

Ch. BondingI. Bond Character

Bonds are usually combinations of ionic and covalent character.

The **electronegativity difference** is used to determine a bond's character.

Electronegativity Difference		
Covalent	< 1.67 <	Ionic
shared electrons	50% ionic	transferred electrons
weaker bonds	50% covalent	stronger bonds

Ex. 1) F—F bond in F₂

4.0 4.0

$4.0 - 4.0 = 0 < 1.67$ **100% covalent**, no transfer of electrons

Ex. 2) Na—Cl in NaCl

0.9 3.0

$3.0 - 0.9 = 2.1 > 1.67$ **mainly ionic**

Na—Cl is **polar**. There is a difference in charge.

$\delta(+)$ $\delta(-)$ Na wants to lose electrons, Cl wants to gain electrons.

Ex. 3) S—Cl in SCl₆

2.5 3.0

$3.0 - 2.5 = 0.5 < 1.67$ **mainly covalent**

S and Cl both want to gain electrons, but Cl (higher electronegativity) wants electrons more than S. The bond is still **polar**, but not as much as NaCl.

**** The farther apart the elements on the periodic table, the larger the electronegativity difference, the more ionic the bond, the more polar the bond and the stronger the bond.**

Most Polar (most ionic)

Na—Cl

(**farthest apart** on periodic table)

> S—Cl

Least Polar (least ionic)

F—F

(**closest together**)

A) For ionic bonds the energy can be calculated, using Coulomb's Law.

$$E = 2.31 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \cdot \text{nm} \frac{(Q_1 Q_2)}{r}$$

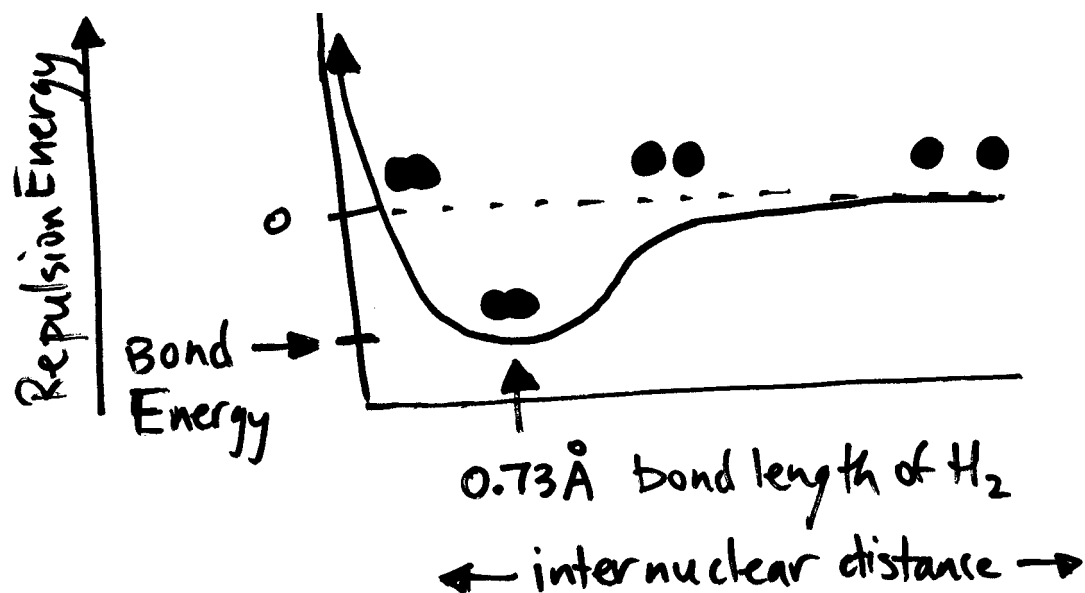
$Q_1, Q_2 =$ the charges of the ions
 $r =$ the bond length

For NaCl: $E = 2.31 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} \cdot \text{nm} \frac{(+1)(-1)}{(0.276 \text{ nm})} = -8.37 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

the (-) shows that is an attractive force

****The larger the charges, the stronger the bond, the greater the attraction.**

B) But covalent bonds share electrons, so the **Repulsion Energy** must be measured.



On the left: the H atoms are too close together and the nuclei will repel each other.
(High repulsion energy)

On the right: the H atoms are too far apart and there is no attraction between atoms.
(Zero repulsion energy)

At the bond length of 0.73 Å: the H atoms are at the best distance, so that electrons are attracted to both nuclei and the electron repulsion is minimized. The atoms will bond.
(negative repulsion energy would equal positive attraction energy)

These bond energies are measured and found on the Bond Energy Table in textbook.

When reactions occur energy is gained (+) by atoms to break bonds and released (-) by atoms as new more stable bonds form. This calculates ΔH for the reaction.

$$\Delta H_{\text{reaction}} = \sum E_{\text{bonds broken}} \text{ reactants} - \sum E_{\text{bonds formed}} \text{ products}$$



4 C—H
1 C=C
1 F—F

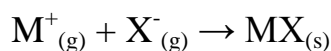
← cancels →

4 C—H
2 C—F
1 C—C

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta H_{\text{reaction}} &= [(1 \text{ C}=\text{C}) (614 \text{ kJ}) + (1 \text{ F}-\text{F}) (154 \text{ kJ})] - \\
 &\quad [(2 \text{ C}-\text{F}) (485 \text{ kJ}) + (1 \text{ C}-\text{C}) (347 \text{ kJ})] \\
 &= 614 \text{ kJ} + 154 \text{ kJ} - 970 \text{ kJ} - 347 \text{ kJ} = \mathbf{-549 \text{ kJ}} \text{ favorable, since } (-).
 \end{aligned}$$

#53 Notes II. Lattice Energy (for ionic compounds)

-is the change in energy that takes place when separated gaseous ions are packed together into a solid. (energy is released, exothermic).



Lattice energy = $k \frac{(Q_1 Q_2)}{r}$ a modified version of Coulomb's Law

The **most exothermic lattice energy = the **most favorable** = the **largest attraction**

** The largest attraction will have a more concentrated charge or a larger charge difference.

Ex. 1a) Which has the most exothermic lattice energy?

