

Periodic Table

In the 1860's several scientist realized that by listing the known elements in order of increasing atomic weights, similar elements with similar properties (i.e., melting points, boiling points, density, and chemical activity) appeared at fairly regular intervals.

Dimitri Mendeleev was one of the first to **publish** a table using these properties to arrange the elements. He also placed **similar elements in the same vertical column**. He **left open spaces on his chart** for elements he predicted would someday be found but had not been discovered at that time.

He developed the idea of the **Periodic Law**: "When elements are arranged in order of increasing atomic weight their properties are repeated periodically." This idea of repetition of properties is one of the most important milestones in chemistry.

Today we know that **atomic number** is a better guide to correlating properties. Mendeleev had suspected atomic weights were not the best criteria to use. These early researchers did not know about protons and neutrons and isotopes.

Groups and Periods on the Periodic Table

Group 1 – **Alkali metals**

- are very good conductors of heat and electricity, are solid at room temperatures, are so soft they can be cut with a knife, have low densities and low melting points
- most chemically active of the metals (must be stored under oil as they will react with air, give up one electron to reach a noble gas configuration, are often identified with a flame test)
- are used to produce chemicals, metals, soap, glass, ceramics, petroleum products

Group 2 – **Alkaline Earth metals** - are very chemically reactive (give up 2 electrons during reactions) and are never found free in nature (same as alkali metals)

Group 17 – **Halogen family** - named from "salt former", these elements exhibit all 3 physical states at room temp.

Group 18 - **Noble gases** - all are gases which are naturally occurring

Transition metals - have properties of metals (ductile, malleable, good conductors of heat and electricity)

Lanthanides - many form alloys with magnetic properties

Actinides - all are radioactive

METALS

NONMETALS

Good conductors of heat and electricity.....poor conductors of heat and electricity

Shiny in appearance (have luster).....dull in appearance (lack luster-exceptions:
iodine and carbon are crystalline and have sheen)

Malleable and ductile.....shatter or crumble when struck

High tensile strength.....cannot withstand stress

High melting and boiling points.....low melting and boiling points

High densities.....low densities

Sonorous (give a note when struck such as the
sound of a blacksmith hammering iron).....not sonorous

All solids except Hg.....exist in all three physical states

Extension notes:

- a) in chemical reactions, metal atoms tend to donate electrons to nonmetals that accept them (nonmetals can also share electrons with other nonmetals)
- b) metalloids act as electron donors with nonmetals and act as electron acceptors with metals – are solid at room temperatures, are brittle, and are poor conductors of heat and electricity
- c) hydrogen is sometimes found in groups 1 and 17 because it can sometimes donate electrons and sometimes accept them. Due to its physical characteristics and the type compounds it forms it is usually classed as a nonmetal.

Trends on the Periodic Table

⇒ **atom's size decreases from left to right in a given period**

Atoms get smaller as you go from left to right in a period. The electron cloud is pulled inward due to an increase in the nuclear charge (the attractive force of the positively charged nucleus for the negatively charged electron cloud.) The more protons, the stronger the nuclear charge.

As you go left to right the added electrons only fill up a shell that already exist and are thus does not the size of the atom.

⇒ **atom's size increases from top to bottom in groups**

As you go down a group new main shells are added each period with each new main shells larger than the one it surrounds.

Outer shell electrons are shielded from the nuclear charge by interior shells. This **shielding effect** results in a larger cloud.

⇒ **as you go down a group the tendency to lose electrons increases**

The larger atoms (at bottom of group) have electrons so far from the nucleus (added main shells and shielding effects) that these electrons are more easily ionized. The nuclear charge holding them is weak.

⇒ **ionization energies increase across periods and decrease down groups**

The first ionization energy is the amount of energy needed to remove the most loosely held electron (and thus forming a positive ion). Metals have low ionization energies and readily form positive ions. Nonmetals (due to small size, stronger nuclear charge, and many electrons in outer shells) have large ionization energies.

