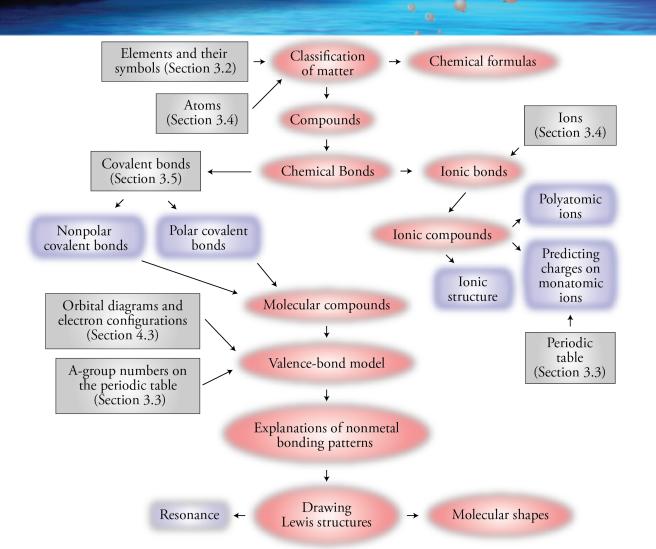
# Chapter 5 Chemical Compounds

# An Introduction to Chemistry by Mark Bishop

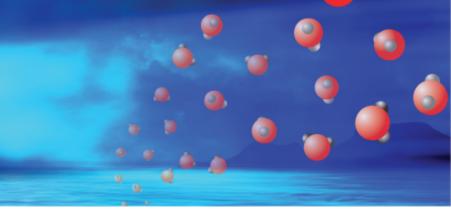
### Chapter Map

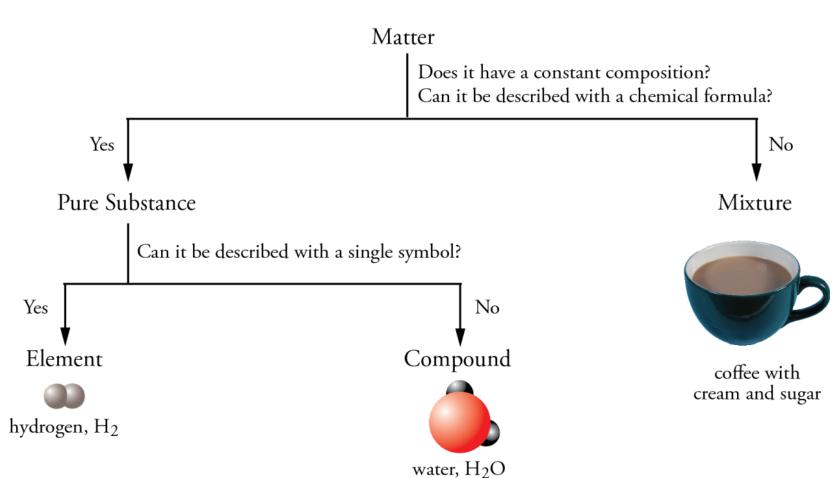


### Elements, Compounds, and Mixtures

- Element: A substance that cannot be chemically converted into simpler substances; a substance in which all of the atoms have the same number of protons and therefore the same chemical characteristics.
- Compound: A substance that contains two or more elements, the atoms of these elements always combining in the same whole-number ratio.
- Mixture: A sample of matter that contains two or more pure substances (elements and compounds) and has variable composition.

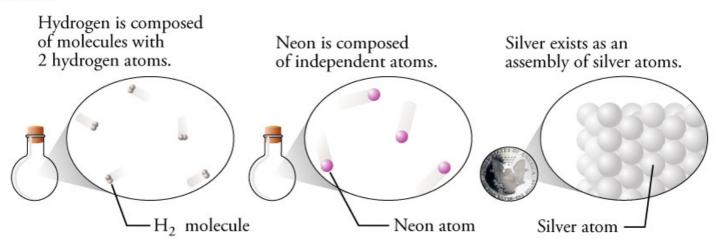
### Classification of Matter





### Elements and Compounds

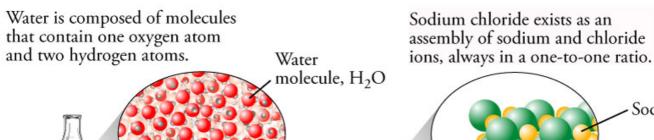




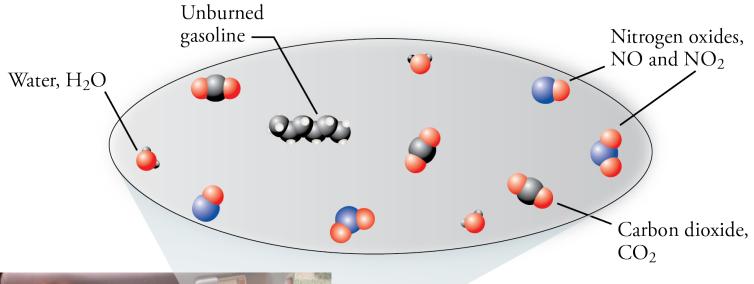
Sodium ion

Chloride ion

### **COMPOUNDS**

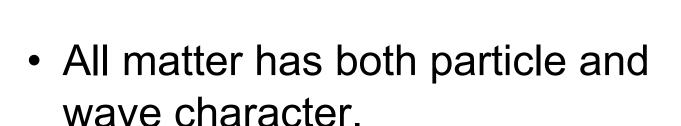


# Exhaust – a Mixture



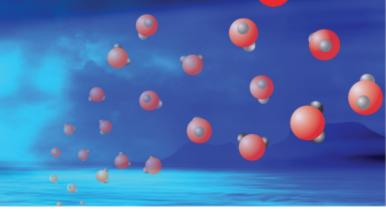


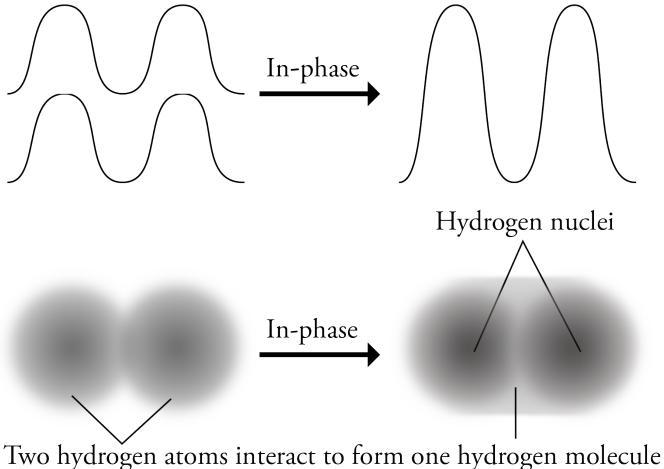
### Particle and Wave Nature



- The less massive the particle, the more important its wave character.
- The electron has a very low mass, low enough to have significant wave character.

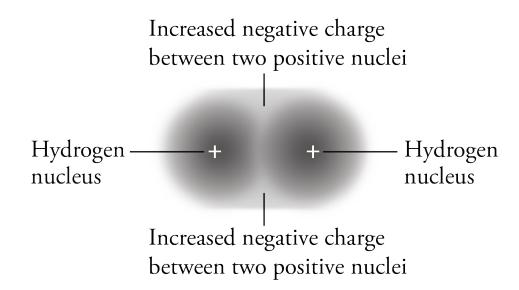
### Covalent Bond Formation





### Covalent Bond Formation

- Increased negative charge between the two positive nuclei leads to increased +/- attraction and holds the atoms together.
- Covalent bond = a link between atoms due to the sharing of two electrons



### Molecule

- Molecule = an uncharged collection of atoms held together by covalent bonds.
- Two hydrogen atoms combine to form a hydrogen molecule, which is described with the formula H<sub>2</sub>.

### Nonpolar Covalent Bond

 If the electrons are shared equally, there is a even distribution of the negative charge for the electrons in the bond, so there is no partial charges on the atoms. The bond is called a nonpolar covalent bond.

Plane between atoms

-1

-1

Hydrogen

+

Hydrogen

nucleus

### Polar Covalent Bond

• If one atom in the bond attracts electrons more than the other atom, the electron negative charge shifts to that atom giving it a partial negative charge. The other atom loses negative charge giving it a partial positive charge. The bond is called a *polar covalent bond*.

Electrons shift toward the chlorine atom, forming partial plus and minus charges.