NaCl or CsCl

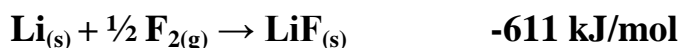
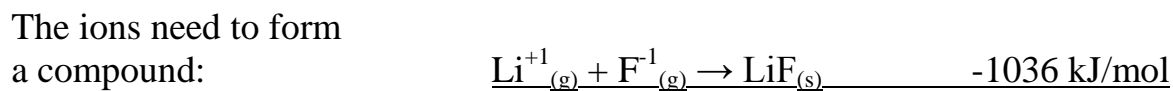
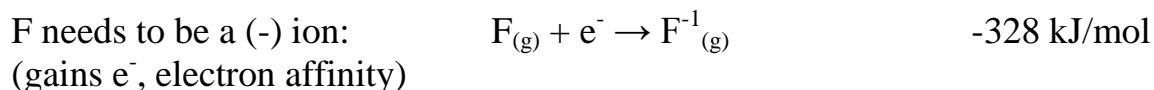
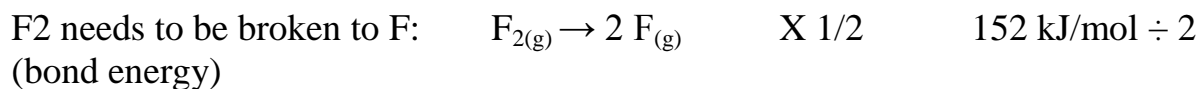
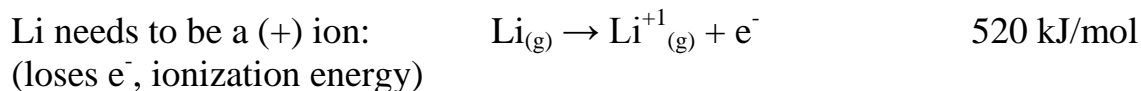
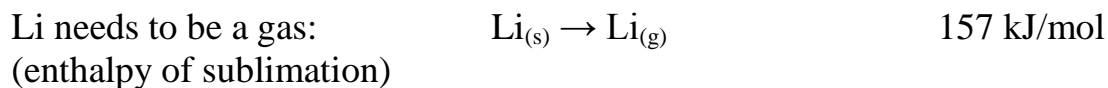
NaCl: Na is a smaller ion, so its charge will be more concentrated, most favorable lattice energy.

Ex. 1b) MgCl₂ or NaCl

MgCl₂: Mg²⁺ Cl⁻¹ has a larger charge difference (more concentrated) than Na⁺¹ Cl⁻¹

The bond energies of ionic compounds can be calculated without Coulomb's Law, using the lattice energy with other energies.

Ex. 2) Find the bond energy of LiF.



III. Localized Electron Model

A molecule is composed of atoms that are bound together by sharing pairs of electrons, using the atomic orbitals of the bound atoms.

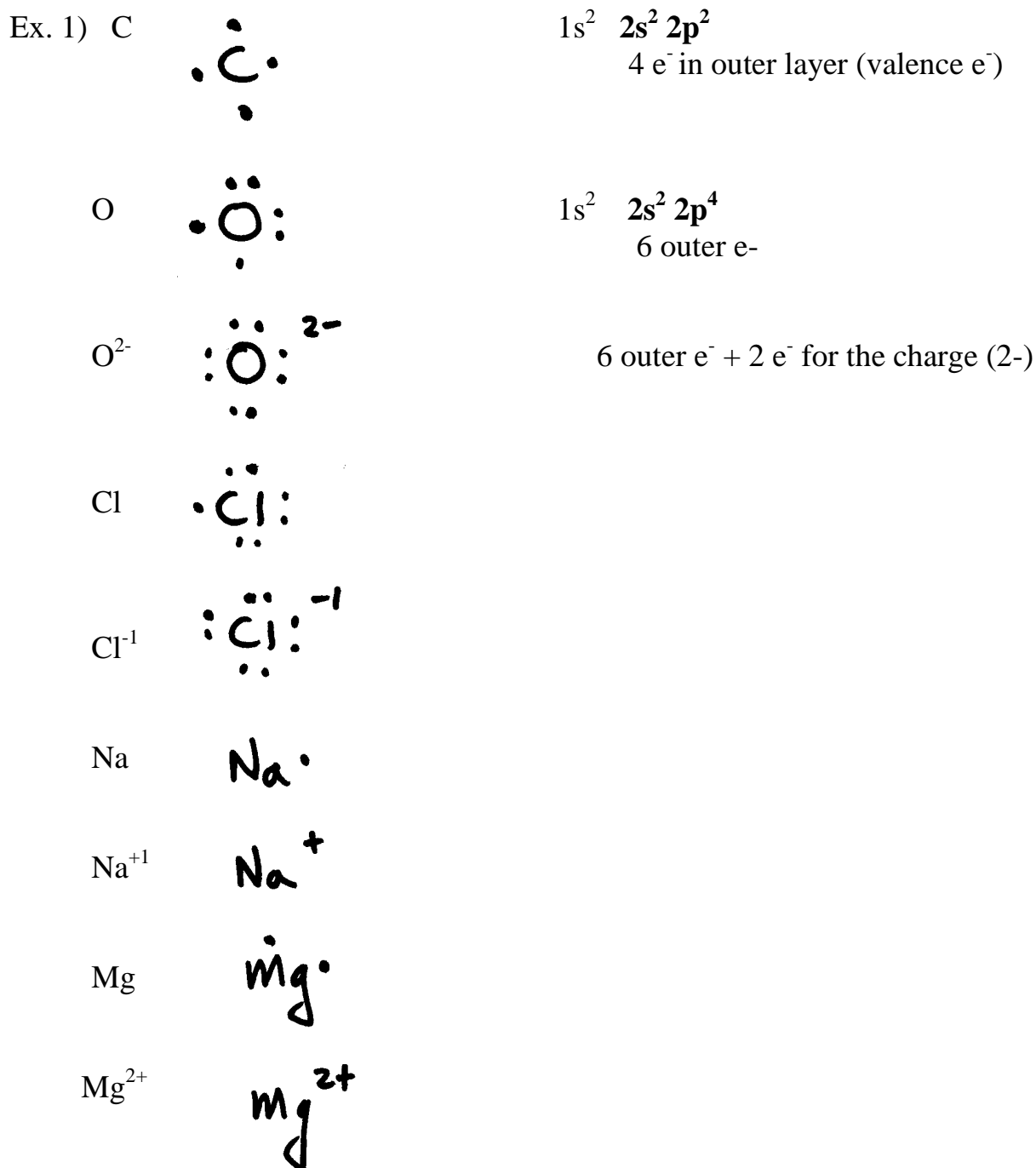
Bonding Pairs: pairs of e^- found in the space between atoms

Lone Pairs: nonbonding pairs of e^- found elsewhere on an atom

A) Lewis Structures

-show how the valence (outer shell) electrons are arranged around the atoms in a molecule.

