Chemistry 120 Fall 2016

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Office Hours: M,W,F 9:30-11:30 am T,R 8:00-10:00 am or by

appointment;

Test Dates:

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September 23, 2016 (Test 1): Chapter 1,2 &3 October 13, 2016 (Test 2): Chapter 4 & 5
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October 31, 2016 (Test 3): Chapter 6, 7 & 8

November 15, 2016 (Test 4): Chapter 9, 10 & 11

November 17, 2016 (Make-up test) comprehensive:

Chapters 1-11

Chapter 5. Chemical Bonding: The Co	valent Bond Model
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- 5-1 The Covalent Bond Model
- 5-2 Lewis Structures for Molecular Compounds
- 5-3 Single, Double, and Triple Covalent Bonds
- 5-4 Valence Electrons and Number of Covalent Bonds Formed
- 5-5 Coordinate Covalent Bonds
- 5-6 Systematic Procedures for Drawing Lewis Structures
- 5-7 Bonding in Compounds with Polyatomic Ions Present
- 5-8 Molecular Geometry

Electron Groups

Molecules with Two VSEPR Electron Groups

Molecules with Three VSEPR Electron Groups

Molecules with Four VSEPR Electron Groups

Molecules with More Than One Central Atom

- 5-9 Electronegativity
- 5-10 Bond Polarity

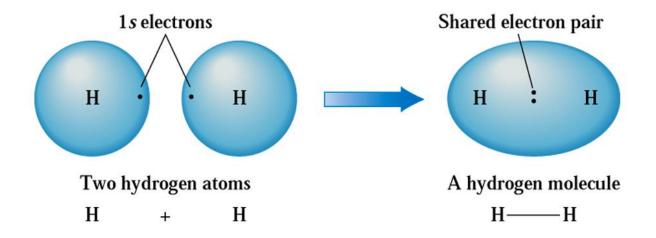
Bond Polarity and Fractional Charges

Bond Classification Based on Electronegativity Difference

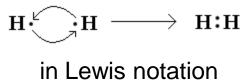
- 5-11 Molecular Polarity
- 5-12 Recognizing and Naming Binary Molecular Compounds

The covalent bond model

 Covalent bonds result from the sharing of electrons between atoms. These electron pairs (bonds) act like a glue to hold atoms together.



Covalent bonds result between hydrogen atoms when the 1s orbitals of two atoms overlap



Lewis structures for molecular compounds

$$\mathbf{H} \stackrel{\longleftarrow}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{F} : \longrightarrow \mathbf{H} : \mathbf{F} :$$
 $\mathbf{F} \stackrel{\longleftarrow}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{F} : \longrightarrow \mathbf{B} : \mathbf{F} :$
 $\mathbf{B} : \mathbf{F} : \longrightarrow \mathbf{B} : \mathbf{F} :$

Usually, we represent shared electron pairs with lines (1 line = 1 covalent bond)

$$H-H$$
 $H-F$: $F-F$: $Br-F$:

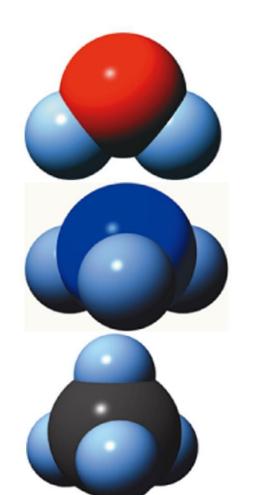
When counting electrons around an atom in Lewis structures, each covalent bond counts as 2 electrons

Lewis structures for molecular compounds

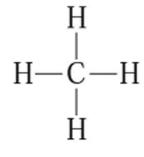


Electrons that aren't involved in bonds are called "non-bonding electrons" (labeled in red in the above diagrams)

Lewis structures for molecular compounds



Ammonia, NH₃



Methane, CH₄

Lewis structures are not meant to convey anything about shape

$$H-\ddot{O}-H$$
 $Mater, H_2O$ $M-\ddot{O}-H$ $M-\ddot{O}-H$

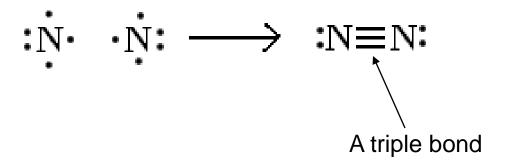
Single, double, and triple covalent bonds

- In single bonds, atoms share a pair of electrons; the electron pair that is shared exists in the space between the two atoms' nuclei.
- In certain cases, atoms must share more than just a pair of electrons to explain the bonding between them. For example, in O₂, sharing just one pair leaves each oxygen atom with only 7 electrons around it...but sharing another pair gives each of them 8 electrons.

