



# Materials Science and Engineering I

## Ch. 2 Atomic structure and bonding

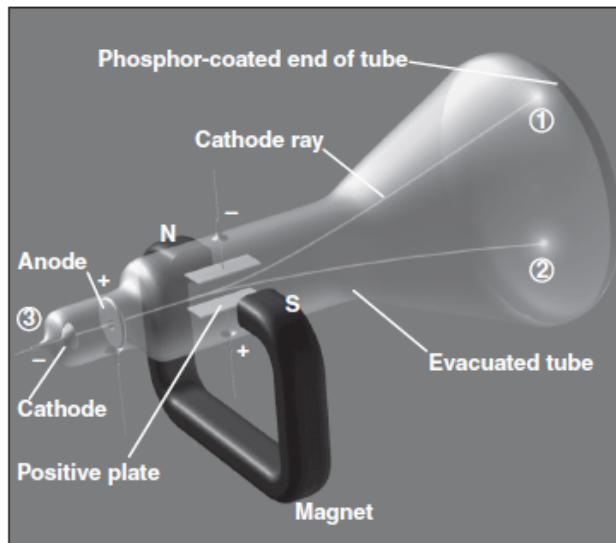
Smith and Hashemi, "Foundations of Materials Science and Engineering",  
6th Ed., McGraw-Hill 2019



## Outline

- Atomic structure
  - Atom and subatomic particles
  - Atomic models
  - Energy states
  - Trends of atomic size, ionization energy and electron affinity in the periodic table
- Chemical bonding
  - Primary bonds
  - Secondary bonds

## Cathode ray tube



Atoms must be made up of smaller constituents or subatomic particles

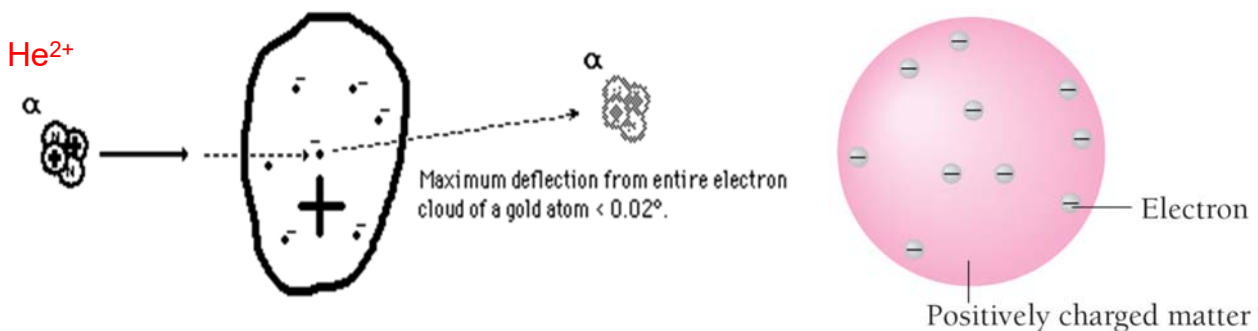
**Figure 2.1**

A cathode ray tube, consisting of a glass tube, cathode, anode, deflecting plates, and a fluorescence screen.

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## Thomson atomic model (1897)

➤ An atom was a positively charged blob with sprinkled negatively charged electrons in it. — **"raisin pudding"** model

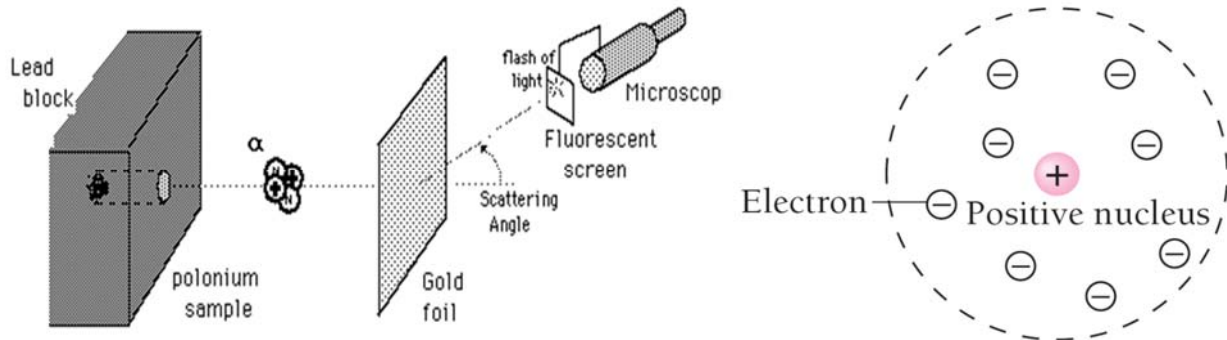


The conservation of momentum and energy for an elastic collision dictate that the angle must be less than 90 degrees if the projectile is more massive than the target.

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## Rutherford atomic model (1910-1911)

$\alpha$ -particles from a radioactive source were directed to strike a thin gold foil.  $\alpha$ -particles produce a tiny, but visible flash of light when they strike a fluorescent screen. Surprisingly,  $\alpha$ -particles were found at large deflection angles and some were even found to be back-scattered.



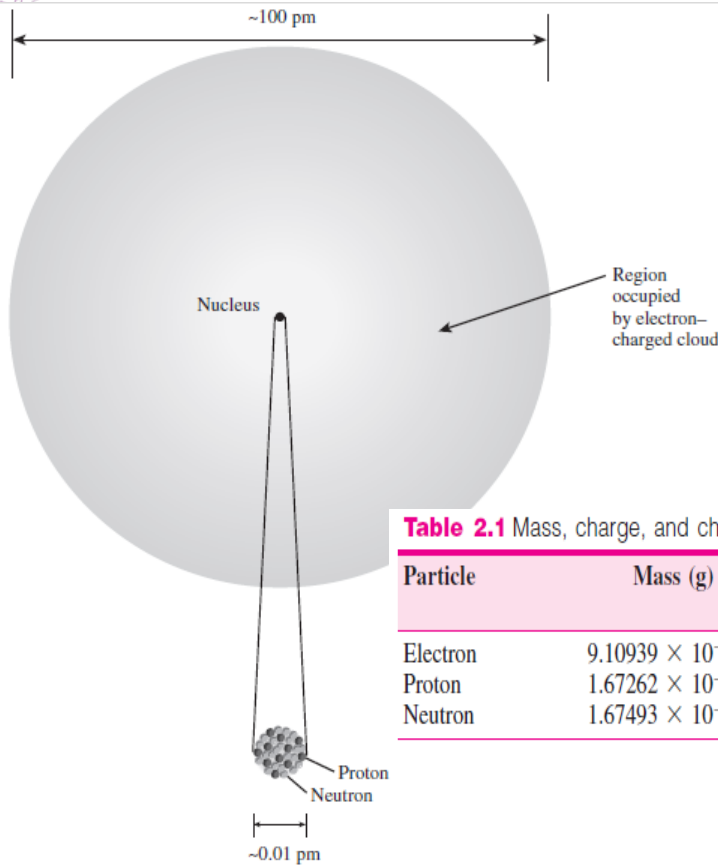
The positive matter in atoms was concentrated in a very small volume - **nuclei**.

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## Rutherford's Experiment

Rutherford Experiment:  
Nuclear Atom

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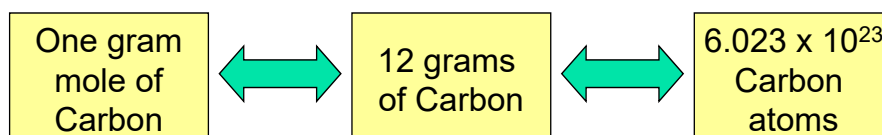
**Table 2.1** Mass, charge, and charge unit of protons, neutrons, and electrons

Particle	Mass (g)	Charge	
		Coulomb (C)	Charge unit
Electron	$9.10939 \times 10^{-28}$	$-1.06022 \times 10^{-19}$	-1
Proton	$1.67262 \times 10^{-24}$	$+1.06022 \times 10^{-19}$	+1
Neutron	$1.67493 \times 10^{-24}$	0	0

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## Atomic Number and Atomic Mass

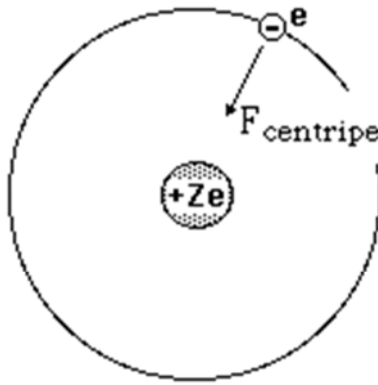
- **Atomic Number** = Number of Protons in the nucleus
- **Unique to an element**
  - Example : Hydrogen = 1, Uranium = 92
- **Relative atomic mass** = Mass in grams of  $6.023 \times 10^{23}$  (Avogadro Number) Atoms.
  - Example : Carbon has 6 Protons and 6 Neutrons. Atomic Mass = 12.
- **One atomic mass unit (amu) is 1/12<sup>th</sup> of mass of carbon atom.**
- **One gram mole = Gram atomic mass of an element.**
  - Example :



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## Classical electron orbital theory



The orbit energy is negative because this is a bound state.

Newton's Second Law

$$F_{\text{centripetal}} = \frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

Kinetic Energy  $T$

$$\text{so } T = \frac{mv^2}{2} = \frac{Ze^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

Potential Energy

$$U = \frac{-Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

Total Energy

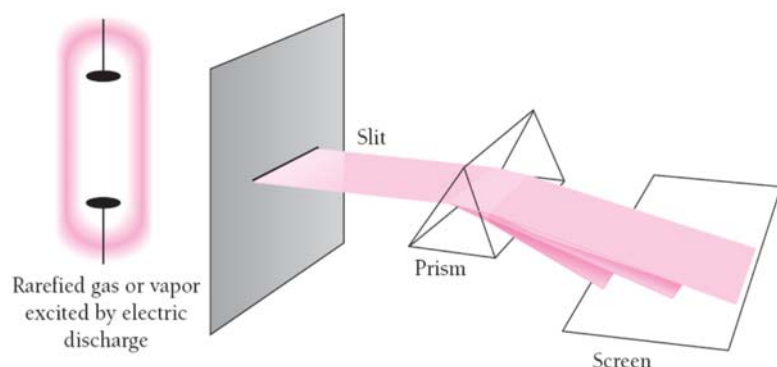
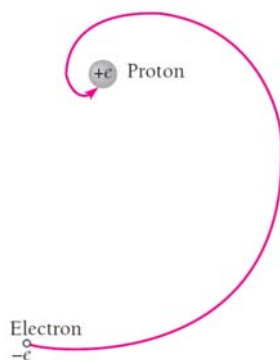
$$T + U = \frac{-Ze^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

This is the energy of a single electron in orbit around a bare nucleus

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## Failure of classical electron orbital theory

