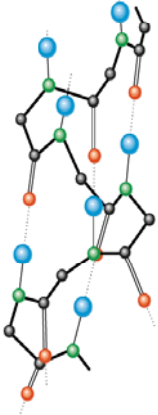
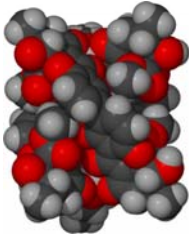
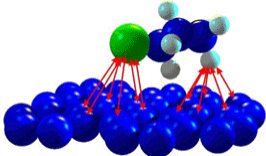



## Chapter 12

# Intermolecular Forces and Physical Properties of Liquids and Solids

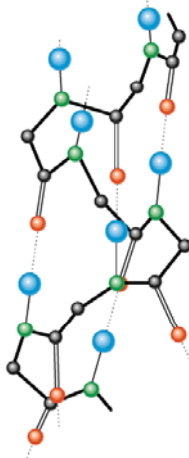




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## Preview

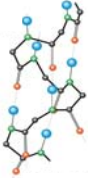
- Intermolecular forces.
- Properties of liquids.
  - Vapor pressure.
- Properties of solids.
  - Lattice and unit cells.
  - Closest packing.
  - Types of crystalline solids.
- Changes of states.
- Phase diagram.




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Chapter 12 Section 1


## The Three Phases of Matter





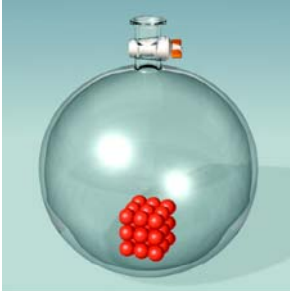
Gas

Molecules are far apart from each other, having continuous motion, and have little interactions



Liquid

The motion of the molecules is slower as compared to gas, achieving a slight movement and disorder.



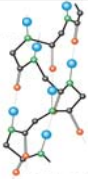
Solid

The molecules are locked in place but can vibrate about their positions.

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Chapter 12 Section 1

## The Three Phases of Matter



	Gas	Solid
○ Density	Low	High
○ Compressibility	High	Low
○ Internal attraction forces	Low	High

Liquid lies somehow in between, but it is closer in its structural properties to solid (Condensed phases).

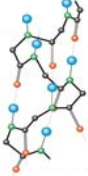
$$\text{H}_2\text{O}(s) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}(l) \quad \Delta H_{\text{fus}}^{\circ} = 6.02 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

$$\text{H}_2\text{O}(l) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}(g) \quad \Delta H_{\text{vap}}^{\circ} = 40.7 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

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Chapter 12 Section 1

## Intermolecular Forces



- The force holding atoms together to form a molecule is known as ***intramolecular force***. (covalent and ionic bonding)
- The force holding a collection of molecules together in the condensed phases is called ***intermolecular force***.
  - The magnitude of intermolecular forces is what determines whether the particles that make up a substance are gas, liquid, or solid.

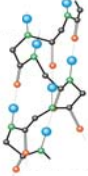
***Intramolecular forces* >> *Intermolecular forces***

**Intermolecular forces (solid) > Intermolecular forces (liquid) > Intermolecular forces (gas)**

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Chapter 12 Section 1

## Intermolecular Forces



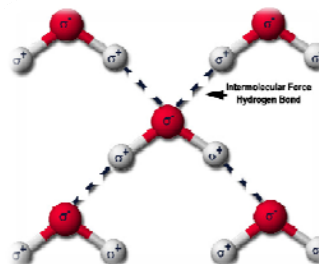
- The *change in state* is due to the *change in intermolecular interaction*.
- Intermolecular forces decrease as more energy is added.
- What holds atoms together is intramolecular forces.***

$\text{H}_2\text{O}(s) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}(l)$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{fus}} = 6.02 \text{ kJ/mol}$
$\text{H}_2\text{O}(l) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}(g)$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{vap}} = 40.7 \text{ kJ/mol}$
$\text{H}_2\text{O}(g) \rightarrow 2\text{H}(g) + \text{O}(g)$	$\Delta H^\circ_{\text{diss.}} = 934 \text{ kJ/mol}$

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## Types of Intermolecular Forces

- Dipole-Dipole Interaction.
- Hydrogen Bonding.
- London Dispersion Forces.
- Ion-Dipole Interaction.



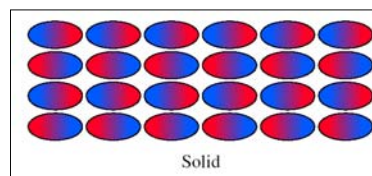
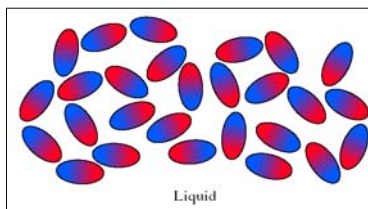
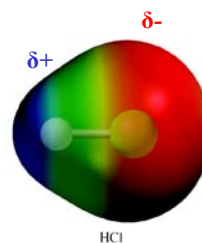
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## Dipole-Dipole Interaction

- It exists as a weak electrostatic attraction between *polar molecules*.
- In a condensed state, the molecules orient themselves to maximize electrostatic attractions and minimize the electrostatic repulsions.

Dipole-dipole force is 1% as strong as covalent and ionic bonds. It becomes weaker as the distance between the molecules gets larger.



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## Dipole-Dipole Interaction

- The attractive forces between polar molecules depend on the **magnitude of the dipole**.
- Larger intermolecular force between the molecules requires more energy to separate between the particles and, as a result, the substance will boil at higher temperatures.