δ+

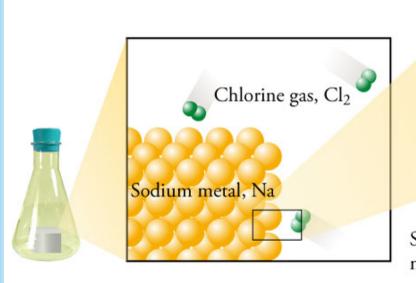
Hydrogen attracts electrons less.

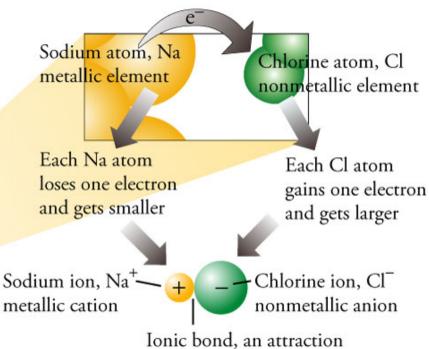
Classian Chlorine attracts electrons more.

### Ionic Bond

- The attraction between cation and anion.
- Atoms of nonmetallic elements often attract electrons so much more strongly than atoms of metallic elements that one or more electrons are transferred from the metallic atom (forming a positively charged particle or *cation*), to the nonmetallic atom (forming a negatively charged particle or *anion*).
- For example, an uncharged chlorine atom can pull one electron from an uncharged sodium atom, yielding Cl<sup>-</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup>.

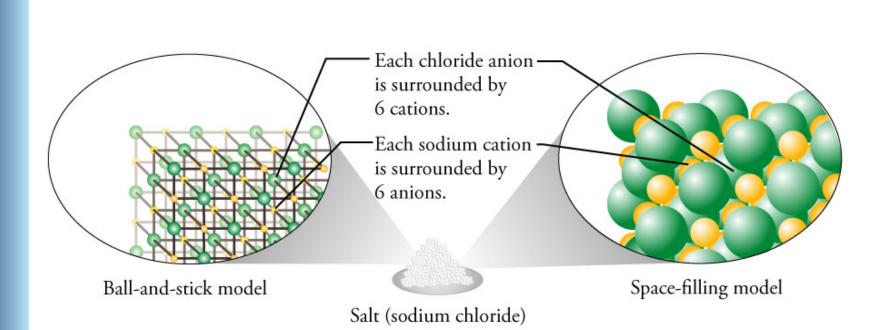
### Ionic Bond Formation





between a cation and an anion

### Sodium Chloride, NaCl, Structure



### Bond Types

### Nonpolar Covalent Bond

Equal sharing of electrons

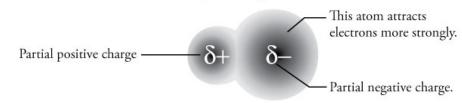
Both atoms attract electrons equally (or nearly so).



No significant charges form.

### Polar Covalent Bond

Unequal sharing of electrons



### **Ionic Bond**

Strong attraction between positive and negative charges.

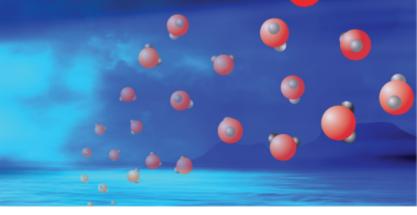
This atom loses
one or more electrons and gains a positive charge.

This atom attracts electrons so much more strongly than the other atom that it gains one or more electrons and gains a negative charge.

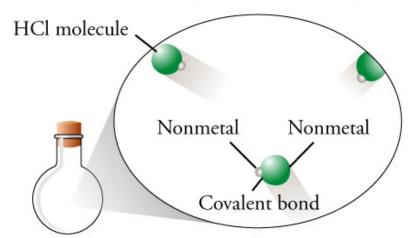
# Types of Compounds

- All nonmetallic atoms usually leads to all covalent bonds, which from molecules. These compounds are called molecular compounds.
- Metal-nonmetal combinations usually lead to ionic bonds and *ionic* compounds.

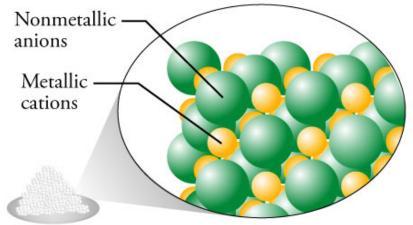
# Classification of Compounds







### Ionic compound Sodium chloride, NaCl, solid



# Summary

- Nonmetal-nonmetal combinations (e.g. HCI)
  - Covalent bonds
  - Molecules
  - Molecular Compound
- Metal-nonmetal combinations (e.g. NaCl)
  - Probably ionic bonds
  - Alternating cations and anions in crystal structure
  - Ionic compound

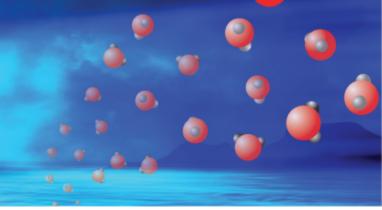
### Cations and Anions

- Atoms of the metallic elements have relatively weak attractions for their electrons, so they tend to lose electrons and form monatomic cations (cations composed of one atom, such as Na<sup>+</sup>).
- Atoms of the nonmetallic elements have relatively strong attractions for electrons, so they tend to gain electrons and form monatomic anions (anions composed of one atom, such as Cl<sup>-</sup>).
- Therefore, when metallic and nonmetallic atoms combine, they usually form ions and ionic bonds.

# Predicting Ion Charges

- Noble gas atoms are very stable, so when the nonmetallic atoms form anions, they gain enough electrons to get the same number of electrons as the nearest larger noble gas atom.
- When the aluminum and the metallic atoms in Groups 1, 2, and 3 form cations, they lose enough electrons to get the same number of electrons as the nearest smaller noble gas atom.

# The Making of an Anion



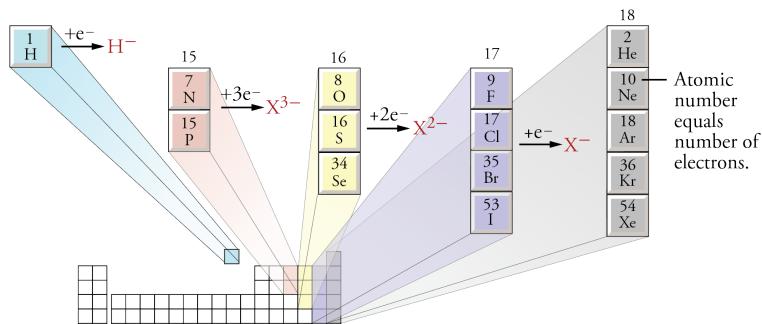
When a hydrogen atom gains one electron,

or when an atom in group 15 gains three electrons,

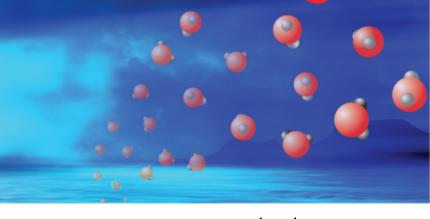
or when an atom in group 16 gains two electrons,

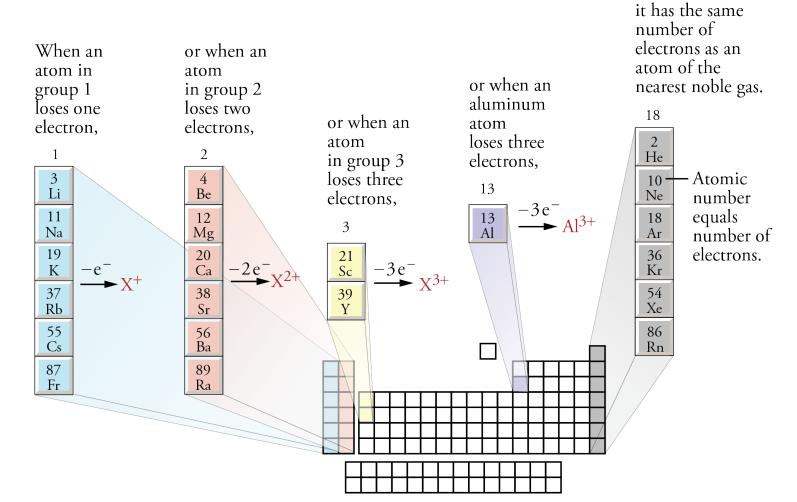
or when an atom in group 17 gains one electron,

it has the same number of electrons as an atom of the nearest noble gas.

