Types of Chemical Bonding

lonic bonding involves the *transfer* of electrons and is usually observed when a *metal* bonds to a *nonmetal*.

Covalent bonding involves the **sharing** of electrons and is usually observed when a **nonmetal** bonds to a **nonmetal**.

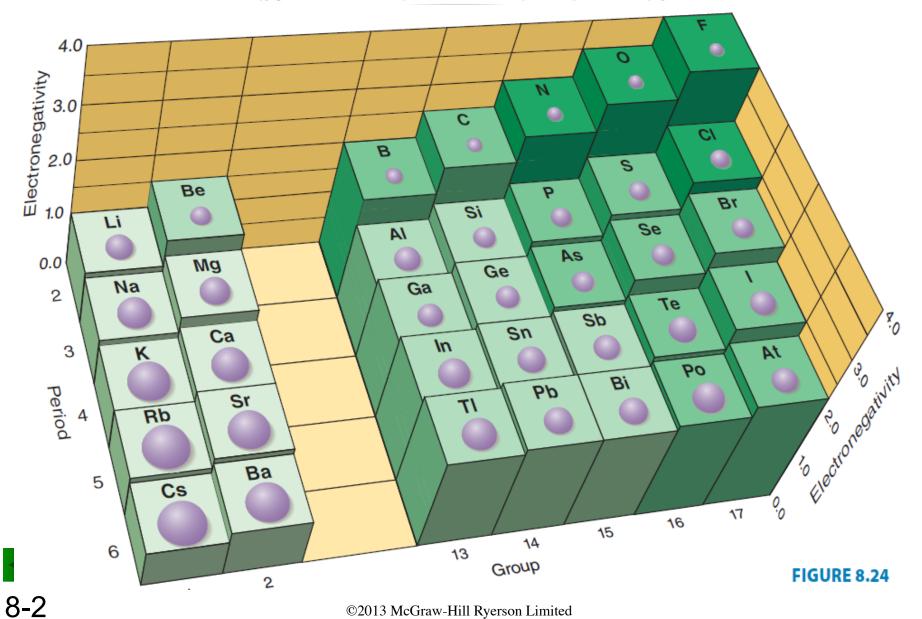
Metallic bonding involves *electron pooling* and occurs when a *metal* bonds to another *metal*.





Figure 8.24 Electronegativity and atomic size.

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Electronegativity and Oxidation Number

Electronegativities can be used to assign oxidation numbers:

- The more electronegative atom is assigned *all* the *shared* electrons.
- The less electronegative atom is assigned *none* of the shared electrons.
- Each atom in a bond is assigned *all* of its *unshared* electrons.
- O.N. = # of valence e⁻ (# of shared e⁻ + # of unshared e⁻)





CI is more electronegative than H, so for CI: valence $e^- = 7$ shared $e^- = 2$ unshared $e^- = 6$ O.N. = 7 - (2 + 6) = -1

H is less electronegative than CI, so for H: valence $e^- = 1$ shared $e^- = 0$ (all shared e^- assigned to CI) unshared $e^- = 0$ O.N. = 1 - (0 + 0) = +1





Lewis Electron-Dot Symbols

To draw the Lewis symbol for any main-group element:

- Note the A-group number, which gives the number of valence electrons.
- Place one dot at a time on each of the four sides of the element symbol.
- Keep adding dots, pairing them, until all are used up.

Example:

Nitrogen, N, is in Group 5A and therefore has 5 valence electrons.

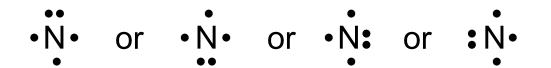


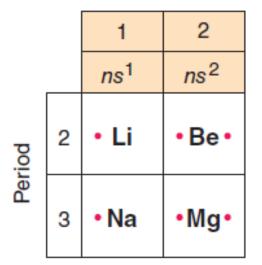




Figure 8.5

Lewis electron-dot symbols for elements in Periods 2 and 3.

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13	14	15	16	17	18
ns²np¹	ns²np²	ns²np³	ns²np4	ns²np⁵	ns²np ⁶
• B •	• • •	• N •	:0.	: F] :	:Ne:
• AI •	• Si •	• P •	: s •	: CI :	: Ar :





8.2 The Ionic Bonding Model

An ionic bond is formed when a metal *transfers* electrons to a nonmetal to form *ions*, which attract each other to give a solid compound.

The total number of electrons lost by the metal atom(s) equals the total number of electrons gained by the nonmetal atoms.

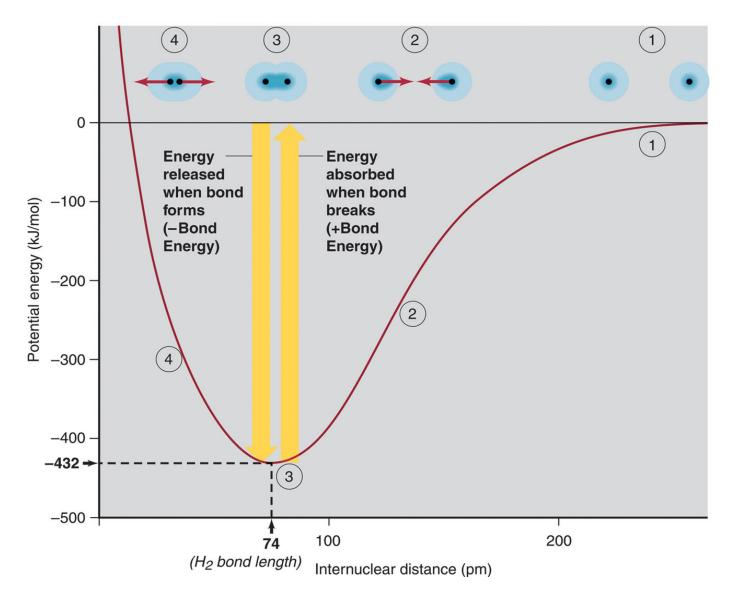








Figure 8.13 Covalent bond formation in H₂.

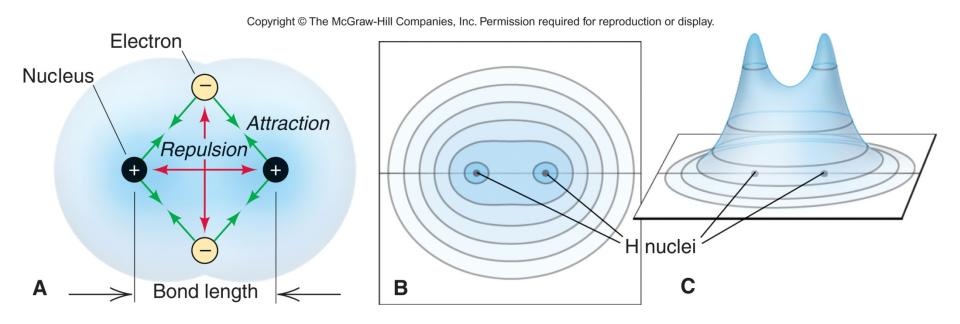






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Figure 8.14 Distribution of electron density in H₂.



At some distance (bond length), attractions balance repulsions.

Electron density is high around and between the nuclei.



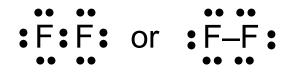


Bonding Pairs and Lone Pairs

Atoms share electrons to achieve a full outer level of electrons. The shared electrons are called a *shared pair* or *bonding pair*.

The shared pair is represented as a pair of dots or a line:

An outer-level electron pair that is not involved in bonding is called a *lone pair*, or *unshared pair*.

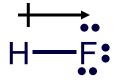






Depicting Polar Bonds

The unequal sharing of electrons can be depicted by a polar arrow. The head of the arrow points to the *more electronegative element*.



A polar bond can also be marked using δ + and δ - symbols.

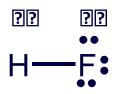
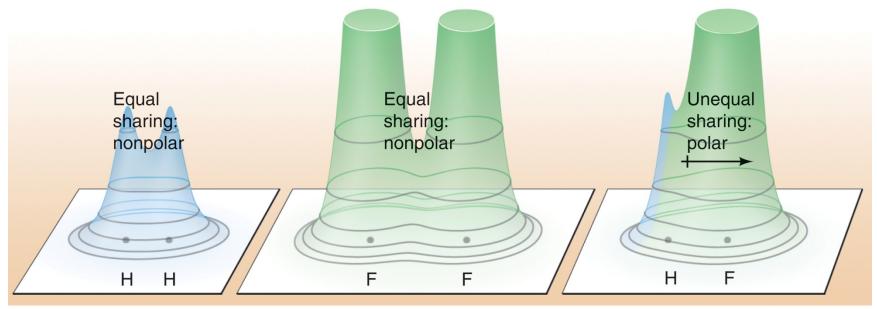








Figure 8.25 Electron density distributions in H_2 , F_2 , and HF.



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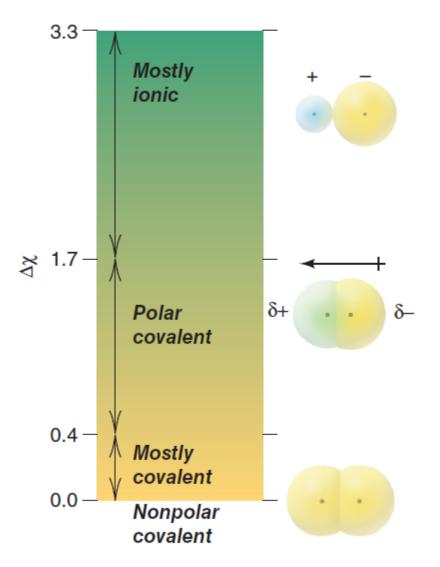
In HF, the electron density shifts from H to F. The H–F bond has partial ionic character.



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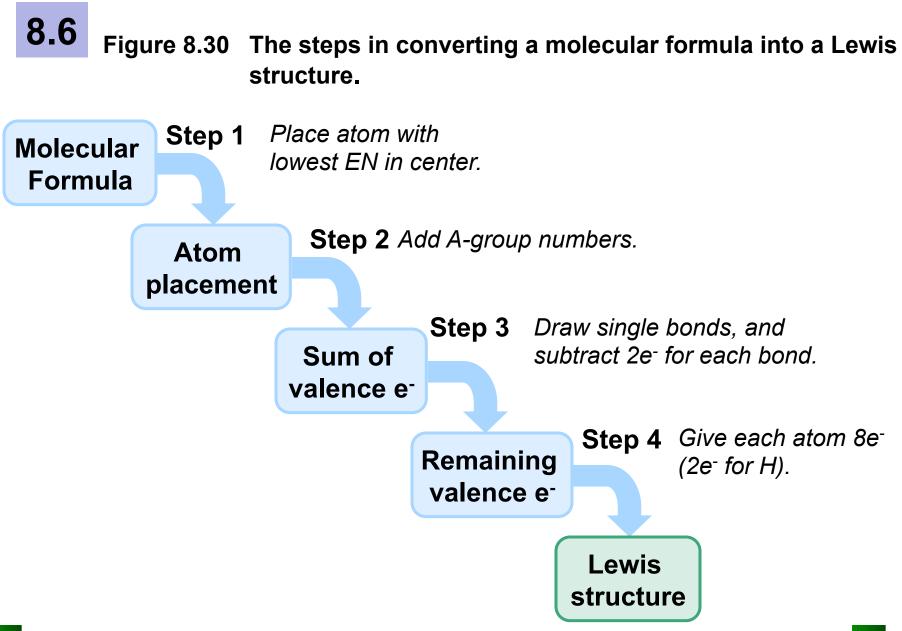
Figure 8.26 Δ_{χ} .ranges for classifying the partial ionic character of bonds.