⇒ **electronegativity increases from left to right in a period and decreases from top to bottom**

Electronegativity is a number showing the ability an atom has to attract electrons (usually shared pairs of electrons) to itself when bound with another atom.

The most active metals (lower left on chart) have lowest electronegativities (they tend to lose electrons). Atoms of high electronegativity (upper right nonmetals) tend to gain electrons.

⇒ **negative ions are larger than their atoms and positive ions are smaller than their atoms**

Nonmetals gain one or more electrons to fill out their outer shell. The cloud tends to swell outward as the nuclear charge holding each electron is now less. Negative ions are larger.

Positive ions (formed usually from metals) grow smaller as they lose their outer shell of electrons. The effective nuclear charge is now stronger on the remaining electrons and they are pulled inward.

Oxidation States

Chemists have found that certain elements are more stable, or less reactive than others. These stable atoms have their outermost shell (s and p subshell) filled to capacity with 8 electrons (2 electrons for hydrogen and helium). Noble gases show little tendency to form compounds as they already have a filled outer shell.

When 2 or more atoms combine, each atom tends to get a complete outermost shell holding 8 electrons. This outermost s and p shell is called the valence shell. The **Octet Rule or Rule of 8** maintains that atoms try to fill this outer valence shell by losing, gaining, or sharing electrons during reactions.

The oxidation state is used to help identify how many electrons will be transferred or shared. A positive oxidation state indicates that the atom will lose electrons. A negative oxidation state indicates that the atom will gain or share electrons.

Chemical Reactivity

General rules:

- a) metal atoms tend to transfer electrons to nonmetals when they react.
- b) nonmetal atoms tend to gain or share electrons when they react.
- c) to determine which metal or nonmetal is more reactive, compare elements within groups or periods (for diagonal predictions use Reactivity Series)

Chemical Reactivity in a given period:

⇒ For metals in a given period reactivity is determined by the number of electrons that must be transferred to a nonmetal. Those metals with only 1 outer shell electron will be more reactive than metals with two or more electrons. It takes less energy to remove one electron (lower first ionization energy).

⇒ For nonmetals in a given period the greater the number of electrons already in the outer shell the more reactive that element will be. If a nonmetal has seven outer shell electrons it will only need to gain 1 electron to reach its octet. This nonmetal will be more reactive than a nonmetal that must gain two or more electrons.

Summary: In the same period, it is the number of electrons that chiefly determines reactivity. The smaller the number of electrons transferred between reacting atoms, the more vigorous the reaction.

Chemical Reactivity in a given group:

⇒ We already know that the negatively charged electrons are held in orbit by their attraction to the positively charged nucleus. This force of attraction decreases considerably as the distance from the nucleus increases. Therefore, electrons that are more distant from the nucleus are held less tightly and are more easily lost than are electrons closer to the nucleus.

⇒ Since the more distant electrons are more easily lost, metals having distant electrons (at the bottom of the group) react readily with other nonmetallic elements.

⇒ Nonmetals combine chemically by gaining or sharing electrons (from metals or other nonmetallic elements). Since the attraction for electrons is greater when the atomic radius is small, the closer the outermost orbit (called the valence shell) is to the nucleus of a nonmetal, the more reactive it is. A small radius means that the nucleus pulls strongly on any electrons near it and strongly desires to fill its outer shell (Octet rule). The more reactive nonmetals will be found near the top of the group.

Summary: In the same group, elements have the same number of outer shell electrons and it is the atomic radius which largely determines reactivity. The larger metals lose outer shell electrons more easily and smaller nonmetals (whose attraction for electrons by the nucleus is greater) are more likely to take electrons away from other metals (or share with other nonmetals).

The Reactivity Series

By studying replacement reactions we can arrange the metals in decreasing order of reactivity. The reactivity series list the different metals (and hydrogen) in order of their decreasing tendency to lose electrons in water solutions at specified temperatures. Hydrogen is on the list because it behaves as though it were a metal in certain reactions. Metals found above hydrogen will replace hydrogen in acid solutions, while those below will not.

