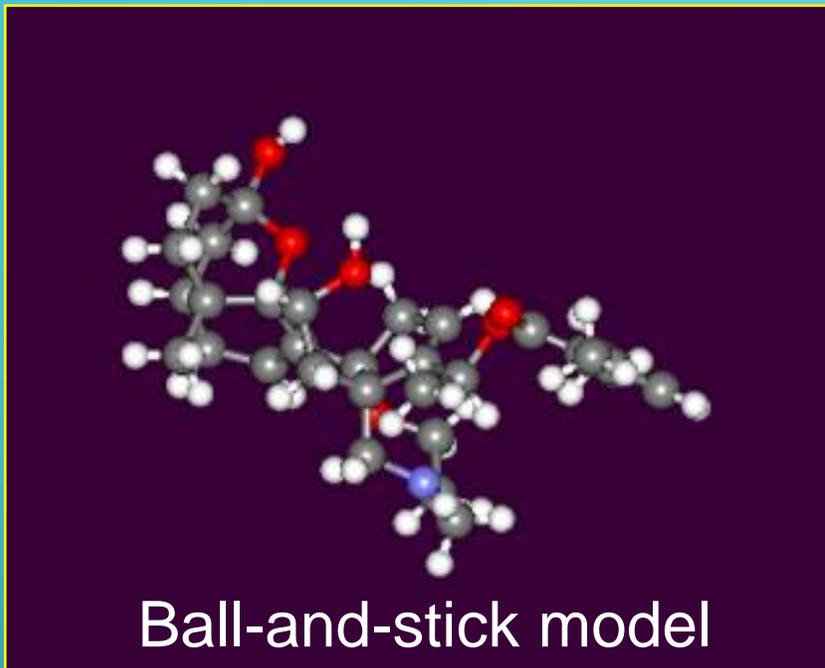


A decorative graphic on the left side of the slide, consisting of a network of white lines and circles that resemble a circuit board or a molecular structure. The lines are vertical and horizontal, with some diagonal connections, and the circles are placed at various points along these lines.

CHEMICAL BONDING

MOLECULAR BONDING



CHAPTER 8 COVALENT BONDING

SECTION 8.1

MOLECULAR COMPOUNDS

- OBJECTIVES:
 - Distinguish between the melting points and boiling points of *molecular* compounds and *ionic* compounds.
 - Describe the information provided by a *molecular formula*.

BONDS ARE...

- ✓ Forces that hold groups of atoms together and make them function as a unit. Two types:

1) **Ionic bonds** – *transfer of electrons* (gained or lost; makes **formula unit**)

2) **Covalent bonds** – *sharing of electrons*. The resulting particle is called a **“molecule”**

COVALENT BONDS

- The word covalent is a combination of the prefix co- (from Latin *com*, meaning “with” or “together”), and the verb valere, meaning “to be strong”.
- Two electrons shared together have the strength to hold two atoms together in a bond.

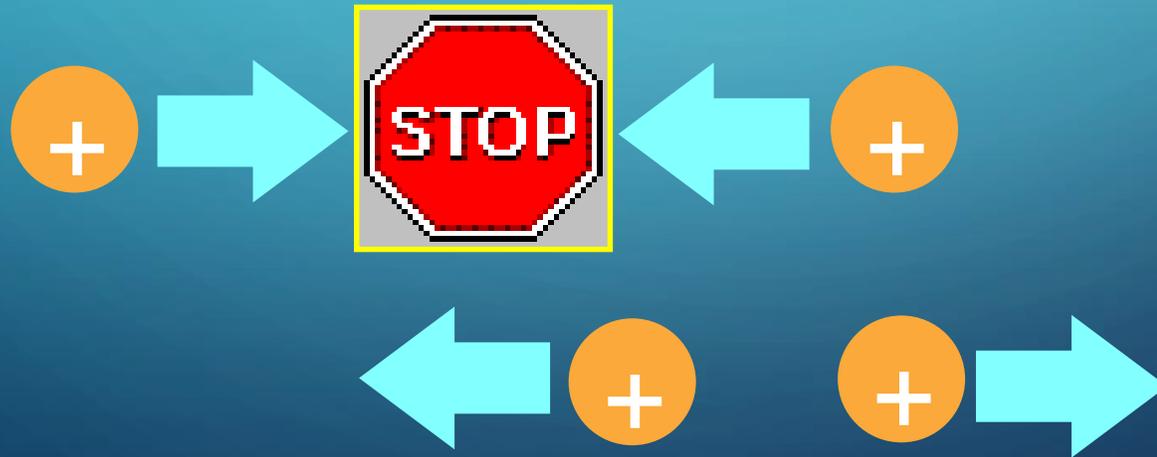
MOLECULES

- Many elements found in nature are in the form of molecules:
 - a **neutral group of atoms** joined together by covalent bonds.
- For example, air contains oxygen molecules, consisting of two oxygen atoms joined covalently
- Called a “**diatomic molecule**” (O_2)

HOW DOES H₂ FORM?

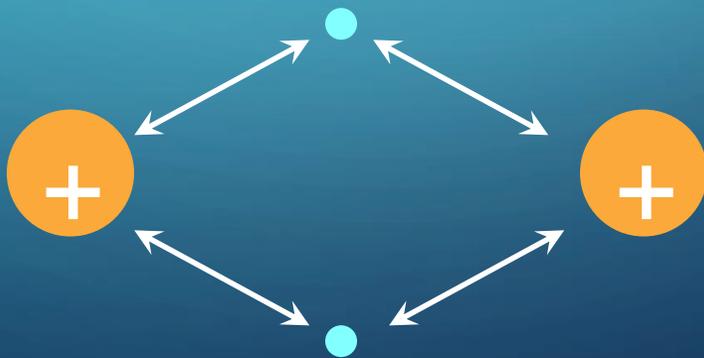
(diatomic hydrogen molecule)

- The nuclei repel each other, since they both have a positive charge (like charges repel).



HOW DOES H₂ FORM?

- But, the nuclei are attracted to the electrons
- They share the electrons, and this is called a “covalent bond”, and involves only NONMETALS!



CHAPTER 8.1 PRACTICE QUESTIONS

- Page 216 #s 1 & 2

SECTION 8.2

THE NATURE OF COVALENT BONDING

- Describe the different types of covalent bonds
- Explain how co-ordinate covalent bonds are produced
- Explain the role of bond dissociation energy in the properties of a molecule.
- Describe and represent resonance structures.

COVALENT BONDS

- **Nonmetals** hold on to their valence electrons.
- They can't give away electrons to bond.
 - But still want noble gas configuration.
- Get it by sharing valence electrons with each other = covalent bonding
- By sharing, **both atoms** get to count the electrons toward a noble gas configuration.

COVALENT BONDING

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons (but would like to have 8)



COVALENT BONDING

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven



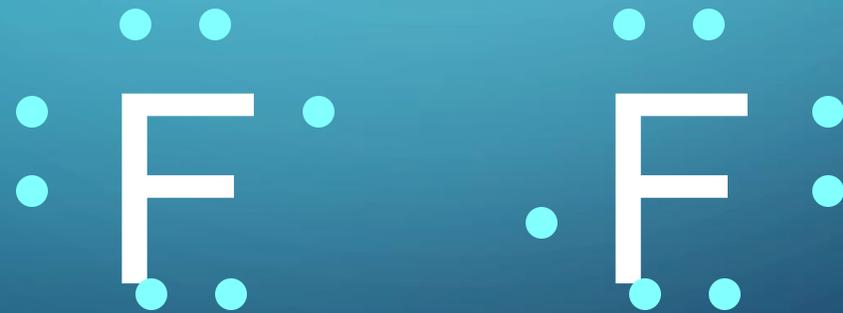
Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
- By sharing electrons...



Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
- By sharing electrons...



Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
- By sharing electrons...



Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
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Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
- By sharing electrons...



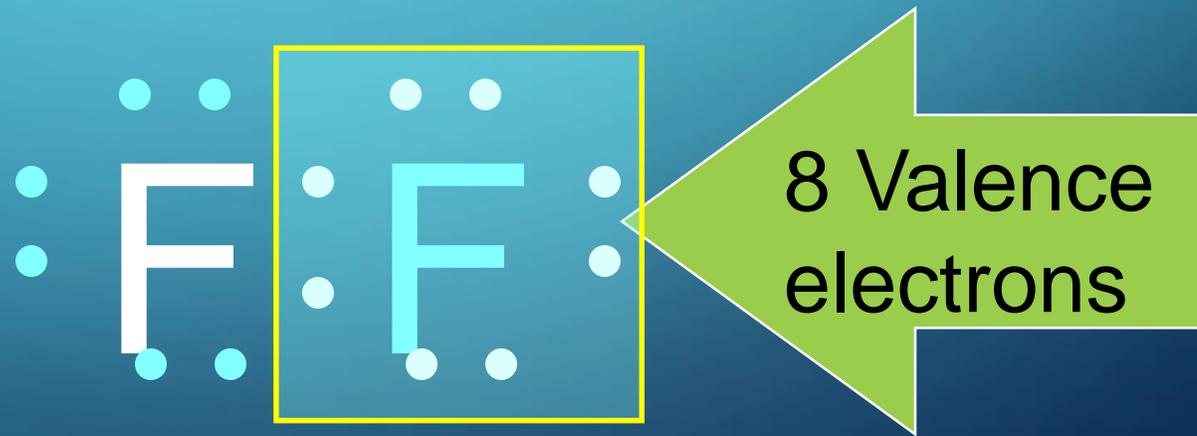
Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
- By sharing electrons...
- **...both end with full orbitals**



