

Atomes et molécules

Antoine JOLLY
Enseignant - Chercheur au LISA
P3 - 315

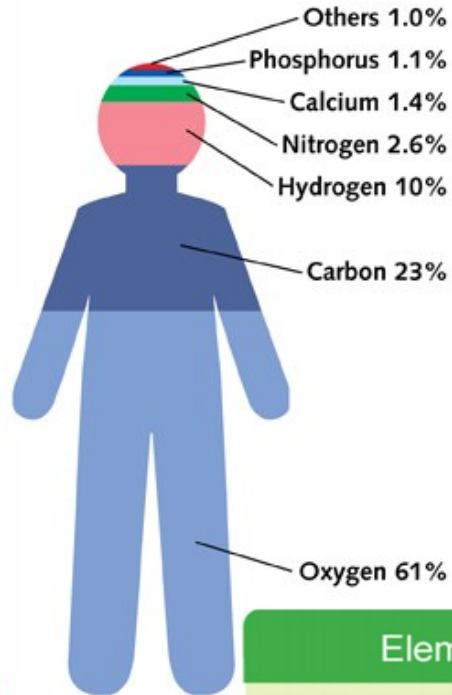
Université Paris Est Créteil, Créteil, France

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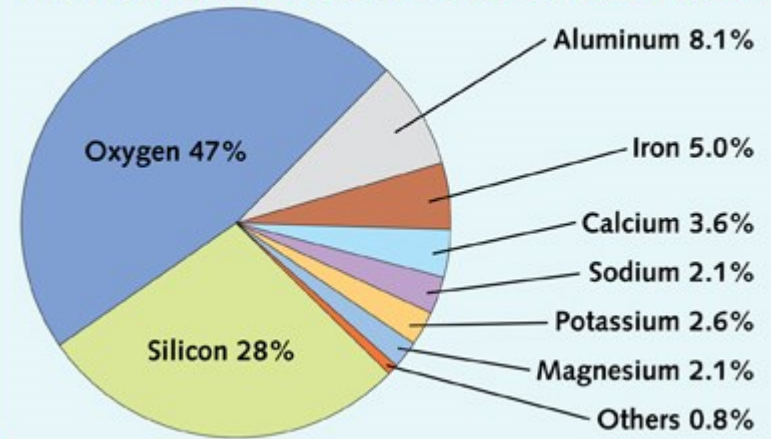
Chapter 6 : The Lewis chemical bond model

Chapter 6 – 1. Definition

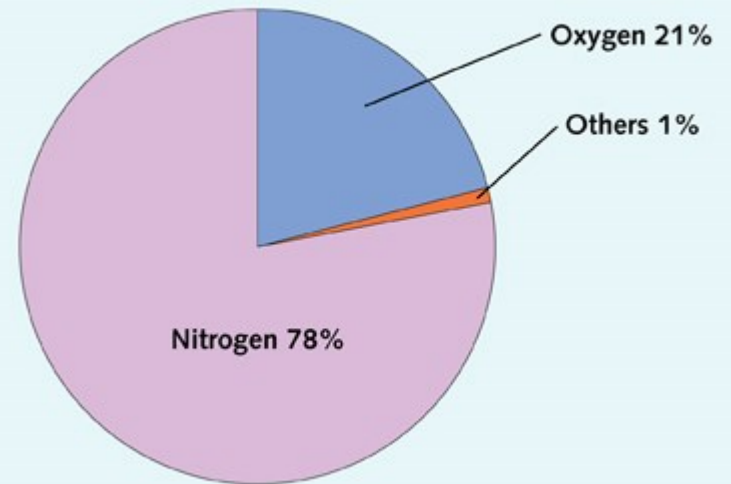
Percentages of Various Elements in a Human Body



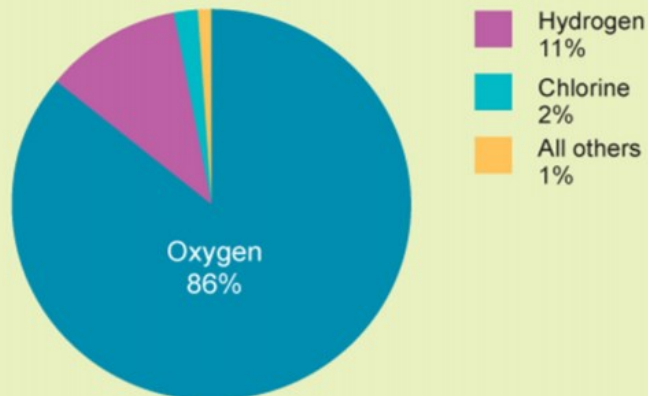
What Is the Earth's Crust and Core Made From?



What Elements Are Found in Air?



Elements in Earth's Oceans



Note: Percentages are by mass.

I) Definition

II) Various sorts of bonds

II-1) Covalent bonds

II-2) Ionic bonds

II-3) Metallic bonds

III) Lewis covalent model

III-1) Covalent bond

III-2) dative bond

III-3) Multiple bonds

III-4) Valence state

III-5) Mesomerism

III-6) Bond energy

III-7) Conclusion

At room temperature on earth, only a few atoms exist as isolated atoms (He, Ne, Ar, Kr, Xe)

Generally, atoms associate to form more or less complex structure.

- Molecules, made of 2 up to 1000 atoms**
(examples : HCl, CH₄, amino acids, proteins etc..)
- Solid structure of atoms and ions**
(examples : graphite, diamond, metals....)

Diamonds have of strong covalent bonds (Chap. 6), which makes it hard, but Graphite on the other hand has carbon atoms held by weak van der Waal's bonds (Chap. 9).

Chapter 6 – 1. Definition

In all simple gaseous ($\text{H}_2\dots$), solid (graphite ...) or liquid ($\text{Br}_2\dots$) bodies and all composed bodies (H_2O , NaCl , $\text{CH}_4\dots$), atoms are associated by **chemical bonds**.

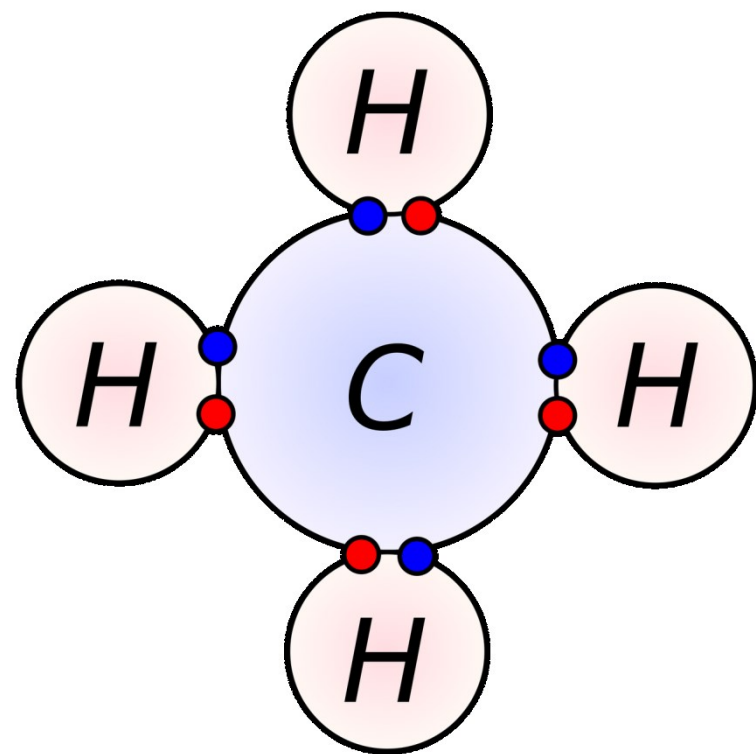
These bonds are responsible for the stability of the molecules.

Depending on the nature of the atoms, different types of chemical bonds exist.

For all types of bonds, **valence electrons** are responsible for the **cohesion** of multi-atomic structure.

Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

2-1) Covalent bond



● Electron from hydrogen
● Electron from carbon

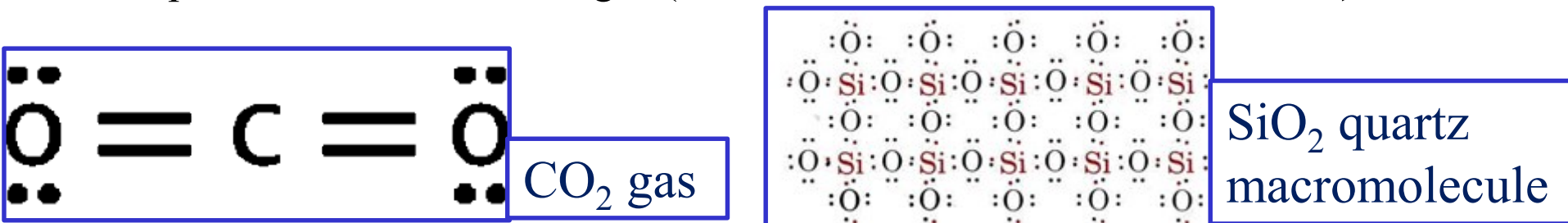
LEWIS model(1916):

- A covalent bond between atom A and B results from sharing a pair of electrons.
- Only valence electrons can participate to the bond
- Most of the time (but not always), atoms participating to the bond adopt the electronic configuration of the closest rare gaz (full shells).

Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

Covalent bonds occur between atoms belonging to close families, in particular with similar electronegativity in order to avoid charge transfer. Electrons need to be shared, not transferred

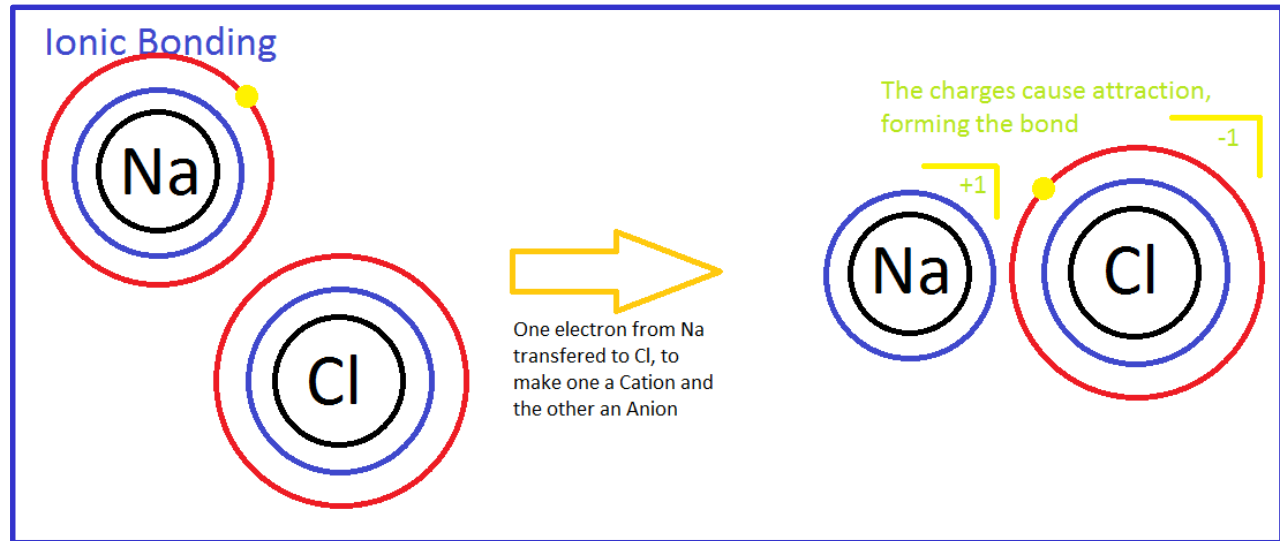
This mechanism implies that each atom must hold at least half of the electrons compared to the closest rare gas (**1 for H and 4 for the other elements**).



The diagram illustrates the periodic table with elements grouped into three categories: Metals (light blue), Nonmetals (light orange), and Semimetals (light green). The table shows elements from Hydrogen (1) to Argon (18). A large orange arrow points from the Semimetals group towards the Nonmetals group, labeled "Covalent bond". An orange plus sign is placed between the Metals and Semimetals groups.

Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

2-2) Ionic bond



- In the ionic bond, the electron is completely transferred from one atom to the other.
- One atom gives away a valence electron to the other atom, resulting in a pair of electrons localized on the most electronegative atom which becomes negatively charged (Cl).
- The atom losing an electron (Na) becomes positively charged.
- Na takes the electronic structure of the preceding rare gas
- Cl takes the electronic structure of the following rare gas.

The ionic bond between Na^+ and Cl^- is mainly electrostatic.

Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

This kind of bonds occurs between atoms with very different electronegativity.

1H																	2He
3Li	4Be											5B	6C	7N	8O	9F	10Ne
11Na	12Mg											13Al	14Si	15P	16S	17Cl	18Ar
19K	20Ca															35Br	36Kr
37Rb	38Sr															53I	54Xe

Exemple : NaCl : Na⁺, Cl⁻

Na⁺ 1s² 2s² 2p⁶ 3s⁰

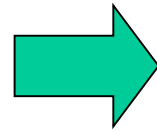
cf Ne

Cl⁻ 1s² 2s² 2p⁶ 3s² 3p⁶

cf Ar

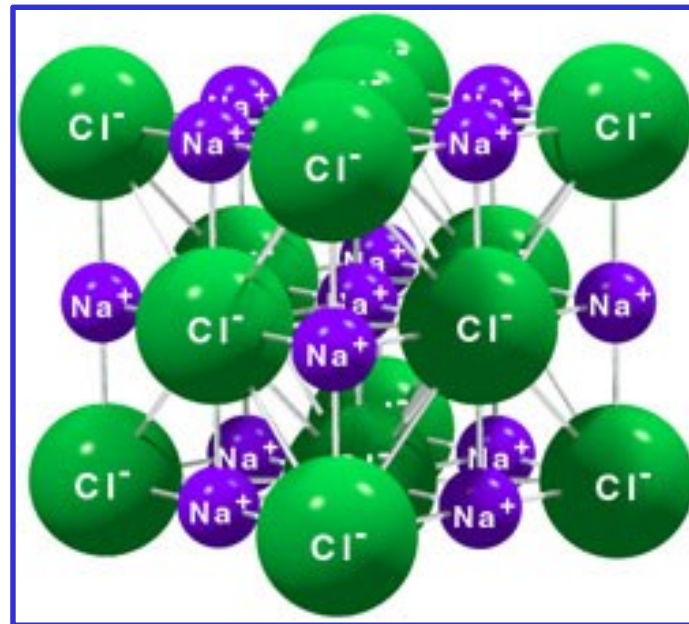
Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

- Ionic bonds involve electrostatic forces



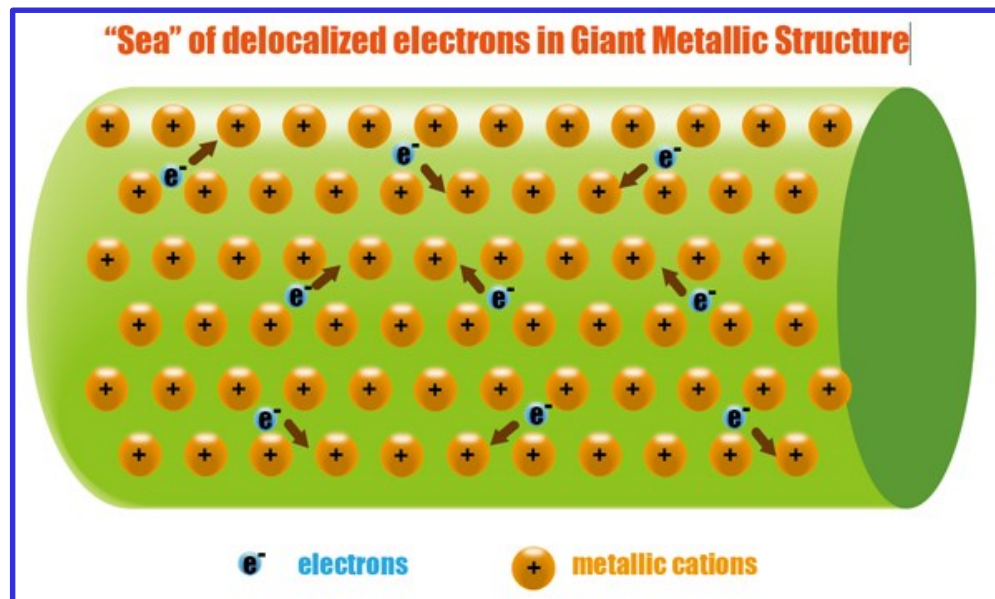
Ionic bonds are strong

- In order to break a ionic crystal, it is necessary to provide a lot of energy: (high melting temperature for NaCl: 801 °C, LiF: 845 °C),



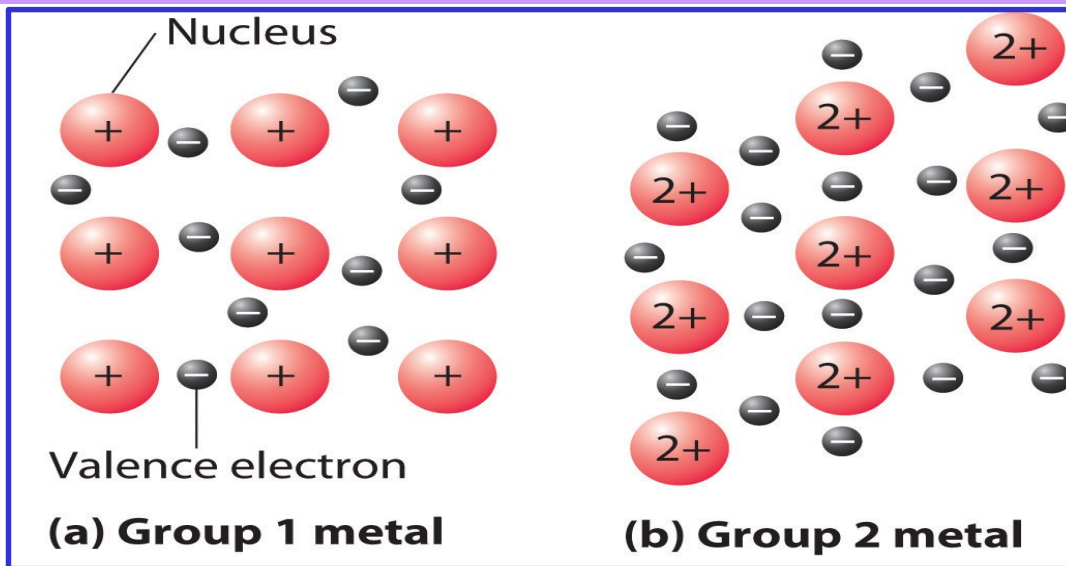
2-3) The metallic bond

- The metallic bond ensures the cohesion of purely metallic substances. Because all the atoms are the same, there can be no ionic bonding
- The strength of the metallic bond is enhanced by the sharing of all valence electrons of all atoms participating to the metallic crystal.
- Valence electrons in the metal are free to move across the whole metal surface. The metallic structure is a regular network of positive ions in a sea of free valence electrons (high conductivity).



Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

Examples:

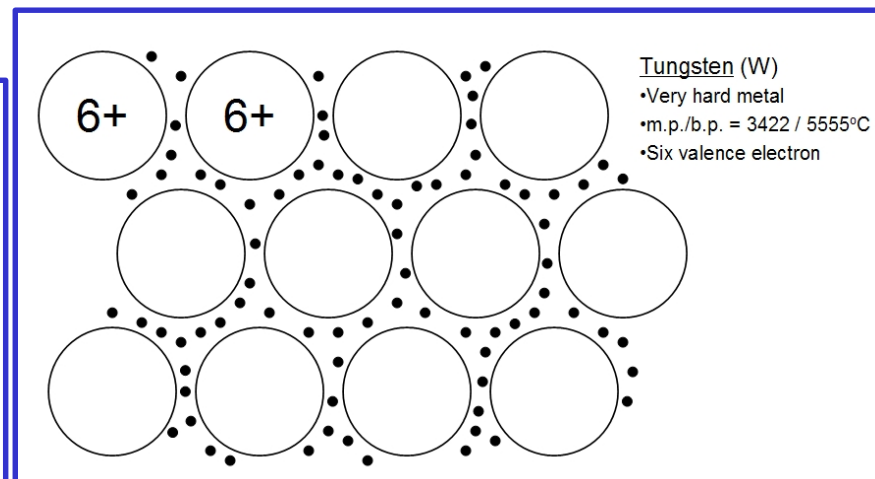


- Transition energy from solid to gas state is of the order of 100 kJ/mole for alkali metals and alkali earth metals.
- Higher values (up to 800 kJ/mole) for transition metals.

Tungsten (Wolfram), $_{74}\text{W}$ (the highest melting point of all the elements: 3695 K)

Electronic configuration :

$[\text{Xe}] 4f^{14} 5d^4 6s^2$



Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

- Metals are characterized by their ability to reflect light, their high electrical and thermal conductivity, their high heat capacity, and their malleability. The packing efficiency in metallic crystals tends to be high, so the resulting metallic solids are dense, with each atom having as many as 12 nearest neighbors.
- Because all the atoms are the same, there can be no ionic bonding, yet metals always contain too few electrons or valence orbitals to form covalent bonds with each of their neighbors. Instead, the valence electrons are delocalized throughout the crystal, providing a strong cohesive force that holds the metal atoms together.
- Metallic bonds tend to be weakest for elements that have nearly empty (as in Cs) or nearly full (Hg) valence subshells, and strongest for elements with approximately half-filled valence shells (as in W).

Chapter 6 – 2. Different types of bonds

QCM 13 Dans le modèle de la liaison ionique :

- a. il y a transfert d'électron(s) de l'élément le plus électronégatif vers l'élément le moins électronégatif
- b. il y a transfert d'électron(s) de l'élément le moins électronégatif vers l'élément le plus électronégatif
- c. il y a transfert d'électron(s) de l'élément possédant le rayon atomique le plus grand vers l'élément possédant le rayon atomique le plus petit
- d. il y a transfert d'électron(s) de l'élément possédant le rayon atomique le plus petit vers l'élément possédant le rayon atomique le plus grand
- e. Aucune des propositions précédentes (A à D) n'est exacte

3) Covalent Lewis model

- pure covalent bonds, dative bonds and multiple bonds.
- Different models have been elaborated concerning the formation of bonds.

1. Lewis model

2. Quantum model

3-1) The covalent bond

Each atom provides a single valence electron and contributes to forming an electron pair shared by both atoms (ex: H_2).

In the case of molecules and simple ions, the **LEWIS STRUCTURE** can be established.

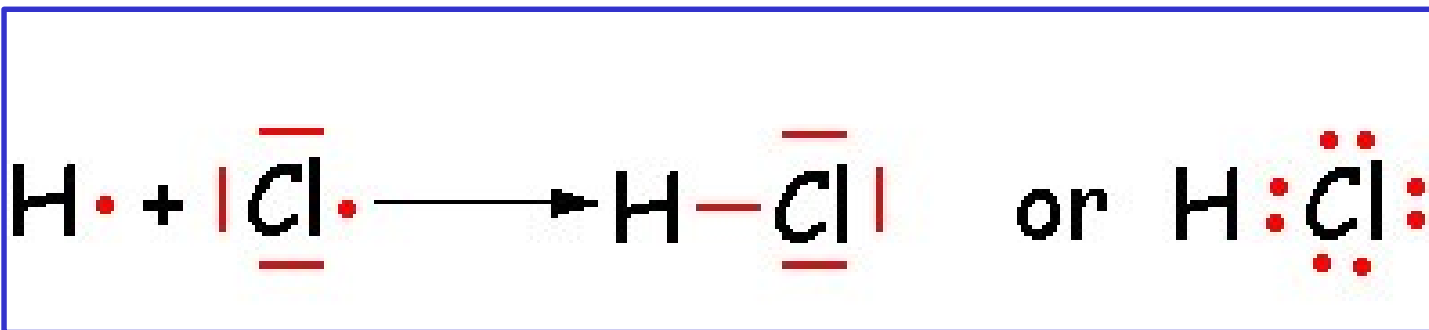
- from the LEWIS structure of atoms
- from the quantum cell representation of the valence shells.

Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

Lewis structures are symbolic representations:

- All electrons from the external shells must be represented whether they are involved in the bond or not.
- A pair of electrons **involved** in the bond is called a bonding pair.
- A pair of electrons **NOT involved** in a bond is called a lone pair.

Bonding pairs and lone pairs are represented by segments (or double dots)



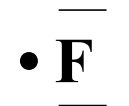
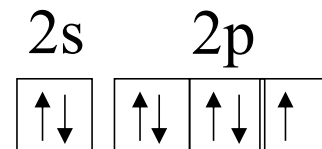
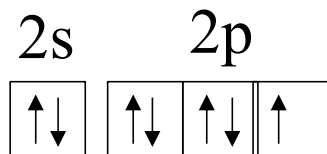
Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

Example 1 : F₂

${}_9\text{F}$

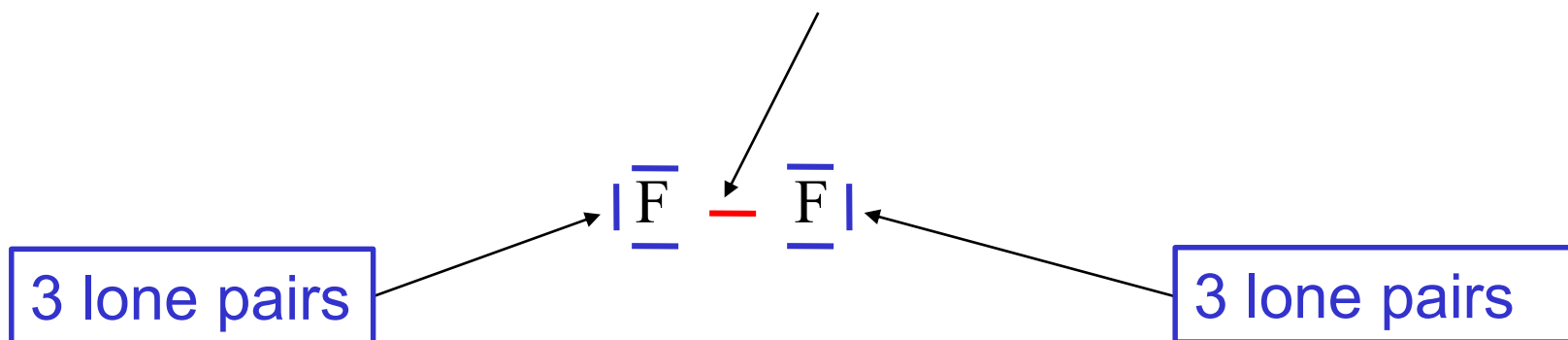
$1s^2 2s^2 2p^5$

Valence shell
($n = 2$)



Sharing their single electrons
≡ Covalent bond

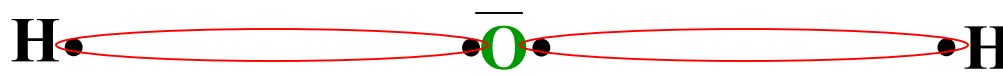
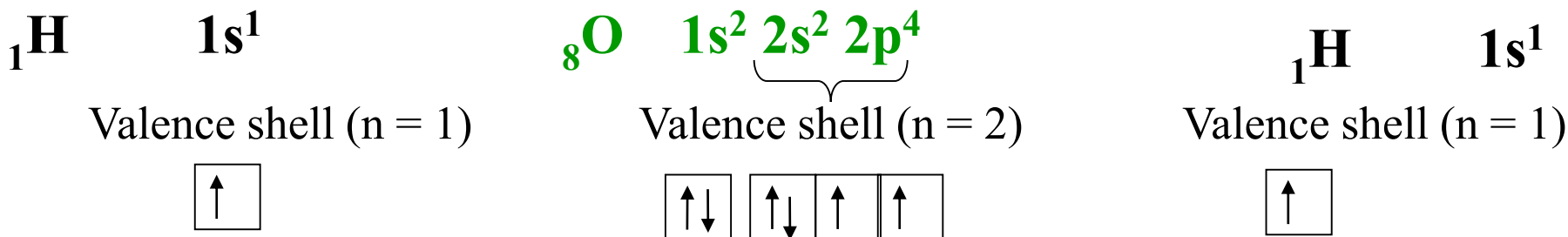
≡ Bonding pair of electrons belonging to both atoms



Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

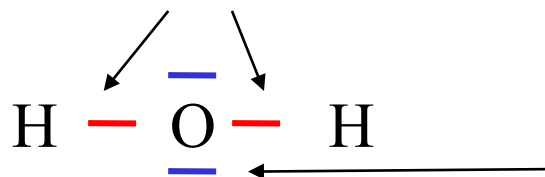
Example 2 : H₂O

Oxygen atom associated with 2 Hydrogen atoms.



