Chemical Bonding and Molecular Structure

Chemical bond – The force of attraction which holds different constituents like ions, atoms, etc. together in different chemical species is known as a chemical bond.

• The formation of chemical bond was explained well by Kossel-Lewis approach, Valence bond theory and molecular orbital theory.

Kossel-Lewis's approach to chemical bonding

- In 1916 Kossel and Lewis put forward this approach and gave logical explanation of valence.
- They pictured the atom as a positively charged kernel and the outer shell accommodate maximum 8-electrons.
- Lewis propounded that atom tend to achieve stable octet when they are linked by chemical bonds. For example, in case of sodium and chloride; transfer of one electron from sodium to chloride takes place to complete the octet. Thus Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions form.
- **Lewis Symbols:** The outer electrons which take part in chemical combination to make a molecule are known as valence electrons. G.N. Lewis gave the simple notations to represent valence electrons in an atom. Examples:

Li Be .B. .C. .N. :O: :F: :Ne:

• **Significance of Lewis Symbols:** The number of dots around the symbol indicates the number of valence electrons. These number of valence electrons help in calculation of group valence of element.

Group valence of element = 8 – number of dots or valence electrons

- According to Kossel-
- 1. Highly electropositive alkali metals and electronegative halogens are separated by noble gases in the periodic table.
- 2. By the gain and loss of electron the formation of negative ion from halogen atom and a positive ion from an alkali metal take place.
- 3. The positive and negative ions attain noble gas electronic configuration. As the noble gases have stable outer shell electronic configuration of octet i.e. ns²np⁶.
- 4. The stabilization of negative and positive ions takes place by electrostatic attraction.

Example: Formation of NaCl –

• The electrostatic attraction between positive and negative ions leads to formation of bond which is known as electrovalent bond.

Octet Rule

• In 1916 Kossel and Lewis propounded the electronic theory of chemical bonding; which state that atom can combine by transfer of valence electrons from one atom to another or by sharing of valence electrons in order to complete the octet. This is called octet rule.

Covalent Bond

- In 1919 Langmuir introduced the term covalent bond.
- It can be explained by the formation of chlorine molecule.

Electronic configuration of Cl = $[Ne]3s²3p⁵$

Here one electron is less in order to attain argon configuration. This purpose can be attained by formation of a sCl₂ molecule.

Figure: Covalent bond between two Cl atoms

- The electrons are represented by dots. Such structures are called Lewis dot structures.
- The important conditions to make Lewis dot structure
	- a. Each bond is formed due to sharing of electron pair between the atoms.
	- b. Each combining atom contributes minimum one electron to the shared pair.
- c. After the sharing of electrons, the combining atoms attain the outer shell noble gas electronic configuration.
- d. Example:

- A single covalent bond formation takes place by sharing one electron pair between two atoms.
- When two atoms share two electron pairs the covalent bond is known as a double bond.

Figure: C2H⁴ molecule

• When three electron pairs are shared by combining atoms for example in N² molecule two nitrogen atoms and in ethyne molecule two carbon atoms make triple bond.

 C_2H_2 molecule

Table: the Lewis representation of some molecules

Formal Charge

• Lewis dot structure cannot explain the actual shape of the molecules.

- The difference between the valence electrons of isolated atom and to number of electrons on that atom in the Lewis structure is known as formal charge.
- **Formal charge (F.C.) on an atom in a Lewis structure =**

[Total no. of valence electrons in the free atom] – [Total no. of nonbonding electrons] – ½ [Total number of bonding electrons]

• For example: Ozone molecule (O_3)

- Here the atoms have been numbered as 1, 2, and 3.
- The formal charge on central O atom number 1:

$$
= 6 - 2 - \underline{1} \, (6) = +1
$$

• The formal charge on end O atom number 2:

$$
\frac{1}{2} = 6 - 4 - \frac{1}{2}(4) = 0
$$

• The formal charge on end O atom number 3:

$$
= 6 - 6 - \underline{1} (2) = -1
$$

2

The formal charge on O_3 molecule is as follows:

• The formal charge is based on a pure covalent view of bonding in which electron pairs are shared equally by neighboring atoms.

Limitations of octet rule

- There are some exceptions to the octet rule
	- 1. **The incomplete octet of the central atom** The number of electrons surrounding central atom is less than 8. In case of elements having four or less valence electrons. Example: LiCl, BeH₂, BCl₃.

Сl $\overline{C1}$: \overline{B} : $\overline{C1}$ $Li:Cl$ $H:Be:H$

Here Li has 1, Be has 2 and B has 3 valence electrons.

2. **Odd-electron molecules** – Some molecules with an odd number of electrons. For example: nitric oxide, nitrogen oxide, the octet rule is not satisfied for all such atoms.

$$
\ddot{N} = \ddot{\Omega} \qquad \ddot{\Omega} = \dot{N} - \ddot{\Omega} \ddot{\Omega}
$$

3. **The expanded octet** – Some elements have more than 8 valence earound the central atom, which is known as expanded octet. Examples: PF_5 , H_2SO_4 , SF_6 .

- Octet rule is based on chemical inertness of noble gases while some noble gases like Xe, Kr combine with fluorine and oxygen to form a number of compounds like XeOF $_2$, XeF $_2$, KrF $_2$.
- Octet rule failed to describe the relative stability of the molecules.
- Octet rule cannot explain the shape of molecule.

Ionic or electrovalent bond

• The formation of ionic compounds depends upon the ease of formation of negative and positive ions from the representative neutral atoms; also, on the arrangement of negative and positive ions in the lattice of crystalline solid.

 $M(g)$ \rightarrow $M^+(g) + e^-$ (lonization enthalpy)

 $X(g) + e^- \rightarrow X(g)$ (Electron gain enthalpy)

 $M^+(g) + X^-(g) \rightarrow MX(s)$

- The electron gain enthalpy (Δ_{eg}H) is the enthalpy change when a gas phase atom in its ground state gains an electron. It can be exothermic or endothermic process. Ionization is an endothermic process.
- Ionic bonds form easily between elements with low ionization enthalpies and elements with high negative value of electron gain enthalpy.
- Ionic compounds are crystalline solids with 3-d arrangement of cations and anions.