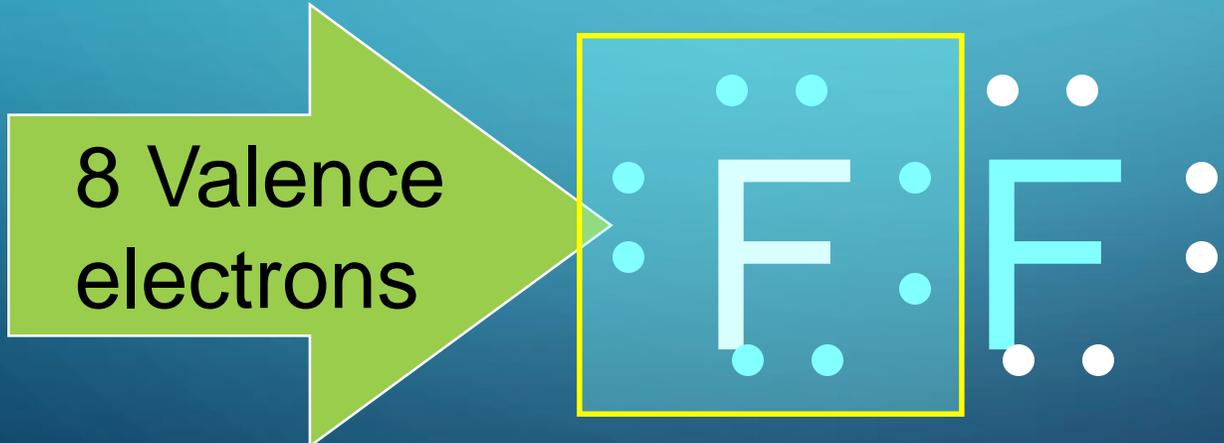
Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
- By sharing electrons...
- ...both end with full orbitals



Covalent bonding

- Fluorine has seven valence electrons
- A second atom also has seven
- By sharing electrons...
- ...both end with full orbitals

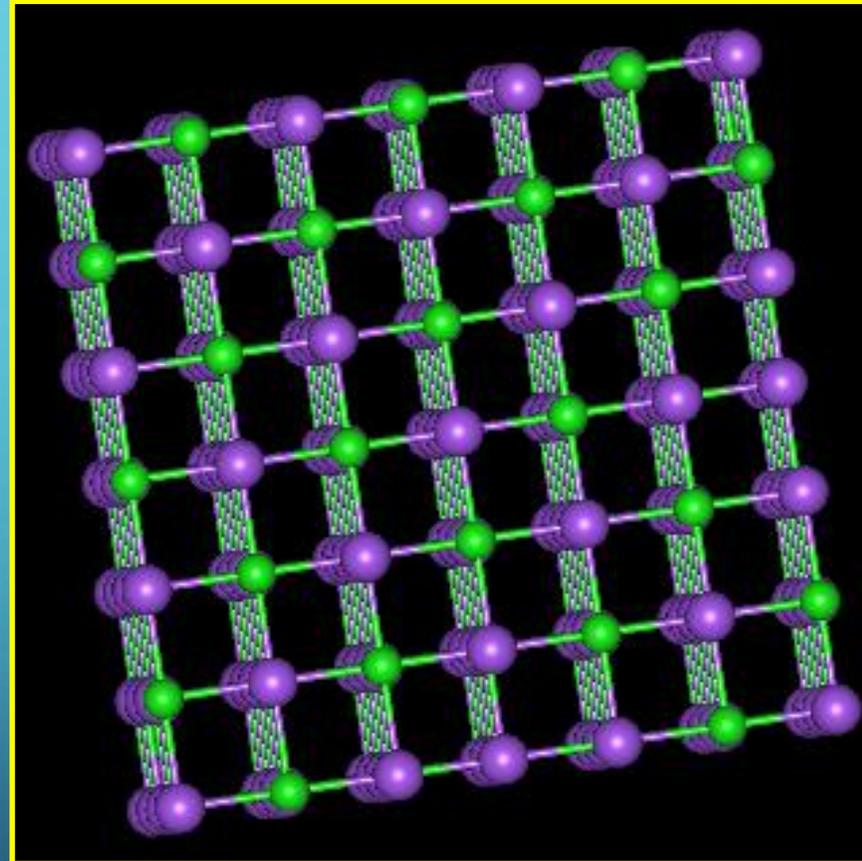


A SINGLE COVALENT BOND IS...

- A sharing of two valence electrons.
- Only **nonmetals** and **hydrogen**.
- Different from an ionic bond because they actually form molecules.
- Two specific atoms are joined.
- In an ionic solid, you can't tell which atom the electrons moved from or to

SODIUM CHLORIDE CRYSTAL LATTICE

• Ionic compounds organize in a characteristic *crystal lattice* of alternating positive and negative ions, repeated over and over.



WATER



✓ Each hydrogen has 1 valence electron

- Each hydrogen wants 1 more

✓ The oxygen has 6 valence electrons

- The oxygen wants 2 more

✓ They share to make each other complete



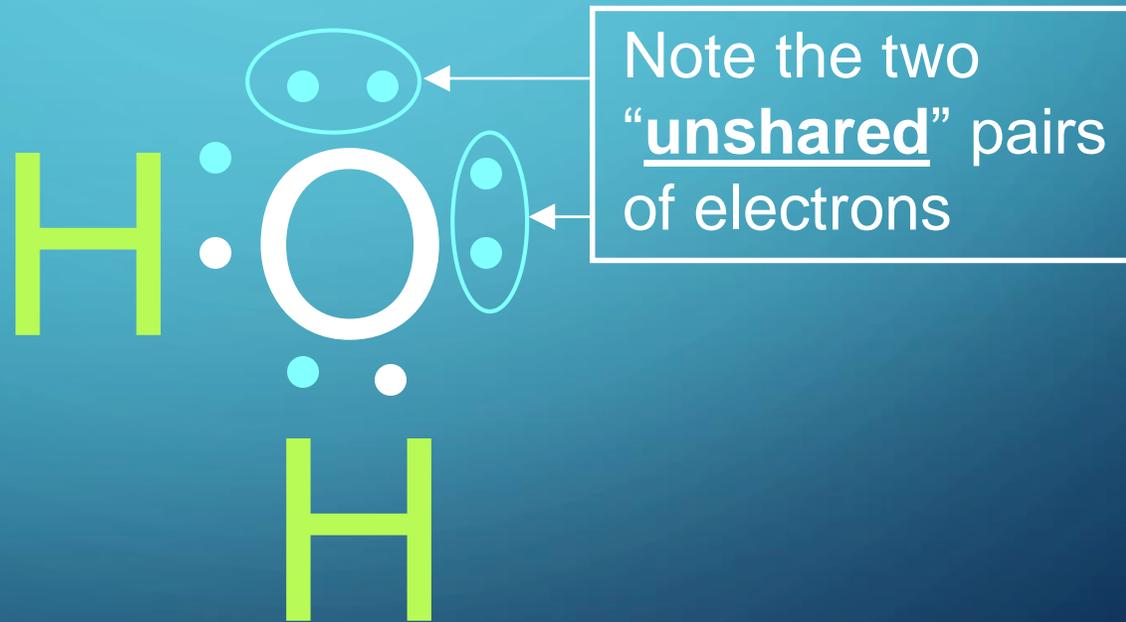
WATER

- Put the pieces together
- The first hydrogen is happy
- The oxygen still needs one more



WATER

- So, a second hydrogen attaches
- Every atom has full energy levels



Examples:

1. Conceptual Problem 8.1 on page 220

2. Do PCl_3

MULTIPLE BONDS

- Sometimes atoms share more than one pair of valence electrons.
- A **double bond** is when atoms share *two pairs* of electrons (4 total)
- A **triple bond** is when atoms share *three pairs* of electrons (6 total)
- Table 8.1, p.222 - *Know these 7 elements*

as **diatomic**:



What's the deal with the oxygen dot diagram?

CARBON DIOXIDE

- Attaching 1 oxygen leaves the oxygen 1 short, and the carbon 3 short



Carbon dioxide

- Attaching the second oxygen leaves both of the oxygen 1 short, and the carbon 2 short



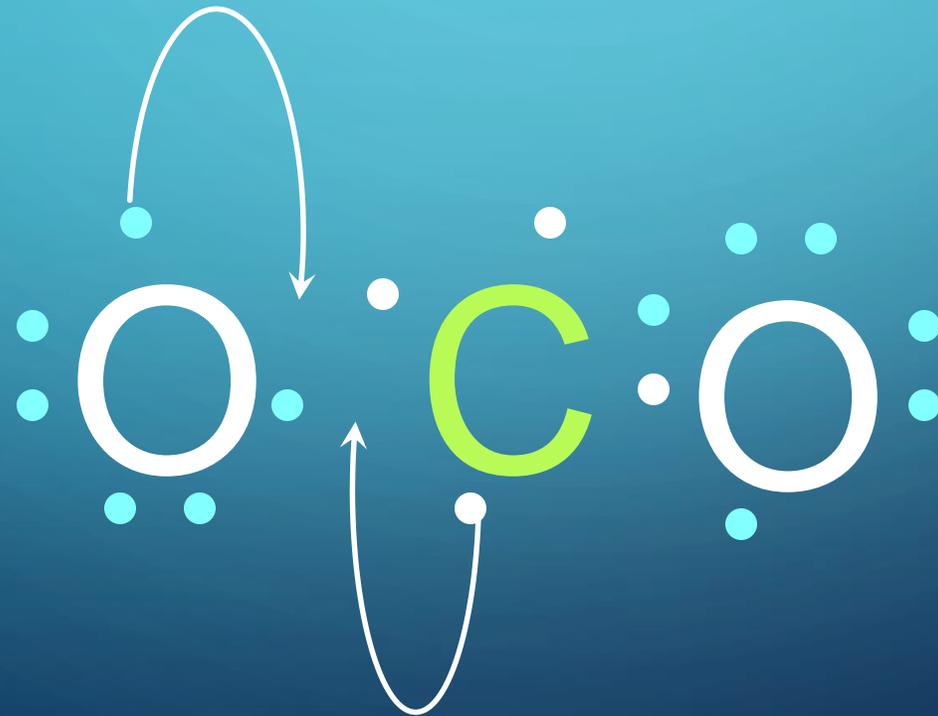
Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more



Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more



Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more



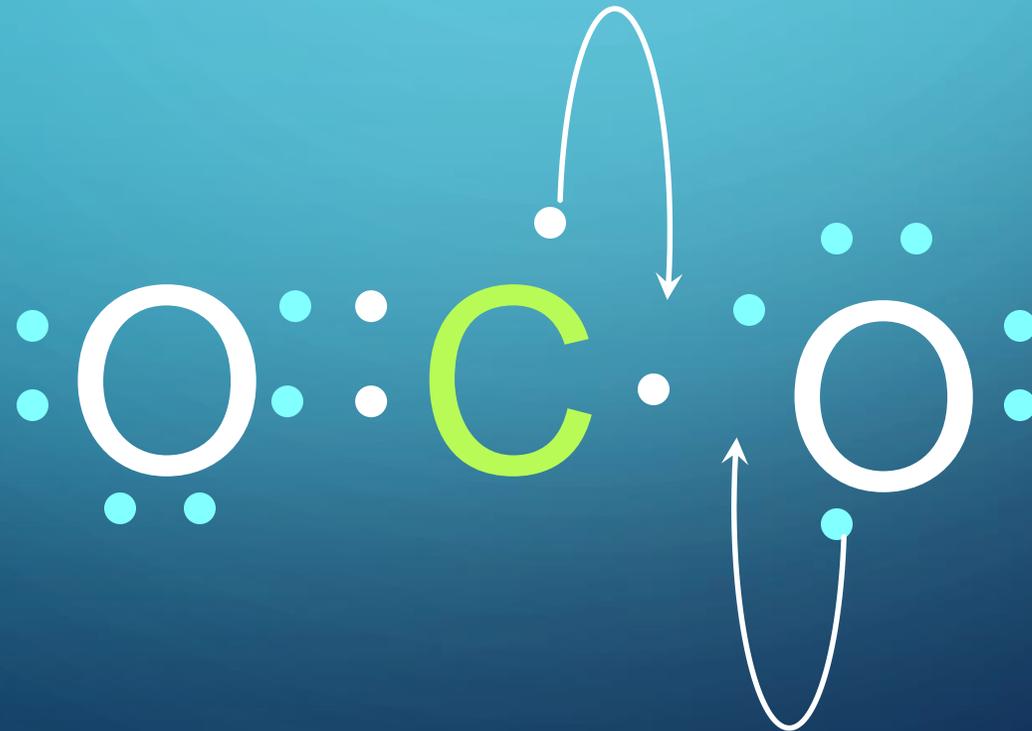
Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more



Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more



Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more



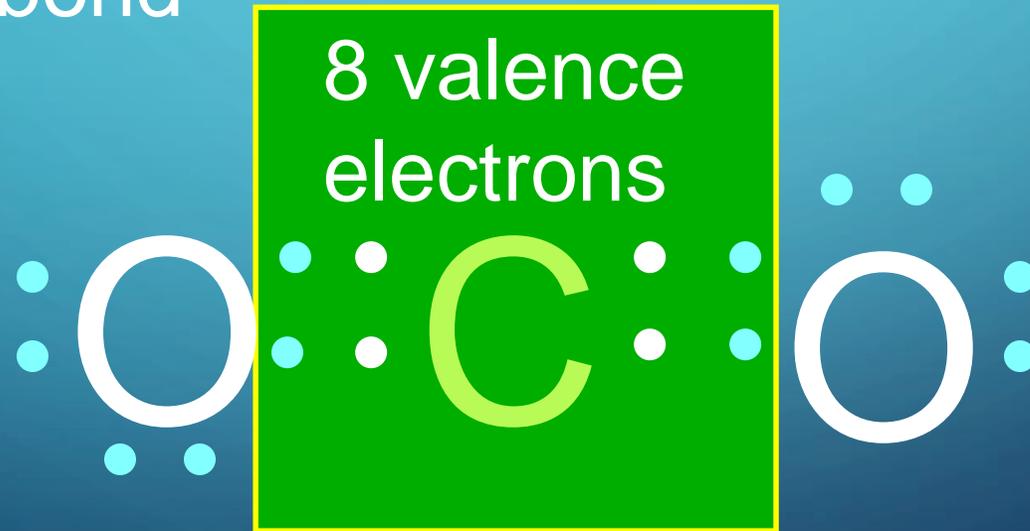
Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more
- Requires two double bonds
- Each atom can count all the electrons in the bond



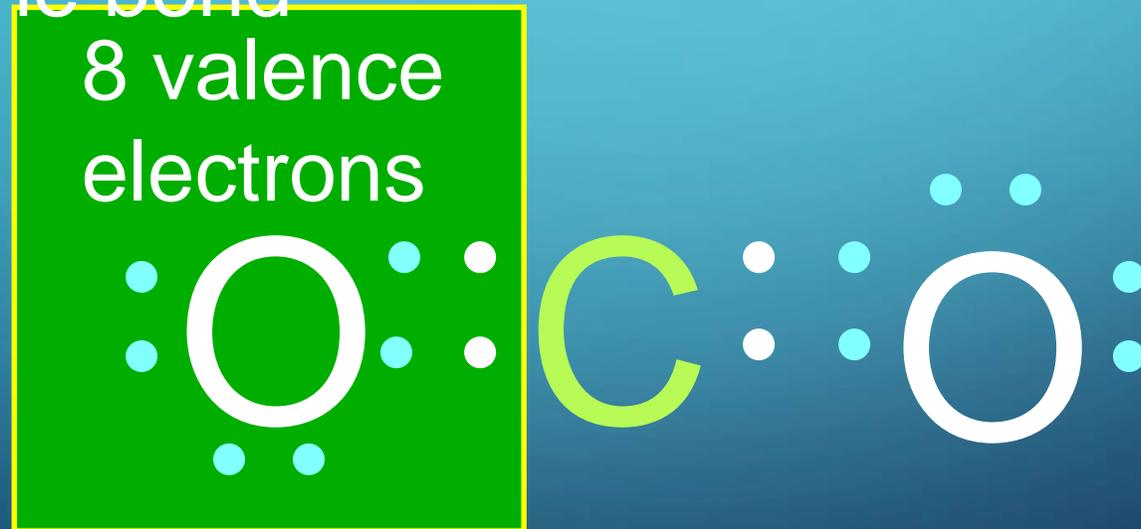
Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more
- Requires two double bonds
- Each atom can count all the electrons in the bond



Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more
- Requires two double bonds
- Each atom can count all the electrons in the bond



Carbon dioxide

- The only solution is to share more
- Requires two double bonds
- Each atom can count all the electrons in the bond



HOW TO DRAW THEM?

- 1) Add up all the valence electrons.
- 2) Count up the total number of electrons to make all atoms happy.
- 3) Subtract; then Divide by 2
- 4) Tells you how many bonds to draw
- 5) Fill in the rest of the valence electrons to fill atoms up.

EXAMPLE



- NH_3 , which is ammonia
- N – central atom; has 5 valence electrons, wants 8
- H - has 1 (x3) valence electrons, wants 2 (x3)
- NH_3 has $5+3 = 8$
- NH_3 wants $8+6 = 14$
- $(14-8)/2 = 3$ bonds
- 4 atoms with 3 bonds

EXAMPLES

- Draw in the bonds; start with singles
- All 8 electrons are accounted for
- Everything is full – done with this one.



EXAMPLE: HCN

- HCN: C is central atom
- N - has 5 valence electrons, wants 8
- C - has 4 valence electrons, wants 8
- H - has 1 valence electron, wants 2
- HCN has $5+4+1 = 10$
- HCN wants $8+8+2 = 18$
- $(18-10)/2 = 4$ bonds
- 3 atoms with 4 bonds – this will require multiple bonds - not to H however

HCN

- Put single bond between each atom
- Need to add 2 more bonds
- Must go between C and N (Hydrogen is full)



HCN

- Put in single bonds
- Needs 2 more bonds
- Must go between C and N, not the H
- Uses 8 electrons – need 2 more to equal the 10 it has



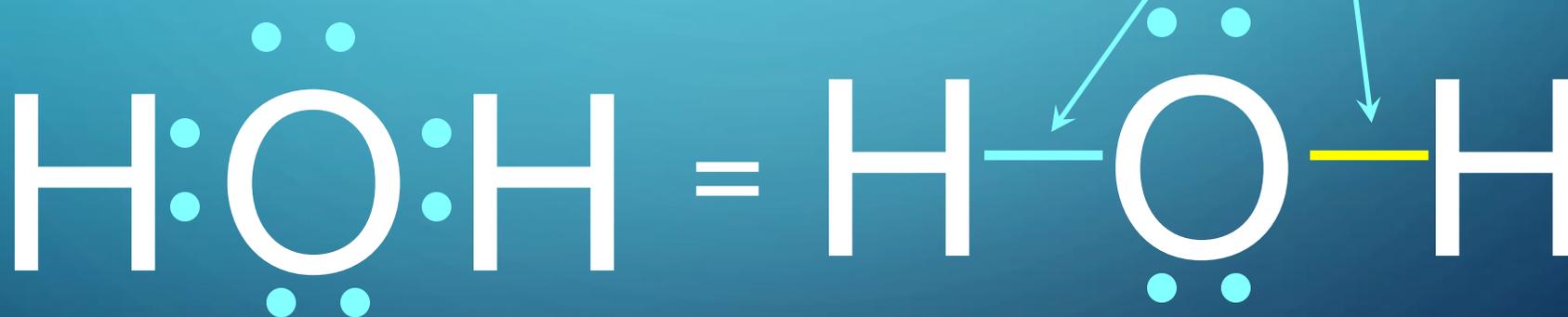
HCN

- Put in single bonds
- Need 2 more bonds
- Must go between C and N
- Uses 8 electrons - 2 more to add
- Must go on the N to fill its octet

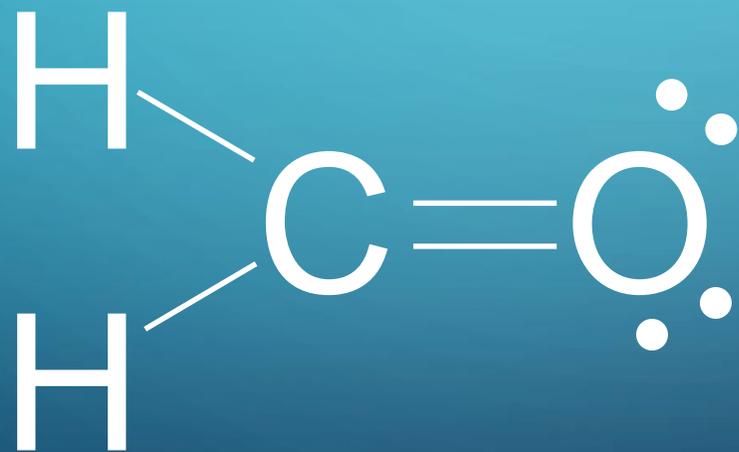


ANOTHER WAY OF INDICATING BONDS

- Often use a line to indicate a bond
- Called a structural formula
- Each line is 2 valence electrons