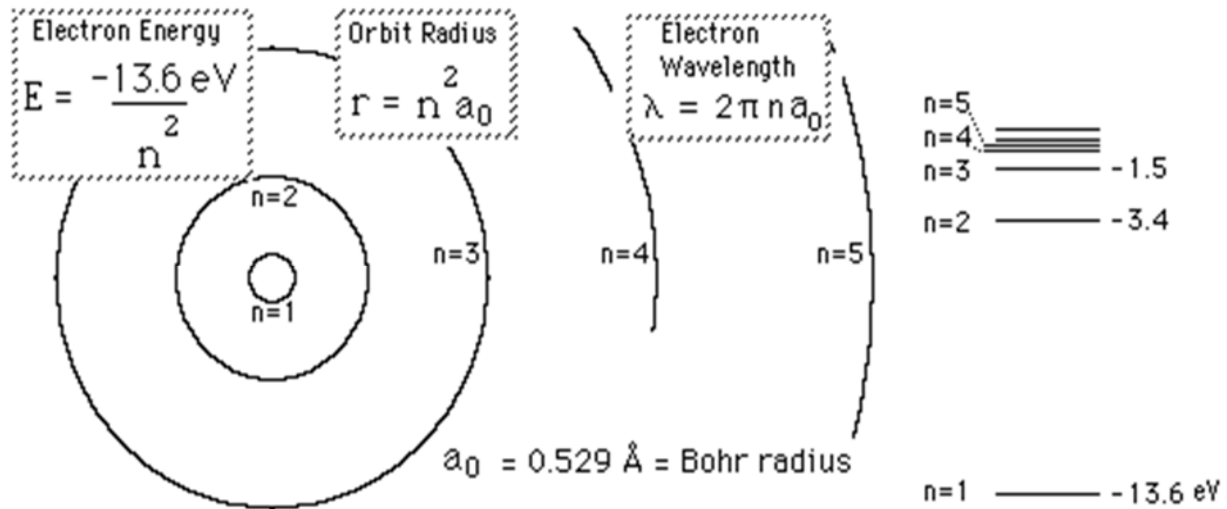
- Electrons circulating around the nucleus will emit EM wave and lose its energy. They will spiral into the nucleus and crash into the nucleus in a fraction of a second.
- The atomic spectra can not be explained by classical electron orbital theory either.



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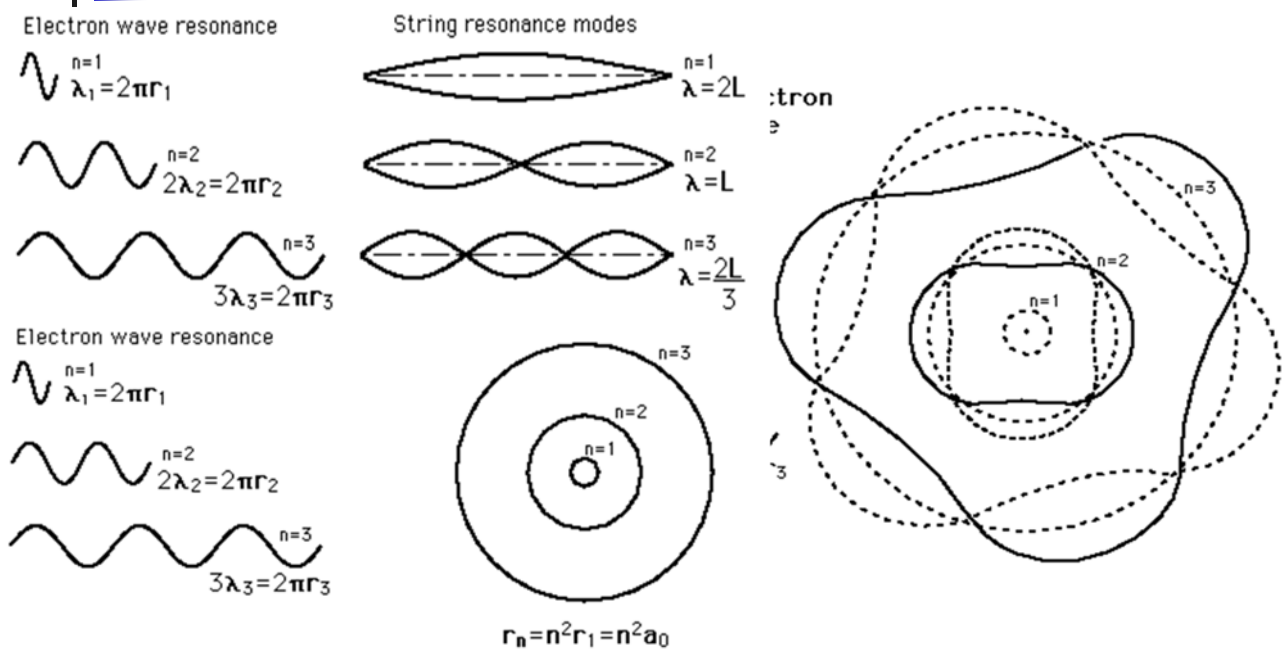


## Bohr atomic model



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## Bohr atomic model- resonance



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# Energy in Hydrogen Atom

- Hydrogen atom has one proton and one electron
- Energy of hydrogen atoms for different energy levels is given by  $E = -\frac{13.6}{n^2} \text{ eV}$  ( $n=1,2,\dots$ ) **principal quantum numbers**

- Example:** If an electron undergoes transition from  $n=3$  state to  $n=2$  state, the energy of photon emitted is

$$\Delta E = -\frac{13.6}{3^2} - \frac{13.6}{2^2} = 1.89 \text{ eV} = 3.02 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

- Energy required to completely remove an electron from hydrogen atom is known as **ionization energy**

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A hydrogen atom exists with its electron in the  $n = 3$  state. The electron undergoes a transition to  $n = 2$  state. Calculate (a) the energy of the corresponding photon, (b) its frequency, and (c) its wavelength. (d) Is the energy absorbed or emitted, and (e) which series does it belong to and what specific type of emission does it represent?

## Solution

- a. Energy of the photon emitted is

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \frac{-13.6 \text{ eV}}{n^2} \\ \Delta E &= E_3 - E_2 \\ &= \frac{-13.6}{3^2} - \frac{-13.6}{2^2} = 1.89 \text{ eV} \blacktriangleleft \\ &= 1.89 \text{ eV} \times \frac{1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}}{\text{eV}} = 3.02 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

- b. The frequency of the photon is

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta E &= h\nu \\ \nu &= \frac{\Delta E}{h} = \frac{3.02 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}}{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}} \\ &= 4.55 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1} = 4.55 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz} \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned}$$

- c. The wavelength of the photon is

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta E &= \frac{hc}{\lambda} \\ \text{or } \lambda &= \frac{hc}{\Delta E} = \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s})(3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})}{3.02 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}} \\ &= 6.59 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} \\ &= 6.59 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} \times \frac{1 \text{ nm}}{10^{-9} \text{ m}} = 659 \text{ nm} \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned}$$

- d. Energy is released as its quantity is positive, and the electron is transitioning from a higher orbit to a lower orbit.

- e. The emission belongs to the Balmer series (Fig. 2.6) and corresponds to the visible red light (Fig. 2.4).

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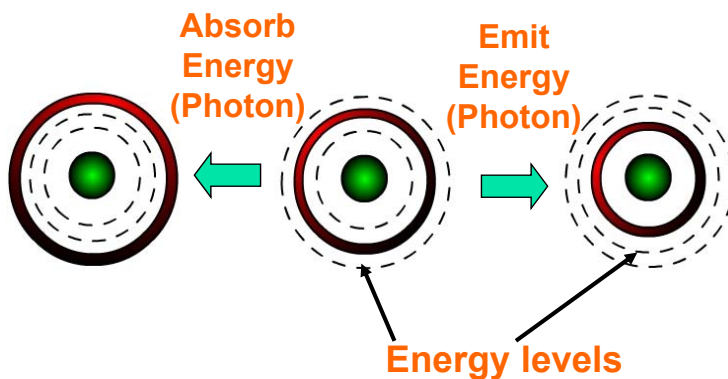
## Energy states

- Electron rotates at definite energy levels.
- Energy is absorbed to move to higher energy level.
- Energy is emitted during transition to lower level.
- Energy change due to transition =  $\Delta E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$

$h$  = Planks Constant =  $6.63 \times 10^{-34}$  J.s

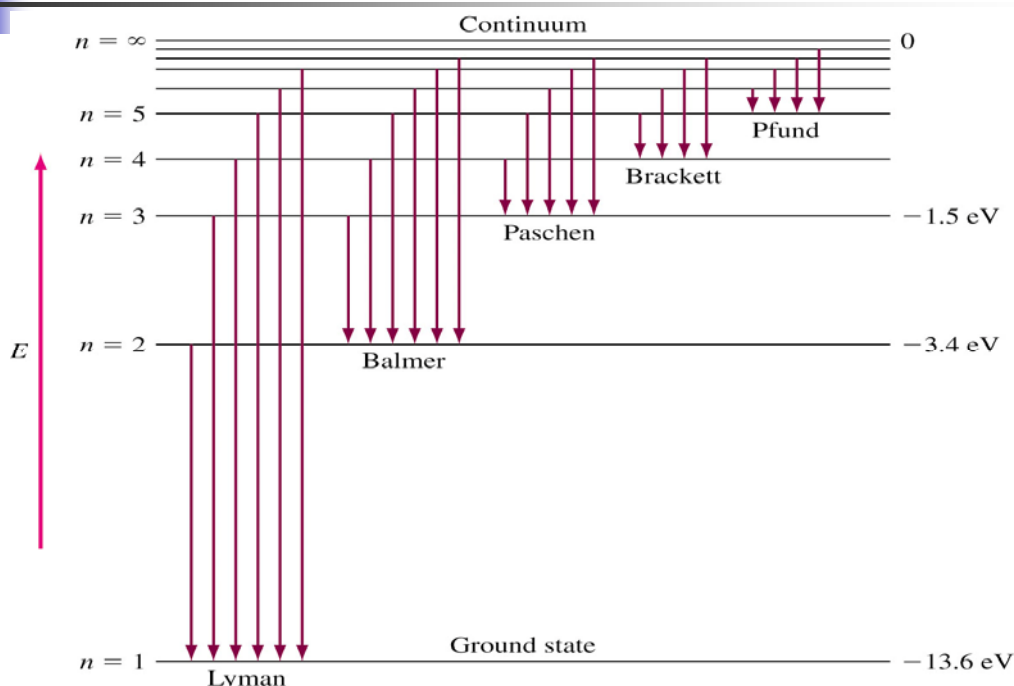
$c$  = Speed of light

$\lambda$  = Wavelength of light



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## Energy-level diagram for the line spectrum of hydrogen



Source: F. M. Miller, Chemistry: Structure and Dynamics, McGraw-Hill, 1984, p.141

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## Wave-Particle Duality

- De Broglie proposed in 1923 that a moving particle of momentum  $p$  behaves like a wave with a characteristic wavelength  $\lambda = h/p$

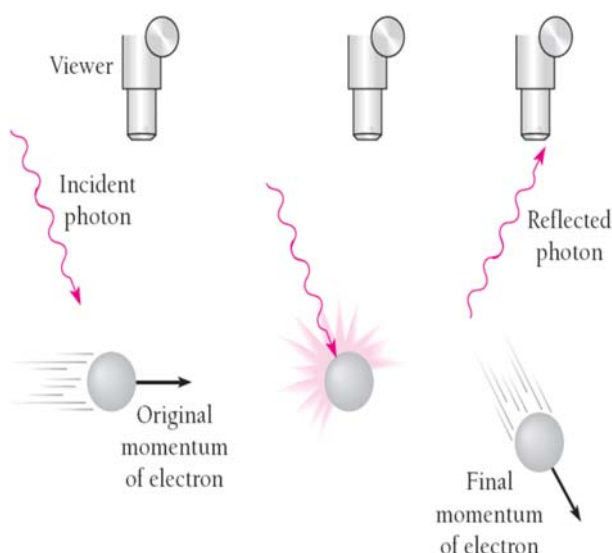
$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Ⓢ} \longrightarrow v = 40 \text{ m/s} = 90 \text{ mi/hr} \\ m = 0.15 \text{ kg} \quad \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}}{(0.15 \text{ kg})(40 \text{ m/s})} = 1.1 \times 10^{-34} \text{ m} \end{array} \left\{ \right.$$

For an electron accelerated through 100 Volts:  $v = 5.9 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$

$$\lambda = \frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}}{(9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})(5.9 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s})} = 1.2 \times 10^{-10} = 0.12 \text{ nm}$$

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## Uncertainty principle



- The original particle information (position, velocity) is disturbed by the incident photon.
- The amount of momentum change  $\Delta p$  is in the same order of the photon momentum  
 $\Delta p \approx h/\lambda$
- An estimate of position uncertainty is  $\Delta x \geq \lambda$   
 $\Rightarrow \Delta x \cdot \Delta p \geq h/4\pi$

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## How to describe particle by “wave”?