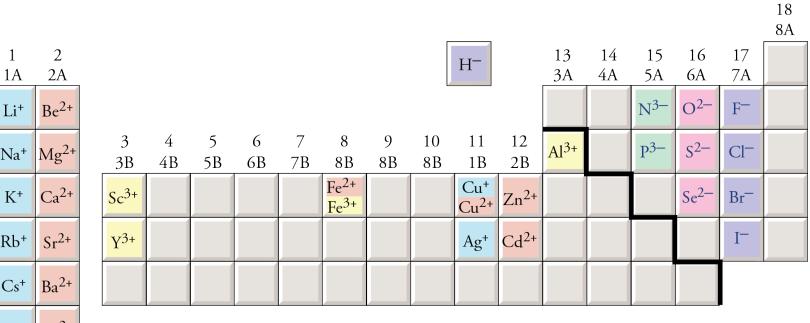


# The Making of a Cation





### Monatomic lons



1A Li<sup>+</sup> Na<sup>+</sup> K+ Rb+  $Cs^+$ Ra<sup>2+</sup>

### Monatomic Ion Names

- Monatomic Cations
  - (name of metal)
    - Groups 1, 2, and 3 metals
    - Al<sup>3+</sup>, Zn<sup>2+</sup>, Cd<sup>2+</sup>, Ag<sup>+</sup>
  - (name of metal)(Roman numeral)
    - All metallic cations not mentioned above
- Monatomic Anions
  - (root of nonmetal name)ide

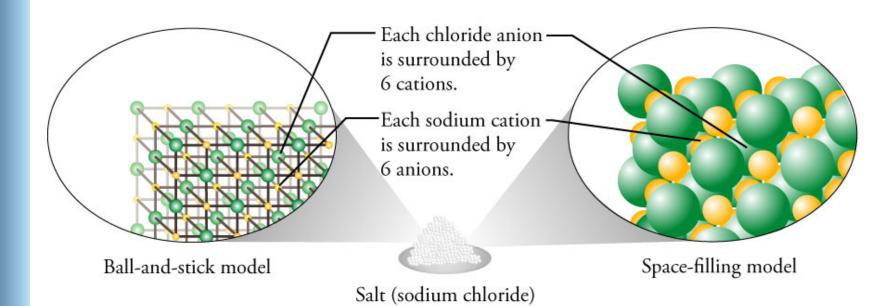
### Monatomic Anions

hydride, H<sup>-</sup> nitride, N<sup>3-</sup> phosphide, P<sup>3-</sup> oxide, O<sup>2-</sup> sulfide, S<sup>2-</sup> selenide, Se<sup>2-</sup>

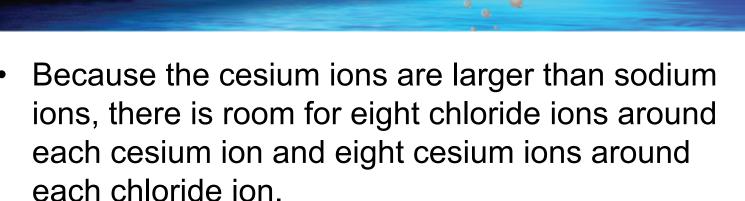
fluoride, F-chloride, Cl-bromide, Br-iodide, I-

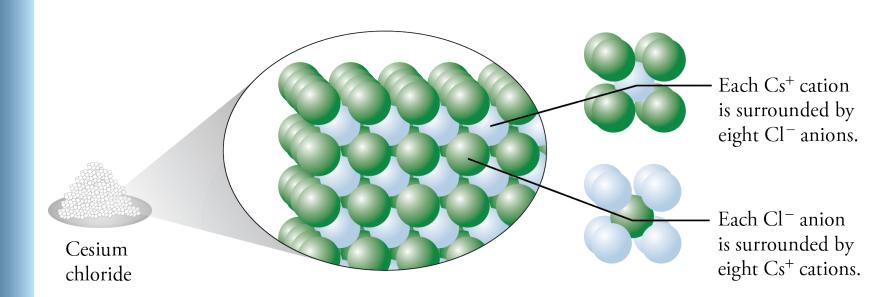
### Sodium Chloride, NaCl, Structure





### Cesium chloride, CsCl, Structure

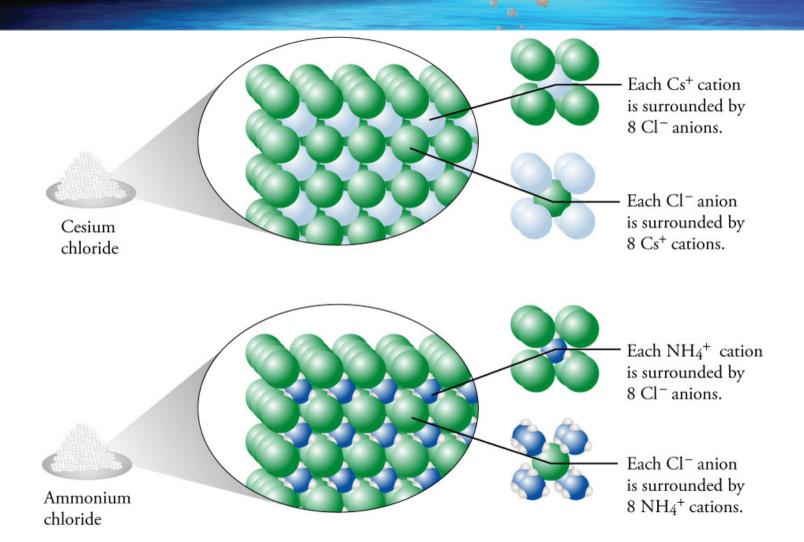




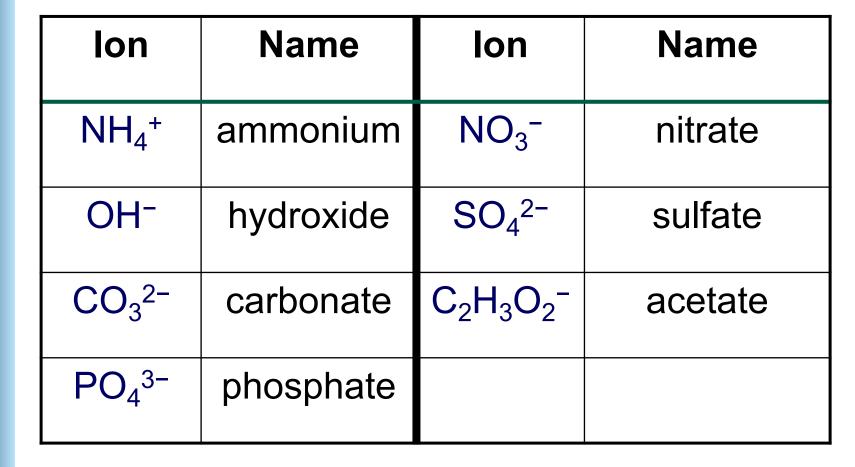
### Polyatomic lons

- Some anions and cations contain more than one atom.
- Polyatomic ion = a charge collection of atoms held together by covalent bonds
- For example, it is possible for a nitrogen atom to form covalent bonds to four hydrogen atoms, but to make this possible the nitrogen atom has to lose an electron, giving the collection of atoms a plus one charge. This will be explained in more detail in a later lesson. This collection of atoms with the formula NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is called the ammonium ion.

# CsCl and NH<sub>4</sub>Cl structure



### Polyatomic lons



# Models – Advantages and Disadvantages (1)

- They help us to visualize, explain, and predict chemical changes.
- Because a model is a simplified version of what we think is true, the processes it depicts are sometimes described using the phrase as if. When you read, "It is as if an electron were promoted from one orbital to another," the phrase is a reminder that we do not necessarily think this is what really happens. We merely find it useful to talk about the process as if this is the way it happens.

# Models – Advantages and Disadvantages (2)

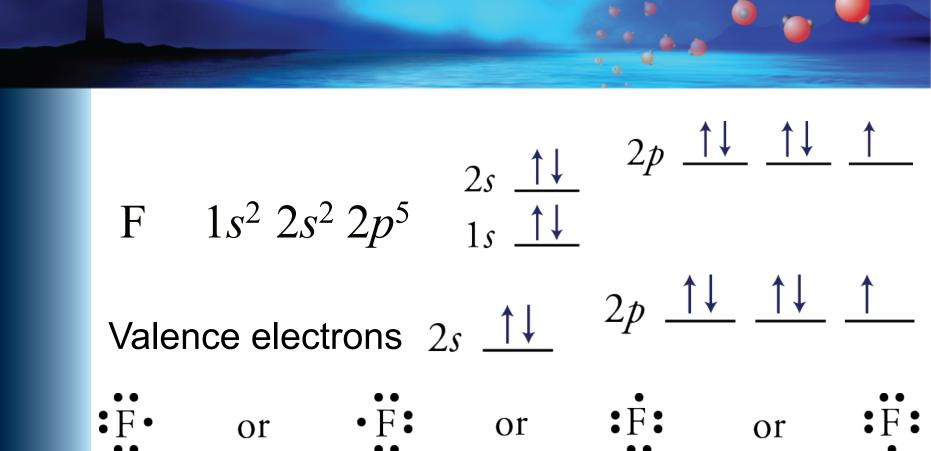
 One characteristic of models is that they change with time. Because our models are simplifications of what we think is real, we are not surprised when they sometimes fail to explain experimental observations. When this happens, the model is altered to fit the new observations.

