

General Chemistry

Chapter 9

Chap 9 Covalent Bonding: Orbitals 9-1

9.1 Hybridization and the Localized Electron Model

Recall:

Localized Electron Model: A molecule is composed of atoms that are bound together by using atomic orbitals to share electron pairs

sp^3 hybridization:

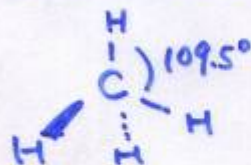
Bonding: involves only the valence orbitals

e.x. CH_4

H: use 1s orbital

C: valence orbitals: 2s, 2p

Recall VSEPR model



S orbital = 球狀

P orbitals = 哑鈴狀

↓ hybridization

sp^3 hybridisation

(see page 415 Fig 9-3)

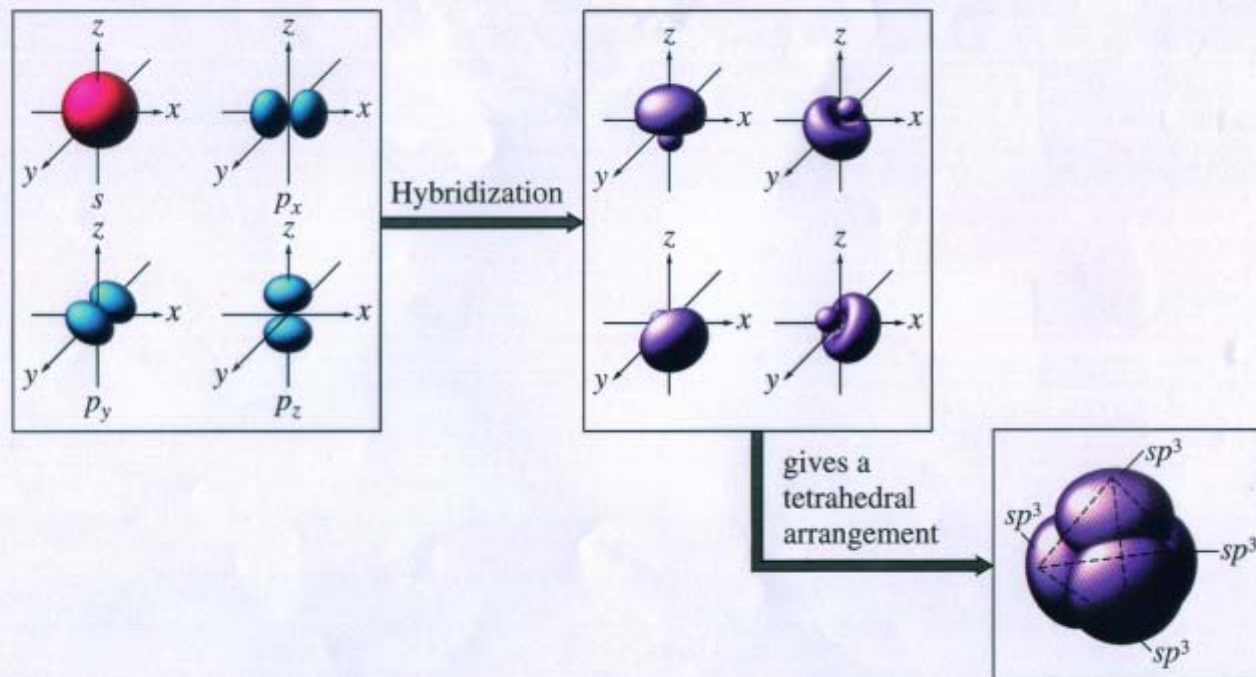


Figure 9.3
The formation of sp^3 hybrid orbitals

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sp^3 hybrid orbitals:

$$\phi_1 = \frac{1}{2} [(s) + (p_x) + (p_y) + (p_z)]$$

$$\phi_2 = \frac{1}{2} [(s) + (p_x) - (p_y) - (p_z)]$$

$$\phi_3 = \frac{1}{2} [(s) - (p_x) + (p_y) - (p_z)]$$

$$\phi_4 = \frac{1}{2} [(s) - (p_x) - (p_y) + (p_z)]$$

(s): 2s atomic orbital function

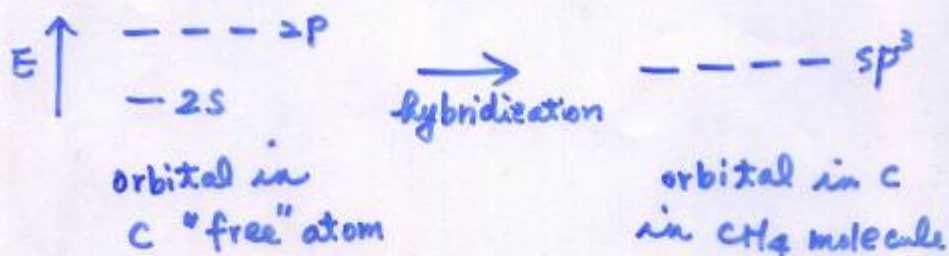
(p): 2p atomic orbital functions

$\frac{1}{2}$: $\frac{1}{2}$ satisfy boundary condition

(total probability = 1 for each orbital)

$\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4$: represents a separate sp^3 hybrid orbital

* 如以 energy levels 表之



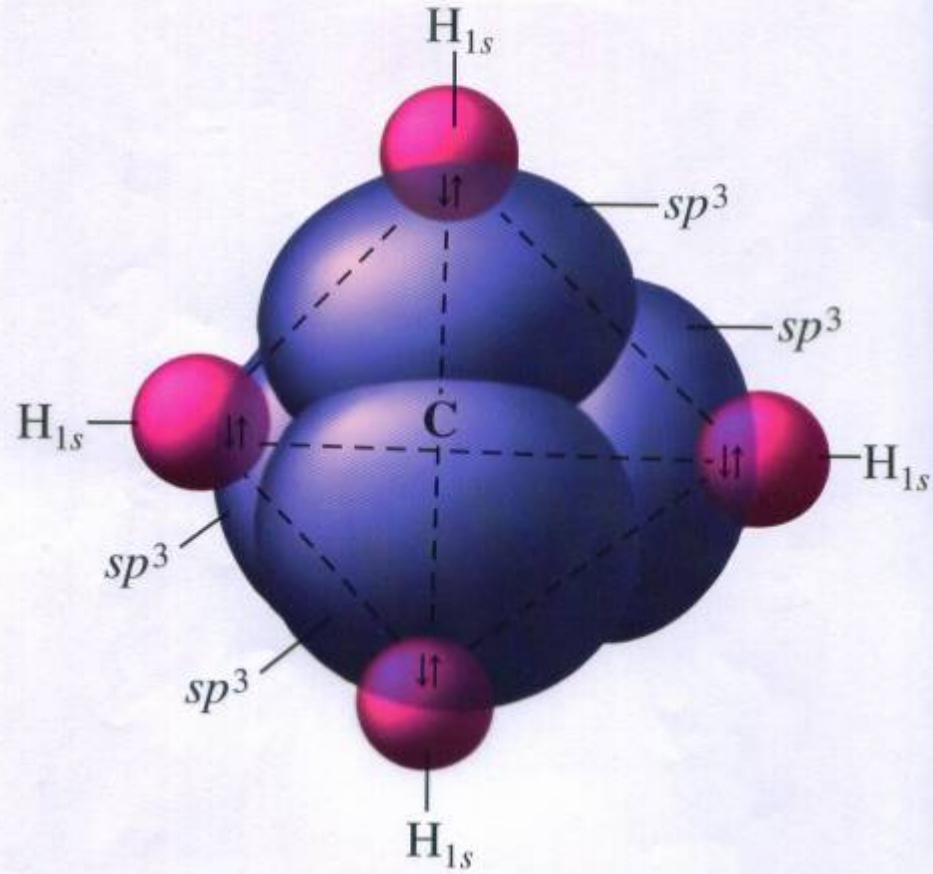


Figure 9.6
The orbitals in CH₄



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Whenever a set of equivalent, tetrahedral atomic orbitals is required by an atom, this model assumes that the atom forms a set of sp^3 orbitals; the atom becomes sp^3 hybridized.