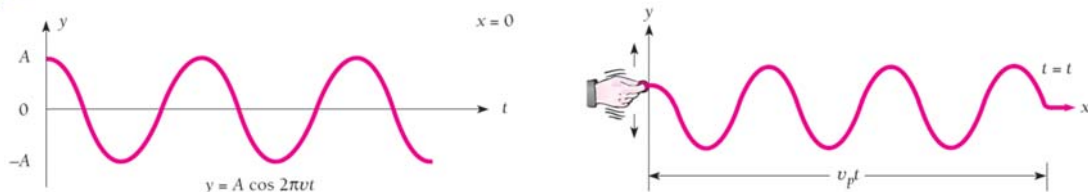
- **Schrodinger's attempt** — Consider the particle as an assembly of waves that fulfills some kind of wave equation. The solution of the wave equation is called **wave function** that contains the all physical information of the particle such as velocity, momentum, kinetic energy, ...
- The **wave function** represents the probability amplitude for finding a particle at a given point in space at a given time.

$\Psi(x,y,z,t)$  = Amplitude of probability wave

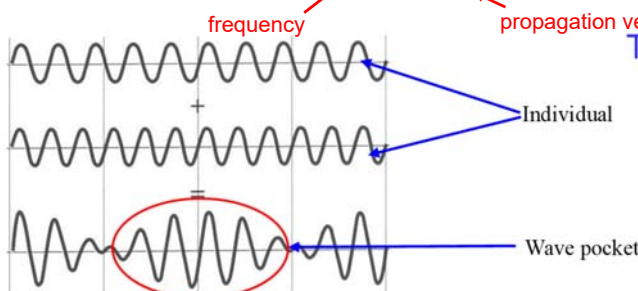
$\Psi^*\Psi$  = Probability density

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## Wave Propagation



$$y = A \cos 2\pi v(t - x/v_p) = A \cos 2\pi(vt - x/\lambda) = A \cos(\omega t - kx)$$



Two propagating waves superimposed:

$$y_1 = A \cos(\omega t - kx)$$

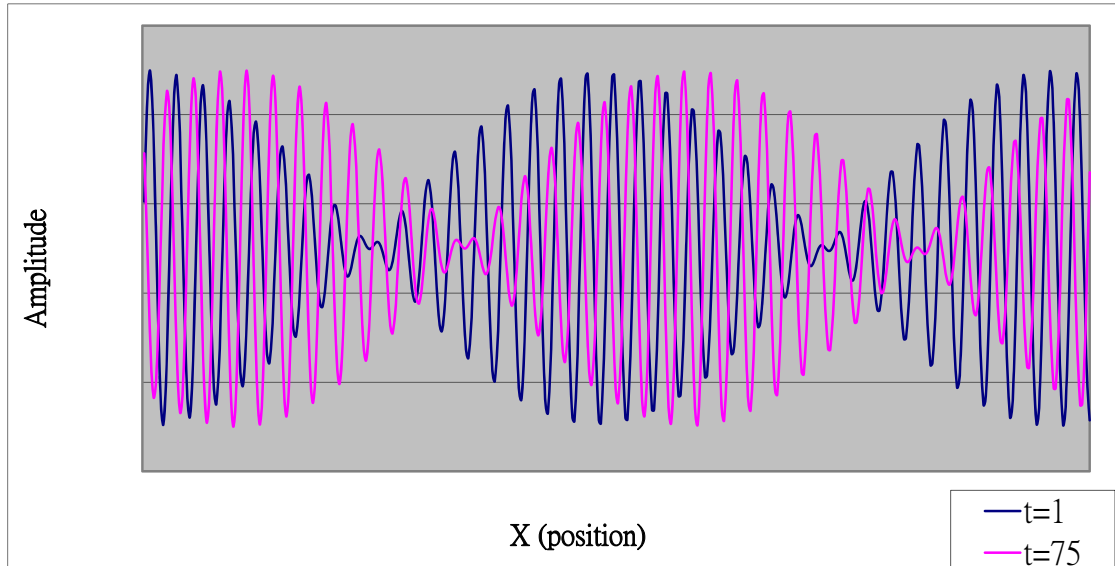
$$y_2 = A \cos[(\omega + \Delta\omega)t - (k + \Delta k)x]$$

$$y = y_1 + y_2 = 2A \cos \frac{1}{2}[(2\omega + \Delta\omega)t - (2k + \Delta k)x] \cos \frac{1}{2}(\Delta\omega t - \Delta kx)$$

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## Superposition of two COS waves

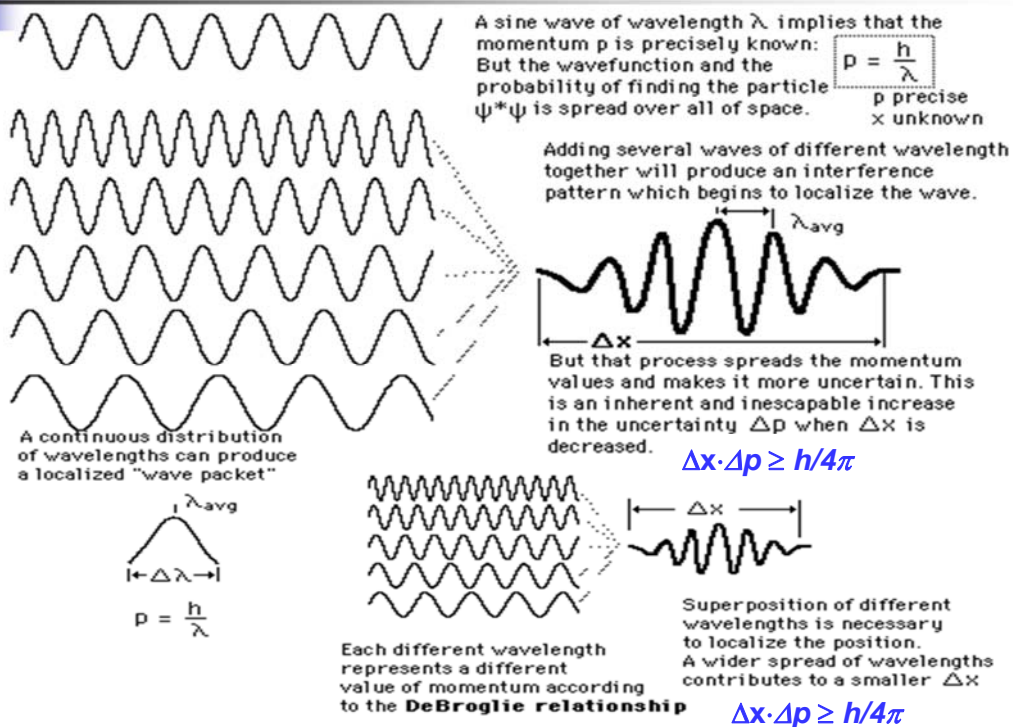
$$y = 2A \cos(\omega t - kx) \cos \frac{1}{2}(\Delta \omega t - \Delta kx)$$



$$k=50, w=100, \Delta k=3, \Delta w=1$$

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## Uncertainty principle



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## Matter wave and electron density

- de Broglie's proposition:  $\lambda = h/p = h/(mv)$
- Heisenberg rejected Bohr's concept of an "orbit" of fixed radius for an electron.  $\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \geq h/4\pi$
- Schrodinger used the wave equation to explain the behavior of electrons. The solution of the wave equation is called wave function  $\psi(x,y,z,t)$ .  $\psi^2 = \psi^* \psi$  represents the probability of finding an electron of a given energy level in a given region of space.
- The probability is called **electron density**. For the ground state electron, there is 90% chance of finding an electron within a sphere of radius 100 pm.

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## Electron density in a hydrogen atom

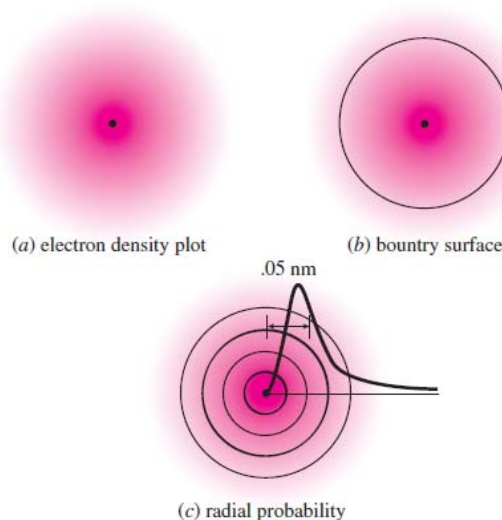
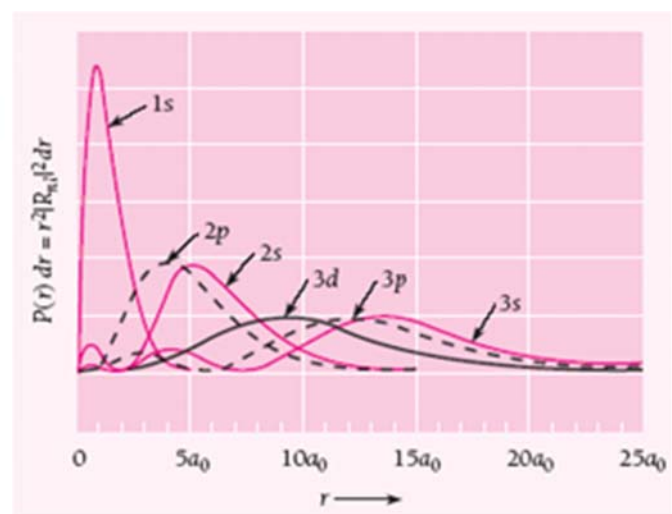