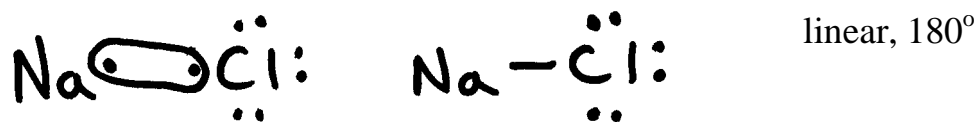
Octet Rule: atoms try to achieve a noble gas configuration of 8 electrons.



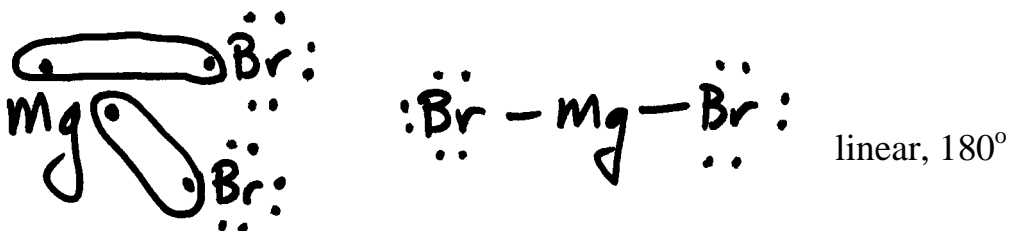
#54 Notes B) VSEPR Model (Valence Shell Electron Pair Repulsion)

The structure around an atom is determined principally by minimizing electron pair repulsions.

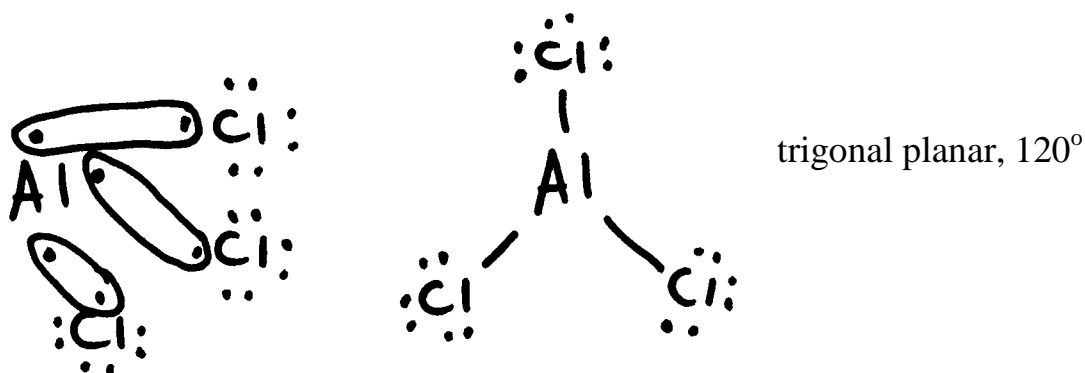
Ex. 1) NaCl



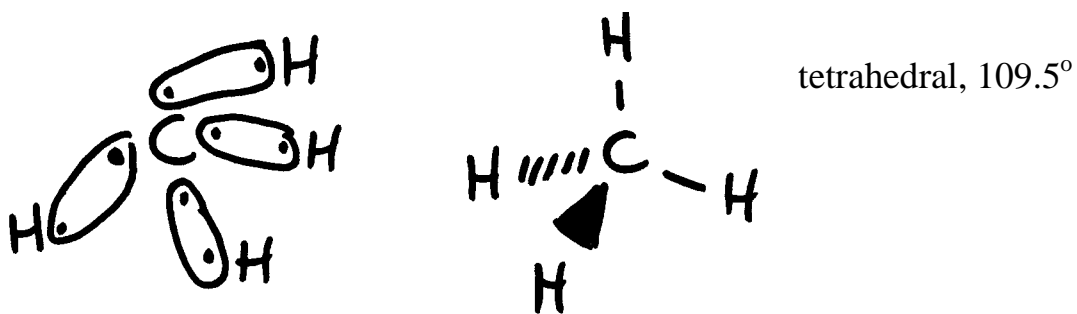
Ex. 2) MgBr₂



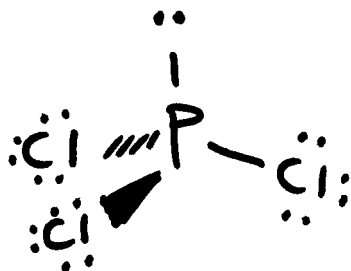
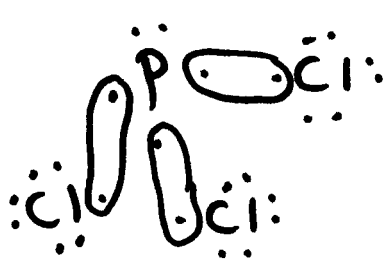
Ex. 3) AlCl₃



Ex. 4) CH₄

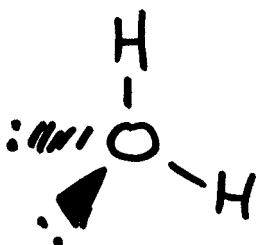


Ex. 5) PCl_3



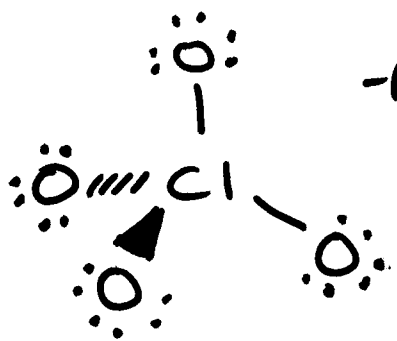
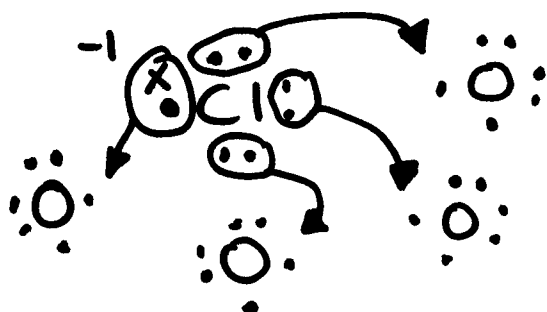
trigonal pyramidal, 107°

