GENERAL CHEMISTRY

Chapter 3 Molecular Geometry and Bonding Theories

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Chemical Bonds, Lewis Symbols, and the Octet Rule

- Chemical bond: attractive force holding two or more atoms together.
- Electrostatic force: positive charge negative charge
- **Covalent bond** results from <u>sharing electrons</u> between 2 atoms. Usually found between nonmetals. (nucleus – electron – nucleus)
- **Ionic bond** results from the transfer of electrons from a metal to a nonmetal. $(M^+ X^-)$ $M \rightarrow$ cation, $X \rightarrow$ anion
- **Metallic bond**: attractive force holding pure metals together. (M⁺ sharing electron of entire system)
- **Hydrogen bond** is a **special type of attractive interaction** (perhaps a variation of a dipole-dipole bond) that exists between an **electronegative atom** and a hydrogen atom bonded to another **electronegative atom** (**N**, **O**, **F**). X ... H-X

Lewis Symbols

- As a pictorial understanding of where the valence electrons are in an atom, we represent the electrons as dots around the symbol for the element.
- The number of electrons available for bonding are indicated by unpaired dots.
- These symbols are called Lewis symbols.
- We generally place the electrons one four sides of a square around the element symbol.

Lewis Symbols

Element	Electron Configuration	Lewis Symbol	Element	Electron Configuration	Lewis Symbol
Li	[He]2s ¹	Li·	Na	[Ne]3s ¹	Na·
Ве	$[He]2s^2$	·Be·	Mg	[Ne]3s ²	·Mg·
В	$[He]2s^22p^1$	٠Ġ٠	Al	$[Ne]3s^23p^1$	·Ál·
C	$[He]2s^22p^2$	٠Ç٠	Si	[Ne] $3s^23p^2$	·Ṣi·
N	$[He]2s^22p^3$	·Ņ:	P	$[Ne]3s^23p^3$	٠Ė:
O	$[He]2s^22p^4$:Ò:	S	[Ne] $3s^23p^4$:Ṣ:
F	$[He]2s^22p^5$	·Ë:	C1	[Ne] $3s^23p^5$	·Çl:
Ne	$[\mathrm{He}]2s^22p^6$:Ņe:	Ar	[Ne] $3s^23p^6$:Är:

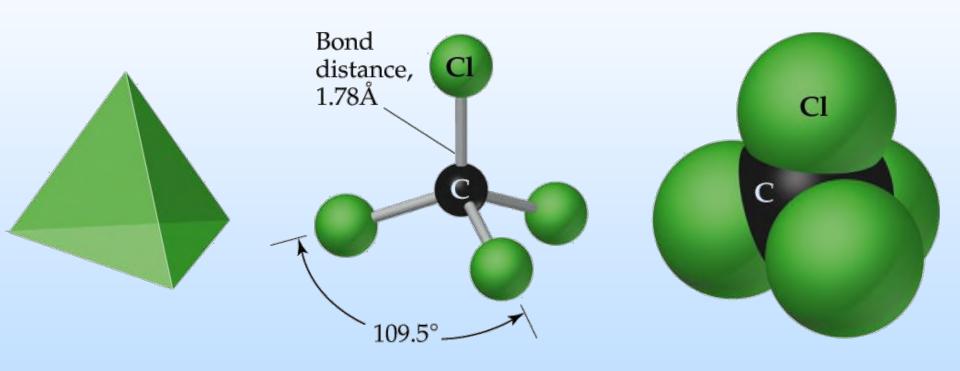
The Octet Rule

- All noble gases except He has an s^2p^6 configuration.
- Octet rule: atoms tend to gain, lose, or share electrons until they are surrounded by 8 valence electrons (4 electron pairs).
- H: 2 e (He)
- Caution: there are many exceptions to the octet rule.
- Main group: ns np

Molecular Shapes

- Lewis structures give atomic connectivity: they tell us which atoms are physically connected to which. However, do not show their overall shape)
- A molecule's shape is determined by its bond angles.
- Consider CCl₄: experimentally we find all Cl-C-Cl bond angles are 109.5°.
 - Therefore, the molecule cannot be planar. (90°)
 - All Cl atoms are located at the vertices of a tetrahedron with the C at its center.

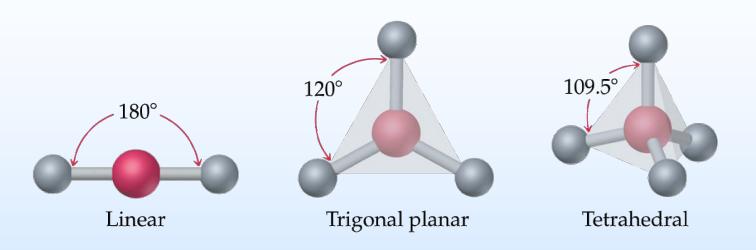
Molecular Shape of CC

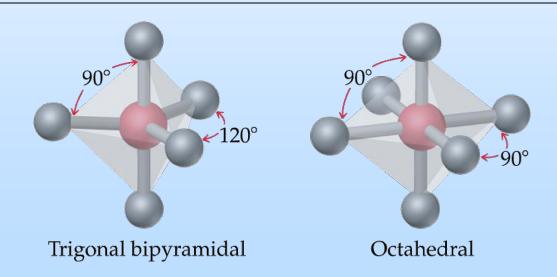


VSEPR Theory

- In order to predict molecular shape, we assume the valence electrons around central atom repel each other. Therefore, the molecule adopts which ever 3D geometry minimized this repulsion.
- Stable: low energy → symmetric
- We call this process Valence Shell Electron Pair Repulsion (VSEPR) theory.
- There are simple shapes for AB₂ and AB₃ molecules (see page 347).

Molecular Shape: Five Fundamental Geometries



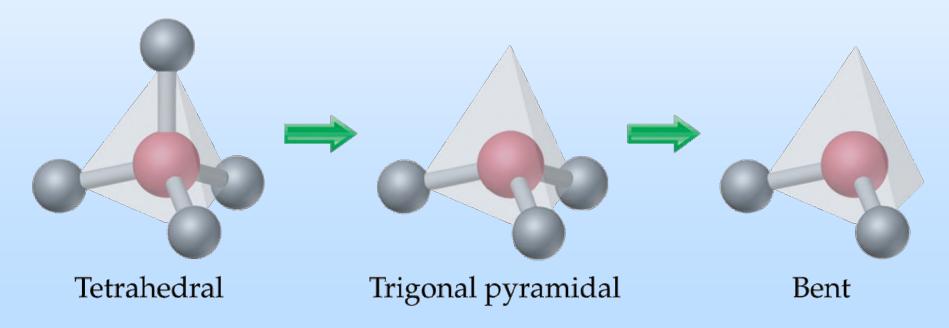


Total pairs of valence electron

- When considering the **geometry about the central atom** (electron domain geometry), we consider all electrons
- Electron around central atom A: 2 groups
 - electron pair that share or connect to B: bonding pairs
 - electron pair just belong to atom A: lone pair or non-bonding
- Electron domain geometry
- When naming the molecular geometry, we focus only on the **positions of the atoms**. (bonding pair)
- electron pair: empty space/nothing there, moving
- Lone pair: no atom → empty or nothing

Naming Molecular Geometry

- When considering the geometry about the central atom, we consider all electrons (lone pairs and bonding pairs).
- When naming the molecular geometry, we focus only on the positions of the atoms.



VSEPR Model

- We define the electron domain geometry by the positions in 3D space of *ALL* electron pairs (bonding or non-bonding).
- The electrons adopt an arrangement in space to minimize e⁻-e⁻ pair repulsion. (symmetric arrangement)
- To determine the shape of a molecule, we distinguish between lone pairs (or non-bonding pairs, those not in a bond) of electrons and bonding pairs (those found between two atoms).

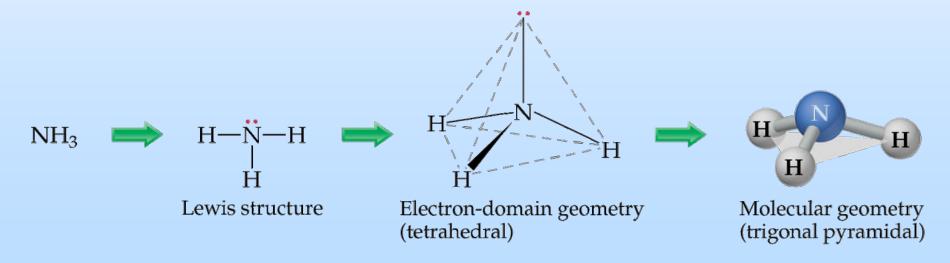
Number of Electron Domains	Arrangement of Electron Domains	Electron-Domain Geometry	Predicted Bond Angles
2	180°	Linear	180°
3	120°	Trigonal planar	120°
4	109.5°	Tetrahedral	109.5°

Number of Electron Domains	Arrangement of Electron Domains	Electron-Domain Geometry	Predicted Bond Angles
5 12	90°	Trigonal bipyramidal	120° 90°
6	90°	Octahedral	90°

VSEPR Model

To determine the electron pair geometry (e domain):

- draw the Lewis structure,
- count the total number of electron pairs around the central atom,
- arrange the electron pairs in one of the above geometries to minimize e⁻-e⁻ repulsion, and count multiple bonds as one bonding pair.



Number of Electron Domains	Electron- Domain Geometry	Bonding Domains	Nonbonding Domains	Molecular Geometry	Example
2	Linear	2	0	B A B	Ö=c=Ö
3	Trigonal planar	3	0	B B Trigonal planar	F: B F:
		2	1	B Bent	
4	Tetrahedral	4	0	B B B B Tetrahedral	H H
		3	1	B A B Trigonal pyramidal	н ^й н
		2	2	B A Bent	H H

Total Electron Domains	Electron- Domain Geometry	Bonding Domains	Nonbonding Domains	Molecular Geometry	Example
5	Trigonal bipyramidal	5	0	B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B	PCl ₅
		4	1	B B B Seesaw	SF ₄
		3	2	T-shaped	CIF ₃
		2	3	A B Linear	XeF ₂

Total Electron Domains	Electron- Domain Geometry	Bonding Domains	Nonbonding Domains	Molecular Geometry	Example
6	Octahedral	6	0	B B B B Octahedral	SF ₆
	Octanicarat	5	1	B B B	BrF ₅
		4	2	Square pyramidal B B B Square planar	XeF ₄

Practice

• Molecular shape and bonding angle:

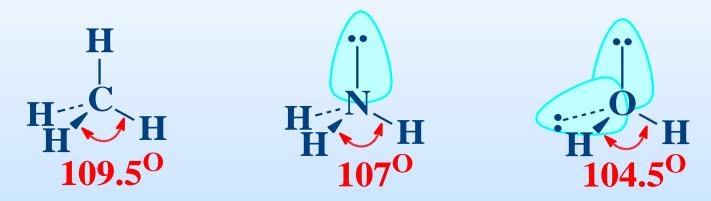
BeF_2	CS_2	PH_3	H_2O	ClO ₂
BCl_3	CH ₄	NO_2^+	SO_2	ClO ₂
	CO ₃ ²⁻	NO_2	SO_3	ClO ₃
		NO_2^-	SO_3^{2-}	ClO ₄
		NH_4^+	SO_4^{2-}	
			H_3O^+	

The Effect of Nonbonding Electrons

- We determine the electron pair geometry only looking at electrons. (electron domain)
- We name the molecular geometry by the positions of atoms. (bonding pair)
- We ignore lone pairs in the molecular geometry.
- All the atoms that obey the octet rule have tetrahedral electron pair geometries.