Sharing their single electrons
≡ Covalent bond

≡ **Bonding pairs** of electrons belonging to both atoms



**2 lone pairs of electrons
on the Oxygen atom**

Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

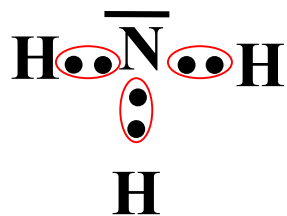
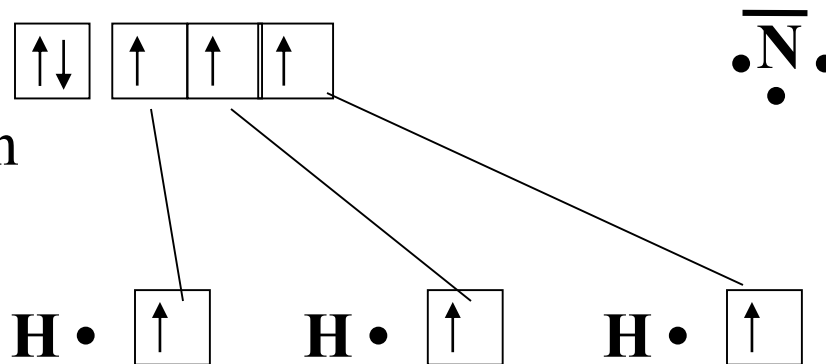
Exemple 3 : NH_3

${}^7\text{N}$

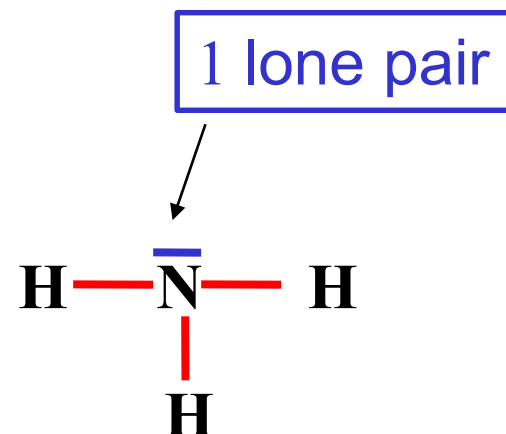
$1s^2 2s^2 2p^3$

Valence shell ($n = 2$)

The nitrogen atom associates with
3 Hydrogen atoms to form the
ammonia molecule?

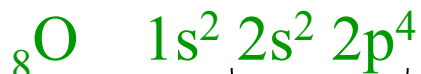


≡ formation of 3 Bonding pairs

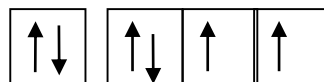


Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

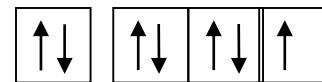
Exemple 4 : HOC_l (Hypochlorous acid)



Valence shell ($n = 2$)

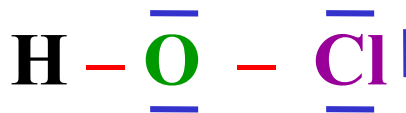
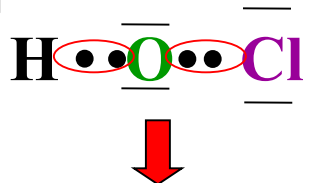


Valence shell ($n = 3$)



Oxygen associates with hydrogen

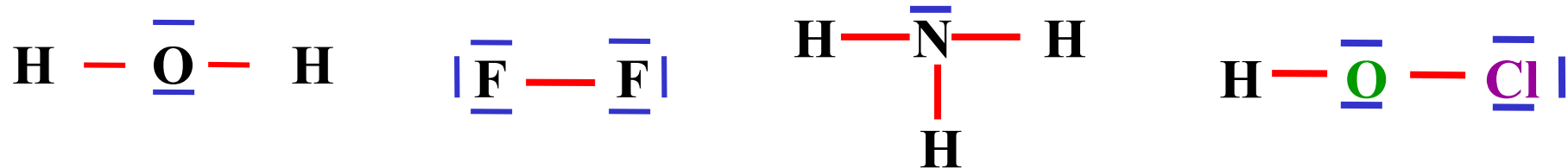
Oxygen associates with chlorine



≡ formation of 2 Bonding pairs

Hypochlorous acid is a weak acid with the chemical formula HClO . It forms when chlorine dissolves in water, and it is HClO that actually does the disinfection when chlorine is used to disinfect water for human use.

Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model



In the examples above, each hydrogen atom is surrounded by 2 electrons. The other atoms are surrounded by 8 electrons.

This is the **OCTET RULE**:

When forming bonds, atoms tend to saturate their valence shell in order to get the **electronic structure of the closest rare gas**.

With the exception of Hydrogen, all atoms involved in covalent bonding are surrounded by 8 electrons.

.....But there are many exceptions to the rule!!!

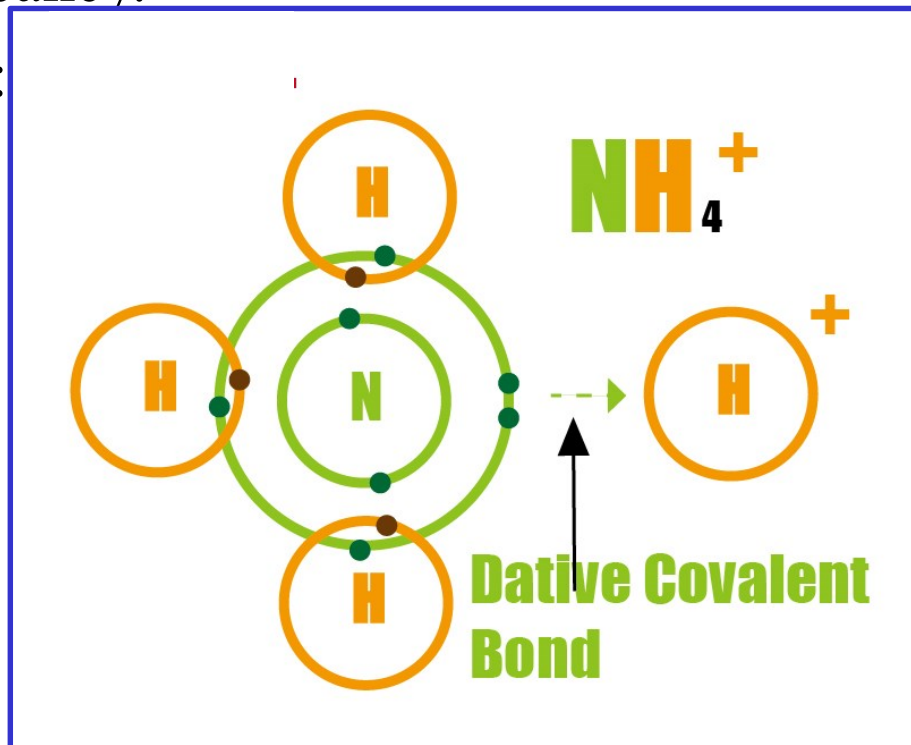
3-2) Dipolar or dative covalent bond



Here, atom B has a lone pair and brings both electrons to form the covalent bond. This is possible for 2 atoms when one atom has a lone pair and the other atom has an electron vacancy.

This kind of bond is strictly covalent : only the formation of the bond is different. Once formed it is similar to any covalent bond, but in the LEWIS representation it is represented by an arrow representing the bonding pair

