

Shapes of Molecules

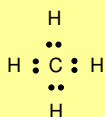
- In this section we will use Lewis structures as an introduction to the shapes of molecules.
- The key concepts are:
 - **Electron pairs repel each other.**
 - **Electron pairs assume orientations to minimize repulsion**
- This is the **Valence Shell Electron Pair Repulsion Theory (VSEPR)**

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Chemical bonding II 1

VSEPR

- Example: Methane CH_4

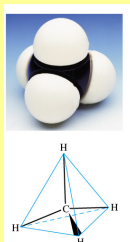


The 4 bond pairs must orient themselves to minimize their repulsion.

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Chemical bonding II 2

VSEPR Methane



The minimum interaction occurs when the electron pairs point towards the vertices of a tetrahedron.

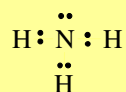
The carbon is in the centre and the hydrogen are at the vertices. The molecule is tetrahedral.

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Chemical bonding II 3

VSEPR Ammonia

- Example: Ammonia NH_3

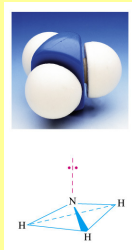


The 4 electron pairs must still orient themselves to minimize their repulsion.

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Chemical bonding II 4

VSEPR Ammonia



The minimum interaction still occurs when the electron pairs point towards the vertices of a tetrahedron.

The nitrogen is in the centre and the hydrogens are at three of the vertices. The lone pair points to the fourth. The molecule is trigonal pyramidal.

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VSEPR Water

- Example: Water H_2O

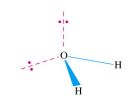


The 4 electron pairs must orient themselves to minimize their repulsion.

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Chemical bonding II 6

VSEPR Water



The minimum interaction still occurs when the electron pairs point towards the vertices of a tetrahedron.

The oxygen is in the centre, the hydrogens are at two of the vertices. The lone pairs point to the other two. The molecule is bent.

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Bond Angles

- This analysis suggests that all three molecules should have bond angles of 109.5° .
 - The methane bond angle is 109.5° but for ammonia it is 107° and in water it is 104.5°
 - The lone pair electrons are not constrained as much as the bonding pairs. They spread out thus the repulsive forces are:

Lone pair-lone pair > Lone pair-bond pair > bond pair-bond pair

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Molecular Geometry

- VSEPR theory can be used to describe the shapes of most molecules.
- Warnings
 - When you describe the shape, don't include the lone pairs. (water is bent, not tetrahedral)
 - Molecules have three dimensions (methane is a tetrahedron not a square)
- Be familiar with table 10.1 pg 399-400

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TABLE 10.1 Molecular Geometry as a Function of Electron-Group Geometry						
Number of Electron Groups	Electron-Group Geometry	Number of Lone Pairs	VSEPR Notation	Molecular Geometry	Ideal Bond Angles	Example
2	linear	0	AX ₂	 (linear)	180°	BeCl ₂
						
^a For a discussion of the structure of SO ₂ , see page 402. ^b For a discussion of the placement of the lone-pair electrons in this structure, see page 401.						
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TABLE 10.1 (Continued)						
Number of Electron Groups	Electron-Group Geometry	Number of Lone Pairs	VSEPR Notation	Molecular Geometry	Ideal Bond Angles	Example
3	trigonal-planar	0	AX ₃	 (trigonal planar)	120°	BF ₃
	trigonal-planar	1	AX ₂ E	 (bent)	120° ^b	SO ₂ ^a
						
^a For a discussion of the structure of SO ₂ , see page 402. ^b For a discussion of the placement of the lone-pair electrons in this structure, see page 401.						
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TABLE 10.1 (Continued)						
Number of Electron Groups	Electron-Group Geometry	Number of Lone Pairs	VSEPR Notation	Molecular Geometry	Ideal Bond Angles	Example
4	tetrahedral	0	AX ₄	 (tetrahedral)	109.5°	CH ₄
	tetrahedral	1	AX ₃ E	 (trigonal-pyramidal)	109.5°	NH ₃
	tetrahedral	2	AX ₂ E ₂	 (bent)	109.5°	OH ₂
						