Ex. 6) H_2O



bent, 104.5°

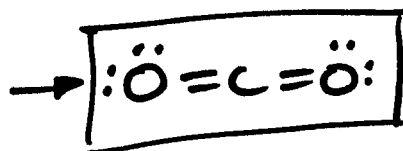
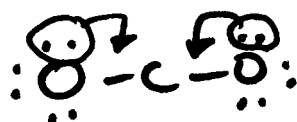
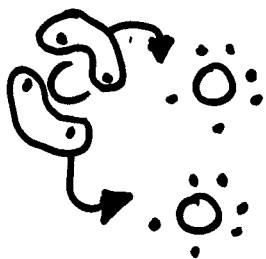
Ex. 7) ClO_4^-



tetrahedral, 109.5°

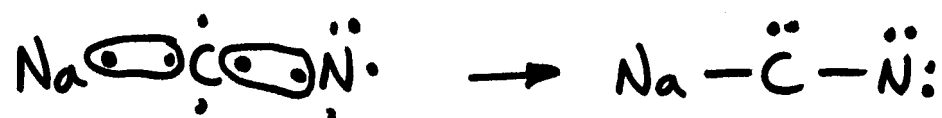
Oxygen will take two e^- to have a noble gas configuration, O is greedy!

Ex. 8) CO_2

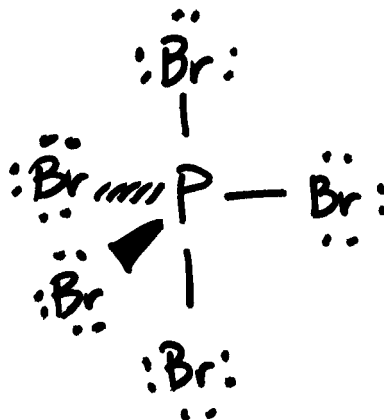
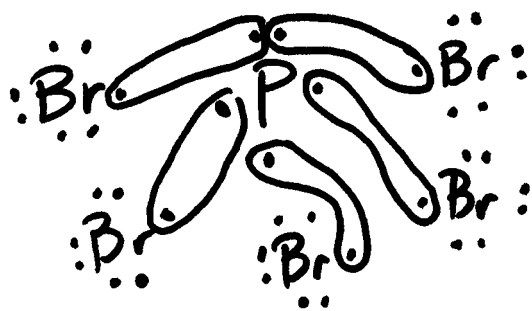


linear, 180°

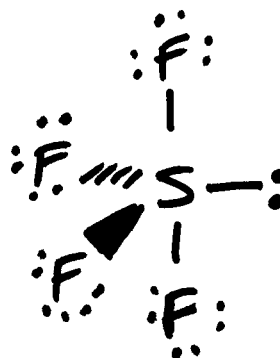
Ex. 9) NaCN



linear, 180°

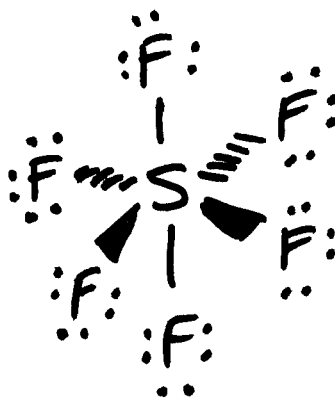
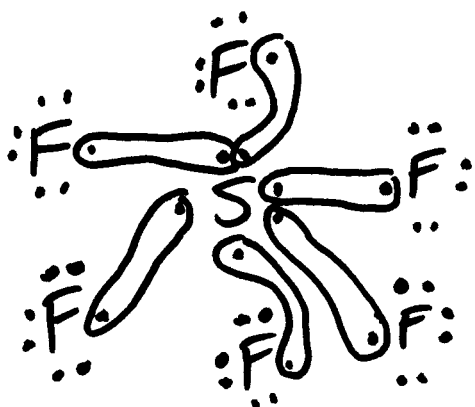


trigonal bipyramidal, 90° & 120°



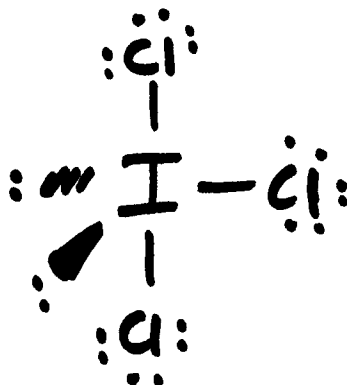
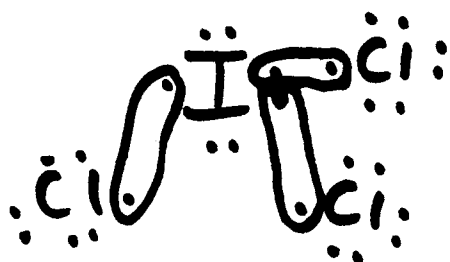
****e⁻ must be around the middle**
(irregular tetrahedron, bisphenoid)

seesaw, $<90^\circ$ & $<120^\circ$



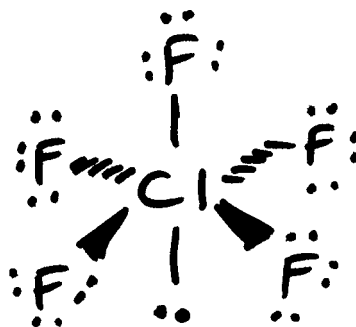
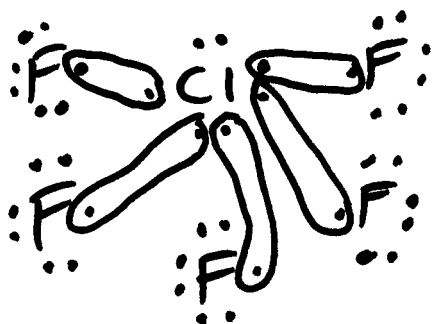
octahedral, 90°