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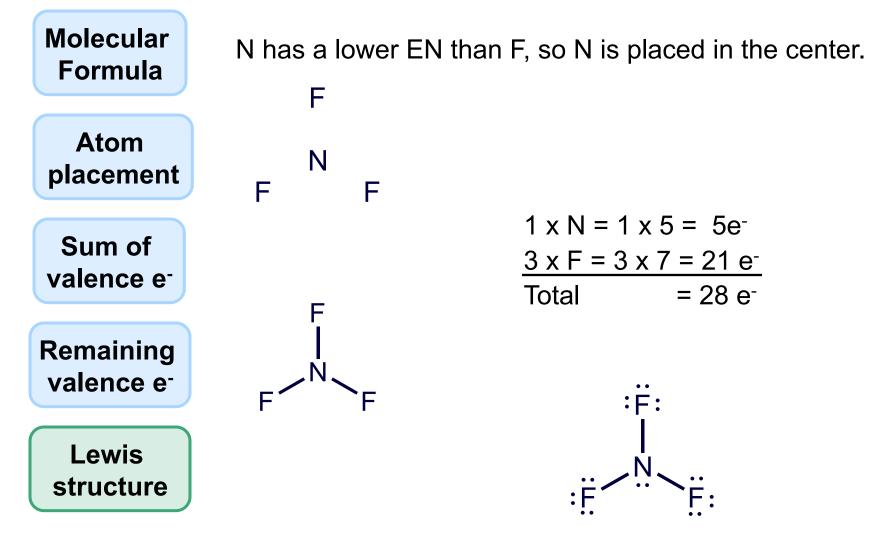


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Example: NF₃





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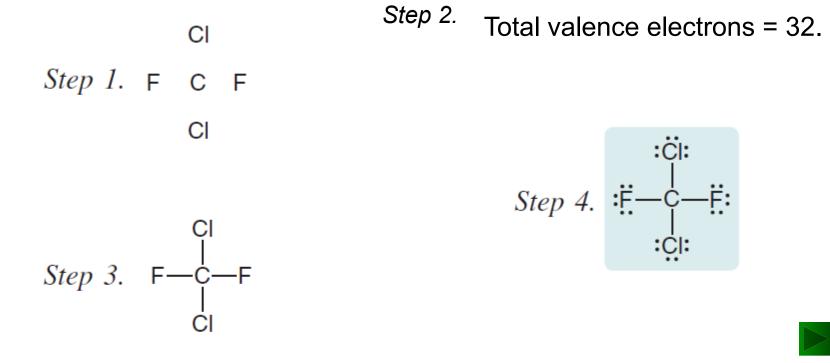




Writing a Lewis Structure for a Molecule with One Central Atom.

Problem : Write the lewis structure for CCl_2F_2 , one of the compounds responsible for the depletion of stratospheric ozone.

Solution:



Sample Problem 8.7

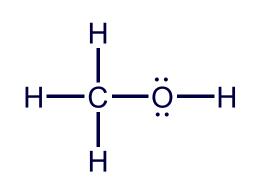
Writing a Lewis Structures for a Molecule with More than One Central Atom

PROBLEM: Write the Lewis structure for methanol (molecular formula CH_4O), an important industrial alcohol that is being used as a gasoline alternative in car engines.

SOLUTION:

Step 1: Place the atoms relative to each other. H can only form one bond, so C and O must be central and adjacent to each other.

Step 3-4: Add single bonds, then give each atom (other than H) a full octet.



Н

Н

Η



Multiple Bonds

If there are not enough electrons for the *central* atom to attain an octet, a multiple bond is present.

Step 5: If the central atom does not have a full octet, change a lone pair on a surrounding atom into another bonding pair to the central atom, thus forming a multiple bond.

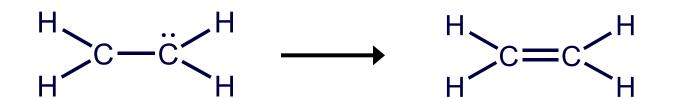


Sample Problem 8.8Writing Lewis Structures for Molecules
with Multiple Bonds

- **PROBLEM:** Write Lewis structures for the following:
 - (a) Ethylene (C_2H_4), the most important reactant in the manufacture of polymers
 - (b) Nitrogen (N₂), the most abundant atmospheric gas(about 78 %)
- **PLAN:** After following steps 1 to 4 we see that the central atom does not have a full octet. We must therefore add step 5, which involves changing a lone pair to a bonding pair.

SOLUTION:

(a) C_2H_4 has 2(4) + 4(1) = 12 valence e⁻. H can have only one bond per atom.







Sample Problem 8.8 con't

(b) N_2 has 2(5) = 10 valence e^- .

$$: \ddot{N} \longrightarrow \ddot{N} : \longrightarrow \ddot{N} \equiv \ddot{N}$$



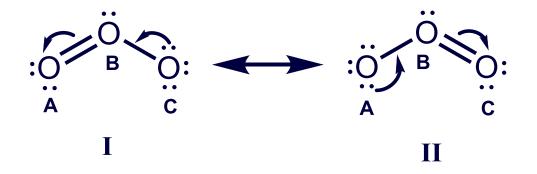




Resonance Structures

The structure of O_3 is shown more correctly using both Lewis structures, called *resonance structures*.

A two-headed resonance arrow is placed between them.



Resonance structures have the same relative placement of atoms but different locations of bonding and lone electron pairs.





Electron Delocalization

Lewis structures depict electrons as *localized* either on an individual atom (lone pairs) or in a bond between two atoms (shared pair).

In a resonance hybrid, electrons are *delocalized*: their density is "spread" over a few adjacent atoms.



Dotted lines are used to show delocalized electrons.

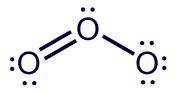




Fractional Bond Orders

Resonance hybrids often have *fractional bond orders* due to partial bonding.

For O₃, bond order =
$$\frac{3 \text{ electron pairs}}{2 \text{ bonded-atom pairs}} = 1\frac{1}{2}$$





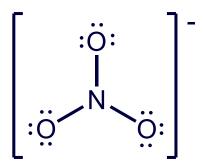
Sample Problem 8.9

- **PROBLEM:** Write resonance structures for the nitrate ion, NO_3^- and find the bond order.
- **PLAN:** Write the Lewis structure, remembering to add 1e⁻ to the total number of valence e⁻ for the -1 charge. We apply Step 5 to form multiple bonds. Since multiple bonds can be formed in more than one location, there are resonance forms.

SOLUTION:

Nitrate has [1 x N(5e⁻)] + [3 x O(6e⁻)] + 1e⁻] = 24 valence e⁻

After Steps 1-4:

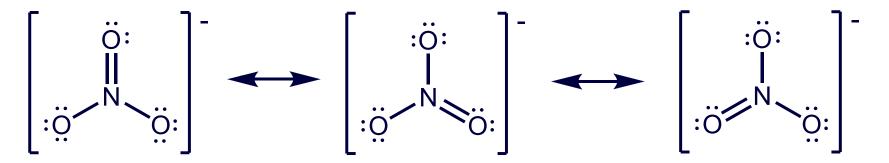






Sample Problem 8.9

Step 5. Since N does not have a full octet, we change a lone pair from O to a bonding pair to form a double bond.



Bond order = $\frac{4 \text{ shared electron pairs}}{3 \text{ bonded-atom pairs}} = 1\frac{1}{3}$





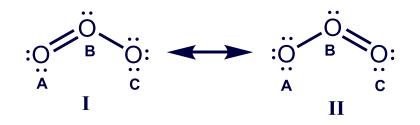


Formal Charge

Formal charge is the charge an atom would have if all electrons were shared *equally*.

Formal charge of atom =

of valence e^{-} - (# of unshared valence e^{-} + $\frac{1}{2}$ # of shared valence e^{-})



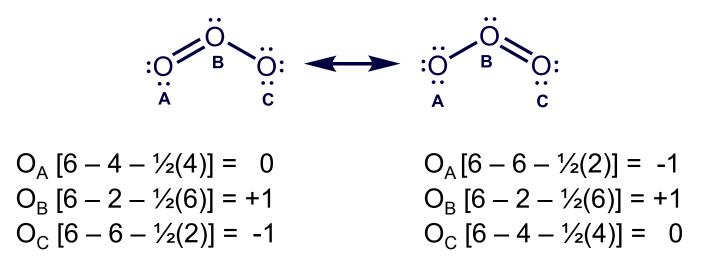
For O_A in resonance form I, the formal charge is given by 6 valence e^{-} - (4 unshared e^{-} + $\frac{1}{2}$ (4 shared e^{-}) = 6 – 4 – 2 = 0





Formal Charge

Formal charges must sum to the actual charge on the species for *all* resonance forms.



For both these resonance forms the formal charges sum to zero, since O_3 is a neutral molecule.





Choosing the More Important Resonance Form

- Smaller formal charges (positive or negative) are preferable to larger ones.
- The *same* nonzero formal charges on adjacent atoms are not preferred.

Avoid like charges on adjacent atoms.

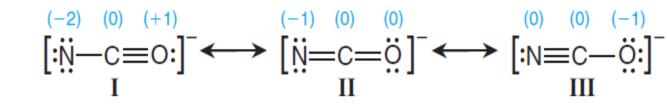
• A more negative formal charge should reside on a more electronegative atom.





Example: NCO⁻ has 3 possible resonance forms:

Formal charges: Resonance forms:



Resonance forms with smaller formal charges are preferred. Resonance form I is therefore *not* an important contributor.

A negative formal charge should be placed on a more electronegative atoms, so resonance form III is preferred to resonance form II.

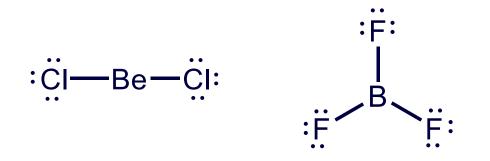
The overall structure of the NCO⁻ ion is still an *average* of all three forms, but **resonance form III** contributes *most* to the average.





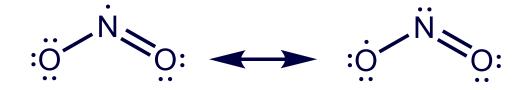
Exceptions to the Octet Rule

Molecules with Electron-Deficient Atoms



B and Be are commonly electron-deficient.

Odd-Electron Species



A molecule with an odd number of electrons is called a *free radical*.

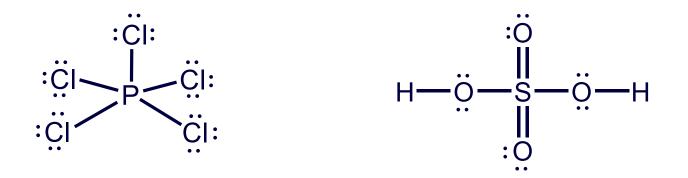


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Exceptions to the Octet Rule

Expanded Valence Shells



An expanded valence shell is only possible for *nonmetals from Period 3 or higher* because these elements have available *d orbitals*.



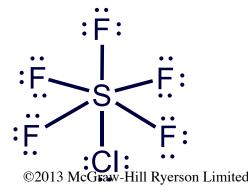


Sample Problem 8.10Writing Lewis Structures for Octet-RuleExceptions

- **PROBLEM:** Write a Lewis structure and identify the octet-rule exception for (a) $SCIF_5$; (b) H_3PO_4 (draw two resonance forms and select the more important); (c) $BFCI_2$.
- **PLAN:** Draw each Lewis structure and examine it for exceptions to the octet rule. Period 3 elements can have an expanded octet, while B commonly forms electron-deficient species.

SOLUTION:

(a) The central atom is S, which is in Period 3 and can have an expanded valence shell.

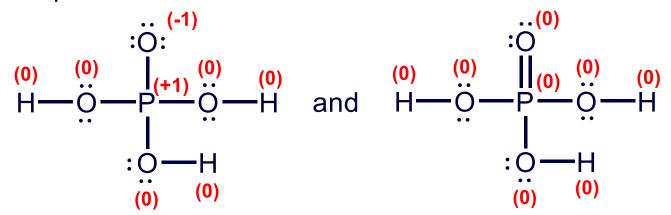




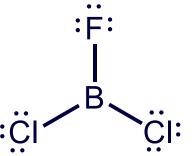


Sample Problem 8.10

(b) H₃PO₄ has two resonance forms and formal charges indicate the more important form.



(c) BFCl₂ is an electron-deficient molecule. B has only six electrons surrounding it.





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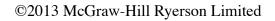


9.1 Valence-Shell Electron-Pair Repulsion Theory (VSEPR)

Each group of valence electrons around a central atom is located as far as possible from the others, to minimize repulsions.

A "group" of electrons is any number of electrons that occupies a localized region around an atom. A single bond, double bond, triple bond, lone pair, or single electron all count as a single group.





Electron-group Arrangement and Molecular Shape

The *electron-group arrangement* is defined by both bonding and nonbonding electron groups.

The *molecular shape* is the three-dimensional arrangement of nuclei joined by the bonding groups. This is defined only by the relative positions of the nuclei.

Molecular shape is classified using the designation

$$AX_m E_n$$

A = central atom
X = surrounding atom
E = nonbonding valence-electron group *m* and *n* are integers



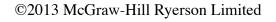
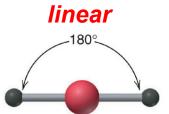


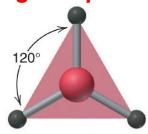
Figure 9.2 Electron-group repulsions and molecular shapes.