^a For a discussion of the structure of SO ₂ , see page 402. ^b For a discussion of the placement of the lone-pair electrons in this structure, see page 401.						
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Going Beyond Lewis Structures

- Lewis structures are very useful in explaining the bonding in simple molecules and in predicting molecular shapes.
- They do not explain why electrons in bond pairs bring nuclei together.
- They can not be used to estimate bond lengths or bond strengths.

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Going Beyond Lewis Structures

- There are two currently used bonding theories, **valence bond theory** and **molecular orbital theory**.
- Valence bond theory envisions bonding as resulting from the overlap of **atomic** orbitals.
- Molecular orbital theory moves past atomic orbitals and derives orbitals that belong to the **molecule** as a whole.
- We will concentrate on valence bond theory as that is sufficient to rationalize the structures we see.

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Valence Bond Method

- This method considers what happens to the valence orbitals (the outer shell).
- If the atoms start a long way apart, there is no interaction.
- As the atoms move closer together the orbitals may overlap.
- If there is an electron in the orbital then there is a high probability of finding an electron between the nuclei.
- This is the region where there is a covalent bond.

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Valence Bond Method

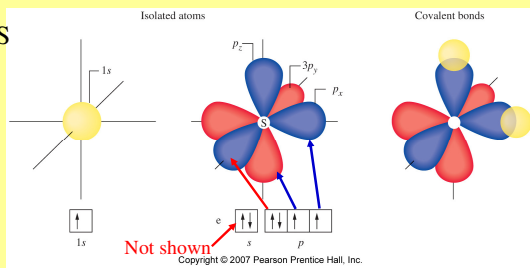
- We cannot ignore the previously developed rules, so there are only two electrons per bond
 - Overlap can only occur for 2 half filled orbitals or one empty and one filled orbital.

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Valence Bond Method

H₂S



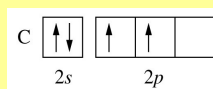
This suggests the bond angle should be 90°. It is 92°.

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Valence Bond method for methane

- Chemically methane is stable
- We know from VSEPR that methane is tetrahedral
- BUT



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Valence Bond method for methane

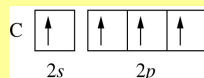
- The valence bond theory (so far) would suggest that the 1s electrons from H will be donated to the p orbitals to “pair-up” the unpaired electrons.
- In this case we would have CH₂
- That’s not what is seen. We need CH₄.

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Valence Bond method for methane

- Somehow the carbon needs to have 4 unpaired electrons
- This gives 4 unpaired electrons



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Valence Bond method for methane

- This costs energy, as it makes an excited state C atom.
- Also if we try to use these orbitals in bonding, the orientation is wrong.
 - If hydrogens attached to the “p” orbitals, they would be orthogonal.
 - Where would the overlap with the “s” be?
 - We know the molecule is tetrahedral.

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Valence Bond Rethinking

- We can no longer assume that the orbitals in a bonded atom are the same as those of an isolated atom.
- Remember that the atomic orbitals come from solving an equation assuming a single nucleus. In a molecule the electron has to respond to more nuclei.
- We should solve the “new” problem, but we usually say we can combine the atomic orbitals in some way.

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Valence Bond method for methane

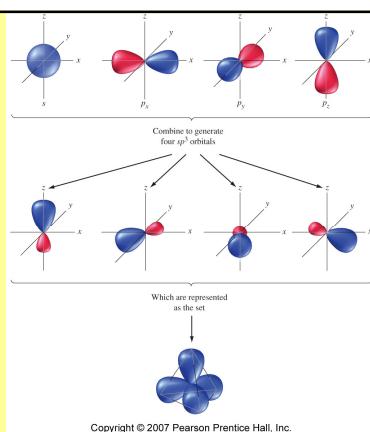
- Since the orbitals are wave functions, we can take the 2s and 2p wave functions and combine them to give 4 equivalent wave functions. These can be made to have the same shape and energy.
- This is called **hybridization** and the resulting orbitals are called **hybrid orbitals**.
- The combination of one “s” and three “p” orbitals gives four “sp³” hybrid orbitals.