Figure: Rock salt structure

- The ionization enthalpy for Na⁺ from Na(g) = 495.8 KJ mol⁻¹
- The electron gain enthalpy for $Cl(g) + e^{-} \rightarrow Cl(g)$ -348.7 KJ mol⁻¹

 \bullet -348.7 + 495.8 = 147.1 KJ mol⁻¹

It is more than the enthalpy of lattice formation i.e., -788 KJ mol⁻¹. Thus, energy will be released.

Lattice energy

- The amount of energy required to separate one mole of a solid ionic compound into gaseous constituent ions is called lattice energy.
- The lattice energy of NaCl is 788 KJ mol⁻¹.

Bond Parameters

- **1. Bond length**
	- The equilibrium distance between the nuclei of two bonded atoms in a molecule is called bond length.
	- The radius of an atom which is in contact with the core of an adjacent atom in a bonded atom is known as covalent radius.

Figure: The bond length in a covalent molecule AB

• The van der Waals radius represents overall size of the atom which includes valence shell in a non-bonded situation.

Figure: Covalent and van der Walls radius in chlorine molecule

2. Bond Angle –

- The angle between the orbitals containing bonding electron pairs around the central atom in molecule is known as bond angle.
- It is expressed in degree.
- Example: Bond angle in water (H_2O)

3. Bond Enthalpy –

- The amount of energy required to break 1 mole bonds between two atoms in gaseous state is known as bond enthalpy.
- The unit of bond enthalpy is kJ mol⁻¹.
- The bond enthalpy for H-H bond is 435 kJ mol⁻¹.

 $H_2(g) \to H(g) + H(g); \ \Delta_a H = 435.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$

• $O_2(g) \to O(g) + O(g)$); $\Delta_a H = 498$ kJ mol⁻¹

• $N_2(g) \to N(g) + N(g)$); $\Delta_a H = 946.0 \text{ kJ} \text{ mol}^{-1}$

Thus, we can say the stronger the bond, larger the bond dissociation enthalpy of a molecule.

- Heteronuclear diatomic molecule like hydrochloric acid (HCl) HCl (g) \rightarrow H(g) + Cl(g),); Δ _aH = 431.0 kJ mol⁻¹
- Bond strength is complicated in case of polyatomic molecules. Like in water molecule, two O-H bond enthalpies are not similar.

H₂O (g) → H(g) + OH(g); Δ _aH = 502 kJ mol⁻¹ OH (g) \rightarrow H(g) + O(g); Δ _aH₂ = 427 kJ mol⁻¹

The different $\Delta_a H$ value shows that there is some different chemical environment around second O-H bond.

For O-H bond mean or average bond enthalpy $=$

$$
= \frac{502 + 427}{2} = 464.5 \text{ kJ mol}^1
$$

Table: Average bond length for some bonds

Table: Bond lengths in some molecules

4. Bond Order

- The number of bonds between two atoms is known as bond order. Examples: In H_2 , O_2 and N_2 the bond order is 1, 2, and 3 respectively.
- Isoelectronic molecules and ions have identical bond orders. Examples: F_2 and O_2^2 have 1 bond order. CO, N_2 and NO_+ have bond order 3.

❖ **Bond order** ∝ **Bond energy** ∝ **1/ Bond length**

Resonance structure

- ➢ Sometimes Lewis structure is not sufficient for the representation of a molecule. For example, ozone molecule can be represented by these structures as shown in figure below.
- ➢ Here structure I and II are canonical forms and structure III is resonance hybrid.

 \triangleright In O₃ molecule O-O single bond's bond length is 148 pm and O=O bond length is 121 pm. But experimentally O-O bond length in O_3 molecule is 128 pm. Thus, it is intermediate between single and double bond. It is not possible to represent it by Lewis's structure.

Figure: Resonance in O₃ molecule

- \triangleright A single Lewis structure cannot describe well a molecule.
- \triangleright A number of structures with similar position of nuclei; energy, nonbonding and bonding pairs of electrons are taken as the canonical structures of the resonance hybrid which describe well and accurately the molecule.
- \triangleright Resonance is represented by double headed arrow.
- \triangleright For example, in carbon di oxide (CO₂) molecule –

Figure: resonance in CO² molecule, I, II and III represent the three canonical structures.

Figure: Resonance in CO₃²⁻, I, II and III represent the three canonical **forms.**

- \cdot The energy of resonance hybrid is less than the energy of a single canonical structure thus resonance stabilizes the molecule.
- ❖ As a whole, the bond characteristics are made average by resonance.
- ❖ **Misconceptions**
	- **1.** The canonical forms have no real existence.
	- **2.** The molecule does not exist for a certain period of time in one canonical form.
	- **3.** There is no equilibrium between the canonical forms as in tautomerism.

Polarity in bonds

- \triangleright There is no bond or compound is completely ionic or covalent.
- \triangleright When the shared pair of electrons is equally attracted by two atoms, the formation of covalent bond take place. And it is known as non-polar covalent bond. For example, in H_2 , Cl_2 , O_2 and F_2 .

Thus, the electron pair is situated exactly between the identical nuclei. And it is known as non-polar covalent bond.

- \triangleright In Heteronuclear molecule the shared pair of electrons is situated towards more electronegative atom. Like in HF towards fluorine. It is known as polar covalent bond.
- \triangleright Difference in electronegativity causes the polarization. Due to this polarization, molecule possesses dipole moment.
- ➢ **Dipole moment-** The product of magnitude of the charge and distance between centers of negative and positive charge is known as dipole moment.
- \triangleright Dipole moment is denoted by μ .

Dipole moment (μ) = charge (Q) x distance of separation(r)

$$
\mu = \mathsf{Qr}
$$

➢ Unit of dipole moment is **Debye**.

$$
1D = 3.3356 \times 10^{-30} C
$$
 m

Here C is coulomb and m is meter.

