

Periodic Table of the

Chemical Elements



Macroconcepts of

Change and Patterns



Part One: **Periodic Trends:** 1. Syllabus* 2. Periodicity* 3. Chemical and Physical Properties* 4. History of the Modern Periodic Table* 5. Overview of the Modern Periodic Table* *Click on a link to go directly to that chapter.



Part One: **Periodic Trends:** 6. Essential Periodic Trends* a) Metals, Metalloids and Non-metals* b) Electrical Conductivity* c) Melting Points* d) Electrostatic Forces* e) Atomic Radius* f) First Ionisation Energy* g) Electronegativity*

*Click on a link to go directly to that chapter.







Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements

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What do I need to know about the Periodic Table of Chemical Elements?

Syllabus



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Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements Syllabus

- Describe the Periodic Table as an arrangement of the elements in the order of increasing proton (atomic) number.
- Describe how the position of an element in the Periodic Table is related to proton number and electronic structure.
- Describe the relationship between group number and the ionic charge of an element.
- Explain the similarities between the elements in the same group of the Periodic Table in terms of their electronic structure.
- Describe the change from metallic to non-metallic character from left to right across a period of the Period Table.



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements Syllabus

- Describe the relationship between group number, number of valence electrons and metallic/non-metallic character.
- Predict the properties of elements in Group I and VII using the Periodic Table.
- Describe lithium, sodium and potassium in Group I (the alkali metals) as
- a collection of relatively soft, low density metals showing a trend in melting point and in their reaction with water.
- Describe chlorine, bromine and iodine in Group VII (the halogens) as a collection of diatomic non-metals showing a trend in colour, state and their displacement reactions with solutions of other halide ions.



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements Syllabus

- Describe the elements in Group 0 (the noble gases) as a collection of monatomic elements that are chemically unreactive and hence important in providing an inert atmosphere, e.g. argon and neon in light bulbs; helium in balloons; argon in the manufacture of steel.
- Describe the lack of reactivity of the noble gases in terms of their electronic structures.
- Describe the transition metals as a collection of elements with typical metallic properties, including high melting points and high densities.
- Describe the transition metals as a collection of elements that form coloured compounds, have variable oxidation states and have catalytic properties.

Singapore Examinations and Assessment Board University of Cambridge International Examinations Ministry of Education, Singapore



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements



 The term *periodic* refers to a property that reoccurs at frequent intervals. The frequent reoccurrence of the property often forms a *trend* or *pattern* that allows accurate *predictions* about the property to be made.



 Periodic trends are specific patterns that are present in the Periodic Table. These trends and patterns illustrate different aspects of a certain chemical element. Major periodic trends include:

→ atomic radius
→ electronegativity
→ first electron affinity
→ first ionization energy
→ melting point and boiling point
→ metallic character
→ reactivity



 Periodic trends, arising from the arrangement of the chemical elements in the Periodic Table, provide chemists with an important way of predicting an element's properties. These trends exist because of the similar atomic structures and electronic configurations of the elements within their respective Groups and Periods.



• These periodic trends are based on the *Periodic Law* which states that if the chemical elements are listed in order of increasing atomic number, many of their properties go through cyclical changes, meaning that elements with similar properties are found to occur at regular intervals.





• For example, after arranging the chemical elements in order of increasing atomic number, many of the physical and chemical properties of *lithium* are found to reoccur in sodium (such as its vigorous reactivity with water) and then reoccur once again in *potassium*.





• The reaction between *lithium* and water. $2Li(s) + 2H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2LiOH(aq) + H_2(g)$





• The reaction between *sodium* and water. $2Na(s) + 2H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2NaOH(aq) + H_2(g)$





• The reaction between *potassium* and water. $2K(s) + 2H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2KOH(aq) + H_2(g)$





• The reaction between *rubidium* and water. $2Rb(s) + 2H_2O(l) \rightarrow 2RbOH(aq) + H_2(g)$



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements

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What is are the differences between *chemical properties* and *physical properties*?

Chemical and Physical Properties



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Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements Chemical and Physical Properties

 Chemical properties are properties of a material that only become apparent during or after a chemical reaction. Examples of chemical properties include acid / base nature, reactivity (*e.g.* flammability) and toxicity.

 Physical properties are often measurable and quantifiable. Physical properties tend to be numerical in nature and (unless they are ratios) are accompanied by units. Examples of physical properties include melting point / °C and density g / cm³.

Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements

O How was the modern Periodic Table developed? History of the Modern **Periodic Table Return to Main Menu**

Some definitions:

 Element – A pure substance that cannot be converted into anything more simple by a chemical process.

 Atom – The smallest part of a chemical element that possesses all of the typical chemical properties of that element.





Early chemists describe the first dirt molecule.

The Far Side © Gary Larson





• Johann Döbereiner, 1780 – 1849



 In 1817, a German scientist named Johann Döbereiner realised that there was a connection between the relative atomic mass of an element and its chemical properties.
In 1829 he arranged many of the chemical elements into groups of three, called *Döbereiner's Triads*, in which the relative atomic mass of the middle element is approximately the average mass of the other two. For example:

> Lithium 7 Sodium 23 Potassium 39 Chlorine 35.5 Bromine 80 Iodine 127

However, only a few elements form groups of three.





• John Newlands, 1837 – 1898



 In 1864, a British chemist called John Newlands arranged the chemical elements in order of their relative atomic mass and assigned each element a number:

> Hydrogen (the lightest element) = 1 (Helium was not known to exist at the time) Lithium = 2 Beryllium = 3

> > ... and so on ...