Ex. 13) ICl_3



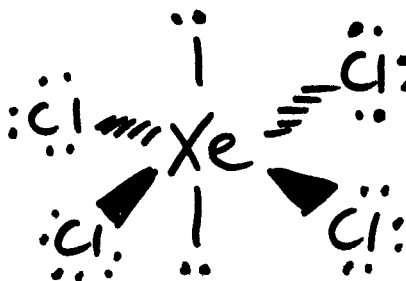
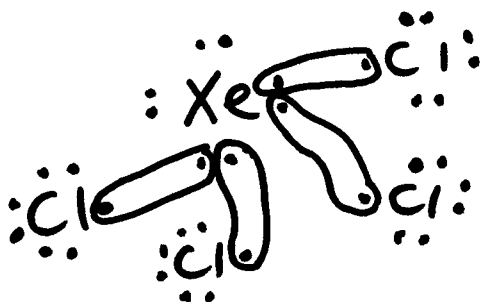
T-shaped, $<90^\circ$
(e^- must be around middle)

Ex. 14) ClF_5



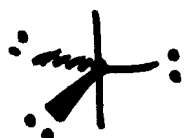
square pyramidal,
 $<90^\circ$

Ex. 15) XeCl_4



square planar,
 90°

**** e^- must be across from each other**

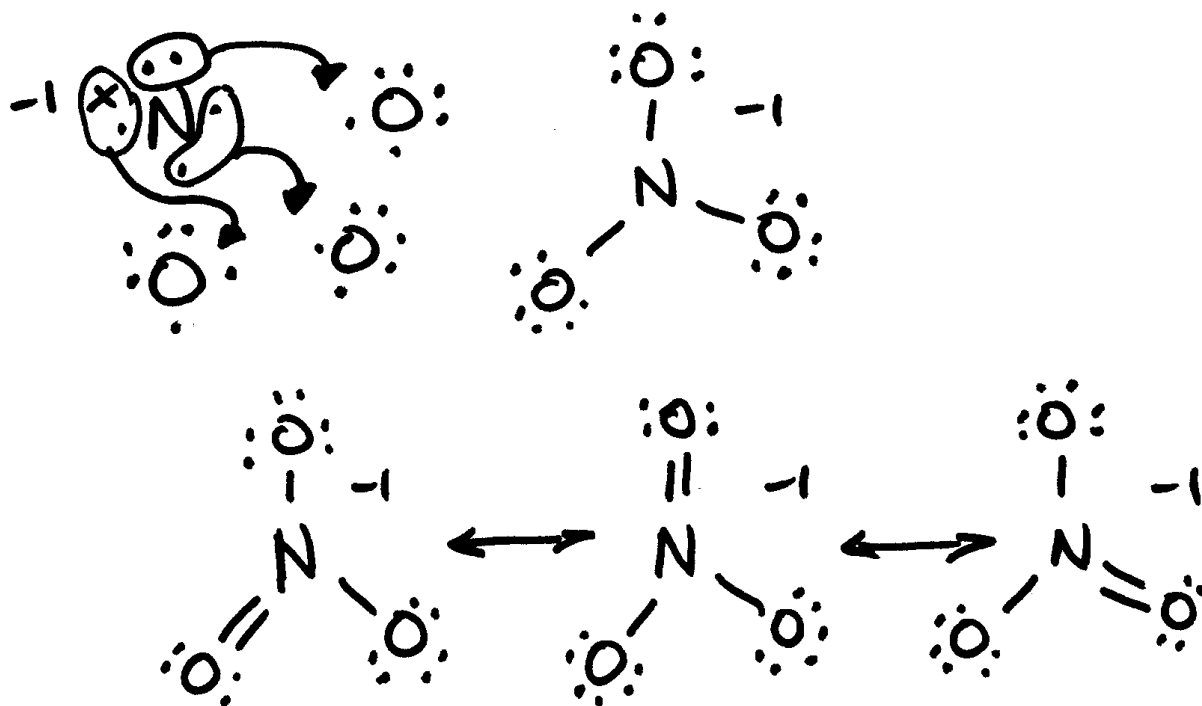


linear, 180°

IV. Resonance

-is when more than one Lewis structure is possible.

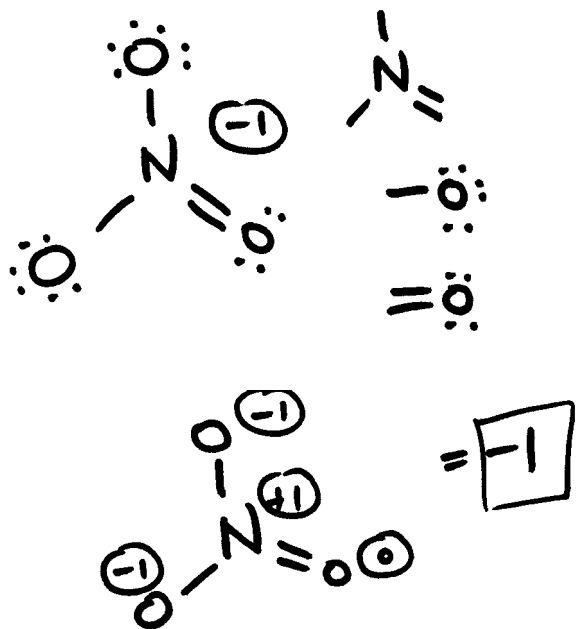
NO_3^-



trigonal planar, 120°

The electrons in the bonds are delocalized, making this more stable than all single bonds.
**Each N—O bond is $\frac{2}{3}$ single and $\frac{1}{3}$ double in character.

Formal Charge = # valence electrons on lone atom (outer e^- from the periodic table)
 - # valence electrons on the atom in the compound (all lone electrons plus one electron per bond)



N: F.C. = $5e^- - 4e^- = +1$
 ($5e^-$ from periodic table - $4e^-$ { $1e^-$ per bond })

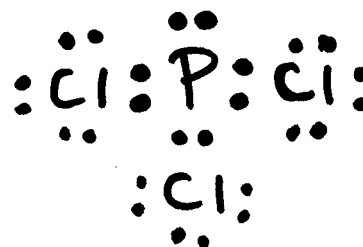
single bond O: F.C. = $6e^- - 7e^- = -1$
 ($6e^-$ per. table - { $1e^-$ from bond + 6 lone e^- })

double bond O: F.C. = $6e^- - 6e^- = 0$
 ($6e^-$ per. table - { $2e^-$ from bonds + 4 lone e^- })

←Don't count the stick, it only shows position of the electrons on P. (only $2e^-$ total)

P F.C. = $5e^- - 5e^- = 0$
 ($5e^-$ per. table - { $3e^-$ from bonds + 2 lone e^- })

Official Lewis Dot Diagrams only show electrons
 (no bonds):



VI. Polarity

Polar means (+)/(-) ends on the molecule. The ends are different!

