Crystalline materials show a range of different bond types:

Kap. 2 Chemical bonding



+-+-+

(-)(+)

(+)

-+-

Ionic bonding

Non-directional High coordination number as possible Charged, non-compressible, non-polarizable spheres

Purely ionic binding rarely occurs, a net charge of more than +1 are unlikely

Useful as starting point to visualize structures

For visualization, one needs a set of ionical radiis





lons are charged species

Ionic radiis

The ionical radiis from Pauling and Goldschmidt have been revised due to information from present high-quality X-ray diffraction work.





- a) lons are essentially spherical
- b) lons are composed of a central core with most of the electrons and an outer sphere with very little electron density.
- c) Assignment of radii is difficult

Ionic radiis

The size of an ion is depenant on how the outer orbitals shield the charge from the nucleus.

Poorer shielding



s- and p-block, radi increase with atomic number for any vertical group.

For isoelectronic series of cations, radii decrease with increaseing charge, Na⁺, Mg^{2+} , AI^{3+} and Si^{4+}

Cation radius decrease with increaseing oxidation state, V²⁺, V³⁺, V⁴⁺, V⁵⁺

Cation radius increase with coordination number, CN = 4 vs. CN = 6

Lanthanide contraction and transition contraction due to poor shielding



Based on empirical values



Consistent sett of values

The values are dependent on:

Coordination number Type of coordination polyhedra Oxidation number

Metallic oxides Sett of radiis dependent on type of orbitals used??

Ionic structures – bond strength

Force between two ions:

SiO₂?

$$F = \frac{(Z_+e)(Z_-e)}{r^2}$$

Electrostatic bond strength: The charge is divided among the number of bonds.



 $\sum \frac{m}{n} = x$

The sum of ebs on an ion must ballance the charge



Spinel: MgAl₂O₄ Octahedral Al³⁺ \rightarrow ebs = 3/6 = $\frac{1}{2}$ Tetrahedral Mg²⁺ \rightarrow ebs = 2/4 = $\frac{1}{2}$





lonic structures – bond strength

Example:

NaCl type structure, Na⁺ in octahedra holes \rightarrow CN(Na⁺) = 6

CN (CI-)?

CN (CI-) = 1/1*6 = 6

 CaF_2 type structure, F- in tetrahedra holes $\rightarrow \text{CN}(\text{F}^\text{-})$ = 4

CN (Ca²⁺)? CN (Ca²⁺) = 2/1*4 = 8

Rutil type structure (TiO_2) ; $CN(Ti^{4+}) = 6$

CN (O²⁻)? CN (O²⁻) = 1/2*6 = 3

Ionic structures – Radius ratio



Ionic structures – Radius ratio

Ideally ions surround themselves with as many ions op the oposite charge as possible. The ions must be in contact \rightarrow CN depends on the radius ratios.



Ionic structures – general principles

- 1. Ions are in fact charged, elastic and polarizable spheres
- 2. Geometrical annrangement

contraction:	anion – cation
repulsion:	anion – anion
	cation – cation

- 3. As high coordination number as possible to maximize net electrostatic attraction. Depends on the ratio of ion radii.
- 4. Next neighbour ions are as far as possible. \rightarrow Maximization of volume!
- 5. Local electroneutrality. Valence = Σ electrostatic bond strength

Born Haber cycle

The lattice energy can be calculated by using Hess law and the following scheme:



Ionic structures – Lattice energy

NaCl(s) →Na⁺(g) + Cl⁻(g), $\Delta H = U$ Sublimation energy $F = \frac{(Z_{+})(Z_{-})e^{2}}{r^{2}}$ Force between two ions $V = \int_{\infty}^{r} F dr = -\frac{(Z_{+})(Z_{-})e^{2}}{r}$ Columbic potential energy $V = \frac{B}{r^{n}} \quad n = 5...12$ Short-range repulsive forces

Madelung energy





Like charges repell each other

 $E_{e} = \left(\frac{-e^{2}}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}r}\right) \times (Geometry) \times (ioniccharge)$

$$E_e = N_{\rm A} \left(\frac{-e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 r} \right) \alpha Z^2$$