The Effect of Nonbonding Electrons on Bond Angles

• By experiment, the H-X-H bond angle decreases on moving from C to N to O:



- Since electrons in a bond are attracted by two nuclei, they do not repel as much as lone pairs.
- Therefore, the bond angle decreases as the number of lone pairs increase.

The Effect of Nonbonding Electrons and Multiple Bonds on Bond Angles

• Similarly, electrons in multiple bonds repel more than electrons in single bonds.

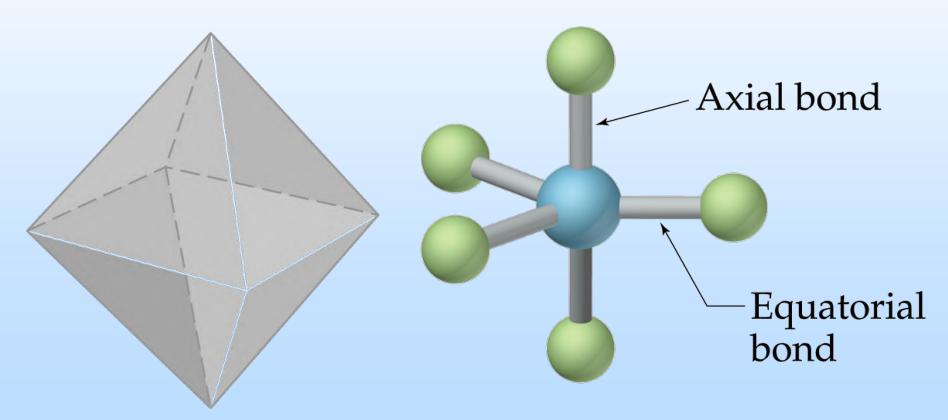
• Single e repel less than a bonding pair/full pair \rightarrow bond angle become bigger NO₂: ONO > 120° NO₂>NO₂

Molecules with Expanded Valence Shells

- Atoms that have expanded octets have AB₅ (trigonal bipyramidal) or AB₆ (octahedral) electron pair geometries.
- For trigonal bipyramidal structures there is a plane containing three electrons pairs. The fourth and fifth electron pairs are located above and below this plane.
- For octahedral structures, there is a plane containing four electron pairs. Similarly, the fifth and sixth electron pairs are located above and below this plane.

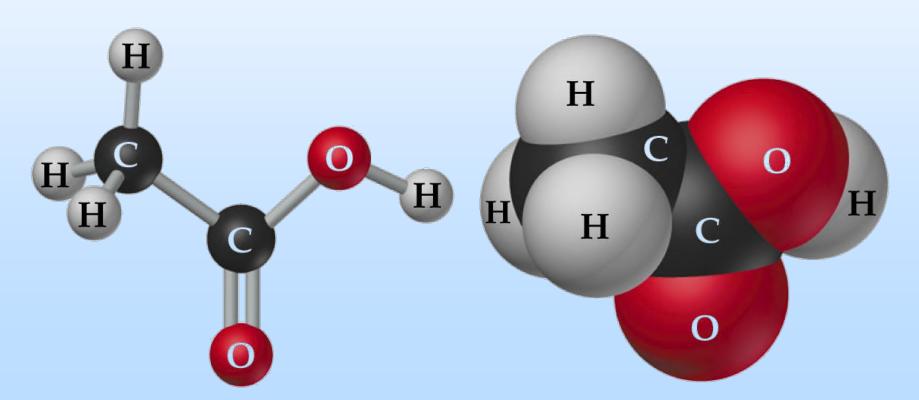
Molecules with Expanded Valence Shells

• To minimize e⁻—e⁻ repulsion, lone pairs are always placed in equatorial positions.



Shapes of Larger Molecules

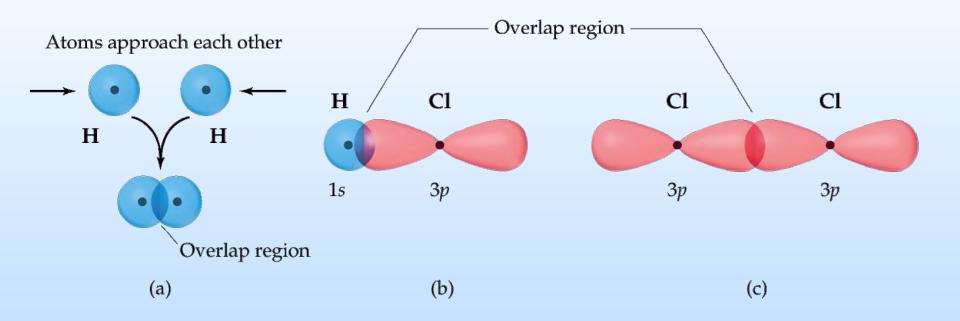
- In acetic acid, CH₃COOH, there are three central atoms (surrounded by at least 2 atoms).
- We assign the geometry about each central atom separately.



Covalent Bonding and Orbital Overlap

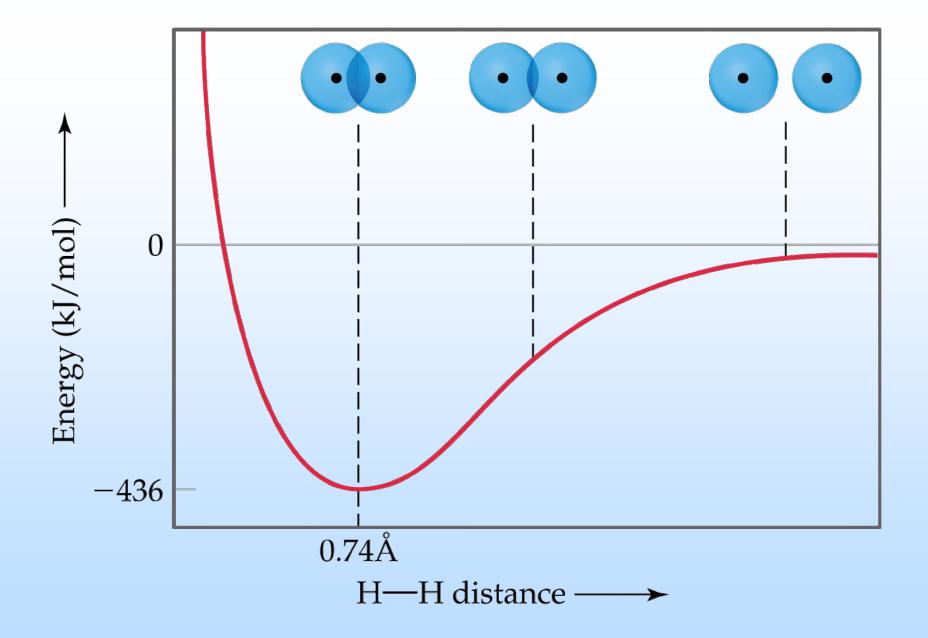
- Lewis structures and VSEPR do not explain how a bond forms.
- How the atom can share the electron
- How do we account for shape in terms of quantum mechanics?
- What are the orbitals that are involved in bonding?
- We use Valence Bond Theory:
 - Bonds form when orbitals on atoms overlap.
 - There are two electrons of opposite spin in the orbital overlap.

Covalent Bonding Illustration



Covalent Bonding and Orbital Overlap Mechanism

- As two nuclei approach each other their atomic orbitals overlap.
- As the amount of overlap increases, the energy of the interaction decreases. (share electron → more stable config.)
- At some distance the minimum energy is reached.
- The minimum energy corresponds to the bonding distance (or bond length).
- As the two atoms get closer, their nuclei begin to repel and the energy increases.
- At the bonding distance, the attractive forces between nuclei and electrons just balance the repulsive forces (nucleus-nucleus, electron-electron).



Hybrid Orbitals

- Atomic orbitals can mix or **hybridize** in order to adopt an appropriate geometry for bonding.
- Hybridization is determined by the electron domain geometry.

sp Hybrid Orbitals

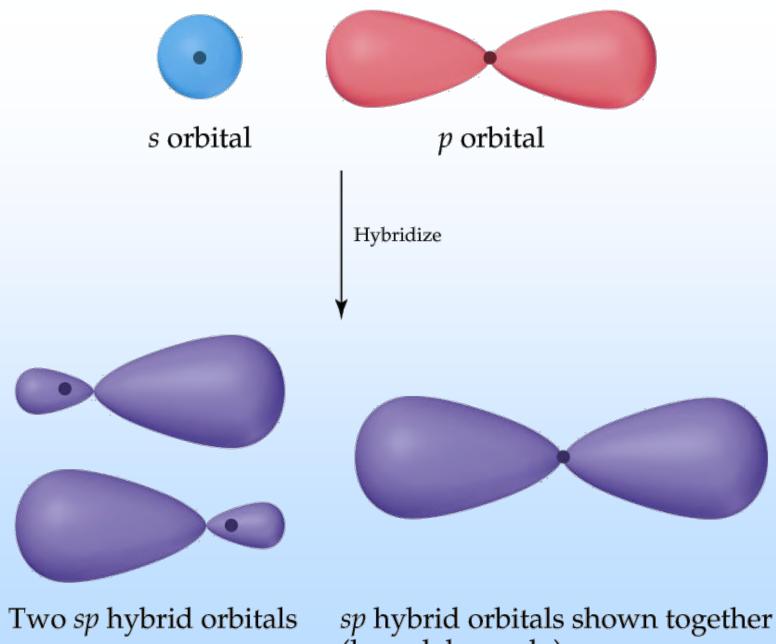
• Consider the BeF₂ molecule (experimentally known to exist):

sp Hybrid Orbitals

- Be has a $1s^22s^2$ electron configuration.
- There is no unpaired electron available for bonding.
- We conclude that the atomic orbitals are not adequate to describe orbitals in molecules.
- We know that the F-Be-F bond angle is 180° (VSEPR theory).
- We also know that one electron from Be is shared with each one of the unpaired electrons from F.

sp Hybrid Orbitals

- We assume that the Be orbitals in the Be-F bond are 180° apart.
 - We could promote an electron from the 2s orbital on Be to the
 2p orbital to get two unpaired electrons for bonding.
 - BUT the geometry is still not explained. (2s and 2p: overlap with F)
- We can solve the problem by allowing the 2s and one 2p orbital on Be to mix or form a hybrid orbital..
- The hybrid orbital comes from an *s* and a *p* orbital and is called an *sp* hybrid orbital.
- The lobes of sp hybrid orbitals are 180° apart.