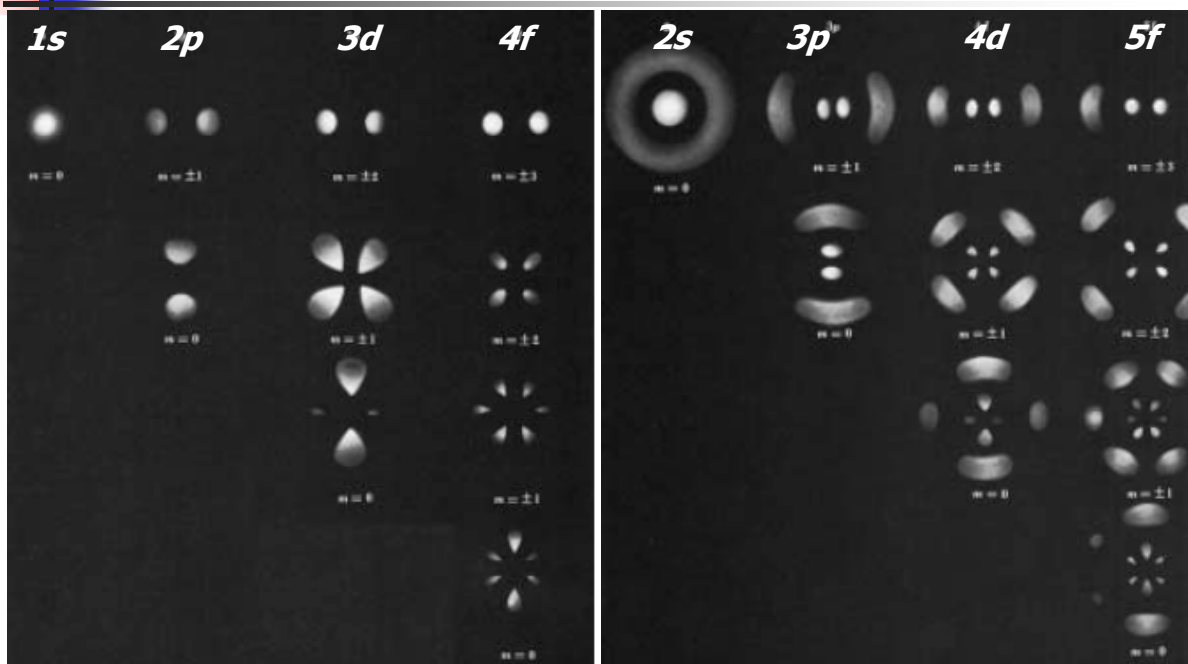
Figure 2.7



"Concepts of Modern Physics", 6th ed, Arthur Beiser, p.213

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## Electron distribution for different orbital quantum numbers



Source: Concepts of Modern Physics", 6th ed, Arthur Beiser, p.216-217

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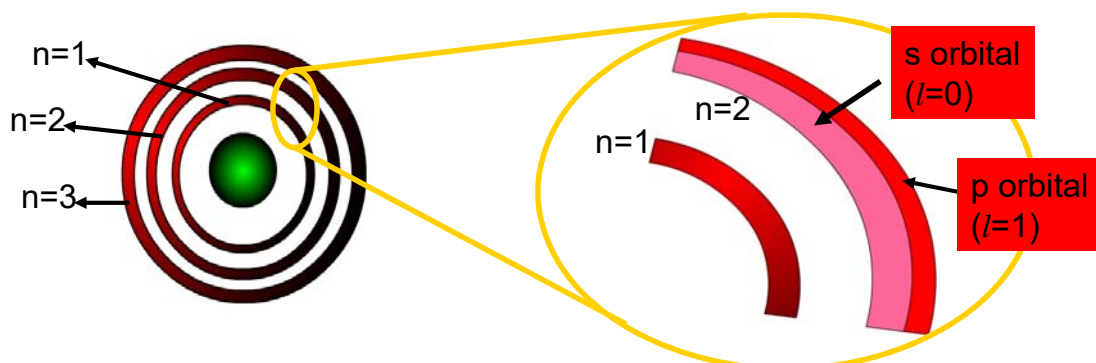
## Quantum Numbers of Electrons of Atoms

### Principal Quantum Number (n)

- Represents main energy levels.
- Range 1 to 7.
- Larger the 'n' higher the energy.

### Subsidiary (orbital) Quantum Number l

- Represents sub energy levels (orbital).
- Range 0...n-1.
- Represented by letters s,p,d and f.



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## Quantum numbers of electrons in atoms

### Magnetic Quantum Number $m_l$

- Represents **spatial orientation** of single atomic orbital.
- Permissible values are  $-l$  to  $+l$ .
  - Example:- if  $l=1$ ,  $m_l = -1, 0, +1$ . i.e.  $2l+1$  allowed values.
- No effect on energy.

### Electron spin quantum number $m_s$

- Specifies two directions of electron spin.
- Directions are **clockwise or anticlockwise**.
- Values are  $+1/2$  or  $-1/2$ .
- Two electrons on same orbital have opposite spins.
- No effect on energy.

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## Energy state of multielectron atoms

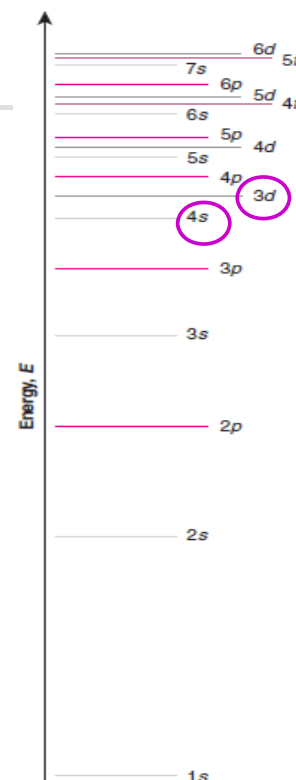
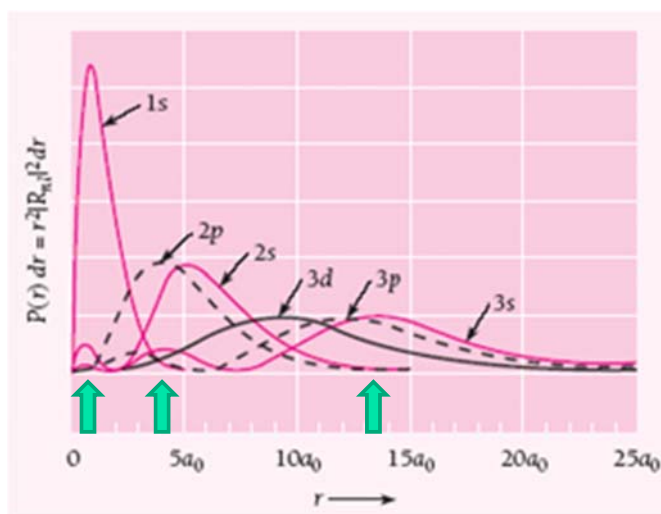


Figure 2.9

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## Electron Structure of Multielectron Atom

- Maximum number of electrons in each atomic shell is given by  $2n^2$ .
- Atomic size (radius) increases with addition of shells.
- Electron Configuration** lists the arrangement of electrons in orbitals.

➤ Example :-

Orbital letters

Number of Electrons

$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2$

Principal Quantum Numbers

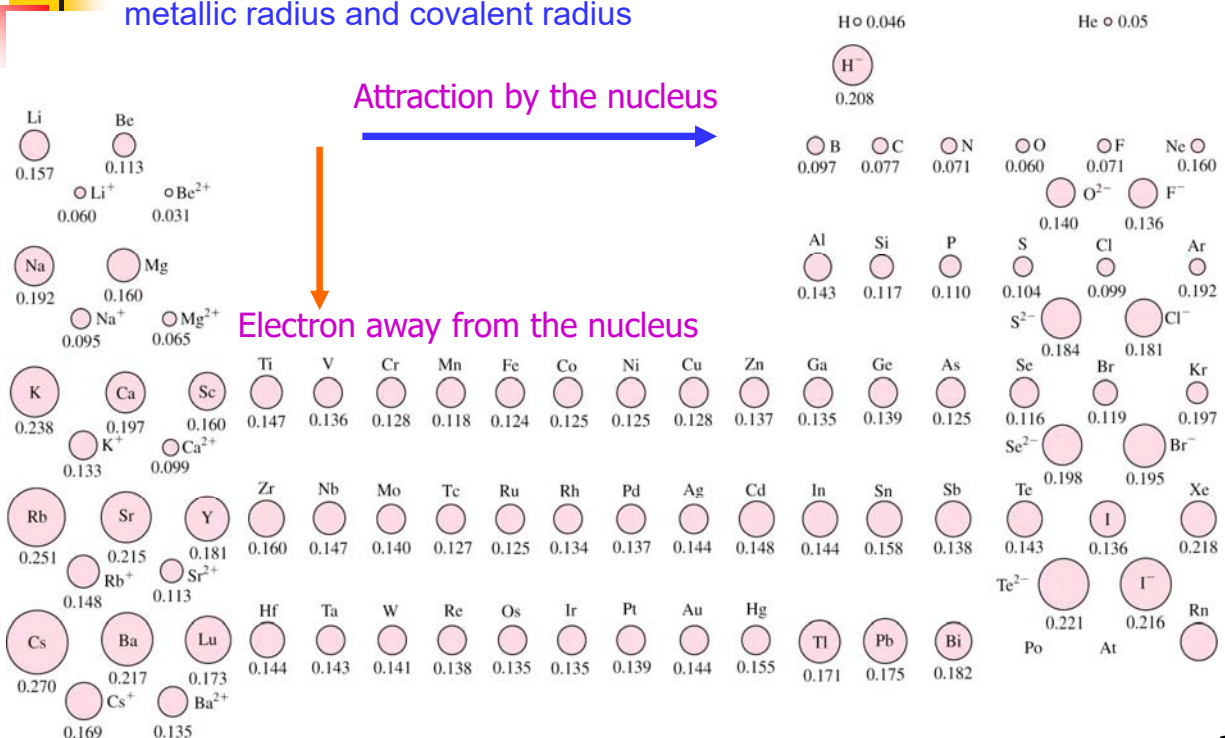
➤ For Iron, (Z=26), Electronic configuration is

$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^6 4s^2$

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## Trends in atomic size

Half of the distance between the nuclei of 2 adjacent atoms:  
metallic radius and covalent radius