 \triangleright It is a vector quantity depicted by

$$
(+\!\!\rightarrow)
$$

The tail lies on the electronegative center. For example

$$
\overset{+\longrightarrow}{\text{H}\xrightarrow{\hspace*{1.5cm}}}\overset{\cdot\cdot}{\text{F}}:
$$

- \triangleright The arrow shows the direction of the shift of electron density in the molecule.
- \triangleright In polyatomic molecules dipole moment depends upon the individual dipole moments of bonds. For example, in water molecule –

H2O has bent structure, and bond angle is 104.5°. Net dipole moment is 6.17×10^{-30} C m.

 \triangleright In case of BeF₂ net dipole moment is zero because two equal dipole moment lies in opposite directions. They cancel the dipole moment of each other.

Bond dipoles in Total dipole moment in Ber_2

 \triangleright In tetra-atomic molecule like BF₃ the net dipole moment is zero. As the bond angle is 120°. The dipole moment of middle one and resultant dipole moment of other two sides, cancel each other.

Figure: (a) Bond dipoles (b) Total dipole moment

- \triangleright In presence of lone pair, the calculation of dipole moment is more interesting. For example, in $NH₃$ and NF₃.
- \triangleright In NH₃ the orbital dipole due to lone pair is in the same direction as the resultant dipole moment of N-H bonds.
- \triangleright In NF₃ the orbital dipole is in the opposite direction to the resultant dipole moment. Thus, NF_3 has low dipole moment as compare to $NH_{3.}$

(Here blue colored arrow show resultant dipole moment)

Fajans Rule – The partial covalent character in ionic bond was discussed by Fajans rule. According to this rule –

1. Size of anion ∝ **Covalent character of an ionic bond Size of cation**

2. **Charge on cation** ∝ **Covalent character of an ionic bond**

3. In case of cations with similar size and charge, the one with $(n-1)dⁿns⁰$ (transition metals) is more polarizing than the one with noble gas configuration i.e. ns²np⁶.

The cation polarizes the anion by pulling the electronic charge towards itself. Eventually the electronic charge increases between the two.

Figure: Polarization of anion by cation

Examples: Sodium chloride (NaCl) (with a low positive charge (+1), a fairly large cation (\approx 1 Å) and relatively small anion (0.2 Å) is jonic; but Aluminum iodide (AlI₃) (Al with a high positive charge (+3) and a large anion I⁻) is covalent.

The valence shell electron pair repulsion theory (VSEPR) –

- \triangleright Sidgwick and Powell in 1940 formulated this theory which is based on repulsive interactions of the electron pairs in the valence shell of the atoms.
- \triangleright It was further improvised by Nyholm and Gillespie in 1957.

The main postulates of VSEPR theory:

- \triangleright The shape of a molecule completely depends upon the number of valence shell electron pairs (bonded or non-bonded) present around the central atom.
- \triangleright Pairs of electrons in the valence shell repel one another since their electron clouds are negatively charged.
- \triangleright These pairs of electrons tend to occupy such positions in space that minimize repulsion and maximize the distance between them.
- \triangleright The valence shell is taken as a sphere with the electron pairs situated on the spherical surface at maximum distance from one another.
- \triangleright A multiple bond is treated as if it is a single electron pair and two or three electron pairs of a multiple bond are treated as a single super pair.
- ➢ Where two or more resonance structures can represent a molecule, the VSEPR model is applicable to any such structure.
	- ❖ The repulsive interaction of electron pairs decreases in the order:

lp-lp > lp-bp > bp-bp

 Here lp = lone pair bp = bond pair

- Nyholm and Gillespie improvised the VSEPR model by explaining the important difference between the lp and bp of electrons.
- The lone pairs are localized on the central atom. The bond pair is shared between two atoms. Thus, the lone pair of electrons in a molecule occupy more space as compared to the bonding pairs of electrons. This results in repulsion between lone pairs of electrons as compared to lp - bp and bp - bp repulsions. These repulsive effects result in deviations from ideal shapes and changes in bond angles in molecules.
- The VSEPR theory divides molecules into two categories:
	- 1. Molecules in which the central atom has no lone pair
	- 2. Molecules in which the central atom has one or more lone pairs.

Table: Geometry of Molecules in which the Central Atom has No Lone Pair of Electrons

- The compounds of AB_2 , AB_3 , AB_4 , AB_5 and AB_6 , the arrangement of electron pairs and the B atoms around the central atom A are : linear, trigonal planar, tetrahedral, trigonalbipyramidal and octahedral, respectively.
- Such arrangements can be seen in the molecules like $BF_3(AB_3)$, CH₄ $(AB₄)$ and PCI₅ $(AB₅)$ as shown below by their ball and stick models-

Figure: the shape of molecules in which central atom has no lone pair

- The VSEPR Theory is able to predict geometry of a large number of molecules, especially the compounds of p-block elements accurately.
- It is also quite successful in determining the geometry very accurately even when the energy difference between possible structures is very small.

Table: Geometry of Molecules in which the Central Atom has No Lone Pair of Electrons

Table: Shape (geometry) of some simple molecules/ions with central ions having one or more lone pairs of electrons (E).×

Table: Shapes of molecules containing bond pair and lone pair

Valence bond theory –

- \triangleright Valence bond theory was propounded by Heitler and London in 1927.
- ➢ It is based on atomic orbitals, electronic configurations of elements, overlapping of atomic orbitals, hybridization of atomic orbitals and principles of superposition and variation.
- \triangleright Two hydrogen atoms A and B approaching each other having nuclei N_A and N_B and electrons present in them are represented by e_A and e_B .
- \triangleright When the two atoms are at large distance from each other, there is no interaction between them. As these two atoms approach each other, new attractive and repulsive forces begin to operate.
- \triangleright Attractive forces arise between them:
	- 1. Nucleus of one atom and its own electron i.e. $N_A e_A$ and $N_B e_B$.
	- 2. Nucleus of one atom and electron of other atom i.e. $N_A e_B$, $N_B e_A$.
- \triangleright Repulsive forces arise between them:
- 1. Electrons of two atoms like $e_A e_B$,
- 2. Nuclei of two atoms $N_A N_B$.