This is called a double covalent bond

Single, double, and triple covalent bonds

 Another example is N₂ (nitrogen). In this case, two N atoms need to share three pairs of electrons for each N atom to gain an octet.



Valence electrons and the number of covalent bonds formed

 To predict how many bonds an atom will form to obtain an octet, consider the number of valence electrons it possesses.

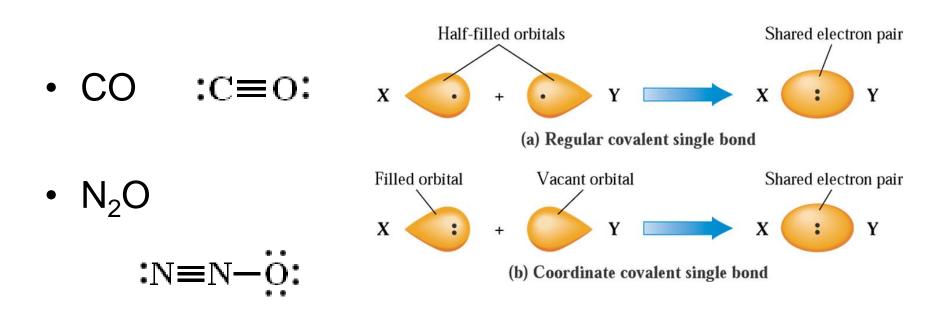
Oxygen: group 6A; needs to form two bonds to get octet $: O - : \ddot{o} =$ Nitrogen: group 5A; needs to form three bonds to get octet : N - : N = : N = - C - - C = = C = -C =

Carbon: group 4A; needs to form four bonds to get octet

	1A 1																	8A 18
1	1 H	2A 2											3A 13	4A 14	5A 15	6A 16	7A 17	2 He
2	3 Li	4 Be											5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
3	11 N a	12 Mg	3B 3	4B 4	5B 5	6B 6	7B 7	$\sqrt{8}$	8B 9	10	1B 11	2B 12	13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
4	19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
5	37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Z r	41 Nb	42 Mo	43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe
6	55 Cs	56 Ba	71 Lu	72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W	75 Re	76 Os	77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
7	87 Fr	88 Ra	103 Lr	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110	111	112	113	114	115	116		
		Metals		57 La	58 Ce	59 Pr	60 Nd	61 Pm	62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb	
		Metal	loids	89 Ac	90 Th	91 Pa	92 U	93 Np	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No	
		Nonn	Ionmetals															

Coordinate covalent bonds

 In some cases, atoms may donate both electrons that are used to form a bond. Examples:



Systematic rules for drawing Lewis structures

- Step 1: Find the sum of valence electrons of all atoms in the polyatomic ion or molecule.
- Step 2: Draw the atoms in the order in which they occur*, connecting them with single bonds. Bonds "cost" 2 electrons each.
- Step 3: Add electrons around the non-central (outside) atoms until they each have an octet.**
- Step 4: If any electrons remain left over at this point, use them to complete the octet on the central atom.

^{*}See page 115 to predict which atom is central in a formula. Neither hydrogen nor fluorine is *ever* a central atom. If C is present, it usually is the central atom, and in binary compounds (e.g. NH₃), the "single-atom element" is usually the central atom. ** Remember, hydrogen atoms can accommodate only 2 electrons (i.e. not an octet).