 Newlands was the first scientist to list the chemical elements in numerical order, leave spaces for elements that were still undiscovered and even alter the position of elements when he believed that their relative atomic mass was incorrect.

 Newland's Law of Octaves stated that elements with similar chemical properties had numbers which differed by 7 (for example, 1, 8 and 15 were similar, and so were elements 3, 10 and 17). However, Newland's Law did not apply after element 17, calcium.

¹ H	² Li	³ Be	⁴ B	⁵ C	⁶ N	⁷ O
⁸ F	⁹ Na	¹⁰ Mg	¹¹ A <i>l</i>	¹² Si	¹³ P	¹⁴ S
¹⁵ C <i>l</i>	¹⁶ K	¹⁷ Ca				

• Note: Helium, neon and argon were not known to exist at the time.



Dmitri Mendeleev, 1834 – 1907



 In 1869, a Russian chemist called Dmitri Mendeleev stated that the properties of the elements are a periodic function of their atomic masses. This periodic law means that if the chemical elements are arranged in order of increasing relative atomic mass, elements with similar chemical properties appear at regular intervals.

 Mendeleev's Periodic Table was incomplete because many chemical elements (for example, the noble gases) had not been discovered at that time. In addition to this, Mendeleev's Periodic Table contained several errors because *relative atomic mass* instead of *atomic number* had been used to arrange the elements in order.



	Tabelle II.								
Reihen	Gruppe I. R ² 0	Gruppe II. — RO	Gruppe III. — R²0 ³	Gruppe IV. RH ⁴ RO ²	Gruppe V. RH ³ R ² 0 ⁵	Gruppe VI. RH ² RO ³	Gruppe VII. RH R ² 0 ⁷	Gruppe VIII. R04	
1	H=1		с. С						
2	Li = 7	Be = 9,4	B=11	C=12	N = 14	0=16	F=19		
3	Na=23	Mg = 24	Al = 27,3	Si=28	P=31	S=32	Cl = 35,5		
4	K=39	Ca=40	-=44	Ti=48	V=51	Cr=52	Mn=55	Fe=56, Co=59, Ni=59, Cu=63.	
5	(Cu=63)	Zn = 65	-=68	-=72	As=75	Se = 78	Br = 80		
6	Rb = 85	Sr=87	?Yt=88	Zr = 90	Nb = 94	Mo=96	-=100	Ru = 104, $Rh = 104$, Pd=106, Ag=108.	
7	(Ag = 108)	Cd=112	In=113	Sn=118	Sb=122	Te = 125	J = 127		
8	Cs = 133	Ba = 137	?Di=138	?Ce=140	-	-	-		
9	()	-	_		-	_	_		
10	-	-	?Er=178	?La=180	Ta = 182	W = 184	-	Os=195, Ir=197, Pt=198, Au=199.	
11	(Au=199)	Hg = 200	T1=204	Pb = 207	Bi=208	_	-		
12		-	-	Th = 231	-	U = 240	-		

 Dmitri Mendeleev's Periodic Table. Note the way that chemical formulae were written in 1869.



Tabelle II.								
Reihen	Gruppe I. R ² 0	Gruppe II. — RO	Gruppe III. — R²0 ³	Gruppe IV. RH ⁴ RO ²	Gruppe V. RH ³ R ² 0 ⁵	Gruppe VI. RH ² RO ³	Gruppe VII. RH R ² 0 ⁷	Gruppe VIII. R 0 4
1	H=1		с. С.					9.
2	Li = 7	Be = 9,4	B=11	C=12	N = 14	0=16	F=19	ler
3	Na=23	Mg = 24	Al=27,3	Si=28	P=31	S=32	Cl = 35,5	ch
4	K=39	Ca=40	-=44	Ti=48	V=51	Cr=52	Mn=55	$\begin{array}{ccc} Fe = 56, \ Co = 59, \\ Ni = 59, \ Cu = 63. \end{array}$
5	(Cu=63)	Zn = 65	-=68	-=72	As=75	Se = 78	Br = 80	her
6	Rb = 85	Sr=87	?Yt=88	Zr = 90	Nb = 94	Mo=96	-=100	Ru=104, Rh=104, Pd=106, Ag=108.
7	(Ag=108)	Cd=112	In=113	Sn = 118	Sb=122	Te = 125	J=127	me
8	Cs = 133	Ba = 137	?Di=138	?Ce=140	-	-	-	nte
9	()	-	-	_	_	_		•
10	-	-	?Er=178	?La=180	Ta = 182	W = 184	-	Os=195, Ir=197, Pt=198, Au=199.
11	(Au=199)	Hg = 200	Tl=204	Pb = 207	Bi=208	_	-	
12	- "	-	-	Th = 231	-	U = 240	<u>⊶</u> .	

 Dmitri Mendeleev's Periodic Table. Also note the spaces that Mendeleev left for elements that had not been discovered at the time.





• Henry Moseley, 1887 – 1915





• Henry Moseley, 1887 – 1915


Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements History of the Periodic Table

 In 1913, An English research student called Henry Moseley investigated the X-ray spectra of the chemical elements. He discovered that *atomic number* (proton number) is more important than relative atomic mass when determining the position of an element in the Periodic Table. Two pairs of elements that are placed in the wrong order using relative atomic mass are:

> Potassium (39.1) and Argon (39.95) Iodine (126.9) and Tellurium (127.6)

Moseley's discovery that atomic number (proton number) is more significant than relative atomic mass removed this anomaly from Mendeleev's Periodic Table.