**TABLE 12.1** Dipole Moments and Boiling Points of Compounds with Similar Molecular Masses

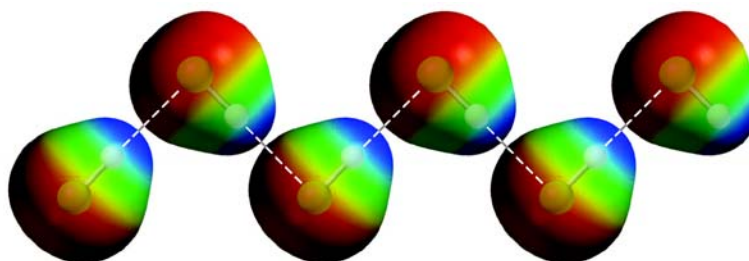
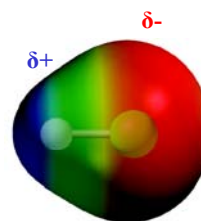
Compound	Structural Formula	Dipole Moment (D)	Boiling Point (°C)
Propane	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	0.1	-42
Dimethyl ether	CH <sub>3</sub> OCH <sub>3</sub>	1.3	-25
Methyl chloride	CH <sub>3</sub> Cl	1.9	-24
Acetaldehyde	CH <sub>3</sub> CHO	2.7	21
Acetonitrile	CH <sub>3</sub> CN	2.9	82

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## Hydrogen Bonding

- It is associated only with small, highly electronegative atoms, especially N, O, and F atoms.
- Hydrogen bonds between HF molecules take place between the H atom with a large  $\delta+$  charge and a lone pair of the F atom.

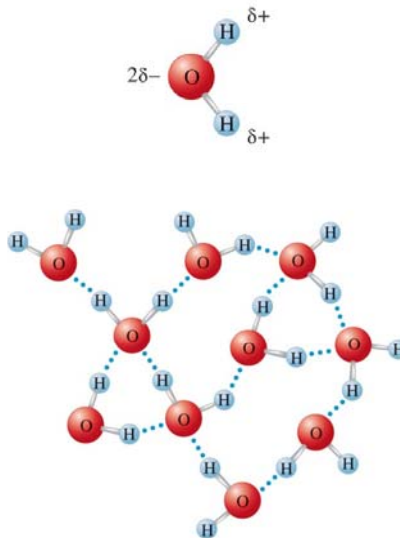


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## Hydrogen Bonding

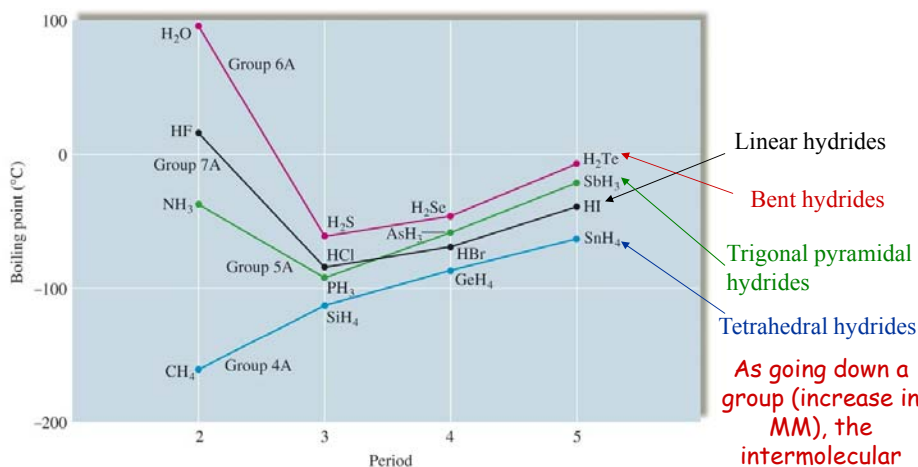
- O atoms undergo strong hydrogen bonding with H atoms in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  resulting in a high boiling temperature for water.
- Two factors** explain the strengths of hydrogen bonding:
  - The great polarity of the bond.
  - The close approach of the dipoles allowed by the smaller size of the atoms.



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## Hydrogen Bonding



The boiling points of the covalent hydrides of the elements in groups 4A, 5A, 6A, and 7A

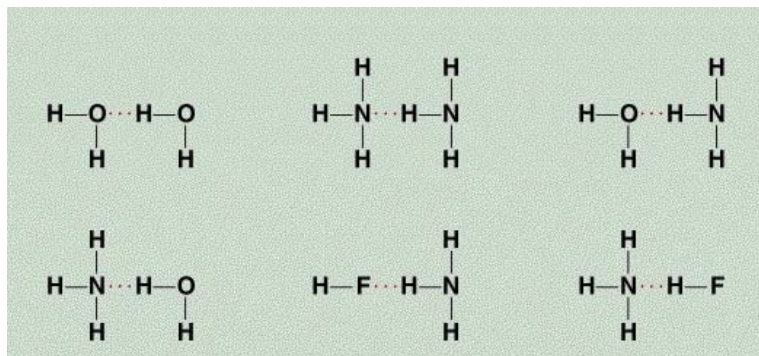
As going down a group (increase in MM), the intermolecular force increases. Exceptions are O, F and N atoms

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## Hydrogen Bonding

- Nitrogen-, oxygen-, and fluorine-containing molecules exhibit hydrogen bonding between themselves or even with other molecules of the same type.



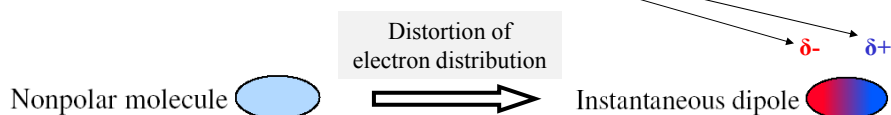
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## London Dispersion Forces

- It is the only force present in **non-polar molecules** and **noble gases**.
- The electron charge is uniformly distributed around the nucleus (electron cloud).