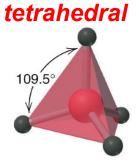


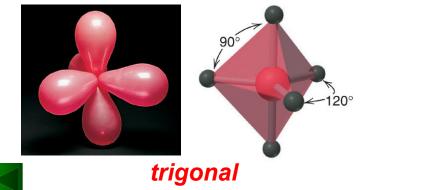


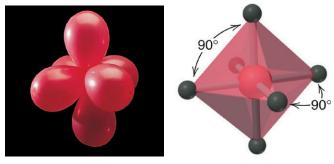
trigonal planar













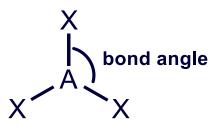


bipyramidal 8-36

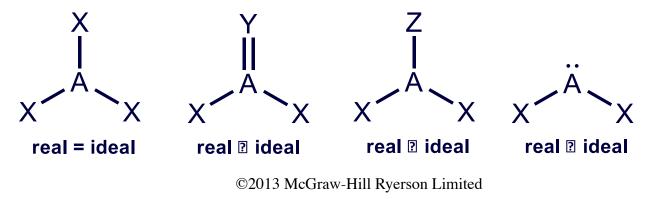
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Bond Angle

The **bond angle** is the angle formed by the nuclei of two surrounding atoms with the nucleus of the central atom.



The angles shown in Figure 10.2 are *ideal* bond angles, determined by basic geometry alone. Real bond angles deviate from the ideal value in many cases.



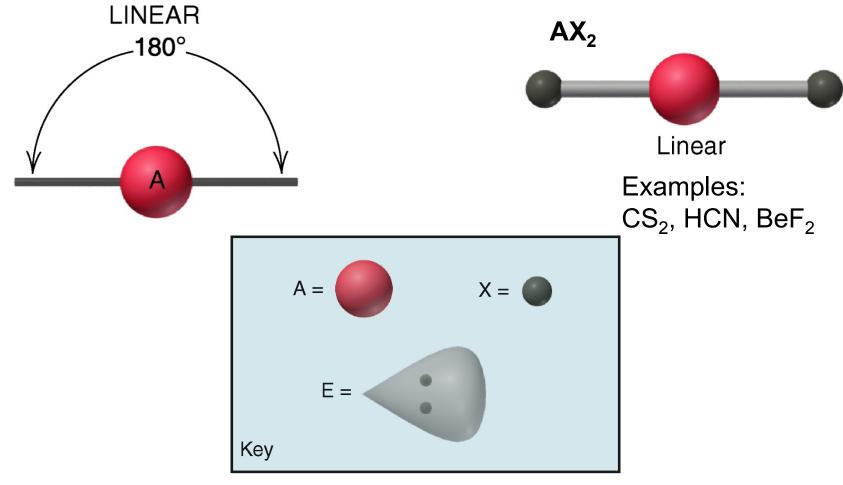
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Figure 9.3
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The single molecular shape of the linear electron-group arrangement.

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This key refers to Figures 9.3 through 9.8.

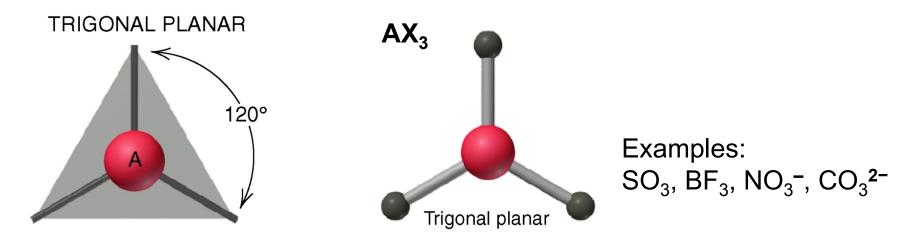


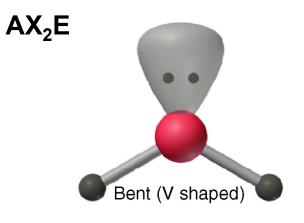


Figure 9.4

The two molecular shapes of the trigonal planar electron-group arrangement.

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Examples: SO₂, O₃, PbCl₂, SnBr₂

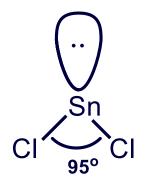


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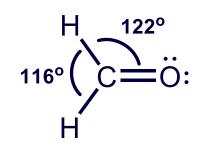
Factors Affecting Bond Angles

Nonbonding (Lone) Pairs



A lone pair repels bonding pairs more strongly than bonding pairs repel each other. This decreases the angle between the bonding pairs.

Double Bonds



The ideal angle is 120°.

A double bond has greater electron density than a single bond, and repels the single bond electrons more than they repel each other.

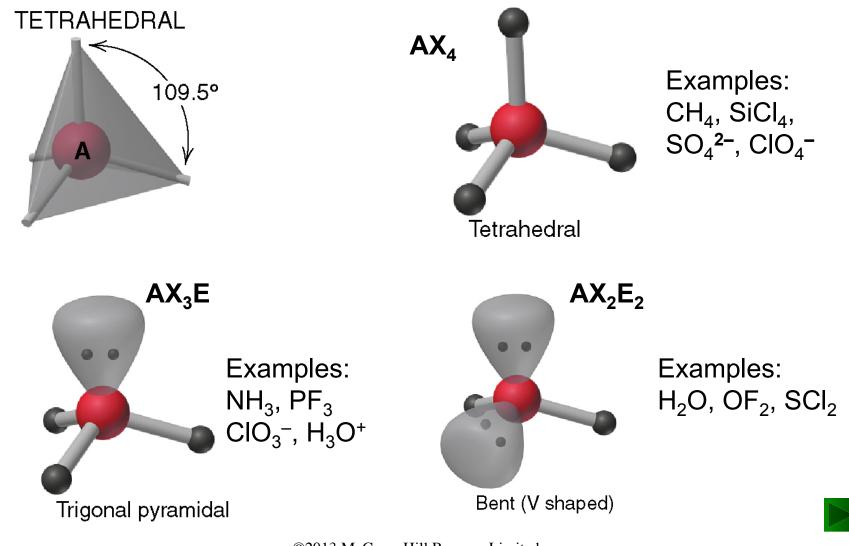




Figure 9.5

The three molecular shapes of the tetrahedral electron-group arrangement.

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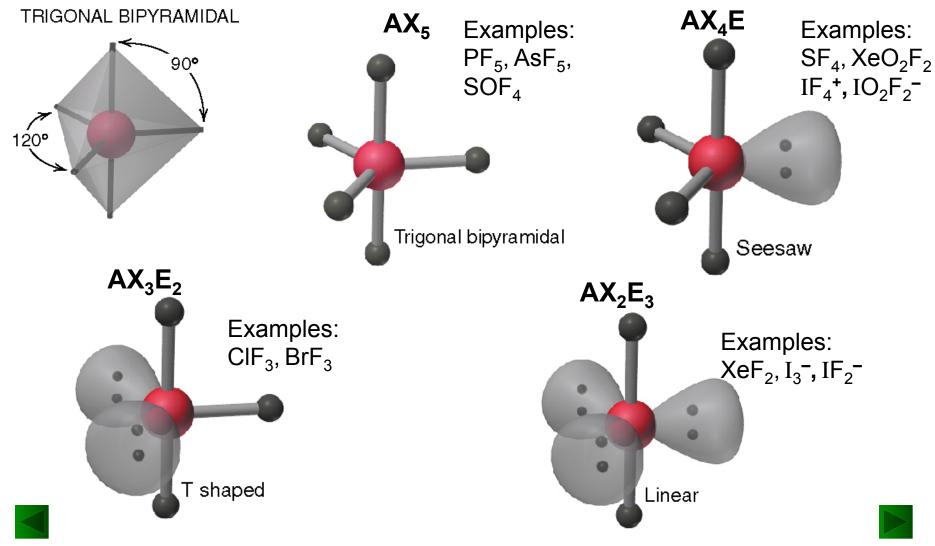


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Figure 9.7 The four molecular shapes of the trigonal bipyramidal electron-group arrangement.

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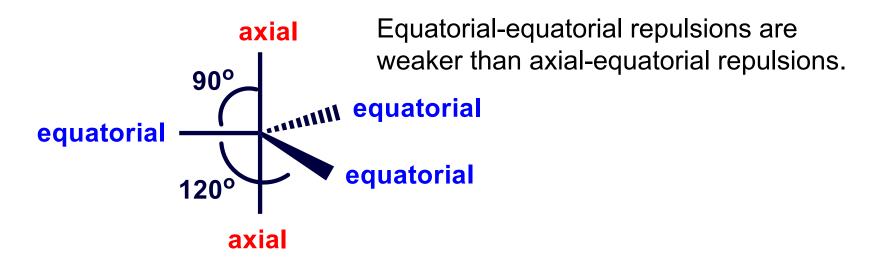


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Axial and Equatorial Positions

A five electron-group system has two different positions for electron groups, and two ideal bond angles.



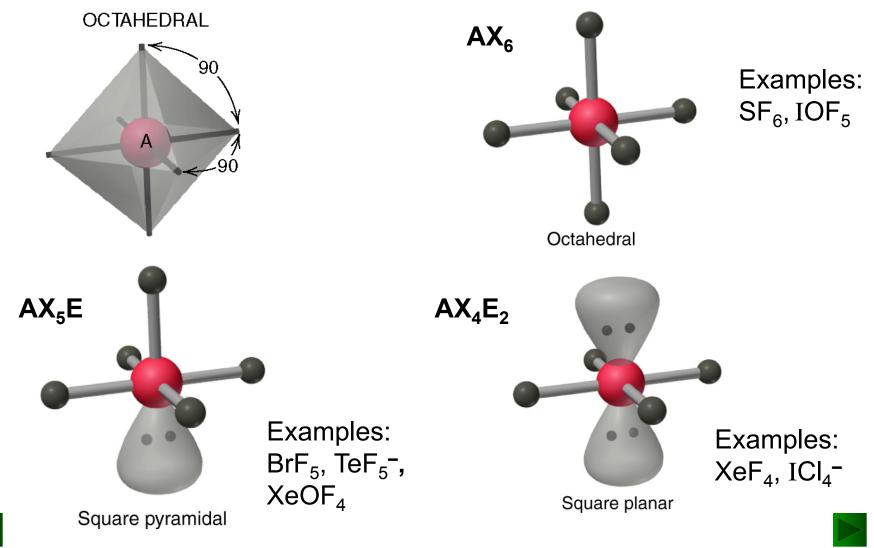
Where possible, lone pairs in a five electron-group system occupy *equatorial* positions.





Figure 9.8 The three molecular shapes of the octahedral electron-group arrangement.

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Figure 9.10 A summary of common molecular shapes with two to six electron groups.

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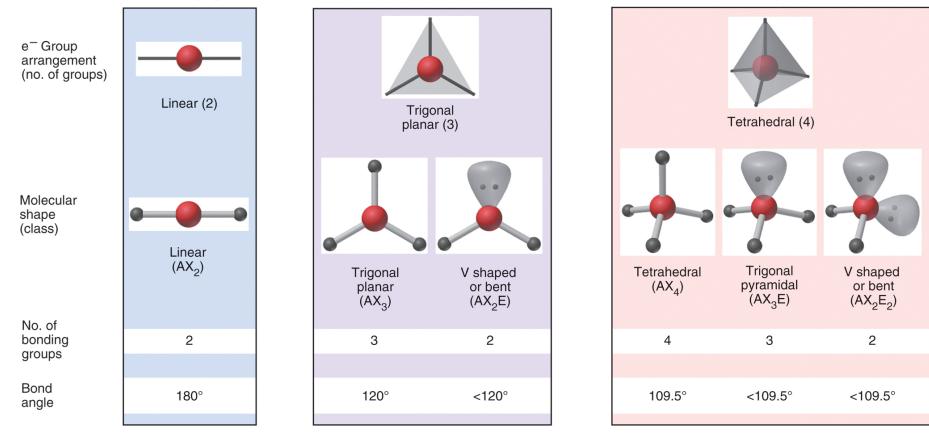
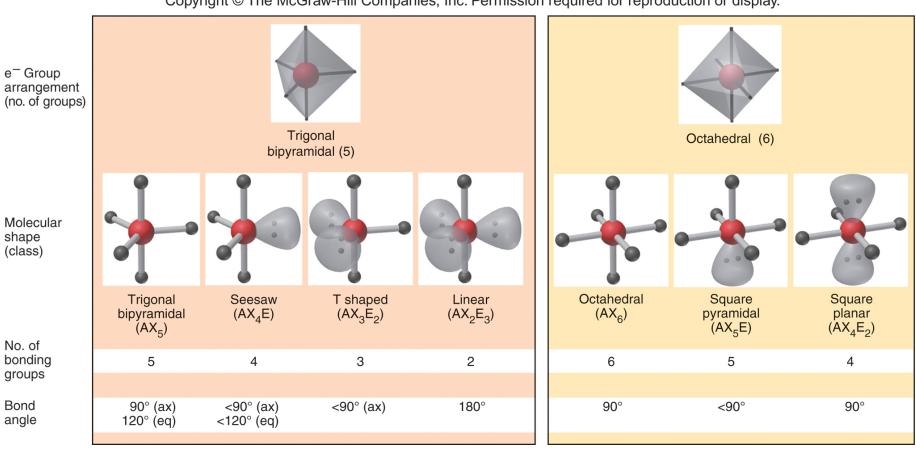