Figure: Forces of attraction and repulsion during the formation of H² molecule

- ➢ Attractive forces bring the two atoms closer to each other while repulsive forces push them apart.
- ➢ The net force of attraction balances the force of repulsion and system acquires minimum energy. Thus, two hydrogen atoms bonded together. They make a stable molecule with bond length 74 pm.

 \triangleright The energy released during bond formation is known as bond enthalpy. 435.8 kJ of energy is required to dissociate 1 mole of H_2 molecule.

 $H_2(g)$ + 435.8 kJ mol⁻¹ \rightarrow H(g) + H(g)

Orbital overlap concept –

- \triangleright The partial merging of atomic orbitals is known as overlapping of atomic orbitals; which results in pairing of electrons.
- \triangleright The strength of a covalent bond is decided by the extent of overlap.

Overlapping of atomic orbitals

 \triangleright When orbitals of two atoms come close to form bond, their overlap may be positive, negative or zero depending upon the sign and direction of orientation of amplitude of orbital wave function in space.

Zero overlap (out of phase due to different orientation direction of approach)

Figure: positive, negative and zero overlap of sand p atomic orbitals

- ➢ Orbitals forming bond should have same sign/phase and orientation in space. This is called positive overlap.
- \triangleright The shapes of CH₄, NH₃, and H₂O molecules are tetrahedral, pyramidal and bent respectively. Valence bond theory explains the geometrical shapes in terms of the orbital overlaps.
- \triangleright For example, in methane (CH₄) Electronic configuration of Carbon - **[He]2s²2p²** Electronic configuration of excited state - **[He] 2s¹ 2px¹ 2py¹2pz¹ .**
- \triangleright Here the energy required for excitation is compensated by the release of energy due to overlap between the orbitals of carbon and hydrogen.
- \triangleright The 4 atomic orbitals of carbon, each with an unpaired electron can overlap with the 1s orbitals of the four H atoms which are also singly occupied. This will result in the formation of four C-H bonds.
- \triangleright The three p orbitals of carbon are at 90 \degree to one another, the HCH angle for these will also be 90°. Three C-H bonds will be oriented at 90° to one another. The 2s orbital of carbon and the 1s orbital of H are spherically symmetrical and they can overlap in any direction.
- \triangleright Simple atomic orbital overlap does not account for the directional characteristics of bonds in CH4. The tetrahedral HCH angles of 109.5°
- \triangleright In case of NH₃ and H₂O molecules, the HNH and HOH angles should be 90°. But the actual bond angles are 107° and 104.5° in the NH₃ and H₂O molecules respectively.

Types of overlapping and nature of covalent bond

- \triangleright The covalent bond is classified into two types depending upon the types of overlapping: **Sigma** (σ) and pi (π)
- **1. Sigma** (σ) bond:
- ➢ Sigma bond is formed by the end-to-end overlap of bonding orbitals along the internuclear axis.
- \triangleright This is called as head on overlap or axial overlap. This can be formed by any one of the following types of combinations of atomic orbitals:
	- A) **s-s** overlapping: In this overlapping, overlap of two half-filled s orbitals along the internuclear axis take place.

B) **s-p** overlapping: This type of overlapping takes place between halffilled s- orbital and p-orbital.

C) **p-p** overlapping: This type of overlap takes place between half-filled p-orbitals of the two approaching atoms.

- **2. Pi(π) bond:**
	- \triangleright In the formation of π bond the atomic orbitals overlap in such a way that their axes remain parallel (II) to each other and perpendicular (\perp) to the internuclear axis.
	- ➢ The orbitals formed due to sidewise overlapping consists of two saucer type charged clouds above and below the plane of the *participating* atom.

p-orbital p-orbital p -p overlapping

Strength of Sigma and pi Bonds –

- \triangleright The strength of a bond depends upon the extent of overlapping.
- \triangleright The overlapping of orbitals takes place to a larger extent in sigma bond formation so it is stronger as compared to the pi bond where the extent of overlapping occurs to a smaller extent.

Order of strength: σ bond $>\pi$ bond

➢ The formation of multiple bonds between two atoms of a molecule, pi bond(s) is formed in addition to a sigma bond.

Hybridization –

- Pauling propounded the concept of hybridization.
- The atomic orbitals combine to form new set of equivalent orbitals called hybrid orbitals.
- Hybridization is the process of intermixing of the orbitals of different energies and formation of new set of orbitals of same energies and shape.

Salient features of hybridization

- 1. The number of hybrid orbitals is equal to the number of the atomic orbitals that get hybridized.
- 2. The hybridized orbitals are always same in energy and shape.
- 3. The hybrid orbitals are more effective in forming stable bonds than the pure atomic orbitals.
- 4. These hybrid orbitals are directed in space in some preferred direction to have minimum repulsion between electron pairs and thus a stable arrangement. Hybridisation indicates the geometry of the molecules.

Important conditions for hybridization

- a. The orbitals present in the valence shell of the atom are hybridized.
- b. The orbitals undergoing hybridization should have almost equal energy.
- c. Excitation of electron is not essential condition prior to hybridization.
- d. It is not necessary that only half-filled orbitals participate in hybridization. Sometimes filled orbitals of valence shell take part in hybridization.

Types of hybridization –

- **1. sp-hybridisation**
	- This type of hybridization involves the mixing of one s and one p orbital resulting in the formation of two equivalent sp-hybrid orbitals.
	- The suitable orbitals for sp-hybridization are s and p_z , if the hybrid orbitals are to lie along the z-axis.
	- Each sp-hybrid orbitals have 50% s-character and 50% p-character. Such a molecule in which the central atom is sp-hybridized and connected to other two central atoms have linear geometry.
	- This type of hybridization is also known as diagonal hybridization.
	- Example: **BeCl²**

Electronic configuration of Be - $1s^22s^2$

Excited electronic configuration - 1s²2s¹2pz¹

One 2s and one 2p orbital gets hybridized and two sp-hybridized orbital form. The angle is 180°.

