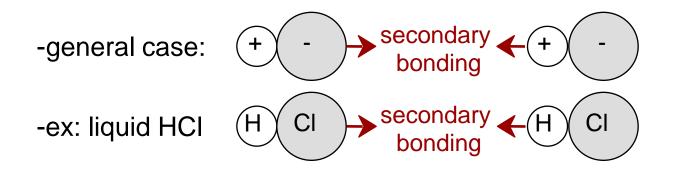
Three bonding mechanism

- Fluctuating Induced Dipole Bonds



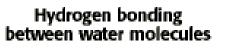
Polar molecule-Induced Dipole Bonds

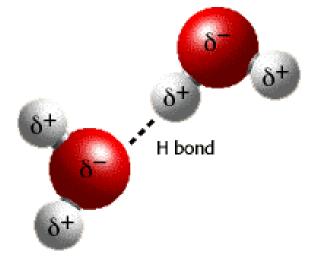
• Asymmetrical molecules such as HCl, HF



- Permanent Dipole Bonds

- Hydrogen bonding
- Between molecules
- H-F, H-O, H-N





Summary of BONDING

Туре	Bond energy	Melting point	Hardness	Conductivity	Comments
ionic bonding	Large (150– 370kcal/mol	Very high	Hard and brittle	Poor -required moving ion	Nondirectional (ceramic)
Covalent bonding	Variable(75– 300 kcal/mol Large – Diamond Small – Bismuth	Variable Highest – diamond (>3550) Mercury (-39)	Very hard (diamond)	poor	Directional (Semiconductors, ceramic, polymer chains)
metallic bonding	Variable(25– 200 kcal/mol) Large– Tungsten Small– Mercury	Low to high	Soft to hard	excellent	Nondirectional (metal)
Secondary bonding	Smallest	Low to moderate	Fairly soft	poor	Directional inter-chain (polymer) inter-molecular

Directional bonaing – Strength of bona is <u>not</u>equal in all alrections

* Nondirectional bonding – Strength of bond is equal in all directions

LEARNING OBJECTIVE

You should be able:

- Describe an atomic structure
- Sonfigure electron configuration
- Differentiate between each atomic bonding
- Sriefly describe ionic, covalent, metallic, hydrogen and van der waals bonds
- Relate the atomic bonding with material properties