Systematic rules for drawing Lewis structures

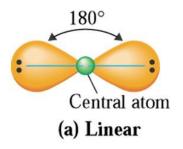
- Step 5: If there are not enough electrons on the central atom for an octet, make multiple bonds between the central atom and another atom to give it an octet.
- Step 6: Double-check the total number of electrons in the Lewis structure at this point to be sure that there are no more present than the total number you counted in Step 1.
- Examples: SO₂, HCN, CO₂

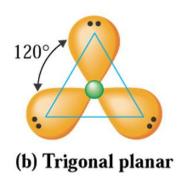
Bonding in polyatomic ions and ionic compounds containing polyatomic ions

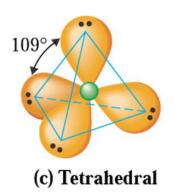
- The rules for drawing Lewis structures for polyatomic ions are similar to the six steps we just covered.
- lons carry charges, so the total number of electrons calculated in Step 1 must be adjusted to account for the ion's charge.
 - Positive charged ions: deduct one electron from the total number counted for each positive charge.
 - Negatively charged ions: add one electron to the total number for each negative charge.
 - In the end, surround the Lewis structure with square brackets and indicate charge as for Lewis structures for ionic compounds

Examples: SO₄²-,K₂SO₄, CO₃²-

- Looking at a Lewis structure, one might expect that all molecules are flat; Lewis structures convey no information (by themselves) about the shape of molecules.
- VSEPR theory (Valence Shell Electron-Pair Repulsion) is used to predict molecular shape, and is based on the repulsion that exists between charges of the same sign.
- Shape of a molecule is normally given with respect to the central atom.







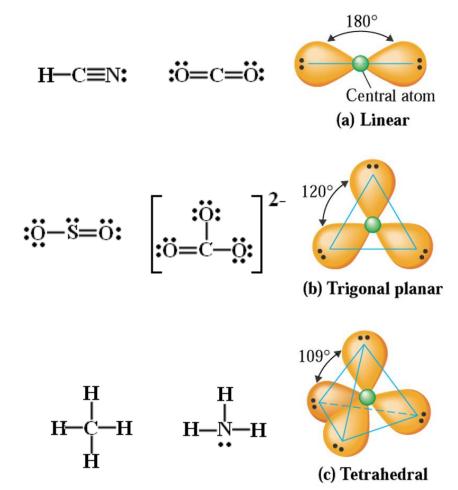
 Consider the electron pairs that are found on the central atom in a molecule of HCN

H—C≡N:

- On one side of the central carbon atom is a C-H single bond, and on the other, a C-N triple bond. Thus, there are two "VSER electron groups" around the carbon.
- These bonds consist of electrons, and are repulsive toward each other. The bonds prefer to be as far apart from each other as possible, yielding a linear arrangement.

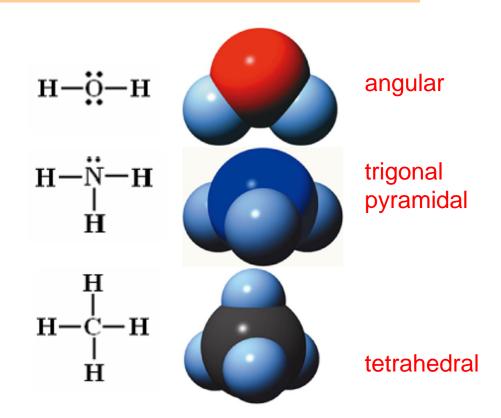
VSEPR electron groups = single bond, double bond, triple bond, or a non-bonding pair of electrons (all are negatively charged)

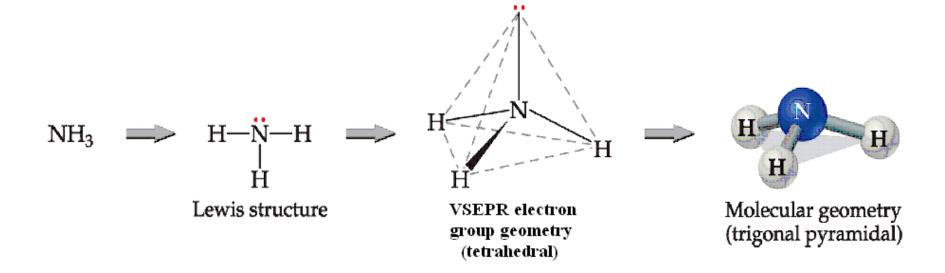
- The number of VSEPR electron groups on the central atom is what determines the structure's geometry. As these groups are repelled by each other, and move as far apart as they can, they drag with them the outer atoms.
- Two VSEPR electron groups on the central atom yields a linear arrangement of these electron groups.
- Three VSEPR electron groups yields a trigonal planar arrangement of electron groups.
- Four VSEPR electron groups on the central atom yields a tetrahedral arrangement of electron groups.