Ex. 9-1 NH_3

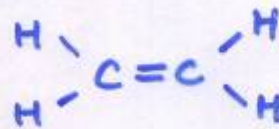
Sol: the Lewis structure of NH_3 is



sp^3 hybridized orbitals (see Fig 9-7)

sp^2 Hybridization

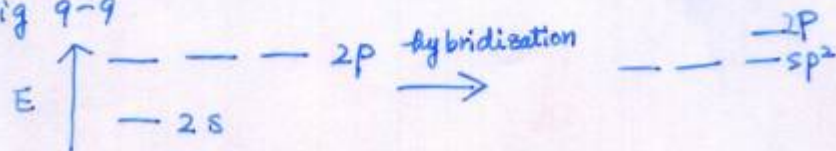
C_2H_4



planar molecule

sp^2 hybridization! (see Fig 9-8)

Fig 9-9



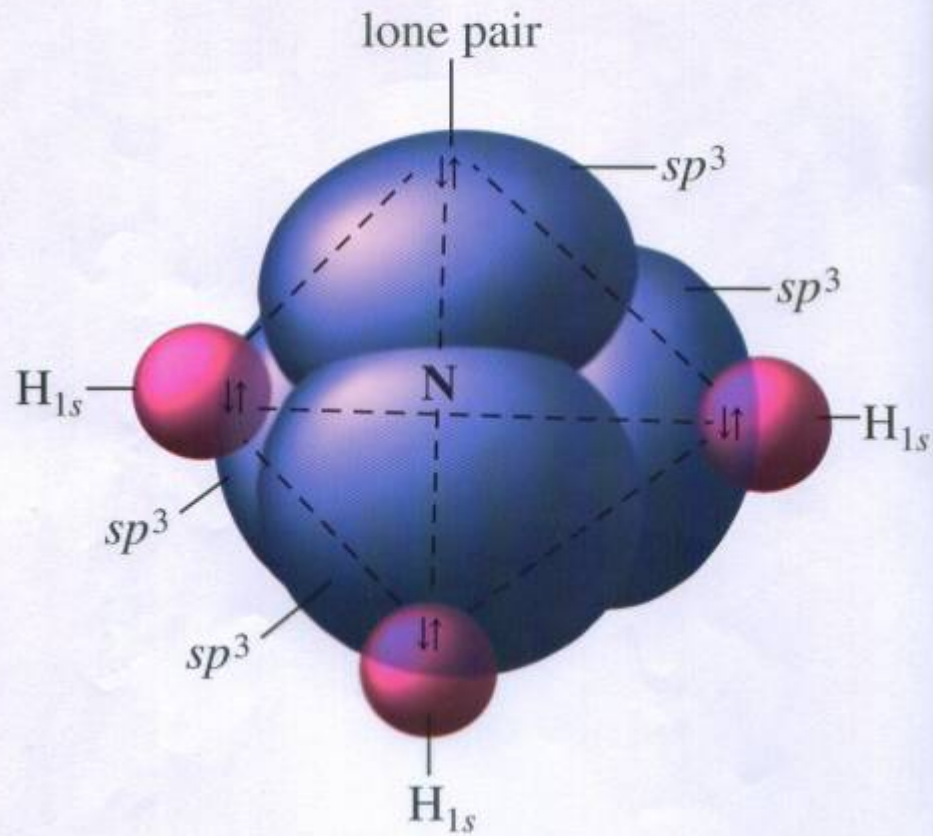


Figure 9.7
The orbitals in NH₃



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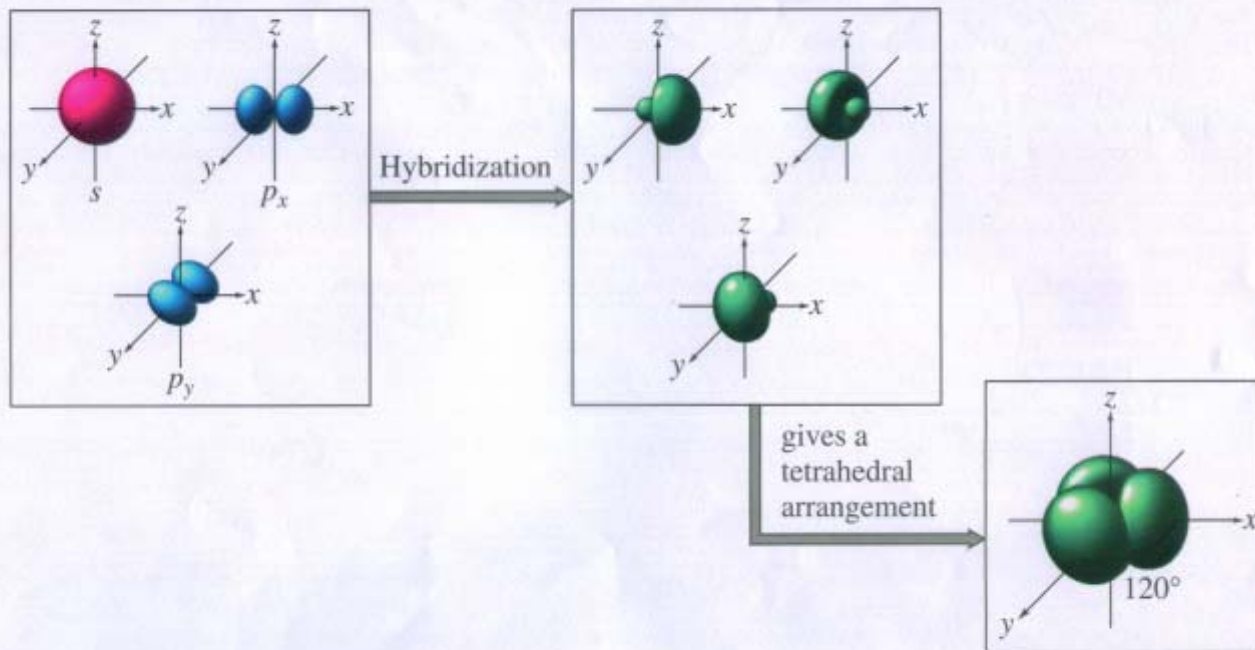


Figure 9.8
The formation of sp^2 hybrid orbitals

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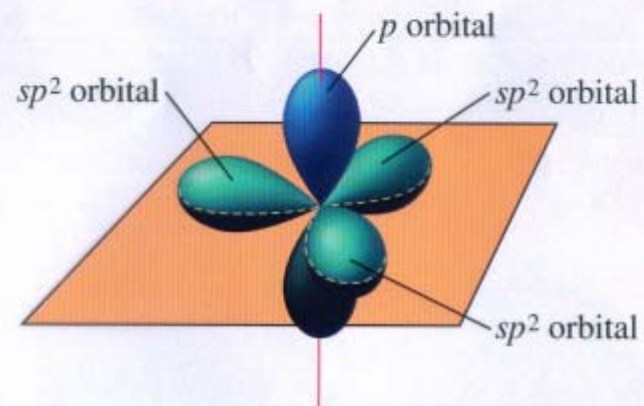
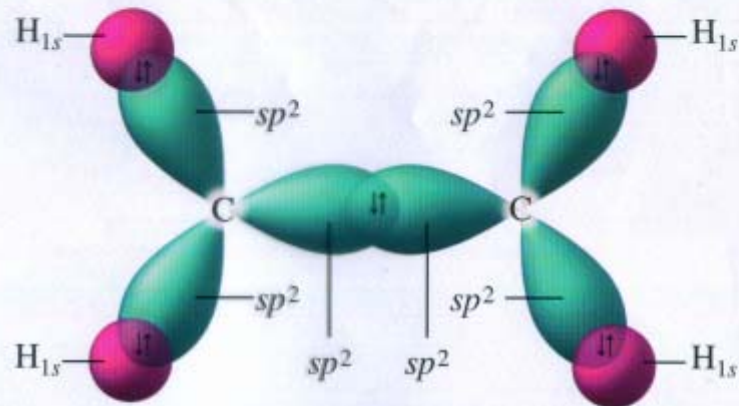


Figure 9.10
An sp^2 hybridized C atom

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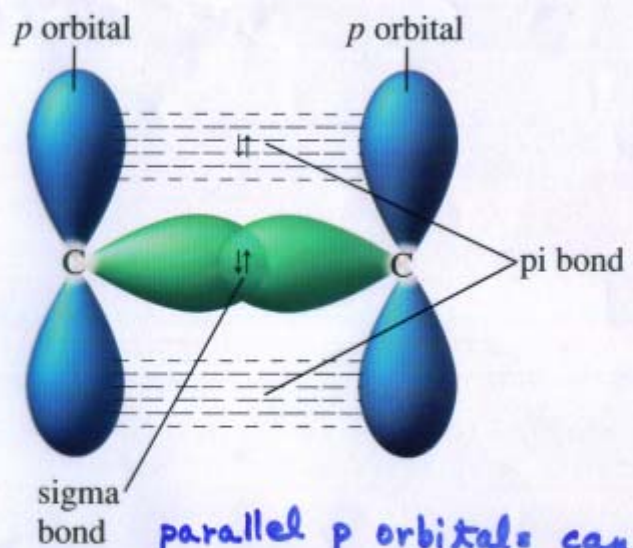


the electron pair is
 shared in an area
 centered on a line
 running between the atoms
 : **covalent sigma bond**
 (σ)