Figure 9.10 continued



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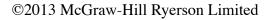
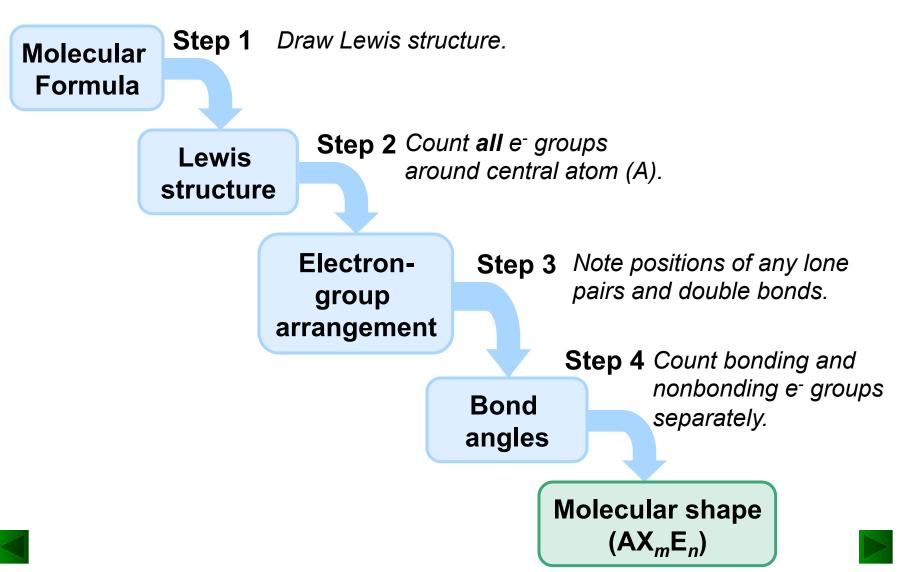


Figure 9.11 The four steps in converting a molecular formula to a molecular shape





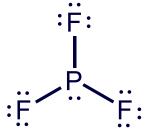
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Examining Shapes with Two, Three, or Four Electron Groups

PROBLEM: Draw the molecular shape and predict the bond angles (relative to the ideal bond angles) of (a) PF_3 and (b) $COCI_2$.

SOLUTION:

(a) For PF_3 , there are 26 valence electrons. The Lewis structure is



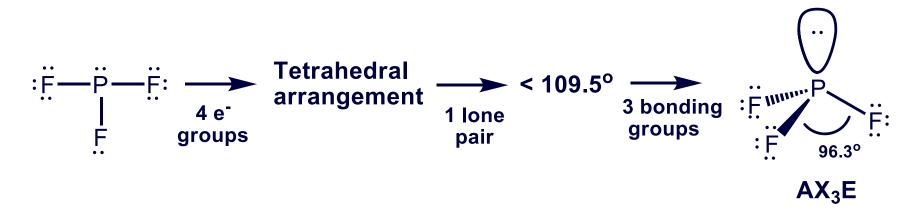
There are four electron groups around P, giving a tetrahedral electrongroup arrangement. **The ideal bond angle is therefore 109.5**°.

There is one lone pair and three bonding pairs, so the actual bond angle will be **less than 109.5°.**

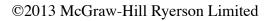




The molecular shape for PF_3 is **trigonal pyramidal** (**AX₃E**).

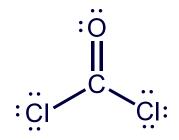




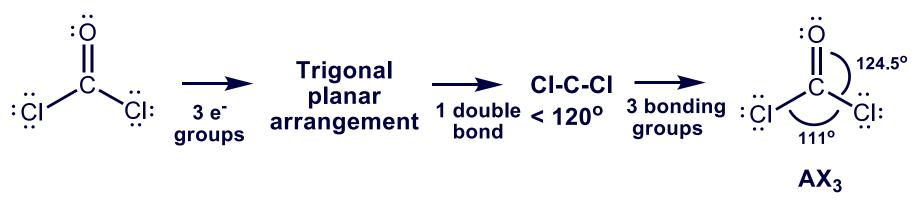




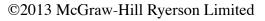
(b) For COCl₂ there are 24 valence e⁻. The Lewis structure is



There are three electron groups around C, giving a trigonal planar electron-group arrangement. **The ideal bond angle is 120°**, but the double bond will compress the CI-C-CI angle to **less than 120°**.





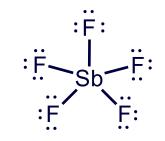


Examining Shapes with Five or Six Electron Groups

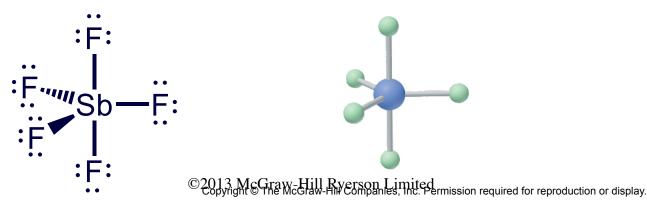
PROBLEM: Draw the molecular shapes and predict the bond angles (relative to the ideal bond angles) of (a) SbF_5 and (b) BrF_5 .

SOLUTION:

(a) SbF₅ has 40 valence e⁻.
 The Lewis structure is



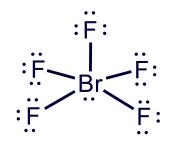
There are five electron groups around Sb, giving a trigonal bipyramidal electron-group arrangement. The ideal bond angles are 120° between equatorial groups and 90° between axial groups.



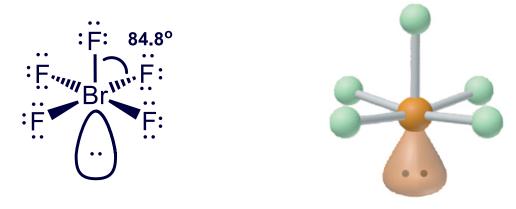




(b) BrF₅ has 42 valence e⁻.
 The Lewis structure is



There are six electron groups around Br, giving an octahedral electrongroup arrangement. **The ideal bond angles are 90**°. There is one lone pair, so the bond angles will be **less than 90**° and the molecular shape is **square pyramidal**.



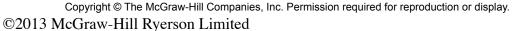
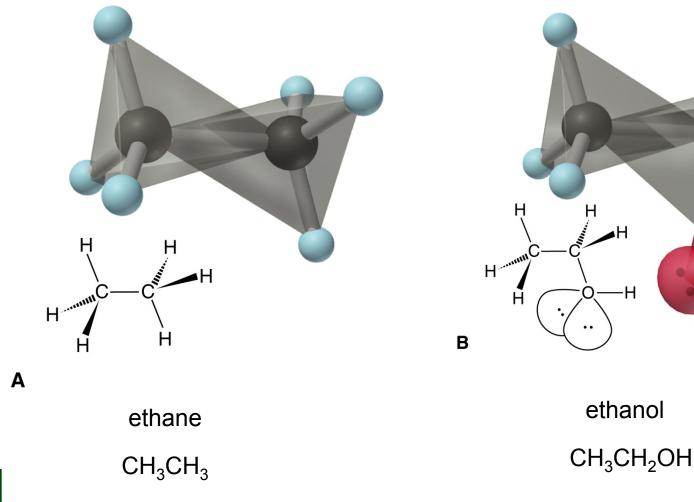
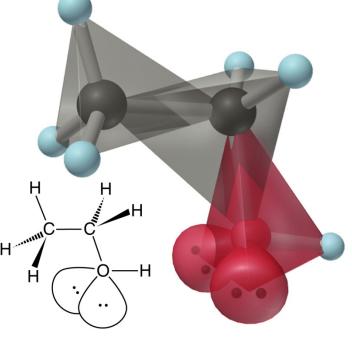




Figure 9.12 The tetrahedral shapes around the central atoms and the overall shapes of ethane (A) and ethanol (B).

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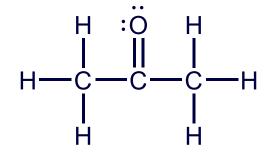


Sample Problem 9.3Predicting Molecular Shapes with MoreThan One Central Atom

- **PROBLEM:** Determine the shape around each of the central atoms in acetone, $(CH_3)_2CO$.
- **PLAN:** There are three central C atoms, two of which are in CH_3 groups. We determine the shape around one central atom at a time.

SOLUTION:

Step 1: The Lewis structure is



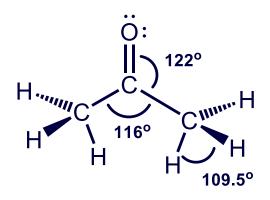
Step 2: Each CH₃– group has four electron groups around its central C, so the electron-group arrangement is *tetrahedral*. The third C atom has three electron groups around it, with a *trigonal planar* arrangement.

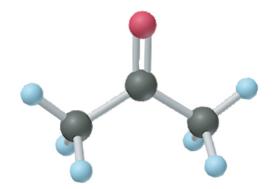






- Step 3: The H-C-H bond angle in each CH_3 group should be near the ideal value of 109.5°. The C=O double bond will compress the C-C-C angle to less than the ideal angle of 120°.
- Step 4: The shape around the C in each CH_3 group is tetrahedral (AX_4). The shape around the middle C is trigonal planar (AX_3).





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9.2 Molecular Shape and Molecular Polarity

Overall *molecular polarity* depends on both *shape* and *bond polarity*.

The polarity of a molecule is measured by its *dipole* moment (μ), which is given in the unit *debye* (D).

A molecule is polar if

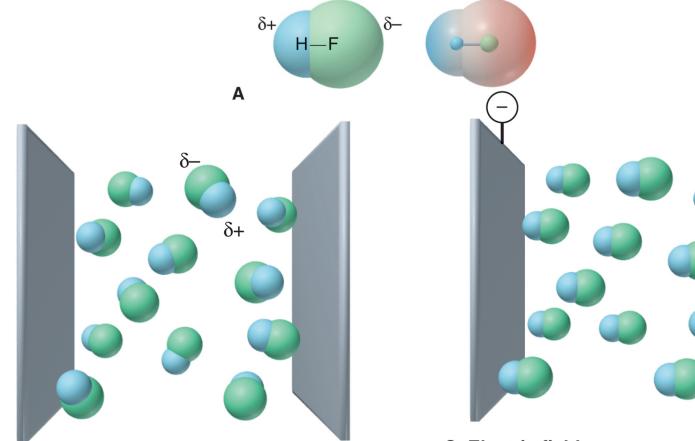
- it contains one or more *polar bonds* and
- the individual bond dipoles do not cancel.





Figure 9.13 The orientation of polar molecules in an electric field.

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B Electric field off

Molecules are randomly oriented.

C Electric field on

Molecules become oriented when the field is turned on.





Bond Polarity, Bond Angle, and Dipole Moment

Example: CO₂

The Δ EN between C (EN = 2.5) and O (EN = 3.5) makes each C=O bond polar.

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 CO_2 is linear, the bond angle is 180°, and the individual bond polarities therefore cancel. The molecule has *no net dipole moment* ($\mu = 0$ D).

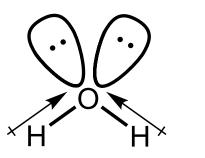


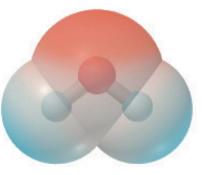


Bond Polarity, Bond Angle, and Dipole Moment

Example: H_2O The ΔEN between H (EN = 2.1) and O (EN = 3.5) makes each H-O bond polar.

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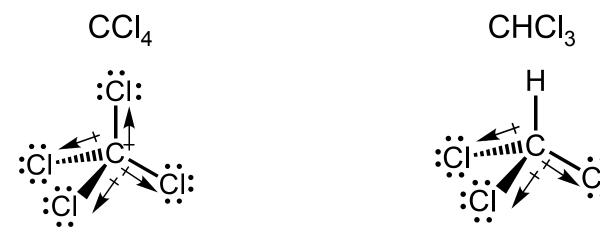
H₂O has a V shaped geometry and the individual bond polarities do **not** cancel. This molecule has an **overall** *molecular polarity*. The O is partially negative while the H atoms are partially positive.





Bond Polarity, Bond Angle, and Dipole Moment

Molecules with the same shape may have different polarities.



Bonds are polar, but individual bond polarities cancel.

Bond polarities do not cancel. This molecule is polar (μ = 1.01 D).