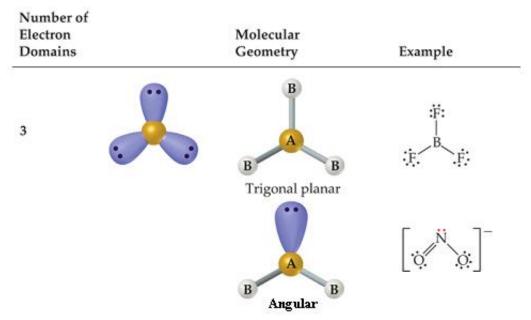


All of these Lewis structures have four electron domains on the central atom

- In many cases, at least one of the VSEPR electron groups on the central atom is a nonbonding pair.
- The shape of the molecule is determined by the arrangement of atoms around the central atom.







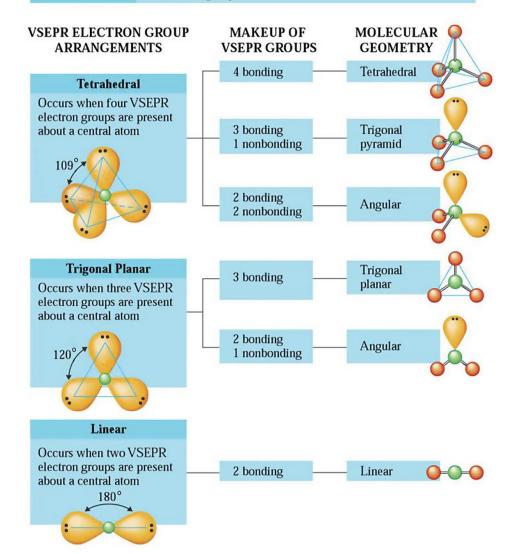
- There are two molecular geometries for 3 electron domains:
 - Trigonal planar, if all the electron domains are bonding
 - Angular, if one of the domains is a nonbonding pair.

Examples: CO₃²⁻, O₃, NO₂⁻

PREDICTING MOLECULAR GEOMETRY USING VSEPR THEORY

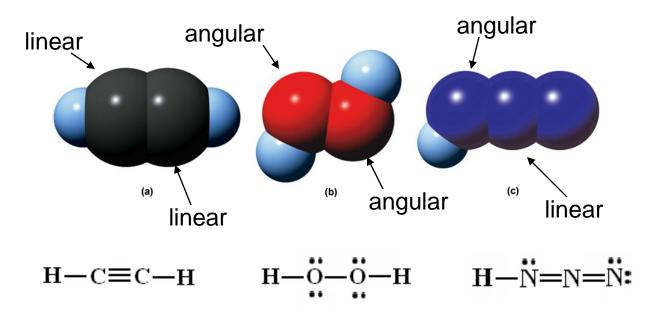
Operational rules

- 1. Draw a Lewis structure for the molecule.
- 2. Count the number of VSEPR electron groups about the central atom in the Lewis structure.
- 3. Assign a geometry based on minimizing repulsions between electron groups.



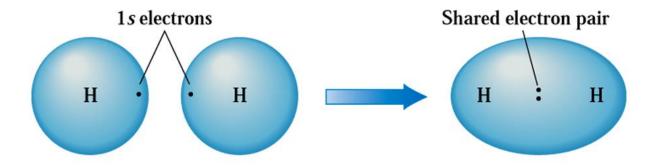
Molecules with more than one central atom

 For molecules that contain more than one central atom, a local molecular shape can be described (describing the geometry around a central atom).



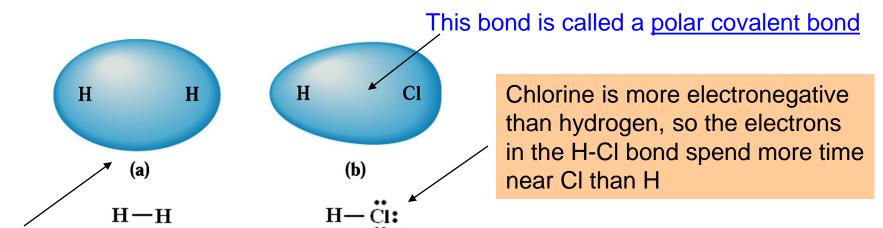
Electronegativity

- Atoms that are involved in bonds share electron with other atoms to obtain octet of electrons around themselves.
- When two identical atoms share electrons to form bonds, the electrons in the bond(s) are shared equally between the two atoms (e.g. H₂, O₂, N₂, and between the two carbon atoms of C₂H₂ – see last slide).



