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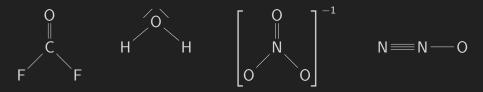
Cullyn Newman

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## 1 General Chemistry Review

### **Electrons, Bonds, and Lewis Structures**

- ▶ Covalent bond: two atoms sharing a pair of electrons.
- ▶ **Octet rule**: *main group elements* that tend to bond in a way that each atom has eight electrons in it's valence shell.
  - Atoms that do not have eight will share electrons with other elements in order to maintain a stable state.
- ▶ Main group elements: sometimes called representative elements, are groups
   1, 2 and 13–18 in periodic table.
  - Some elements in group 3 and 12 share properties between transition metals and the main group.
- ▶ The lowest energy (most stable) state of two atoms is determined both by bond length and bond strength.
- ▶ Valence electrons are determined by the group, 1A–8A, of the periodic table.
- ▶ **Lone pair**: unshared, or nonbonding, electrons.
- ▶ Lewis structures: 2D model that represents covalent bonds as straight lines and lonpairs as dots.
- $\triangleright$  Examples: COF<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, NO<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O:



▶ **Resonance structures**: a set of two or more Lewis structures that collectively describe the electronic bonding of a single polyatomic species, including fractional bonds.

## **Identifying Formal Charges**

- ▶ **Formal charge**: any atom that does not exhibit the appropriate number of valance electrons.
- > Determing formal charge:

• Formula: 
$$FC = V - N - \frac{B}{2}$$

- V = valance electrons of element
- N = lone pair electrons

- B = bonded electrons
- ▶ Less than expected number of valence electrons results in a positive charge.
- ▶ More than expected number of valence electrons results in a negative charge.
- ▶ The lower the magnitude of formal charge, the greater the stability of the whole molecule.
- Atoms that are more electronegative hold negative formal charges better, which results in greater stability vs when the negative charge is spread on less electronegative elements in a polyatomic species.
  - The dominant resonance structure will be that of the greatest stability.

#### **Induction and Polar Covalent Bonds**

- ▶ Bonds can classified into three categories: covalent, polar covalent, and ionic.
- ▶ The categories emerge from the electronegativity values of the atoms sharing a bond.
- ▶ **Electronegativity**: a measure of the ability of an atom to attract electrons.
  - Electronegativity generally increases left to right, and from the bottom to top of the periodic table.
- ▶ Covalent bond: when the difference in electronegativity is less than 0.5.
- ▶ **Polar covalent bond**: when the difference in electronegativity is between 0.5 and 1.9, then the electrons are not equally shared and become polar.
- Induction: the withdrawl of electrons towards to more electronegative atom.  $\delta^+$  represents partial positive charged gained when electrons are pulled away, while  $\delta^-$  represents the partial negative charge pulled closer.
- ▶ **Ionic bond**: when the difference in electronegativity is greater than 1.9.
  - Electrons are not shared in this case, and attraction is insetsad just the result of oppositely charged ions.

#### **Atomic Orbitals**

- ▶ **Atomic orbital (AO)**: standing quantum wave (excitation in electron field) around an atom.
  - More energy leads to higher orbtails levels.
    - Gives principle quantum number, n, as is associated with distance from nucleus.
  - Orbital levels: s(1 pair), p(3 pairs), d(5 pairs), f(7 pairs).

- Angular momentum quantum number that describes three-dimensional region of space that the electron density occupies.
- Magnetic quantum number descrices orientation in space of electron density.
  - $-m_l=0$ ; s orbital
  - $-m_{l}=-1, 0, 1; p_{x}, p_{y}, p_{z}$  orbitals.
- $\circ$  Locations where  $\psi$  (quantum wave function) is zero are called **nodes**.
  - The more nodes that an orbital has, the greater it's energy.
- Spin: allows an orbital to contain only two electrons,  $\pm \frac{1}{2}$
- Degenerate orbitals: orbitals with the same energy level.
- ▷ Order in which orbitals are filled is determined by three principles:
  - o Aufbau principle: lowest energy orbital is filled first.
  - **Pauli exclusion principle**: each orbital can accommodate a maximum of two electrons that have opposite spin.
  - Hund's rule: electrons are placed in each degenerate orbital before being paired up.
- ▶ Describing the nature of atomic orbital is done with two commoly used theories: *Valence Bond Theory* and *Molecular Orbital Theory*.
- ▶ The commonly used theories give a deeper understanding of covalent bonds, which is essentially just the overlap of atomic orbitals.
- ▶ Constructive/destructive interference: the result of two waves that approach each other, or overlap.
  - Constructive interference produces a wave with the vector sum of both waves.
  - Destructive interference cancel each other out and produes a node.