Figure 9.11
Sigma bonding in C₂H₄

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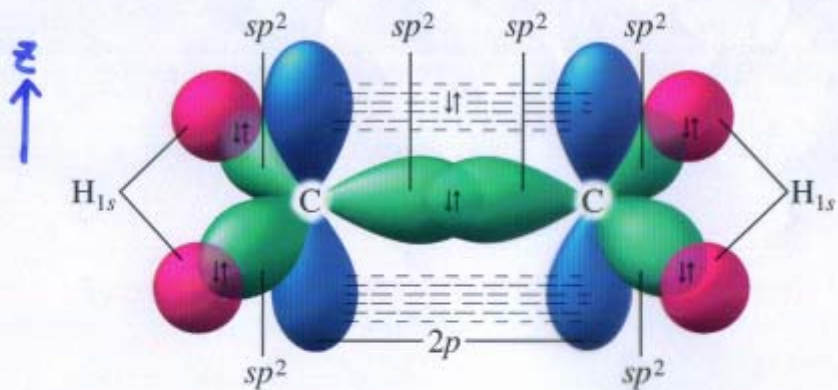


parallel p orbitals can share an electron pair, which occupies the space above and below a line joining the atoms → to form a pi (π) bond

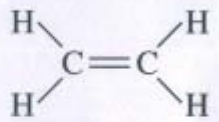
Figure 9.12
Sigma and pi bonding

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(a)

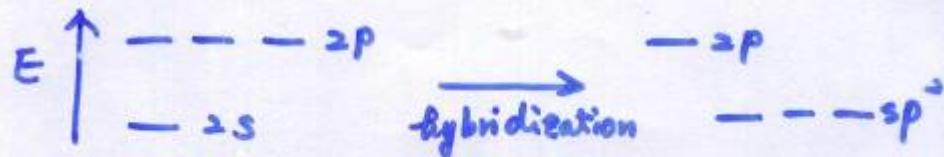


(b)

Figure 9.13
The orbitals for C_2H_4

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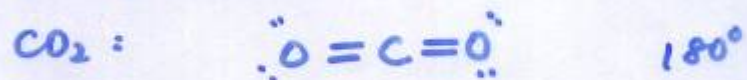
σ bonds: formed from orbitals whose lobes point toward each other.

π bonds: formed from parallel orbitals
(e.g. p_z p_x
(carbon) (carbon))

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

Whenever an atom is surrounded by three effective pairs, a set of sp^2 hybrid orbitals is required.

sp Hybridization



sp hybridisation (see Fig 9-14)

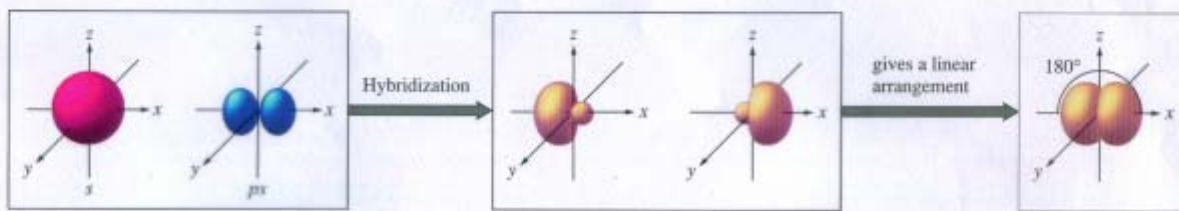


Figure 9.14
The formation of sp hybrid orbitals

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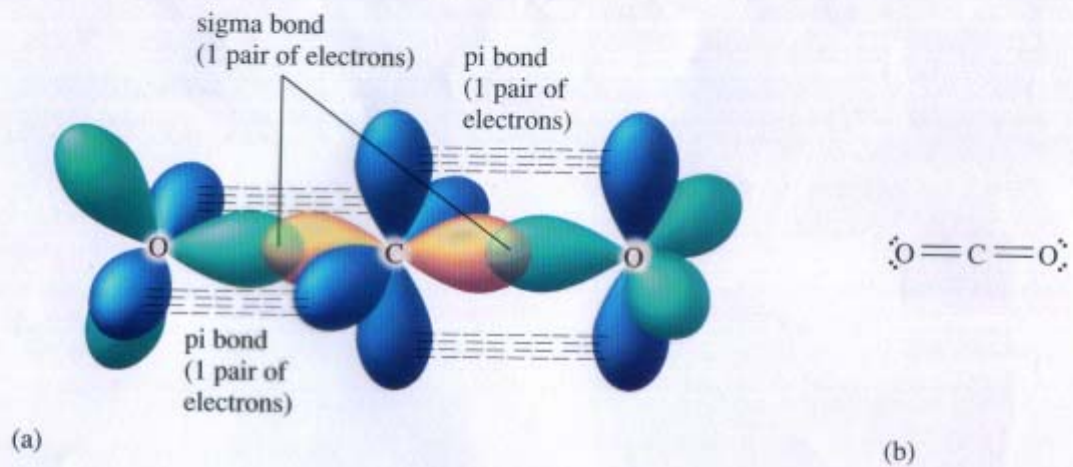


Figure 9.19
The orbitals for CO₂

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Two effective pairs around an atom will always require sp hybridisation of that atom

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(Fig 9.14 & 9.15)

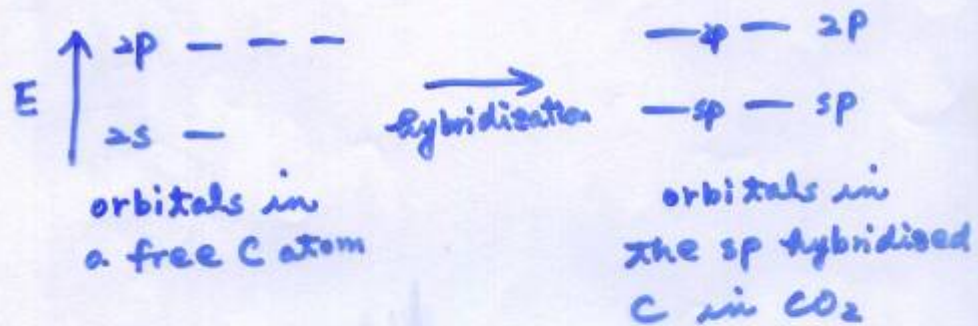


Fig 9.17 & Fig 9.18 & Fig 9.19

Ex. N₂

Sol: :N≡N:

2 effective pairs (each N atom)

↓
sp hybridization

(see fig 9.20)

9-16

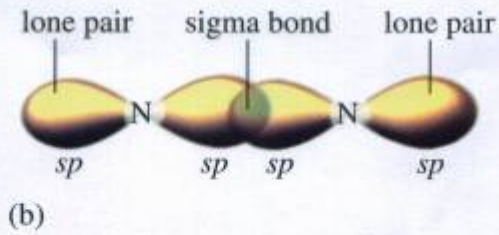
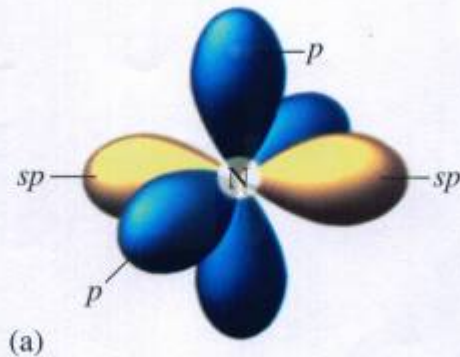


Figure 9.20
The orbitals for N₂



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dsp³ Hybridization

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PCl₅ :

Lewis structure



双金字塔
(trigonal bipyramidal)

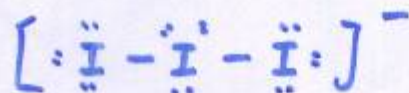
see Fig 9.21.