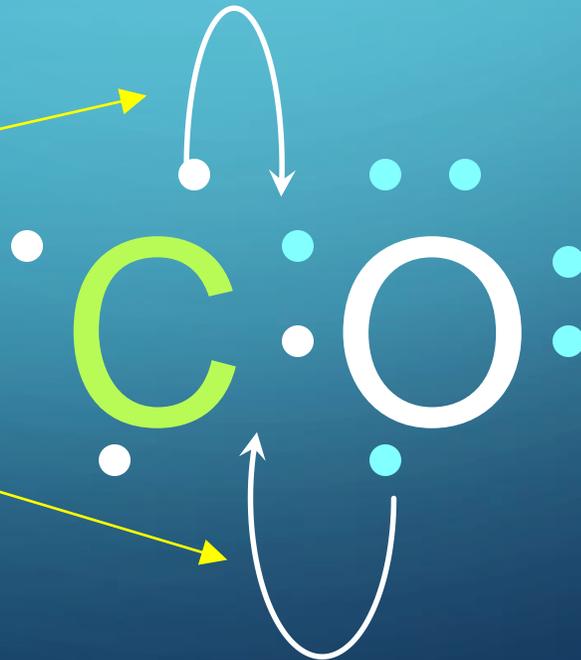
OTHER STRUCTURAL EXAMPLES



A COORDINATE COVALENT BOND...

- When *one atom donates both* electrons in a covalent bond.
- Carbon monoxide (CO) is a good example:

Both the carbon and oxygen give another single electron to share



Coordinate Covalent Bond

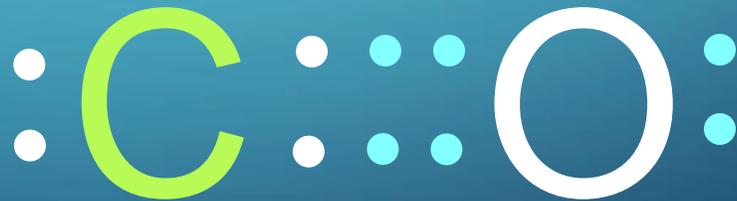
- When one atom donates both electrons in a covalent bond.
- Carbon monoxide (CO) is a good example:



Coordinate Covalent Bond

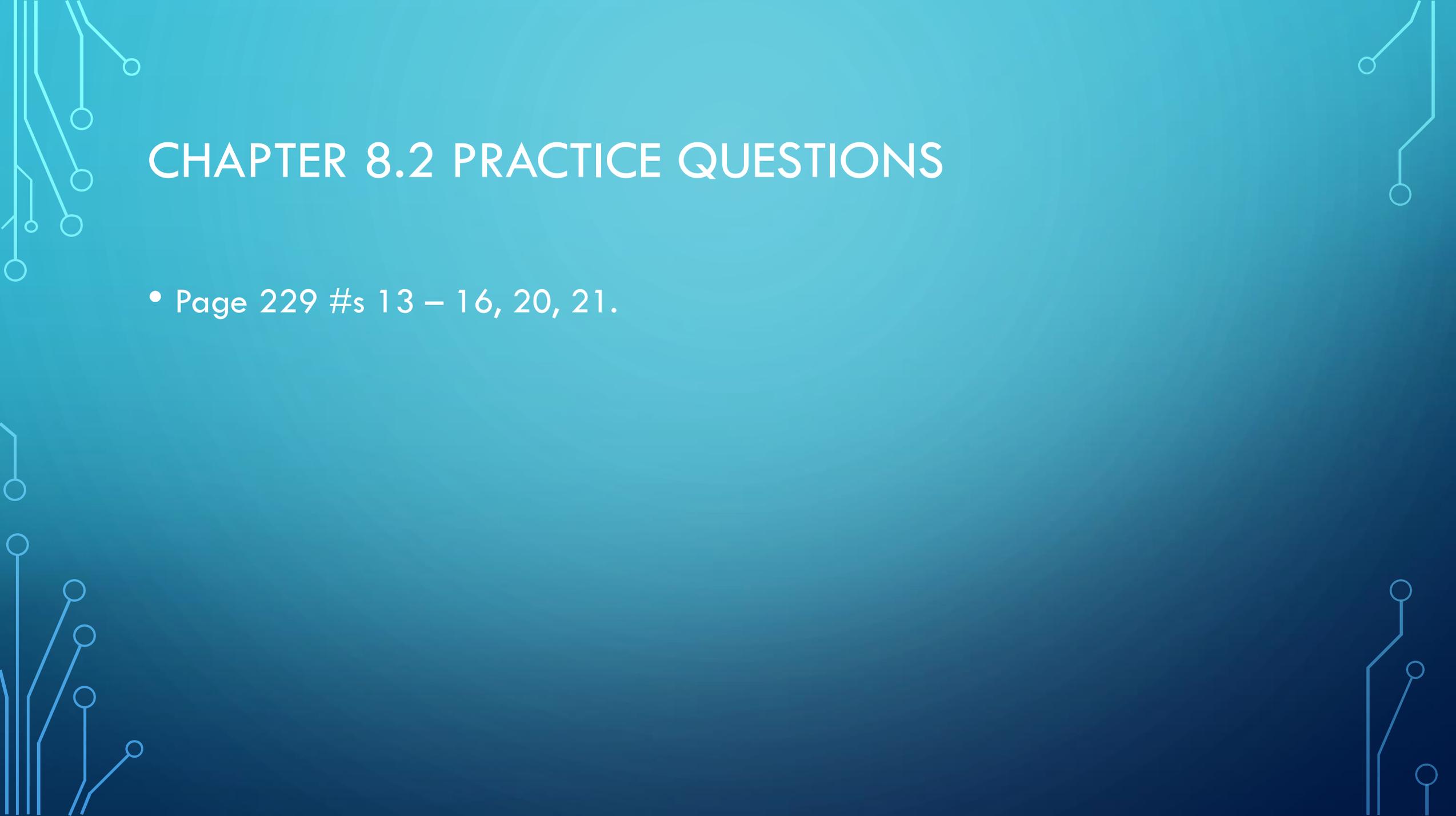
- When one atom donates both electrons in a covalent bond.
- Carbon monoxide (CO)

The coordinate covalent bond is shown with an arrow as:



COORDINATE COVALENT BOND

- Most *polyatomic cations and anions* contain covalent and coordinate covalent bonds
- Table 8.2, p.224
- Conceptual Problem 8.2, p.225
- The ammonium ion (NH_4^{1+}) can be shown as another example

The background is a dark teal gradient. In the corners, there are decorative white line-art elements resembling circuit traces or a network diagram, with small circles at the end of the lines.

CHAPTER 8.2 PRACTICE QUESTIONS

- Page 229 #s 13 – 16, 20, 21.

SECTION 8.3

BONDING THEORIES

- OBJECTIVES:
 - Describe the relationship between atomic and molecular orbitals.
 - Describe how VSEPR theory helps predict the shapes of molecules.

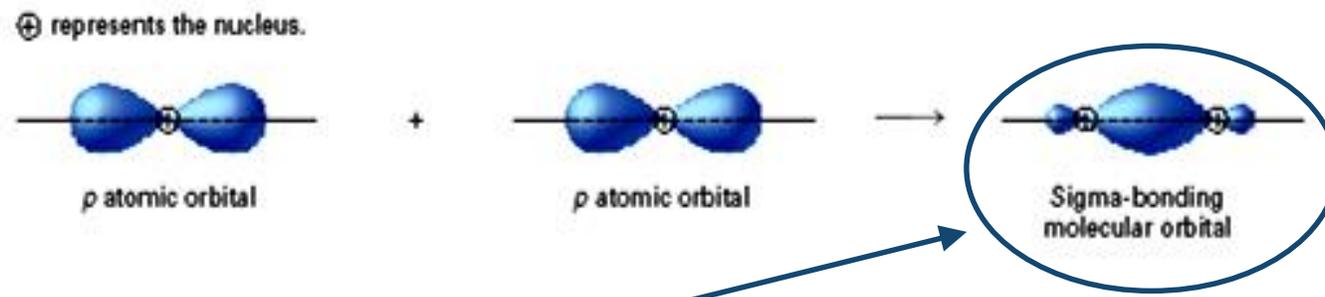
MOLECULAR ORBITALS ARE...

- The model for covalent bonding assumes the orbitals are those of the individual atoms = atomic orbital
- Orbitals that apply to the overall molecule, due to atomic orbital overlap are the molecular orbitals
 - A bonding orbital is a molecular orbital that can be occupied by two electrons of a covalent bond

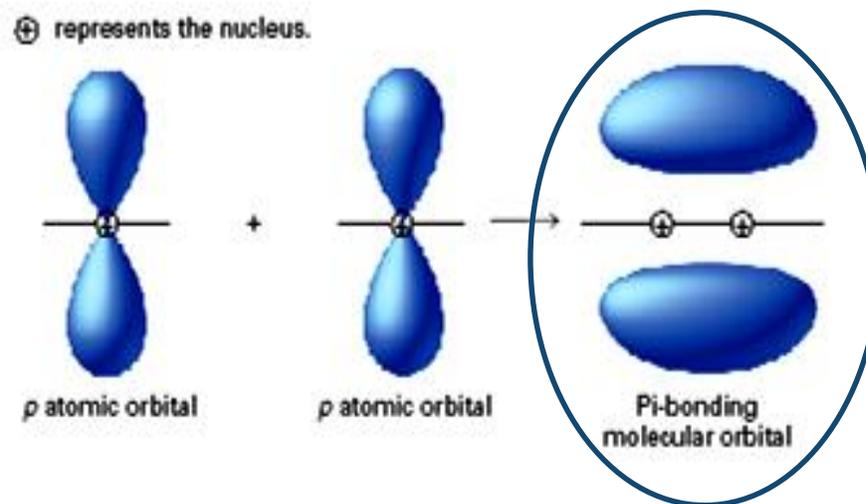
MOLECULAR ORBITALS - DEFINITIONS

- Sigma bond- when two atomic orbitals combine to form the molecular orbital that is *symmetrical along the axis* connecting the nuclei
- Pi bond- the bonding electrons are likely to be found *above and below* the bond axis (weaker than sigma)
- Note pictures on the next slide

- Pages 230 and 231



Sigma bond is symmetrical along the axis between the two nuclei.