Ionic structures – Lattice energy - NaCl

Na⁺ is surrounded by 6 Cl⁻

$$V = -\frac{6(Z_+)(Z_-)e^2}{r}$$

Na⁺ is surrounded by 12 next neighbour Na⁺ at $\sqrt{2}r$

$$V = +\frac{12(Z_{+})(Z_{-})e^{2}}{\sqrt{2}r}$$

Na⁺ is surrounded again by 8 Cl⁻ at $\sqrt{3}$ r

$$V = -\frac{8(Z_{+})(Z_{-})e^{2}}{\sqrt{3}r}$$



$$V = -\frac{(Z_{+})(Z_{-})e^{2}}{r} \left(6 - \frac{12}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{8}{\sqrt{3}} - \frac{6}{\sqrt{4}} + \dots \right)$$

Ionic structures – Lattice energy





N = mole of ions

Madelung constants			
Structure type	α		
Rock salt	1.748		
CsCl	1.763		
Wurtzie	1.641		
Sphalerite	1.638		
Fluorite	2.520		
Rutile	2.408		



Ionic structures – Lattice energy – Reduced constant



N = mole of ions

Madelung constants					
Structure type		α	α		
Rock salt	M+X-	1.748	1.748		
CsCl	M+X-	1.763	1.763		
Wurtzie	M ²⁺ X ²⁻	1.641	1.641		
Sphalerite	M ²⁺ X ²⁻	1.638	1.638		
Fluorite	M ²⁺ X ₂ -	2.520	1.68		
Rutile	M4+X_2-	2.408	1.60		





The Kapustinskii equation

Kapustinskii found that if the Madelung constant for a given structure is divided by the number of ions in one formula unit (n) the resulting values are almost constant:

Structure	Madelung const.(A)	Α /ν	Coordination
CsCl	1.763	0.88	8:8
NaCl	1.748	0.87	6:6
CaF ₂	2.519	0.84	8:4
α -Al ₂ O ₃	4.172	0.83	6:4

general lattice energy equation that can be applied to any crystal regardless of the crystal structure

$$U = -\frac{1200.5VZ_{+}Z_{-}}{r_{c} + r_{a}} \left(1 - \frac{0.345}{r_{c} + r_{a}}\right) \quad kJ \text{ mol}^{-1}$$

The Kapustinskii equation



Most important advantage of the Kapustinski equation:

It is possible to apply the equation for lattice calculations of crystals with polyatomic ions (e.g. KNO_3 , $(NH_4)_2SO_4$...).

A set of "thermochemical radii" was derived for further calculations of lattice enthalpies

Table 1.13 Thermochemical radii of polyatomic ions*					
Ion	pm	Ion	pm	Ion	pn
NH4 ⁺	151	ClO ₄	226	MnO ₄ ²⁻	21
Me ₄ N ⁺	215	CN-	177	O2-	14
PH4 ⁺	171	CNS ⁻	199	OH-	11
AICI4	281	CO_{3}^{2-}	164	PtF_6^{2-}	28
BF ₄	218	IO_3^-	108	PtCl ₆ ²⁻	29
BH_4^-	179	N_3^-	181	$PtBr_6^{2-}$	32
BrO ₃	140	NCO ⁻	189	PtI ₆	32
CH ₃ COO ⁻	148	NO_2^-	178	SO_4^{2-}	24
ClO_3^-	157	NO_3^-	165	SeO ₄ ²⁻	23

*J.E. Huheey (1983) Inorganic Chemistry, 3rd edn, Harper and Row, London, based on data from H.D.B. Jenkins and K.P. Thakur (1979) J. Chem. Ed., 56, 576.

Crystalline materials show a range of different bond types:

Ionic structures – Lattice energy



Substance	$NAe^2Z_+Zr^{-1}$	$NBe^{-r/\rho}$	NCr ⁻⁶	$2.25 Nh\nu_{O_{max}}$	U
NaCl	-859.4	98.6	-12.1	7.1	-765.8
MgO	-4631	698	-6.3	18.4	-3921

Covalent bonding is a result of orbital overlaps Spins in overlapping orbitals must be antiparallel















Orbital hybridisation





Table 2.5	The	geometry	of	some	hybrid	orbitals
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Coordination number	Orbital configuration	Geometry	Example
2	sp	Linear	HgCl ₂
3	sp ²	Trigonal	BCla
4	sp ³	Tetrahedral	CH4
	dsp ²	Square	PdCl ₂
6	d^2sp^3	Octahedral	SF ₆

Multiple bonds



Resonance







Partial covalent bonding

Covalent bonding occurs when the outer electronic charge density on an anion is polarized towards and by a neighbouring cation.

The net effect is electron density between the atoms.