The sp-hybridized orbital overlaps with the 2p-orbital of chlorine axially and form two Be-Cl sigma bonds.

Figure: Formation of sp hybrids from s and p orbitals and formation of the linear BeCl² molecule

2. sp² -hybridization-

• In this hybridization there is involvement of one s and two porbitals in order to form three equivalent $sp²$ hybridized orbitals.

 \bullet Example: BCl₃ molecule

The ground state electronic configuration of central boron atom- $1s^22s^22p^1$

The excited state electronic configuration of Boron atom- $1s^22s^22p_y^12p_z^1$

• In the excited state, one of the 2s electrons is promoted to vacant 2p orbital as a result boron has three unpaired electrons. These three orbitals (one 2s and two 2p) hybridize to form three

sp² hybrid orbitals.

Figure: Formation of sp² hybrid and BCl² molecule

• The hybrid orbitals have a trigonal planar arrangement. The geometry is trigonal planar with Cl-B-Cl bond angle of 120**°.**

3. sp³ - hybridization –

- This type of hybridization involves the mixing of one s-orbital and three p-orbitals of the valence shell to form four sp³-hybrid orbital of equivalent energies and shape.
- There is 25% s-character and 75% p-character in each sp³-hybrid orbital. The four sp³-hybrid orbitals so formed are directed towards the four corners of the tetrahedron.
- Example: CH⁴ molecule

The ground state electronic configuration of central carbon atom- $1s^22s^22p^2$

- The excited state electronic configuration of carbon atom- $1s^22s^22p_x^12p_y^12p_z^1$
- The angle between sp^3 -hybrid orbitals is 109.5°.

Figure: Formation of sp³ -hybrid orbitals, formation of CH⁴ molecule

- The structure of NH_3 and H_2O molecules can also be explained with the help of sp³-hybridization.
- **NH³ –** The valence shell (outer) electronic configuration of nitrogen atom in ground state- 1s²2s²2p_x¹2p_y¹2p_z¹
- There are three unpaired electrons in the sp3 hybrid orbitals and a lone pair of electrons is present in the fourth one. These three hybrid orbitals overlap with 1s-orbitals of hydrogen atoms to form three N–H sigma (σ) bonds.
- There is a force of repulsion between a lone pair and a bond pair which is more than the force of repulsion between two bond pairs of electrons. The NH₃ molecule thus gets distorted and the bond angle is reduced to 107° from 109.5°. The geometry NH³ molecule is pyramidal.

Figure: Formation of sp³ -hybrid orbitals and formation of NH³ molecule

- **H2O –** The ground state electronic configuration of central oxygen atom- $1s^22s^22p^4$
- Four oxygen orbitals (one 2s and three 2p orbital) undergo sp^3 hybridization forming four sp³-hybrid orbitals.
- Two of them contain one electron each and the other two contain a pair of electrons.
- These four sp³-hybrid orbitals acquire a tetrahedral geometry, with two corners occupied by H-atoms while the other two by the lone pairs.
- The bond angle in this case is reduced to 104.5° from 109.5° due to the presence of lone pair.
- Water molecule has V-shape or angular geometry**.**

Figure: Orbital overlapping and formation of H2O molecule

sp³ -hybridization in C2H⁶ molecule:

- \bullet In ethane molecule both the carbon atoms assume sp³-hybrid state.
- One of the four sp³-hybrid orbitals of carbon atom overlaps axially with similar orbitals of other atom to form sp³-sp³ sigma (σ) bond while the other three hybrid orbitals of each carbon atom are used in forming sp³– s sigma (σ) bonds with hydrogen atoms.
- C–C bond length is 154 pm and each C–H bond length is 110 pm.

Figure: Orbital picture and structure of ethane

Sp² -hybridization in C2H⁴ molecule:

- \bullet In ethene molecule, one of the sp²-hybrid orbitals of carbon atom overlaps axially with sp²-hybridised orbital of another carbon atom to form C–C sigma bond.
- While the other two sp²-hybrid orbitals of each carbon atom are used for making sp²–s sigma (σ) bond with two hydrogen atoms. The unhybridised orbital (2 p_x or 2 p_y) of one carbon atom overlaps sidewise with the similar orbital of the other carbon atom to form weak π bond; which consists of two equal electron clouds distributed above and below the plane of carbon and hydrogen atoms.

Figure: Orbital picture and structure of ethylene

sp-hybridization in C2H² molecule:

- In ethyne molecule, both the carbon atoms undergo sp-hybridization having two unhybridized orbital i.e., $2p_y$ and $2p_x$.
- One sp-hybrid orbital of one carbon atom overlaps axially with sp-hybrid orbital of the other carbon atom to form C–C sigma bond, while the other hybridized orbital of each carbon atom overlaps axially with the half-filled s-orbital of hydrogen atoms forming sigma bonds.
- Each of the two unhybridized p orbitals of both the carbon atoms overlaps sidewise to form two π bonds between the carbon atoms. So, the triple bond between the two carbon atoms is made up of one sigma and two pi bonds.

Figure: Formation of sigma and pi bond sin ethyne

Hybridization of Elements involving d-Orbitals

• The elements present in the third period in periodic table contain dorbitals in addition to s and p orbitals. The hybridization involving either 3s, 3p and 3d or 3d, 4s and 4p is possible. Hybridization involving 3p, 3d and 4s orbitals is not possible.

Table: Important hybridisation

i) Formation of PCl⁵ (sp3d hybridization) –

The ground state and the excited state outer electronic configurations of phosphorus (Z=15) –

Figure: sp³d hybrid orbitals filled by electron pairs donated by 5 Cl atoms

• The five orbitals (*i.e.,* one s, three p and one d orbitals) are available for hybridization to yield a set of five sp³-d hybrid orbitals which are directed towards the five corners of a trigonal bipyramidal.