Pi bond is above and below the bond axis, and is weaker than sigma

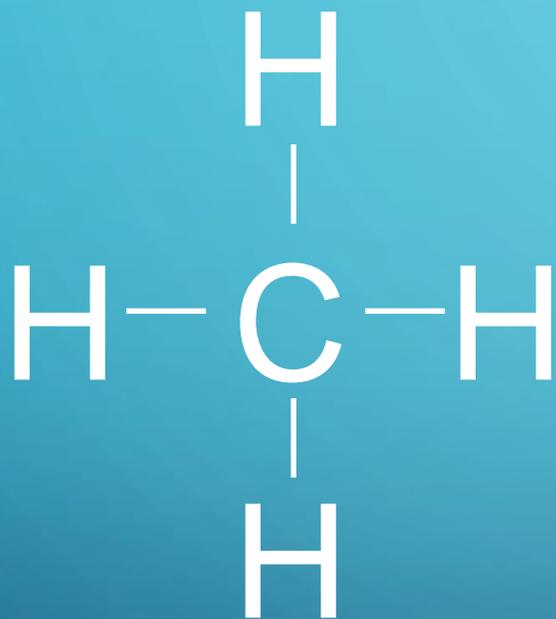
VSEPR: STANDS FOR...

- Valence Shell Electron Pair Repulsion
- Predicts the three dimensional shape of molecules.
- The name tells you the theory:
 - Valence shell = outside electrons.
 - Electron Pair repulsion = electron pairs try to get as far away as possible from each other.
- Can determine the angles of bonds.

VSEPR

- Based on the number of pairs of valence electrons, both *bonded* and *unbonded*.
- Unbonded pair also called lone pair.
- CH_4 - draw the structural formula
- Has $4 + 4(1) = 8$
- wants $8 + 4(2) = 16$
- $(16 - 8) / 2 = 4$ bonds

VSEPR FOR METHANE (A GAS):

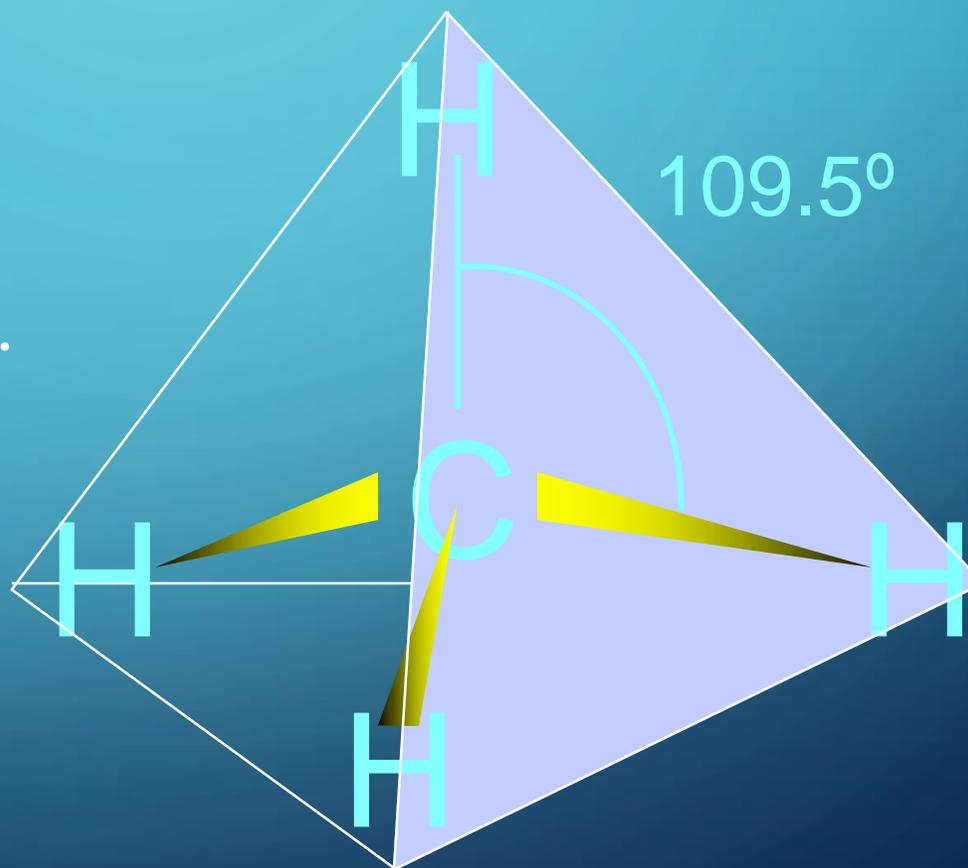


This 2-dimensional drawing does not show a true representation of the chemical arrangement.

- Single bonds fill all atoms.
- There are 4 pairs of electrons pushing away.
- The furthest they can get away is **109.5°**

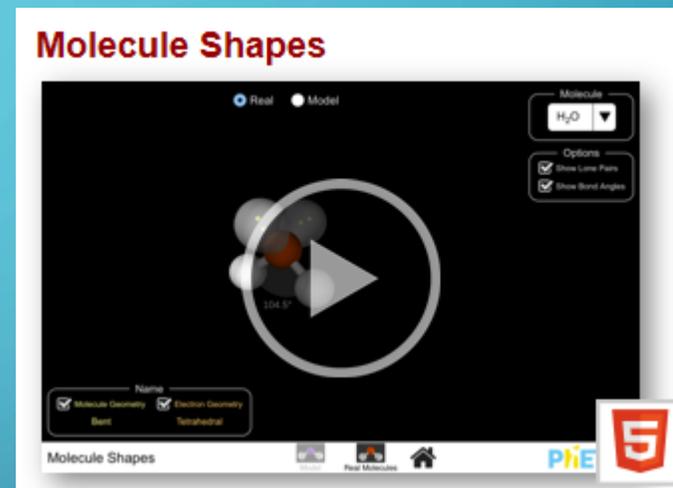
4 ATOMS BONDED

- Basic shape is *tetrahedral*.
- A pyramid with a triangular base.
- Same shape for everything with 4 pairs.



OTHER ANGLES, PAGES 232 - 233

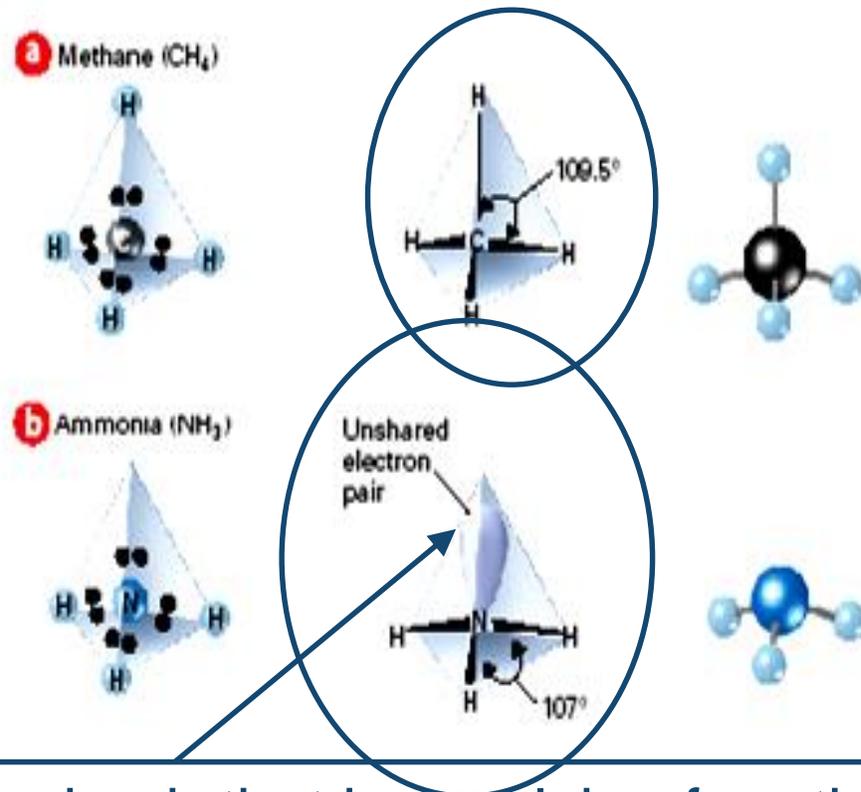
- Ammonia (NH_3) = **107°**
- Water (H_2O) = **105°**
- Carbon dioxide (CO_2) = **180°**