B is called a **Lewis base** ; **A** is a **Lewis acid**

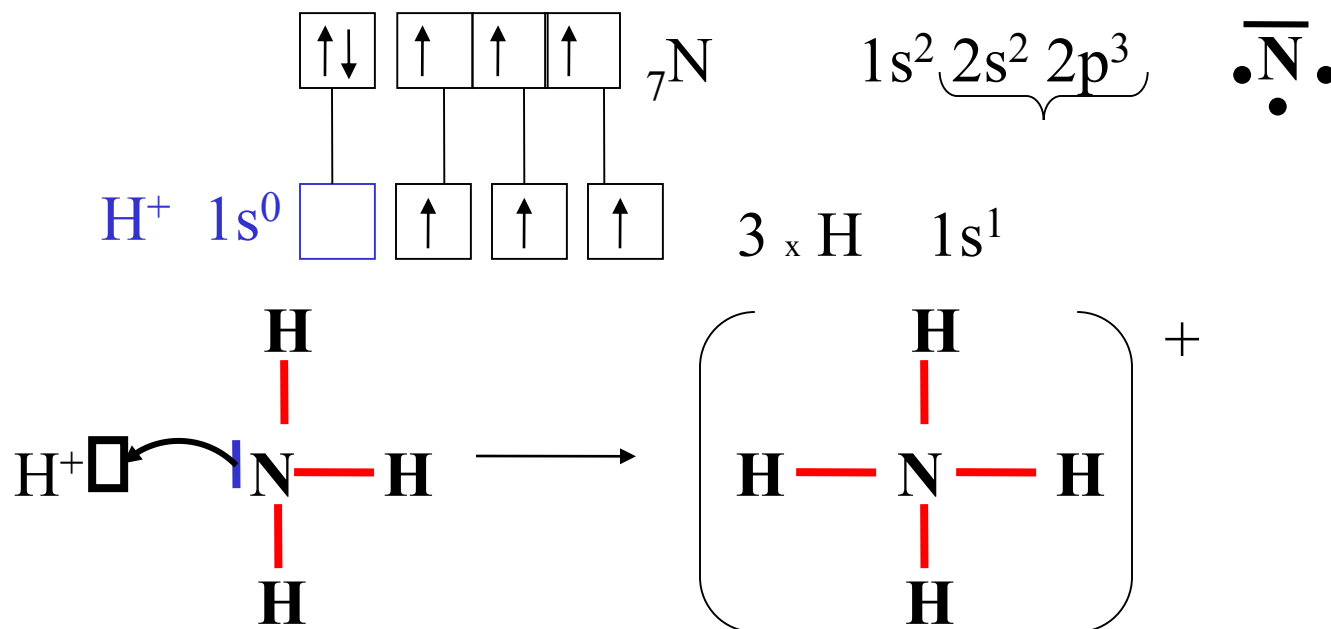


Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

Example : formation of the ammonium ion NH_4^+



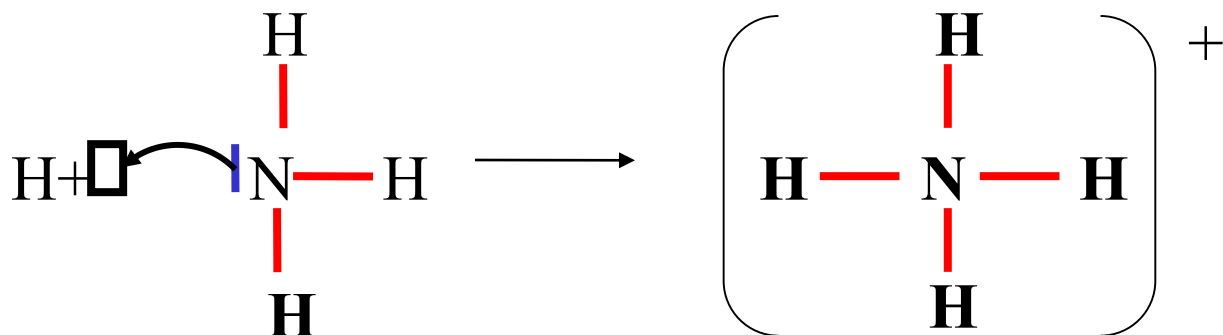
Nitrogen has one lone pair; a dative bond is possible.
 H^+ has an electron vacancy



All 4 bonds N - H are finally equivalent

Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

Formal charges



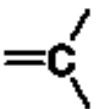
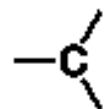
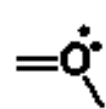
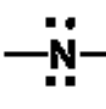
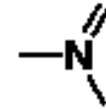
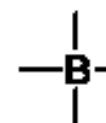
- One proton in excess compared to the number of electrons: the positive charge is assigned to the whole molecule
- Nitrogen is an electron provider: the lone pair of nitrogen is now shared with the hydrogen. Nitrogen has « lost » half of the pair, **formally one electron charge (+1)**.
- The H^+ has won a negative charge and **has become neutral (0)**.

Assuming that electrons are shared equally in a bond regardless of electronegativity, **the formal charge is:**

$$\text{Formal Charge} = (\text{valence number}) - (\text{number of bonds}) - (\text{non-bonding electrons})$$

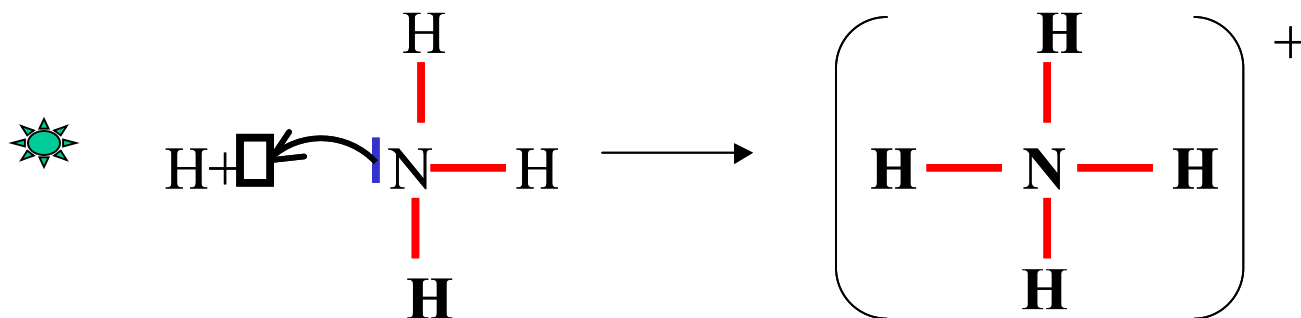
Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

Formal Charge = (valence number) - (number of bonds) - (non-bonding electrons)

Atom	Valence #	-	# bonds	-	nonbonded e's	=	Formal Charge
	4	-	4	-	0	=	0
	4	-	3	-	0	=	+1
	6	-	3	-	2	=	+1
	5	-	2	-	4	=	-1
	5	-	4	-	0	=	+1
	3	-	4	-	0	=	-1

Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

Example : calculating the formal charge for nitrogen in NH_4^+



- Nitrogen has 5 valence electrons.
- In NH_4^+ , nitrogen builds 4 bonds
- Nitrogen has 0 non bonding electrons

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Formal Charge (N)} &= (\text{valence number}) - (\text{number of bonds}) - (\text{non-bonding electrons}) \\ &= 5 - 4 = +1\end{aligned}$$

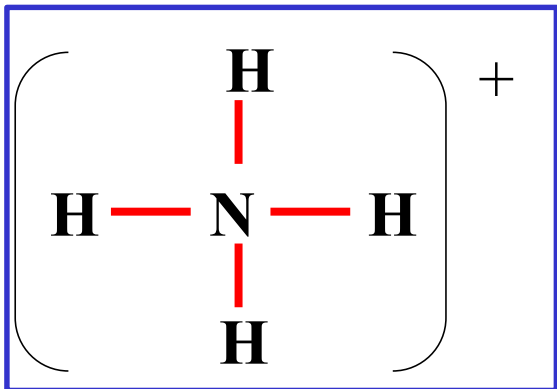
In this molecule, **nitrogen has a formal charge of +1**

On the other hand all **H atoms have a formal charge of 0.**

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Formal Charge (H)} &= (\text{valence number}) - (\text{number of bonds}) - (\text{non-bonding electrons}) \\ &= 1 - 1 = 0\end{aligned}$$

Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

The sum of all the formal charges of all the atoms is equal to the global charge. **0 for all neutral molecules.** Positive or negative values depending on the charge for ions.

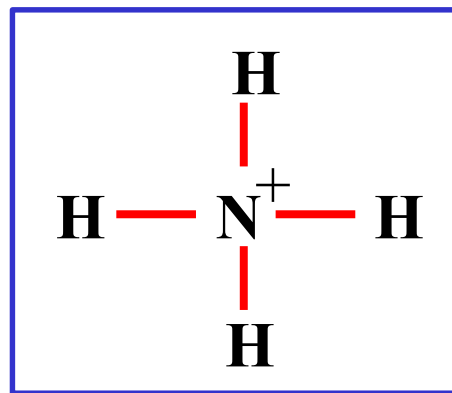


Ammonium ion:

$$\text{FC (N)} + 4 [\text{FC (H)}] = +1 + 4(0) = +1$$

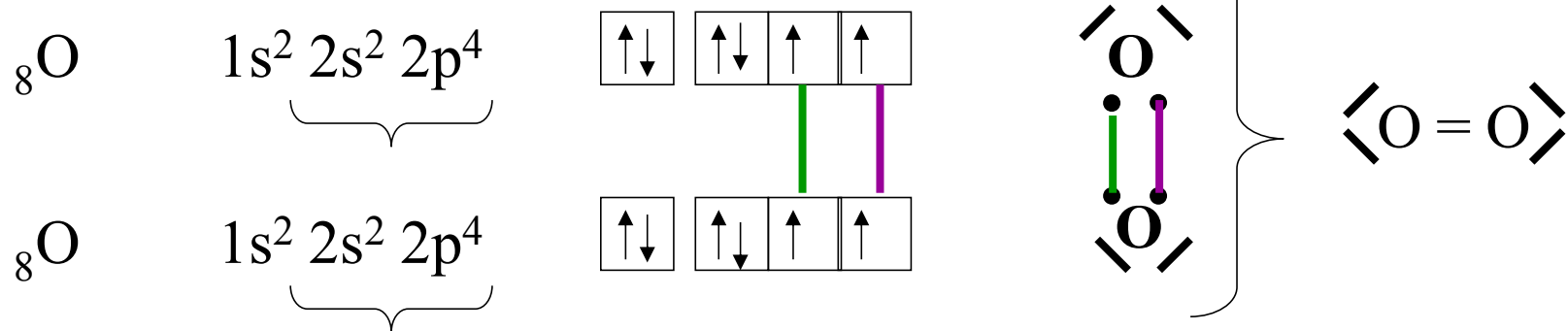
In the case of ammonium, the positive value corresponds to the loss of electron by the nitrogen.