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements

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Could I please have an overview of the modern Periodic Table?

Overview of the Modern Periodic Table



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Group

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1	1					ont			rro		d ir	•	_					2	
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5	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	
6	55	56	57	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	
7	87	88	89															YAN	

Period







Group

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2	2s	2s	Ł	as	ed u	upc	on th	neir	e ci	ectr	oni	c	2р	2р	2р	2р	2р	2р
3	3s	3s		Dased upon their electroniciiiiconfigurations.3p3p3p3p3p														
4	4s	4s	3d	3d	3d	3d	3d	3d	3d	3d	3d	3d	4р	4р	4р	4р	4р	4р
5	5s	5s	4d	4d	4d	4d	4d	4d	4d	4d	4d	4d	5р	5р	5р	5р	5р	5р
6	6s	6s	5d	5d	5d	5d	5d	5d	5d	5d	5d	5d	6р	6р	6р	6р	6р	6р
7	7s	7s	6d															

Period

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_	3	Na	Mg					Gro	oup.					Al	Si	Ρ	S	Cl	Ar
Period	4	к	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
	5	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
	6	Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Та	V	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	T <i>l</i>	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
	7	Fr	Ra	Ac														NAL	YANO







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	2	Li	Be		ele	eme	ente	izoi s is	kno	Swr	n as	s a		В	С	Ν	0	F	Ne
-	3	Na	Mg					Per	iod					Al	Si	Ρ	S	Cl	Ar
Perioc	4	К	Ca	Sc	Fi	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
_	5	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
	6	Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Та	V	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
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Period	4	К	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
	5	Rb	Sr	Υ	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
	6	Cs	Ва	La	Hf	Та	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Τl	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
	7	Fr	Ra	Ac															NYAA



Group

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	н			l.a. (4	- 6 4										Не
2	Li	Be		in t Ta	ne able	cen e ar	itre e th	or i ne t	ine ran	Pe sitic	rioc Sn		В	С	Ν	0	F	Ne
3	Na	Mg		Table are the transition Al Si P S Cl														
4	к	Са	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
5	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
6	Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Та	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	۲l	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
7	Fr	Ra	Ac															

Period





	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	н																	Не
2	Li	Be	•	Gr	oup	o V	II ((Gro	up	17)	are	e	В	С	Ν	0	F	Ne
3	Na	Mg		KI	IOW	na	ราก		alo	ger	15.		A <i>l</i>	Si	Ρ	S	Cl	Ar
4	к	Са	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
5	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
6	Cs	Ва	La	Hf	Та	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	τı	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
7	Fr	Ra	Ac															YAA

Period

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	н																	He
2	Li	Be		• (-	Grou	nd () (G	irou	ip 1	8)	are		В	С	Ν	0	F	Ne
3	Na	Mg	ľ	known as the noble gases. Al Si P S Cl														
4	к	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
5	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
6	Cs	Ва	La	Hf	Та	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Τl	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
7	Fr	Ra	Ac															NYAA

Period

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• Professor Theodor Benfey's Spiral Periodic Table (1964).



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements

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What are some general periodic trends of the chemical elements?

Essential Periodic Trends



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 Moving from the left-hand-side of the Periodic Table to the right-hand-side of the Periodic Table, there is a change in the element's chemical and physical properties from *metallic*, through *metalloid* (semimetal) to *non-metallic*.

 Magnesium Group 2 (II) Metallic Silicon
Group 14 (IV)
Metalloid

• Sulfur Group 16 (VI) Non-metallic















Period



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	н																	Не
2	Li	Be		M	etal	loic	ls o	or se	əmi	me	tals	5.	В	С	Ν	0	F	Ne
3	Na	Mg		Al Si P S Cl														
4	к	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
5	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
6	Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Та	V	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	۲ı	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
7	Fr	Ra	Ac														AN	YAN







	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	н																	Не
2	Li	Be		• N	lon	-me	etal	lic e	eler	ner	nts.		В	С	Ν	0	F	Ne
3	Na	Mg		Al Si P S Cl														
4	к	Ca	Sc	Fi	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Со	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
5	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Те	Ι	Xe
6	Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Та	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	۲l	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
7	Fr	Ra	Ac														AN	YAN





• What are the typical properties of metallic elements?

 \rightarrow Good conductors of heat and electricity.

 \rightarrow Generally have *high melting points* and *high boiling points*.

 \rightarrow Clean surface of a metal has a *metallic lustre* (shiny).

 \rightarrow *Malleable* and *ductile* (shape changed without breaking).

 \rightarrow Generally have *high densities*.

 \rightarrow Generally *hard* and *strong*.

 \rightarrow Sonorous (ring when struck).

→ React by losing their valence electron(s) to obtain a noble gas electronic configuration.

 \rightarrow Oxides are *basic* in nature.



• What are the typical properties of non-metallic elements?

 \rightarrow *Poor conductors* of heat and electricity (insulators).

 \rightarrow Generally have *low melting points* and *low boiling points*.

 \rightarrow Surface is generally *dull* (unless crystalline).

 \rightarrow Generally *brittle*.

 \rightarrow Generally have *low densities*.

 \rightarrow Generally soft.

 \rightarrow Not sonorous.

→ React by accepting electrons into their valence shell to obtain a noble gas electronic configuration.

 \rightarrow Oxides are *acidic* in nature.



 Note: Many of these properties are *relative*, *i.e.* the properties are only meaningful when a *comparison* is made.