### Assumptions of the Valence-Bond Model

- Only the highest energy electrons participate in bonding.
- Covalent bonds usually form to pair unpaired electrons.

### Fluorine

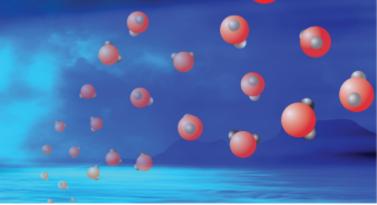
or



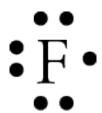
$$: F \cdot \bigcup_{i \in F} F : F : F : F$$

or

### Electron-Dot Symbols and Lewis Structures



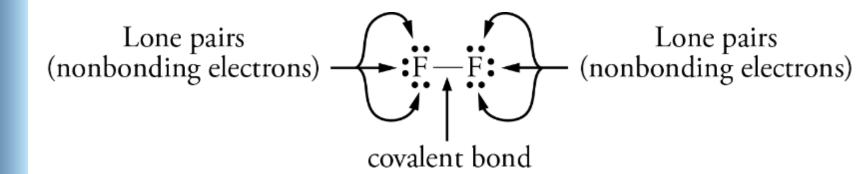
 Electron-dot symbols show valence electrons.



 Nonbonding pairs of valence electrons are called *lone pairs*.

#### Lewis Structures

 Lewis structures represent molecules using element symbols, lines for bonds, and dots for lone pairs.





 The unpaired electron on a hydrogen atom makes the atom unstable.

 Two hydrogen atoms combine to form one hydrogen molecule.

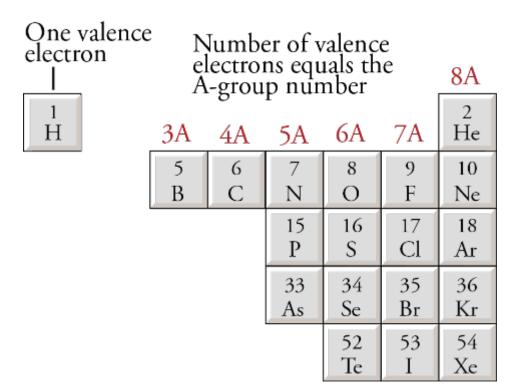
$$H 
ightharpoonup H 
i$$

#### Valence Electrons

- The valence electrons for each atom are the most important electrons in the formation of chemical bonds.
- The number of valence electrons for the atoms of each element is equal to the element's A-group number on the periodic table.
- Covalent bonds often form to pair unpaired electrons and give the atoms of the elements other than hydrogen and boron eight valence electrons (an octet of valence electrons).

#### Valence Electrons

 Valence electrons are the highestenergy s and p electrons in an atom.



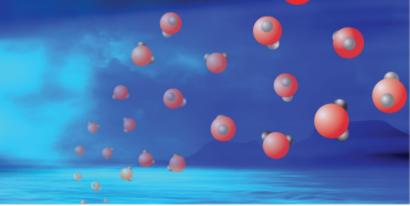
### Carbon – 4 bonds



$$4H \cdot + \cdot \dot{C} \cdot \rightarrow H : \dot{C} : H \text{ or } \dot{H}$$

Methane, CH<sub>4</sub>

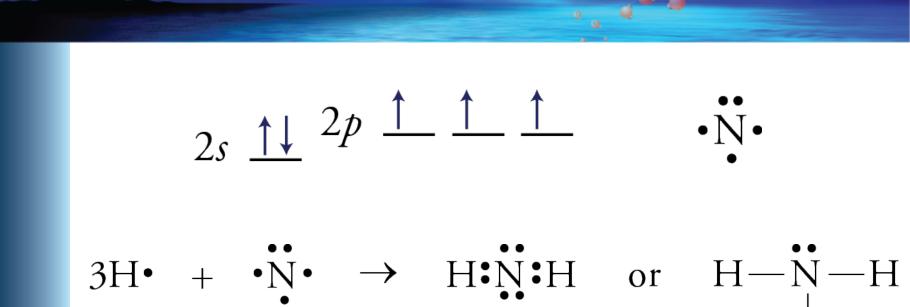
# Carbon – Multiple Bonds



$$4H^{\bullet} + 2 \cdot \dot{C}^{\bullet} \rightarrow H^{\bullet}C^{\bullet}C^{\bullet}H \text{ or } H^{-}C^{=}C^{-}H$$
Ethene (ethylene)
$$2H^{\bullet} + 2 \cdot \dot{C}^{\bullet} \rightarrow H^{\bullet}C^{\bullet}C^{\bullet}H \text{ or } H^{-}C^{=}C^{-}H$$
Ethyne (acetylene)

 $-\dot{C}$  or  $-\dot{C}$  or  $-\dot{C}$  or  $-\dot{C}$ 

#### Nitrogen – 3 bonds & 1 lone pair



Ammonia, NH<sub>3</sub>

$$-\ddot{N}$$
 or  $-\ddot{N}$  or  $\equiv N$ :

#### Nitrogen – 4 bonds



$$2s \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{-1e^{-}} 2s \xrightarrow{\uparrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow}$$

$$4H \cdot + \cdot N \cdot \rightarrow H : N : H$$

Ammonium, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>

#### Oxygen – 2 bonds & 2 lone pairs



$$2s \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} \uparrow \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \vdots \circ \bullet$$

$$2H \cdot + \vdots \circ \bullet \rightarrow \vdots \circ \vdots H \quad \text{or} \quad \vdots \circ -H$$

$$H \quad H$$

$$Water, H_2O$$

# Oxygen – 1 bond & 3 lone pairs



$$2s \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} \uparrow \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{+1e^{-}} 2s \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} \uparrow \downarrow \uparrow$$

$$\vdots \vdots \cdot$$

$$H \cdot + : O \cdot \rightarrow : O : H \quad \text{or} \quad \left[ : O - H \right]^{-}$$

Hydroxide, OH-

# Carbon – 3 bonds & 1 lone pair Oxygen – 3 bonds & 1 lone pair

Carbon monoxide, CO

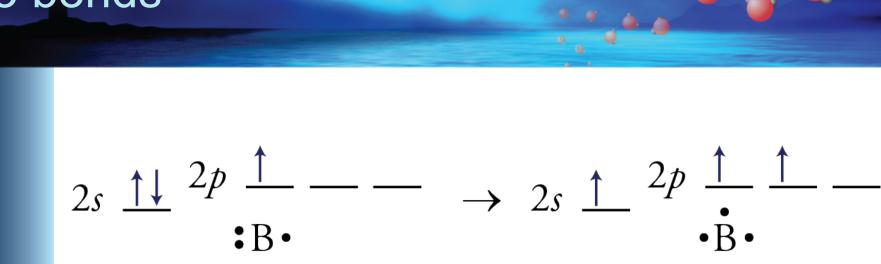
$$2s \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow} - - \xrightarrow{+1e^{-}} 2s \xrightarrow{\downarrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow}$$

$$\vdots \dot{\varsigma} \cdot$$

$$2s \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow\downarrow} \uparrow \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{-1e^{-}} 2s \xrightarrow{\downarrow\downarrow} 2p \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \uparrow \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \uparrow$$

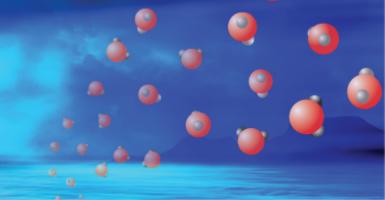
$$\vdots \circ \bullet$$

### Boron – 3 bonds



Boron trifluoride, BF<sub>3</sub>

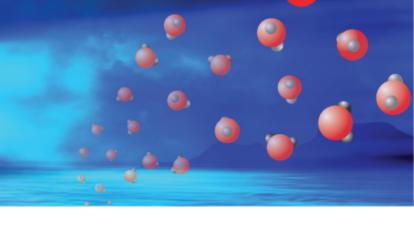
# Halogens – 1 bond & 3 lone pairs



$$ns \xrightarrow{\uparrow \downarrow} np \xrightarrow{\uparrow \downarrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow} \xrightarrow{\uparrow}$$