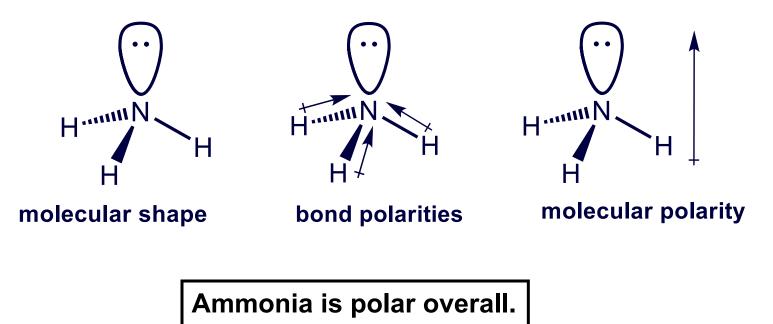
- **PROBLEM:** For each of the following use the molecular shape and EN values and trends (Figure 8.23) to predict the direction of bond and molecular polarity, if present.
 - (a) Ammonia, NH_3 (b) Boron trifluoride, BF_3
 - (c) Carbonyl sulfide, COS (atom sequence SCO)
- **PLAN:** We draw and name the molecular shape, and mark each polar bond with a polar arrow pointing toward the atom with the higher EN. If bond polarities balance one another, the molecule is nonpolar. If they reinforce each other, we show the direction of overall molecular polarity.



SOLUTION:

(a) NH_3 has 8 valence e⁻ and a trigonal pyramidal molecular shape.

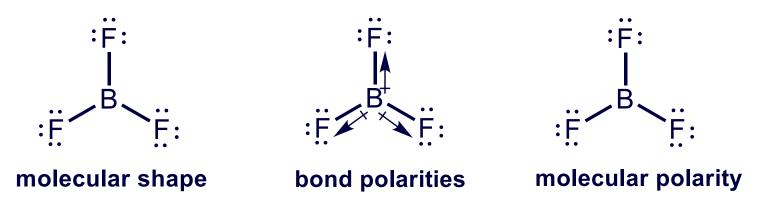
N (EN = 3.0) is more electronegative than H (EN = 2.1) so bond polarities point towards N.





(b) BF_3 has 24 valence e⁻ and a trigonal planar molecular shape.

F (EN = 4.0) is more electronegative than B (EN = 2.0) so bond polarities point towards F.



Individual bond polarities balance each other and BF_3 has no molecular polarity.

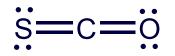
Boron trifluoride is nonpolar.

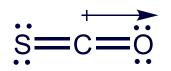


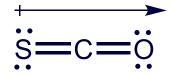


(c) COS has a linear shape.

C and S have the same EN (2.5) but the C=O bond (Δ EN = 1.0) is quite polar.







molecular shape

bond polarities

molecular polarity

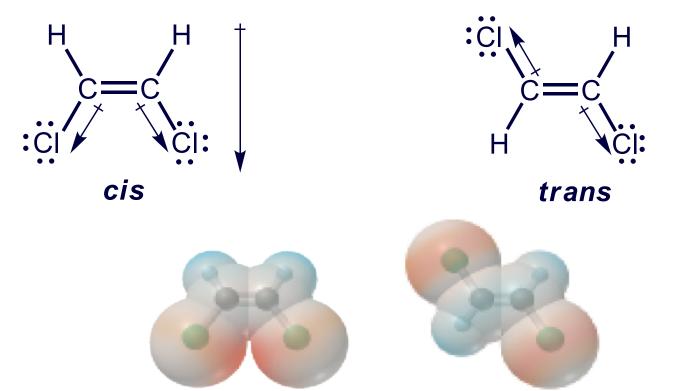
Carbonyl sulfide is polar overall.





The Effect of Molecular Polarity on Behavior

Example: The *cis* and *trans* isomers of C₂H₂Cl₂

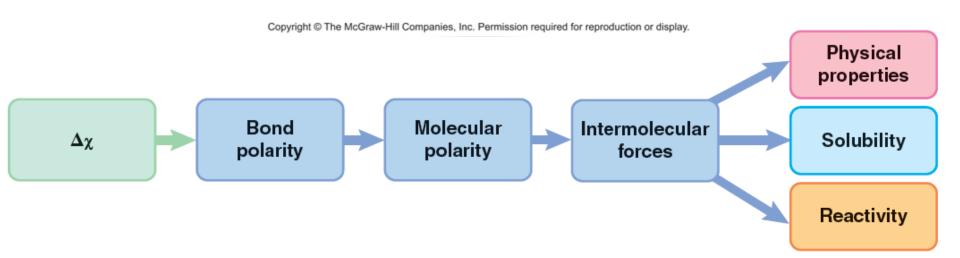


The *cis* isomer is polar while the *trans* isomer is not. The boiling point of the *cis* isomer boils is 13°C higher than that of the *trans* isomer.



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Figure 9.14 The influence of atomic properties on macroscopic behavior.







Chapter 10: Theories of Covalent Bonding

- 10.1 Valence Bond (VB) Theory and Orbital Hybridization
- 10.2 Modes of Orbital Overlap and the Types of Covalent Bonds
- 10.3 Molecular Orbital (MO) Theory and Electron Delocalization





10.1 Valence Bond (VB) Theory

The basic principle of VB theory:

A covalent bond forms when the orbitals of two atoms **overlap** and a pair of electrons occupy the overlap region.

The space formed by the overlapping orbitals can accommodate a *maximum of two electrons* and these electrons must have *opposite (paired) spins*.

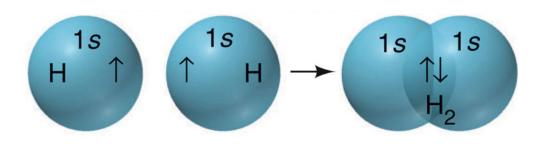
The greater the orbital overlap, the stronger the bond.

Extent of orbital overlap depends on orbital shape and direction.





Figure 10.1 Orbital overlap and spin pairing in H₂.



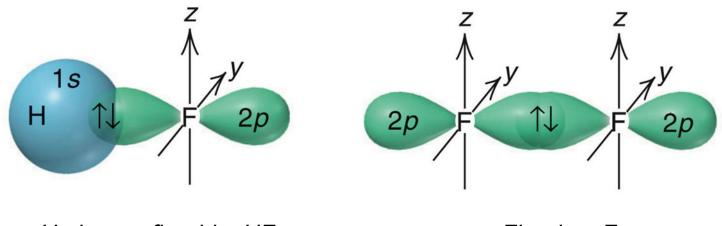
A covalent bond results from the overlap of orbitals from two atoms.

The shared space is occupied by two electrons, which have opposite spins.





Figure 10.2 Orbital orientation and maximum overlap.



Hydrogen fluoride, HF.

Fluorine, F₂.

The greater the extent of orbital overlap, the stronger the bond.







VB Theory and Orbital Hybridization

The orbitals that form when bonding occurs are *different* from the atomic orbitals in the isolated atoms.

If no change occurred, we could not account for the molecular shapes that are observed.

Atomic orbitals "mix" or *hybridize* when bonding occurs to form *hybrid orbitals*.

The spatial orientation of these hybrid orbitals correspond with observed molecular shapes.





Features of Hybrid Orbitals

The *number* of hybrid orbitals formed *equals* the number of atomic orbitals mixed.

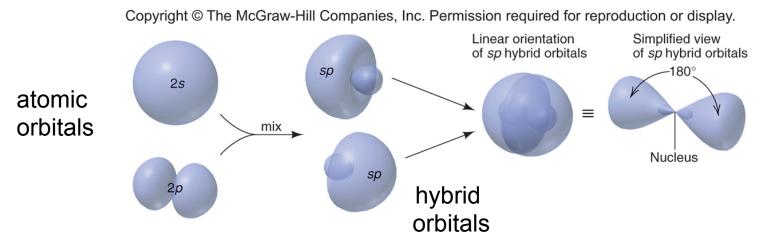
The *type* of hybrid orbitals formed *varies* with the types of atomic orbitals mixed.

The *shape* and *orientation* of a hybrid orbital *maximizes* overlap with the other atom in the bond.





Figure 10.3 Formation and orientation of *sp* hybrid orbitals and the bonding in BeCl₂.



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One 2s and one 2p atomic orbital mix to form two sp hybrid orbitals.

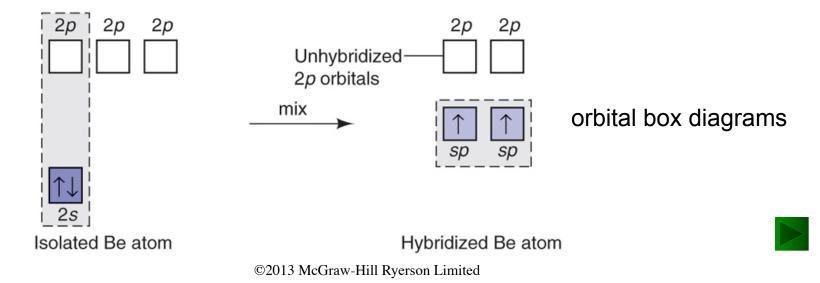
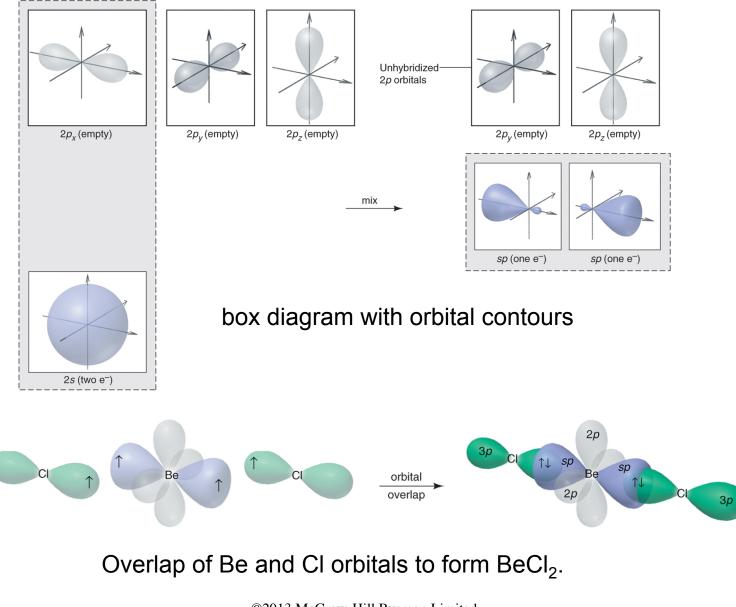
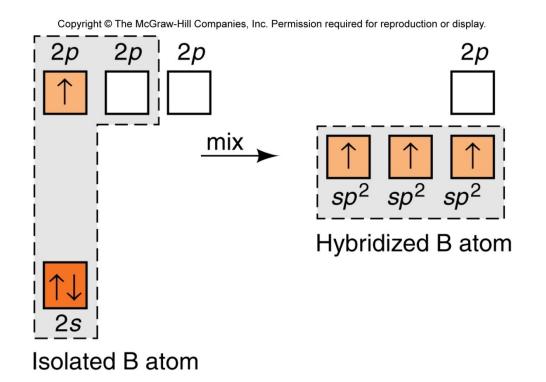


Figure 10.3 continued



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Figure 10.4 The sp^2 hybrid orbitals in BF₃.

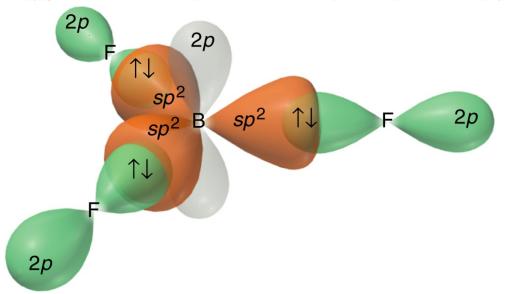


Mixing one *s* and two *p* orbitals gives three sp^2 hybrid orbitals. The third 2p orbital remains unhybridized.





Figure 10.4 continued



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The three *sp*² orbitals point to the corners of an equilateral triangle, their axes 120° apart.

Each half-filled *sp*² orbital overlaps with the half-filled 2*p* orbital of a F atom.





Figure 10.5

The *sp*³ hybrid orbitals in CH₄.