However, an **non-uniform** electron distribution could develop on an atom at some instances. This would lead to **instantaneous dipole** within the atom, and a **distorted** electron density would result.

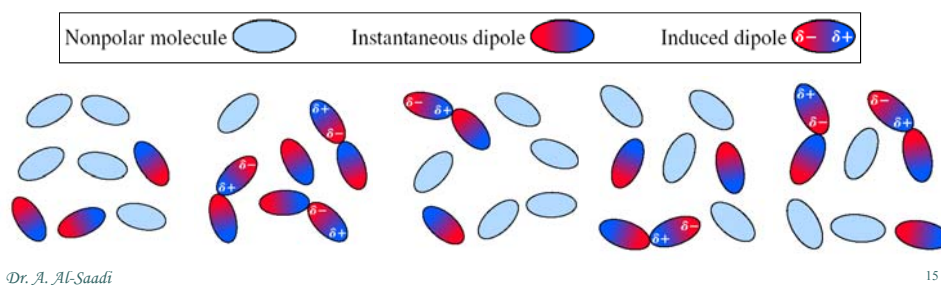


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## London Dispersion Forces

- The *instantaneous dipole* in a molecule or atom can induce (polarize) similar dipole in neighboring atoms, which then can polarize the next molecules, and so on.
- This type of interaction is extremely weak and short-lived, yet it is especially *significant for large atoms* because they are more capable to be polarized.



## London Dispersion Forces

- Dispersion force is the only type of force that exists in *nonpolar molecules*.
- Dispersion force becomes more significant when the electrons are more mobile within a molecule. This is found more in large size molecules (greater molar masses)

**TABLE 12.2** Molar Masses, Boiling Points, and States of the Halogens at Room Temperature

Molecule	Molar Mass (g/mol)	Boiling Point (°C)	State (Room Temp.)
F <sub>2</sub>	38.0	-188	Gas
Cl <sub>2</sub>	70.9	-34	Gas
Br <sub>2</sub>	159.8	59	Liquid
I <sub>2</sub>	253.8	184	Solid



## London Dispersion Forces in Noble Gases

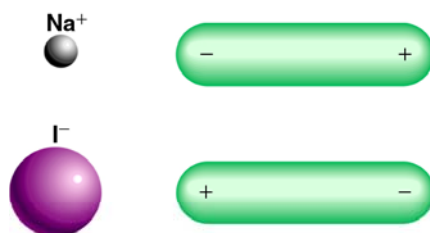
- Dispersion force is the only type of force that exists in *noble gases*.
- The weaker the dispersion force between the atoms in a noble gas, the lower the freezing point temperature.

**TABLE 10.2** The Freezing Points of the Group 8A Elements

Element	Freezing Point (°C)
Helium*	-269.7
Neon	-248.6
Argon	-189.4
Krypton	-157.3
Xenon	-111.9

## Ion-Dipole Interactions

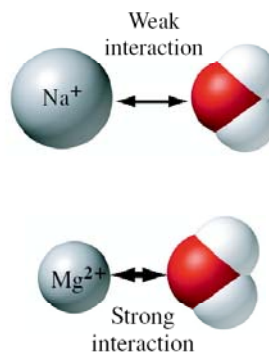
- It is shown by an attraction force between an ion (positive or negative) and a polar molecule.



- Cations generally interact more strongly with dipoles than anions of the same magnitude of charge because cation size is smaller.

## Ion-Dipole Interactions

- A higher charge cation interacts more strongly when compared with a lower charge cation from the same period. That is because of the magnitude of the charge and its smaller size.



## Intermolecular Forces

- Ⓞ What type(s) of intermolecular forces exist between each of the following molecules, atoms, and ions?

**HI**

HI is a polar molecule: *dipole-dipole forces*. There are also *London dispersion forces* between HI molecules.

**$\text{CF}_4$**

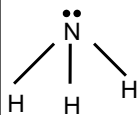
$\text{CF}_4$  is nonpolar: ONLY *London dispersion forces*.



$\text{SO}_2$  is a polar molecule: *dipole-dipole forces*. There are also *dispersion forces* between  $\text{SO}_2$  molecules.

## Intermolecular Forces

- © What type(s) of intermolecular forces exist between each of the following molecules, atoms, and ions?



$\text{NH}_3$  is a polar molecule with N and H atoms: *dipole-dipole forces* and *hydrogen bonding*. There are also *London dispersion forces* between  $\text{HI}$  molecules.



$\text{Ar}$  is a noble gas: ONLY *London dispersion forces*.



An ion with a polar molecule: *ion-dipole interaction*.

## Properties of Liquids


- Why does water bead as droplets when it fall down from a leave of a tree?



Chapter 12 Section 2

## Properties of Liquids

- Why does not the clip sink in water??

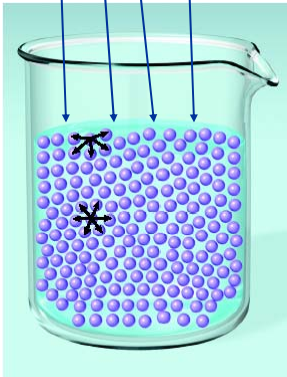


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## Surface Tension

- Surface tension** : Molecules on the surface will be pulled inward. This causes the surface of the liquid to tighten like an elastic film, thus minimizing its surface area “droplets will form”.
- Liquids with larger intermolecular forces (such as those with polar molecules or hydrogen bonding) will have higher surface tensions.