The positive charge is indicated on N:

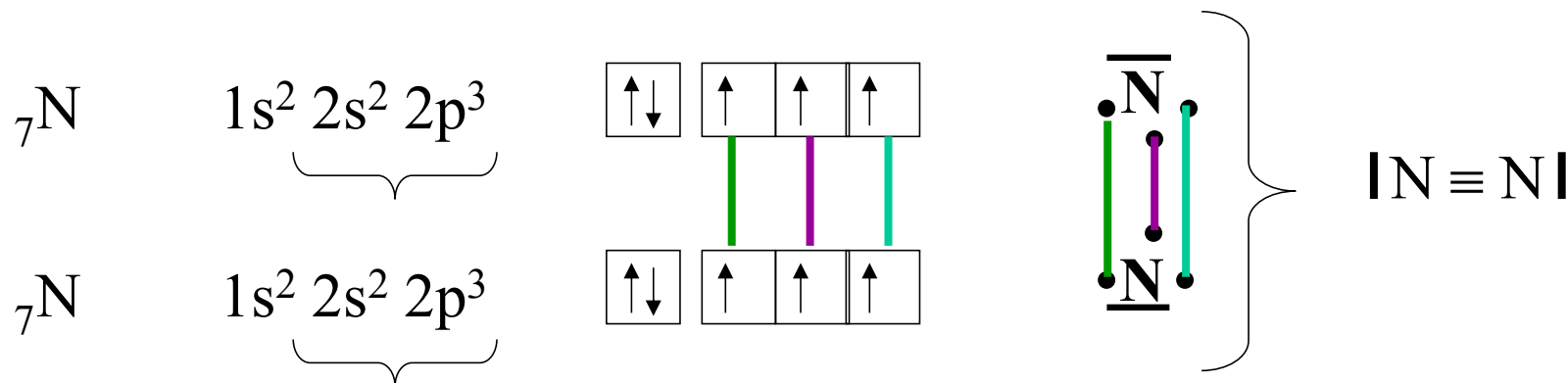


3-3) Multiple bonds: Double and triple bonds

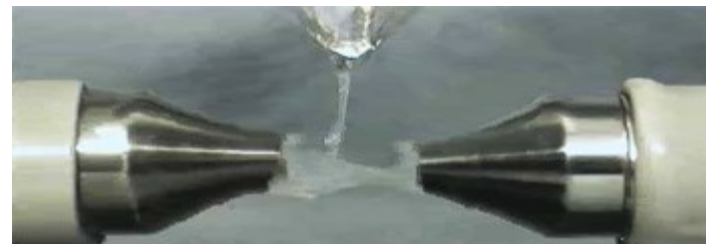
Example 1: O₂ molecule



Example 2 : N₂ molecule



O_2 is paramagnetic (and not N_2) !!



- Being **paramagnetic means** having **unpaired electrons** and the individual magnetic effects **do** not cancel each other out. The unpaired electrons carry a magnetic moment that gets stronger with the number of unpaired electrons causing the atom or ion to be attracted to an external magnetic field.
- **Note that according to the Lewis model O_2 has no unpaired electrons but according to Molecular Orbital (MO) theory it does have unpaired electrons. Since liquid O_2 does stick to a magnet, MO theory is better at explaining the behavior.**

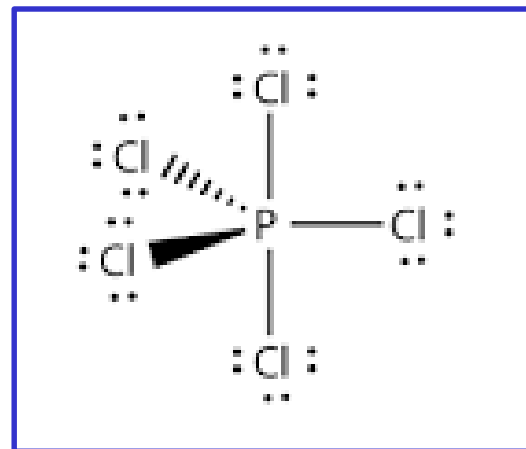
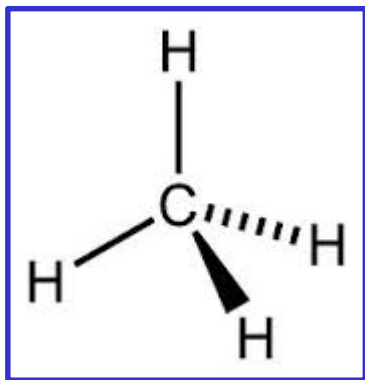
3-4) Valence states

- In some cases it is necessary to invoke a **valence state** of the atom to account for some molecules.

↔ First case: increasing the number of lone electrons

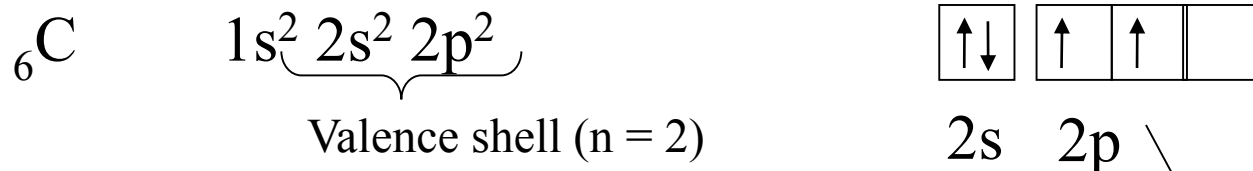
Examples:

- Methane CH_4 (**verifying the OCTET RULE**)
- Phosphorus pentachloride PCl_5 (**NOT verifying the OCTET RULE**)

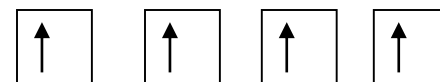
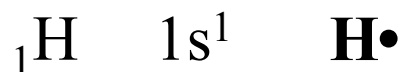


Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

Electronic configuration of carbon in the fundamental state:

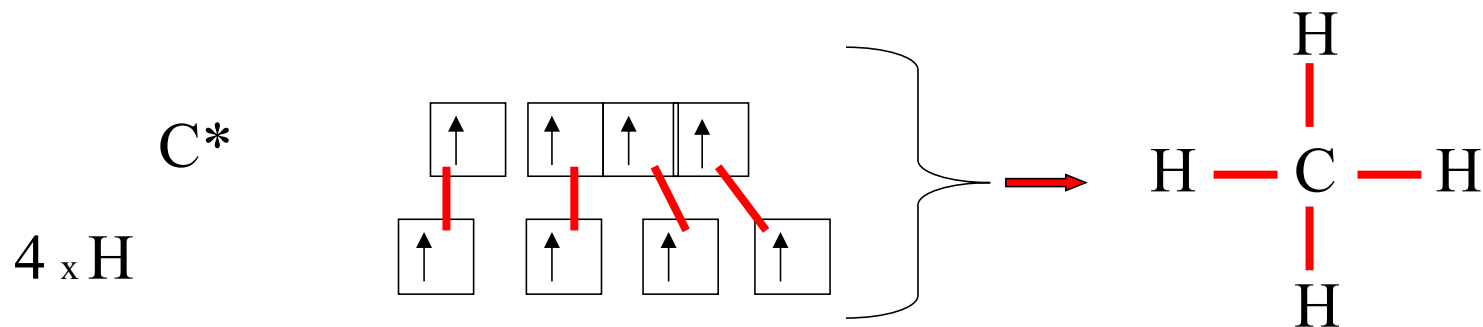


4 bonds with hydrogen?



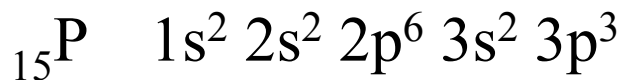
In order to form 4 C-H bonds, 4 single electrons are needed.

Here the carbon is in a valence state, maximizing the number of single electrons.

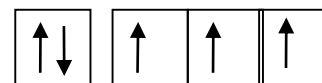


Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

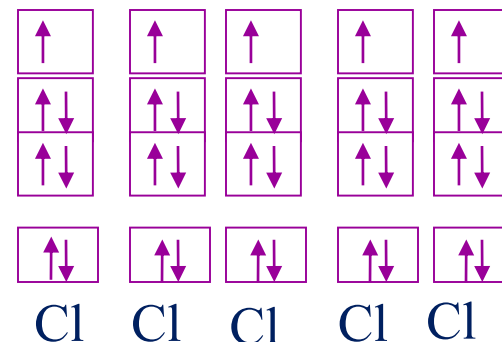
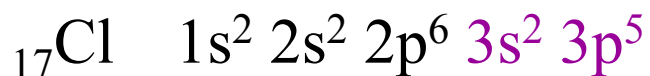
Electronic configuration of phosphorus in the fundamental state:



Valence shell ($n = 3$)

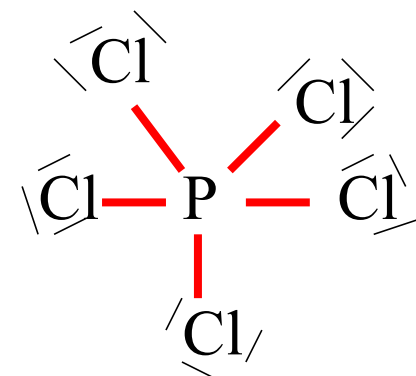
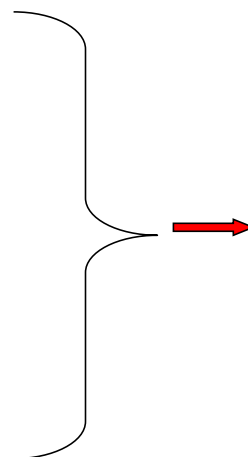
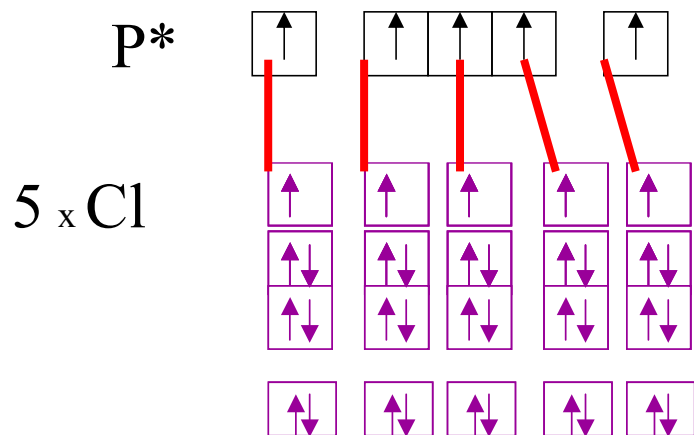


5 bonds with chlorine atoms ?