## **Valence Bond Theory**

- ▶ **Valence bond theory**: the sharing of electron density between two atoms is a result of the constructive interference of their atomic orbitals.
- ▶ Bond axis: the line that can be drawn between two hydrogen atoms.
- $\triangleright$  **Sigma bond** ( $\sigma$ ): a particular type of covalent bond that has circular symmetry with respect to the bond axis.

- $\circ$  All single bonds are  $\sigma$  bonds.
- The strongest type of covalent bond.
- $\triangleright$  **Pi bond** ( $\pi$ ): covalent bonds where two lobes of an orbital overlap with two lobes of another atom.
  - Each atomic orbital has zero electron density at a shared nodal plane, passing through the two bonded nuclei.
  - $\circ$   $\pi$  bonds form double  $(\sigma + \pi)$  and triple bonds  $(\pi + \sigma + \pi)$ .
  - $\circ$  Individual  $\pi$  bonds are weaker than  $\sigma$  bonds.

## **Molecular Orbital Theory**

- ▶ **Molecular orbital theory (MO)**: uses linear combinations of atomic orbitals to model and explore the consequences of orbital overlap.
  - The newly described orbitals are called molecular orbitals accroding to MO theory.
- ▶ Atomic orbitals refer to an individual atom, while molecular orbitals is associated with an entire molecular.
- ▶ In other words, MO theory states that atomic orbitals cease to exist when they overlap. Instead they are replaced with multiple molecular orbitals which span the entire molecule.
- ▶ Molecular orbitals are more stable (lower energy) since electrons are attracted by both nuclei.
- $\triangleright$  When there are nodes between the nuclei, then the resulting  $\sigma^*$  orbitals become antibonding, as they destabilize (increase the energy) of a molecular orbital.
- Best used to produce a quantitative picture of bonding.
  - Describes strength, order, and polarity of bonds.
  - Allows for the presence of paired or unpaired electrons.
  - Has spectroscopic preperties.

## **Hybridized Atomic Orbitals**

- ▶ sp³-hybridized orbitals: produced by averaging one s orbital and three p
  orbitals.
  - Hybridized orbitals explains to geomtry of methane, which results form the now four degenerate orbitals pushing apart to achieve tetrahedral

geometry.

- Hybridized orbitals become unsymmetrical, producing a larger front lobe that is more efficient than standard p orbitals in the ability to form bonds.
- $\circ$  All bonds in are  $\sigma$  bonds, and thus can be individually represented by the overlap of atomic orbitals.
- $\triangleright$  **sp**<sup>2</sup>**-hybridized orbitals**: produced by averaging the *s* orbital with only two of *p* orbitals.
  - The remaining p orbital is unaffected, and free multiple p orbitals results in a  $\pi$  bond.
  - o This is done to expain geometry of compounds bearing a double bond.
  - $\circ$  A double bond if formed from one  $\sigma$  bond and one  $\pi$  bond.
  - o Associated with trigonal planar geometry.
- ▶ **sp-hybridized orbitals**: produced by averaging of one *s* orbital and one *p* orbital.
  - Leaves two p orbitals and resulting in two  $\pi$  bonds.
  - A triple bond is formed with the addition of one  $\sigma$  bond due to the overlap of the sp orbitals.
  - Geometry of a triple bond has linear geometry.
- ▶ Finding the hybridization of any atom can be done simply:
  - 1. Look at the central item.
  - 2. Determin groups (number of bonds,  $\pi$  bonds count as 1, and lone pairs attached) of atom.
    - groups aka regions of electron density.
  - 3. For groups 1-4:  $sp^x$ ; x = groups 1
  - 4. For groups 5-6:  $sp^3d^x$ ; x = groups 4
- ▶ Bond Strength and Bond Length:
  - Bond length decreases with more bonds.
  - Bond strength increases with more bonds.
  - The more s character, the shorter and stronger the bond, and the larger the bond angle.
    - s-character: contribution of the  $\sigma$  bond in a hybridization.