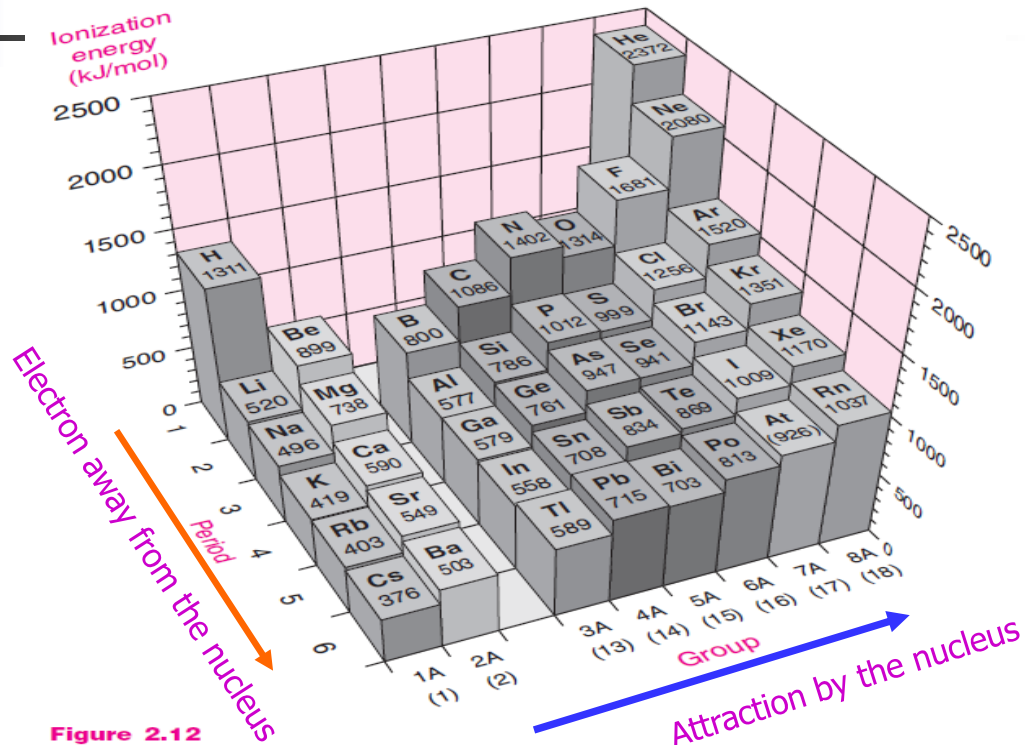


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# Ionization energy (IE)

The energy required to remove an electron from its atom.



**Figure 2.12**  
The ionization energy variations in the periodic table.

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# Oxidation number



The number of outer electrons that an atom can give up through the ionization process.

1 H +1 -1	The number of outer electrons that an atom can give up through the ionization process.																1 H +1 -1	2 He															
3 Li +1	2A 4 Be +2	Positive oxidation number																5 B +3	3A 6 C +4 +2 -4	4A 7 N +5 +4 +3 +2 +1 -3	5A 8 O -1 -2	6A 9 F -1	Ne										
11 Na +1	12 Mg +2																	13 Al +3	14 Si +4 -4	15 P +5 +3 -3	16 S +6 +4 +2 -2	17 Cl +7 +5 +3 +1 -1	18 Ar										
19 K +1	20 Ca +2	3B 21 Sc +3																	22 Ti +4 +3 +2	4B 23 V +5 +4 +3 +2	5B 24 Cr +6 +3 +2	6B 25 Mn +7 +6 +4 +3 +2	7B 26 Fe +3 +2	8B 27 Co +3 +2	28 Ni +2	1B 29 Cu +2 +1	2B 30 Zn +2	31 Ga +3	32 Ge +4 -4	33 As +5 +3 -3	34 Se +6 +4 -2	35 Br +5 +3 -1	36 Kr +4 +2
37 Rb +1	38 Sr +2	39 Y +3																	40 Zr +4	41 Nb +5 +4	42 Mo +6 +5 +4 +3	43 Tc +7 +6 +4	44 Ru +8 +6 +4 +3	45 Rh +4 +3 +2	46 Pd +4 +2	47 Ag +1	48 Cd +2	49 In +3	50 Sn +4 +2	51 Sb +5 +3 -3	52 Te +6 +4 -2	53 I +7 +5 +3 +1 -1	54 Xe +6 +4 +2
55 Cs +1	56 Ba +2	57 La +3	58 Ce +3	71 Lu +3	72 Hf +4	73 Ta +5	74 W +6 +4	75 Re +7 +6 +4	76 Os +8 +6 +4	77 Ir +4 +3	78 Pt +4 +2	79 Au +3 +1	80 Hg +2 +1	81 Tl +3 +1	82 Pb +4 +2	83 Bi +5 +3	84 Po +2	85 At -1	86 Rn														

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## Electron affinity (EA)

- Electron affinity: The tendency to accept one or more electrons and release energy in the process.

Negative oxidation number: the number of electrons that an atom can gain

1 H +1																	2 He														
3 Li +1	4 Be +2																	5 B +3	6 C +4 -4	7 N +5 +3 +2 -3	8 O -1 -2	9 F -1	10 Ne								
11 Na +1	12 Mg +2																	13 Al +3	14 Si +4 -4	15 P +5 +3 -3	16 S +6 +4 +2 -2	17 Cl +7 +5 +3 +1 -1	18 Ar								
19 K +1	20 Ca +2	21 Sc +3															22 Ti +4 +3 +2	23 V +5 +4 +3 +2	24 Cr +6 +3 +2	25 Mn +7 +6 +4 +3 +2	26 Fe +3 +2	27 Co +3 +2	28 Ni +2	29 Cu +2 +1	30 Zn +2	31 Ga +3	32 Ge +4 -4	33 As +5 +3 -3	34 Se +6 +4 -2	35 Br +5 +3 +1 -1	36 Kr +4 +2
37 Rb +1	38 Sr +2	39 Y +3															40 Zr +4	41 Nb +5 +4	42 Mo +6 +5 +4 +3	43 Tc +7 +6 +4	44 Ru +8 +6 +4 +3	45 Rh +8 +3 +2	46 Pd +4 +2	47 Ag +1	48 Cd +2	49 In +3	50 Sn +4 +2	51 Sb +5 +3 -3	52 Te +6 +4 -2	53 I +7 +5 +3 +1 -1	54 Xe +6 +4 +2
55 Cs +1	56 Ba +2	57 La +3	58 Ce +3	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71 Lu +3	72 Hf +4	73 Ta +5	74 W +6 +4	75 Re +7 +6 +4	76 Os +8 +4	77 Ir +4 +3	78 Pt +4 +2	79 Au +3 +1	80 Hg +2 +1	81 Tl +3 +1	82 Pb +4 +2	83 Bi +5 +3	84 Po +2	85 At -1	86 Rn

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## Electron Structure and Chemical Activity

- Except Helium, most **noble gasses** (Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe, Rn) are chemically very stable (**high ionization energy and no electron affinity**)
  - All have  $s^2 p^6$  configuration for outermost shell.
  - Helium has  $1s^2$  configuration
- Electropositive** elements give electrons during chemical reactions to form **cations**.
  - Cations are indicated by positive oxidation numbers
  - Example:

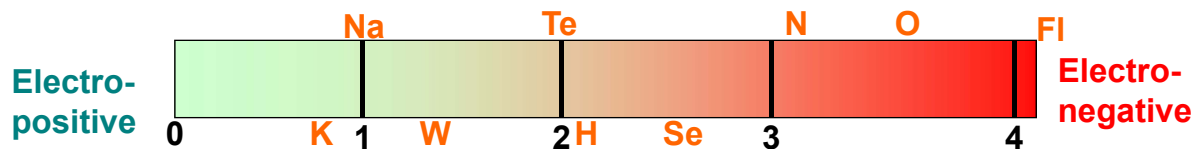


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## Electron Structure and Chemical Activity

- **Electronegative** elements accept electrons during chemical reaction.
- Some elements behave as both electronegative and electropositive.
- Electronegativity is the degree to which the atom attracts electrons to itself
  - Measured on a scale of 0 to 4.1
  - Example : Electronegativity of Fluorine is 4.1  
Electronegativity of Sodium is 1.



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## Electronegativity

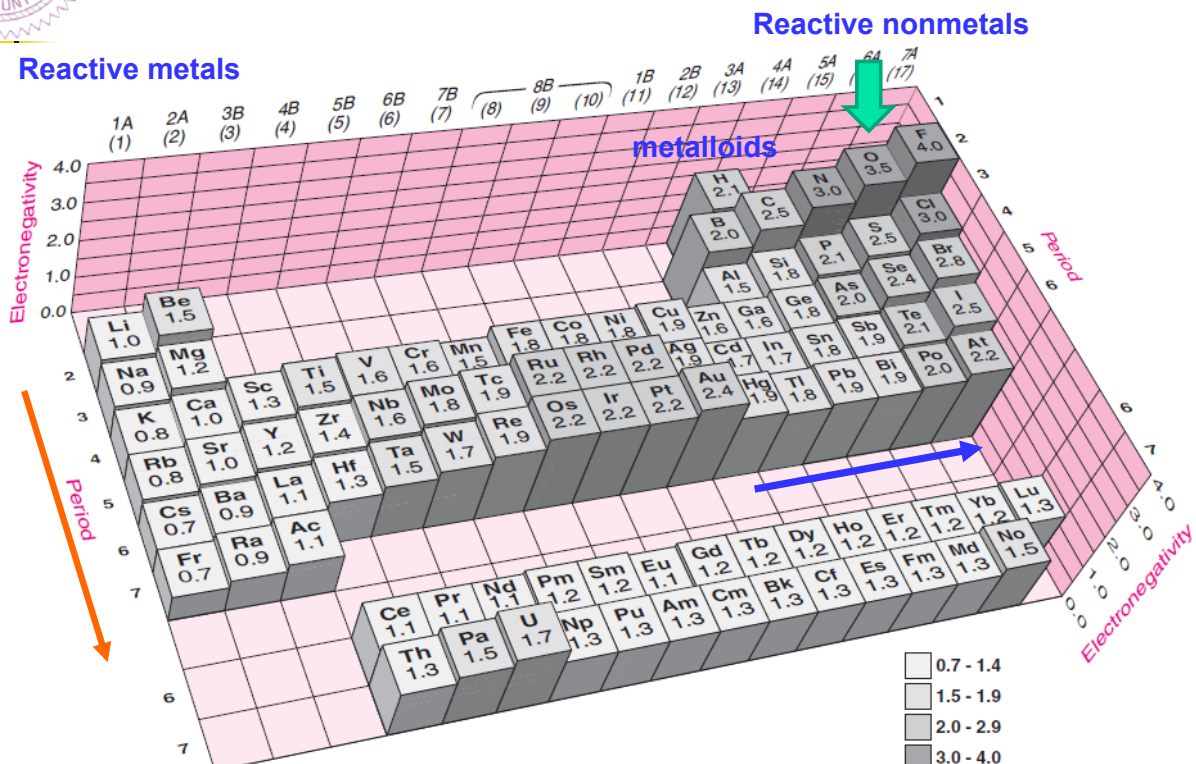


Figure 2.14

The electronegativity variations in the periodic table.