In order to form 5 P-Cl bonds, 5 single electrons are needed

The valence state of P in PCl_5 is :



($\neq$ Règle de l'octet)



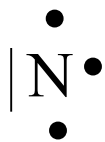
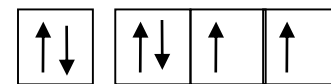
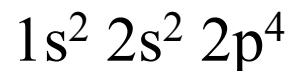
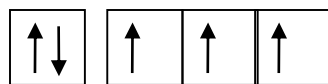
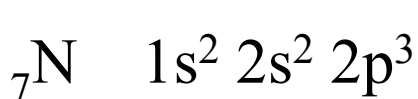
Second case: creating empty orbitals

Instead of maximizing the number of single electrons, it can be necessary to create additional lone pairs in order to create empty quantum cells

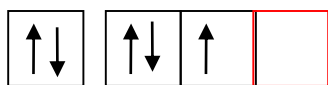
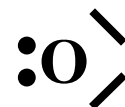
Exemple : N₂O (SO₂) ...

Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

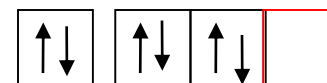
N_2O : N is connected to another N and to O



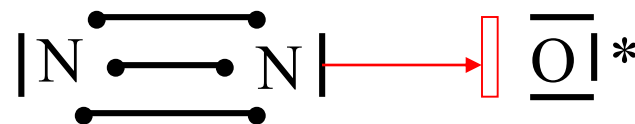
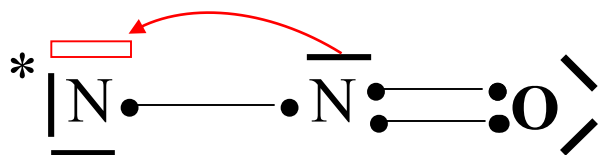
Two possibilities



Creation of an empty cell
for N
 $\equiv$ Valence state N^*

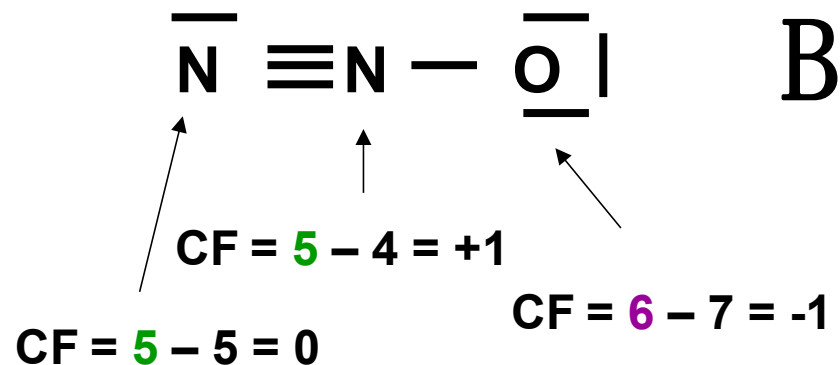
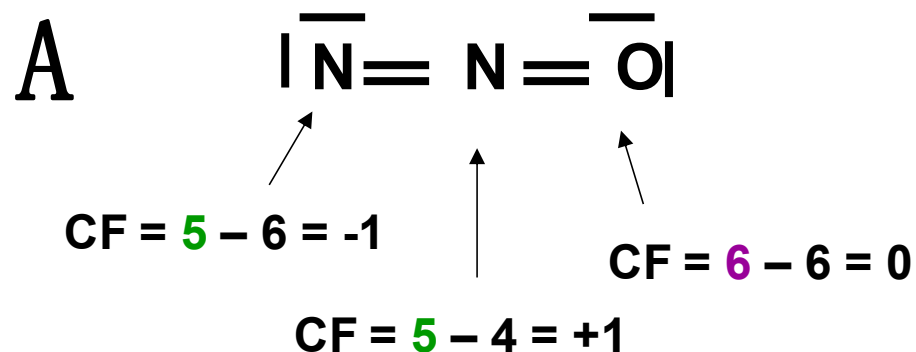
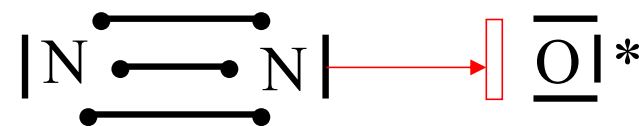
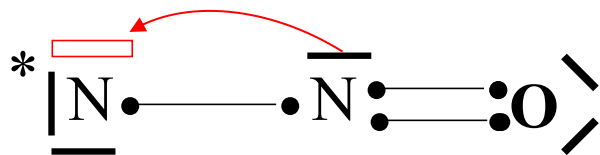


Creation of an empty cell
for O
 $\equiv$ Valence state O^*



Chapter 6 – 3. Covalent Lewis model

An empty cell can be created in the valence shell of nitrogen or oxygen: different Lewis structures are possible :



Formal Charge = (valence number) - (number of bonds) - (non-bonding electrons)

3- 5) Mesomerism or resonance

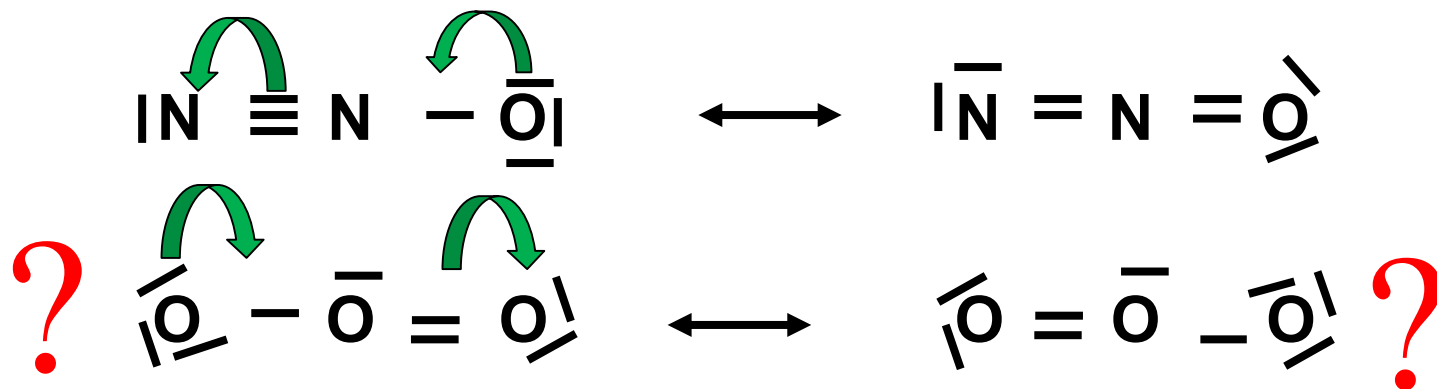
The structures A and B differ only by the positions of lone pairs

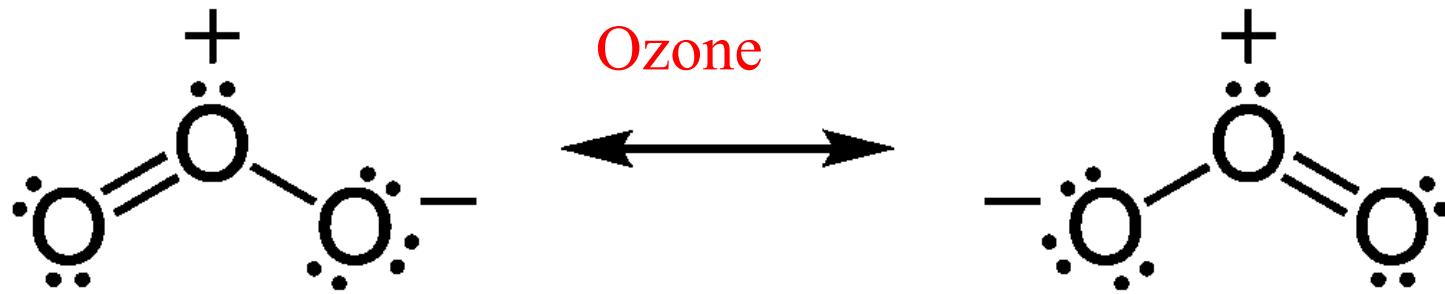
This is called delocalization of electrons

The real structure cannot be represented by a single structure. It is called a **HYBRID** of structure A and B.