Figure: Trigonal bipyramidal geometry of PCl⁵ molecule

- All the bond angles in trigonal bipyramidal geometry are not equivalent. In PC I_5 the five sp₃d orbitals of phosphorus overlap with the singly occupied p-orbitals of chlorine atoms to form five P–Cl sigma bonds.
- Three P–Cl bonds lie in one plane and make an angle of 120° with each other; these bonds are termed as equatorial bonds.
- The remaining two P–Cl bonds–one lying above and the other lying below the equatorial plane, make an angle of 90° with the plane.
- Axial bonds have been found to be slightly longer and hence slightly weaker than the equatorial bonds; which makes PCI₅ molecule more reactive.
	- ii) **Formation of SF⁶ (sp³d ² hybridization)-**
		- In SF6 the central S-atom has the ground state outer electronic configuration - $3s²3p⁴$
		- In the exited state the available six orbitals i.e., one s, three p and two d are singly occupied by electrons. These orbitals hybridize to form six new sp³d²-hybrid orbitals.
		- These six sp³d² hybrid orbitals overlap with singly occupied orbitals of fluorine atoms to form six S-F sigma bonds.
		- SF₆ molecule has a regular octahedral geometry.

 $sp³d²$ hybridisation

Figure: octahedral geometry of SF⁶ molecule

MOLECULAR ORBITAL THEORY

- Molecular orbital theory was propounded by Hund and Mulliken in 1932.
- The salient features of this theory are:
- 1. The electrons in a molecule are present in the various molecular orbitals as the electrons of atoms are present in the various atomic orbitals.
- 2. The atomic orbitals of comparable energies and proper symmetry combine to form new molecular orbitals.
- 3. An atomic orbital is monocentric while a molecular orbital is polycentric.
- 4. The number of molecular orbitals formed is equal to the number of combining atomic orbitals. When two atomic orbitals combine, two molecular orbitals are formed. One is bonding molecular orbital while the other is called anti-bonding molecular orbital.
- 5. The bonding molecular orbital has lower energy and greater stability than the corresponding anti-bonding molecular orbital.
- 6. The electron probability distribution around a nucleus in an atom is given by an atomic orbital; the electron probability distribution around a group of nuclei in a molecule is given by a molecular orbital.
- 7. The molecular orbitals are filled in accordance with the Aufbau principle obeying the Pauli's exclusion principle and the Hund's rule.

Formation of molecular orbitals: linear combination of atomic orbitals (LCAO)

- The atomic orbitals are expressed by wave functions (ψ 's) which represent the amplitude of the electron waves. These are obtained from the solution of Schrodinger wave equation.
- In homo-nuclear diatomic H_2 molecule. Consider the H_2 molecule consisting of two atoms A and B. Each hydrogen atom in the ground state has one electron in 1s orbital.
- The atomic orbitals of these atoms may be represented by the wave functions Ψ_A and Ψ_B .
- The formation of molecular orbitals may be described by the linear combination of atomic orbitals as follows:

$$
\Psi_{\text{MO}} = \Psi_{\text{A}} \pm \Psi_{\text{B}}
$$

• The two molecular orbitals σ and σ^* are formed as follows:

$$
\sigma = \Psi_{A} + \Psi_{B}
$$
\n
$$
\sigma^* = \Psi_{A} - \Psi_{B}
$$

• The molecular orbital σ formed by the addition of atomic orbitals is called the bonding molecular orbital and the molecular orbital σ^* formed by the subtraction of atomic orbital is called anti-bonding molecular orbital.

Figure: Formation of bonding (σ) and anti-bonding (σ^*) molecular orbitals by the linear combination of atomic orbitals Ψ_A and Ψ_B **centered on two atoms A and B respectively.**

- In the formation of bonding molecular orbital, the two electron waves of the bonding atoms reinforce each other due to **constructive interference.**
- In the formation of anti-bonding molecular orbital, the electron waves cancel each other due to **destructive interference**.
- The electron density in a bonding molecular orbital is located between the nuclei of the bonded atoms because of which the repulsion between the nuclei is very less while in case of an anti-bonding molecular orbital, most of the electron density is located away from the space between the nuclei.
- There is a nodal plane on which the electron density is zero. This nodal plane is situated between the nuclei and hence the repulsion between the nuclei is high.
- Electrons placed in a bonding molecular orbital tend to hold the nuclei together and stabilize a molecule. A bonding molecular orbital always possesses lower energy than either of the atomic orbitals that have combined to form it.
- The electrons placed in the anti-bonding molecular orbital destabilize the molecule. This is because the mutual repulsion of the electrons in this orbital is more than the attraction between the electrons and the nuclei, which causes a net increase in energy.
- The energy of anti-bonding orbital is elevated above the energy of the parent atomic orbitals that have combined and the energy of the bonding orbital has been lowered than the parent orbitals.

Conditions for the combination of atomic orbitals

- 1. The combining atomic orbitals must have nearly the same energy. This means that 1s orbital can combine with another 1s orbital but not with 2s orbital because the energy of 2s orbital is higher than that of 1s orbital. This is not true if the atoms are very different.
- 2. The combining atomic orbitals must have the same symmetry about the molecular axis. By convention z-axis is taken as the molecular axis. The atomic orbitals having same or nearly the same energy will not combine if they do not have the same symmetry. For example, $2p_z$ orbital of one atom can combine with $2p_z$ orbital of the other atom but not with the $2p_x$ or $2p_y$ orbitals because of different symmetries.
- 3. The combining atomic orbitals must overlap to the maximum extent. Greater the extent of overlap, the greater will be the electron density between the nuclei of a molecular orbital.