• For example, the melting points of metallic elements are *relatively high* when *compared* to the melting points of non-metallic elements.

• For example, the densities of non-metallic elements are *relatively low* when *compared* to the densities of metallic elements.



• What are the typical properties of metalloids?

→ Metalloids are *semiconductors*. A semiconductor is a substance that conducts electricity under some conditions, but behaves as an electrical insulator under other conditions.

→ The oxides of metalloids are *amphoteric*. Under some conditions they are acidic in nature while under other conditions they are basic in nature.



 Semiconductors, such as *silicon*, are the materials used to manufacture computer microprocessors and memory chips.





 Electrical conductivity increases from sodium to aluminium, decreases sharply from aluminium to silicon, falls to zero from silicon to phosphorus and remains at zero from phosphorus through to argon.

• Electrical conductivity across Period 3.

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- For a chemical element to conduct electricity, it must contain *delocalised electrons*.
- When delocalised electrons flow in the same direction, they function as *mobile charge carrying particles* that enable an electric current to flow through the element.

 In general, *metallic elements* contain delocalised electrons and are *good conductors* of electricity while *non-metallic elements* do not contain delocalised electrons and are *poor conductors* of electricity*.

*One notable exception is *graphite* – an allotrope of the non-metallic element carbon. Graphite contains electrons that are delocalised between the hexagonal layers of carbon atoms. As a consequence, graphite is a good conductor of electricity.



Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium

 Sodium, magnesium and aluminium are all *metallic* elements. They are composed of positively charged ions (cations) arranged in a crystal lattice, surrounded by a sea of *delocalised electrons*.

 The delocalised electrons are free to move, and function as charge carrying particles.

 Moving from sodium to magnesium to aluminium, the number of electrons in the valence shell of an atom of each element increases from one to two to three respectively.



Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium



 A metallic element is composed of cations surrounded by a sea of delocalised electrons. The sea of delocalised electrons is formed when the metal atoms lose their valence electron(s) in order to obtain a noble gas electronic configuration.

Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium



 A metallic element is composed of cations surrounded by a sea of delocalised electrons. The sea of delocalised electrons is formed when the metal atoms lose their valence electron(s) in order to obtain a noble gas electronic configuration.

Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium

 In metallic bonding, atoms of metallic elements lose their valence electron(s) to form the delocalised sea of electrons, hence an atom of *sodium* will lose *one* electron, an atom of *magnesium* will lose *two* electrons and an atom of *aluminium* will lose *three* electrons.

• As the number of electrons that constitutes the delocalised sea of electrons increases, so electrical conductivity also increases because there are more electrons to serve as mobile charge carrying particles.

• Hence, electrical conductivity *increases* moving across the Period 3 from sodium to aluminium.


Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium



 Each sodium atom loses one electron to form the delocalised sea of electrons.



Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium



 Each magnesium atom loses *two* electrons to form the delocalised sea of electrons. Magnesium is a better conductor of electricity than sodium.

Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium



 Each aluminium atom loses *three* electrons to form the delocalised sea of electrons. Aluminium is a better conductor of electricity than magnesium.

Silicon

 Silicon is a *metalloid* (an element that has some properties of a metallic element and some properties of a non-metallic element).

 Silicon has a giant covalent or macromolecular structure in which each atom of silicon is covalently bonded to four other atoms of silicon in a tetrahedral arrangement, similar to diamond.



Silicon

 Silicon has a giant covalent structure.



Silicon

 Silicon is a semiconductor because, at room temperature, the four valence electrons of each silicon atom are contained in covalent bonds and are therefore unable to delocalise and function as mobile charge carrying particles.

• At higher temperatures, some of the electrons in the valence shell of a silicon atom are promoted to higher energy levels where they become delocalised throughout the entire structure of the silicon. This gives silicon the ability to conduct electricity, albeit to a small extent.



Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon

• Phosphorus, sulfur, chlorine an argon in Period 3 are *non-metallic elements* that do not conduct electricity, *i.e.* they are *electrical insulators*.

 Phosphorus, sulfur and chlorine (which exist as simple covalent molecules) are unable to conduct electricity because they do not contain any delocalise electrons.
The valence electrons are contained in covalent bonds and stable electron shells.

 In argon (which is monatomic) the valence electrons are arranged in stable electron shells and are not delocalised.



 Melting points generally *increase* from sodium to silicon, and then *decrease sharply* from silicon to phosphorus. Melting points generally decrease from phosphorus to argon, albeit with a small increase from phosphorus to sulfur.



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• Melting points across Period 3.

 In a solid, forces of attraction between the particles hold the particles closely packed together. The particles vibrate about fixed positions in a regular / ordered arrangement.

 When a substance melts, thermal energy is used to weaken the forces of attraction that hold the particles together, thus allowing the particles to travel short distances by sliding over each other.

• The stronger the force of attraction that holds the particles together, the greater the amount of thermal energy that is required to weaken that force of attraction, and the higher the melting point of that substance.

Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium

 Sodium, magnesium and aluminium are all *metallic* elements. They are all composed of positively charged ions (cations) arranged in a crystal lattice, surrounded by a sea of delocalised electrons.

• The sodium cation has a charge of 1+, the magnesium cation has a charge of 2+ and the aluminium cation has a charge of 3+.

• The number of electrons in the delocalised sea of electrons also increases from sodium to aluminium as a sodium atom loses *one* valence electron, a magnesium atom loses *two* valence electrons and an aluminium atom loses *three* valence electrons.

