Pabna University of Science and Technology



Faculty of Engineering and Technology Department of Information and Communication Engineering

Assignment

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1. Defects of Rutherford's Model of Atom and Bohr's Improvements

Defects of Rutherford's Model:

- Atomic Collapse Problem:
 - According to classical electromagnetic theory, a moving electron should emit radiation, lose energy, and spiral into the nucleus, making the atom unstable. But atoms are stable.
- No Explanation for Line Spectra:
 Rutherford's model could not explain why atoms emitted light at specific wavelengths, seen as discrete lines in an atomic emission spectrum (like hydrogen's Balmer series).
- Lack of Quantization:

 The model did not incorporate any idea of quantized energy levels.

Bohr's Modifications:

- Stable Orbits:
 - Electrons revolve around the nucleus in stable orbits called "stationary states" without radiating energy.
- Quantized Energy Levels:
 - Each orbit has a definite, fixed energy level. Electrons can only exist in these allowed orbits.
- Emission/Absorption of Radiation: Energy is absorbed or emitted when an electron jumps from one orbit to another, explaining discrete spectral lines.
- Formula Introduced:
 - Bohr introduced formulas linking energy levels and emission frequencies using Planck's quantum theory.

2. Quantum Numbers and Their Importance

Definition:

Quantum numbers specify the properties and behavior of atomic orbitals and the electrons inside them.

The Four Quantum Numbers:

Quantum Number	Symbo	l What it Represents	Allowed Values	Example
Principal	n	Energy level, size	1, 2, 3, 4	n=1 for 1st shell
Azimuthal	1	Shape of orbital	0 to (n-1)	l=0 (s), 1 (p), 2 (d)
Magnetic	m	Orientation	-1 to +1	For l=1: m=- 1,0,+1
Spin	S	Electron spin direction	$+\frac{1}{2}$ or $-\frac{1}{2}$	

Significance:

- Defines the energy, shape, orientation, and spin of an electron.
- No two electrons in the same atom can have identical values of all four quantum numbers (Pauli's Exclusion Principle).

3. Comparison Between Ionic and Covalent Compounds

Properties of Ionic Compounds:

- Formed by transfer of electrons from metal to non-metal.
- Strong electrostatic force between oppositely charged ions.
- High melting and boiling points.
- Conduct electricity in molten or aqueous state.
- Generally soluble in water but insoluble in organic solvents.

Examples:

Sodium chloride (NaCl), Calcium chloride (CaCl₂)

Properties of Covalent Compounds:

- Formed by sharing of electrons between non-metal atoms.
- Weak intermolecular forces (except network solids like diamond).
- Low melting and boiling points (except for giant molecules like SiO₂).
- Poor conductors of electricity.
- Soluble in organic solvents, insoluble in water (mostly).

Examples:

Methane (CH₄), Carbon dioxide (CO₂)

4. Coordinate Covalent Bond

Definition:

A type of covalent bond where both electrons shared in the bond originate from the same atom.

How Different from a Normal Covalent Bond:

- Normal Covalent Bond: Each atom contributes one electron.
- Coordinate Covalent Bond: One atom donates both electrons.

Example:

In ammonium ion (NH₄⁺), nitrogen donates a lone pair to a proton (H⁺). Diagram:

```
yaml
CopyEdit
H
H
H
H
H
H
H
(Arrow shows coordinate bond.)
```

5. Hydrogen Bonding and Water's High Boiling Point Definition:

Attractive force between a hydrogen atom covalently bonded to a highly electronegative atom (N, O, or F) and another electronegative atom.

Types of Hydrogen Bonding:

- Intermolecular Hydrogen Bonding: e.g., H₂O molecules bonding with each other.
- Intramolecular Hydrogen Bonding: e.g., o-nitrophenol, hydrogen bonding within a single molecule.

Why Water Has a High Boiling Point:

- Extensive hydrogen bonding between water molecules requires significant energy to break.
- This strong intermolecular force leads to a much higher boiling point compared to other similar-sized molecules like H₂S.

6. Bond Angles of H₂O and NH₃ and Explanation

Bond Angles:

- H₂O (Water): 104.5°
 NH₃ (Ammonia): 107°
- Why They Differ:
 - Both oxygen and nitrogen atoms are sp³ hybridized.
 - In water (H₂O):
 - o Oxygen has two lone pairs.
 - Lone pair-lone pair > lone pair-bond pair > bond pair-bond pair repulsions.
 - o This causes compression of bond angle to 104.5°.
 - In ammonia (NH₃):
 - Nitrogen has only one lone pair, so the bond angle remains larger at 107°.

Diagram:

- H₂O: Bent shape.
- NH₃: Trigonal pyramidal shape.

7. Ionization Potential of an Element

Definition:

The minimum amount of energy required to remove an electron from a gaseous atom or ion.

First vs Second Ionization Potential:

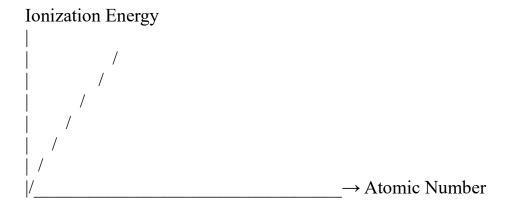
- First Ionization Potential: Energy to remove the first electron.
- Second Ionization Potential: Higher, because removing an electron from a positively charged ion is more difficult due to stronger nuclear attraction.

Variation with Atomic Volume:

- Down a Group:
 - Atomic radius increases.
 - Valence electrons are farther from the nucleus.
 - o Ionization energy decreases.
- Across a Period:
 - o Nuclear charge increases.
 - Atomic radius decreases.

o Ionization energy increases.

Graph:



8. f-Block Elements and Inner Transition Elements

Definition of f-Block Elements:

- Elements where the last electron enters an f-orbital.
- Include Lanthanides (58-71) and Actinides (90-103).

Characteristics:

- Show variable oxidation states.
- Have high melting and boiling points.
- Most lanthanides are silvery-white metals.
- Actinides are mostly radioactive.

Why Called Inner Transition Elements:

- They involve the filling of (n-2)f orbitals.
- Transition occurs in the inner orbitals, not the outermost ones, differentiating them from d-block transition metals.

Examples:

- Lanthanides: Cerium (Ce), Neodymium (Nd)Actinides: Uranium (U), Thorium (Th)