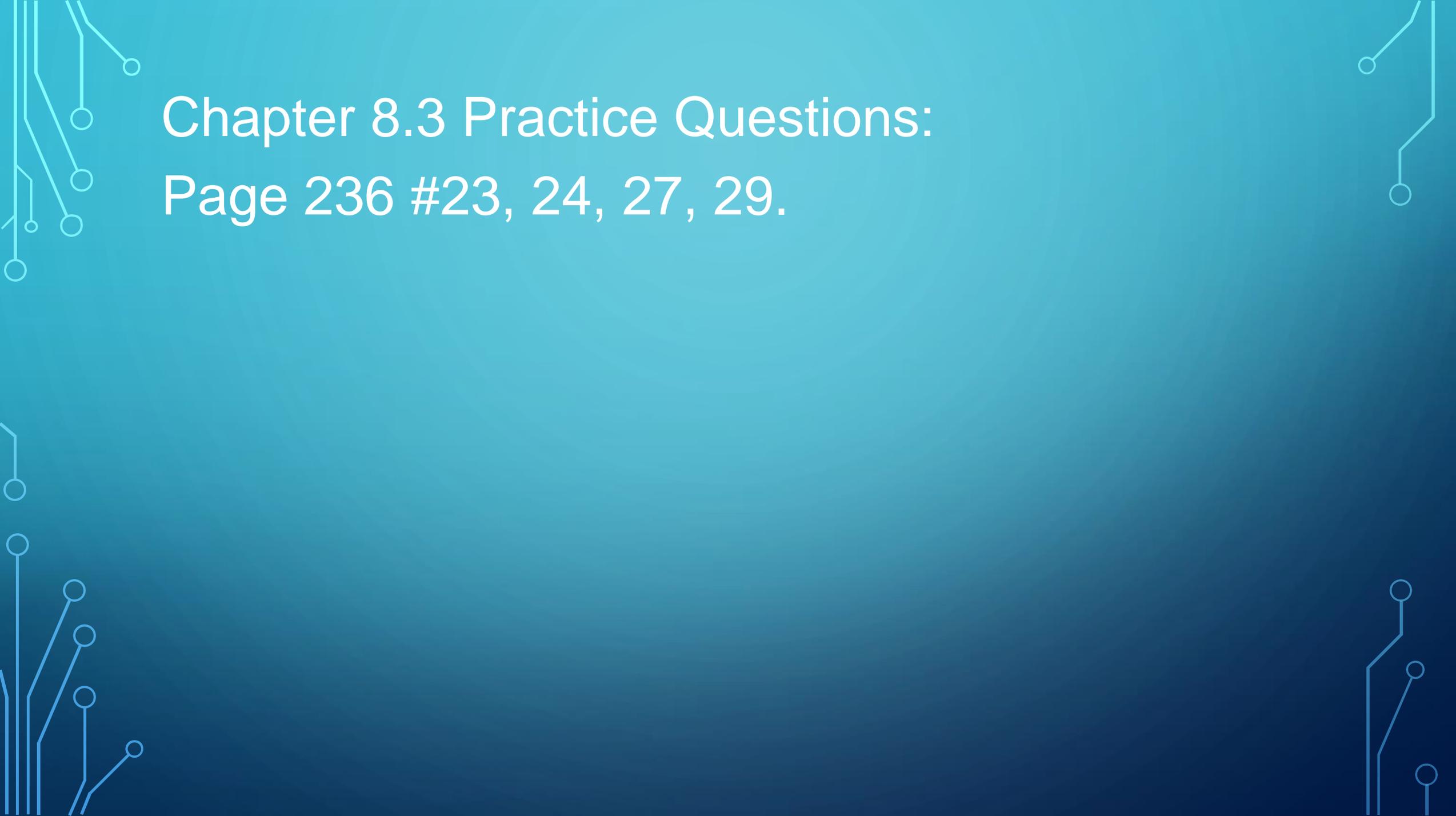
- Note the shapes of these that are pictured on the next slide

Methane has an angle of 109.5° , called **tetrahedral**

Ammonia has an angle of 107° , called **pyramidal**



Note the unshared pair that is repulsion for other electrons.

The background is a dark teal gradient. In the corners, there are decorative white line-art patterns resembling circuit traces or a stylized tree structure. The top-left and bottom-left corners have more complex, branching patterns, while the top-right and bottom-right corners have simpler, more linear patterns.

Chapter 8.3 Practice Questions:

Page 236 #23, 24, 27, 29.

SECTION 8.4

POLAR BONDS AND MOLECULES

• OBJECTIVES:

- Describe how **electronegativity** values determine the distribution of charge in a polar molecule.
- Describe what happens to **polar** molecules when they are placed between oppositely charged metal plates.
- Evaluate the strength of *intermolecular attractions* compared with the strength of ionic and covalent bonds.
- Identify the reason why *network solids* have high melting points.

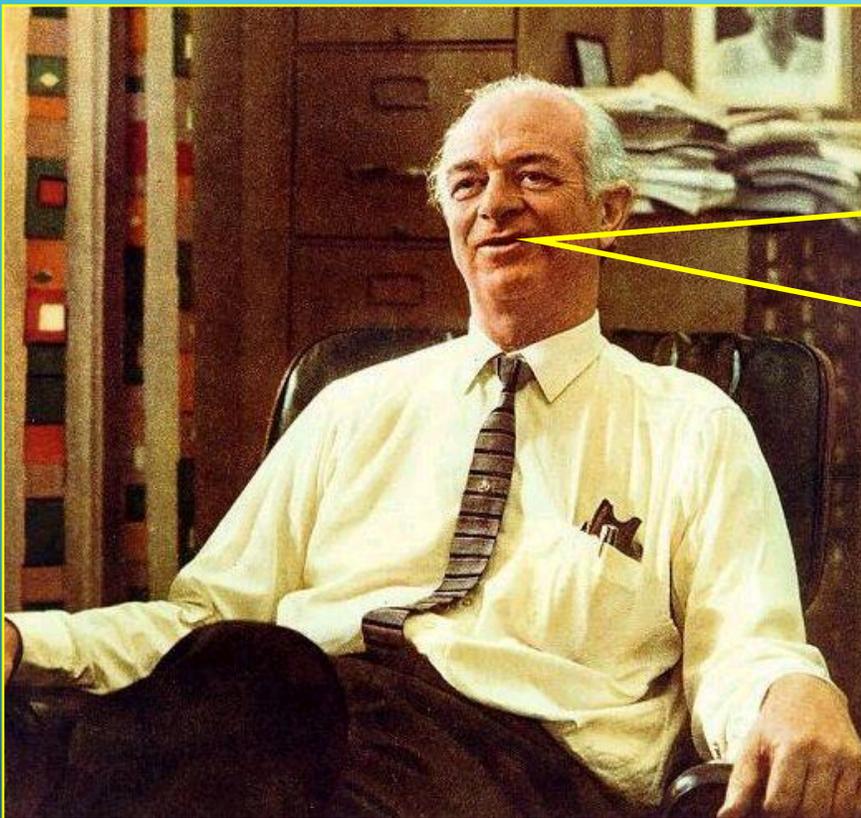
BOND POLARITY

- Covalent bonding means shared electrons
 - but, do they share *equally*?
- Electrons are pulled, as in a tug-of-war, between the atoms nuclei
 - In **equal** sharing (such as diatomic molecules), the bond that results is called a nonpolar covalent bond

BOND POLARITY

- When two different atoms bond covalently, there is an unequal sharing
 - the **more electronegative atom** will have a stronger attraction, and will acquire a slightly negative charge
 - called a polar covalent bond, or simply **polar bond.**

ELECTRONEGATIVITY?



The ability of an atom in a molecule to attract shared electrons to itself.

Linus Pauling
1901 - 1994

TABLE OF ELECTRONEGATIVITIES

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
H 2.1																
Li 1.0	Be 1.5											B 2.0	C 2.5	N 3.0	O 3.5	F 4.0
Na 0.9	Mg 1.2											Al 1.5	Si 1.8	P 2.1	S 2.5	Cl 3.0
K 0.8	Ca 1.0	Sc 1.3	Ti 1.5	V 1.6	Cr 1.6	Mn 1.5	Fe 1.8	Cobalt 1.8	Ni 1.8	Cu 1.9	Zn 1.6	Ga 1.6	Ge 1.8	As 2.0	Se 2.4	Br 2.8
Rb 0.8	Sr 1.0	Y 1.2	Zr 1.4	Nb 1.5	Mo 1.8	Tc 1.9	Ru 2.2	Rh 2.2	Pd 2.2	Ag 1.9	Cd 1.7	In 1.7	Sn 1.8	Sb 1.9	Te 2.1	I 2.5
Cs 0.8	Ba 0.9	La* 1.1	Hf 1.3	Ta 1.5	W 2.4	Re 1.9	Os 2.2	Ir 2.2	Pt 2.2	Au 2.4	Hg 1.9	Tl 1.8	Pb 1.8	Bi 1.9	Po 2.0	At 2.2
Fr 0.7	Ra 0.9	Ac† 1.1	* Lanthanides: 1.1–1.3 † Actinides: 1.3–1.5													

Higher electronegativity

BOND POLARITY

- Refer to Table 6.2, p. 177.
- Consider HCl

H = electronegativity of 2.1

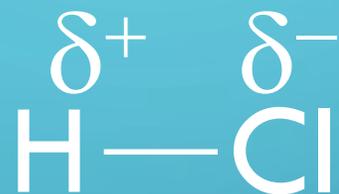
Cl = electronegativity of 3.0

- the bond is polar
- the chlorine acquires a slight negative charge, and the hydrogen a slight positive charge

BOND POLARITY

- *Only partial charges*, much less than a true 1+ or 1- as in ionic bond

- Written as:



- the positive and minus signs (with the lower case delta: δ^+ and δ^-) denote partial charges.

BOND POLARITY

- Can also be shown:



- the arrow points to the more electronegative atom.
- ✓ Table 8.3, p.238 shows how the electronegativity can also indicate the type of bond that tends to form