** unsymmetrical (**unbalanced**) = {(+) and (-) ends to the molecule} = **polar**

symmetrical (balanced**, it will not have (+)/(-) ends, the ends are the same) = **nonpolar**
[2 prefixes not together (un & non)]

(see notes #54-55 for structures)

Ex. 1) NaCl	polar
Ex. 2) MgBr ₂	nonpolar
Ex. 3) AlCl ₃	nonpolar
Ex. 4) CH ₄	nonpolar
Ex. 5) PCl ₃	polar
Ex. 6) H ₂ O	polar
Ex. 7) ClO ₄ ⁻	nonpolar
Ex. 8) CO ₂	nonpolar
Ex. 9) NaCN	polar
Ex. 10) PBr ₅	nonpolar
Ex. 11) SF ₄	polar
Ex. 12) SF ₆	nonpolar
Ex. 13) IBr ₃	polar
Ex. 14) ClF ₅	polar
Ex. 15) XeCl ₄	nonpolar

#57 Notes Ch. Bonding Orbitals

I. Hybridization (a mixture of orbitals)

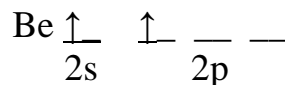
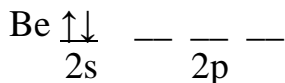
-is a modification to the localized electron model to account for the observation that atoms will continue and modify orbitals when bonding.

<u>Compound</u>	<u># of bonds</u>	<u>orbitals used</u>	<u>hybrid</u>
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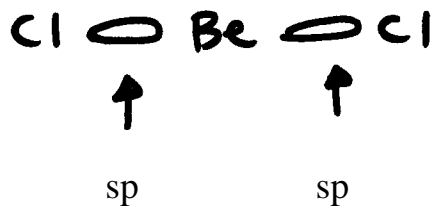
Ex. 1) H₂	1	s	none
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H—H	H \uparrow 1s	The electron from the other H can go into this orbital to make the bond.
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Ex. 2) BeCl₂	2	s, p	sp
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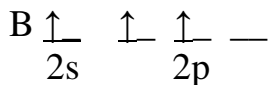
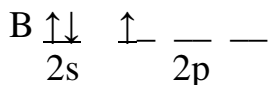
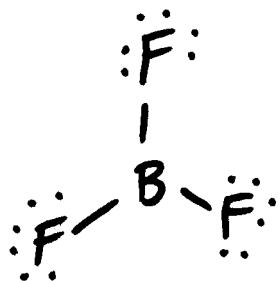


Now that the electrons are separated, the 2 Cl's can each move in one electron to make a bond.

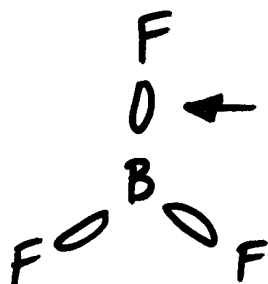


Two equivalent orbitals (1/2 s, 1/2 p).

Ex. 3) BF₃	3	s, p, p	sp²
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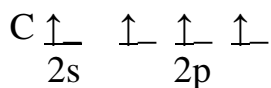
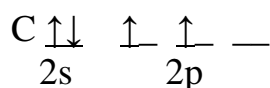
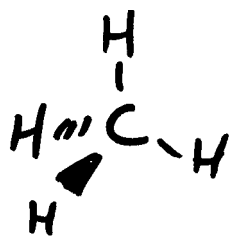


Now the electrons are separated and each F can move in one electron to make a bond.

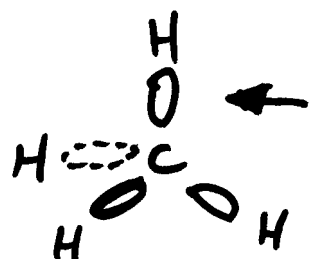


sp² Three equivalent orbitals (1/3 s, 2/3 p).

Ex. 4) CH₄ 4 s, p, p, p sp³

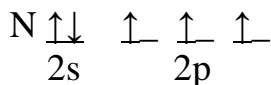
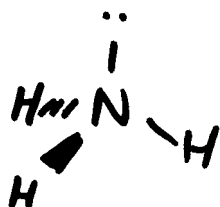


Now each H can move in one electron to bond.

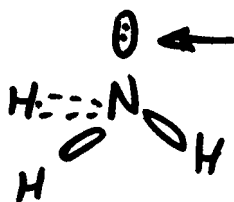


sp³ 4 equivalent orbitals (1/4 s, 3/4 p).

Ex. 5) NH₃ 3 + 1 lone pair s, p, p, p sp³

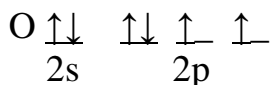
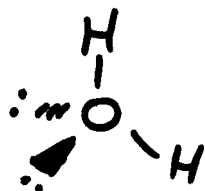


Each H can move in one electron (2 e⁻ in the 2s are the lone pair of electrons) to bond.

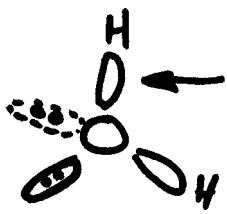


sp³ 4 equivalent orbitals (1/4 s, 3/4 p).

Ex. 6) H₂O 2 + 2 lone pairs s, p, p, p sp³



Each H can move in one electron to bond.



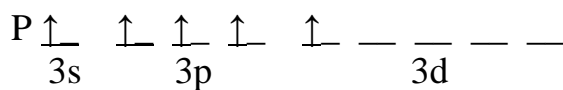
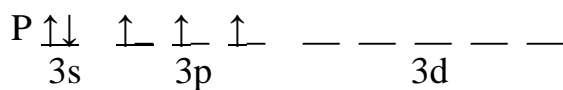
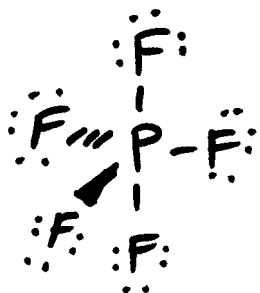
sp^3 4 equivalent orbitals (1/4 s, 3/4 p).

Ex. 7) PF_5

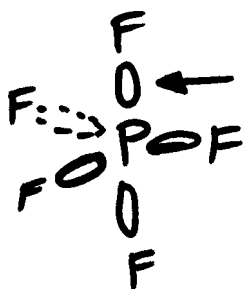
5

s, p, p, p, d

dsp^3



Now each F can move in an electron to bond.