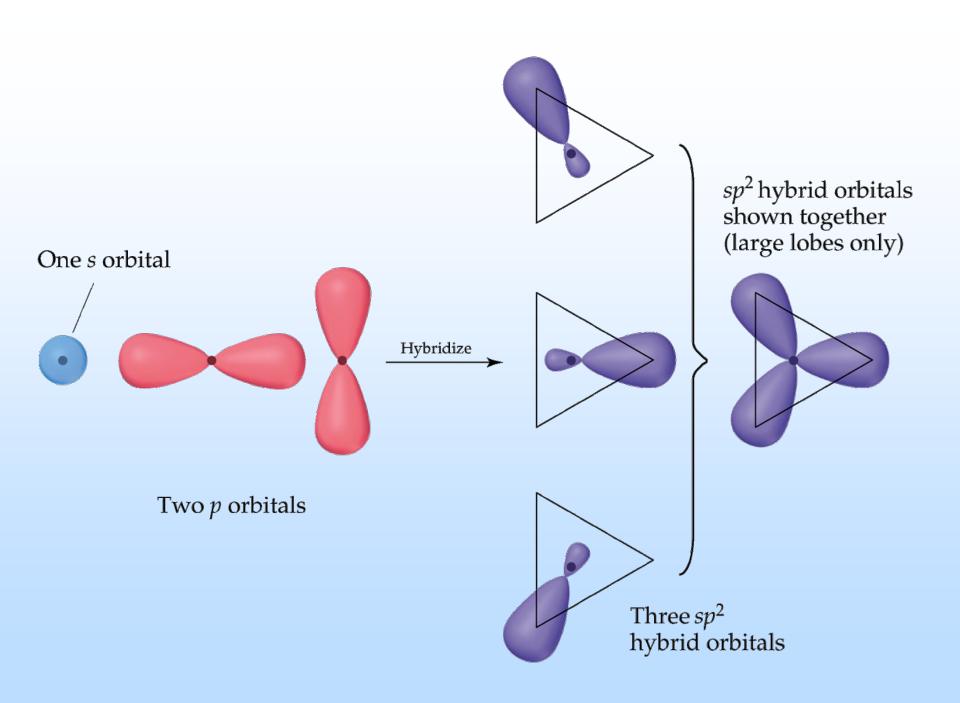
sp hybrid orbitals shown together (large lobes only)

sp Hybrid Orbitals

- Since only one of the Be 2p orbitals has been used in hybridization, there are two unhybridized p orbitals remaining on Be.
- If hybridization: s and p_x , so p_y and p_z remaining (unhybridized), perpendicular to 2 sp hybrid orbital (x-axis)

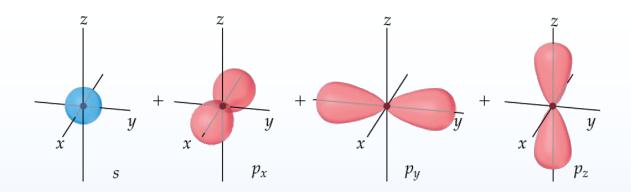
sp² Hybrid Orbitals

- *Important*: when we mix *n* atomic orbitals we must get *n* hybrid orbitals.
- sp^2 hybrid orbitals are formed with one s and two p orbitals. (Therefore, there is one unhybridized p orbital remaining.)
- The large lobes of sp^2 hybrids lie in a trigonal plane.
- All molecules with trigonal planar electron pair geometries have sp^2 orbitals on the central atom.

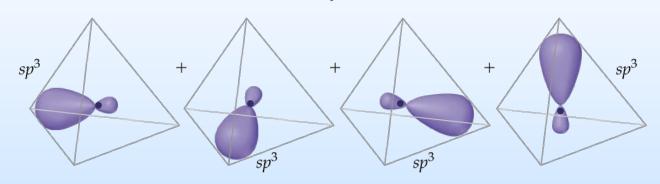


sp³ Hybrid Orbitals

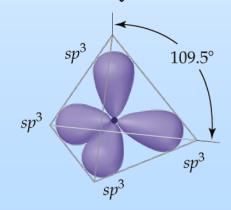
- sp^3 Hybrid orbitals are formed from one s and three p orbitals. Therefore, there are four large lobes.
- Each lobe points towards the vertex of a tetrahedron.
- The angle between the large lobs is 109.5°.
- All molecules with tetrahedral electron pair geometries are sp^3 hybridized.



Hybridize to form four sp^3 hybrid orbitals



Shown together (large lobes only)



VB & VSEPR

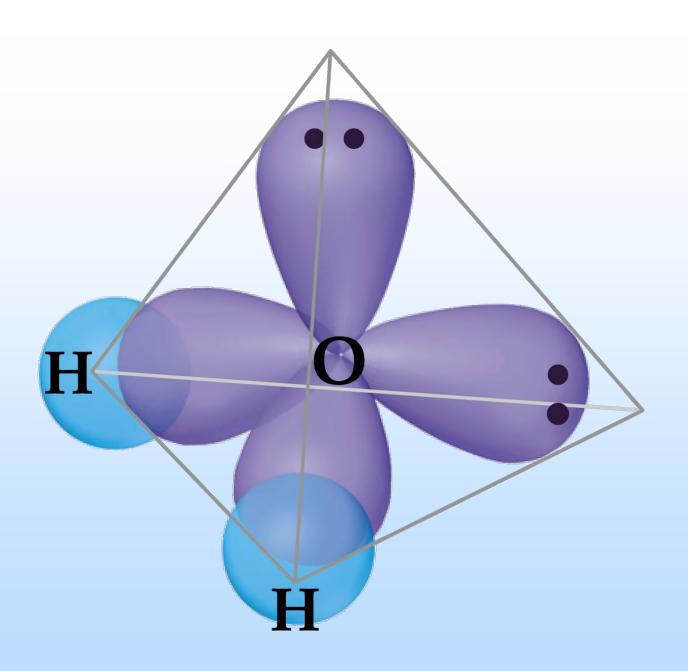
- VSEPR: only explain the shape
- VB: explain the mechanism (share electron)+explain the shape of molecules :
- The same: VSEPR: trigonal planar Hybridization: sp²

Total pairs	Electron domain	Hybridization	
\mathbf{y}	geometry		
2	Linear	sp	
3	Trigonal planar	sp^2	
4	Tetrahedral	sp^3	
5	Trigonal bipyramidal	sp^3d	
6	Octahedral	sp^3d^2	

Practice

• Hybridization of central atoms:

BeF_2	CS_2	PH_3	H_2O	ClO ₂
BCl_3	CH ₄	NO_2^+	SO_2	ClO ₂
	CO ₃ ²⁻	NO_2	SO_3	ClO ₃
		NO_2^-	SO ₃ ²⁻	ClO ₄
		NH_4^+	SO ₄ ²⁻	
			H_3O^+	

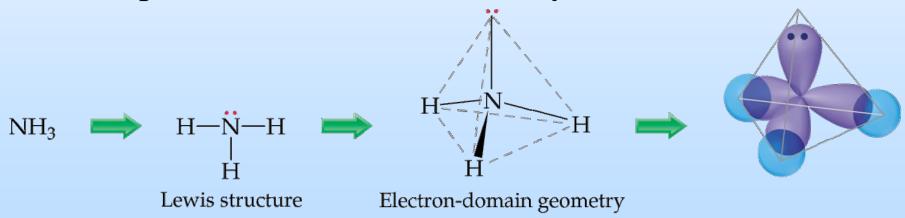


Hybridization Involving d Orbitals

- Since there are only three *p*-orbitals, trigonal bipyramidal and octahedral electron domain geometries must involve *d*-orbitals.
- Trigonal bipyramidal electron domain geometries require sp^3d hybridization.
- Octahedral electron domain geometries require sp^3d^2 hybridization.
- Note the electron domain geometry from VSEPR theory determines the hybridization.

Hybrid Orbitals - Summary

- 1. Draw the Lewis structure (total pairs from formulae).
- 2. Determine the electron domain geometry with VSEPR.
- 3. Specify the hybrid orbitals required for the electron pairs based on the electron domain geometry.
- 4. Total pairs = electron domain = hybridization

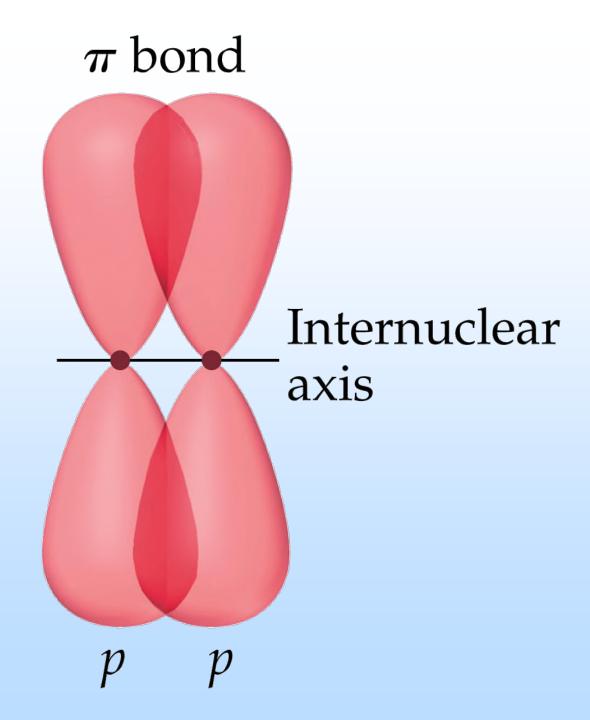


Atomic Orbital Set	Hybrid Orbital Set	Geometry	Examples
s,p	Two sp	180° Linear	BeF ₂ , HgCl ₂
s,p,p	Three sp ²	Trigonal planar	BF ₃ , SO ₃
s,p,p,p	Four sp^3	Tetrahedral	CH ₄ , NH ₃ , H ₂ O, NH ₄ ⁺

Atomic Orbital Set	Hybrid Orbital Set	Geometry	Examples
s,p,p,p,d	Five sp ³ d	Trigonal bipyramidal	PF ₅ , SF ₄ , BrF ₃
s,p,p,p,d,d	Six sp^3d^2	90° 90° Octahedral	SF ₆ , ClF ₅ , XeF ₄ , PF ₆

Multiple Bonds

- σ-Bonds: electron density lies on the axis between the nuclei.
- Strongest, first bond, only one (one axis between two)
- All single bonds are σ -bonds. (First bond formed between two atom is σ)
- π -Bonds: electron density lies above and below the plane of the nuclei.
- A double bond consists of **one** σ -bond and one π -bond.
- A triple bond has **one** σ -bond and two π -bonds.
- Often, the *p*-orbitals involved in π -bonding come from unhybridized orbitals.