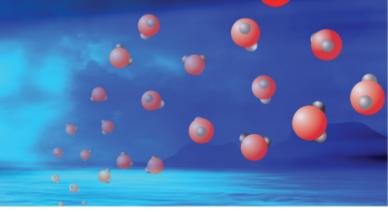
$$H^{\bullet} + {}^{\bullet}X^{\bullet} \rightarrow H^{\bullet}X^{\bullet}$$
 or  $H - X^{\bullet} = F$ , Cl, Br, or I

# Most Common Bonding Patterns for Nonmetals

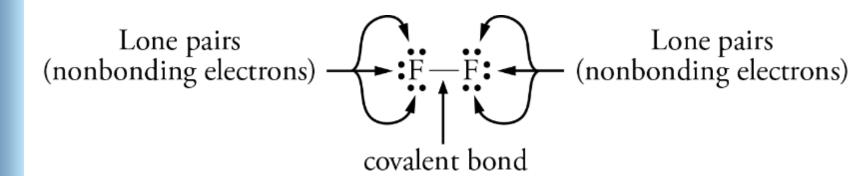


Element	# Bonds	# lone pairs		
Н	1	0		
С	4	0		
N, P	3	1		
O, S, Se	2	2		
F, Cl, Br, I	1	3		

### Drawing Lewis Structures



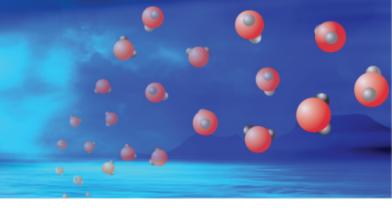
- This section describes how to draw Lewis structures from chemical formulas.
- Lewis structures represent molecules using element symbols, lines for bonds, and dots for lone pairs.



# Short Procedue for Drawing Lewis Structures

 The first procedure involves drawing Lewis structures by attempting to give each atom in a molecule its most common bonding pattern.

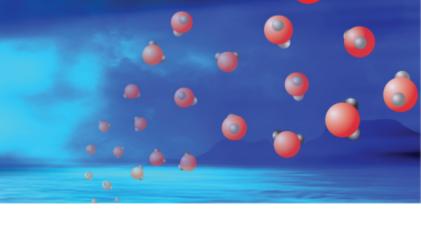
# Most Common Bonding Patterns for Nonmetals



Number of lone pair Number of bond		0 4	1 3	2 2	3	8A
	3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	2 He
	5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
			15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
			33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
				52 Te	53 I	54 Xe

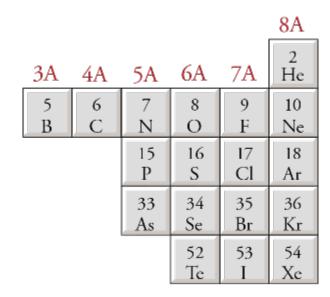
https://preparatorychemistry.com/Bishop\_periodic\_table.pdf

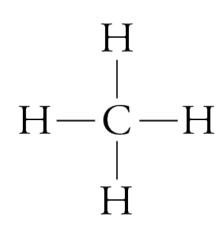
## Example 1 Short Technique



#### Methane, CH<sub>4</sub>

- Hydrogen atoms have 1 bond and no lone pairs.
- Carbon atoms usually have 4 bonds and no lone pairs.



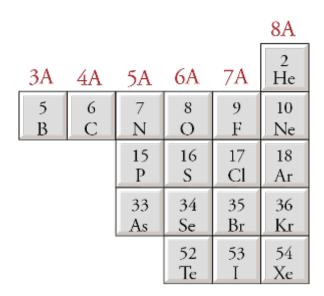


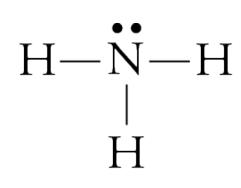
# Example 2 Short Technique



#### Ammonia, NH<sub>3</sub>

- Hydrogen atoms have 1 bond and no lone pairs.
- Nitrogen atoms usually have 3 bonds and 1 lone pair.





# Example 3 Short Technique



- Hydrogen atoms have 1 bond and no lone pairs.
- Oxygen atoms usually have 2 bonds and 2 lone pairs.

					8A
3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	2 He
5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
		15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
		33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
			52 Te	53 I	54 Xe

$$H - O - H$$

# Example 4 Short Technique

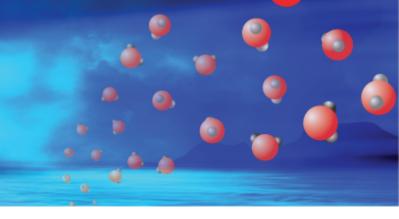


- Hydrogen atoms have 1 bond and no lone pairs.
- Oxygen atoms usually have 2 bonds and 2 lone pairs.
- Chlorine atoms usually have one bond and three lone pairs.

	•				8A
3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	2 He
5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
		15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
		33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
			52 Te	53 I	54 Xe

$$H - O - Cl$$

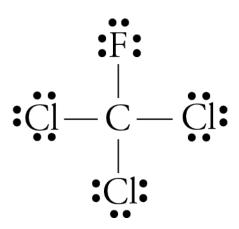
# Example 5 Short Technique



#### CFC-11, CCI<sub>3</sub>F

- Carbon atoms usually have 4 bonds and no lone pairs.
- Both fluorine and chlorine atoms usually have one bond and three lone pairs.

					8A
3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	2 He
5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
		15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
		33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
			52 Te	53 I	54 Xe



### Example 6 Short Technique



- Carbon atoms usually have 4 bonds and no lone pairs.
- Hydrogen atoms have 1 bond and no lone pairs.

$$H-C-C-H$$
  $H-C\equiv C-H$ 

### The long way

- Sometimes a Lewis structure cannot be drawn by trying to get the most common bonding pattern.
  - All polyatomic ions have at least one atom that does not have its most common bonding pattern.
  - Although you will not see this in my text, atoms below the second period on the periodic table can have more bonds than are predicted for their most common bonding pattern.

# Example 1

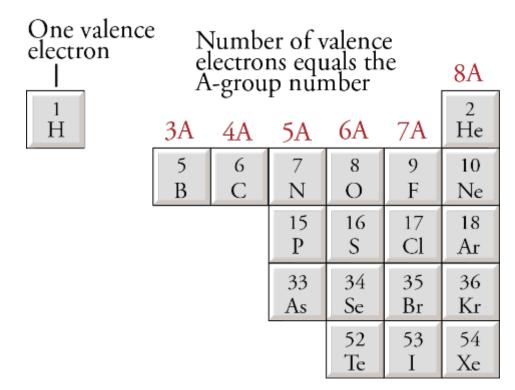
 Example 1: methyl bromide, CH<sub>3</sub>Br, which is an ozone depleting gas used as a fumigant.

# Drawing Lewis Structures (1)

 Step 1: Determine the total number of valence electrons for the molecule or polyatomic ion. (These are the electrons that will be represented in your Lewis structure by lines for two-electron bonds and pairs of dots for the lone pairs.)

#### Valence Electrons

 Valence electrons are the highestenergy s and p electrons in an atom.



### Drawing Lewis Structures (1)

- For uncharged molecules, the total number of valence electrons is the sum of the valence electrons of each atom.
- For polyatomic cations, the total number of valence electrons is the sum of the valence electrons for each atom minus the charge.
- For polyatomic anions, the total number of valence electrons is the sum of the valence electrons for each atom plus the charge.

### Example 1 Step 1

#### Methyl bromide, CH<sub>3</sub>Br

- Carbon is in group 4A, so it has four valence electrons.
- Each hydrogen has only one valence electron.
- Bromine is in group 7A, so it has seven valence electrons.
- Total valence electrons = 4+3(1)+7=14

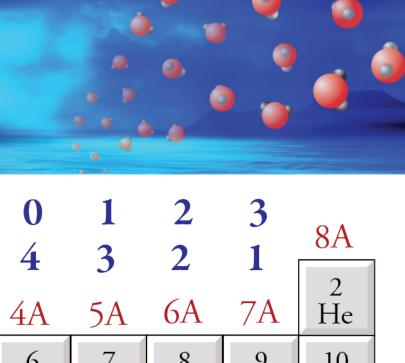
					8A
3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	2 He
5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
		15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
		33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
			52 Te	53 I	54 Xe

### Drawing Lewis Structures (2)

- Step 2: Draw a reasonable skeletal structure, using single bonds to join all the atoms.
  - Try to arrange the atoms to yield the most typical number of bonds for each atom.
  - Apply the following guidelines in deciding what element belongs in the center of your structure.
    - Hydrogen and fluorine atoms are never in the center.
    - Oxygen atoms are rarely in the center.
    - The element with the fewest atoms in the formula is often in the center.
    - The atom that is capable of making the most bonds is often in the center.
  - Oxygen atoms rarely bond to other oxygen atoms.
  - The molecular formula often reflects the molecular structure.
  - Carbon atoms commonly bond to other carbon atoms.