Periodic Table of Electronegativities

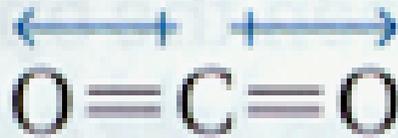
<u>H</u> 2.1																	<u>He</u>
<u>Li</u> 1.0	<u>Be</u> 1.5											<u>B</u> 2.0	<u>C</u> 2.5	<u>N</u> 3.0	<u>O</u> 3.5	<u>F</u> 4.0	<u>Ne</u>
<u>Na</u> 0.9	<u>Mg</u> 1.2											<u>Al</u> 1.5	<u>Si</u> 1.8	<u>P</u> 2.1	<u>S</u> 2.5	<u>Cl</u> 3.0	<u>Ar</u>
<u>K</u> 0.8	<u>Ca</u> 1.0	<u>Sc</u> 1.3	<u>Ti</u> 1.5	<u>V</u> 1.6	<u>Cr</u> 1.6	<u>Mn</u> 1.5	<u>Fe</u> 1.8	<u>Co</u> 1.9	<u>Ni</u> 1.8	<u>Cu</u> 1.9	<u>Zn</u> 1.6	<u>Ga</u> 1.6	<u>Ge</u> 1.8	<u>As</u> 2.0	<u>Se</u> 2.4	<u>Br</u> 2.8	<u>Kr</u>
<u>Rb</u> 0.8	<u>Sr</u> 1.0	<u>Y</u> 1.2	<u>Zr</u> 1.4	<u>Nb</u> 1.6	<u>Mo</u> 1.8	<u>Tc</u> 1.9	<u>Ru</u> 2.2	<u>Rh</u> 2.2	<u>Pd</u> 2.2	<u>Ag</u> 1.9	<u>Cd</u> 1.7	<u>In</u> 1.7	<u>Sn</u> 1.8	<u>Sb</u> 1.9	<u>Te</u> 2.1	<u>I</u> 2.5	<u>Xe</u>
<u>Cs</u> 0.7	<u>Ba</u> 0.9	<u>Lu</u> 1.3	<u>Hf</u> 1.3	<u>Ta</u> 1.5	<u>W</u> 1.7	<u>Re</u> 1.9	<u>Os</u> 2.2	<u>Ir</u> 2.2	<u>Pt</u> 2.2	<u>Au</u> 2.4	<u>Hg</u> 1.9	<u>Tl</u> 1.8	<u>Pb</u> 1.9	<u>Bi</u> 1.9	<u>Po</u> 2.0	<u>At</u> 2.2	<u>Rn</u>
<u>Fr</u> 0.7	<u>Ra</u> 0.9	<u>Lr</u>	<u>Rf</u>	<u>Db</u>	<u>Sg</u>	<u>Bh</u>	<u>Hs</u>	<u>Mt</u>	<u>Ds</u>	<u>Uuu</u>	<u>Uub</u>	<u>Uut</u>	<u>Uuq</u>	<u>Uup</u>	<u>Uuh</u>	<u>Uus</u>	<u>Uuo</u>

POLAR MOLECULES

- Conceptual Problem 8.3, p.239
- A polar bond tends to make the **entire molecule** “polar”
 - areas of “difference”
- HCl has polar bonds, thus is a polar molecule.
 - A molecule that has two poles is called dipole, like HCl

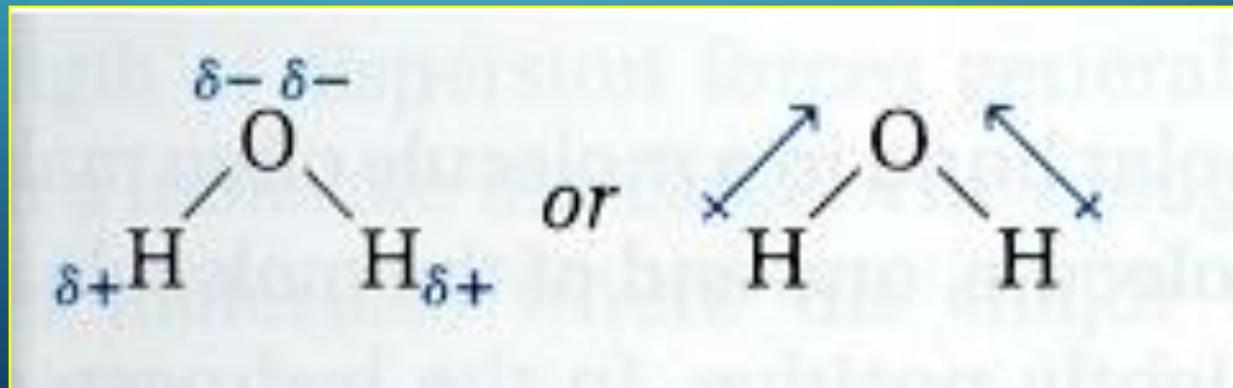
POLAR MOLECULES

- The effect of polar bonds on the polarity of the entire molecule depends on the molecule shape
- carbon dioxide has two polar bonds, and is linear = nonpolar molecule!



POLAR MOLECULES

- The effect of polar bonds on the polarity of the entire molecule depends on the molecule shape
 - water has two polar bonds and a bent shape; the highly electronegative oxygen pulls the e^- away from H = very polar!



POLAR MOLECULES

- When polar molecules are placed between oppositely charged plates, they tend to become **oriented** with respect to the positive and negative plates.
- Figure 8.24, page 239

ATTRACTIONS BETWEEN MOLECULES

- They are what make solid and liquid molecular compounds possible.
- The weakest are called **van der Waal's forces** - there are two kinds:

#1. Dispersion forces

weakest of all, caused by motion of e^-

increases as # e^- increases

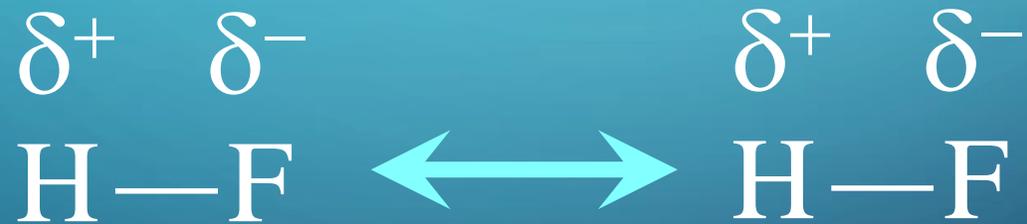
halogens start as gases; bromine is liquid; iodine is solid – all in Group 7A

#2. DIPOLE INTERACTIONS

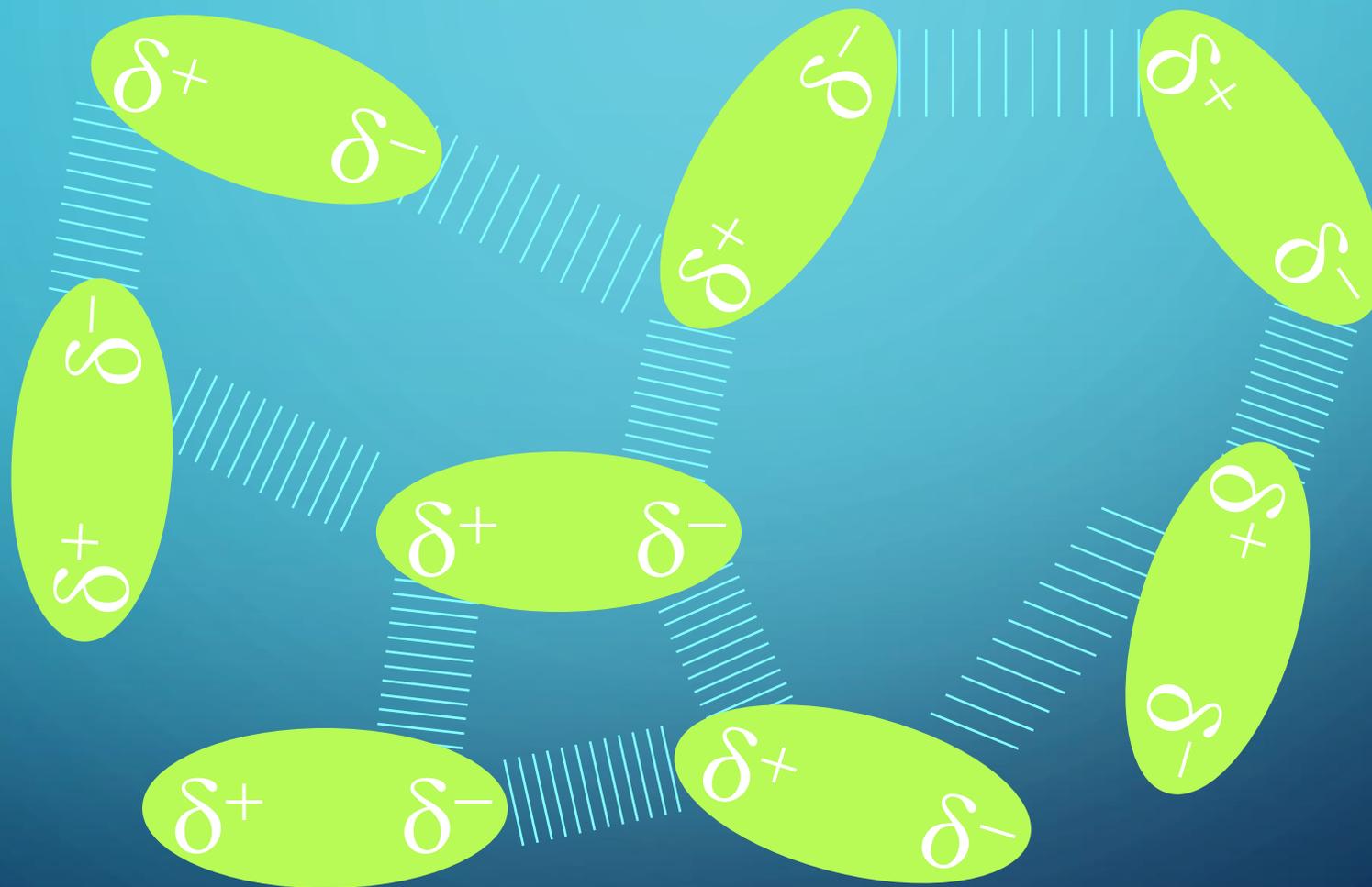
- Occurs when polar molecules are attracted to each other.
- 2. Dipole interaction happens in water
 - Figure 8.25, page 240
 - positive region of one molecule attracts the negative region of another molecule.

#2. DIPOLE INTERACTIONS

- Occur when polar molecules are attracted to each other.
- Slightly stronger than dispersion forces.
- Opposites attract, but not completely hooked like in ionic solids.