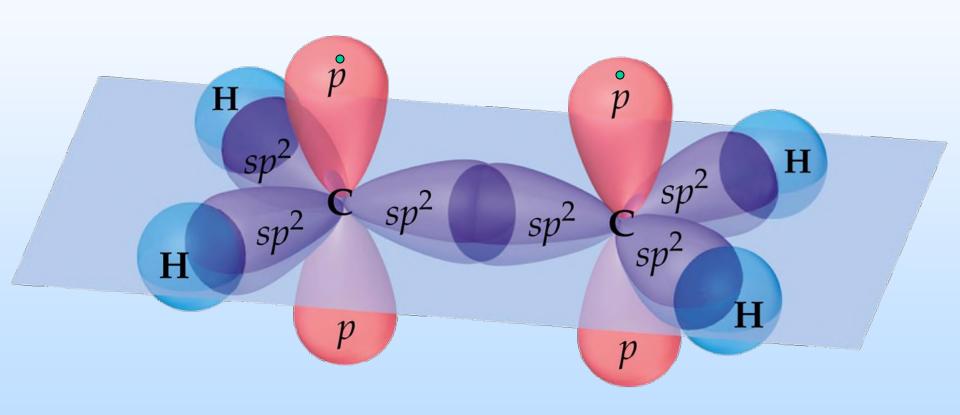


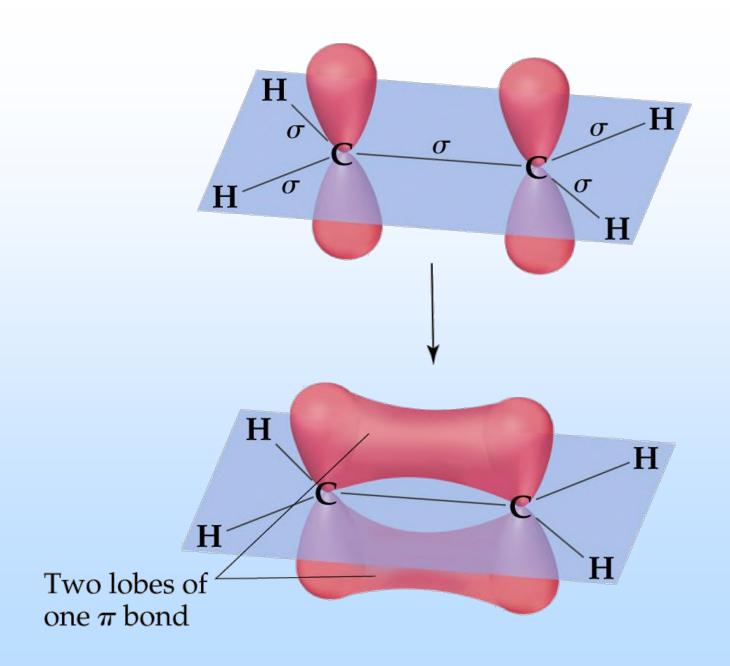
Multiple Bonds

Ethylene, C_2H_4 , has: $H_2C=CH_2$

- 3 atoms around each C (2 H and 1 C),
- C: 4 bonds (no lone pair) and 3 atoms, therefore:
- three σ and one π -bond;
- both C atoms sp² hybridized;
- both C atoms with trigonal planar electron pair and molecular geometries.

Ethylene

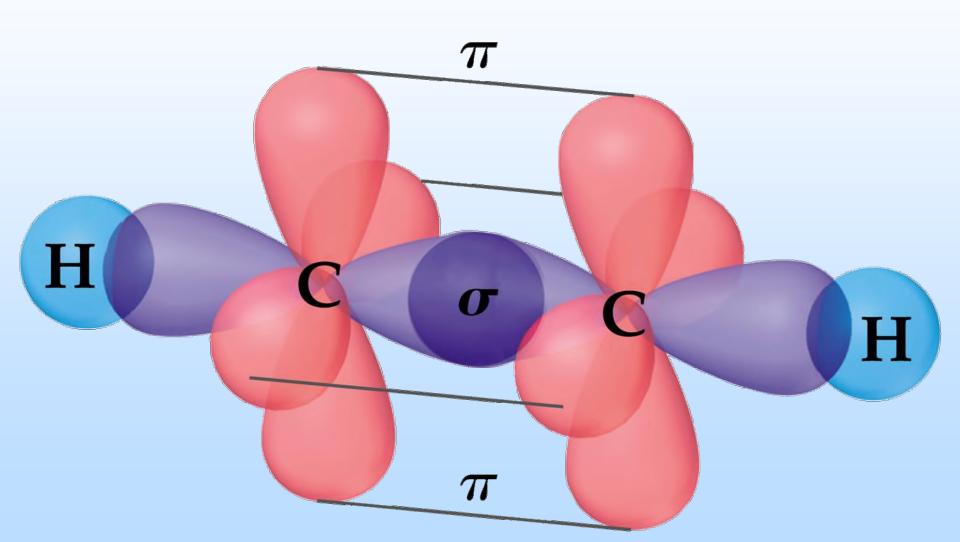




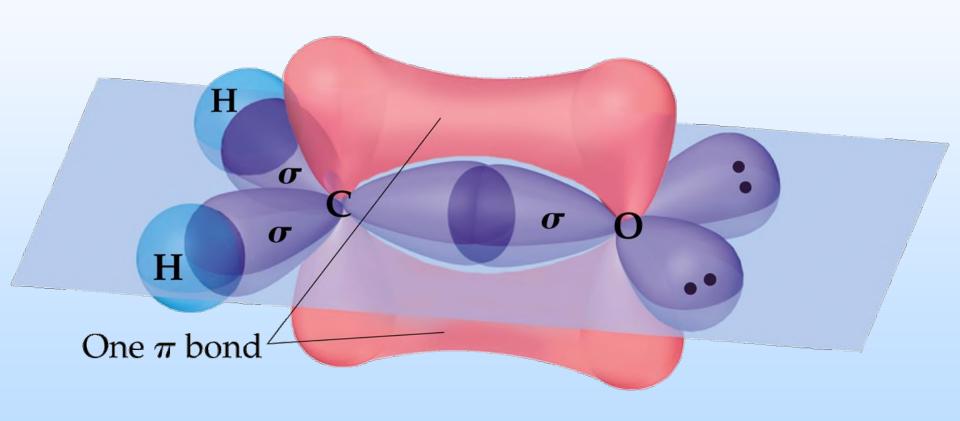
Multiple Bonds

- Consider acetylene, C_2H_2 $HC \equiv CH$
 - Around each C: 2 atoms 1 C and 1 H \rightarrow sp
 - the electron pair geometry of each C is linear;
 - therefore, the C atoms are *sp* hybridized;
 - the sp hybrid orbitals form the C-C and C-H σ -bonds;
 - there are two unhybridized *p*-orbitals;
 - both unhybridized p-orbitals form the two π -bonds;
 - one π -bond is above and below the plane of the nuclei;
 - one π -bond is in front and behind the plane of the nuclei.
- When triple bonds form (e.g. N_2) one π -bond is always above and below and the other is in front and behind the plane of the nuclei.

Acetylene



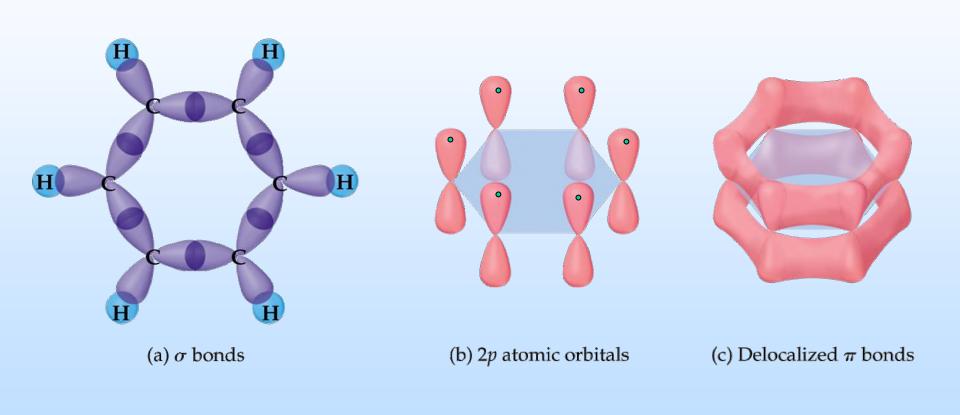




Delocalized π Bonding

- So far all the bonds we have encountered are localized between two nuclei. (position is fixed)
- In the case of benzene: C_6H_6
 - there are 6 C-C σ bonds, 6 C-H σ bonds,
 - each C atom is sp^2 hybridized,
 - and there are 1 unhybridized *p* orbitals on each C atom.
 - 6 unhybridized p orbitals in total

Delocalized π Bonding

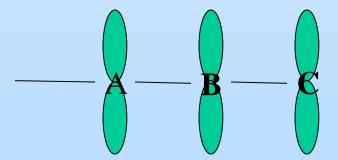


Delocalized π Bonding

- In benzene there are two options for the 3 π bonds
 - localized between C atoms or
 - delocalized over the entire ring (i.e. the π electrons are shared by all 6 C atoms).
- Experimentally, all C-C bonds are the same length in benzene.
- Therefore, all C-C bonds are of the same type (recall single bonds are longer than double bonds).

Multiple Bond - General Conclusions

- Every two atoms share at least 2 electrons. (form bond)
- Two electrons between atoms on the same axis as the nuclei are σ bonds.
- σ-Bonds are always localized.
- If two atoms share more than one pair of electrons, the second and third pair form π -bonds.
- When resonance structures are possible, delocalization is also possible. (CO_3^{2-}) p- σ π π σ - π



Molecular Shape and Molecular Polarity

- When there is a difference in electronegativity between two atoms, then the bond between them is polar.
- It is possible for a molecule to contain polar bonds, but not be polar.
- For example, the bond dipoles in CO₂ cancel each other because CO₂ is linear.

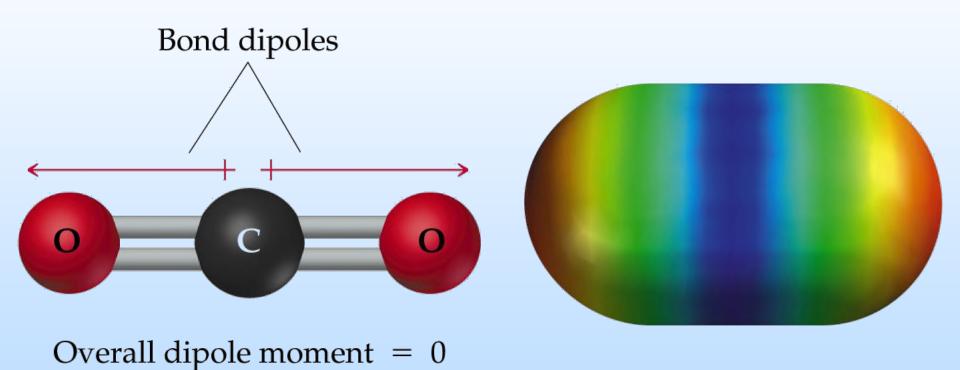
Bonding polarity

- Non-polar bond: Br₂, CH₃-CH₃ (A, B: identical)
- When there is a difference in electronegativity between two atoms
- 2 "ends" of the bond: dipole, polar → dipole moment

$$\mu = Qr$$

$$^{\delta^{+}}A:B^{\delta^{-}}$$

Carbon Dioxide

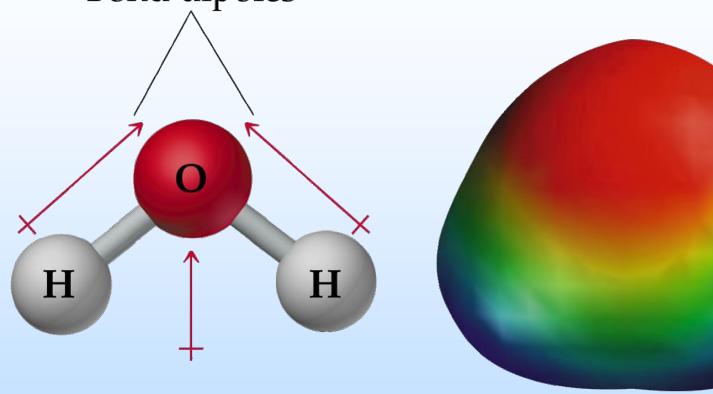


Molecular Polarity of H₂O

- In water, the molecule is not linear and the bond dipoles do not cancel each other.
- Therefore, water is a polar molecule.
- The overall polarity of a molecule depends on its molecular geometry
- Dipole moment of molecule = Σ dipole moment of bonding : $0 \rightarrow$ nonpolar, not $0 \rightarrow$ polar
- moment: vector