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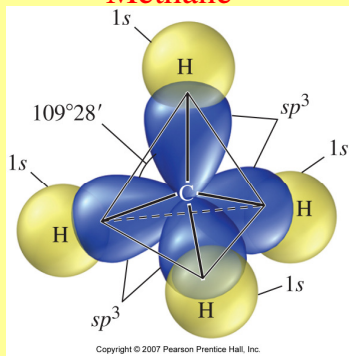
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Generation of sp³ hybrid orbitals

Same shape but different orientation to minimize interaction



Methane



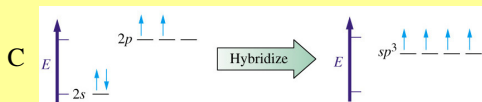
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Energy and Hybrid Orbitals

- What about the energy?
- The energy of the orbitals is conserved because the sp^3 orbitals have an energy between the s and p orbitals.



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Chemical bonding II 29

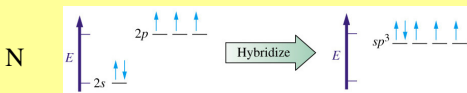
Energy and Hybrid Orbitals

- However there will be an energy cost in making the sp hybrids with one electron in each.
 - The orbitals are generated assuming only one electron
- So why would the molecule do something that will cost energy?
- Once the molecule is formed you release the bond energy. If this is greater than the “cost” then it is worthwhile.

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Chemical bonding II 30

Ammonia

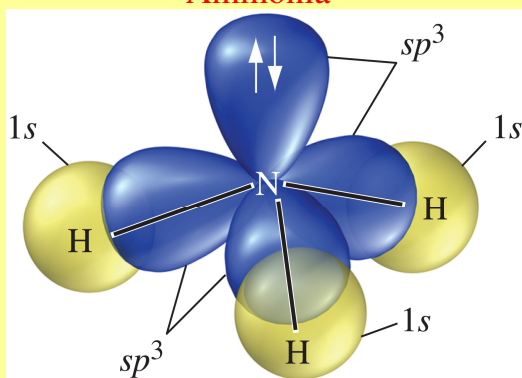


- Now we have a pair of electrons in one of the sp^3 hybrid orbitals, so it can't bond with hydrogen.

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Chemical bonding II 31

Ammonia



NH_3 versus PH_3

- NH_3 has sp^3 bonding and a bond angle of $\sim 109^\circ$.
- PH_3 does not hybridize.
- WHY NOT?
- The energy gain in forming the bonds is not enough to get back the energy to make the hybrids.
- This is because the energy separation between 3s and 3p is higher than 2s and 2p on a relative basis.
- Going down a main group in the periodic table, elements tend to make less use of valence s electrons and form weaker bonds with smaller angles.

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- The sp^3 hybrid orbitals don't explain the bonding for Boron (group 13) or for Beryllium (group 2)

Periodic table showing the distribution of elements by block: s block (groups 1-2), p block (groups 13-18), d block (transition elements, groups 3-10), and f block (lanthanides and actinides).

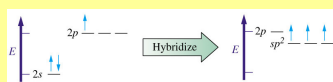
- The problem appears to be that there are **insufficient electrons** to even half fill the 4 sp^3 orbitals.
- In these case we need to consider different hybridization schemes.
- We define hybrids such that the **number of hybrids** is the same as the **number of valence electrons**.