5 P-Cl σ bonds (see Fig. 9-22)

Ex. 9.3

Describe the bonding in the triiodide ion (I₃⁻)

Sol: Lewis structure of I₃⁻



↑
不符合8偶体

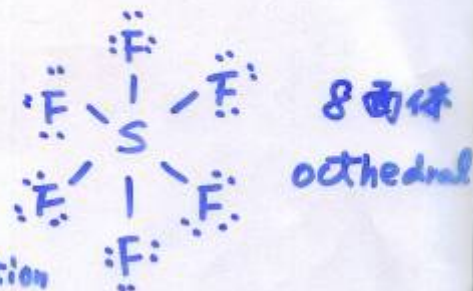
中心 I atom → 5 对 e⁻ → dsp³ hybridization
 外侧 I atom → 4 对 e⁻ → sp³ hybridization
 中心 I 的 dsp³ overlap w/ sp³ (外侧 I) → σ bond

d^2sp^3 hybridization

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Lewis structure :



→ d^2sp^3 hybridization

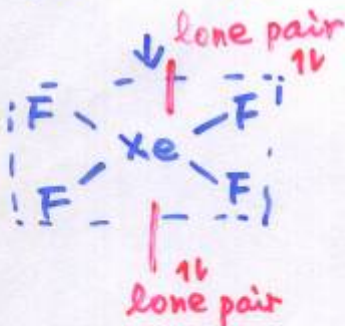
Ex. 9-4

How is the xenon atom in XeF_4 hybridised?

sol: Lewis structure



6 pairs of electrons
of Xe
↓
octahedral



↓
 d^2sp^3 hybridization

see page 423 Xenon uses 6 d^2sp^3 orbitals to bond to 4 fluorine atoms and to hold 2 lone pairs


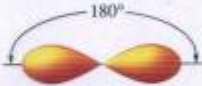

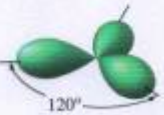



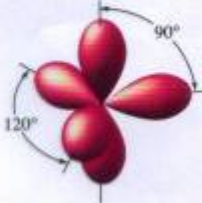


Number of Effective Pairs	Arrangement of Pairs		Hybridization Required	
2		Linear	sp	
3		Trigonal planar	sp^2	
4		Tetrahedral	sp^3	
5		Trigonal bipyramidal	dsp^3	
6		Octahedral	d^2sp^3	

Figure 9.24
The hybrid orbitals for various electron pair arrangements

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Summary: Describe a molecule w/ the
Localized Electron Model 9-20

1. Draw the Lewis structures.
2. Determine the arrangement of electron pairs, using the VSEPR model
3. Specify the hybrid orbitals needed to accommodate the electron pairs

↓

Fig 9.24 (page 424)

Ex. 9-5

For each of the following molecules or ions, describe the molecular structure and predict the hybridization of each atom

a. CO b. BF_4^- c. XeF_2

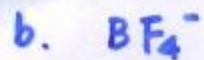
Sol:

a. CO : $\text{C} \equiv \text{O}:$

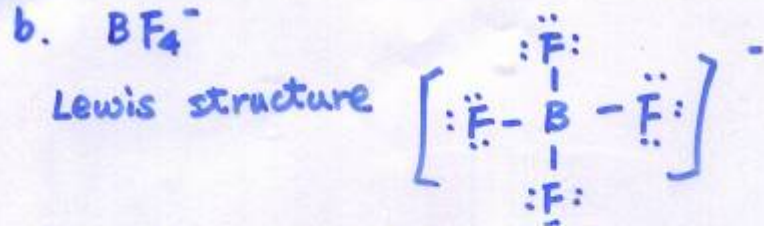
C: 2 effective pairs \therefore sp hybridization

O: " "

σ & π bond (see Figures on p 425)



Lewis structure



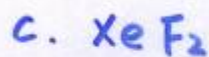
9-7

4 pairs around B

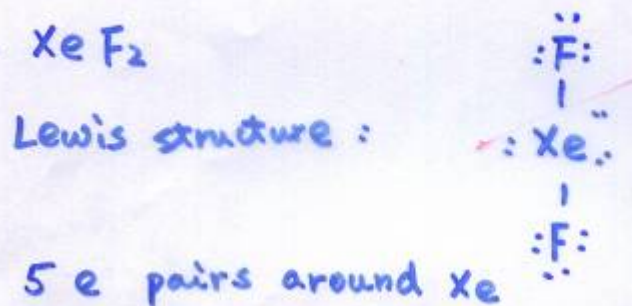


sp^3 hybridization

tetrahedral



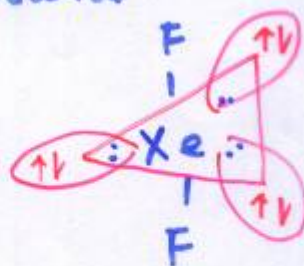
Lewis structure :



5 e pairs around Xe



dsp^3 hybridization



9.2 The Molecular Orbital Model 9-22

atomic orbitals: solutions to the quantum mechanical treatment of atoms

molecular orbitals (MOs): solutions to the quantum mechanical treatment of molecules

相同性質:

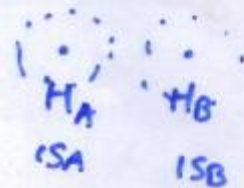
1. 1 orbital \rightarrow hold $2e^-$

2. orbital 的平方代表 electron probability

以 H_2 為例

$$MO_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1s_A + 1s_B)$$

$$MO_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1s_A - 1s_B)$$



1. electron probability of both M.O.s.
is centered along the line passing
through the two nuclei.

M.O. 1 : the greatest probability
is $\Phi_{1,0}$

M.O. 2. : the greatest probability
is outside the area
between the two nuclei

cylindrically symmetric electron
distribution \rightarrow sigma (σ) M.O.

2. In the molecule, only the MOs are
available for occupation by electrons

(The 1s atomic orbitals of the hydrogen
atoms no longer exist !)

a set of new orbitals !!

3. M.O.₁ is lower in energy than 1s
orbitals of free hydrogen atoms
M.O.₂ is higher than 1s orbitals

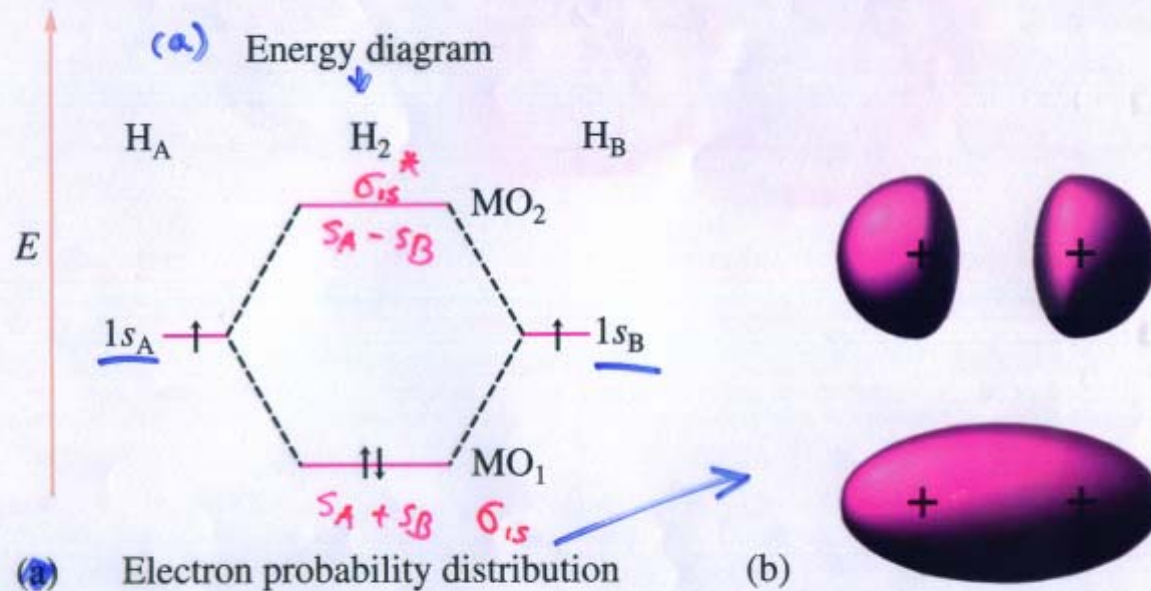


Figure 9.26

The molecular orbitals for H₂

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atomic electronic configuration $1s^2$ $2s^2$ \rightarrow $h\nu$ \rightarrow $\sigma_{1s}^1 \sigma_{1s}^{*1}$

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9-24

The molecular orbital model ⁹⁻²⁵

Figure 9-27 p427

- anti-bonding MO. is higher in energy than the atomic orbitals of which it is composed. favor separating
- bonding M.O is lower in energy than the atomic orbitals of which it is composed. favor bonding
- Fig. 9-26
electrons have the greatest probability of being between the nuclei.
(attracted by both nuclei and lowered in energy)
- The labels on MOs indicate their symmetry (shapes)
 $M.O_1 = \sigma_{1s}$ σ 指轴对称
 $M.O_2 = \sigma_{1s}^*$
- Molecular electron configurations can be written the same way as atomic electron configurations.
e.g. H_2 . σ_{1s}^2