# Most Common Bonding Patterns for Nonmetals

Number of lone pairs



Number of bonds		4	3	2	1	8A
	3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	2 He
	5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
			15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
			33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
				52 Te	53 I	54 Xe

https://preparatorychemistry.com/Bishop\_periodic\_table.pdf

### Example 1 Step 2

#### Methyl bromide, CH<sub>3</sub>Br

- Because hydrogen atoms always have one bond, and because bromine usually has only one bond, the H and Br symbols must all be attached to the central carbon.
- Also, because carbon usually forms the most bonds, it is most likely to be in the center.

## Drawing Lewis Structures (3)

 Step 3: Subtract 2 electrons from the total number of valence electrons for each of the single bonds (represented by lines) described in the skeleton from Step 2.

### Example 1 Step 3

#### Methyl bromide, CH<sub>3</sub>Br

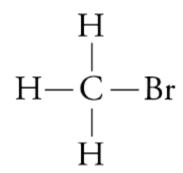
- There are four bonds, so we have used  $4 \times 2 = 8$  electrons.
- We have 14 8 = 6 remaining electrons.

### Drawing Lewis Structures (4)

- Step 4: Try to distribute the remaining electrons as lone pairs to obtain a total of eight electrons around each atom except hydrogen and boron.
  - In a reasonable Lewis structure, carbon, nitrogen, oxygen, and fluorine always have eight electrons around them.
  - Hydrogen will always have a total of two electrons from its one bond.
  - Boron can have fewer than eight electrons but never more than eight.
  - The nonmetallic elements in periods beyond the second period (P, S, Cl, Se, Br, and I) usually have eight electrons around them, but they can have more.
  - The bonding properties of the metalloids arsenic, As, and tellurium, Te, are similar to those of phosphorus, P, and sulfur, S, so they usually have eight electrons around them but can have more.

### Example 1 Step 4

#### Methyl bromide, CH<sub>3</sub>Br

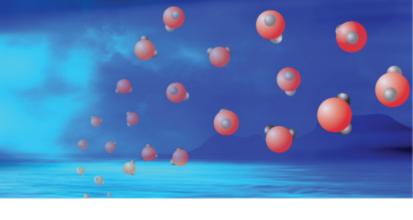


- H never has lone pairs.
- Carbon already has its 4 bonds and an 8 electrons around it, so we add the 6 remaining electron to the Br as 3 lone pairs.

### Drawing Lewis Structures (5)

#### Step 5: Do one of the following.

- If in Step 4 you were able to obtain an octet of electrons around each atom other than hydrogen and boron, and if you used all of the remaining valence electrons, go to Step 6.
- If you have electrons remaining after each of the atoms other than hydrogen and boron have their octet, you can put more than eight electrons around elements in periods below the second period. (You will not need to use this procedure for any of the structures in this text, but if you take more advanced chemistry courses, it will be useful.)
- If you do not have enough electrons to obtain octets of electrons around each atom (other than hydrogen and boron), convert one lone pair into a multiple bond for each two electrons that you are short.



#### Methyl bromide, CH<sub>3</sub>Br

- The four bonds to the carbon atom give it an octet around it  $(4 \times 2 = 8)$ .
- The hydrogen atoms have their one bond.
- The one bond and three lone pairs for the bromine atom give it an octet around it.

### Drawing Lewis Structures (6 & 7)

- Step 6: Check your structure to see if all of the atoms have their most common bonding pattern.
- Step 7: If necessary, try to rearrange your structure to give each atom its most common bonding pattern. One way to do this is to return to Step 2 and try another skeleton. (This step is unnecessary if all of the atoms in your structure have their most common bonding pattern.)

# Most Common Bonding Patterns for Nonmetals

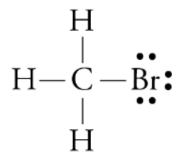


Number of lone pairs Number of bonds		0 4	1 3	2 2	3 1	8A
	3A	4A	5A	6A	7A	2 He
	5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
			15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
			33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
				52 Te	53 I	54 Xe

https://preparatorychemistry.com/Bishop\_periodic\_table.pdf

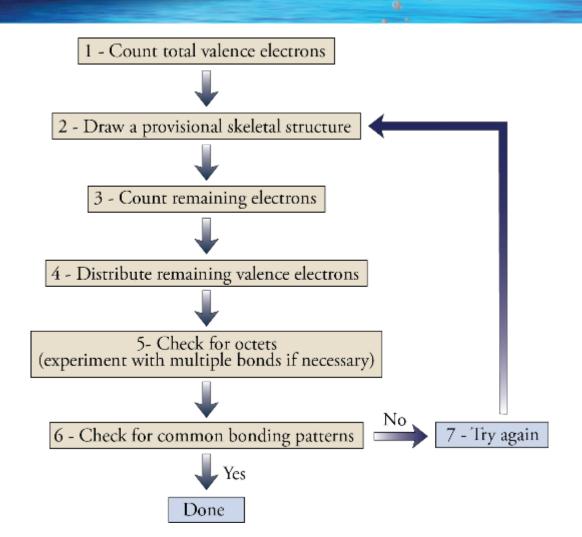
### Example 1 Steps 6 and 7

#### Methyl bromide, CH<sub>3</sub>Br



 All of the atoms have their most common bonding pattern, so step 7 is unnecessary.

## Lewis Structure Drawing Summary

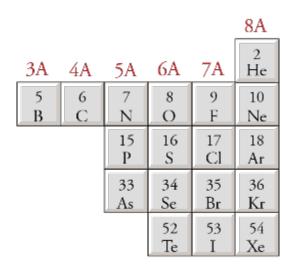


#### Example 2

• Formaldehyde, CH<sub>2</sub>O, has many uses, including the preservation of biological specimens.

#### Formaldehyde, CH<sub>2</sub>O

- Each hydrogen has one valence electron.
- Carbon is in group 4A, so it has four valence electrons.
- Oxygen is in group 6A, so it has six valence electrons.
- Total valence electrons
   = 4+2(1)+6 = 12





#### Formaldehyde, CH<sub>2</sub>O

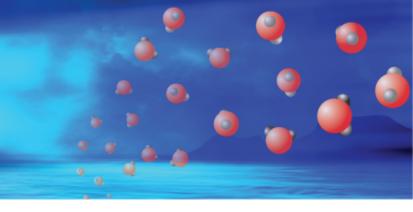
- Hydrogen atoms always have one bond, oxygen atoms usually have two bonds and carbon atoms usually have four bonds.
- There are two possible skeletons at this point.

$$H-C-O-H$$
  $H-C-H$ 



$$H-C-O-H$$

- There are three bonds, so we have used  $3 \times 2 = 6$  electrons.
- We have 12 6 = 6 remaining electrons.



#### Formaldehyde, $CH_2O$ H-C-O-H

- H never has lone pairs.
- We know that oxygen atoms' most common bonding pattern is 2 bonds and 2 lone pairs, so we put 2 lone pairs on the O.
- We only have 2 of our 6 valence electrons remaining, so we put the last 2 electrons on the C.

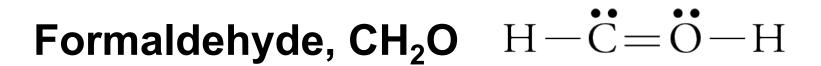
$$H-C-O-H$$

#### Formaldehyde, $CH_2O$ H-C-O-H

- If you do not have enough electrons to obtain octets of electrons around each atom (other than hydrogen and boron), convert one lone pair into a multiple bond for each two electrons that you are short.
- We need to get 2 more electrons around the C and keep 8 electrons around the O, so we shift one of the lone pairs on O to form another bond to C.

$$H - \ddot{C} - \ddot{O} - H$$
 to  $H - \ddot{C} = \ddot{O} - H$ 

### Example 2 Steps 6 and 7



 Neither carbon nor oxygen have their most common bonding pattern, so we need to go back to Step 2 and try a different skeleton in hopes of getting the most common bonding patterns.