Sodium, Magnesium and Aluminium

• The *electrostatic force of attraction* between the metal cation and delocalised sea of electrons *increases* from sodium to aluminium.

 This is because the charge on the cation is increasing (Na⁺, Mg²⁺, Al³⁺) and the number of electrons present in the delocalised sea of electrons is also increasing from sodium to aluminium.

 An increasing amount of thermal energy is required to weaken this electrostatic force of attraction between the cation and delocalised sea of electrons, hence melting points increases from sodium to aluminium.

Silicon

 Silicon is a *metalloid* (an element that has some properties of a metallic element and some properties of a non-metallic element).

 Silicon has a *giant covalent* or *macromolecular* structure in which each atom of silicon is covalently bonded to four other atoms of silicon in a tetrahedral arrangement, similar to diamond.

 Silicon has a high melting point because all of the atoms are held together by strong covalent bonds which require a large amount of thermal energy to weaken.



Silicon

 Silicon has a giant covalent structure.





Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon

• Phosphorus, sulfur, chlorine and argon are all non-metallic elements. Phosphorus (P_4), sulfur (S_8) and chlorine (Cl_2) exist as simple covalent molecules while argon (Ar) is monatomic.

 Weak *instantaneous dipole-induced dipole forces of attraction* (London dispersion forces) exist between the P₄ molecules, S₈ molecules, Cl₂ molecules and Ar atoms.

 Weak London dispersion forces only require a small amount of thermal energy to weaken and hence these non-metallic elements have low melting points.



Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon



Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon



 Weak London dispersion forces only require a small amount of thermal energy to weaken and hence these non-metallic elements have low melting points.



Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon





Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon

 As the *number of electrons* within a single molecule of the element increases, so the *polarisability* of the molecule increases. This increases the strength of the *instantaneous dipole-induced dipole forces of attraction* (London dispersion forces), meaning that a greater amount of thermal energy is required to weaken them, hence *increasing* the melting points and boiling points.



Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon

• As the covalent radii of the atoms increases, so the *surface area* of the molecules also *increases*. The larger the surface area available for London dispersion forces to operate over, the stronger they become, and the greater the amount of thermal energy required to weaken them, hence leading to *higher* melting points and boiling points.



Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon

 As the relative molecular mass of the molecules increases, so the melting points and boiling points also increase. More energy is required to overcome the inertia* of the molecules with the greater relative molecular mass.

*Note: Inertia is the natural tendency of an object to stay at rest, or remain in motion.



Phosphorus, Sulfur, Chlorine and Argon

 Sulfur has a slightly higher melting point that phosphorus, chlorine and argon due to a difference in the size and relative molecular masses of the molecules.

- The strength of the London dispersion forces <u>decrease</u> and hence the melting points <u>decrease</u> – as the size and relative molecular masses of the molecules <u>decrease</u>:
- Higher Melting Point

• Lower Melting Point

$$S_8 (M_r = 256) > P_4 (M_r = 124) > Cl_2 (M_r = 71) > Ar (A_r = 40)$$



 The force of attraction between oppositely charged particles is given by Coulomb's Law:

$$F = \frac{1}{4 \times \pi \times \varepsilon_0} \times \frac{q_1 \times q_2}{r^2}$$

 $\begin{aligned} F &= \text{force of attraction between oppositely charged particles, N} \\ \epsilon_0 &= \text{permittivity of free space, } C^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ N}^{-1} \\ q_1 &= \text{charge on particle one, C} \\ q_2 &= \text{charge on particle two, C} \\ r &= \text{distance between particle one and particle two, m} \end{aligned}$

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• The force of attraction between oppositely charged particles is given by Coulomb's Law:

$$F \propto \frac{q_1 \times q_2}{r^2}$$

The force of attraction (F) between a proton and an electron in an atom is related to their charge (q₁ and q₂), and it decreases rapidly as the distance between the particles (r) increases (inverse square law).





• The force of attraction (F) between two oppositely charged particles decreases rapidly as the distance between the particles (r) increases – inverse square law.



• A note about effective nuclear charge.

 In an atom with many electrons, the negatively charged electron(s) in the valence shell is simultaneously attracted towards the positively charged nucleus and repelled by the negatively charged electrons of the inner electron shells.





• A note about *effective nuclear charge*.

• The *effective nuclear charge* is the overall charge that an electron(s) in the valence shell of an atom experiences. This takes into account:

→ The number of positively charged protons in the nucleus of the atom (atomic number) that are attracting the negatively charged valence electron(s).

→ The number of negatively charged electrons occupying the inner electron shells that are *repelling* the negatively charged valence electron(s). This is often referred to as the *shielding effect*, as these electrons *shield* the valence electron(s) from attractive force of the positively charged nucleus.

• A note about *effective nuclear charge*.

 $Z_{\rm eff} = Z - S$

Where:

 $Z_{\rm eff}$ = the effective nuclear charge.

Z = the number of positively charged protons in the nucleus of the atom (atomic number).

S = the number of electrons in-between the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged valence electron(s), *i.e.* the number of non-valence electrons, which give rise to the *shielding effect*.



• At analogy of effective nuclear charge:

At a concert, if the group that are performing are not very good (weak nuclear charge) and the audience is large (large shielding effect) then a member of the audience seated at the back (valence electron) is likely to leave (weak electrostatic force of attraction).



Small nuclear charge.

Large amount of shielding. Large distance from the nucleus.

Weak electrostatic force of attraction.