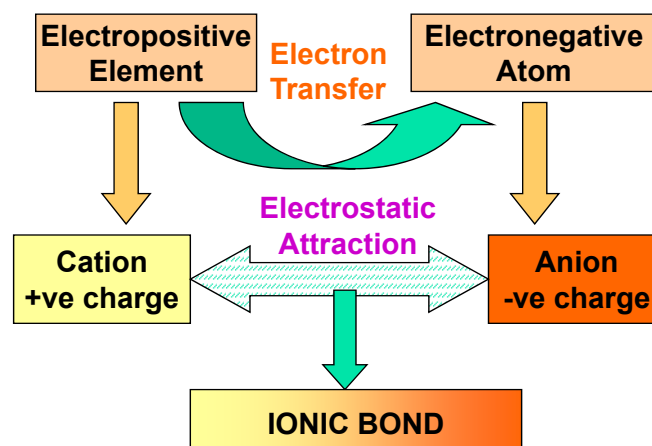
# Atomic and Molecular Bonds

- **Ionic bonds:** Strong atomic bonds due to transfer of electrons
- **Covalent bonds:** Large interactive force due to sharing of electrons
- **Metallic bonds:** Non-directional bonds formed by sharing of electrons
- **Permanent Dipole bonds:** Weak intermolecular bonds due to attraction between the ends of permanent dipoles.
- **Fluctuating Dipole bonds:** Very weak electric dipole bonds due to asymmetric distribution of electron densities.

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## Ionic Bonding

- Ionic bonding is due to electrostatic force of attraction between **cations and anions**.
- It can form between metallic and nonmetallic elements.
- Electrons are transferred from electropositive to electronegative atoms



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## Ionic Bonding – NaCl

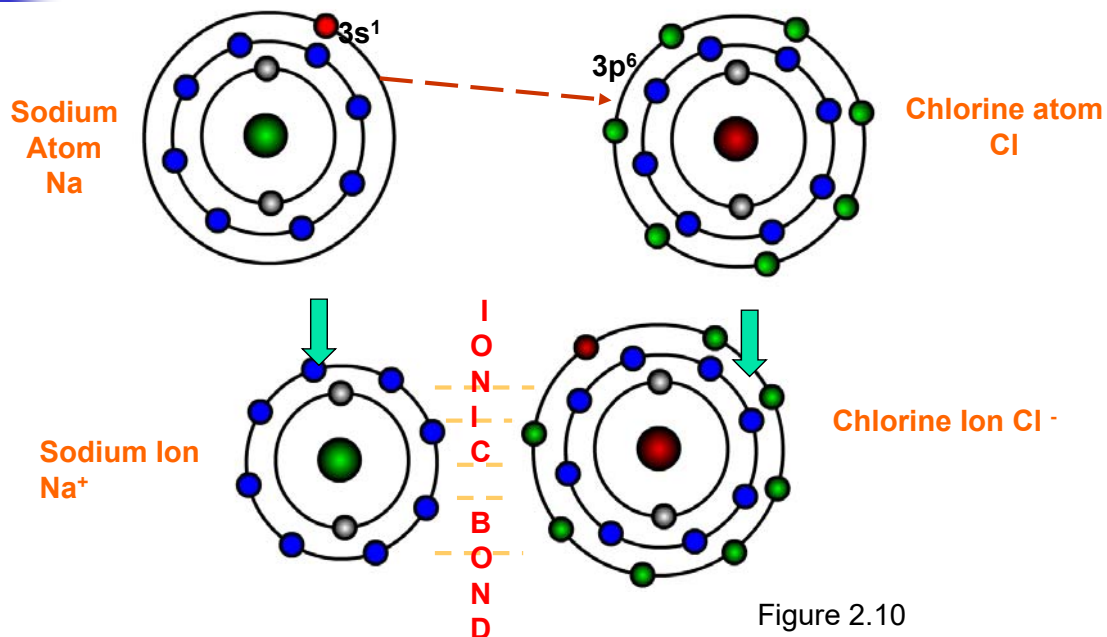


Figure 2.10

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## Ionic force for an ion pair

- Nucleus of one ion attracts electron of another ion.
- The electron clouds of ions repulse each other when they are sufficiently close.

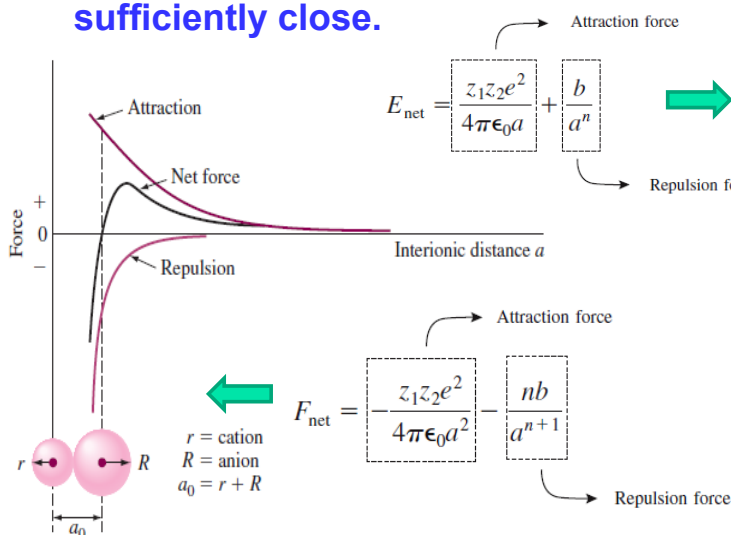


Figure 2.16

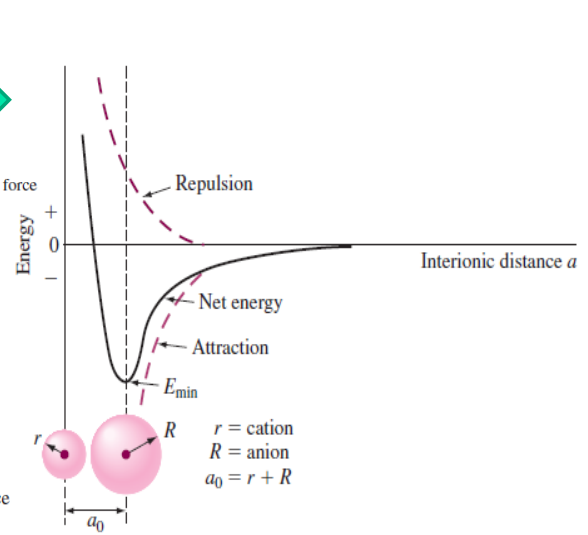


Figure 2.17

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## Ion Force for Ion Pair

$$F_{\text{attractive}} = -\frac{(Z_1 e)(Z_2 e)}{(4\pi \epsilon_0 a^2)} = -\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{(4\pi \epsilon_0 a^2)}$$

$Z_1, Z_2$  = number of electrons removed or added during ion formation

$e$  = electron charge

$a$  = interionic separation distance

$\epsilon_0$  = permeability of free space ( $8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{C}^2/\text{Nm}^2$ )

$$F_{\text{repulsive}} = -\frac{nb}{a^{n+1}}$$

( $n$  and  $b$  are constants)

$$F_{\text{net}} = -\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{(4\pi \epsilon_0 a^2)} - \frac{nb}{a^{n+1}}$$

$n$ : 7~10, experimentally determined

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## Interionic Force - Example

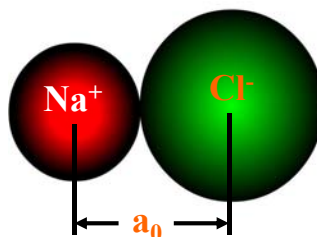
- Force of attraction between  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ions

$Z_1 = +1$  for  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $Z_2 = -1$  for  $\text{Cl}^-$

$e = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{C}$ ,  $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{C}^2/\text{Nm}^2$

$a_0$  = sum of radii of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ions

$= 0.095 \text{ nm} + 0.181 \text{ nm} = 2.76 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$



$$F_{\text{attraction}} = -\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{(4\pi \epsilon_0 a^2)} = \frac{(+1)(-1)(1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{C})^2}{4\pi(8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{C}^2/\text{Nm}^2)(2.76 \times 10^{-10} \text{m})} = +3.02 \times 10^{-9} \text{N}$$

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## Interionic energies for ion pairs

- Net potential energy for a pair of oppositely charged ions

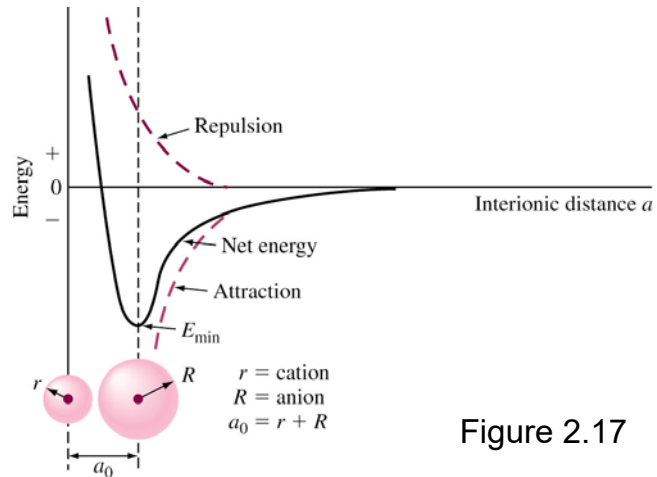
$$E_{net} = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{(4\pi\epsilon_0 a)} + \frac{b}{a^n}$$

Attraction  
Energy

Energy  
Released

Repulsion  
Energy

Energy  
Absorbed



- $E_{net}$  is minimum when ions are at equilibrium separation distance  $a_0$

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If the attractive force between  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$  ions at equilibrium is  $1.49 \times 10^{-9}$  N, calculate (a) the corresponding interionic distance. If  $S^{2-}$  ion has a radius of 0.184 nm, calculate (b) the ionic radius for  $Mg^{2+}$  and (c) the repulsion force between the two ions at this position.

### ■ Solution

The value of  $a_0$ , the sum of the  $Mg^{2+}$  and  $S^{2-}$  ionic radii, can be calculated from a rearranged form of Coulomb's law.

$$a_0 = \sqrt{\frac{-Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 F_{attraction}}}$$

$$Z_1 = +2 \text{ for } Mg^{2+} \quad Z_2 = -2 \text{ for } S^{2-}$$

$$|e| = 1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C} \quad \epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/(\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2)$$

$$F_{attractive} = 1.49 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N}$$

Thus,

$$a_0 = \sqrt{\frac{-(2)(-2)(1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})^2}{4\pi[8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/(\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2)](1.49 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N})}}$$

$$= 2.49 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m} = 0.249 \text{ nm}$$

$$a_0 = r_{Mg^{2+}} + r_{S^{2-}}$$

$$\text{or} \quad 0.249 \text{ nm} = r_{Mg^{2+}} + 0.184 \text{ nm}$$

$$r_{Mg^{2+}} = 0.065 \text{ nm} \blacktriangleleft$$

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The repulsion force between  $\text{Na}^+$  ( $r = 0.095 \text{ nm}$ ) and  $\text{Cl}^-$  ( $r = 0.181 \text{ nm}$ ) ions at equilibrium is  $-3.02 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N}$ . Calculate (a) the value of constant  $b$  using the repulsive force section of Eq. 2.8, and (b) the bonding energy,  $E_{\min}$ . Assume  $n = 9$ .