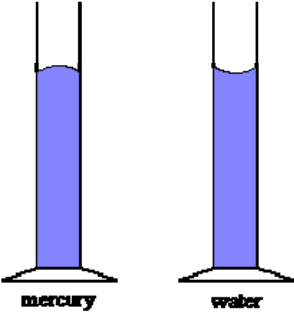


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## Capillary Action

- It is the rising of liquid in a narrow tube.
  - Cohesive** forces (Intermolecular).
  - Adhesive** forces (between the liquid molecules and the container's inside wall).
- In a glass tube (container made of polar substances):
  - Water forms a concave meniscus.  
cohesion < adhesion
  - Mercury forms a convex meniscus.  
cohesion > adhesion

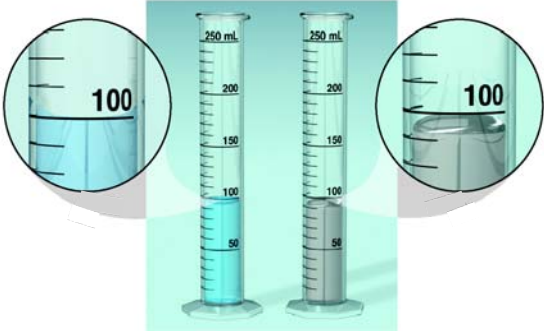


Remember that glass is made up from polar substances (mainly  $SiO_2$ )

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## Capillary Action



- Water forms a concave meniscus.  
cohesion < adhesion
- Mercury forms a convex meniscus.  
cohesion > adhesion

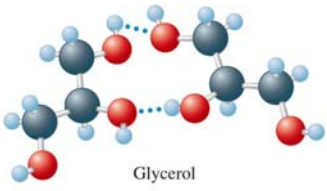
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## Viscosity

- It is the measure of liquid's resistance to flow. The higher the viscosity, the more slowly a liquid flows.
  - Liquids with larger intermolecular interaction tend to be more viscous.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{H} \\
 | \\
 \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\
 | \\
 \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\
 | \\
 \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\
 | \\
 \text{H}
 \end{array}$$



Glycerol

Liquid	Viscosity (N · s/m <sup>2</sup> )
Acetone (C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>6</sub> O)	$3.16 \times 10^{-4}$
Water (H <sub>2</sub> O)	$1.01 \times 10^{-3}$
Ethanol (C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>5</sub> OH)	$1.20 \times 10^{-3}$
Mercury (Hg)	$1.55 \times 10^{-3}$
Blood	$4 \times 10^{-3}$
Glycerol (C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub> O <sub>3</sub> )	1.49

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## Viscosity

- It is the measure of liquid's resistance to flow. The higher the viscosity, the more slowly a liquid flows.
  - Liquids with larger intermolecular interaction tend to be more viscous.
  - Liquids with more molecular complexity are highly viscous.

**Gasoline** (CH<sub>3</sub> – (CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>8</sub> – CH<sub>3</sub>)  
 vs.  
**Grease** (CH<sub>3</sub> – (CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>25</sub> – CH<sub>3</sub>)

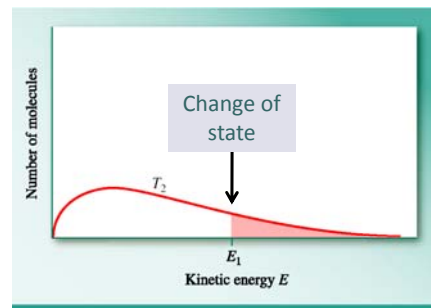
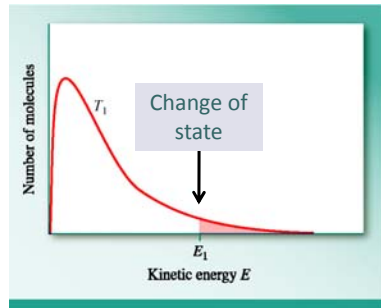
- Viscosity of a liquid typically decreases with the increase in temperature.  
For example, honey flows faster at higher temperatures.



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## Vapor Pressure

- Molecules in the liquid state are in a continuous motion and have a distribution of kinetic energy.



- $T_1 < T_2$

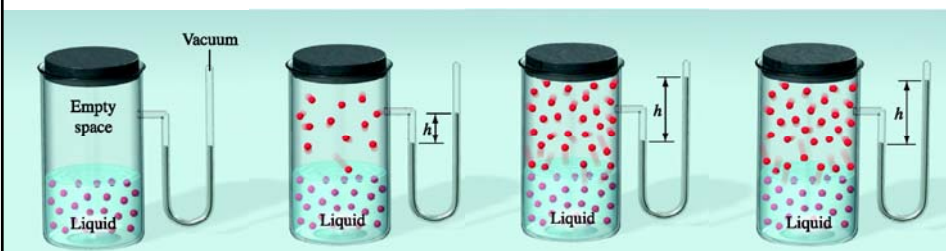
A specific amount of KE ( $E_1$ ) is needed to overcome the intermolecular forces in the liquid phase.

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## Vaporization Process

- Change of state from liquid to gas.
- Molecules escape the liquid and become gas when they have enough kinetic energy to do so.
- Vapor pressure is developed just above the liquid.



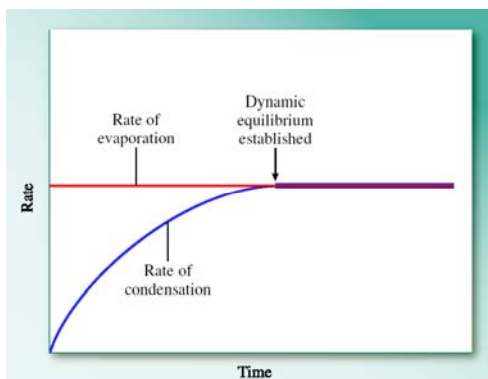
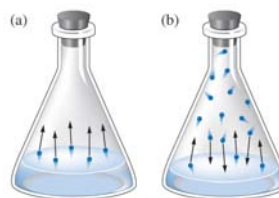
Molecule in the liquid and vapor phases are in *dynamic equilibrium*

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## Vapor Pressure

- As more amount of the liquid evaporates, The **condensation** rate (returning to the liquid state) of the molecules begins to increase.