SrONaCI-typeBaONaCI-typeHgOlinear O-Hg-O segments

bond H H Polar covalent bond H Cl

Nonpolar covalent

 $\begin{array}{lll} \text{AIF}_3 & \text{ReO}_3 \text{ related ionic solid} \\ \text{AICI}_3 & \text{Layered polymeric structure} \\ \text{AIBr}_3 & \text{Molecular Al}_2\text{Br}_6 \text{ dimer} \\ \text{AII}_3 & \text{Molecular Al}_2\text{I}_6 \text{ dimer} \end{array}$



Sandersons model



The properties of solids is much dependent on how valence electrons 'feel the situation'.



Effective nuclear charge

Correlations between effective nuclear charge and:

-Ionization potential -Electron affinity -Electronegativity χ -Atomic radius

Sandersons model – Atomic radii

Atomic radii vary considerably depending on CN and polarity of bond.

Non-polar covalent radii (r_c) can be measured accurately (C-C)

Non-polar covalent radii

Partial charge

 $r = r_c - B\delta$

Sandersons atomic radii



The partial charges can not be measured directly but estimated from Sandersons electronegativity scale.

Sandersons model – Electronegativity

Sanderson developed a new elevtronegativity table (S) where:

 $S = \frac{D}{D_{a}}^{\text{Electron density of the atom}}$

Electron density derived from linear interpolation of inert gas elements.

Principle of electronegativity equalization



The electronegativity is divided between both atoms in the bond

Element	S*	$r_{\rm c}$ (Å)†	B (solid)‡	$\Delta S_{\rm c}$ §	r_i (Å) ⁴
Н	3.55	0.32		3.92	
Li	0.74	1.34	0.812	1.77	0.53
Be	1.99	0.91	0.330	2.93	0.58
В	2.93	0.82		2.56	
С	3.79	0.77		4.05	
N	4.49	0.74		4.41	
0	5.21	0.70	4.401	4.75	1.10
F	5.75	0.68	0.925	4.99	1.61
Na	0.70	1.54	0.763	1.74	0.78
Mg	1.56	1.38	0.349	2.60	1.03
Al	2.22	1.26		3.10	
Si	2.84	1.17		3.51	
P	3.43	1.10		3.85	
S	4.12	1.04	0.657	4.22	1.70
Cl	4.93	0.99	1.191	4.62	2.18
K	0.42	1.96	0.956	1.35	1.00
Ca	1.22	1.74	0.550	2.30	1.19
Zn	2.98			3.58	
Ga	3.28			3.77	
Ge	3.59	1.22		3.94	
As	3.90	1.19		4.11	
Se	4.21	1.16	0.665	4.27	1.83
Br	4.53	1.14	1.242	4.43	2.38
Rb	0.36	2.16	1.039	1.25	1.12
Sr	1.06	1.91	0.429	2.14	1.48
Ag	2.59	1.50	0.208		1.29
Cd	2.84	1.46	0.132	3.35	1.33
Sn	3.09	1.40		3.16, 3.66	
Sb	3.34	1.38		3.80	
Te	3.59	1.35	0.692	3.94	2.04
I	3.84	1.33	1.384	4.08	2.71
Cs	0.28	2.35	0.963	1.10	1.39
Ba	0.78	1.98	0.348	1.93	1.63
Hg	2.93			3.59	
TI	3.02	1.48		2.85	
Ph	3.08	1.47		3.21. 3.69	
Bi	3.16	1.46		3.74	

* Sanderson's electronegativit Non-polar covalent radii. Constant in equation (2.29) relating size to partial charge. Charge in electronegativity on acquiring unit charge. Radii calculated for singly charged ions.

Example: Bal₂

r_c B

	S _{Ba} = 0.78 S _I = 3.84	$\Delta S_c^{Ba} = 1.93$ $\Delta S_c^{I} = 4.08$	
	Sb = ³√(0.78*3.84	*3.84) = 2.26	
	$\Delta S_{Ba} = 2.26 - 0.78$ $\Delta S_{I} = -3.84 + 2.26$	8 = 1.48 5 = -1.58	
	$\delta = \frac{\Delta S_{Ba}}{\Delta S_{c}^{Ba}} = \frac{1.48}{1.93}$	= 0.78	Ba ^{+0.78}
	$\delta = \frac{\Delta S_{I}}{\Delta S_{c}^{I}} = -\frac{1.58}{4.08}$	=-0.39	 -0.39
Atomi	ic radius can be cal	culated from:	$r = r_c - B\delta$
r _c B	Ba I 1.98 Å 1.33 Å 0.348 1.384	r _{Ba} = 1. r _I = 1.3 Ba-I =	.98 Å – 0.348*0.78 Å = 1.71 Å 3 Å + 1.384*0.39 Å = 1.87 Å 3.58 Å, Observed: 3.59 Å!