■ **Solution**

a. To determine the  $b$  value for a NaCl ion pair,

$$F = -\frac{nb}{a^{n+1}} \quad (2.6)$$

The repulsive force between a  $\text{Na}^+\text{Cl}^-$  ion pair is  $-3.02 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N}$ .  
Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} -3.02 \times 10^{-9} \text{ N} &= \frac{-9b}{(2.76 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m})^{10}} \\ b &= 8.59 \times 10^{-106} \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^{10} \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned}$$

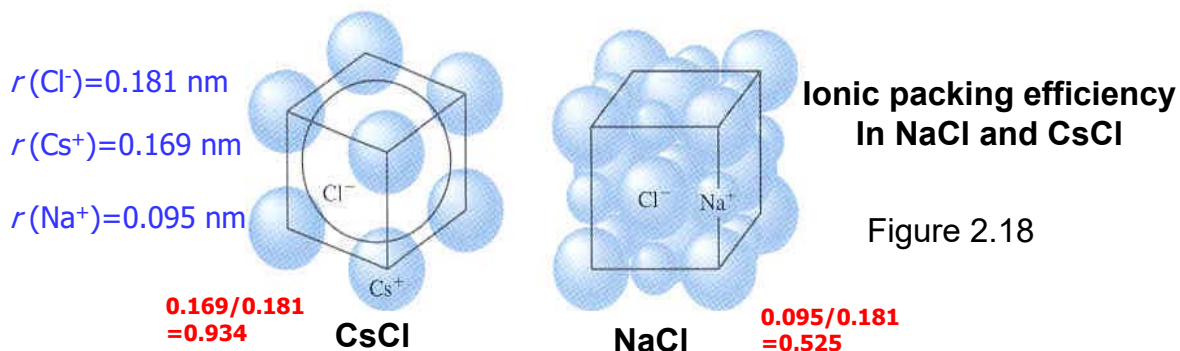
b. To calculate the potential energy of the  $\text{Na}^+\text{Cl}^-$  ion pair,

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{Na}^+\text{Cl}^-} &= \frac{+Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a} + \frac{b}{a^n} \\ &= \frac{(+1)(-1)(1.60 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})^2}{4\pi[8.85 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C}^2/(\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^2)](2.76 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m})} + \frac{8.59 \times 10^{-106} \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^{10}}{(2.76 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m})^9} \\ &= -8.34 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}^* + 0.92 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}^* \\ &= -7.42 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \blacktriangleleft \end{aligned}$$

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## Ion Arrangements in Ionic Solids

- Ionic bonds are **Non Directional**
- Geometric arrangements are present in solids to maintain electric neutrality.
  - Example:- in NaCl, six  $\text{Cl}^-$  ions pack around central  $\text{Na}^+$  ions



- As the ratio of cation to anion radius decreases, fewer anion surround central cation.

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## Bonding Energies

- Lattice energies and melting points of ionically bonded solids are **high**.
- Lattice energy **decreases** when size of ions increases.
- **Multiple bonding electrons** increase lattice energy.

**Table 2.5** The lattice energy and melting point values for various ionic solids

Ionic solid	Lattice energy*		Melting point (°C)
	kJ/mol	kcal/mol	
LiCl	829	198	613
NaCl	766	183	801
KCl	686	164	776
RbCl	670	160	715
CsCl	649	155	646
MgO	3932	940	2800
CaO	3583	846	2580
SrO	3311	791	2430
BaO	3127	747	1923

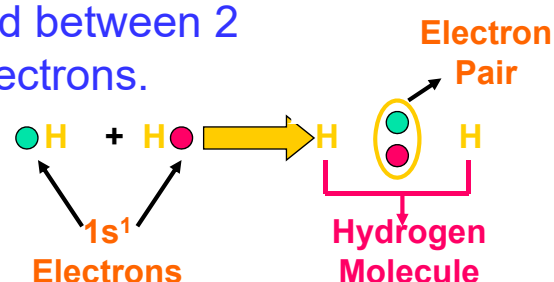
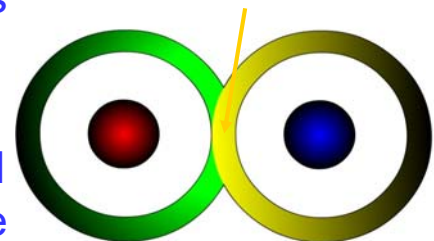
\*All values are negative for bond formation (energy is released).

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## Covalent Bonding

- In covalent bonding, outer s and p electrons are shared between two atoms to obtain noble gas configuration. (**full occupancy of the outer electron shell**)
- Take place between elements with small differences in *electronegativity* and close by in periodic table.
- In hydrogen, a bond is formed between 2 atoms by sharing their  $1s^1$  electrons.

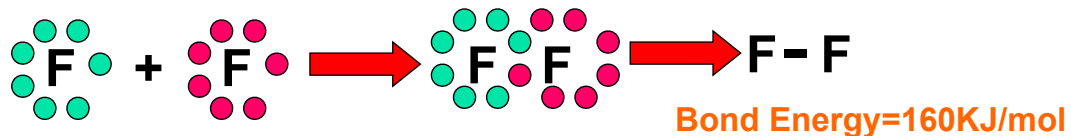
Overlapping Electron Clouds



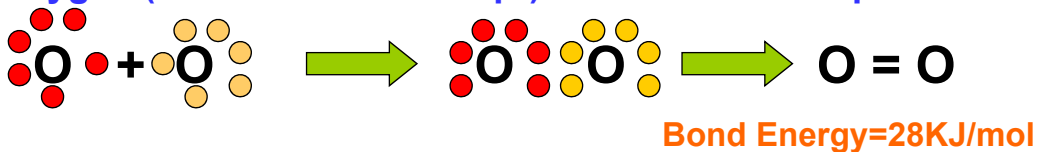
50

## Covalent Bonding - Examples

- In case of  $F_2$ ,  $O_2$  and  $N_2$ , covalent bonding is formed by sharing p electrons
- Fluorine gas (Outer orbital –  $2s^2 2p^5$ ) share one p electron to attain noble gas configuration.



- Oxygen (Outer orbital -  $2s^2 2p^4$ ) atoms share two p electrons



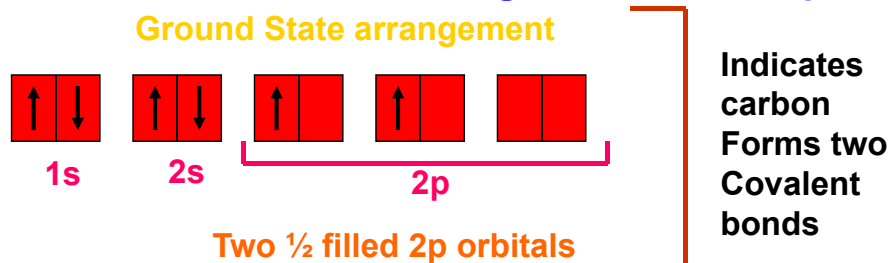
- Nitrogen (Outer orbital -  $2s^2 2p^3$ ) atoms share three p electrons



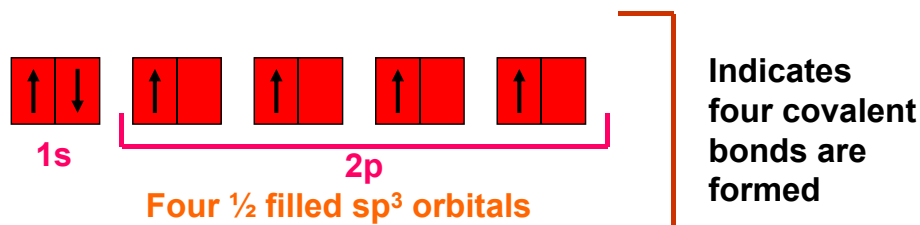
51

## Covalent Bonding in Carbon

- Carbon has electronic configuration  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$



- Hybridization causes one of the 2s orbitals promoted to 2p orbital. Result  $\rightarrow$  four  $sp^3$  orbitals.



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## Bond energy and bond length

Bond	Bond energy*		Bond length (nm)
	kcal/mol	kJ/mol	
C—C	88	370	0.154
C=C	162	680	0.13
C≡C	213	890	0.12
C—H	104	435	0.11
C—N	73	305	0.15
C—O	86	360	0.14
C=O	128	535	0.12
C—F	108	450	0.14
C—Cl	81	340	0.18
O—H	119	500	0.10
O—O	52	220	0.15
O—Si	90	375	0.16
N—O	60	250	0.12
N—H	103	430	0.10
F—F	38	160	0.14
H—H	104	435	0.074

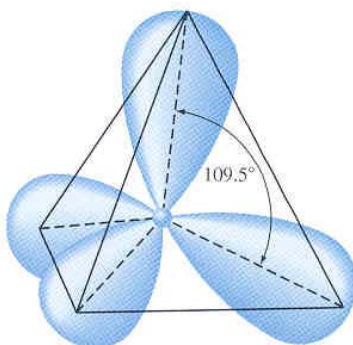
\*Approximate values since environment changes energy. All values are negative for bond formation (energy is released).

Source: L. H. Van Vlack, "Elements of Materials Science," 4th ed., Addison-Wesley, 1980.

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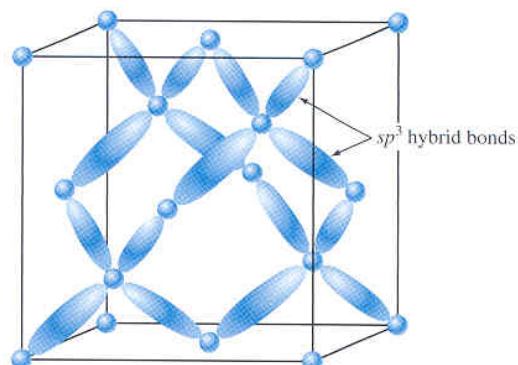
## Structure of Diamond

- Four  $sp^3$  orbitals are directed *symmetrically* toward corners of regular tetrahedron.
- This structure gives high hardness, high bonding strength (711KJ/mol) and high melting temperature (3550°C).



Carbon Atom

Figure 2.18



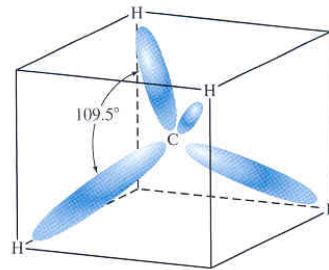
Tetrahedral arrangement in diamond

Figure 2.19

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## Carbon Containing Molecules

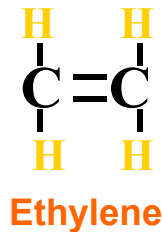
- In Methane, Carbon forms four covalent bonds with Hydrogen.
- Molecules are very weakly bonded together resulting in low melting temperature ( $-183^{\circ}\text{C}$ ).
- Carbon also forms bonds with itself.
- Molecules with multiple carbon bonds are more reactive.