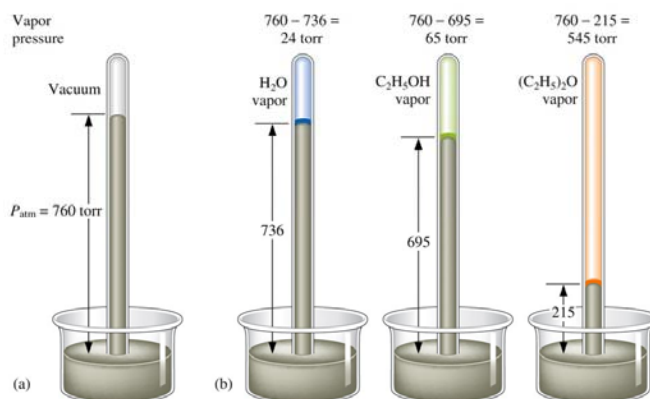
- Dynamic equilibrium is established when the rates of evaporations and condensation are equal. (**Equilibrium vapor pressure**)

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## Vapor Pressures of Some Liquids

$$P_{\text{atmosphere}} = P_{\text{vapor}} + P_{\text{Hg Column}}$$

$$P_{\text{vapor}} = P_{\text{atmosphere}} - P_{\text{Hg Column}}$$



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## Vapor Pressures of Some Liquids

Higher vapor pressure      Weaker intermolecular forces      More volatile

$760 - 736 = 24 \text{ torr}$        $760 - 695 = 65 \text{ torr}$        $760 - 215 = 545 \text{ torr}$

$\text{H}_2\text{O}$  vapor       $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$  vapor       $(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{O}$  vapor

736      695      215

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Chapter 12 Section 2

## Effect of Temperature on Vapor Pressures

- The vapor pressure increases with the increase in  $T$ .
- The plot of vapor pressure vs. temperature is not linear.

Vapor pressure (atm)

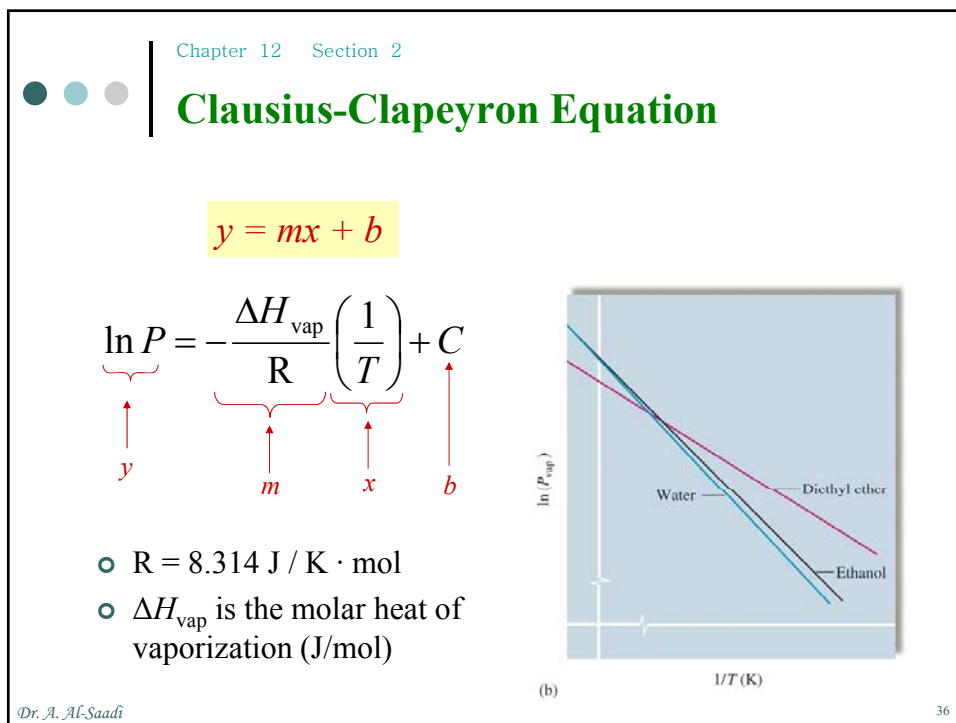
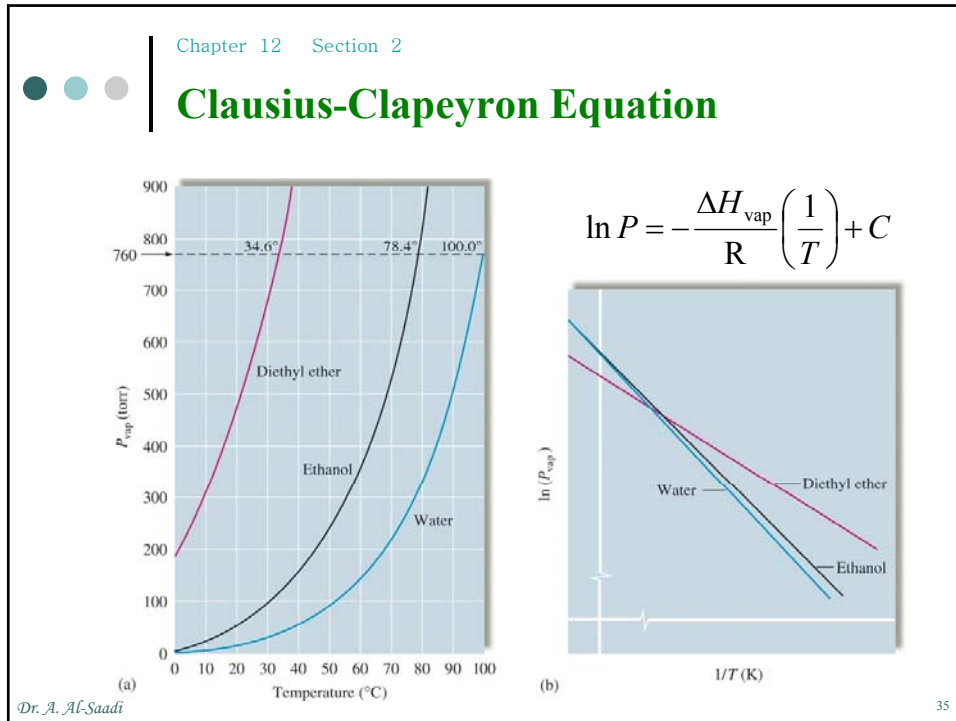
Temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )