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Chemical bonding II 35

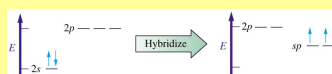
sp^2 and sp hybrid orbitals

Boron



The number of orbitals is conserved.

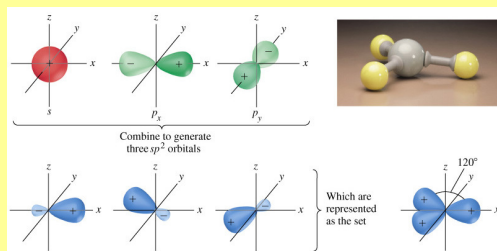
Beryllium



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Chemical bonding II 36

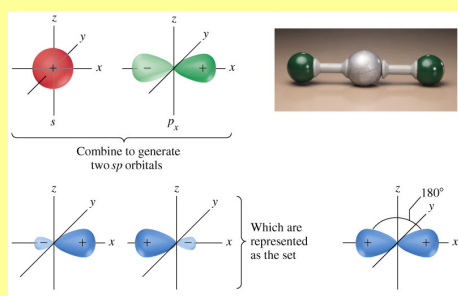
sp² hybrid orbitals (BCl₃)



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Chemical bonding II 37

sp hybrid orbitals (BeCl₂)

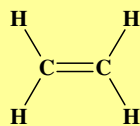


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Chemical bonding II 38

Multiple bonds

- How do we deal with the Lewis structures that have multiple bonds?
- Consider ethylene C₂H₄

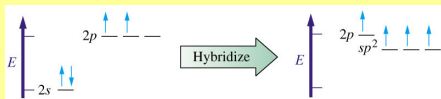


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Chemical bonding II 39

Multiple bonds: ethylene (C_2H_4)

- The **geometry** suggests sp^2 hybrid orbitals are involved.



There is still an electron in the remaining 2p orbital.

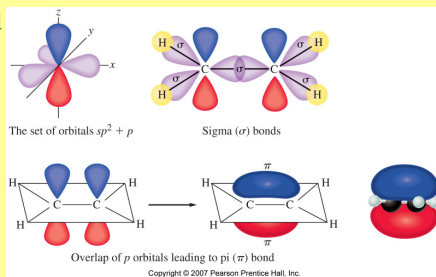
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Chemical bonding II 40

Multiple bonds: ethylene (C_2H_4)

The sp^2 hybrid orbitals are in purple.

The “p” orbital is blue



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Chemical bonding II 41

Multiple bonds: ethylene (C_2H_4)

The orbitals that overlap along the axis of the nuclei are called sigma bonds - **σ bonds**.

Those where the overlap is side-to-side are pi bonds - **π bonds**.

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Chemical bonding II 42

Multiple bonds: ethylene

The σ bonds determine the shape of the molecule, the π bonds restrict the rotation about the C-C axis.

The orbital overlap is more extensive for the σ bonds so the π bond is weaker than the σ bond.

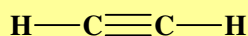
Bond strengths

C-C 347 kJ mol⁻¹ C=C 611 kJ mol⁻¹
difference = 264 kJ mol⁻¹

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Chemical bonding II 43

Multiple bonds: acetylene (ethyne)



- The geometry suggests sp hybrid orbitals are involved.

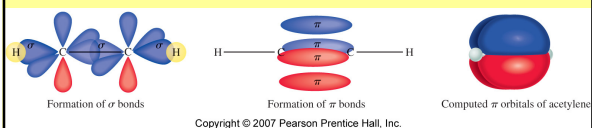


There is still an electron in each of the remaining 2p orbitals.