I don't like this type of music, the band sound out of tune! I can't see the stage, there are too many people in the way!

I'm not staying here any longer, I'm leaving!



• At analogy of effective nuclear charge:

At a concert, if the group that are performing are very good (strong nuclear charge) and the audience is small (small shielding effect) then a member of the audience seated at the back (valence electron) is unlikely to leave (strong electrostatic force of attraction).



Large nuclear charge.

Small amount of shielding. Small distance from the nucleus.

Strong electrostatic force of attraction.

This band is great, I really enjoy this type of music! I'm glad that I've got such a good view of the stage. The atmosphere in here is great, I could stay all night.



• A note about *shielding effect*.



 Electrons in the valence shell of the atom are shielded from the positively charged nucleus by negatively charged electrons of the inner electron shells. Shielding results in the valence electrons experiencing a weaker effective nuclear charge.

• A note about *shielding effect*.



 Due to the shielding effect, the electrostatic force of attraction between the positively charged protons in the nucleus and negatively charged electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom is reduced.



 An analogy for shielding effect: A student sitting at the back of a classroom my misbehave because they think that they are shielded from the teacher by all of the other students sitting in between them!












Across a Period (left to right)

 Moving across a Period, there is an increase in the number of positively charged protons in the nucleus of an atom (increase in nuclear charge) but the total number of electron shells remains the same (constant).









В

Across a Period (left to right)



 Moving across a Period, the number of electrons *in-between* the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged electrons in the valence shell of an atom remains the same (constant). This means that the number of electrons available to *shield* the valence electron(s) from the attractive force of the nucleus remains the same (constant).





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Across a Period (left to right)

 Moving across a Period, the number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) increases, but the number of inner shell electrons available to *shield* the valence electron(s) from this increasing nuclear charge remains the same (constant). Electrons in the valence shell of an atom are said to experience an increasing effective nuclear charge – the nuclear charge that the valence electron(s) experience once the *shielding effect* has been taken into consideration.





Across a Period (left to right)

• Due to the increasing effective nuclear charge, the *electrostatic force of attraction* between the nucleus and electron(s) in the valence shell of an atom *increases across a Period* from left to right.















Across a Period (left to right)

 Moving down a Group, there is an increase in the number of positively charged protons in the nucleus (increase in nuclear charge) and also an increase in the total number of electron shells.









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Across a Period (left to right)

 Effective nuclear charge remains almost constant / unchanged moving down a Group.
 This is because the increase in nuclear charge is cancelled / offset by the increasing *shielding effect* due to the increasing number of electrons in-between the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged electrons in the valence shell.

Recall, $Z_{eff} = Z - S$







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Across a Period (left to right)

• Although there is no significant change in the effective nuclear charge moving down a Group, the increasing distance between the nucleus and valence electron(s) is very important. As the distance between the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged electrons in the valence shell *increases*, so the *electrostatic force of attraction* between the nucleus and electrons in the valence shell *decreases down a Group* (the inverse square law).





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Across a Period (left to right)

• Although there is no significant change in the effective nuclear charge moving down a Group, the increasing distance between the nucleus and valence electron(s) is very important. As the distance between the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged electrons in the valence shell *increases*, so the *electrostatic force of attraction* between the nucleus and electrons in the valence shell *decreases down a Group* (the inverse square law).



• Return to Main Menu







• Atomic radii *increase* from the top to the bottom of any Group of the Periodic Table.

• The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) and the number of electron shells around the nucleus of the atom *both increase* down a Group.

 Moving down a Group, there is no significant change in the effective nuclear charge that the electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom experiences, as the increasing nuclear charge and increasing shielding effect cancel each other *e.g.*

> $Z_{\rm eff}~({
> m Na}) = 11 - 10 = +1$ $Z_{\rm eff}~({
> m K}) = 19 - 18 = +1$









• Atomic radii *increase* from the top to the bottom of any Group of the Periodic Table.

• The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) and the number of electron shells around the nucleus of the atom *both increase* down a Group.

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> $Z_{\rm eff}~({
> m Na}) = 11 - 10 = +1$ $Z_{\rm eff}~({
> m K}) = 19 - 18 = +1$









 Moving down a Group, additional protons enter the nucleus, but the additional electrons are too numerous to all fit into the same existing electron shell.

• There is the need to add a new electron shell to the atom in order to accommodate the additional electrons.

• Moving down a Group, atomic radius increases due to the *addition of a new electron shell* to the atom.





- Atomic radii *decrease* from the left-hand-side to the right-hand-side of any Period of the Periodic Table.
 - The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) *increases* across a Period.
- The number of electron shells *remains constant* across a Period and therefore the number of inner shell electrons available to *shield* electrons in the valence shell from the attractive force of the nucleus *remains constant* across a Period.



• Moving across a Period, electrons in the valence shell of the atom experience a greater effective nuclear charge. Z_{eff} (Li) = 3 - 2 = +1 Z_{eff} (Ne) = 10 - 2 = +8

• An increase in effective nuclear charge means that there is an *increase in the electrostatic force of attraction* between the positively charged protons in the nucleus and negatively charged electrons in the valence shell of the atom, causing a steady *decrease in atomic radius across a Period*.

• First ionization energy is the energy required to convert 1 mole (6×10^{23}) of gaseous atoms into one mole (6×10^{23}) of unipositive (1+) gaseous ions.



 Essentially, first ionization energy gives an indication of the amount of energy that is required to remove a single electron from the valence shell of a single atom.



• First ionization energy *decreases down a Group*.