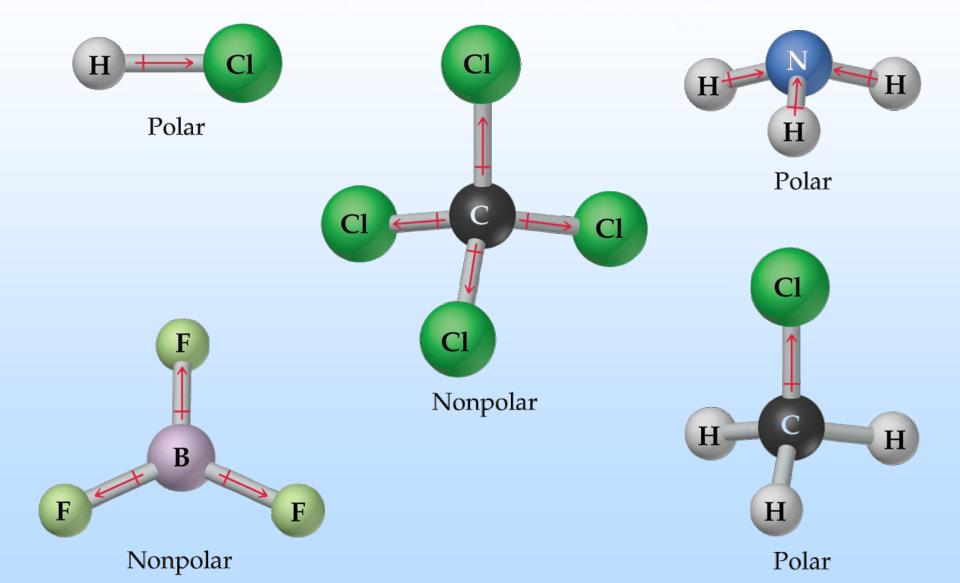
Water

Bond dipoles



Overall dipole moment

Molecular Polarity



Dipole Moments

- Consider HF:
 - The difference in electronegativity leads to a polar bond.
 - There is more electron density on F than on H.
 - Since there are two different "ends" of the molecule, we call HF a dipole.
- **Dipole moment**, μ, is the magnitude of the dipole:

$$\mu = Qr$$

where Q is the magnitude of the charges.

• Dipole moments are measured in debyes, D.

Practice

• Polarity of the following molecules

CS_2	PH_3	H_2O	ClO ₂
CH_4	COS	SO_2	
cis-CHCl=CHCl		SO_3	
BeF_2			
BCl ₃			

Bond Enthalpies (kJ/mol)

Single Bonds

С—Н	413	N—H	391	0-н	463	F-F	155
C-C	348	N-N	163	0-0	146		
C-N	293	N-O	201	O-F	190	Cl—F	253
c-o	358	N-F	272	O-CI	203	Cl—Cl	242
C-F	485	N-Cl	200	O-I	234		
C-CI	328	N—Br	243			Br-F	237
C-Br	276			s-H	339	Br-Cl	218
C-I	240	H-H	436	S—F	327	Br-Br	193
c-s	259	H-F	567	s—cl	253		
		H—Cl	431	S—Br	218	I—Cl	208
Si—H	323	H-Br	366	s—s	266	I—Br	1 7 5
Si—Si	226	H-I	299			I—I	151
Si—C	301						
Si—O	368						
Si—Cl	464						

Multiple Bonds

C=C	614	N=N	418	O_2	495	
C = C	839	$N \equiv N$	941			
C=N	615	N=O	607	s=0	523	
$C \equiv N$	891			s=s	418	
c=0	799					
C≡O	1072					

Strengths of Covalent Bonds

Bond	Bond Length (Å)	Bond	Bond Length (Å)
C-C	1.54	N-N	1.47
C = C	1.34	N=N	1.24
$C \equiv C$	1.20	$N \equiv N$	1.10
C-N	1.43	N-O	1.36
C=N	1.38	N=O	1.22
$C \equiv N$	1.16		
		o-o	1.48
C-O	1.43	o=0	1.21
C=O	1.23		
C≡O	1.13		

Molecular Orbitals

- Some aspects of bonding are not explained by Lewis structures, VSEPR theory and Valence Bond theory (hybridization). (E.g. why does O₂ interact with a magnetic field?; Why are some molecules colored?)
- For these molecules, we use **Molecular Orbital (MO)** Theory.
- Just as electrons in atoms are found in atomic orbitals, electrons in molecules are found in molecular orbitals.

MO Theory

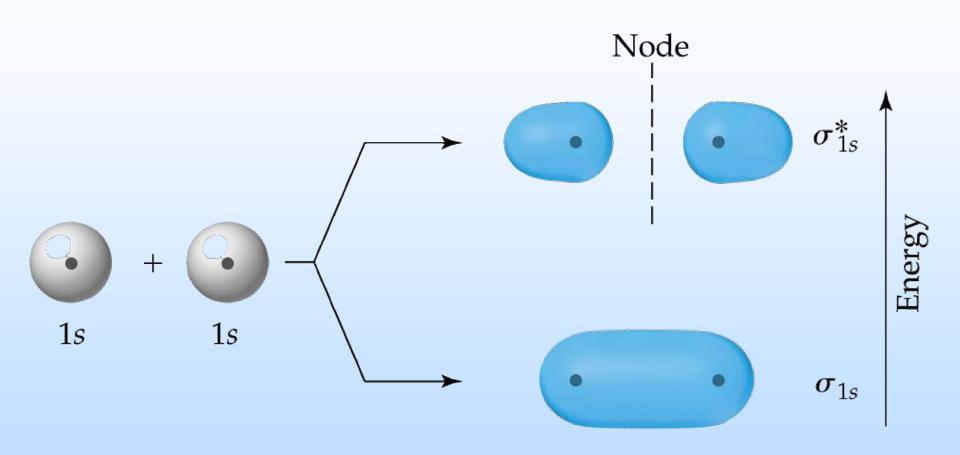
• Valence Bond: molecule is the combination of separate atoms, connect the atom by overlapping the orbital

- Molecular orbitals: single system (multi nuclei, multi e)
 - each contain a maximum of two electrons;
 - have definite energies;
 - can be visualized with contour diagrams;
 - are associated with an entire molecule.
- When two AOs overlap, two MOs form.

The Hydrogen Molecule

- Therefore, 1s (H) + 1s (H) must result in two MOs for H₂:
 - one has electron density between nuclei (bonding MO);
 - one has little electron density between nuclei (antibonding MO).
- MOs resulting from s orbitals are σ MOs.
- σ (bonding) MO is lower energy than σ^* (antibonding) MO.

The Hydrogen Molecule



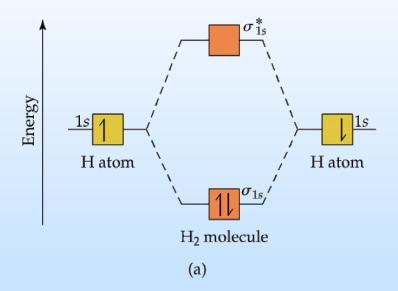
H atomic orbitals

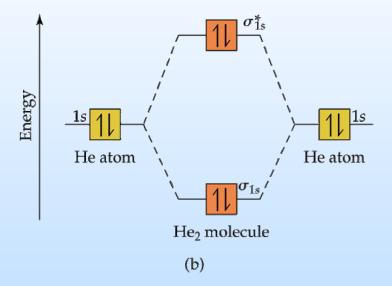
H₂ molecular orbitals

The Hydrogen Molecule

- Energy level diagram or MO diagram shows the energies and electrons in an orbital.
- The total number of electrons in all atoms are placed in the MOs starting from lowest energy (σ_{1s}) and ending when you run out of electrons.
 - Note that electrons in MOs have opposite spins.
- H₂ has two bonding electrons.
- He₂ has two bonding electrons and two antibonding electrons.

The Hydrogen Molecule





Bond Order

Define

Bond order = $\frac{1}{2}$ (bonding electrons - antibonding electrons)

- Bond order = 1 for single bond.
- Bond order = 2 for double bond.
- Bond order = 3 for triple bond.
- Fractional bond orders are possible.
- For H₂
- Bond order = $\frac{1}{2}(2-0)=1$

Therefore, H₂ has a single bond.

Bond Order

• For He₂

Bond order =
$$\frac{1}{2}(2-2)=0$$

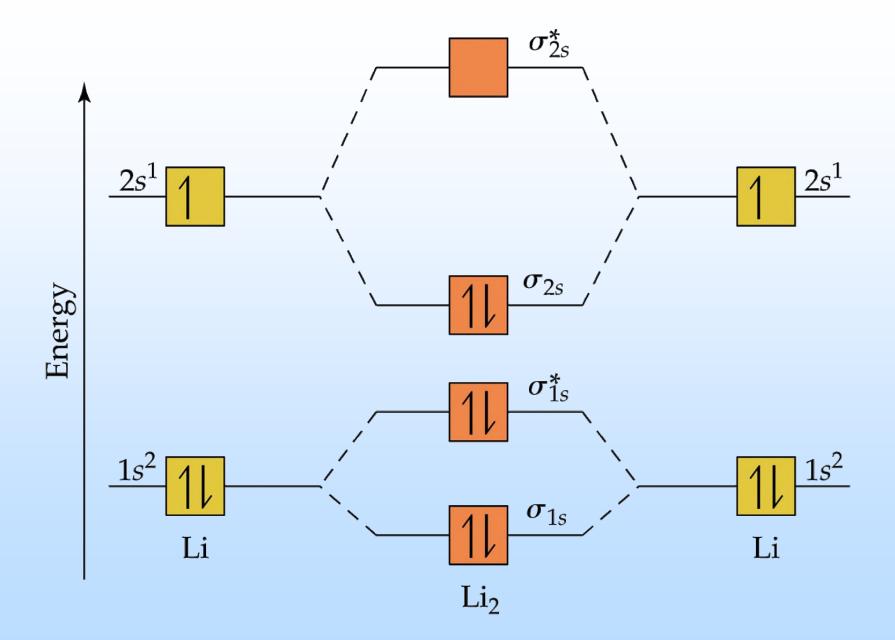
• Therefore He₂ is not a stable molecule

Second-Row Diatomic Molecules

- We look at homonuclear diatomic molecules (e.g. Li₂, Be₂, B₂ etc.).
- AOs combine according to the following rules:
 - The number of MOs = number of AOs;
 - AOs of similar energy combine;
 - As overlap increases, the energy of the MO decreases;
- Pauli: each MO has at most two electrons;
- Hund: for degenerate orbitals, each MO is first occupied singly.