7. Each M.O. can hold 2 electrons 9-26
(w opposite spins)
- 8 The number of MOs = the number of atomic orbitals used to construct them see Fig. 9-27, 9-28

Bond order

the difference between the number of bonding electrons and the number of antibonding electrons, divided by 2

Bond order

$$= \frac{\text{number of bonding electrons} - \# \text{ of antibonding}}{2}$$

Larger bond order \Rightarrow greater bond strength

eg. H_2 :

molecular electron configuration: σ_{1s}^2

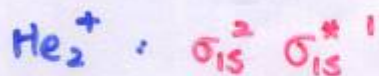
$$\therefore \text{Bond order} = \frac{2 - 0}{2} = 1$$

He_2 : $\sigma_{1s}^2 \sigma_{1s}^{*2}$

$$\therefore \text{Bond order} = \frac{2 - 2}{2} = 0 \quad (\text{not stable})$$

see Fig 9.28 & 9.29

9-27



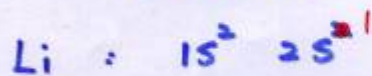
$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{2-1}{2} = 0.5 \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Bond} \\ \text{energy} \\ 250 \text{ kJ/mol} \end{array} \right)$$



$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{1-0}{2} = 0.5 \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Bond} \\ \text{energy} \\ 255 \text{ kJ/mol} \end{array} \right)$$

see Fig 9.30 , 9.31

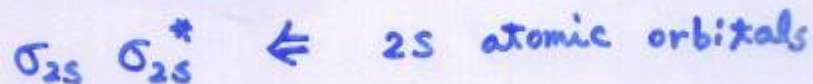
§ 9-3 Bonding in Homonuclear Diatomic Molecules



In order to participate in molecular orbitals atomic orbitals must overlap in space.

Only valence orbitals contribute significantly

see Fig 9.33 & 9.34



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

9-28 ©

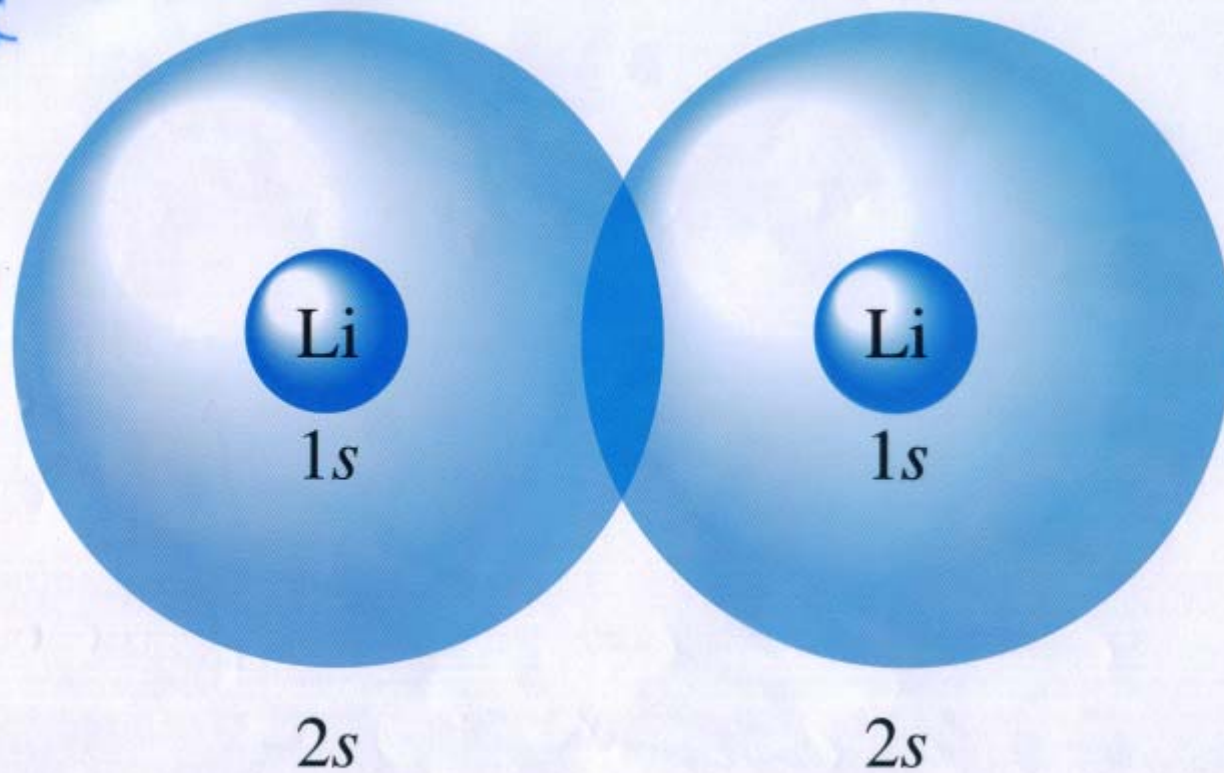
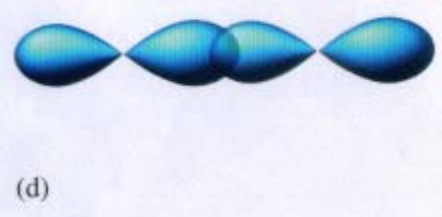
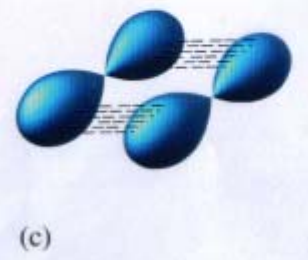
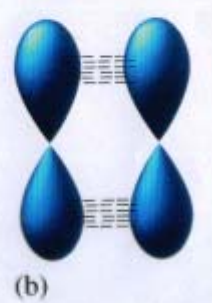
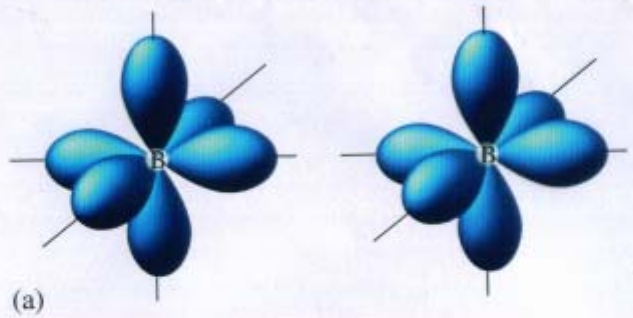
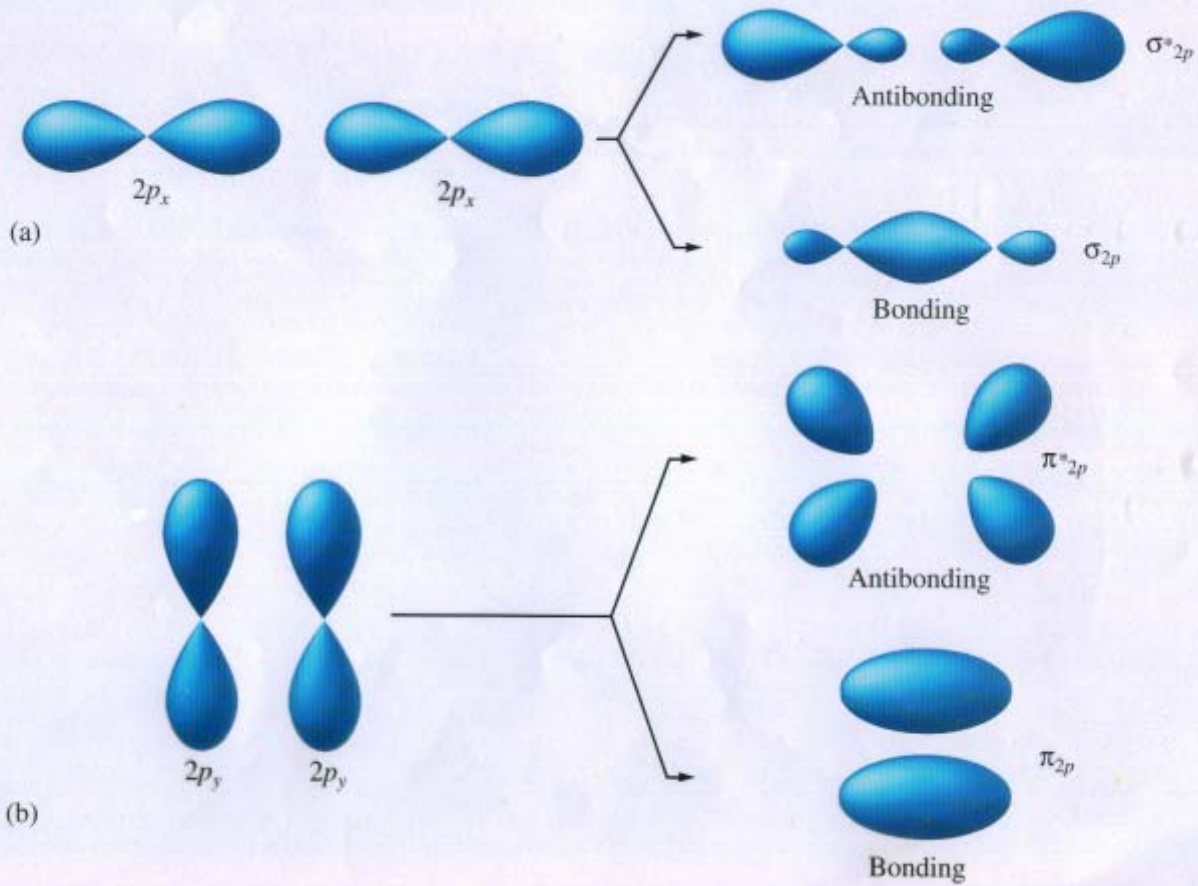