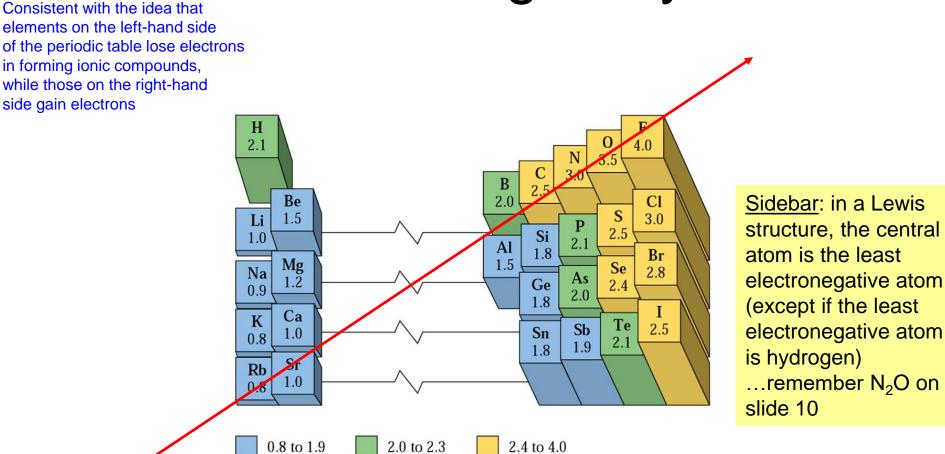
Electronegativity

- In many covalent bonds, the electron pair (or pairs, in multiple bonds) are not equally shared, as different elements have differing abilities to attract electrons in bonds toward themselves.
- The electronegativity of an element reflects how strongly an atom of that element can pull bonding electrons toward itself.



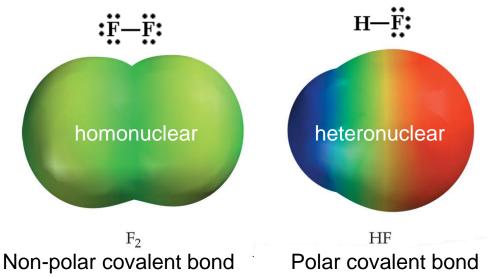
This bond is a <u>non-polar covalent bond</u>

Electronegativity



Electronegativity increases left-to-right across a period and bottom-to-top in a group.

- Polar covalent bonds have an unsymmetrical distribution of electrons between the two atoms involved in the bond.
- The electrons in these bonds spend more time on one side of the bond (the side with the more electronegative atom) than the other.
- This creates a bonding picture that looks a bit like an ionic bond; however, no electron transfer has happened here (electrons are still shared, just unequally).



The bigger the difference in the electronegativity of the two atoms in the covalent bond, the more polar the bond.

 Polar bonds are somewhere in-between nonpolar covalent bonds and ionic bonds

Non-polar covalent

Equal sharing of electrons in bonds

H-H

Ionic bonds

Complete transfer of electron(s) from one atom to the other (no sharing)

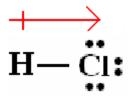


Polar covalent bonds

Unequal sharing of bonding electrons; endows one end of bond with partial negative charge and the other with a partial positive charge

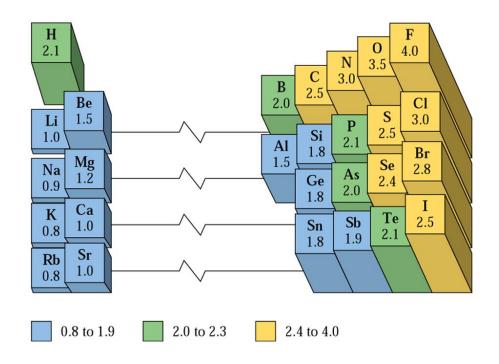
 Because the bonding electrons between H and CI spend more time on the CI end, that end of the bond carries a partial negative charge (and the other end a partial positive charge)

This can also be represented with a "crossed arrow"



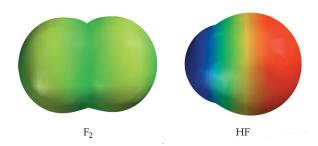
 In this notation, the arrow points toward side of the bond that carries the partial negative charge and the "+" sign is on the side that carries the partial positive charge.