**Methane molecule**

Figure 2.24

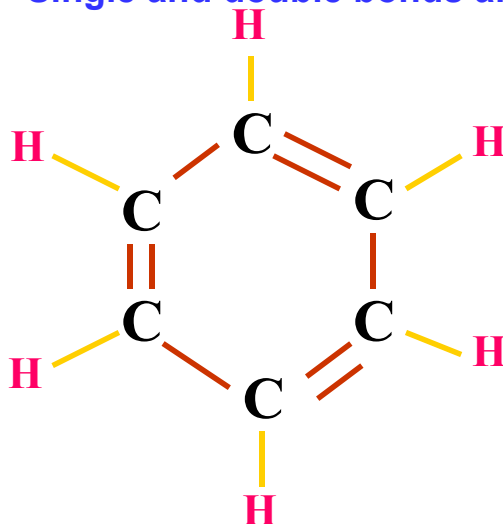
> **Examples:-**



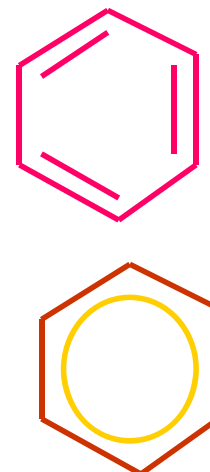
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## Covalent Bonding in Benzene

- Chemical composition of Benzene is  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_6$ .
- The Carbon atoms are arranged in hexagonal ring.
- Single and double bonds alternate between the atoms.



**Structure of Benzene**



**Simplified Notations**

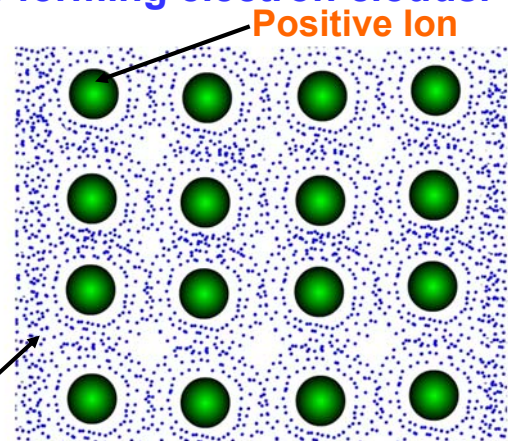
Figure 2.26

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## Metallic Bonding



- Atoms in metals are closely packed in crystal structure.
- Loosely bounded valence electrons are attracted towards nucleus of other atoms.
- Electrons spread out among atoms forming electron clouds.
- These free electrons are reason for electric conductivity and ductility.
- Since outer electrons are shared by many atoms, metallic bonds are **Non-directional**.

Figure 2.24



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## Metallic Bonds (Cont..)

- **Overall energy** of individual atoms are lowered by metallic bonds
- Minimum energy between atoms exist at equilibrium distance  $a_0$
- Fewer the number of valence electrons involved, more metallic the bond is. (valence e- freer to move)
  - **Example:-** Na  Bonding energy 108KJ/mol,  
Melting temperature 97.7°C
- Higher the number of valence electrons involved, higher is the bonding energy.
  - **Example:-** Ca  Bonding energy 177KJ/mol,  
Melting temperature 851°C

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## Ionic-covalent mixed bonding

- Most covalent-bonded molecules have some ionic binding, and vice versa.
- Pauling proposed the following equation to determine the percentage ionic character of bonding in a compound AB:

$$\% \text{ ionic character} = (1 - \exp(-(1/4)(X_A - X_B)^2)) \times 100\%$$

$X_A$  and  $X_B$ : electronegativities of atom A and B in the compound

GaAs:  $X_{\text{Ga}}=1.8$ ;  $X_{\text{As}}=2.2$  ; % ionic character = 4%

ZnSe:  $X_{\text{Zn}}=1.7$ ;  $X_{\text{Se}}=2.5$  ; % ionic character = 15%

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## Metallic-Covalent mixed bonding

- Transition metals have mixed metallic-covalent bonding involving *dsp* hybridized bonding orbitals.
- Mixed metallic-covalent bonding leads to high M.P.
- Group IVA elements transit from pure covalent bonding in C (diamond) to some metallic character in Si and Ge, and to pure metallic bonding in Sn and Pb.

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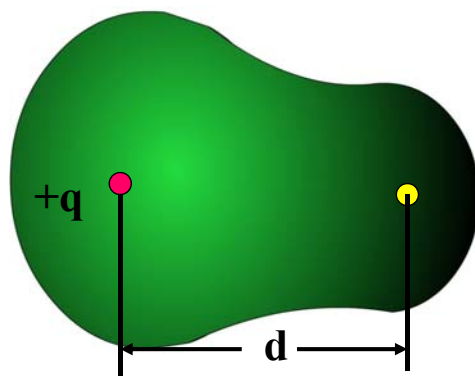
## Metallic-ionic mixed bonding

- Large difference in electronegativity for the elements forming a compound.
  - significant amount of electron transfer between the elements
  - ionic binding in the compound
- Intermetallic compounds:
  - NaZn<sub>13</sub> (more ionic character)
  - Al<sub>9</sub>Co<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sub>5</sub>Zn<sub>21</sub> (less ionic character)

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## Secondary Bonding

- Secondary bonds are due to attractions of **electric dipoles** in atoms or molecules.
- Dipoles are created when positive and negative charge centers exist.



$$\text{Dipole moment} = \mu = q \cdot d$$

**q** = Electric charge

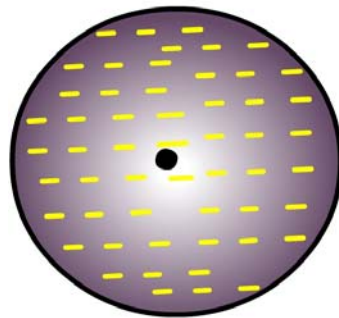
**d** = separation distance

- There are two types of bonds → permanent and fluctuating.

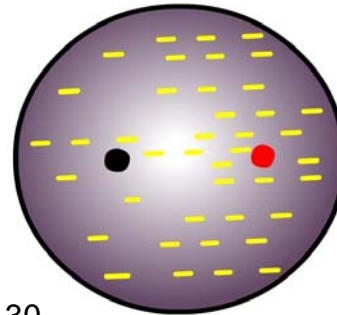
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## Fluctuating Dipoles

- Weak secondary bonds in noble gasses.
- Dipoles are created due to **asymmetrical distribution** of electron charges.
- Electron cloud charge changes with time.



**Symmetrical  
distribution  
of electron charge**



**Asymmetrical  
Distribution  
(Changes with time)**

Figure 2.30

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## Melting and boiling points of noble gases

**Table 2.10** Melting and boiling points of noble gases at atmospheric pressure

Noble gas	Melting point (°C)	Boiling point (°C)
Helium	-272.2	-268.9
Neon	-248.7	-245.9
Argon	-189.2	-185.7
Krypton	-157.0	-152.9
Xenon	-112.0	-107.1
Radon	-71.0	-61.8

- As atomic size of noble gases increases, the M.P. and B.P. increase due to stronger bonding forces since the electrons have more freedom to create stronger dipole moments

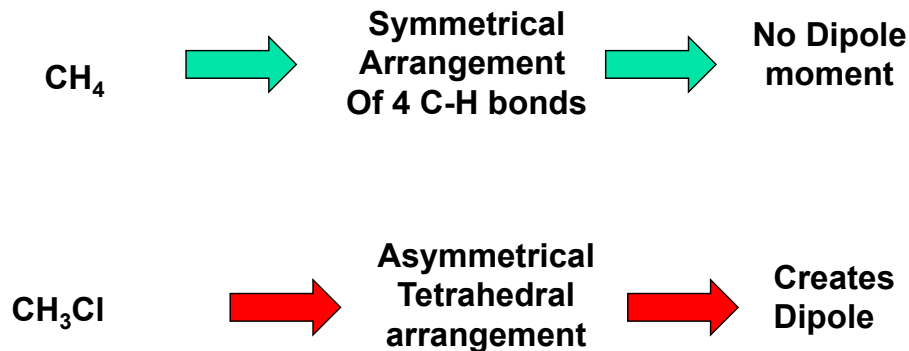
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## Permanent Dipoles

- Dipoles that do not fluctuate with time are called Permanent dipoles.

Examples:



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## Hydrogen Bonds

- Hydrogen bonds are *Dipole-Dipole interaction* between polar bonds containing hydrogen atom.

➤ Example :-

- In water, dipole is created due to asymmetrical arrangement of hydrogen atoms.
- Attraction between positive oxygen pole and negative hydrogen pole.

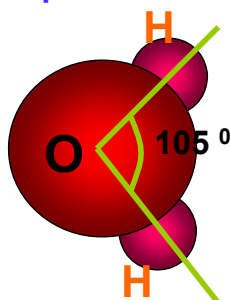
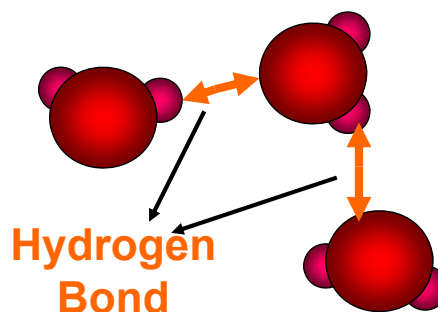


Figure 2.28



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## Summary

- Atomic models and their experimental evidences
- Trends of atomic size, ionization energy and electron affinity in the periodic table
- Atomic bonding nature and corresponding physical properties

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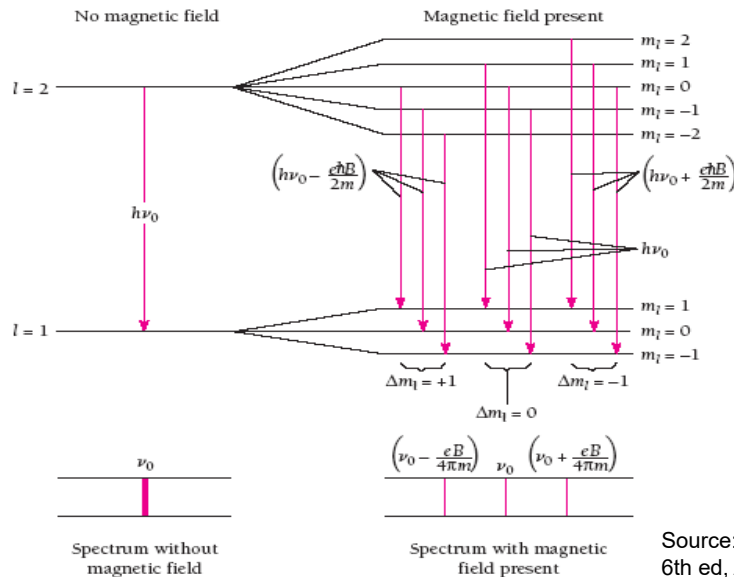


## Backup slide

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# Normal Zeeman effect

There is slight shift in energy levels due to the interaction between the orbital magnetic moment and the external magnetic field. This displacement of the energy levels gives the uniformly spaced splitting of the spectral lines.



Source: Concepts of Modern Physics", 6th ed, Arthur Beiser, p.225

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attraction

$$F_a = -\frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{a^2}$$

repulsion

$$F_r = -\frac{nb}{a^{n+1}}$$

$$E_{a_0} + \int_{a_0}^{\infty} F da = 0$$

$$E_{a_0} = -\int_{a_0}^{\infty} F da = \frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{a_0}$$

$$E_{a_0} = -\int_{a_0}^{\infty} F da = \frac{b}{a^n}$$

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