Figure 9.31
Overlap of the 1s and 2s orbitals in Li_2

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9-3



Bond order = $\frac{2-2}{2} = 0$ (not stable)

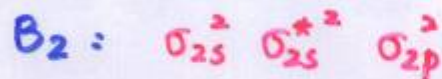
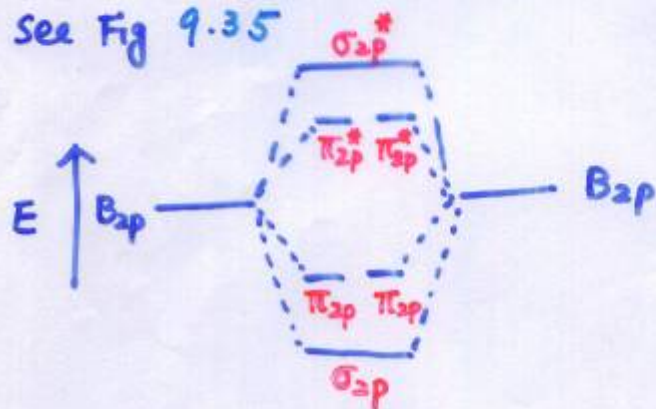
B₂ ?



如果以核為軸 (x 軸), 則 2p_x 與 2p_x overlap 會如 Fig 9.33 (a) : σ bonding

2p_y 或 2p_z 則會成 : π bonding

See Fig 9.35



Bond order = $\frac{4-2}{2} = 1$

Fig. 9-36

Paramagnetism • causes the substance ⁹⁻³²
(顺磁性)

to be attracted toward the inducing
magnetic field

Diamagnetism • causes the substance
(反磁性)

to be repelled from the inducing
magnetic field.

paramagnetism is associated w/
unpaired electrons

diamagnetism is associated w/
paired electrons

由 Fig 9.36

B_2 : 原为 diamagnetic

But, B_2 是 paramagnetic w/ two
unpaired electrons

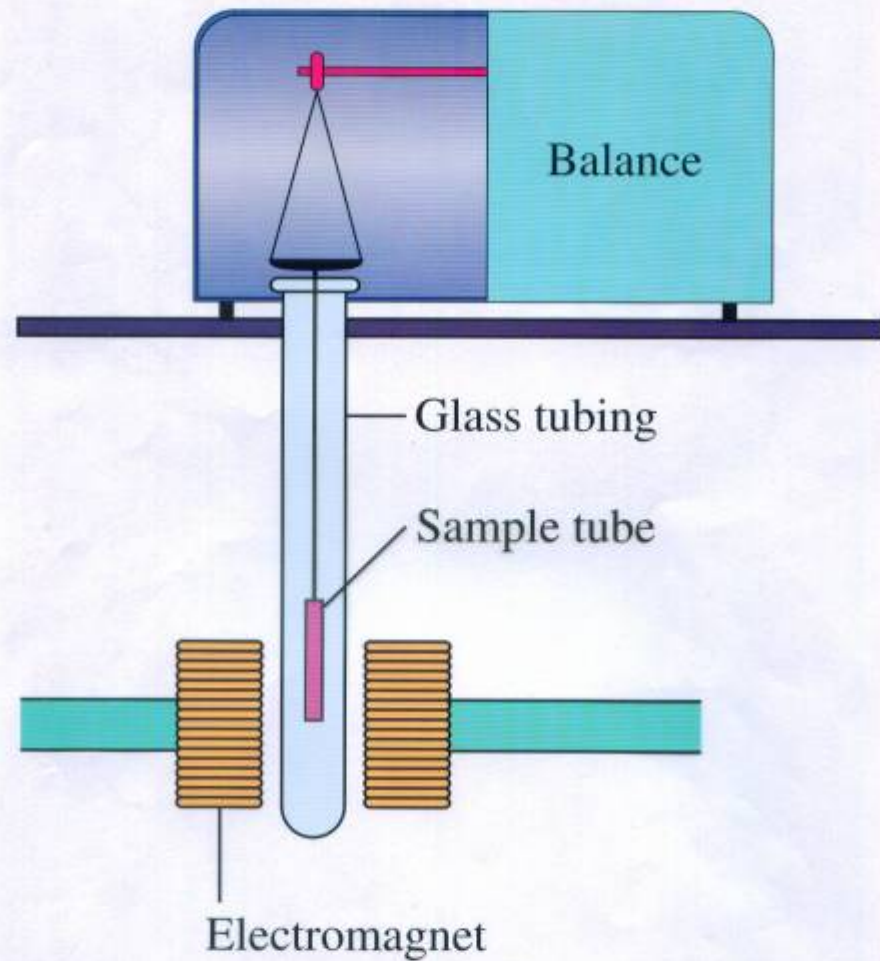
why?

2s 2p orbital mixing!

molecular orbital energy diagram

of B_2 , C_2 , N_2 不! 10! (see Fig 9.38, 9.39)

9-33

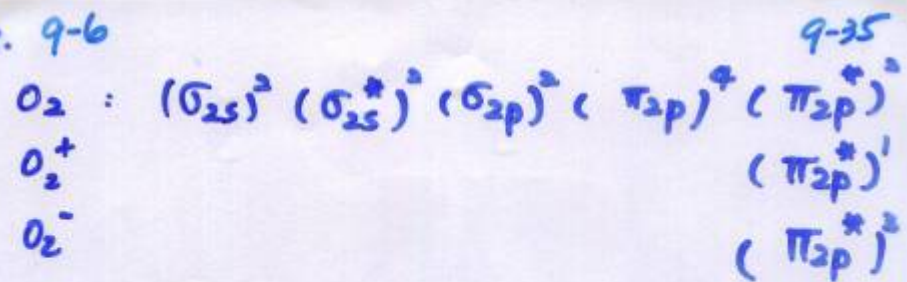


	B ₂	C ₂	N ₂	O ₂	F ₂
σ_{2p}^*	—	—	—	σ_{2p}^* —	—
π_{2p}^*	—	—	—	π_{2p}^* ↑ ↑	↑↑ ↑↑
σ_{2p}	—	—	↑↑	π_{2p} ↑↑ ↑↑	↑↑ ↑↑
π_{2p}	↑ ↑	↑↑ ↑↑	↑↑ ↑↑	σ_{2p} —	↑↑
σ_{2s}^*	↑↑	↑↑	↑↑	σ_{2s}^* —	↑↑
σ_{2s}	↑↑	↑↑	↑↑	σ_{2s} —	↑↑
Magnetism	Para-magnetic	Dia-magnetic	Dia-magnetic	Para-magnetic	Dia-magnetic
Bond order	1	2	3	2	1
Observed bond dissociation energy (kJ/mol)	290	620	942	495	154
Observed bond length (pm)	159	131	110	121	143

Figure 9.39
Molecular orbital summary of second-row diatomics

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Ex. 9-6



Bond order:

$$O_2 = \frac{8-4}{2} = 2$$

$$O_2^+ = \frac{8-3}{2} = 2.5$$

$$O_2^- = \frac{8-5}{2} = 1.5$$

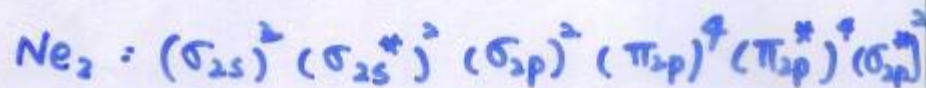
Bond energy
(KJ/mol)

495

643

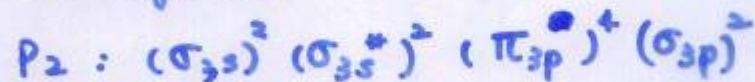
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Ex. 9.7 use M.O. to predict the bond order and magnetism of
a. Ne_2 b. P_2



$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{8-8}{2} = 0$$

diamagnetic



$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{8-2}{2} = 3$$

diamagnetic

Summary.