• e.g. 
$$sp = 50\%$$
,  $sp^2 = 33\%$ ,  $sp^3 = 25\%$ 

- sp-sp bond is the strongest, sp<sup>3</sup>-sp<sup>3</sup> is the weakest.

## **Molecular Geometry**

- ▶ Valence shell electron pair repulsion (VSEPR) theory: enables the prediction of molecular geometry due to the pressumption that all electron pairs repel each other; resulting in a three-dimensional space that maximizes distance from each other.
- ▶ Steric number: the total number of electron pairs in a molecule. Can be bonds or lone pairs.
- $\triangleright$  **Tetrahedral geometry**: result of four  $\sigma$  bonds and zero lone pairs.
  - o produces a tetrahendron with bond angles of 109.5°.
- $\triangleright$  **Trigonal pyramidal geometry**: three  $\sigma$  bonds and one lone pair.
  - The lone pair occupy more space than bonded electron pairs, so the remaining angles are slightly less than a tetrahedral, at 107°.
  - The lone pair sits atop the base forming a pyramid like structure.
- $\triangleright$  **Bent geometry**: two  $\sigma$  bonds and two lone pairs.
  - VSEPR predicts the lone pairs to be in two corners of the tetrahedral, producing bond angles of 105°.
  - VSEPR predicts geometry H<sub>2</sub>O correctly, but for wrong reasons.
    - The lone pairs in  $H_2O$  have different energy levels, suggesting one pair occupies a p orbital with the other in a lower-energy hybridized orbital.
- ▶ VSEPR theory is best used for a first approximation and is mostly accurate for most small molecules.
- ▶ Trigonal planar geometry: three electron pairs forming three bond angles of 120° and lie on the same plan.
- ▶ **Linear geometry**: two electron pairs that oppose each other at 180°, forming a linear structure.
- ▶ General method of determining structure:
  - 1. Count steric number—the total number of electron pairs in a molecule. Can be bonds or lone pairs.
  - 2. Determine predicted geomterical structure predicted (EDG) by VSEPR using steric number.
    - Octahedral:6, Bipyramid:5, Tetrahedral:4, Trigonal:3, Linear:2

3. Determin impact (the MG) of lone pairs; more lone pairs results in less space between bonded pairs. Shape depends on EDG.

## **Dipole Moments and Molecular Polarity**

- $\triangleright$  **Dipole moment** ( $\mu$ ): defined as the amount of partial charge,  $\delta$ , on on either end of the dipole multiplied by the distance separtion, d:
  - $\circ \mu = \delta d$
  - $\mu$  generally has an order of magnitude of  $10^{-18}$  esu·cm due to general partial charge (esu) and distance (cm) values.
  - $\circ$  1 debye (D) =  $10^{-18}$  esu·cm
- ▶ **Molecular dipole moment**: the vector sum of the individual dipole moments.
  - Lone pairs have significant effect on the molecular dipole moment.
  - Also called the net dipole moment.

### **Intermolecular Forces and Physical Properties**

- ▶ **Intermolecular forces**: the attractive forces between individual molecules that determed the physical properties of a compound.
- ▶ *Electrostatic*: forces that occur as a result of the attraction between opposite charges.
- ▷ Electrostatic interactions for neutral molecules (no formal charge) are often classified as into the following categories:
  - **Dipole-dipole interaction**: Compounds with net dipole moments.
    - In solid space these intereactions either repel or attract each other.
    - In liquid space these interactions tend to attract more often, raising melting/boiling point.

#### Hydrogen bonding:

- Not actually a bond, just an interaction.
- When hydrogen bonds to a electronegative atom, then the hydrogen will have a  $\delta^+$ .
- F, O, N, Cl (Br, I). Most electronegative elements, from left to right, that hydrogen most often bonds too.
- Hydrogen bonding is strong due to size of hydrogen atom, resulting in very close partial charge interactions.
- The more hydrogen bonds, the higher the boiling point tends to be.