#2. DIPOLE INTERACTIONS



#3. HYDROGEN BONDING

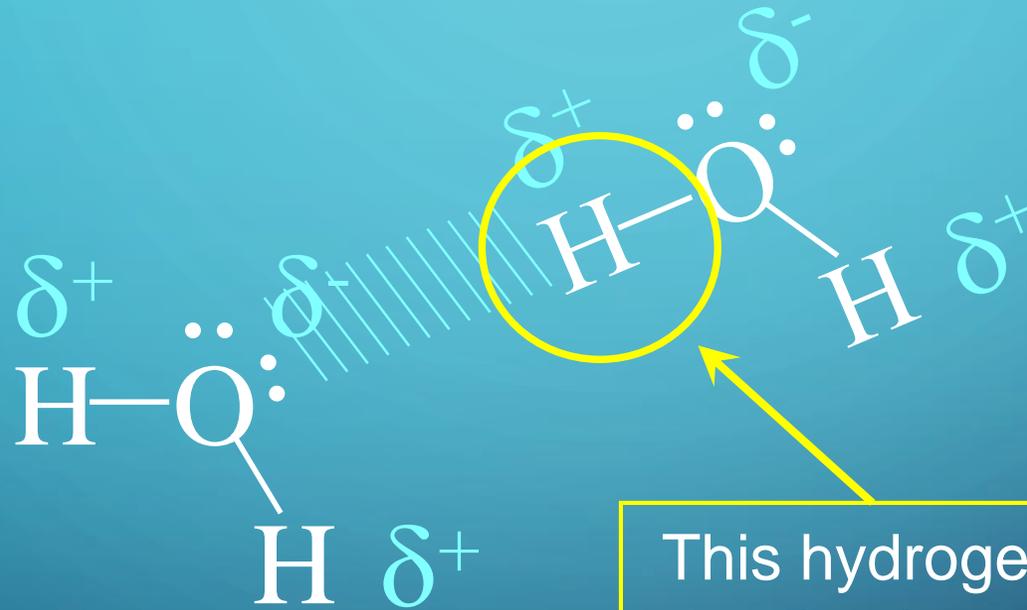
- ...is the attractive force caused by hydrogen bonded to N, O, F, or Cl
- N, O, F, and Cl are very electronegative, so this is a very strong dipole.
- And, the hydrogen shares with the lone pair in the molecule next to it.
- This is the **strongest** of the intermolecular forces.

#3. HYDROGEN BONDING DEFINED:

- When a hydrogen atom is: a) covalently bonded to a highly electronegative atom, **AND** b) is also weakly bonded to an unshared electron pair of a nearby highly electronegative atom.
 - The hydrogen is left very **electron deficient** (it only had 1 to start with!) thus it shares with something nearby
 - Hydrogen is also the **ONLY** element with **no shielding** for its nucleus when involved in a covalent bond!

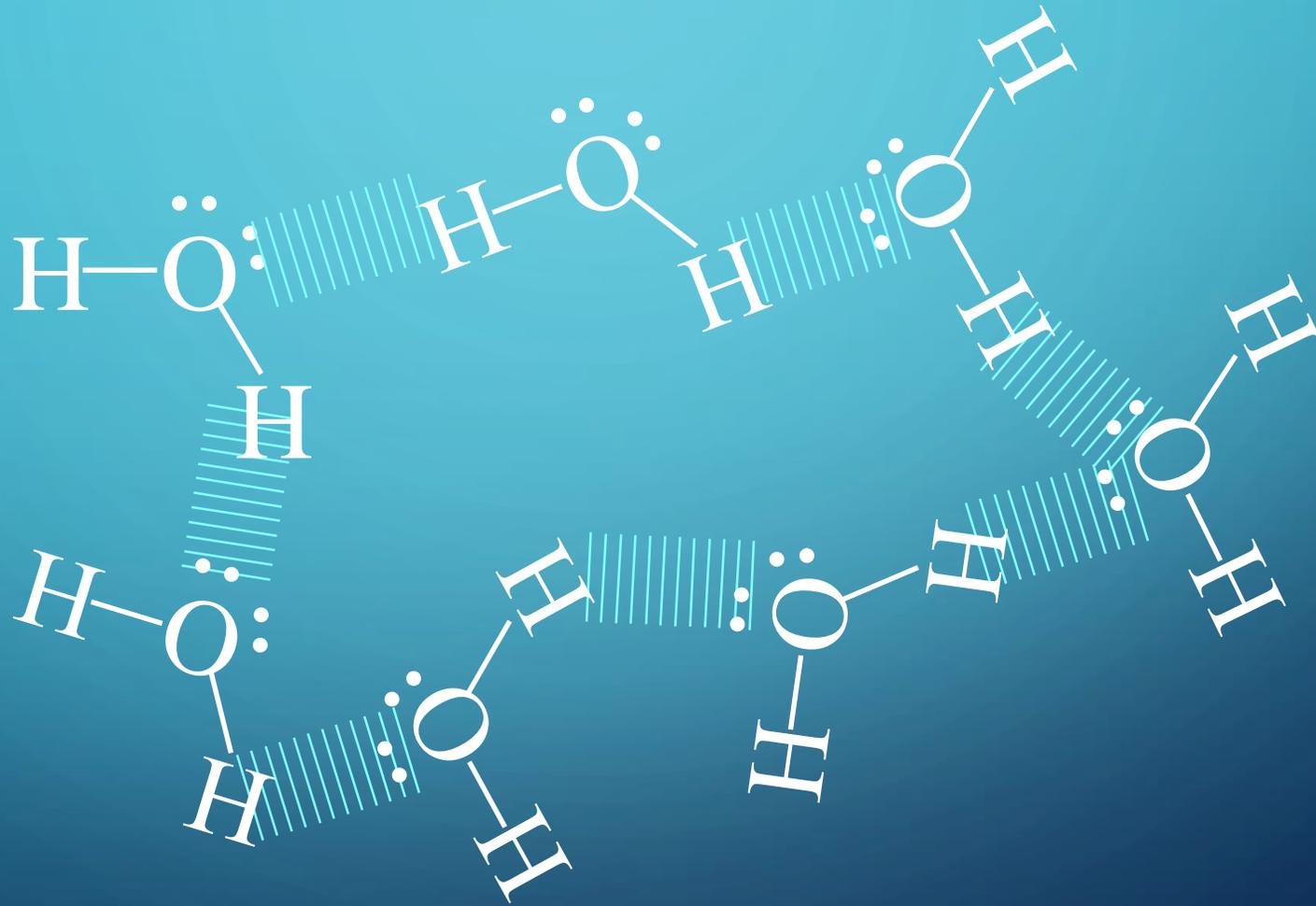
HYDROGEN BONDING

(SHOWN IN WATER)



This hydrogen is bonded covalently to: 1) the highly negative oxygen, and 2) a nearby unshared pair.

HYDROGEN BONDING ALLOWS H₂O TO BE A LIQUID AT ROOM CONDITIONS.



ORDER OF INTERMOLECULAR ATTRACTION STRENGTHS

- 1) Dispersion forces are the weakest
- 2) A little stronger are the dipole interactions
- 3) The strongest is the hydrogen bonding
- 4) **All of these are weaker than ionic bonds**

• ATTRACTIONS AND PROPERTIES

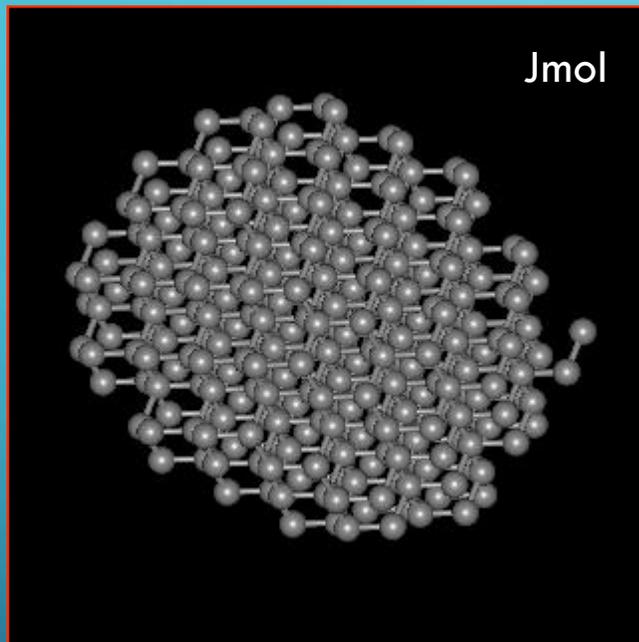
- Why are some chemicals gases, some liquids, some solids?
 - Depends on the type of bonding!
 - Table 8.4, page 244
- Network solids – solids in which ***all the atoms*** are covalently bonded to ***each other***

○ ATTRACTIONS AND PROPERTIES

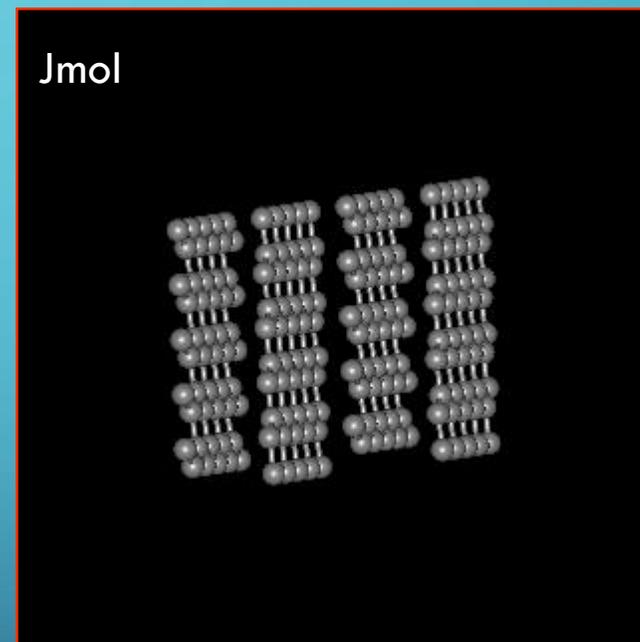
- Figure 8.28, page 243
- Network solids melt at very high temperatures, or not at all (decomposes)
 - Diamond does not really melt, but vaporizes to a gas at 3500 °C and beyond
 - SiC, used in grinding, has a melting point of about 2700 °C

COVALENT NETWORK COMPOUNDS

Some covalently bonded substances DO NOT form discrete molecules.



Diamond, a network of covalently bonded carbon atoms



Graphite, a network of covalently bonded carbon atoms

CHAPTER 8.4 PRACTICE QUESTIONS

- 8.4 Section Assessment #s 32 - 38

QUESTIONS FOR REVIEW

- The following will be organized according to the learning targets as we get closer to the end of the unit:
- Page 247 – 250 #39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 50, 52, 58, 59, 63, 64, 69, 81, 82, 85, 86, 87, 89, 91, 92, 95, 96, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102