Molecular Orbitals for Li₂ and Be₂

- Each 1s orbital combines with another 1s orbital to give one σ_{1s} and one σ_{1s}^* orbital, both of which are occupied (since Li and Be have $1s^2$ electron configurations).
- Each 2s orbital combines with another 2s orbital, two give one σ_{2s} and one σ_{2s}^* orbital.
- The energies of the 1s and 2s orbitals are sufficiently different so that there is no cross-mixing of orbitals (i.e. we do not get 1s + 2s).



Molecular Orbitals for Li₂ and Be₂

- There are a total of 6 electrons in Li_2 :
 - 2 electrons in σ_{1s} ;
 - 2 electrons in σ^*_{1s} ;
 - 2 electrons in σ_{2s} ; and
 - 0 electrons in σ^*_{2s} .

Bond order =
$$\frac{1}{2}(4-2)=1$$

• Since the 1s AOs are completely filled, the σ_{1s} and σ^*_{1s} are filled. We generally ignore core electrons in MO diagrams.

Molecular Orbitals for Li₂ and Be₂

- There are a total of 8 electrons in Be₂:
 - 2 electrons in σ_{1s} ;
 - 2 electrons in σ^*_{1s} ;
 - 2 electrons in σ_{2s} ; and
 - 2 electrons in σ^*_{2s} .

Bond order =
$$\frac{1}{2}(4-4)=0$$

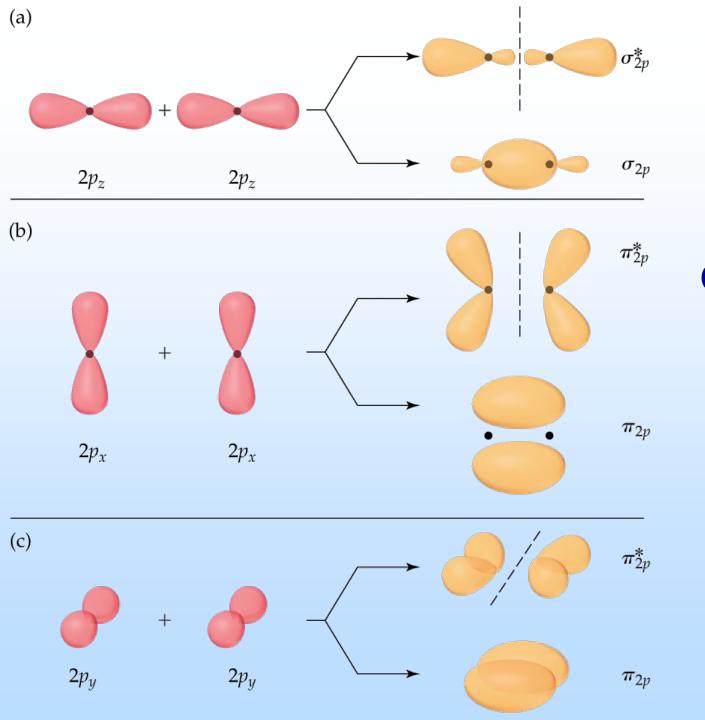
• Since the bond order is zero, Be₂ does not exist.

Molecular Orbitals from 2p Atomic Orbitals

- There are two ways in which two *p* orbitals overlap:
 - end-on so that the resulting MO has electron density on the axis between nuclei (i.e. σ type orbital);
 - sideways so that the resulting MO has electron density above and below the axis between nuclei (i.e. π type orbital).

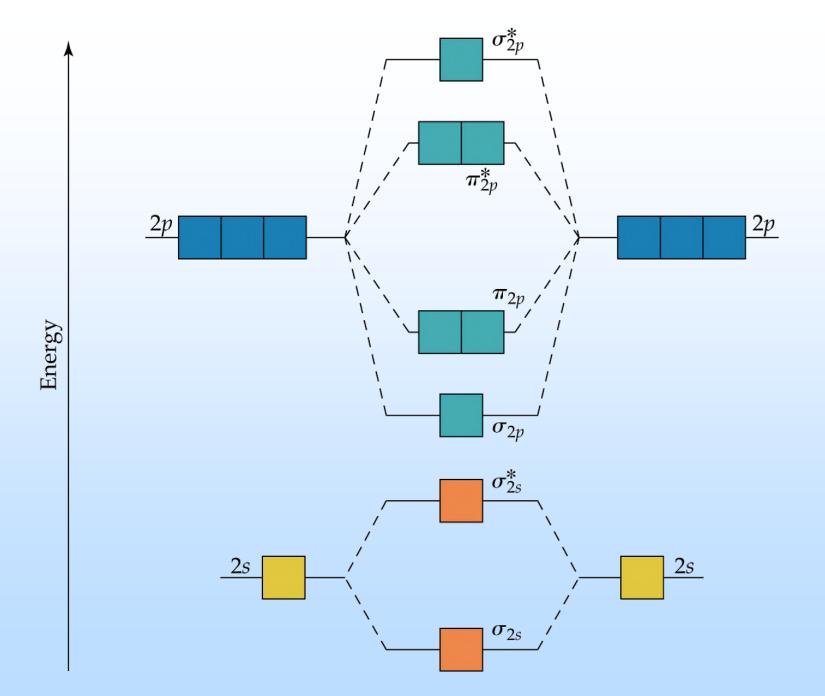
Molecular Orbitals from 2p Atomic Orbitals

- The six *p*-orbitals (two sets of 3) must give rise to 6 MOs:
 - σ , σ^* , π , π^* , π , and π^* .
 - Therefore there is a maximum of 2 π bonds that can come from p-orbitals.
- The relative energies of these six orbitals can change.



Molecular Orbitals from 2p Atomic Orbitals

- 2s Orbitals are lower in energy than 2p orbitals so σ_{2s} orbitals are lower in energy than σ_{2p} orbitals.
- There is greater overlap between $2p_z$ orbitals (they point directly towards one another) so the σ_{2p} is MO is lower in energy than the π_{2p} orbitals.
- There is greater overlap between $2p_z$ orbitals so the σ^*_{2p} is MO is higher in energy than the π^*_{2p} orbitals.
- The π_{2p} and π^*_{2p} orbitals are doubly degenerate.



- As the atomic number decreases, it becomes more likely that a 2s orbital on one atom can interact with the 2p orbital on the other.
 - As the 2s-2p interaction increases, the σ_{2s} MO lowers in energy and the σ_{2p} orbital increases in energy.
- For B_2 , C_2 and N_2 the σ_{2p} orbital is higher in energy than the π_{2p} .
- For O_2 , F_2 and Ne_2 the σ_{2p} orbital is higher in energy than the π_{2p} .

- Once the relative orbital energies are known, we add the required number of electrons to the MOs, taking into account Pauli's exclusion principle and Hund's rule.
 - As bond order increases, bond length decreases.
 - As bond order increases, bond energy increases.

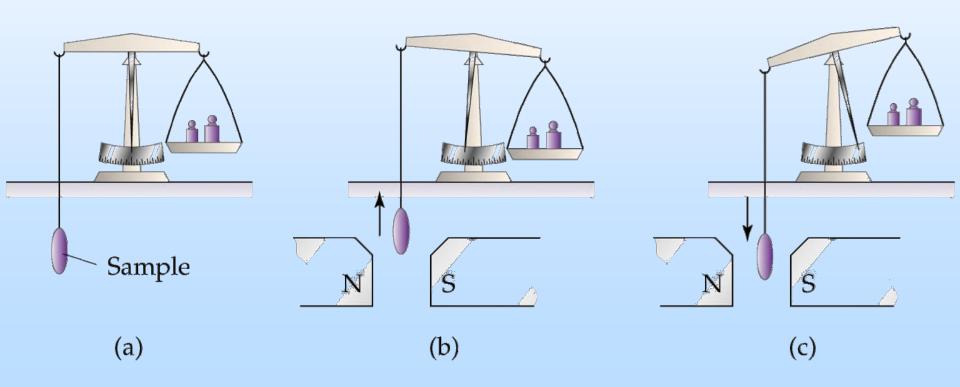
	Large 2s-2p interaction			Small 2s-2p interaction			
		B ₂	C ₂	N ₂	O ₂	F ₂	Ne ₂
	σ_{2p}^*				σ _{2p} *		11
	π_{2p}^*				π_{2p}^* 1 1	11 11	11 11
	σ_{2p}			11	π_{2p} [11 11]	11 11	11 11
	π_{2p}	1 1	11 11	11 11	σ_{2p} 1	11	11
	σ_{2s}^*	11	11	11	σ_{2s}^* $\mathbb{1}$	11	11
	$\sigma_{2\mathrm{s}}$	11	11	11	σ_{2s} $\mathbb{1}$	11	11
Bond order Bond enthalpy (kJ/n Bond length (Å) Magnetic behavior	mol)	1 290 1.59 Paramagnetic	2 620 1.31 Diamagnetic	3 941 1.10 Diamagnetic	2 495 1.21 Paramagnetic	1 155 1.43 Diamagnetic	0 _ _ _

Electron Configurations and Molecular Properties

- Two types of magnetic behavior:
 - paramagnetism (unpaired electrons in molecule): strong attraction between magnetic field and molecule;
 - diamagnetism (no unpaired electrons in molecule): weak repulsion between magnetic field and molecule.
- Magnetic behavior is detected by determining the mass of a sample in the presence and absence of magnetic field:

Electron Configurations and Molecular Properties

- large increase in mass indicates paramagnetism,
- small decrease in mass indicates diamagnetism.



Electron Configurations and Molecular Properties

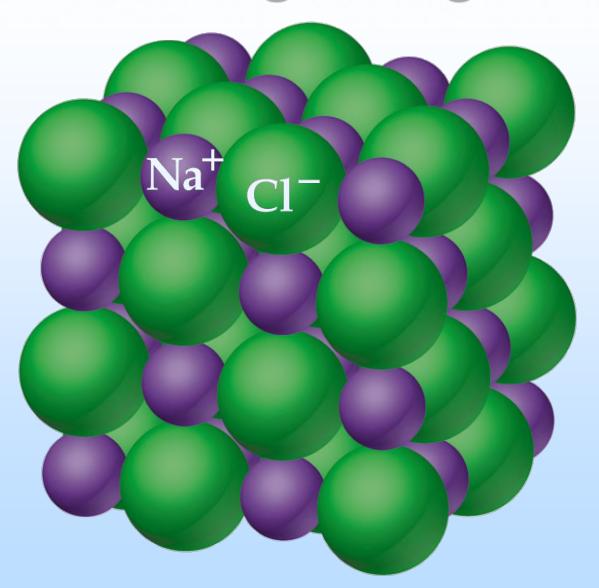
- Experimentally O_2 is paramagnetic.
- The Lewis structure for O₂ shows no unpaired electrons.
- The MO diagram for O_2 shows 2 unpaired electrons in the π^*_{2p} orbital.
- Experimentally, O₂ has a short bond length (1.21 Å) and high bond dissociation energy (495 kJ/mol). This suggests a double bond.

Electron Configurations and Molecular Properties

The MO diagram for O_2 predicts both paramagnetism and the double bond (bond order = 2).