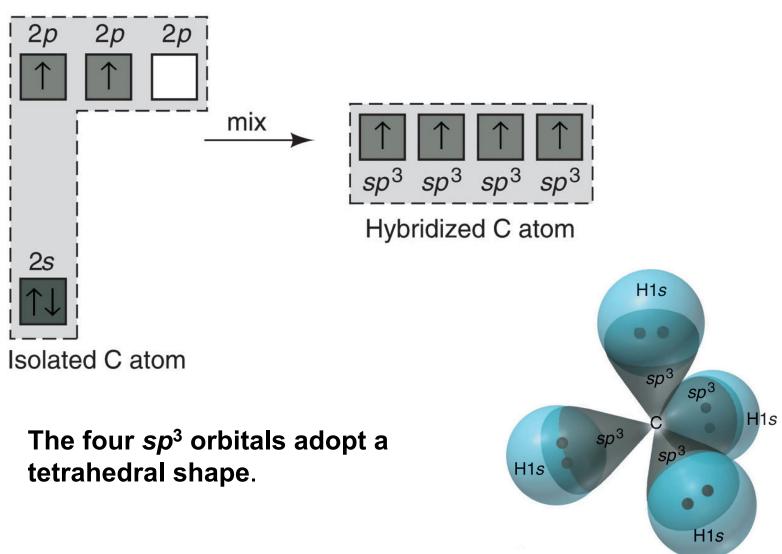
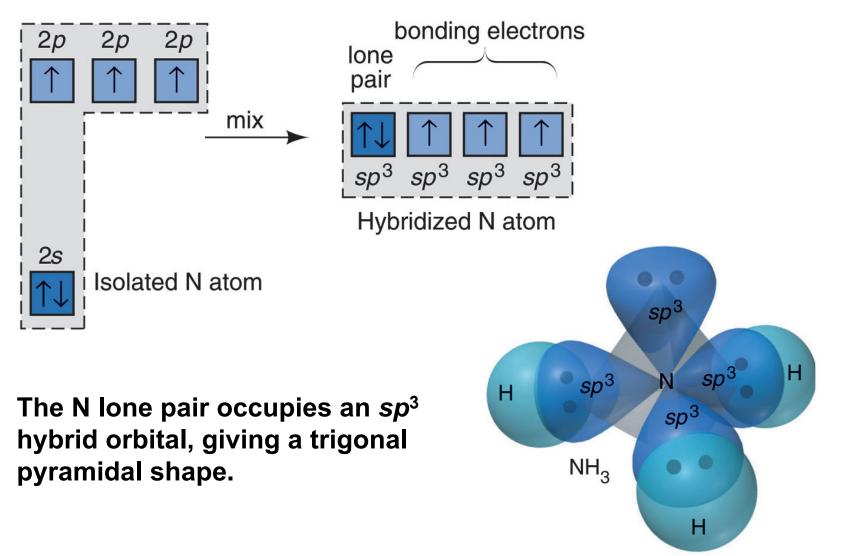






Figure 10.6

The sp^3 hybrid orbitals in NH₃.





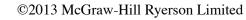




Figure 10.6 continued

The sp^3 hybrid orbitals in H₂O.

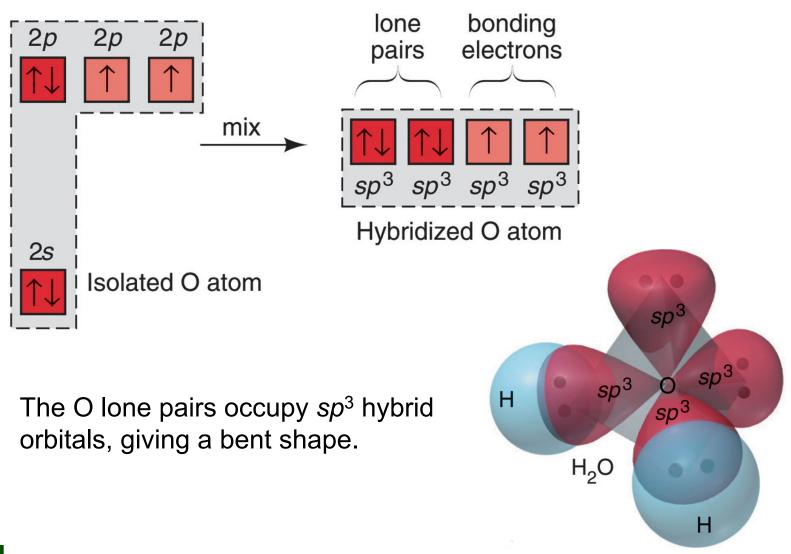


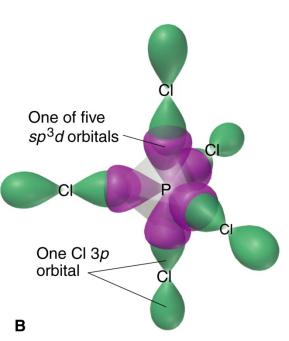




Figure 10.7 The sp^3d hybrid orbitals in PCl₅.

Copyright © The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. Permission required for reproduction or display. 3d 3d 3d 3d 3d 3d 3d Зd 3d Unhybridized 3d orbitals mix Зр Зp Зp five sp^3d Hybridized P atom Isolated P atom One of five 3*s* sp^3d orbitals CI Α D С

The formation of more than four bonding orbitals requires *d* orbital involvement in hybridization.







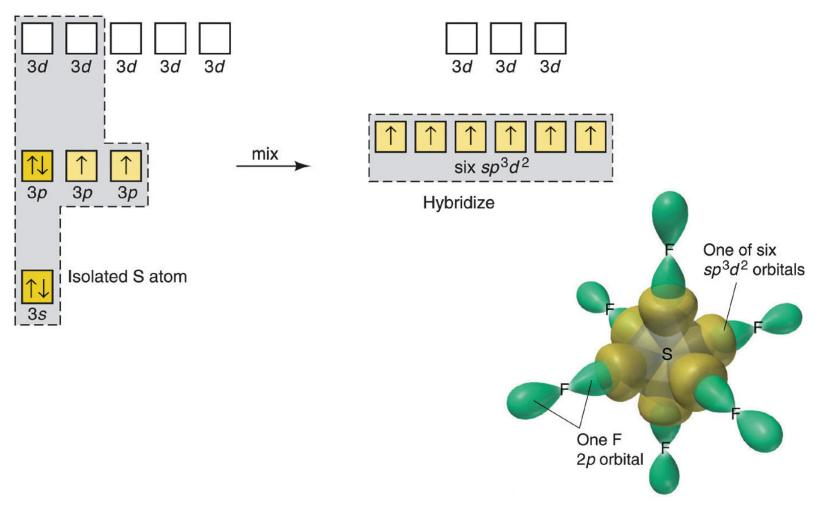






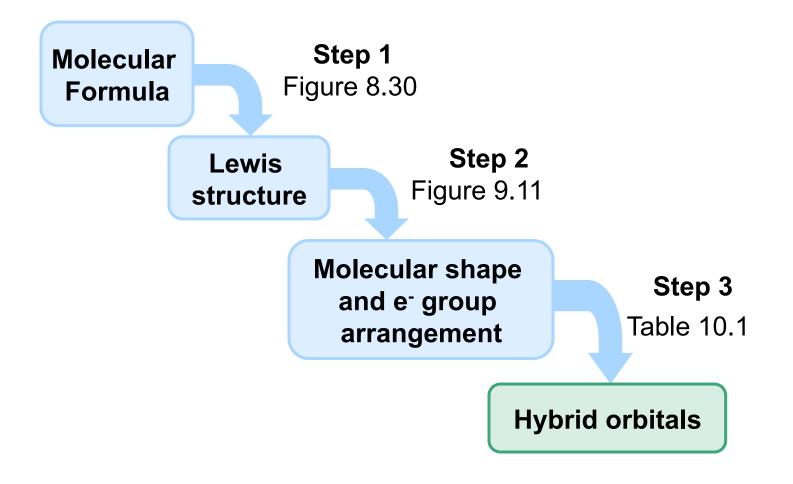
Table 10.1 Composition and Orientation of Hybrid Orbitals

	Linear	Trigonal Planar	Tetrahedral	Trigonal Bipyramidal	Octahedral
Atomic orbitals mixed	one s one p	one s two p	one <i>s</i> three <i>p</i>	one s three p one d	one <i>s</i> three <i>p</i> two <i>d</i>
Hybrid orbitals formed	two <i>p</i>	three sp^2	four <i>sp</i> ³	five sp^3d	six sp^3d^2
Unhybridized orbitals remaining	two <i>p</i>	one p	none	four d	three d
Orientation					





Figure 10.9 From molecular formula to hybrid orbitals.







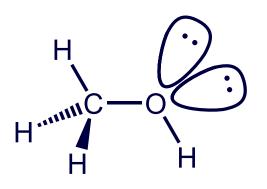
PROBLEM: Use partial orbital diagrams to describe how mixing of the atomic orbitals of the central atom(s) leads to hybrid orbitals in each of the following:

(a) Methanol, CH_3OH (b) Sulfur tetrafluoride, SF_4

PLAN: We use the molecular formula to draw the Lewis structure and determine the electron-group arrangement around each central atom. We then postulate the type of hybrid orbitals required and write a partial orbital diagram.

SOLUTION:

(a) CH₃OH

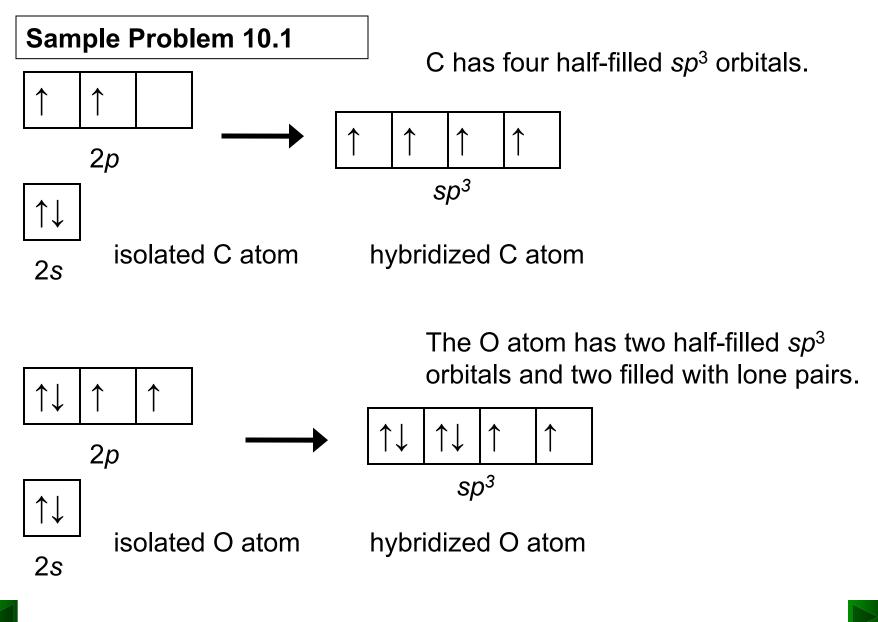


The electron-group arrangement is tetrahedral around both the C and the O atom.



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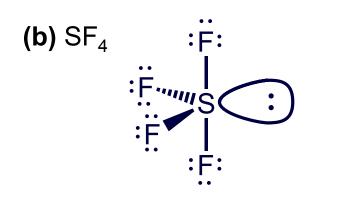




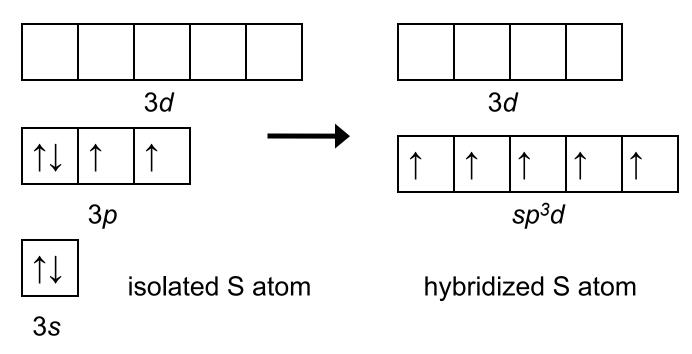




Sample Problem 10.1



The electron-group arrangement is trigonal bipyramidal, so the central S atom is sp^3d hybridized.





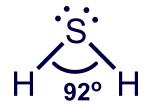




Limitations of the Hybridization Model

Hybridization is not always consistent with observed molecular shapes.

This is particularly true for the bonding of larger atoms.



The bond angle in H_2S is closer to the angle between unhybridized *p* orbitals.

d-Orbitals do not hybridize effectively with *s* and *p* orbitals, which are much lower in energy and more stable.





10.2 Types of Covalent Bonds

A sigma (σ) bond is formed by end-to-end overlap of orbitals.

All single bonds are σ bonds.

A *pi* (π) bond is formed by *sideways* overlap of orbitals.

A π bond is weaker than a σ bond because sideways overlap is less effective than end-to-end overlap.