#### Fleeting dipole-dipole interactions:

- Electrons are considered to be in constant motion, which restult in the center of negative charge to vary.
- On average, the dipole moment is zero, though can experience transient dipole moments, initiating fleeting attraction/repulsion.
- Heavier hydrocarbons generally experience a stronger force due to increased surface area, and thus greater chance for non-zero dipole moments, which results in higher boling points.
- Branched hydrocarbons generally have decreased surface area, decreasing boiling point relative to others of similar weight.
- ▶ When comparing boling points of compounds, look for following factors:
  - Any dipole-dipole interactions? Formation of hydrogen bonds?
  - Number of carbon atoms. (surface area)
  - Degree of branching of compound. (surface area)

### **Structural Theory of Matter**

- ▶ Constitutional isomers: aka structural isomers; same chemical formula, but different in the way the atoms are connect, i.e. their constitution is different.
  - Consistenet with the octet rule.
  - Each element forms a predictable number of bonds, from one to four.
  - The number of possbile constitutional isomers increases as the number of carbon atoms increases
- ▶ **Stereoisomers**: isomers that differ in spatial arrangement of atoms, rather than connectivity.
  - Geometric isomerism: aka cis-trans; locked into spatial positions due to double bonds or a ring structure.
    - Cis indicates functional groups that are on the same side of the carbon chain.
    - Trans indicates functional groups on opposite sides of the carbon chain.
  - **Enantiomers**: aka optical isomers; mirror images of each other that are non-superposable.
    - Human hands are a macroscopic analogy.
- ▶ More detail will be covered in later sections.

# 2 Molecular Representations

### **Molecular Representations**

▶ **Partially condensed structures**: the C−H bonds are not always drawn, saving space.

- ▶ Condensed structures: single bonds are not drawn and groups of atoms are clustered when possbile.
  - CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>3</sub>CHOH → (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHOH
- ▶ **Molecular formula**: simply shows number of each type of atom with no structural information.
  - o C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>O
- ▶ Example of converting a condensed structure into a partially condensed structure:
  - (CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>CCH<sub>2</sub>CH(CH<sub>3</sub>)CH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>
     CH<sub>3</sub> H H H H
     CH<sub>3</sub> C C C C C CH<sub>3</sub>
     CH<sub>3</sub> H CH<sub>3</sub> CH<sub>3</sub> CH<sub>3</sub>
  - This shows just one isomer, more partially condensed structures are possible.

#### **Bond-Line Structures**

- ▶ **Bond-line structures**; aka skeletal structures; simplify drawing process of chemical structures and are easier to read.
  - Each corner or endpoint represents a carbon atom.

- All examples have 6 carbon atoms
- o Double bonds are shown with two lines, triple with three.

- Triple bonds are drawn linearly due to sp-hybridization
- Hydrogens are not shown; it is assumed that each carbon posses enough to satisfy octet rule.

#### **Notes on Drawing Bond-Line Structrues**

- Carbon atoms in a straight chain should be drawn in zigzag format in order to accurately show each carbon.
- o Double bonds should be drawn as far apart as possible:

o Direction of a single bond is irrelevant:

- All heteroatoms (atoms other than carbon and hydrogen) must be drawn.
  - Hydrogens next to heteroatoms must be shown.
- o Carbons cannot have more than four bonds.

## **Hydrogen Deficiency Index: Degrees of Unsaturation**

Excerpt from Chapter 14: Infrared Spectroscopy and Mass Spectrometry

- ▶ Saturated compounds: the maximum number of hydrogen atoms possbile, relative to number of carbon present.
  - Determining molecular formula:  $C_nH_{2n+2}$  n =carbon atoms
- $\triangleright$  **Unsaturated compounds**: a compound that contains at least one  $\pi$  bond, resulting fewer than the maximum number of hydrogen atoms.
  - Compounds with rings also result in an unsaturated compound.
  - Degree of unsaturation: a number that represents half the "missing"
     number of hydrogen atoms when compared to a saturated compound.
- ▶ **Hydrogen deficiency index (HDI)**: the measure of degrees of unsaturation.
  - o e.g. two degrees of unsaturation results in HDI of 2.
  - Degrees of freedom help represent possbile structures, indicating possible double bounds, triple bounds, rings, or various combinations of each.

### **Impact of Other Elements on HDI**

- **Halogens**: takes the place of a hydrogen atom; add one H for each halogen.
- Oxygen: no affect on saturation; ignore.
- **Nitrogen**: needs an extra hydrogen; subtract one H for each nitrogen.
- Formula: HDI =  $\frac{1}{2}(2C + 2 + N H X)$ 
  - X: halogen atoms.
- ▶ Calculating HDI provides clues about the structural features of a compound.
  - o Only helpful when molecular formula is known for certainty.

## **Identifying Functional Groups**

 $\triangleright$