Types of Molecular Orbitals

- Molecular orbitals of diatomic molecules are titled as sigma (σ), pi (π) , delta (δ) etc.
- In this nomenclature, the sigma molecular orbitals are symmetrical around the bond-axis while pi molecular orbitals are not symmetrical. For example, the linear combination of 1s orbitals centered on two nuclei produces two molecular orbitals which are symmetrical around the bond-axis.
- Such molecular orbitals are of the σ type and are designated as σ1s and σ*1s.
- If internuclear axis is taken to be in the z-direction, it can be seen that a linear combination of $2p_z$ - orbitals of two atoms also produces two sigma molecular orbitals designated as σ 2p_z and σ ^{*}2p_z.
- Molecular orbitals obtained from $2p_x$ and $2p_y$ orbitals are not symmetrical around the bond axis because of the presence of positive lobes above and negative lobes below the molecular plane.
- Such molecular orbitals are labeled as π and π^* . A π bonding MO has larger electron density above and below the inter-nuclear axis. The π^* anti-bonding MO has a node between the nuclei.

Energy level diagram for molecular orbitals

- 1s atomic orbitals on two atoms form two molecular orbitals designated as σ 1s and σ ^{*}1s. In the same manner, the 2s and 2p atomic orbitals (eight atomic orbitals on two atoms) give rise to the following eight molecular orbitals:
- Antibonding MOs σ^* 2s σ^* 2p_z π^* 2p_x π^* 2p_v
- Bonding MOs σ 2s σ 2pz π 2p_x π 2p_y

Figure: Contours and energies of bonding and anti-bonding molecular orbitals formed through combinations of (a) 1s atomic orbitals (b) 2p^z atomic orbitals and (c) 2p^x atomic orbitals.

• The increasing order of energies of various molecular orbitals for $O₂$ and $F₂$ is given below:

 σ 1s < σ *1s < σ 2s < σ *2s < σ 2pz < $(\pi 2p_x = \pi 2p_y)$ < $(\pi 2p_x = \pi^* 2p_y)$ $<$ σ ^{*}2p_z

• This sequence of energy levels of molecular orbitals is not correct for the remaining molecules Li₂, Be₂, B₂, C₂, N₂.

• It has been observed experimentally that for molecules such as B_2 , C_2 , N₂, etc. the increasing order of energies of various molecular orbitals is as follows:

 σ 1s < σ *1s < σ 2s < σ *2s < $(\pi$ 2p_x = π 2p_v $)$ < σ 2p_z $(\pi$ *2p_x = π *2p_v $)$ < σ^* 2p_z

• The important characteristic feature of this order is that the energy of σ 2p_z molecular orbital is higher than that of π 2p_x and π 2p_y molecular orbitals.

Electronic configuration and molecular behavior

- The distribution of electrons among various molecular orbitals is called the electronic configuration of the molecule. From the electronic configuration of the molecule, it is possible to get important information about the molecule as discussed below.
- **Stability of Molecules** If N_b is the number of electrons occupying bonding orbitals and Na the number occupying the anti-bonding orbitals, then:
	- 1. The molecule is stable if N_b is greater than N_a
	- 2. The molecule is unstable if N_b is less than N_a
- In case 1 more bonding orbitals are occupied and so the bonding influence is stronger and a stable molecule results. In case 2 the antibonding influence is stronger and therefore the molecule is unstable.
- The order of the stability is $O_2^+ > O_2 > O_2^- > O_2^{2-}$ as the bond order of **O² + , O2, O² − , O² 2− is 2, 2.5, 1.5 and 1 respectively.**
- The order of the stability is $N_2 > N_2^+ > N_2^- > N_2^2$ as the bond order of N_2 , **N2+, N² - , N² 2 – is 3, 2.5, 2.5 and 2 respectively.**

Bond order

• Bond order (b.o.) is described as one half the difference between the number of electrons present in the bonding and the anti-bonding orbitals.

Bond order (b.o.) = $\frac{1}{2}$ (N_b-N_a)

• A positive bond order $(N_b > N_a)$ means a stable molecule while a negative (N_b < N_a) or zero (N_b = N_a) bond order means an unstable molecule.

Nature of the bond

• Integral bond order values of 1, 2 or 3 correspond to single, double or triple bonds respectively as studied in the classical concept.

Bond-length

- The bond order between two atoms in a molecule may be taken as an approximate measure of the bond length.
- The bond length decreases as bond order increases.

Magnetic nature

- If all the molecular orbitals in a molecule are doubly occupied, the substance is diamagnetic which means repelled by magnetic field.
- If one or more molecular orbitals are singly occupied it is paramagnetic (attracted by magnetic field) example - O_2 molecule.

BONDING IN SOME HOMONUCLEAR DIATOMIC MOLECULES

Bonding in some homo-nuclear diatomic molecules is as follows:

Hydrogen molecule (H2)

- It is formed by the combination of two hydrogen atoms.
- Each hydrogen atom has one electron in 1s orbital. There are two electrons in hydrogen molecule which are present in σ 1s molecular orbital. So electronic configuration of H_2 molecule is

$$
H_2 - (\sigma 1s)^2
$$

• The bond order of H2 molecule can be calculated as given below:

Bond order =
$$
\frac{N_b - N_a}{2} = \frac{2 - 0}{2} = 1
$$

\n2

- This means that the two hydrogen atoms are bonded together by a single covalent bond.
- The bond dissociation energy of hydrogen molecule has been found to be 438 kJ mol–¹bond length equal to 74 pm. There is no unpaired electron is present in hydrogen molecule, so it is diamagnetic.

Helium molecule (He2)

- The electronic configuration of helium atom is $1s^2$.
- Each helium atom contains 2 electrons, so in He₂ molecule there would be 4 electrons. These electrons will be accommodated in σ 1sand σ *1s molecular orbitals leading to electronic configuration: He₂ - $(\sigma$ 1s)² (σ *1s)²
- Bond order of He₂ = $\frac{1}{2}$ (2 2) = 0
- He₂ molecule is therefore unstable and does not exist. Similarly, it can be shown that Be₂ molecule $(\sigma 1s)^2$ $(\sigma^* 1s)^2$ $(\sigma 2s)^2(\sigma^* 2s)^2$ also does not exist.