• The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) and the number of electron shells around the nucleus of the atom *both increase* down a Group.

 Moving down a Group, there is no significant change in the effective nuclear charge that the electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom experience, as the increasing nuclear charge and increasing shielding effect cancel each other *e.g.*

$$\begin{split} & Z_{\rm eff}~(\rm Li) = 3-2 = +1 \\ & Z_{\rm eff}~(\rm Na) = 11-10 = +1 \\ & Z_{\rm eff}~(\rm K) = 19-18 = +1 \end{split}$$



• First ionization energy *decreases down a Group*.



• The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) and the number of electron shells around the nucleus of the atom *both increase* down a Group.

 Moving down a Group, there is no significant change in the effective nuclear charge that the electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom experience, as the increasing nuclear charge and increasing shielding effect cancel each other *e.g.*

$$\begin{split} & Z_{\rm eff}~(\rm Li) = 3-2 = +1 \\ & Z_{\rm eff}~(\rm Na) = 11-10 = +1 \\ & Z_{\rm eff}~(\rm K) = 19-18 = +1 \end{split}$$



• First ionization energy *decreases down a Group*.



• The addition of a new electron shell to the atoms is significant because it means that the electron(s) in the valence shell (lost during ionization) is *further from the nucleus*.

• This *reduces the electrostatic force of attraction* between the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged electron(s) in the valence shell (inverse square law).

• Less energy is required to remove an electron from the valence shell of the atom, therefore *first ionization energy decreases down a Group*.



• First ionization energy *increases across a Period*.



• The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) *increases* across a Period.

• The number of electron shells *remains constant* across a Period and therefore the number of inner shell electrons available to *shield* electrons in the valence shell from the attractive force of the nucleus *remains constant* across a Period.

• Moving across a Period, electrons in the valence shell of the atom experience a greater effective nuclear charge. Z_{eff} (Li) = 3 - 2 = +1 Z_{eff} (Ne) = 10 - 2 = +8

• First ionization energy *increases across a Period*.



 The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) *increases* across a Period.

• The number of electron shells *remains constant* across a Period and therefore the number of inner shell electrons available to *shield* electrons in the valence shell from the attractive force of the nucleus *remains constant* across a Period.

• Moving across a Period, electrons in the valence shell of the atom experience a greater effective nuclear charge. Z_{eff} (Li) = 3 - 2 = +1 Z_{eff} (Ne) = 10 - 2 = +8

• First ionization energy *increases across a Period*.



 An increase in effective nuclear charge means that there is an *increase in the electrostatic force of attraction* between the positively charged protons in the nucleus and negatively charged electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom – which are the electrons that are lost during ionization.

 Moving across a Period, more energy is required to remove an electron from the valence shell of an atom, hence *first ionization energy increases across a Period*.



• First ionization energy *decreases* slightly between *Group 2 and Group 13* elements.



- First ionization energy *decreases* slightly between *Group 2 and Group 13* elements.
 - Moving from Group 2 to Group 13, the additional electron enters a *p*-orbital of the same principle quantum shell.

 An electron in a *p*-orbital is *higher in energy* than an electron in the *s*-orbital of the same principle quantum shell.
 Consequently, *less energy* is required to remove the *p*-orbital electron (ionization) compared to an electron in the corresponding *s*-orbital, and first ionization energy *decreases* slightly between Group 2 and Group 13.



• First ionization energy *decreases* slightly between *Group 15* and *Group 16* elements.



• First ionization energy *decreases* slightly between *Group 15* and *Group 16* elements.

• Moving from Group 15 to Group 16, the additional electron must spin pair with an existing electron in one of the atom's *p*-orbitals.

• An *electrostatic force of repulsion* between the two spin paired electrons that share the same *p*-orbital means that *less energy* is required to remove (ionization) an electron from the *p*-orbital, and first ionization energy *decreases* slightly between Group 15 and Group 16.



• Electronegativity Values of the Chemical Elements (Pauling Scale)



• Trends in electronegativity values.





• Definition of *Electronegativity*

→ Electronegativity is a measure of the relative tendency of an atom to attract a shared pair or bonding pair of electrons.

→ Electronegativity values of the chemical elements are given on a scale of 0 to 4, with 4 being the most electronegative (Pauling scale).

→ Electronegativity values are *relative* and do not have any units.



• Electronegativity Values of the Chemical Elements (Pauling Scale)



• Why are no electronegativity values assigned to the Noble Gases (Group 18)?



• Electronegativity Values of the Chemical Elements (Pauling Scale)



• Noble Gases do not form covalent bonds, *i.e.* they do not share pairs of electrons with other atoms.



• How and why does electronegativity change *across a Period*, from the left to the right?

 Moving across a Period from the left-hand-side to the righthand-side, the number of protons in the nucleus of an atom increases (nuclear charge increases), but the number of electron shells remains constant (shielding effect remains constant). Effective nuclear charge increases across a Period.

• The increasing effective nuclear charge will exert a *stronger electrostatic force of attraction* on a shared pair of electrons in the valence shell of the atom.

 As a consequence, electronegativity values *increase while* moving across a Period from the left-hand-side to the right-hand side.



- The increasing effective nuclear charge will exert a stronger electrostatic force of attraction on a shared pair of electrons in the valence shell of the atom.
 - As a consequence, electronegativity values *increase while* moving across a Period from the left-hand-side to the right-hand side.