1. The Bond order (predicted by the M.O model) \uparrow , the bond energy \uparrow
the bond length \downarrow

2. B_2 , F_2

1	1	Bond order
290	154	Bond energy (kJ/mol)

$\therefore F_2$ 有 14 valence electrons (electron repulsion 太强)

3. N_2 , bond order = 3
bond energy = $942 \frac{\text{kJ}}{\text{mol}}$

\therefore 炸药都含 N, $\Rightarrow N_2$

4. O_2 : paramagnetic

会被磁场所吸引!

9-4 Bonding in heteronuclear diatomic molecules 9-37
異核 双原子分子

ex. NO

valence electron = 5 + 6 = 11

Energy level (可以用 N_2)

∴ molecular orbital configuration:



Bond order = $\frac{8-3}{2} = 2.5$

paramagnetic

Ex. 9.8

NO^+ and CN^-

NO^+ valence $e^- = 10$

CN^- valence $e^- = 10$

configuration 都是:



Bond order = $\frac{8-2}{2} = 3$

Diamagnetic

HF molecule

9-38

↑ ↘
週期 1 2

与单键同周期异核分子不同

See Fig 9.43 & 9.44

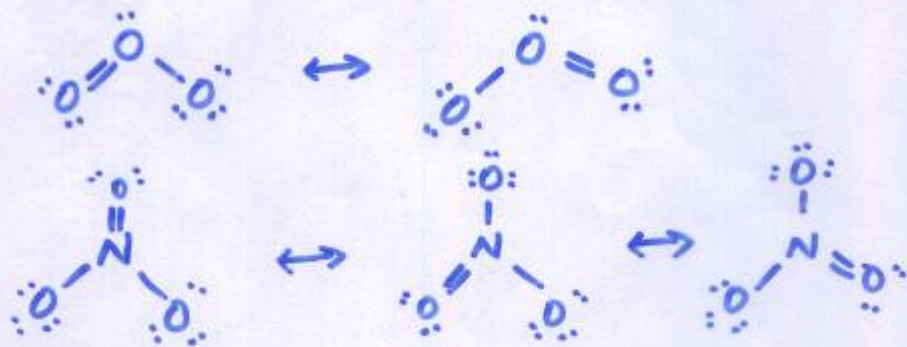
H: use 1s atomic orbital

F: use one of 2p orbital

↓
 σ and σ^* molecular orbitals

§ 9.5 combining the localised Electron and molecular Orbital models

共振 (resonance) 分子: O_3 & NO_3^-



a double bond 已包括 1 σ bond
1 π bond

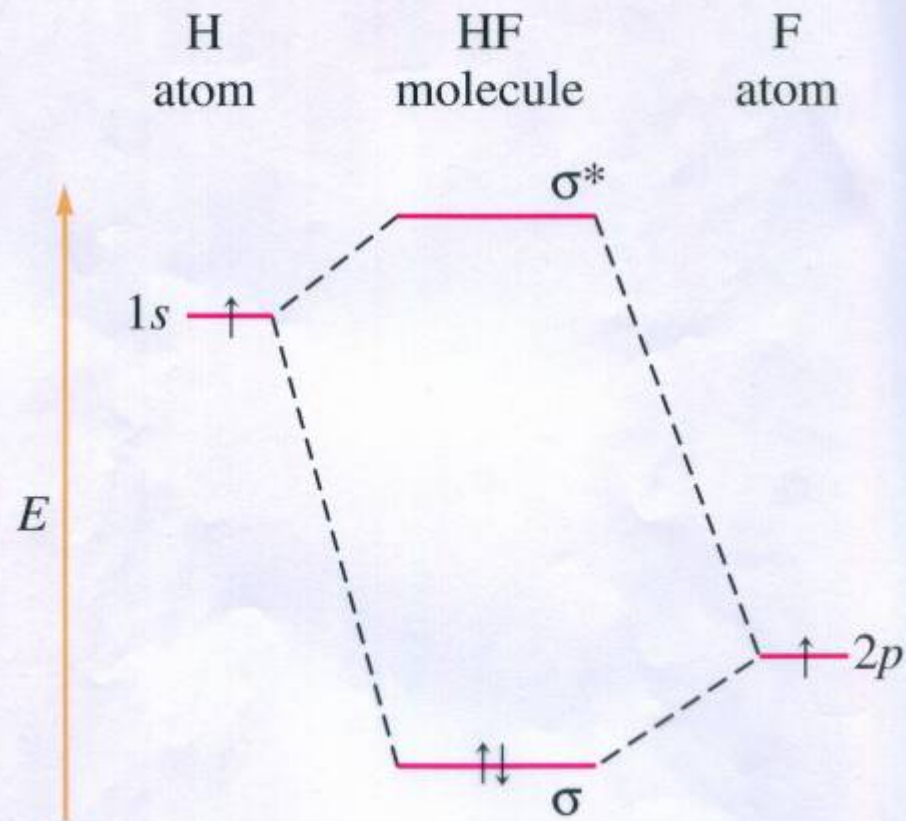
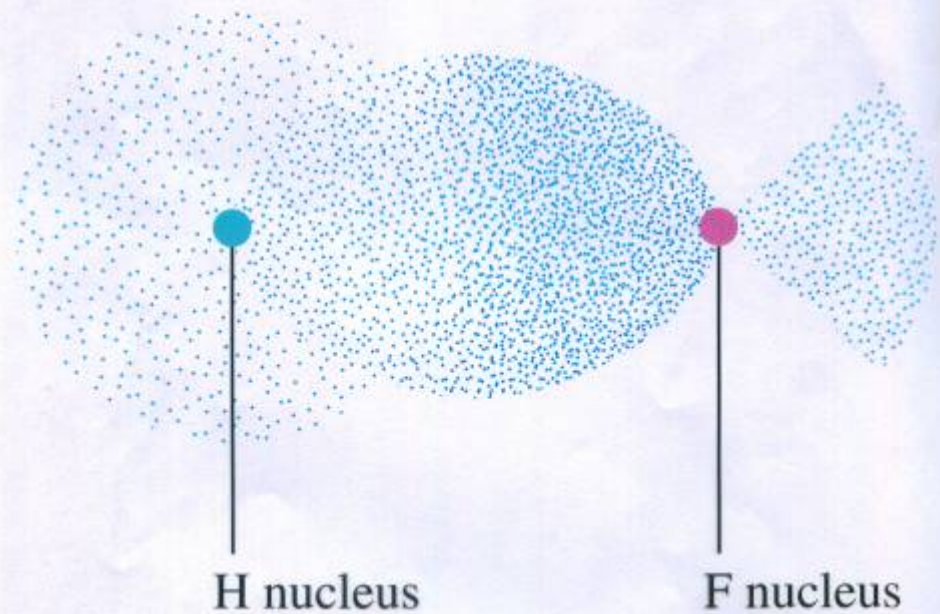


Figure 9.43

The molecular orbital diagram for HF

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(有較強的負電性)

Figure 9.44
The electron density map for HF



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Ideal Bonding Model. 9-41
use LE model w/ delocalization
characteristics of the MO model

Ex. O_3 :