- The reaction is violently exothermic.
- We infer that the NaCl is more stable than its constituent elements. Why?
- Na has lost an electron to become Na⁺ and chlorine has gained the electron to become Cl⁻. Note: Na⁺ has an Ne electron configuration and Cl⁻ has an Ar configuration.
- That is, both Na⁺ and Cl⁻ have an octet of electrons surrounding the central ion.

Ionic Bonding Arrangement



Energetics of Ionic Bond Formation

- Lattice energy: the energy required to completely separate an ionic solid into its gaseous ions.
- Lattice energy depends on the charges on the ions and the sizes of the ions:

$$E_l = \kappa \frac{Q_1 Q_2}{d}$$

κ is a constant (8.99 x 10 9 J·m/C²), Q_1 and Q_2 are the charges on the ions, and d is the distance between ions.

Compound	Lattice Energy (kJ/mol)	Compound	Lattice Energy (kJ/mol)
LiF	1030	$MgCl_2$	2326
LiCl	834	SrCl ₂	2127
LiI	730		
NaF	910	MgO	3795
NaCl	788	CaO	3414
NaBr	732	SrO	3217
NaI	682		
KF	808	ScN	7547
KCl	701		
KBr	671		
CsCl	657		
CsI	600		

- Anions and cations are held together by opposite charges (+ and -)
- I lonic compounds are called salts.
- Simplest ratio of elements in an ionic compound is called the formula unit.
- The bond is formed through the transfer of electrons (lose and gain)
- Electrons are transferred to achieve noble gas configuration.

- Metal ne → cation (+)
- Non-metal + ne → anion (-)
- Held together by opposite charge
- Bond not fixed position
- Delocalized

NaCl: Na - Cl

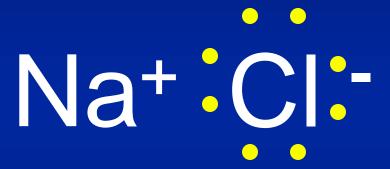
Ionic Compounds

- 1) Also called SALTS
- 2) Made from: a CATION with an ANION (or literally from a *metal* combining with a nonmetal)



The metal (sodium) tends to lose its one electron from the outer level.

The nonmetal (chlorine) needs to gain one more to fill its outer level, and will accept the one electron that sodium is going to lose.



Note: Remember that NO DOTS are now shown for the cation!

Lets do an example by combining calcium and phosphorus:

Ca



All the electrons must be accounted for, and **each** atom will have a noble gas configuration (which is stable).



Ca²⁺



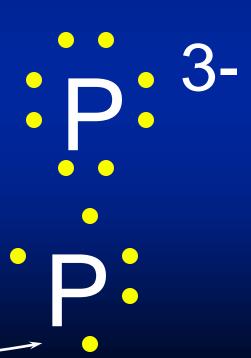
Ca²⁺ P

Ca²⁺



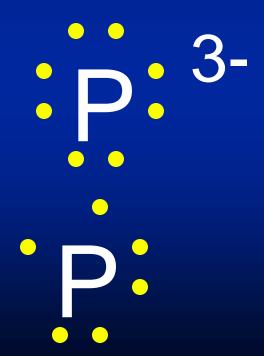
Ca

Ca²⁺



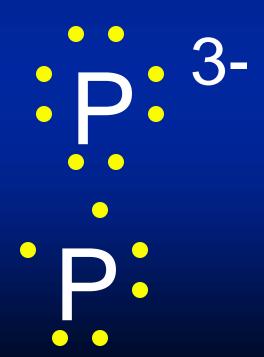
Ca²⁺

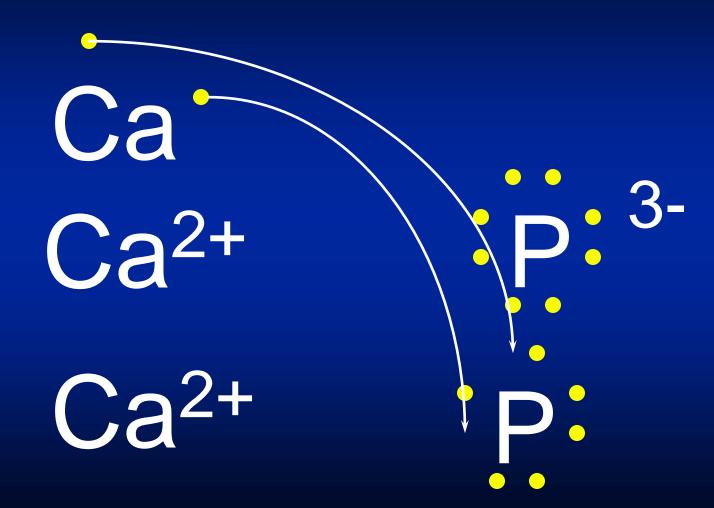
Ca²⁺



Ca²⁺

Ca²⁺

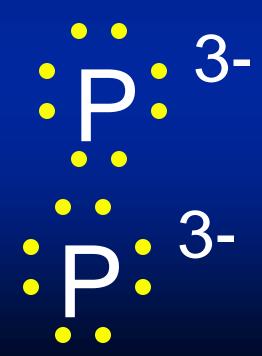




Ca²⁺

Ca²⁺

Ca²⁺



This is a **chemical formula**, which shows the <u>kinds</u> and <u>numbers of atoms</u> in the smallest representative particle of the substance.

For an ionic compound, the smallest representative particle is called a:

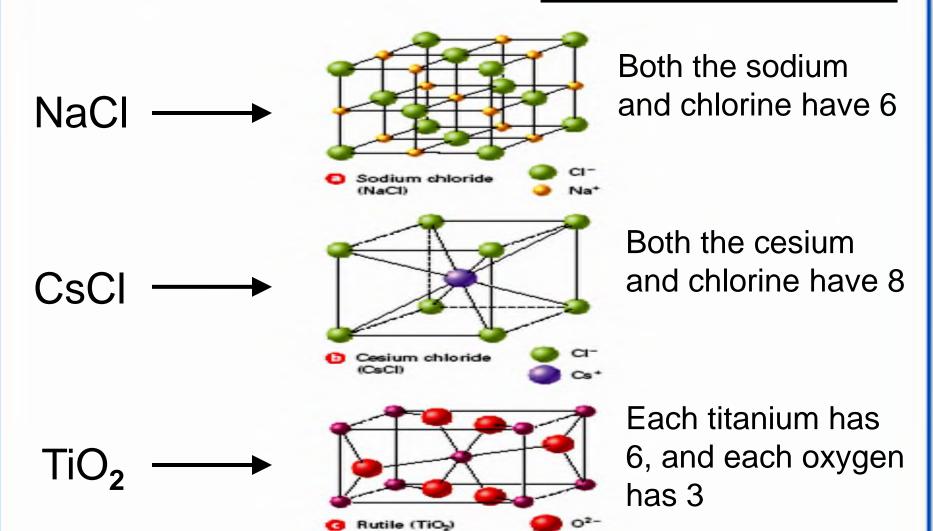
Formula Unit (not a molecule)

Properties of Ionic Compounds

- 1. Crystalline solids a regular repeating arrangement of ions in the solid:
- 2. NaCl: ratio (not molecule)
 - lons are <u>strongly</u> bonded together.
 - Structure is rigid.
- 2. High melting points
- Coordination number- number of ions of opposite charge surrounding it

Figure 7.10 Crystalline Structures of Ionic Compounds - Page 198

Coordination Numbers:

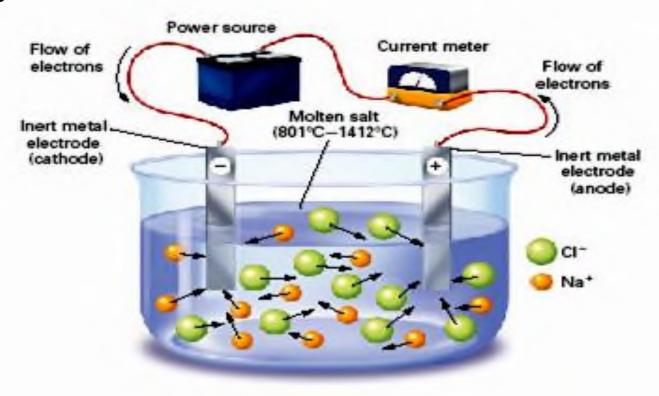


Do they Conduct?

- Conducting electricity means allowing charges to move.
- In a solid, the ions are locked in place.
- I lonic solids are insulators.
- When melted, the ions can move around.
- 3. Melted ionic compounds conduct.
 - NaCl: must get to about 800 °C.
 - Dissolved in water, they also conduct (free to move in aqueous solutions)

Figure 7.11 Electrical Conductivity of Molten Sodium Chloride

The ions are <u>free to move</u> when they are **molten** (or in **aqueous solution**), and thus they are able to conduct the electric current.

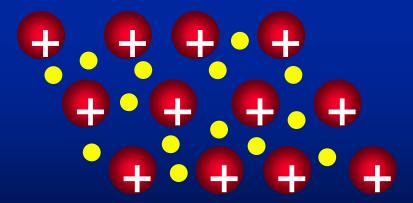


Metallic Bonds are...

- How metal atoms are held together in the solid.
- Metals hold on to their valence electrons very weakly.
- Metal ne → metal cation
- Think of them as positive ions (cations) floating in a sea of electrons: Fig. 7.12, p.201

Sea of Electrons

- Electrons are free to move through the solid.
- Metals conduct electricity.



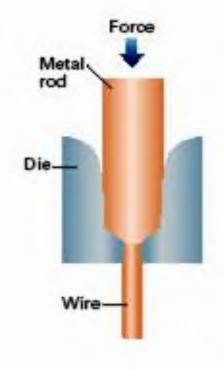
Metals are Malleable

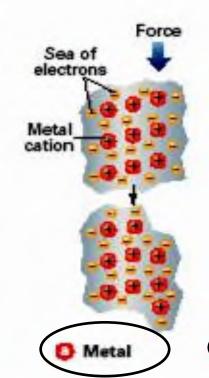
- I Hammered into shape (bend).
- Also ductile drawn into wires.
- Both malleability and ductility explained in terms of the *mobility* of the valence electrons

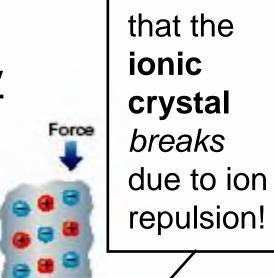
Figure 7.12 - Page 201 Metal Rod Forced Through Die

Due to the mobility of the valence electrons, metals have:

1) Ductility and 2) Malleability



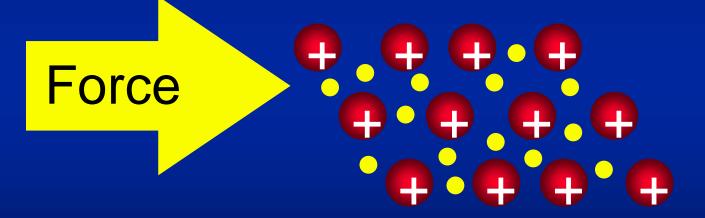




Strong repulsions

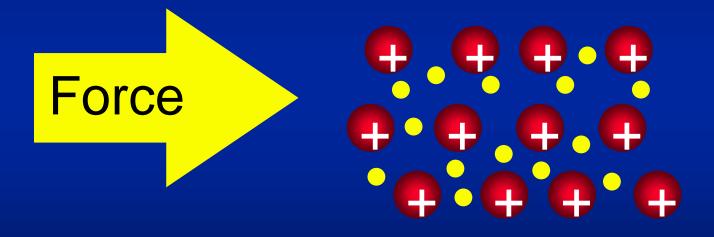
Notice

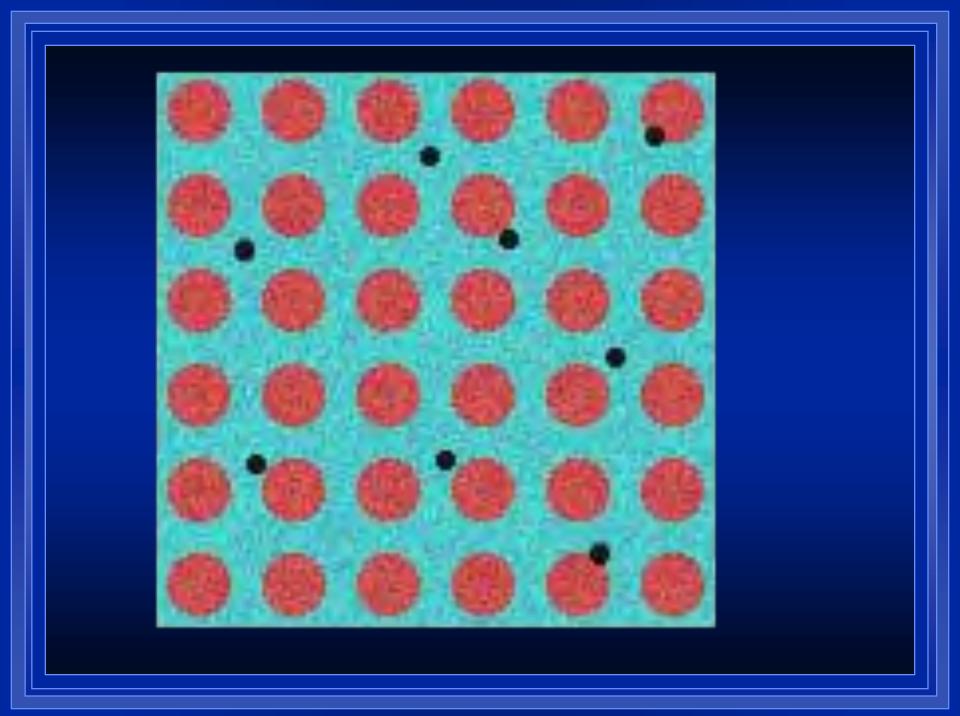
Malleable



Malleable

Mobile electrons allow atoms to slide by, sort of like ball bearings in oil.





Crystalline structure of metal

- If made of one kind of atom, metals are among the simplest crystals; very compact & orderly
- Note Fig. 7.14, p.202 for types:
- 1. Body-centered cubic:
 - –every atom (except those on the surface) has 8 neighbors
 - -Na, K, Fe, Cr, W

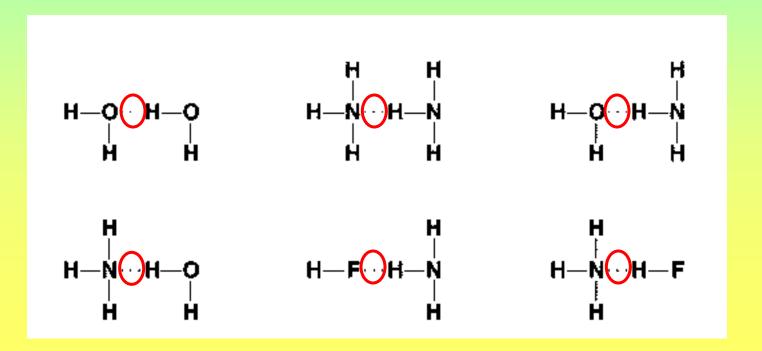
Crystalline structure of metal

- 2. Face-centered cubic:
 - -every atom has 12 neighbors
 - -Cu, Ag, Au, Al, Pb
- 3. Hexagonal close-packed
 - –every atom also has 12 neighbors
 - different pattern due to hexagonal
 - -Mg, Zn, Cd

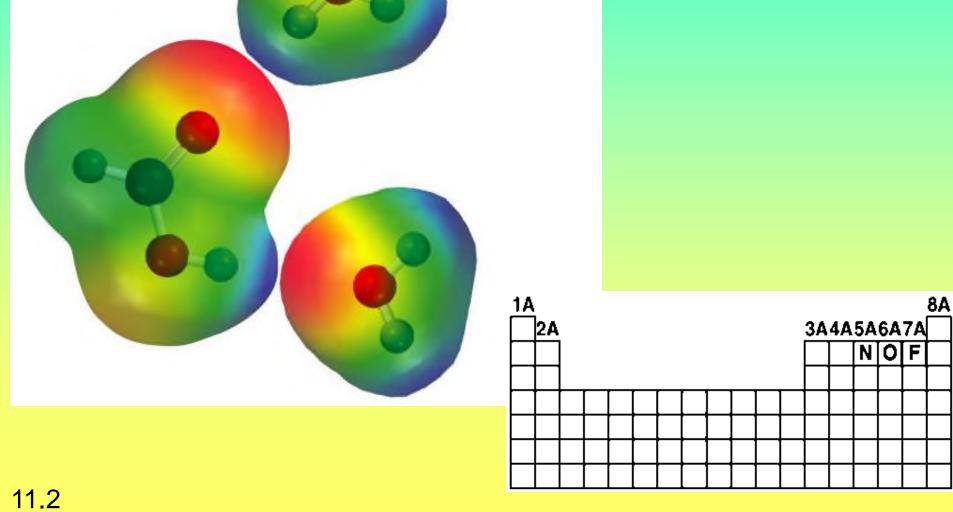
<u>Hydrogen Bond</u>

The *hydrogen bond* is a special dipole-dipole interaction between the hydrogen atom in a polar N-H, O-H, or F-H bond and an electronegative O, N, or F atom. IT IS NOT A BOND.

A — H
$$\cdots$$
B-H or A — H \cdots A A & B are N, O, or F

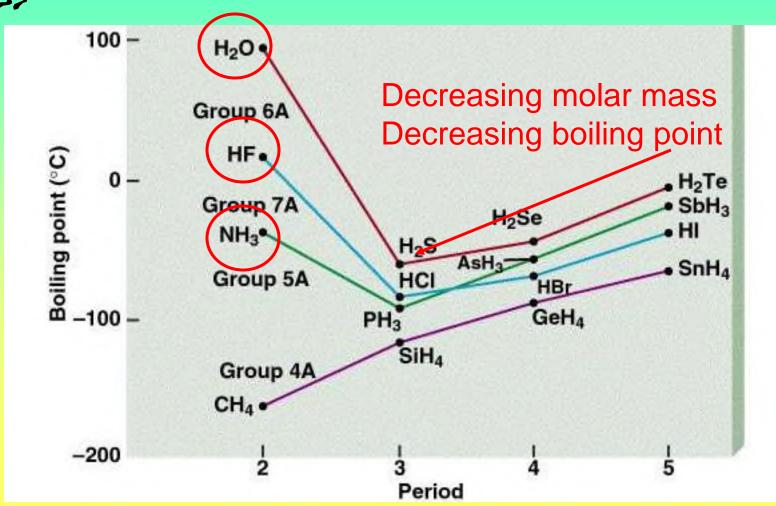


Hydrogen Bond





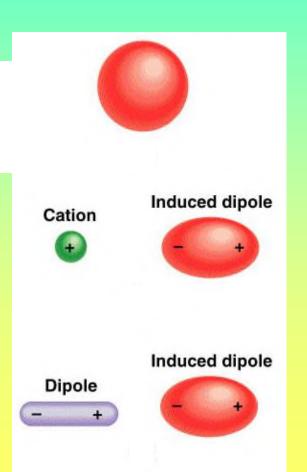
Why is the hydrogen bond considered a "special" dipole-dipole interaction?



11.2

Van der Walls forces/London forces

Attractive forces that arise as a result of **temporary dipoles induced** in atoms or molecules



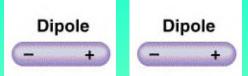
- two molecules: polar polar: dipole dipole interaction
- Two molecules: non-polar: any instant in time: electron moving: generate dipole: induced dipole

ion-induced dipole interaction

dipole-induced dipole interaction

Induced dipole – induced dipole

Van der Walls forces/London forces

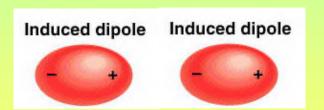


Polar: HCI: always have two ends, (permanent) dipole

 Cl_2 : non-polar, electron are not fixed at any position, move \rightarrow break the sym. \rightarrow generate dipole (temporary)

Overall, molecule is still non-polar

At any instant in time, molecule is polar → induced dipole (temporary)

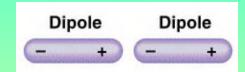


- Dipole dipole (polar polar)
- Dispersion (induced dipole induced dipole): nonpolar
- Induced (polar nonpolar) (dipole- induced dipole)

Types of Van der Waals Forces

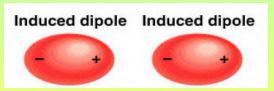
1. Keesom Interactions

interactions between two permanent dipoles and are temperature dependent.



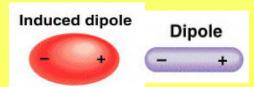
2. Debye Forces

interactions between permanent dipoles and induced dipoles.



3. London Dispersion Forces

interactions between an induced dipole and an atom/molecule.



Dispersion Forces Continued

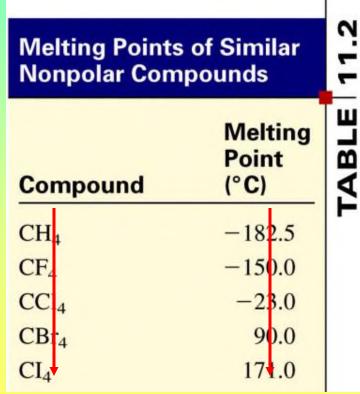
Polarizability is the ease with which the electron distribution in the atom or molecule can be distorted (break the sym \rightarrow dipole)

Polarizability increases with:

- greater number of electrons
- more diffuse electron cloud



Dispersion forces usually increase with molar mass.



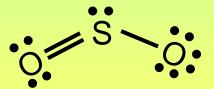


What type(s) of intermolecular forces exist between each of the following molecules?

HBr

CH₄





Comparing Intermolecular Forces

- Dispersion forces are found in all substances.
 - Their strength depends on molecular shapes and weights.
- Dipole-dipole forces add to the effect of dispersion forces.
 - They are found only in polar substances.
- H-bonding is a special case of dipole-dipole interactions.
 - Strongest of the intermolecular forces involving neutral species.
 - Most important for hydride compounds (NH₃, H₂O, etc.).
- Ion-dipole forces are interactions between ionic and polar molecules.
 - Ion-dipole are stronger than H-bonds.
- Covalent bonds are stronger than any of these reactions.

Intermolecular Forces Chart