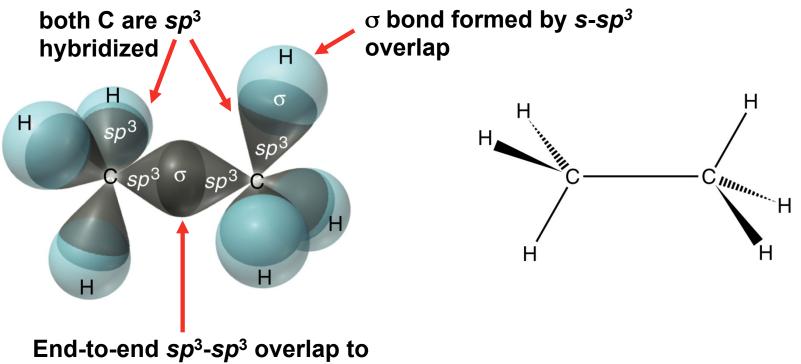
A double bond consists of one σ bond and one π bond



Figure 10.10

The σ bonds in ethane (C₂H₆).

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form a σ bond

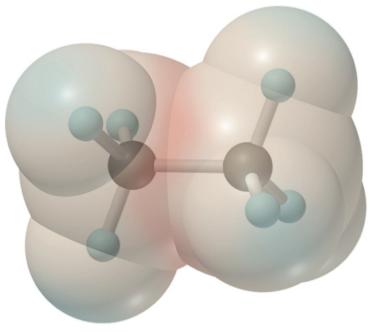
A σ bond is cylindrically symmetrical, with its highest electron density along the bond axis.





Figure 10.10 continued

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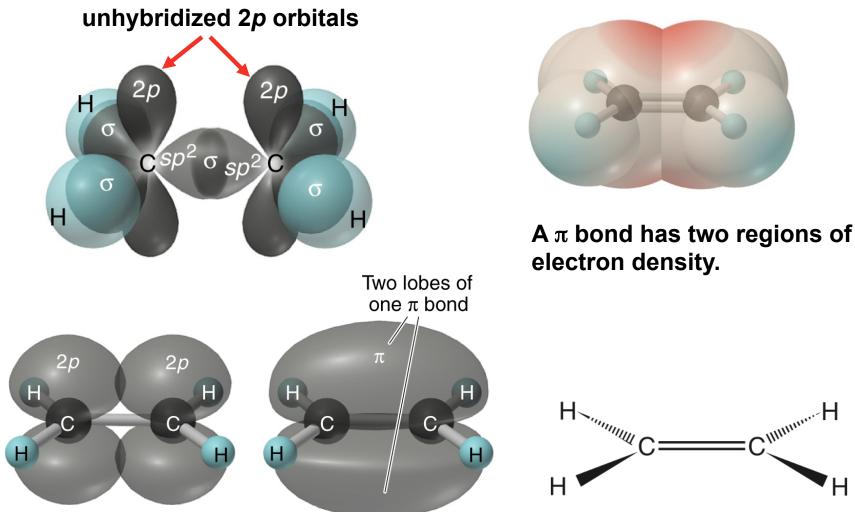
There is relatively even distribution of electron density over all σ bonds.

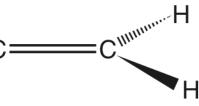




Figure 10.11 The σ and π bonds in ethylene (C₂H₄).

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Figure 10.12 The σ and π bonds in ethyne (C₂H₂).

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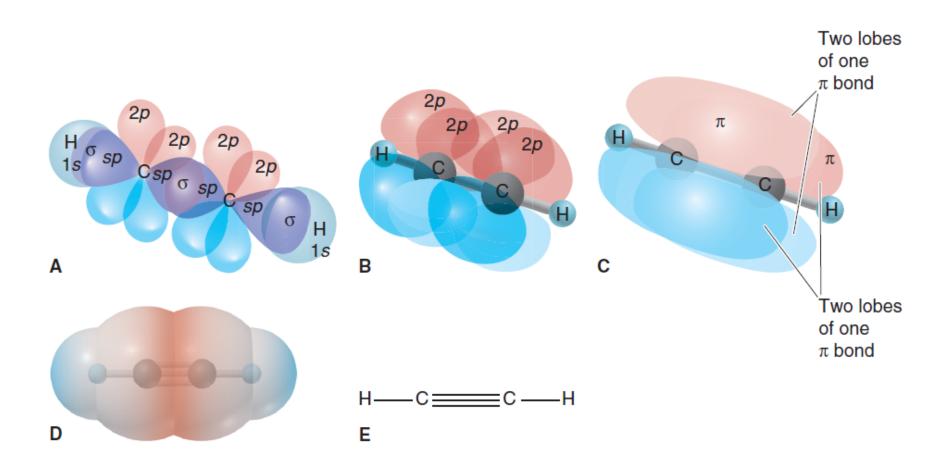
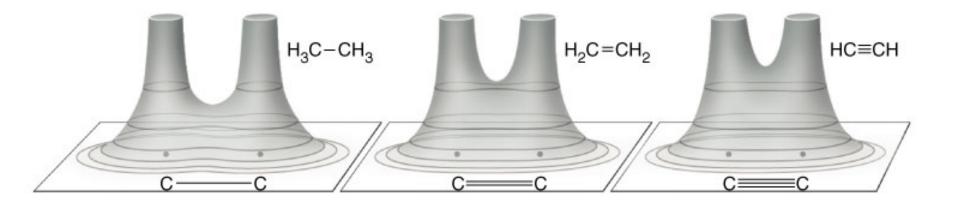






Figure 10.13 Electron density and bond order in ethane, ethylene, and acetylene.



A double bond is less than twice as strong as a single bond, because a π bond is weaker than a σ bond.

However, in terms of bond order, a single bond has BO = 1, a double bond has BO = 2, and a triple bond has BO = 3.





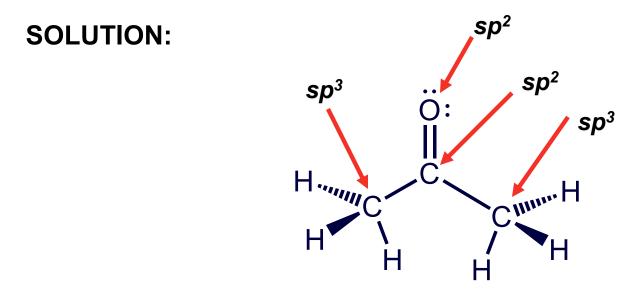


Sample Problem 10.2

Describing the Types of Bonds in Molecules

PROBLEM: Describe the types of bonds and orbitals in propanone (acetone, $(CH_3)_2CO.$)

PLAN: We use the Lewis structures to determine the arrangement of groups and shape at each central atom. We postulate the hybrid orbitals, taking note of the multiple bonds present.

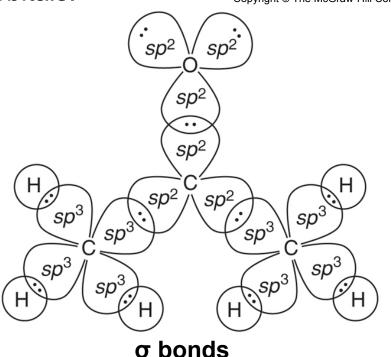


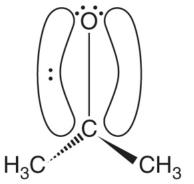


Sample Problem 10.2

The *sp*³ hybridized C atoms form σ bonds using *sp*³ hybrid orbitals.

The sp^2 hybridized C and O atoms form σ bonds using sp^2 hybrid orbitals, and the π bond of the C=O double bond is formed using porbitals.





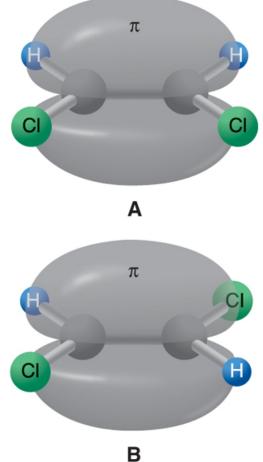
 π bond (shown with molecule rotated 90°).



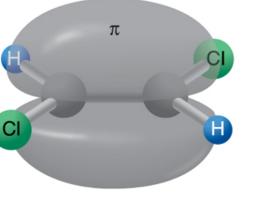


Figure 10.14 Restricted rotation around a π **bond.**

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cis-1,2-Dichloroethene



trans-1,2-Dichloroethene







10.3 Molecular Orbital (MO) Theory

The combination of orbitals to form bonds is viewed as the combination of *wave functions*.

Atomic wave functions (AOs) combine to form **molecular** wave functions (MOs).

Addition of AOs forms a **bonding MO**, which has a region of **high** electron density between the nuclei.

Subtraction of AOs forms an **antibonding MO**, which has a **node**, or region of **zero** electron density, between the nuclei.





Figure 10.16 An analogy between light waves and atomic wave functions.

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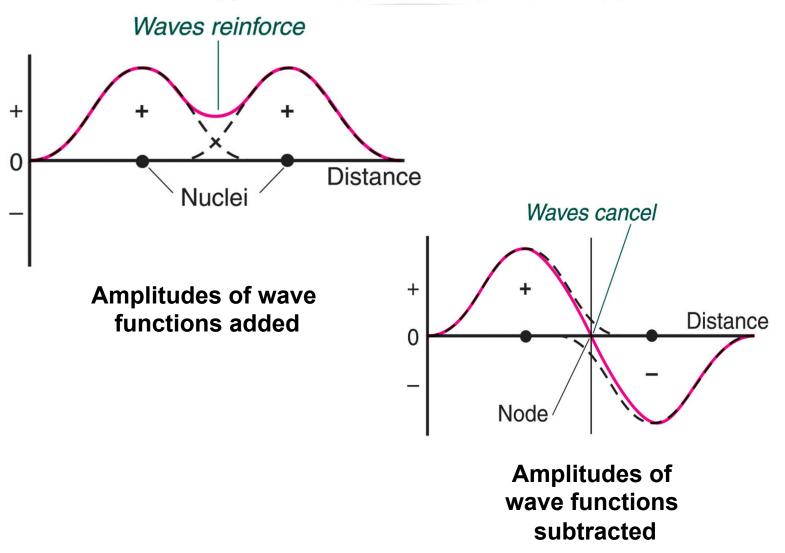
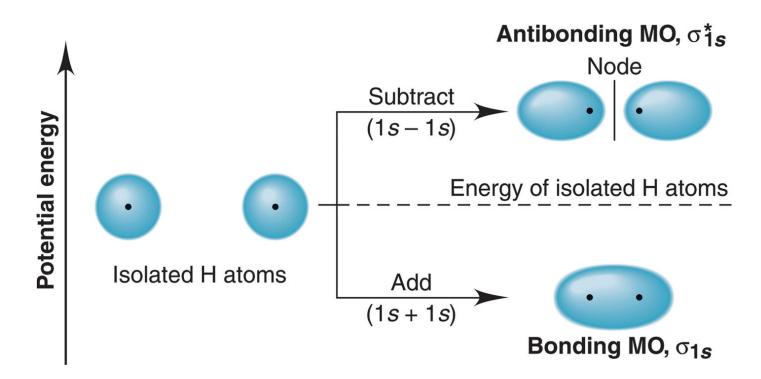




Figure 10.17 Contours and energies of H₂ bonding and antibonding MOs.

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The bonding MO is lower in energy and the antibonding MO is higher in energy than the AOs that combined to form them.





Molecular Orbital Diagrams

An *MO diagram*, just like an atomic orbital diagram, shows the relative energy and number of electrons in each MO.

The MO diagram also shows the AOs from which each MO is formed.

Bond order is calculated as follows:

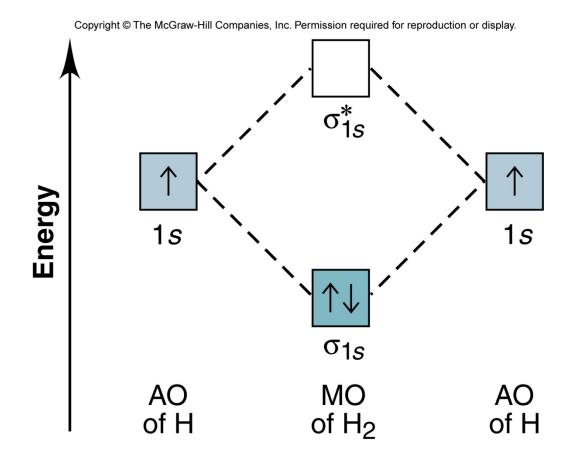
¹/₂[(# of e⁻ in bonding MO) – (# of e⁻ in antibonding MO)]





Figure 10.18

MO diagram for H_2 .



 H_2 bond order = $\frac{1}{2}(2 - 0) = 1$



 \triangleright

Electrons in Molecular Orbitals

Electrons are placed in MOs just as they are in AOs.

- MOs are filled in order of increasing energy.
- An MO can hold a maximum of 2 e⁻ with opposite spins.
- Orbitals of equal energy are half-filled, with spins parallel, before pairing spins.