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Chemical bonding II 44

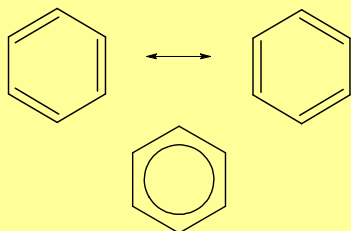
Multiple bonds: acetylene (ethyne)



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Chemical bonding II 45

Multiple Bonds: Benzene

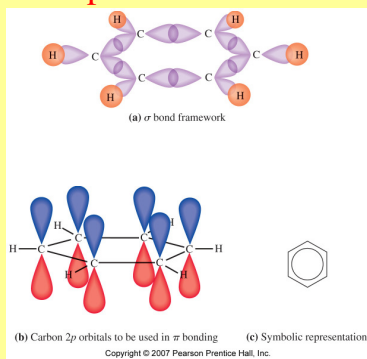


This structure is planar and suggests sp^2 .

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Chemical bonding II 46

Multiple Bonds: Benzene



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Chemical bonding II 47

Multiple Bonds: Benzene

- The overlap of the "p" orbitals can be thought of as giving the three double bonds, but in reality the π orbital system is delocalized around the whole ring. This eliminates the need to discuss resonance.

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Chemical bonding II 48

Other kinds of “bonds”

- In the section on gases we said there were forces between the molecules. Now we know more about bonding and electronic structure we can revisit the question.
- What kinds of forces exist between molecules?

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Chemical bonding II 49

Van der Waal Forces

- Van der Waal forces are those attractive forces between molecules that are responsible for:
 - Real gas behaviour (Van der Waal “a”)
 - Condensation
- There are a number of such forces resulting in different types of interactions between molecules.

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Chemical bonding II 50

Van der Waal Forces London or Dispersion Force

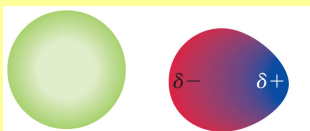
- The quantum concept of electronic structure talks about the probability of an electron being in a certain region at a certain time.
- Even for an atom or a perfectly symmetrical molecule there is a finite chance that the electronic charges are not uniformly distributed.
- This produces an instantaneous dipole.

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Chemical bonding II 51

Van der Waal Forces London or Dispersion Force

Molecule
on average



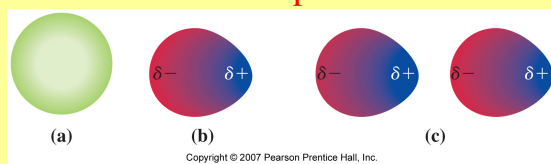
Instantaneous
dipole

- The instantaneous dipole can then influence neighbouring molecules and induce a dipole in them. (an **induced dipole**)
- This gives two dipoles that can attract. This is usually called a **dispersion force** or a **London force**.

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Van der Waal Forces London or Dispersion Force



- Normal
- Instantaneous dipole
- Instantaneous dipole (left) induced dipole (right)

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Chemical bonding II 53

Van der Waal Forces London or Dispersion Force

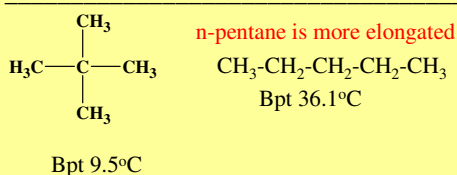
- This force is going to be strongest in a molecule with a large number of electrons or for an elongated molecule.
- The ability or tendency of a molecule to have charge separation occur is called **polarizability**.
- The effect of London forces can often be seen in the boiling points of similar compounds.

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Effect of London Forces

- Bpt(He) = 4K
- Bpt(Rn) = 211K Rn is larger



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Chemical bonding II 55

Van der Waal Forces Dipole-Dipole interactions

- Bonds where the elements have different electronegativity have a permanent charge separation.

E.g. HCl

- $\text{H} \rightarrow \text{Cl}$
- If this shows up in the molecule we say the molecule has a permanent dipole.

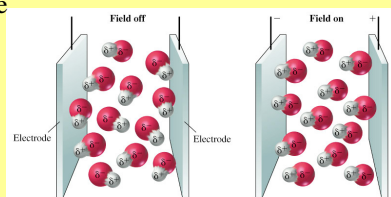
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Van der Waal Forces Dipole-Dipole interactions

- How do we tell if a molecule has a dipole?