- The increasing effective nuclear charge will exert a *stronger electrostatic force of attraction* on a shared pair of electrons in the valence shell of the atom.
 - As a consequence, electronegativity values *increase while* moving across a Period from the left-hand-side to the right-hand side.





 Fluorine (with *nine* protons in its nucleus) exerts a stronger electrostatic force of attraction on a shared pair of electrons than oxygen (with only *eight* protons in its nucleus).

$$Z_{\rm eff}$$
 (F) = 9 - 2 = 7
 $Z_{\rm eff}$ (O) = 8 - 2 = 6




 Oxygen (with *eight* protons in its nucleus) exerts a stronger electrostatic force of attraction on a shared pair of electrons than nitrogen (with only *seven* protons in its nucleus).

$$Z_{\text{eff}} (\text{O}) = 8 - 2 = 6$$

 $Z_{\text{eff}} (\text{N}) = 7 - 2 = 5$





 Nitrogen (with seven protons in its nucleus) exerts a stronger electrostatic force of attraction on a shared pair of electrons than carbon (with only six protons in its nucleus).

$$Z_{\rm eff}$$
 (N) = 7 - 2 = 5
 $Z_{\rm eff}$ (C) = 6 - 2 = 4



• How and why does electronegativity change *down a Group*?

• The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) and the number of electron shells around the nucleus of the atom *both increase* down a Group.

 Moving down a Group, there is no significant change in the effective nuclear charge that the electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom experience, as the increasing nuclear charge and increasing shielding effect cancel each other *e.g.*

> Z_{eff} (F) = 9 - 2 = +7 Z_{eff} (C*l*) = 17 - 10 = +7



• How and why does electronegativity change *down a Group*?

• The addition of a new electron shell to the atoms is significant because it means that the electron(s) in the valence shell (shared during covalent bonding) are *further from the nucleus*.

• This *reduces the electrostatic force of attraction* between the positively charged nucleus and a bonding pair of electrons in the valence shell of the atom (inverse square law).

• Moving gown a Group, the relative tendency / ability of an atom to attract a bonding pair of electrons decreases, and so *electronegativity decreases down a Group* of elements.



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements Periodic Trends – Electronegativity increasing electronegativity value

increasing electronegativity value

Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements Periodic Trends – Electronegativity increasing electronegativity value 9p D

increasing electronegativity value



 When two atoms of different elements are held together by a covalent bond, if the difference in electronegativity values of the two elements is greater than ~0.5, then the covalent bond will be *polar*.

 The atom of the element with the greater electronegativity value, because it is pulling the negatively charged bonding pair of electrons *towards* it, will gain a slight negative charge, written as δ– (delta negative).

The atom of the element with the *smaller* electronegativity value, because it has the negatively charged bonding pair of electrons pulled *away* from it, will gain a *slight positive charge*, written as δ+ (delta positive).

Hydrogen = 2.1 Hydrogen = 2.1





Chlorine = 3.0

Hydrogen = 2.1



• Hydrogen Bonding Between Water Molecules



The bond between oxygen (electronegativity value = 3.5) and hydrogen (electronegativity value = 2.1) in water is *polar*.



• Hydrogen Bonding Between Water Molecules



• The oxygen atom attracts the bonding pair of electrons towards itself, away from the hydrogen atom.



• Hydrogen Bonding Between Water Molecules



The oxygen atom gains a slight negative charge written
 δ- (delta negative) while the hydrogen atom gains a slight positive charge, written δ+ (delta positive).



• Hydrogen Bonding Between Water Molecules



 A weak electrostatic force of attraction between the δ+ hydrogen atom of one water molecule and a lone pair of electrons on the δ- oxygen atom of another water molecule creates an intermolecular force of attraction between the two water molecules.

• Hydrogen Bonding Between Water Molecules



• This special intermolecular force of attraction is called a *hydrogen bond*. It is stronger that the van der Waals force of attraction, and requires more energy to overcome, causing water to be a liquid at r.t.p. while other compounds with a simple molecular structure are gases.



 Ionic compounds dissolve in polar solvents such as water.

• The δ + hydrogen atoms of the water molecules are attracted towards the negative anions in the ionic lattice.

 The δ- oxygen atoms of the water molecules are attracted towards the positive cations in the ionic lattice.



Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements

Elements of Third Period	Na Group 1	Mg Group 2	Al Group 13	Si Group 14	P Group 15	S Group 16	Cl Group 17
Atomic Number	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Atomic Radius / nm	0.157	0.136	0.125	0.117	0.110	0.104	0.099
Electro- negativity Value	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.5	3.0
First lonization Energy / kJ mol ⁻¹	494	736	577	786	1060	1000	1260

Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements

Elements of Third Period	Na Group 1	Mg Group 2	A <i>l</i> Group 13	Si Group 14	P Group 15	S Group 16	C <i>l</i> Group 17			
	Number of protons within the nucleus of the atom increases.									
Atomic Number	 Positive charge within the nucleus of the atom increases. 									
	Electrostatic force of attraction between the positive nucleus and negative									
	electrons orbiting the nucleus increases.									
Atomic Radius / nm	0.157	0.136	0.125	0.117	0.110	0.104	0.099			
Electro- negativity Value	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.5	3.0			
First Ionization Energy / kJ mol ⁻¹	494	736	577	786	1060	1000	1260			

Periodic Table of the Chemical Elements



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28th January 2017

 Photographs of the chemical elements taken from Theodore Gray's website: <u>www.periodictable.com</u>
 Information about the uses of the chemical elements taken from:

http://www.rsc.org/periodic-table