Partial charge is the ratio of change in electronegativity undergone by an atom on bond formation to the change it would have undergone on becoming completely ionic with charge + or -1

A point of reference is necessary. The bonds in NaF is 75% ionic.

The change in electronegativity on acquiring a + or -1 charge is ΔS_c :

 $\Delta S_c = 2.08\sqrt{S}$

Partial charge can then be defined as:

$$\delta = \frac{\Delta S}{\Delta S_{c}} \quad \Delta S = S - S_{b}$$

Mooser – Pearson plots and ionicities

The radius ratio is unsatisfactory in prediction of structure type.

Alternative: Plot the -

Average principal quantum number vs. Difference in electronevativity



Huger ions with large Dx gives ionic structures.

Smaller atoms tend to have directional bonding.



Bond valence and bond length



Valence bond theory is easily adaptable to molecules.

An approach for crystalline solids is to introduce *bond valence (bv)*.

The sum of *bv* for all bonds to an atom must equal the *valence* of that atom. -> *the valence sum rule*.



The *bv* is found empirically from other structures and vary with bond length

Each bond is treated as an individual

 $b_{ij} = \left(\frac{R_0}{R}\right)$



Bond valence and bond length, example YBCO



What is the oxidation state for Cu?

$$V_{Cu} = \sum_{j=1}^{6} b_{Cu,j} = \sum_{J=1}^{6} c \left(\frac{R_0}{R_{Cu,j}} \right)^{N}$$

For Cu: c = 0.333; R₀=206.8 pm ; N=5.4

 $V_{Cu(1)} = 2*0.510+2*0.466+2*0.434 = 2.82$

V_{Cu(2)} = 2*0.509+2*0.439+1*0.235 = 2.13

 $Y^{3+}Ba^{2+}_{2}Cu^{2}_{3}O_{7}$ leads to a Cu average of 2.33

Bond valence and bond length

The bond valence scheme van be used to:

- a) Check the correctness of a proposed structure.
- b) Locate hydrogen atoms for structures determined by X-ray diffraction
- c) Distinguish between Al³⁺ and Si⁴⁺ in aluminosoilicates.

Non-bonding electron effects, Crystal field theory



Crystal field d orbital splitting diagrams for common stereochemistries.



Non-bonding electron effects, Crystal field theory



Non-bonding electron effects, Jahn-Teller



Non-bonding electron effects, Crystal field theory

Ionic Radii. For a given oxidation state, the ionic radius decreases steadily on going from left to right in a transition series.

Populating antiboding orbitals (i.e. filling the e_g levels in an octahedron) leads to an increase in ionic radius and to weaker bonds. Therefore, the ionic radius depends on the spin state of the metal (i.e. high spin or low spin).



Non-bonding electron effects, Jahn-Teller



Non-bonding electron effects, Jahn-Teller



Crystal field stabilization

Low – spin High – spin $\begin{array}{l} \Delta_{\rm cryst.field} > {\sf P} \\ \Delta_{\rm cryst.field} < {\sf P} \end{array}$

 $\label{eq:2.1} \begin{array}{ll} \Delta(\text{5d}) > \Delta(\text{4d}) > \Delta(\text{3d}) \\ \text{low spin} & \text{high spin} \end{array}$

Octahedric field: Crystal field stabilization

$$=\frac{\Delta}{10} \left[4n_{t^{2}g} - 6n_{eg} \right]$$



Non-bonding electron effects, d⁸



Non-bonding electron effects, Inert pair effect

Heavy p-group elements **(TI, Sn, Pb, Sb)** commonly show valence two less than group valence.





Factors determining the structure

Size

r_M/r_X CN = 2,4,6,8...

Bonding type

lonic		Covalent	Metallic
	CN		
MX	1	Directional dependant	dense packed
MX2	2	bonds, hybridization	structures
MX3	3		
		sp ³ tetrahedra	tetr. holes
		d ² sp ³ octahedra	oct. holes
MXn	n		trig. holes trig. bipyr.

polyhedra

energetical ordering

Electronical effects such as 'lone pairs', ligand field stabilizations

Metallic bonding











Broadening of atomic orbital into energy bands



The Fermi energy





Free electron gas

The electrons are free to move through the solid as if it were an electron gas in a container determined by the outer perimeter of the solid.



Brillouin zones

Moving electrons do interact with the atomic nucleus!





2

37

<u>-3π</u> -2π

공 0