#### Formaldehyde, CH<sub>2</sub>O

- Carbon is in group 4A, so it has four valence electrons.
- Each hydrogen has one valence electron.
- Oxygen is in group 6A, so it has six valence electrons.
- Total valence electrons = 4+2(1)+6=12

#### Formaldehyde, CH<sub>2</sub>O

- There are three bonds, so we have used  $3 \times 2 = 6$  electrons.
- We have 12 6 = 6 remaining electrons.



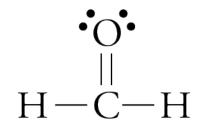
- H never has lone pairs.
- We know that oxygen atoms commonly have lone pairs and carbon atoms rarely do, so use our remaining 6 electrons to put 3 lone pairs on the O.

#### Formaldehyde, CH<sub>2</sub>O

- If you do not have enough electrons to obtain octets of electrons around each atom (other than hydrogen and boron), convert one lone pair into a multiple bond for each 2 electrons that you are short.
- We need to get 2 more electrons around the C and keep 8 electrons around the O, so we shift one of the lone pairs on O to form another bond to C.

### Example 2 Steps 6 and 7

#### Formaldehyde, CH<sub>2</sub>O



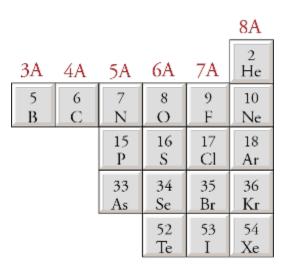
 All of the atoms have their most common bonding pattern, so we have a reasonable Lewis structure.

#### Example 3

• The cyanide polyatomic ion, CN<sup>-</sup> is similar in structure to carbon monoxide, CO. Although they work by different mechanisms, they are both poisons that can disrupt the use of oxygen, O<sub>2</sub>, in organisms.

#### Cyanide, CN<sup>-</sup>

- Carbon is in group 4A, so it has four valence electrons.
- Nitrogen is in group 5A, so it has five valence electrons.
- We add one more electron for the negative charge.
- Total valence electrons= 4+5+1 = 10





 There is only one option for the skeleton. We connect the C to the N.

C-N



C-N

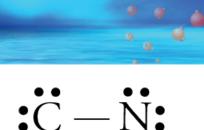
- There is one bond, so we have used 2 electrons.
- We have 10 2 = 8 remaining electrons.



C-N

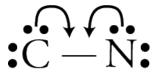
We could distribute the remaining 8
electrons in different ways, but let's put two
lone pairs on each atom.





#### Cyanide, CN-

- There are only 6 electrons around both C and N, and both have 8 around them in a good Lewis structure, so we need to convert two lone pairs into bonds.
- We shift one lone pair from C and one lone pair from N to form two more bonds between them.
- We put polyatomic ions in brackets for their Lewis structures, and we put the charge as a superscript outside the brackets.



 $[C \equiv N]$ 

### Example 3 Steps 6 and 7

#### Cyanide, CN-

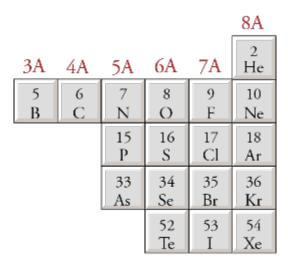
$$[C \equiv N]$$

- The carbon atom does not have its most common bonding pattern, but there is no other option for a skeleton.
- There is always at least one atom in a polyatomic ion that has a bonding pattern other than the most common bonding pattern.

#### Example 4

• **CF**<sub>3</sub>**CHCl**<sub>2</sub>, the molecular formula for HCFC-123, which is one of the hydrochlorofluorocarbons used as a less damaging replacement for chlorofluorocarbons, which destroy ozone in the stratosphere.

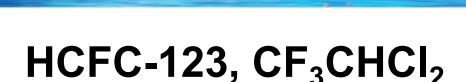
- Carbon is in group 4A, so it has 4 valence electrons.
- Fluorine and chlorine are in group 7A, so they have 7 valence electrons.
- Hydrogen has 1 valence electron.
- Total valence electrons
   = 2(4)+3(7)+1+2(7) = 44



- The formula tells us that there are 3 F atoms on one C and that the H and the 2 Cl atoms must be attached to the other C.
- We'll see more clearly in a later session on molecular geometry that it does not make any difference how you arrange the 2 Cl atoms and the H on the right C.

- There are 7 bonds, so we have used  $7 \times 2 = 14$  electrons.
- We have 44 14 = 30 remaining electrons.

- The C atoms have 8 electrons around them, and the H has its one bond.
- F atoms always have 8 electrons around them, and CI atoms usually do, so we use all of our remaining 30 electrons to put three lone pairs on all of the F and CI atoms.



 All of the atoms except hydrogen have their octets of electrons, so we can move on to steps 6 and 7.

### Example 4 Steps 6 and 7



#### HCFC-123, CF<sub>3</sub>CHCl<sub>2</sub>

 Every atom has its most common bonding pattern, so we have a good Lewis structure.

### Example 4 Steps 6 and 7

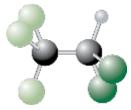


 It might seem like there could be three different Lewis structures for this, but the examples below all describe the same thing.

• The models below might help you to see why.

There is rotation of the atoms around the C-C bond.





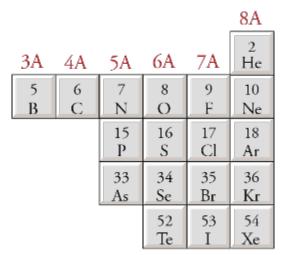
#### Example 5

 Acetaldehyde can be converted into the sedative chloral hydrate (the "Mickey Finn" or knockout drops often mentioned in detective stories). In the first step of the reaction that forms chloral hydrate, acetaldehyde, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO, changes to its isomer, CH<sub>2</sub>CHOH.

#### Acetaldehyde, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO

- Carbon is in group 4A, so each C has 4 valence electrons.
- Oxygen is in group 6A, so it has 6 valence electrons.
- Hydrogen has 1 valence electron.
- Total valence electrons

$$= 2(4)+4(1)+6 = 18$$





- The formula tells us that there are 3 H atoms on one C and that the H and O are on the other C.
- We know that carbon almost always has 4 bonds, so putting both the H and the O on the right C gets us closer to this.

### Acetaldehyde, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO

- There are 6 bonds, so we have used  $6 \times 2 = 12$  valence electrons.
- We have 18 12 = 6 remaining electrons.

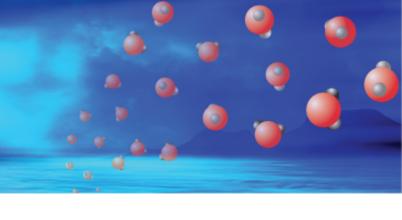
### Acetaldehyde, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO

- The left C atom has 8 electrons around it, and the H atoms each have one bond.
- Because C rarely has lone pairs, we put our remaining 6 electrons on the O as lone pairs.



 The right C is short two electrons for its octet, so we move one lone pair from the O to form a second bond between the C and O.

## Example 5 Steps 6 and 7



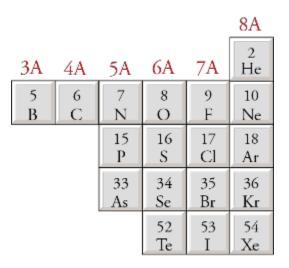
### Acetaldehyde, CH<sub>3</sub>CHO

 Every atom has it most common bonding pattern, so we have a good Lewis structure.

### CH<sub>2</sub>CHOH

- Carbon is in group 4A, so each C has 4 valence electrons.
- Oxygen is in group 6A, so it has 6 valence electrons.
- Hydrogen has 1 valence electron.
- Total valence electrons

$$= 2(4)+4(1)+6 = 18$$



### CH<sub>2</sub>CHOH

- The formula tells us that there are 2 H atoms on the left C.
- Because one of the remaining H atoms is next to the right C and the other is next to the O, we can assume that the following skeleton is most likely.

$$H-C-C-O-H$$
 $\mid$ 
 $\mid$ 
 $\mid$ 
 $\mid$ 
 $\mid$ 
 $\mid$ 



- There are 6 bonds, so we have used  $6 \times 2 = 12$  valence electrons.
- We have 18 12 = 6 remaining electrons.