Lithium molecule (Li2)

- The electronic configuration of lithium is $1s^2$, $2s^1$. There are six electrons in Li₂. The electronic configuration of Li₂ = Li₂ - $(\sigma$ 1s)² $(\sigma^*$ <mark>1s)² (σ </mark>2s)²
- The above configuration is also written as $KK(\sigma 2s)^2$ where KK represents the closed K s<mark>hell</mark> str<mark>uct</mark>ure (σ1s)²(σ*<mark>1s)².</mark>
- Bond order in Li₂ molecule is $\frac{1}{2}$ (4 2) = 1.
- It means that Li₂ molecule is stable and since it has no unpaired electrons it should be diamagnetic. Indeed, diamagnetic Li₂ molecules are known to exist in the vapor phase.

Carbon molecule (C2)

- The electronic configuration of carbon is $1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$. There are twelve electrons in C_2 . The electronic configuration of C_2 molecule is – $C_2 = (\sigma 1s)^2 (\sigma^* 1s)^2 (\pi 2p_x^2 = \pi 2p_y^2)$ or KK $(\sigma 2s)^2 (\sigma^* 2s)^2 (\pi 2p_x^2 = \pi 2p_y^2)$
- The bond order of C_2 molecule is $\frac{1}{2}$ (8 4) = 2 and C_2 should be diamagnetic.
- It is important to note that double bond in C_2 consists of both π bonds because of the presence of four electrons in two π molecular orbitals. In most of the other molecules a double bond is made up of a σ -bond and a π -bond.

Oxygen molecule (O2)

- The electronic configuration of oxygen atom $1s^2 2s^2 2p^4$.
- Each oxygen atom has 8 electrons, In $O₂$ molecule there are 16 electrons. The electronic configuration of $O₂$ molecule =

 $O_2 = (\sigma 1s)^2$ $(\sigma^*1s)^2$ $(\sigma 2s)^2$ $(\sigma^*2s)^2$ $(\sigma 2p_z)^2$ $(\pi 2p_x^2 \equiv \pi 2p_y^2)$ $(\pi^*2p_x^2 \equiv$ $\pi^*2\mathsf{p}_\mathsf{y}{}^1$ O_2 = [KK (σ2s)² (σ^{*}2s)² (σ2p_z)² (π2p_x² ≡ π 2p_y²), (π*2p_x¹ ≡ π*2p_y¹)]

- Bond order = $\frac{1}{2}$ [N_b N_a] = $\frac{1}{2}$ [10-6] = 2
- O₂ molecule should be paramagnetic.

Figure: MO occupancy and molecular properties for B² through Ne²

Co-ordinate (dative covalent) bonding

- A covalent bond is formed by sharing a pair of electrons by two atoms. The atoms are held together because electron pair is attracted by both of the nuclei.
- In the formation of a simple covalent bond, each atom supplies one electron to the bond. A co-ordinate bond also called a dative covalent bond; is a covalent bond in which both electrons come from the same atom.
- Formation of Hydronium ion

$$
H \times \underbrace{N\cdots N}_{x} + {}^{\backprime}H^{*} \longrightarrow \left[H \times \underbrace{N\cdots N}_{x} \times H\right]^{*} \text{ or } \left[H - \stackrel{H}{N} - H\right]^{*}
$$

• Formation of Perchloric Acid $NaClO₄ + HCl \rightarrow NaCl + HClO₄$

$$
\mathsf{HO}\xrightarrow{\begin{array}{c}\mathsf{O}\\\mathsf{Cl}\xspace\end{array}}\mathsf{HO}
$$

Perchloric acid

• Formation of Hypo Chlorus acid $Ba(ClO₂)₂ + H₂SO₄ \rightarrow BaSO₄ + 2 HClO₂$ $Pb(CIO_2)_2 + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow PbSO_4 + 2 HClO_2$

HYDROGEN BONDING

- Nitrogen, oxygen and fluorine are the highly electronegative elements.
- When they are attached to a hydrogen atom to form covalent bond, the electrons of the covalent bond are shifted towards the more electronegative atom.
- This partially positively charged hydrogen atom forms a bond with the other more electronegative atom. This bond is known as H-bond and is weaker than the covalent bond.
- For example, in HF molecule, the H-bond exists between H-atom of one molecule and fluorine atom of another molecule as shown below–

 $---H^{\delta+} - F^{\delta-} --- H^{\delta+} - F^{\delta-} --- H^{\delta+} - F^{\delta-}$

- Hydrogen bond acts as a bridge between two atoms which holds one atom by covalent bond and other one by hydrogen bond.
- Hydrogen bond is represented by a dotted line $(- -)$ while a solid line represents the covalent bond.
- H-bond is the attractive force which binds hydrogen atom of one molecule with the electronegative atom (F, O or N) of another molecule.

Cause of formation of H-bond:

- ➢ When hydrogen is bonded to a strongly electronegative element **X**, the electron pair shared between the two atoms moves far away from hydrogen atom.
- \triangleright As a result, the hydrogen atom becomes highly electropositive with respect to the other atom X.
- \triangleright There is displacement of electrons towards X, so the hydrogen acquires fractional positive charge (δ^*) while X attains fractional negative charge (δ^{\cdot}) .
- \triangleright This results in the formation of a polar molecule having electrostatic force of attraction which can be represented as follows:

$$
H^{5+}-X^{5-}--H^{5+}-X^{5-}--H^{5+}-X^{5-}\\
$$

Types of H-bonds

1. Intermolecular H-bond

It is formed between two different molecules of the same or different compounds. For example, H-bonding in the case of HF molecule, alcohol or water molecules.

Intermolecular H-bond in acetic acid

2. Intramolecular H-bond

 \triangleright It is formed when hydrogen atom is in between the two highly electronegative (F, O, N) atoms present within the same molecule. For example, in o-nitrophenol the hydrogen is in between the two oxygen atoms.

Intramolecular hydrogen bonding in
o-nitrophenol molecule