Diethyl ether      Water      Mercury

Normal boiling point temperature.

- However, plotting the natural log of vapor pressures vs. the reciprocal of temperature gives a straight line.

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## Clausius-Clapeyron Equation

- *Clausius-Clapeyron equation* can be used to compare between two states of a gas.

$$\text{State 1} \quad \ln P_1 = -\frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left( \frac{1}{T_1} \right) + C \quad \text{State 2} \quad \ln P_2 = -\frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left( \frac{1}{T_2} \right) + C$$

Subtracting the 2<sup>nd</sup> equation from the 1<sup>st</sup> equation gives:

$$\ln \left( \frac{P_1}{P_2} \right) = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left( \frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)$$

## Clausius-Clapeyron Equation

The vapor pressure and heat of vaporization of water at 25°C is 23.8 torr and 43.9 kJ/mol, respectively. Calculate the vapor pressure of water at 50°C.

$$\ln \frac{P_1}{P_2} = \frac{\Delta H_{\text{vap}}}{R} \left( \frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)$$

Chapter 12 Section 3

## Crystal Structure

- **Crystalline Solid:** its components are highly ordered.




- **Amorphous Solid:** its components have considerable disorder.

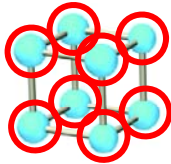



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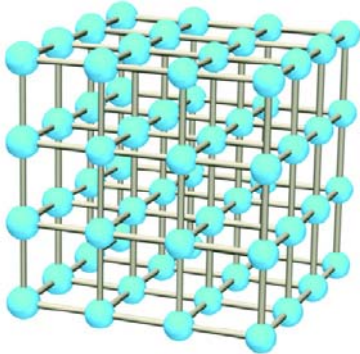
Chapter 12 Section 3

## Crystal Structure

- **Lattice structure** is a 3-D system of points (at defined positions) that make up a crystalline solid.
- **Unit cell** is the basic repeating structural unit in a lattice of a crystalline solid.



Each *lattice point* is occupied by an atom



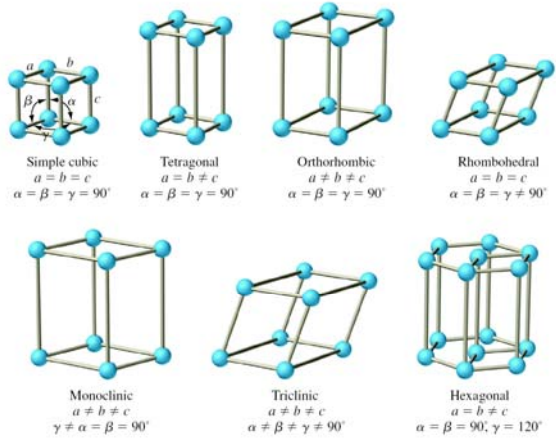
3-D array of unit cells

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Chapter 12 Section 3

## Unit Cells

- There are seven types of unit cells, of which the simple cubic cell is the one of the simplest shape.
- Each unit cell generates a characteristic lattice structure.



Simple cubic  
 $a = b = c$   
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$

Tetragonal  
 $a = b \neq c$   
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$

Orthorhombic  
 $a \neq b \neq c$   
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$

Rhombohedral  
 $a = b = c$   
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma \neq 90^\circ$

Monoclinic  
 $a \neq b \neq c$   
 $\gamma \neq \alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$

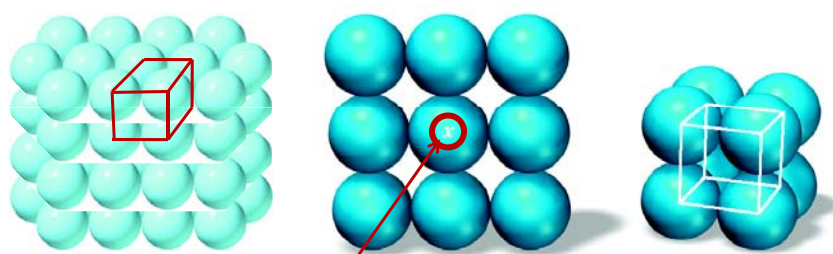
Triclinic  
 $a \neq b \neq c$   
 $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90^\circ$

Hexagonal  
 $a = b \neq c$   
 $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ, \gamma = 120^\circ$

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## Coordination Number in Crystalline Solids



Packing spheres

Coordination number is 6

Simple cubic cell (scc)

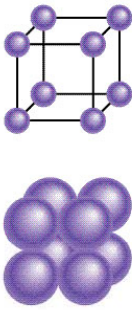
- Coordination number** – number of atoms (particles) surrounding a given atom in a crystal lattice.
  - Indicates how tightly atoms pack.
  - Larger coordination numbers indicate tighter packing.