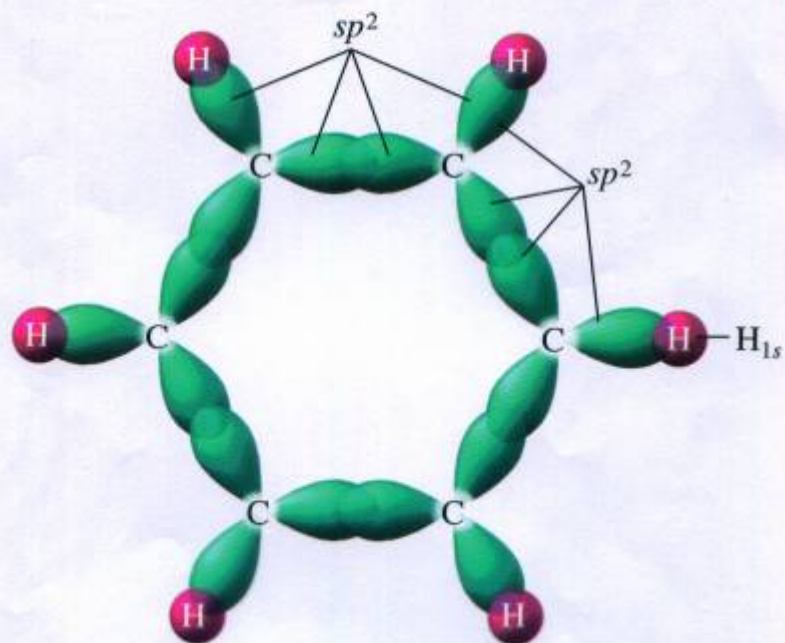
$\Phi \sim \sqrt{3}$ use sp^2 overlap w/ sp^2 (outer)

But one extra π bonding
(delocalization between two bonds)

C_6H_6 : (see Fig 9-46) LE model

σ bonding: Fig 9-47

delocalised π bonding: Fig 9-48



σ bonding

Figure 9.47
The sigma system for benzene

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orbitals: Human inventions 9-43

LE "models"

MO

Orbitals are mathematical functions
— solutions to a modified Schrödinger
equation

molecular spectroscopy
光谱学

Spectroscopy: the study of the interaction
of electromagnetic radiation w/ matter.

Electronic transition: a change from
one electron arrangement to another
(a particular configuration of electrons
in the molecular orbitals)

(~~the~~ UV or visible "photons")
need

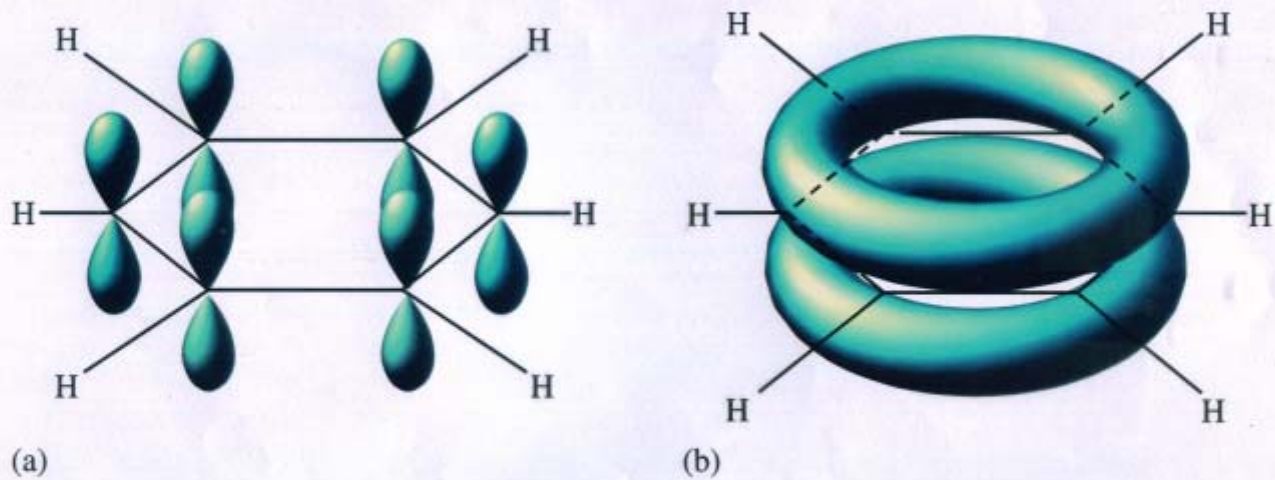


Figure 9.48
The pi system for benzene

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9-43

112

Rotational Spectroscopy

9-4x

for a linear molecule, the energies of the rotational states are:

$$E_J = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} J(J+1)$$

J : the rotational quantum number

$$\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$$

I : the moment of inertia of the molecule

$$I = \mu R_e^2$$

(μ : reduced mass ; R_e : average bond length)

e.x.

$$\Delta E \text{ (從 } J=0 \text{ 到 } J=1)$$

$$= \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} \times 2$$

↓
可計算 $I \rightarrow R_e$ (Bond length)

Vibrational Spectroscopy

9-45

$$E_v = h\nu_0 \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

ν_0 = the characteristic frequency of the vibration

v = the vibrational quantum number which can assume only 0, 1, 2, 3, ...

is infrared (IR) region

Fig 14.53

Electronic Spectroscopy

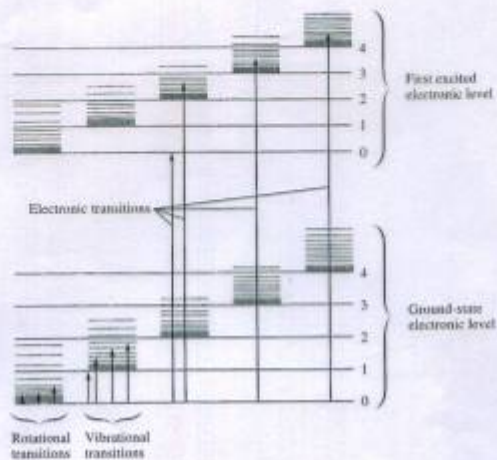
(is UV or visible region)

the electronic spectrum, a plot of the ~~the~~ quantity of radiation absorbed v.s.

the wavelength of the radiation, shows peaks at wavelengths where the photons have an energy that matches an energy gap in the molecule.

Figure 14.52

A schematic representation of two electronic energy levels in a molecule, with the vibrational (in red) and rotational (in blue) energy levels shown for each electronic state. Note that rotational changes are lowest in energy, followed by vibrational changes and then electronic changes, which require the highest-energy photons.



molecule's structure. For example, for a linear molecule the energies of the rotational states are given by the formula

$$E_J = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} J(J+1)$$

where J = the rotational quantum number, which can assume only integer values and zero ($J = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$)

\hbar = Planck's constant divided by 2π

I = the moment of inertia of the molecule

For a diatomic molecule containing atoms with masses m_1 and m_2 , the moment of inertia is given by the relationship

$$I = \mu R_e^2$$

where μ = reduced mass = $\frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$

R_e = average (equilibrium) bond length

If the energy of the photon necessary to promote a diatomic molecule from E_0 ($J = 0$) to E_1 ($J = 1$) is determined, the value of I for the molecule can be calculated, which, in turn, allows the calculation of R_e . Thus the rotational spectrum of a diatomic molecule provides an accurate method for measuring its average bond length.

The analysis of the rotational spectra for polyatomic molecules is more complex but also can provide accurate details of molecular structure.

spring, provides a restoring force that pulls the atoms back toward each other. The atoms vibrate back and forth about the average bond distance r_0 , which leads to quantized energy levels given by the expression

$$E_v = h\nu_0 \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

where ν_0 = the characteristic frequency of the vibration
 v = the vibrational quantum number, which can assume only the values 0, 1, 2, 3, . . .

Notice that the vibrational energy is not zero when $v = 0$. The energy corresponding to $v = 0$ is the zero-point energy of the molecule.

One very important use of vibrational spectroscopy, which involves transitions in the infrared (IR) region of the spectrum, is to assist in the identification of an unknown molecule. The infrared (IR) spectrum of a molecule is typically represented as a plot of the energy transmitted versus the wave number of the radiation. The wave number for electromagnetic radiation is the reciprocal of the wavelength in centimeters. This provides a convenient unit commonly used in plotting infrared spectra. A typical spectrum is shown in Fig. 14.53. Note that regions of the spectrum where the energy transmitted is small correspond to regions where the molecule has absorbed a large quantity of this radiation.

A particular bonded pair of atoms has a characteristic vibrational frequency (wave number) that is relatively insensitive to its molecular environment. This is a vibration that appears in the IR spectrum at that characteristic wave number. For example, a C—H pair in a molecule will always show a vibrational frequency about 3000 cm^{-1} (the range of wave numbers is actually about 2750 – 3100 cm^{-1} , depending on the specific molecular environment). On the other hand,

A laser spectroscopy laboratory
 at the California Institute of Techno

Figure 14.53
 The infrared spectrum of CH_2Cl_2 .
 (Note that the wave number scale changes on this spectrum at 2000 cm^{-1} .)