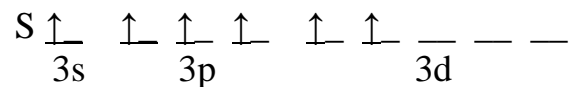
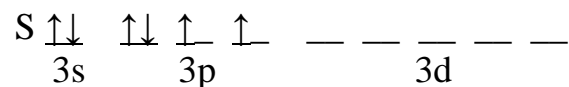
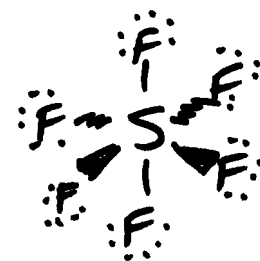
dsp^3 5 equivalent orbitals (1/5 s, 3/5 p, 1/5 d).

Ex. 8) SF_6

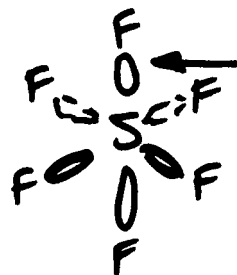
6

s, p, p, p, d, d

d^2sp^3



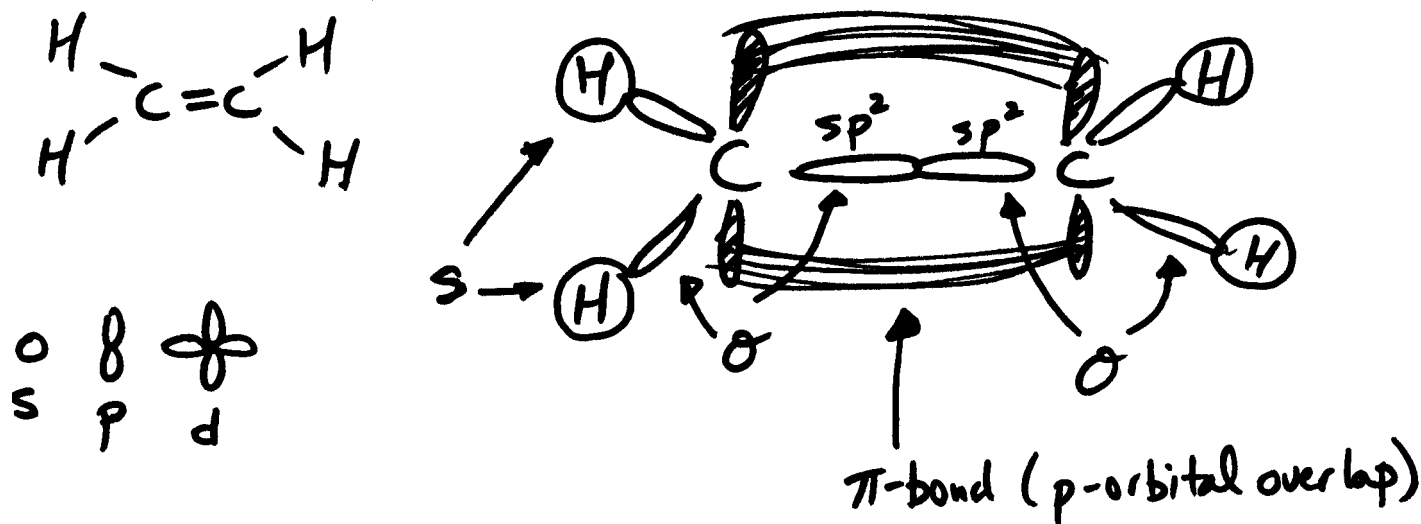
Now each F can move in one electron to bond.



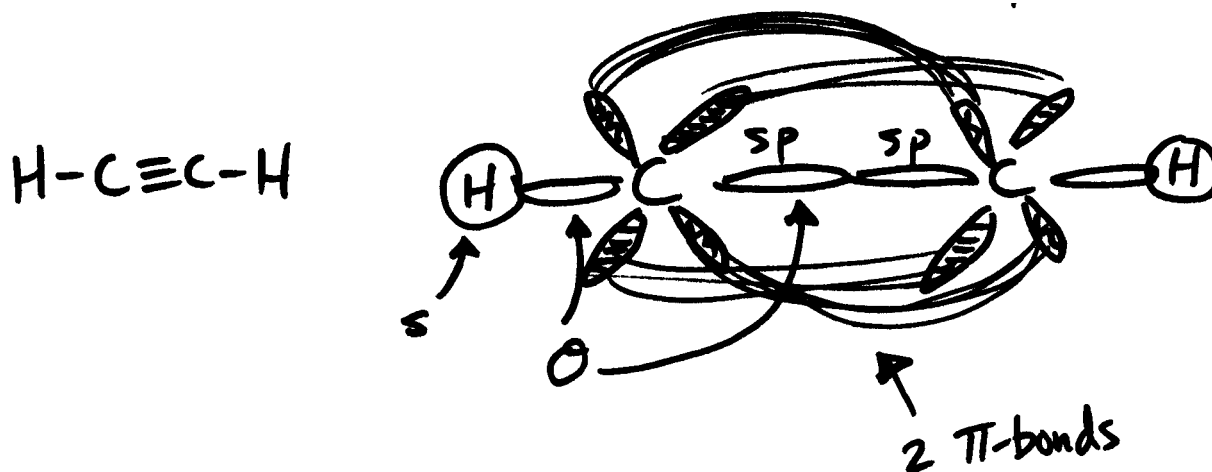
d^2sp^3 6 equivalent orbitals (1/6 s, 3/6 p, 2/6 d).
 =1/6 s, 1/2 p, 1/3 d

On fingers do: SF_4 (4 bonds and 1 e^- pair = 5 positions/orbitals needed), so dsp^3 ,

XeF_4 (4 bonds and 2 e^- pairs = 6 positions/orbitals needed), so d^2sp^3



Double Bond = 1 σ (sigma) bond & 1 π (pi) bond {stronger than single bond}
 1 hotdog (σ) + 1 bun (2 parts of π bond)



Triple Bond = 1 σ (sigma) bond & 2 π (pi) bonds {stronger than double bond}
 1 hotdog (σ) + 2 buns (π)

**They become successively stronger, less flexible, and more reactive.

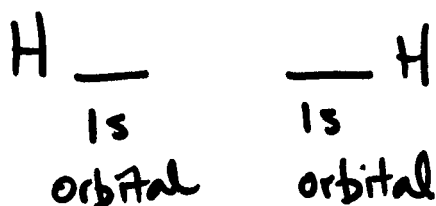
III. Molecular Orbital Theory

-is a way of determining whether a compound will have single, double or triple bonds.