Both structure A and B are:

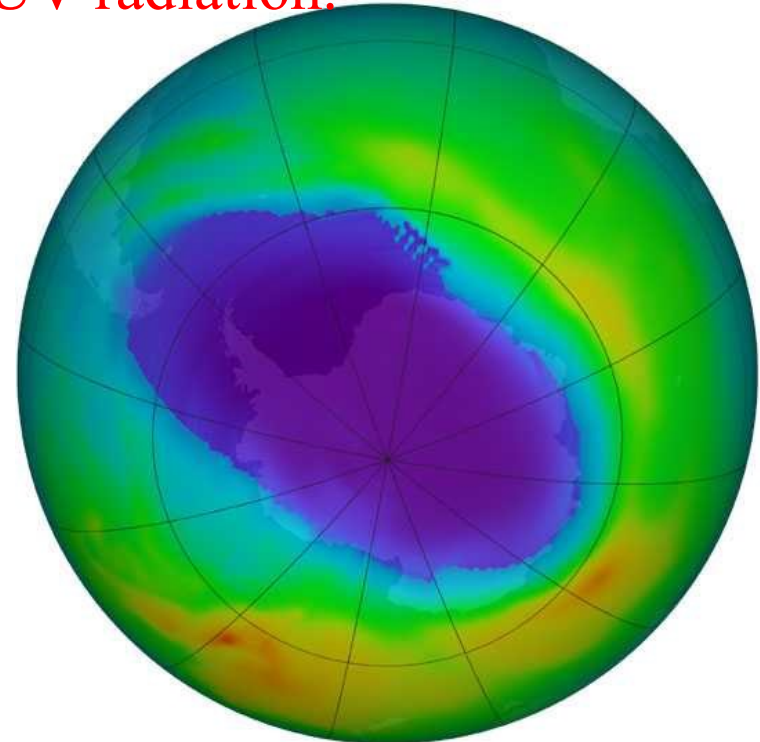
Resonance or mesomeric structure



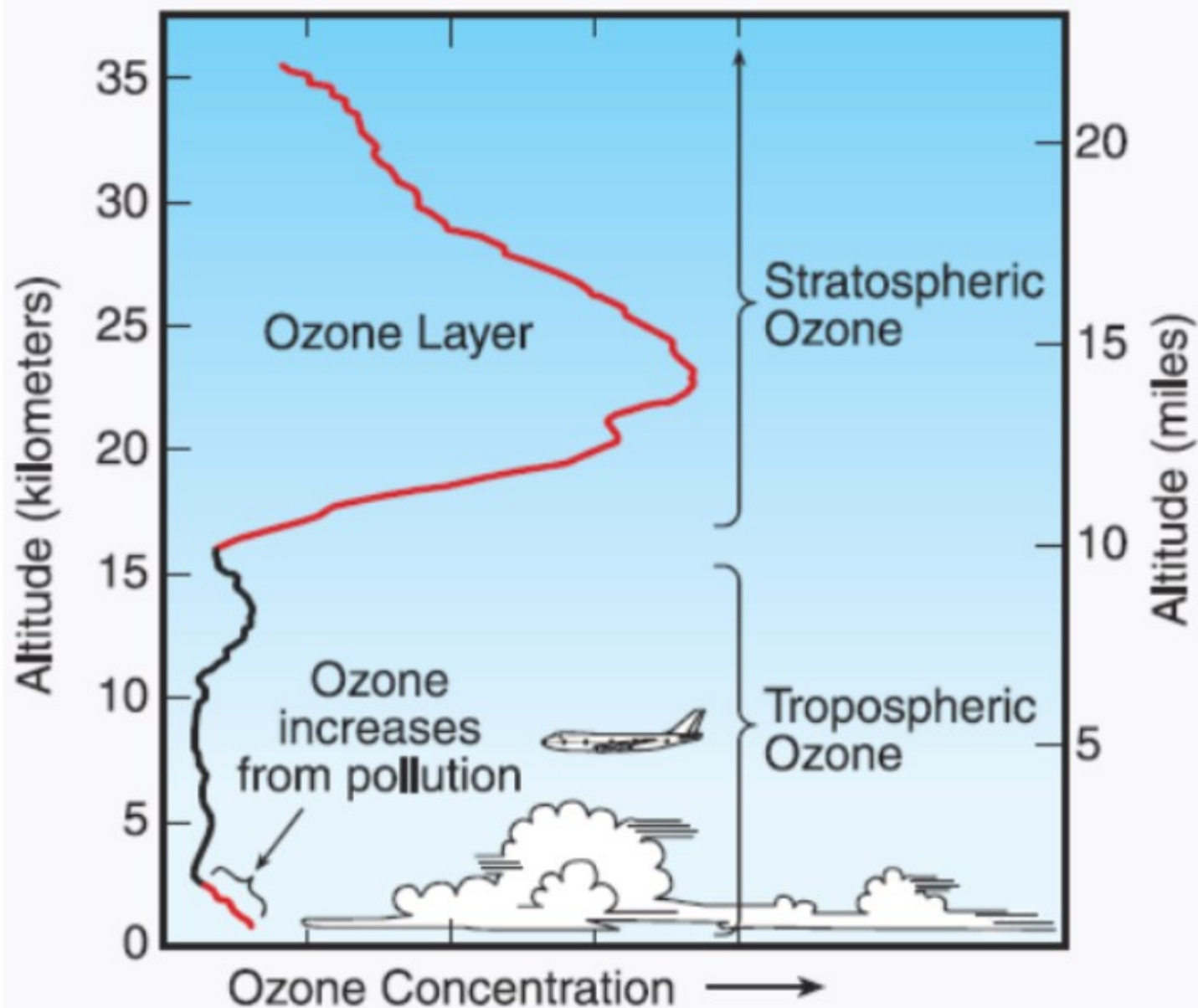


Ozone is toxic for humans at a certain level in the troposphere.

The Ozone hole is observed at the altitude of 25 km in the stratosphere. It is protecting living organism from strong UV radiation.

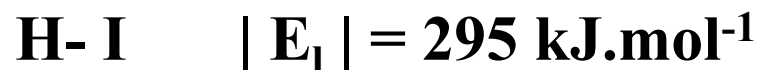


Ozone in the Atmosphere



3-6) Bond energy

- The bond energy E_1 corresponds to the energy (negative value) used to form the bond from the initial isolated atoms
- The absolute value $|E_1|$ corresponds to the necessary energy to break the bond? The value $|E_1|$ depends on:
 - The chemical species involved:



- The multiplicity of the bond:



3-7) Conclusion

The Lewis structure has no physical reality. Atoms do not really “share” electrons. But Lewis structures are most of the time good symbolic representations of covalent bonds.

- **The Lewis model** allows to understand basic mechanism of formation and breaking of bonds:
 - Not adapted to describe hybrid structures.
 - Does not allow to understand the geometry of the molecules which is crucial to chemical and biological properties.



VSEPR theory

Quelques règles de nomenclature

1) Composés moléculaires minéraux

En général, ils sont composés de 2 non- métaux : $A_x B_y$

Le plus électronégatif est écrit à droite

☀ *On commence par nommer l'élément écrit à droite*

Si B est l'oxygène, on parle d'oxyde.

Souvent **racine** du nom **de l'élément B** + **terminaison ure**

Ex: si $B = Cl$, on parle de **chlorure**

☀ *Si $y > 1$, on affecte le nom d'un préfixe*

Di, Tri, Tetra, Penta, Hexa etc...

Ex: $Si O_2$ C'est un **Dioxyde**

☀ *Puis on nomme l'élément écrit à gauche en l'affectant d'un préfixe*

si $x > 1$ **Di, Tri, Tetra, Penta, Hexa** etc...

Ex: PCl_5 **pentachlorure** de **phosphore**; SF_6 **hexafluorure** de **soufre**

$Si O_2$ **dioxyde** de **silicium**; $N_2 O$ **monoxyde** de **diazote**

2) Composés ioniques : écriture et nomenclature

✱ On écrit le cation à gauche et l'anion à droite.



✱ On nomme l'anion en premier, ensuite le cation.

IV-1-a) Composés ioniques binaires: NaBr , K_2S , CaCl_2 , FeCl_3

✱ *Nomenclature de l'anion* : Souvent, **racine du nom de l'élément**
+ **terminaison URE**



Pour S et N, **racine latine** + **URE**

SulfURE pour S

NitrURE pour N

Pour O, **OXYDE**

✱ *Nomenclature du cation* : nom de l'élément. Attention, certains cations peuvent exister sous des formes ioniques différentes

ex: Na^+Br^- bromure de sodium ; K_2S ($2\text{K}^+\text{S}^{2-}$) sulfure de potassium

CaCl_2 ($\text{Ca}^{2+}, 2\text{Cl}^-$) chlorure de calcium ; FeCl_3 ($\text{Fe}^{3+}, 3\text{Cl}^-$) chlorure de fer(III)

IV-1-B) Composés ioniques polyatomiques

Même principe (on nomme l'anion puis le cation)

NH_4^+ ammonium

NO_3^- nitrate

SO_4^{2-} sulfate

PO_4^{3-} phosphate

H_2PO_4^- dihydrogénophosphate

CO_3^{2-} carbonate

HCO_3^- hydrogénocarbonate

ClO^- hypochlorite

ClO_4^- perchlorate

HPO_4^{2-} hydrogénophosphate

MnO_4^- permanganate

CN^- cyanure

SCN^- thiocyanate

H^- hydrure

HO^- hydroxyde