We can put the molecules in an electric field and see the effects of them “lining up”.



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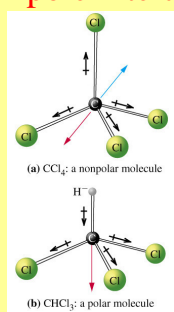
Van der Waal Forces Dipole-Dipole interactions

- Not all molecules with polar bonds have a dipole.
- This is because the dipoles can cancel each other out.

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Van der Waal Forces Dipole-Dipole interactions



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Chemical bonding II 59

Van der Waal Forces Dipole-Dipole interactions

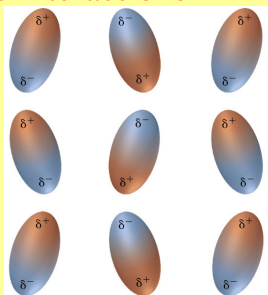
- For molecules with permanent dipoles, Dipole-Dipole interactions can occur.

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Van der Waal Forces Dipole-Dipole interactions

- Dipole-dipole interactions are in addition to the London forces.
- The overall interaction between polar molecules is higher than for non-polar molecules.



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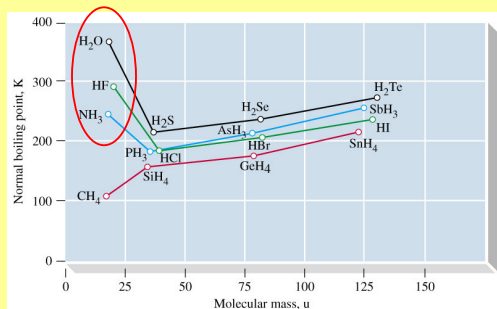
Hydrogen Bonding

- This is an extreme case.
- Hydrogen atoms bonded to very highly electronegative atoms can form weak bonds with the atom in an adjacent molecule.
- This only occurs for hydrogen bonded to F, O, and N.
- The bond energy is $15 - 40 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, high compared to London forces but low compared to covalent bonds ($>150 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$)

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Chemical bonding II 62

Effect of Hydrogen Bonding

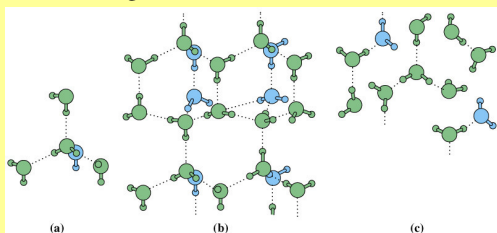


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Hydrogen Bonding in Water

- a) 4 hydrogen bonds per molecule
b) solid c) gas

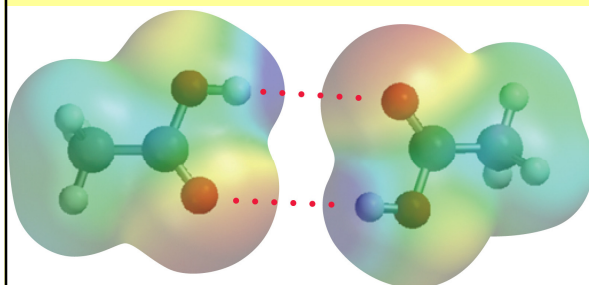


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Hydrogen Bonding (ctd)

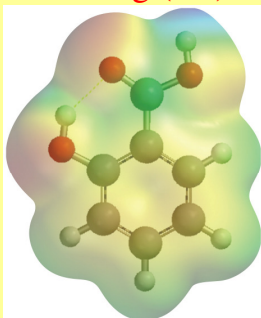
Intermolecular - formation of a dimer of acetic acid



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Hydrogen Bonding (ctd)

Intramolecular
- forces within a
molecule of
salicylic acid



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