A) Homonuclear Diatomic Molecules

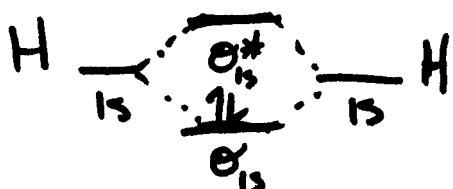
1) Simple Molecules with s-orbitals only. (H_2 , He_2)

Ex. 1) H₂



The 2 “old” orbitals will make 2 “new” orbitals.
(1 bonding and 1 anti-bonding)

Each H has 1 e⁻ in the 1s orbital, so H₂ has 2 e⁻ total.

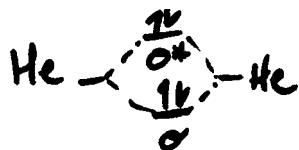


$$\text{Bond Order} = \frac{\# \text{ bonding } e^- - \# \text{ anti-bonding } e^-}{2} = \frac{2 - 0}{2} = \mathbf{1 \text{ favorable (single bond)}}$$

Any Bond Order > 0 is favorable (0 is non-bonding).

Ex. 2) He₂

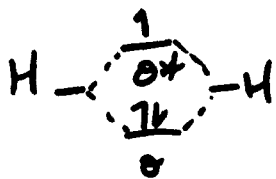
Each He has 2 e⁻ in the 1s, so He₂ has a total of 4 e⁻.



$$\text{B.O.} = \frac{2-2}{2} = \mathbf{0 \text{ unfavorable, no bonding}}$$

Ex. 3) H₂⁻

Each H has 1e⁻ in the 1s, so H₂ has 2 e⁻. The (-) tells us to add 1 e⁻, so 3 e⁻ total .



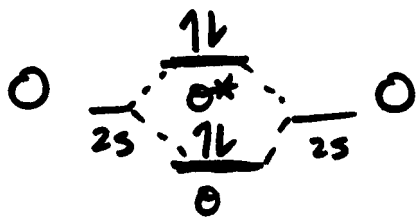
$$\text{B.O.} = \frac{2-1}{2} = \mathbf{1/2 \text{ favorable}}$$

2) Molecules with p-orbitals.

Ex. 1) O₂

Each O has 2 e⁻ in the s orbital and 4 e⁻ in the p orbital.

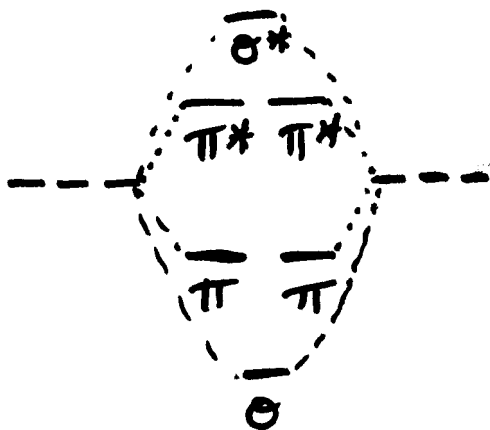
So O₂ has 4e⁻ in the s orbital and 8 e⁻ in the p orbital.



$$\text{B.O.} = \frac{2-2}{2} = 0 \quad \text{Non bonding}$$

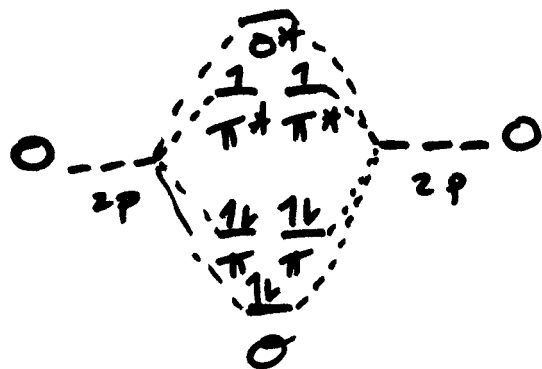
Since the s-orbitals will always be full and the bond order will be zero, it can be ignored.

For the p-orbitals: each O has 3 p-orbitals, making a total of 6 p-orbitals. These will make 6 new orbitals.



Remember: Triple Bond has 1 σ & 2 π

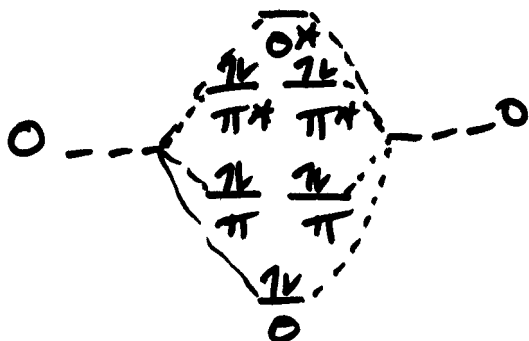
Each O has 4 e⁻ in the p, so 8 e⁻ total.



$$\text{B.O.} = \frac{6-2}{2} = 2 \quad \text{favorable (double bond)}$$

Ex. 2) O_2^{2-}

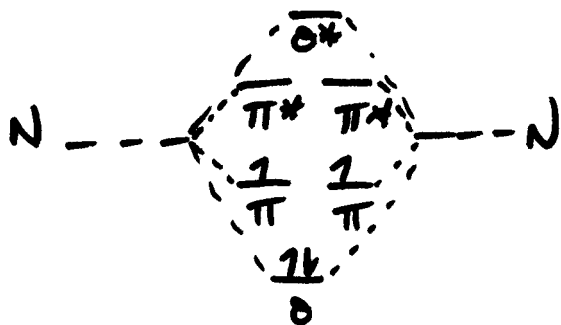
Each O has 4 e^- in the p, so O_2 has 8 e^- in the p, but the (2-) is 2 extra electrons = 10 e^-



$$\text{B.O.} = \frac{6-4}{2} = 1 \text{ favorable}$$

Ex. 3) N_2^{2+}

Each N has 3 e^- in the p, so N_2 has 6 e^- in the p, but the (2+) is 2 fewer electrons = 4 e^-



$$\text{B.O.} = \frac{4-0}{2} = 2 \text{ favorable}$$

End of Notes (Assignments #59-60 are Review Assignments. There are no notes for these assignments.)