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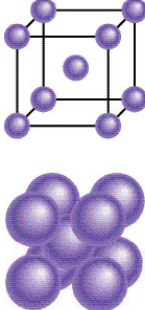
Chapter 12 Section 3

## Other Types of Unit Cells

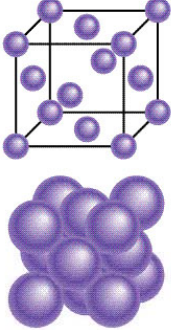
- Different ways of packing result in other types of cubic unit cells.



Simple cubic cell (*scc*)  
Coordination number is 6



Body-centered cubic cell (*bcc*)  
Coordination number is 8


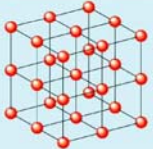


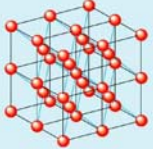
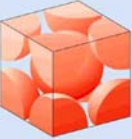
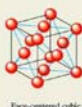
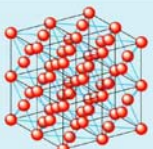
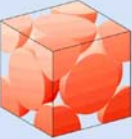


Face-centered cubic cell (*fcc*)  
Coordination number is 12

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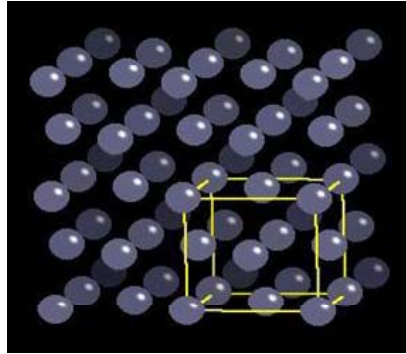
Chapter 12 Section 3

## Other Types of Unit Cells

	Unit cell	Lattice	Space-filling unit cell	Net no. of atoms per unit cell
<i>scc</i>	 <small>Simple cubic</small>			$(8 \times 1/8 = 1)$ 1 atom / unit cell
<i>bcc</i>	 <small>Body-centered cubic</small>			$(8 \times 1/8 + 1 = 2)$ 2 atoms / unit cell
<i>fcc</i>	 <small>Face-centered cubic</small>			$(8 \times 1/8 + 6 \times 1/2 = 4)$ 4 atoms / unit cell

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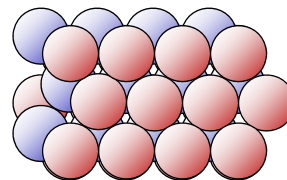
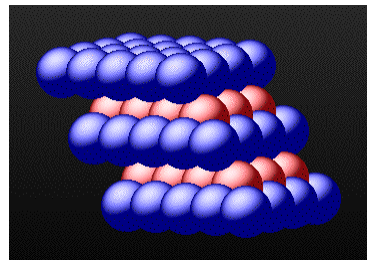
## Example of a Unit Cell



An example of a Faced-Centered Lattice (*fcc*) with its unit cell being shown.

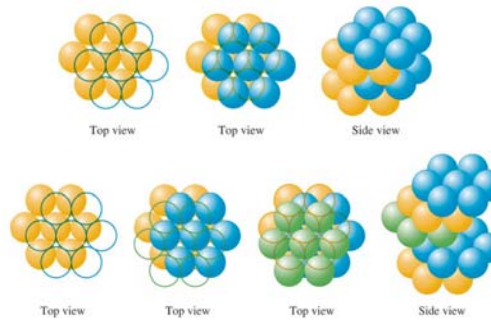
## Closest Packing

- The *closest packing model* describes the most efficient way to pack atoms in layers to be close to each other as much as possible.
- Atoms are represented as uniform, hard spheres. Each sphere occupies a *depression* in the upper and lower layers. These layers don't lie directly on top of each other.



## Closest Packing

- The 3<sup>rd</sup> layer can result in two main types of packing:
  - ABA** packing: the spheres in *every other layer* occupy the same vertical positions.
  - ABC** packing: the spheres in *every fourth layer* occupy the same vertical positions.
- These arrangements have the most efficient use of the available space.

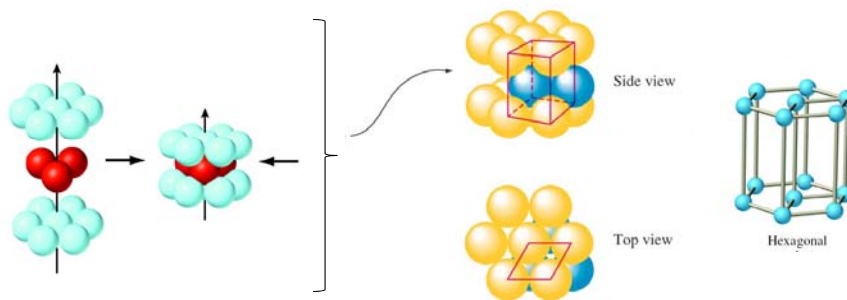


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## The ABA Closest Packing

- The resulting structure from the ABA packing is the hexagonal close-packed (*hcp*) structure (Mg, Zn, Ti). The resulting unit cell is a *hexagonal* unit cell.