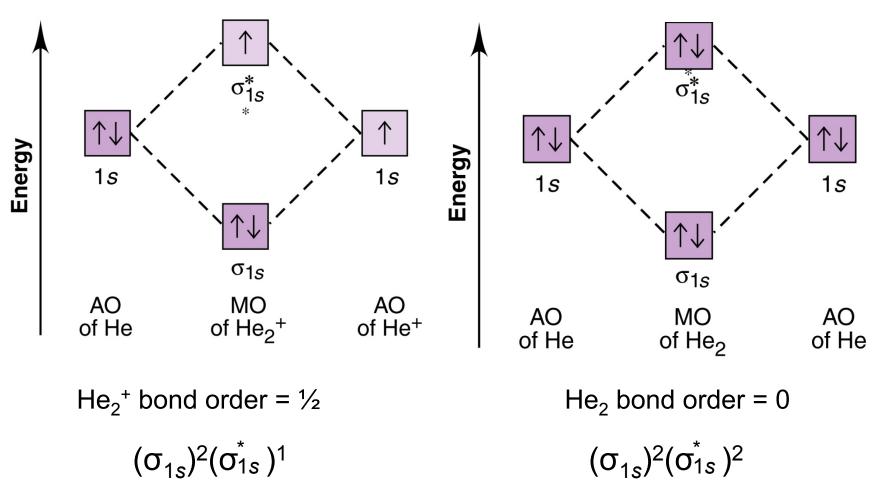
A molecular electron configuration shows the type of MO and the number of e^- each contains. For H₂ the configuration is $(\sigma_{1s})^2$.



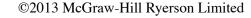
Figure 10.19

MO diagram for He_2^+ and He_2 .

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- **PROBLEM:** Use MO diagrams to find bond orders and predict whether(a) H_2^+ and (b) H_2^- exist. If either exists, write its electron configuration.
- PLAN: Since the 1s AOs form the MOs, the MO diagrams are similar to the one for H_2 . We find the number of electrons in each species and distribute them one at a time to the MOs following the rules for orbital filling. We calculate the bond order and predict stability.

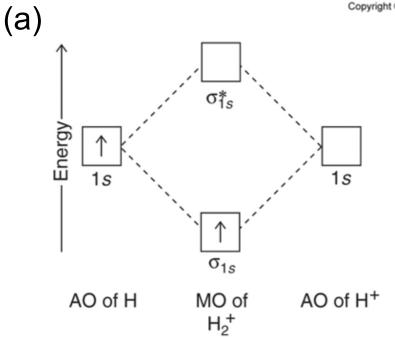
SOLUTION:

(a) H₂⁺ has one electron to place in its MOs while H₂⁻ has three electrons to place.



Sample Problem 10.3

(b)



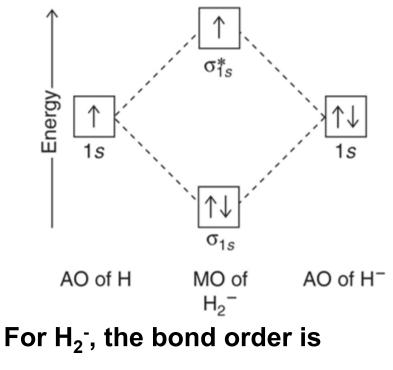
For H_2^+ , the bond order is

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

so we predict that H_2^+ exists.

The configuration is $(\sigma_{1s})^1$.

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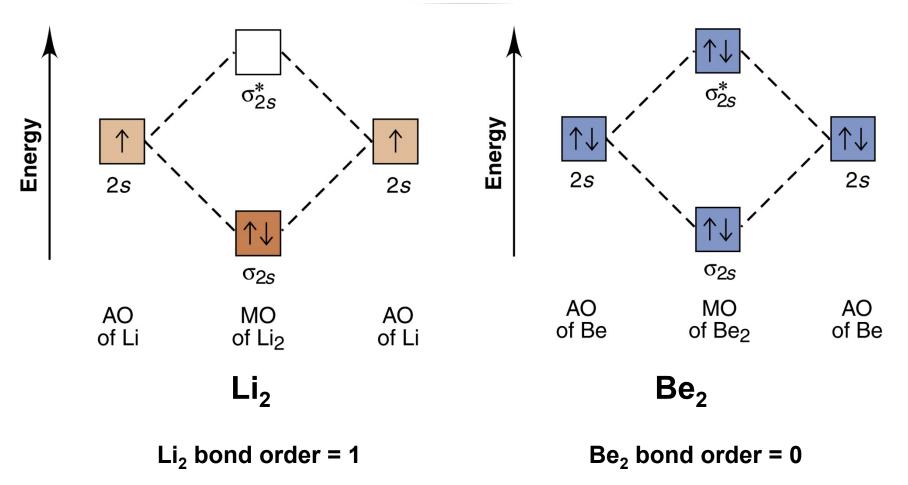


 $\frac{1}{2}(2-1) = \frac{1}{2};$

so we predict that H_2^- exists, The configuration is $(\sigma_{1s})^2 (\sigma_1^-)^1$

Figure 10.20 Bonding in s-block homonuclear diatomic molecules.

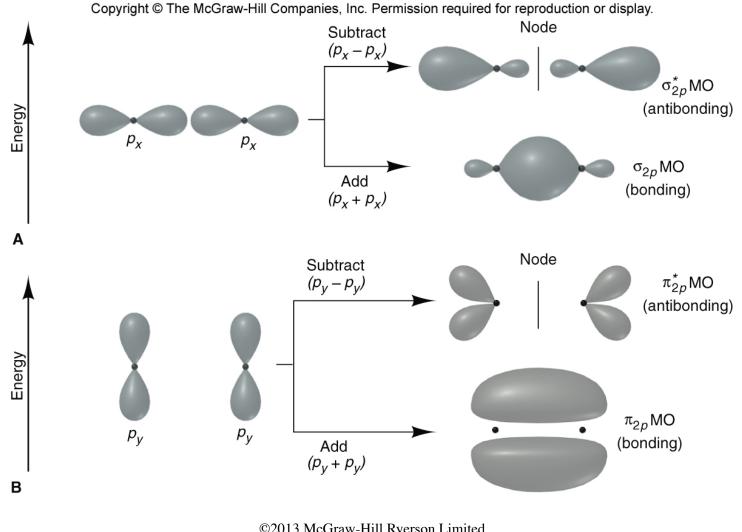
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Figure 10.21 Shapes and energies of σ and π MOs from combinations of 2p atomic orbitals.



8-10



Figure 10.22 Relative MO energy levels for Period 2 homonuclear diatomic molecules.

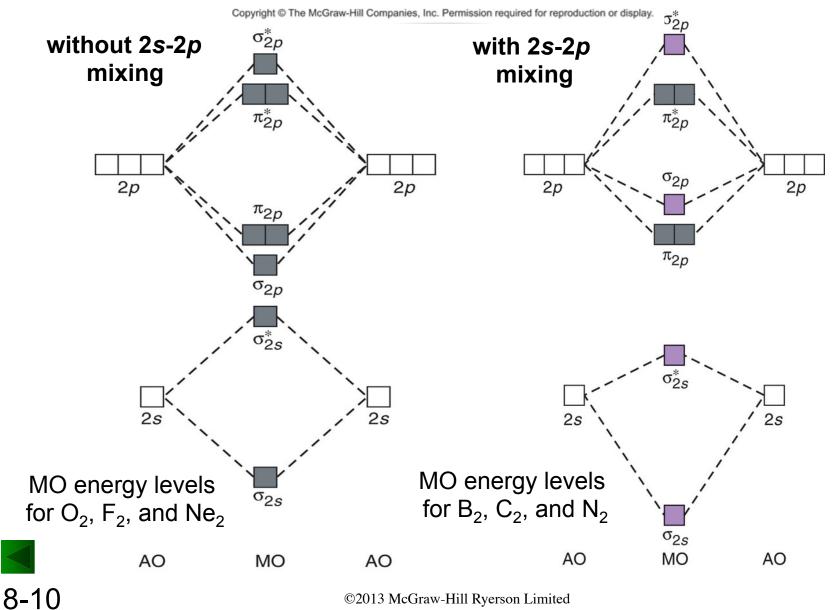


Figure 10.23

MO occupancy and some properties of homonuclear diatomic molecular properties for B₂ through Ne₂.

8-10

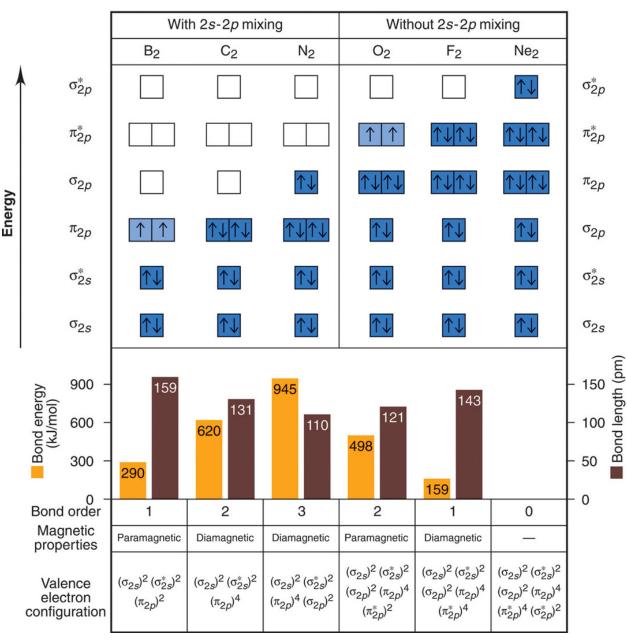


Figure 10.24 The paramagnetic properties of O_2 .

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Sample Problem 10.4Using MO Theory to Explain Bond Properties

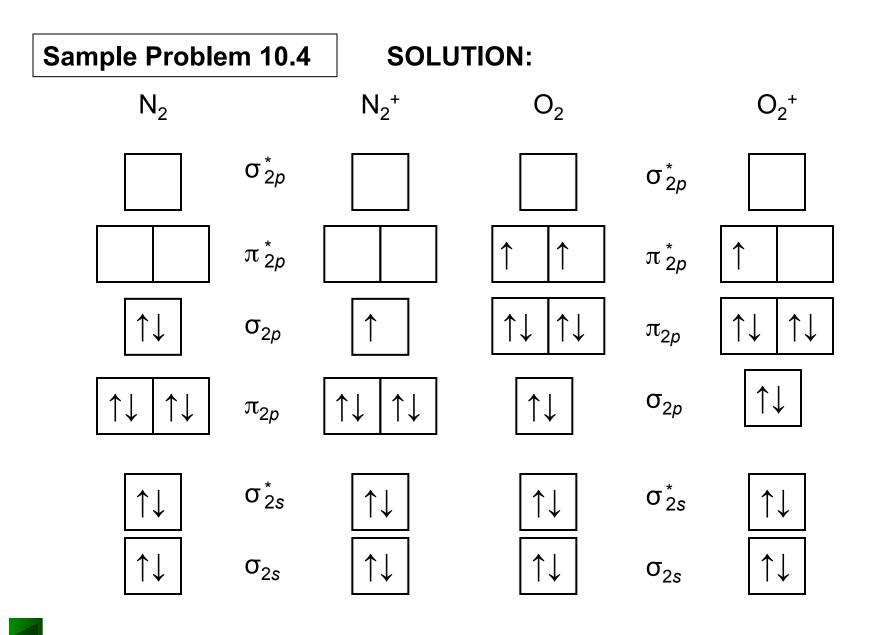
PROBLEM: Explain the following data with diagrams showing the occupancy of MOs:

	N_2	N_2^+	O ₂	0 ₂ +
Bond energy (kJ/mol)	945	841	498	623
Bond length (pm)	110	112	121	112

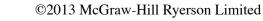
PLAN: The data show that removing an electron from each parent molecule has opposite effects: N_2^+ has a weaker longer bond than N_2 , but O_2^+ has a stronger, shorter bond than O_2 . We determine the valence electrons in each species, draw the sequence of MO energy levels (showing orbital mixing in N_2 but not in O_2), and fill them with electrons. We then calculate bond orders, which relate directly to bond energy and inversely to bond length.











Calculating bond orders:

For N₂ $\frac{1}{2}(8-2) = 3$ For N₂⁺ $\frac{1}{2}(7-2) = 2.5$

 N_2^+ has a longer, weaker bond than N_2 because to form N_2^+ , a *bonding* electron is removed and the bond order decreases.

For
$$O_2 \frac{1}{2}(8-4) = 2$$
 For $O_2^+ \frac{1}{2}(8-3) = 2.5$

 O_2^+ has a shorter, stronger bond than O_2 because to form O_2^+ , an *antibonding* electron is removed and the bond order increases.