### CH<sub>2</sub>CHOH

- The H atoms each have one bond.
- Because we know that O atoms are more likely to have lone pairs, we add two lone pairs to the O to give it its octet. The remaining two electrons can go on either C.

$$H-\ddot{C}-C-\ddot{O}-H$$
 $H$ 
 $H$ 

### CH<sub>2</sub>CHOH

$$H-\overset{\bullet}{C}-C-\overset{\bullet}{O}-H$$

 The right C is short two electrons for its octet, so we move one lone pair from the left C to form a second bond between the C atoms.

$$H-C=C-\ddot{O}-H$$
 $H$ 
 $H$ 

## Example 5 Steps 6 and 7



 Every atom has it most common bonding pattern, so we have a good Lewis structure.

$$H-C=C-\mathbf{\ddot{O}}-H$$
 $H$ 
 $H$ 

#### Isomers

- CH<sub>3</sub>CHO and CH<sub>2</sub>CHOH are isomers.
- **Isomers** are molecules that have the same atoms (or the same molecular formula, in this case C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>O) but a different arrangement of the atoms (or a different structure, in this case the structures you see below).

### Nitrate, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>

Lewis structure for nitrate, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>

- Seems to indicate that the N=O bond is different from the other two N-O bonds.
- Double bonds are shorter and stronger than single bonds.
- All three bonds are the same strength and length, so we need a new component for our Lewis structure process to explain this.

#### Resonance

- We can view certain molecules and polyatomic ions as if they were able to switch back and forth or resonate between two or more different structures. Each of these structures is called a *resonance structure*. The switching from one resonance structure to another is called *resonance*.
- We don't think this is really happening, but as we will see, we think it is useful to think of it as if it was happening.

### Nitrate Resonance

It is as if this lone pair forms a second bond...

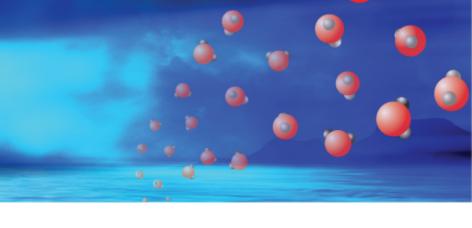
...pushing the electrons in this bond off to form a lone pair.

$$X - Y = Z \longleftrightarrow X = Y - Z$$

### Resonance Hybrid

- To blend the resonance structures into a single resonance hybrid:
  - Step 1: Draw the skeletal structure, using solid lines for the bonds that are found in all of the resonance structures.
  - Step 2: Where there is sometimes a bond and sometimes not, draw a dotted line.
  - Step 3: Draw only those lone pairs that are found on every one of the resonance structures. (Leave off the lone pairs that are on one or more resonance structure but not on all of them.)

### Nitrate Resonance

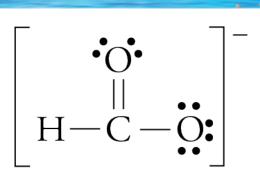


A bond found in at least one but not all the resonance structures

A bond found in all the resonance structures

A lone pair found in all the resonance structures

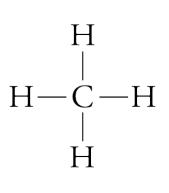
## Formate, HCO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>

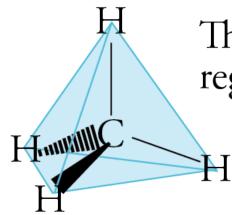


$$\begin{bmatrix} \bullet \\ H - C & \bullet \\ \end{bmatrix}^{-} \longleftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \bullet \\ H - C & \bullet \\ \end{bmatrix}^{-}$$

### Methane, CH<sub>4</sub>



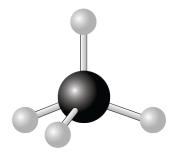




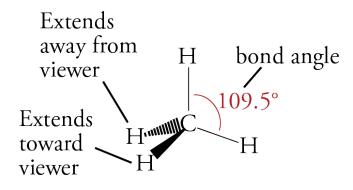
The shaded shape is a regular tetrahedron.



Space-filling model

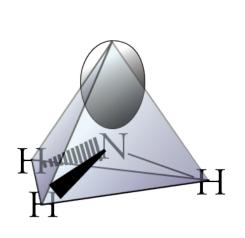


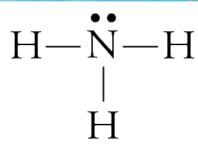
Ball-and-stick model

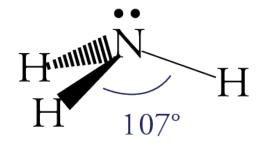


Geometric Sketch

# Ammonia, NH<sub>3</sub>



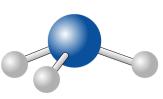


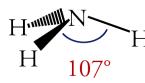


Molecular geometry

Electron group geometry (tetrahedral)

(trigonal pyramid)





Lewis structure

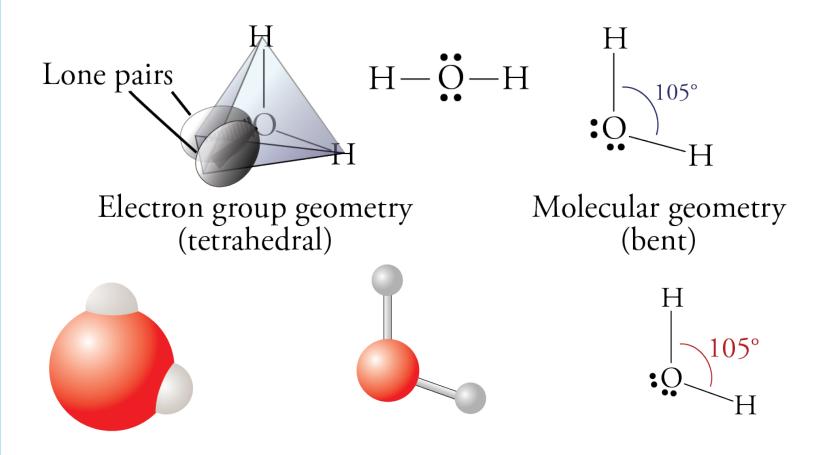
H-N-H

Space-filling model

Ball-and-stick model

Geometric sketch

### Water, H<sub>2</sub>O

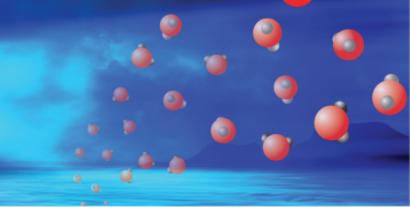


Space-filling model

Ball-and-stick model

Geometric Sketch

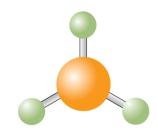
### Trigonal Planar Geometry – BF<sub>3</sub>



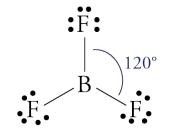
Lewis structure



Space-filling model

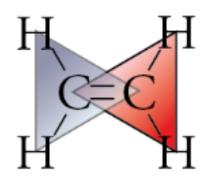


Ball-and-stick model



Geometric Sketch

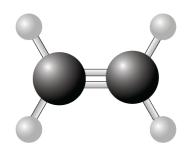
## Ethene (ethylene)



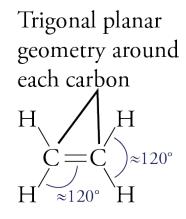
Lewis structure



Space-filling model

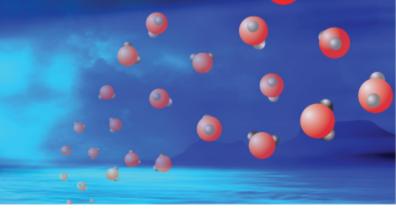


Ball-and-stick model



Geometric Sketch

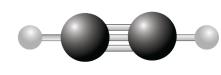
# Ethyne (acetylene), C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>



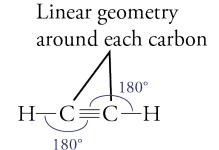
$$H-C\equiv C-H$$

Lewis structure

Space-filling model



Ball-and-stick model



Geometric Sketch

# Steps for Molecular Geometry

- Step 1: To determine the name of the electron group geometry around each atom that is attached to two or more atoms, count the number of electron groups around each atom and apply the guidelines found on Table 5.2.
- Step 2: Use one or more of the geometric sketches shown on Table 5.2 for the geometric sketch of your molecule.

# Steps for Molecular Geometry (cont.)

• Step 3: To determine the name of the molecular geometry around each atom that has two or more atoms attached to it, count the number of bond groups and lone pairs, and then apply the guidelines found on Table 5.2.

### Geometry

e <sup>-</sup>	e <sup>-</sup> group geometry	General geometric sketch	Bond	Bond	Lone pairs	molecular geometry
2	linear	180°	180°	2	0	linear
3	trigonal planar	120°	120°	3	0	trigonal planar
				2	1	bent
4	tetrahedral	109.5°		4	0	tetrahedral
				3	1	trigonal pyramid
				2	2	bent