As we know the tendency of metals to lose electrons depends chiefly on the nuclear charge and on the atomic radius of the metal atom. The reactivity series may be used to make reasonable predictions concerning the reactivity of different metals. According to the table, for example, aluminum will replace mercury in an aqueous solution of a mercury compound. Silver will not replace tin.

Li K Ba Sr Ca Na Mg Al Mn Zn Cr Fe Cd Co Ni Sn Pb *H Sb As Bi Cu Ag Pd Hg Pt Au

Most Reactive -----> Least Reactive

Alkali Metals

| Common Name | Chemical Name | Formula | Source |
|-------------------|---------------------|--|-------------------------------------|
| baking soda | sodium bicarbonate | NaHCO_3 | ammonia, sodium chloride, limestone |
| borax | sodium tetraborate | $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$ | mineral deposits |
| caustic potash | potassium hydroxide | KOH | electrolysis of KCl |
| Glauber's salt | sodium sulfate | $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$ | mineral deposits |
| lye | sodium hydroxide | NaOH | electrolysis of NaCl |
| muriate of potash | potassium chloride | KCl | mineral deposits |
| table salt | sodium chloride | NaCl | mineral deposits, brine, salt lakes |

Alkaline Earth Metals

| Common Name | Chemical Name | Formula | Source | Uses |
|--------------------------|-------------------|---|--------------------------------------|---|
| barite | barium sulfate | BaSO_4 | mineral deposits | paint pigments, X-Ray diagnosis |
| Epsom salts | magnesium sulfate | $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ | mineral deposits | making dyes, laxative |
| gypsum | calcium sulfate | $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ | mineral deposits | making plaster of Paris and mortar |
| lime or quicklime | calcium oxide | CaO | breakdown of limestone in kiln | smelting metals, drying agent |
| limestone or marble | calcium carbonate | CaCO_3 | deposits of shells of marine animals | building material, smelting metals |
| magnesia | magnesium oxide | MgO | decomposition of magnesium carbonate | lining furnaces, making rubber and paint |
| slaked lime or limewater | calcium hydroxide | Ca(OH)_2 | adding water to lime | making mortar and bleaching powder, alkalizing soil |

Transition Metals

| Metal | Symbol | Source | Uses |
|-----------|--------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| chromium | Cr | chromite, FeCrO_4 | stainless steel, nichrome, plating |
| cobalt | Co | cobaltite, CoAsS | alnico magnets |
| copper | Cu | chalcopyrite, CuFeS_2 | electric wires, water pipes, coins |
| gold | Au | elemental state | computer chips, jewelry, plating |
| iron | Fe | hematite, Fe_2O_3 | steels, cast iron |
| manganese | Mn | pyrolusite, MnO_2 | manganese steel, alloys |
| nickel | Ni | pentlandite, NiS | alnico magnets, steel, catalyst |
| platinum | Pt | elemental state | surgical tools, catalyst, jewelry |
| silver | Ag | argentite, Ag_2S | mirrors, coins, tableware, jewelry |
| titanium | Ti | rutile, TiO_2 | aircraft, spacecraft, missiles |
| tungsten | W | wolframite FeWO_4 | tungsten steel, light bulb filaments |

Halogens

| Halogen | Compounds | Properties | Uses |
|----------|--|--|--|
| Fluorine | fluorides | protect teeth against decay | drinking water and toothpaste |
| | Teflon (fluorocarbon) | heat-resistant plastic | non-stick pans and electrical insulation |
| | Freon (fluorocarbon) | easily liquefied gas with high heat of vaporization | refrigerant |
| Chlorine | hypochlorous acid and hypochlorites | powerful oxidizing agent, germicide, bleaching agent | purify water for drinking, pools, sewage treatment, bleaching industry, household bleaches and disinfectants |
| | polyvinyl chloride (PVC) | tough plastic | covering for furniture and floors |
| Bromine | silver bromide | light sensitive | photographic film, plates, paper |
| | bromides of sodium and potassium | sedative | headache powders |
| Iodine | silver iodide, iodides of sodium and potassium | light sensitive, prevent goiter | photography, make 'iodized' table salt |