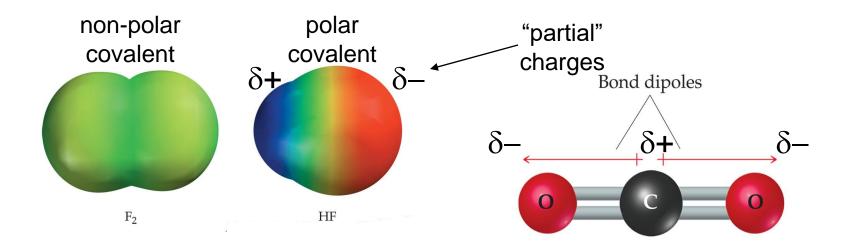
- In some cases, bonds that have low polarity are considered to be non-polar.
- Use the following guideline to determine whether a bond is non-polar, polar, or ionic:
 - If the two atoms involved in a bond have an electronegativity difference of 0.4 or less, the bond is considered to be non-polar covalent.
 - If the electronegativity difference for the two atoms of a bond is between 0.4 and 1.5, it is considered to be a polar covalent bond.
 - Bonds that have an electronegativity difference of greater than 2.0 are ionic.
 - If the electronegativity difference for a bond lies in the 1.5-2.0 range, it is considered to be ionic if it involves a metal and nonmetal. It is considered to be polar covalent if two non-metals are involved



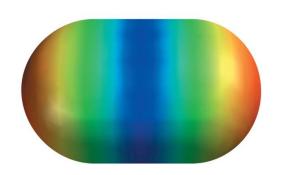
H-H non-polar covalent
C-H non-polar covalent
H-CI polar covalent
H-F polar covalent
Na-CI ionic

- Entire molecules can have unequal distributions of electronic charge. In these cases, the molecule is said to be polar.
- An easy-to-see case for this is in a H-F molecule. The bond is polar and there is only one bond in the molecule. Thus the entire molecule is polar.
- Molecules may be polar as a result of a combination of
 - their molecular geometry
 - the presence of polar bonds in the molecule

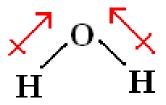




Just because a
 molecule possesses
 polar bonds does not
 mean the molecule as a
 whole will be polar.

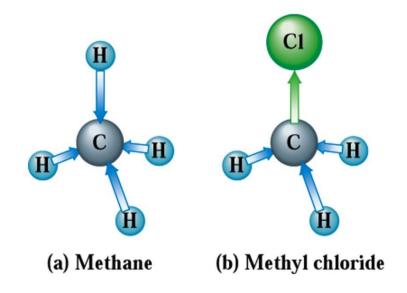


- Unlike CO₂ (triatomic, linear, and symmetric), H₂O is not linear (angular), and so the direction of its polar bonds describes an H₂O molecule that has a partial negative charge on the oxygen side, and a partial positive charge on the hydrogen side.
- For HCN, it is easier to see why the molecule is polar



$$\stackrel{\longleftarrow}{H-C}\stackrel{\longleftarrow}{\equiv}N$$

 For more complicated molecules (e.g. CH₄, CH₃Cl), the symmetry of the molecule needs to be considered to predict whether the molecule is polar or not.



Naming binary molecular compounds

- Binary molecular compounds contain only two nonmetallic elements.
- In naming binary molecular compounds, the non-metal of lower electronegativity is presented first, followed by the non-metal having the higher electronegativity. The nonmetal's name is suffixed as it was for binary ionic compounds ("-ide").
 - HF: hydrogen fluoride
- For compounds with more than one atom of an element, prefixes are used to indicate the numbers of these atoms*:
 - N₂O₄: dinitrogen tetroxide
 - NO₂: nitrogen dioxide

Exception: if the first element is hydrogen, then the prefix is not used. Example, H₂S is just "hydrogen sulfide"