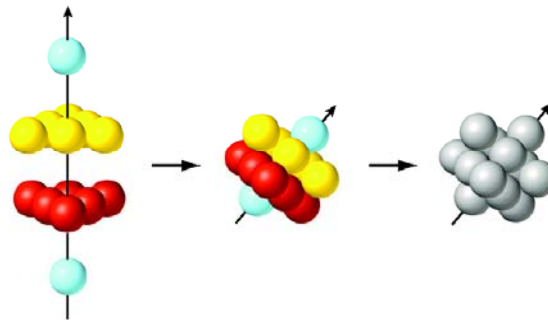
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## The ABC Closest Packing

- The resulting structure from the ABC packing is the cubic close-packed (*ccp*) structure (Al, Ag, Ni).  
The resulting unit cell is a *face-centered cubic (fcc)* cell.

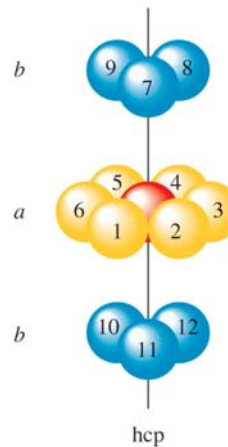


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## Coordination Number

- In both types of packing (*hcp* and *ccp*), each sphere has 12 equivalent neighboring spheres:
  - 6 in the same layers,
  - 3 in the layer above, and
  - 3 in the layer below.
- Coordination number = 12

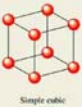
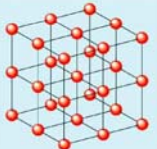

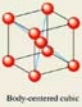
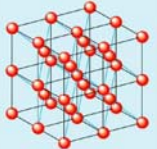
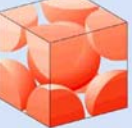

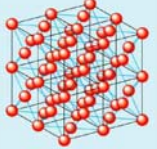
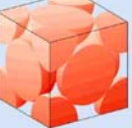


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Chapter 10 Section 4

## Volume of Unit Cells

Unit cell	Lattice	Space-filling unit cell	No. of atoms per unit cell
 Simple cubic			$(8 \times 1/8 = 1)$ 1 atom / unit cell
 Body-centered cubic			$(8 \times 1/8 + 1 = 2)$ 2 atoms / unit cell
 Face-centered cubic			$(8 \times 1/8 + 6 \times 1/2 = 4)$ 4 atoms / unit cell

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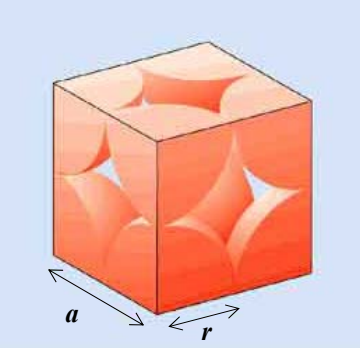
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## Volume of Unit Cells

- The relationship between the edge length ( $a$ ) and radius ( $r$ ) of atoms in a unit cell can be expressed.
- Simple Cubic Cell

$$a = 2r$$

$$\text{Volume} = a^3 = 8r^3$$



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## Volume of Unit Cells

- Body-Centered Cubic Cell

$$c = 4r$$

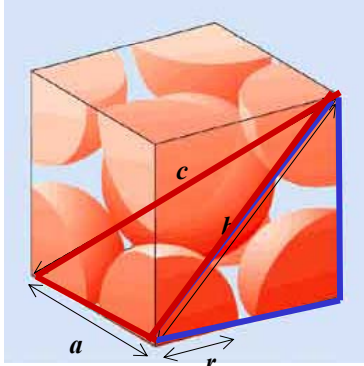
$$b^2 = a^2 + a^2$$

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

$$c^2 = a^2 + 2a^2 = 3a^2$$

$$3a^2 = 16r^2$$

$$a = 4r/\sqrt{3}$$

$$\text{Volume} = 64r^3/(3)^{3/2}$$


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## Volume of Unit Cells

- Face-Centered Cubic Cell

$$a^2 + a^2 = b^2$$

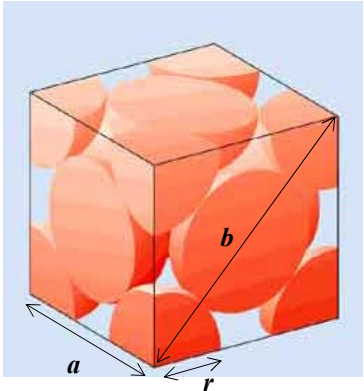
$$b = 4r$$

$$b^2 = 16r^2$$

$$2a^2 = 16r^2$$

$$a^2 = 8r^2$$

$$a = r\sqrt{8}$$

$$\text{Volume} = a^3 = 8^{3/2}r^3$$


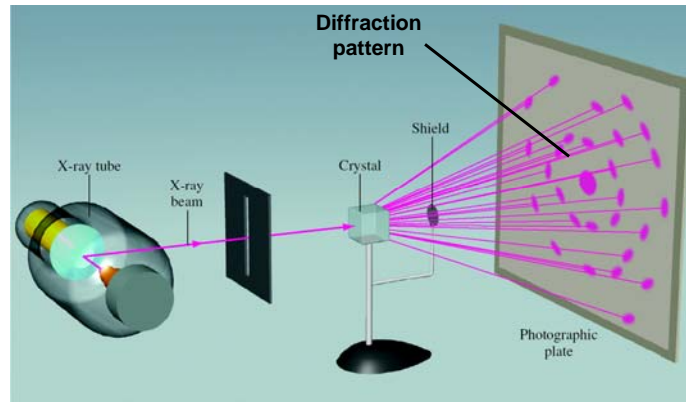
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Chapter 12 Section 3

## How Do We Know the Structures of Crystals

- X-ray diffraction instrument can be used to analyze the structure of various chemical solid materials.



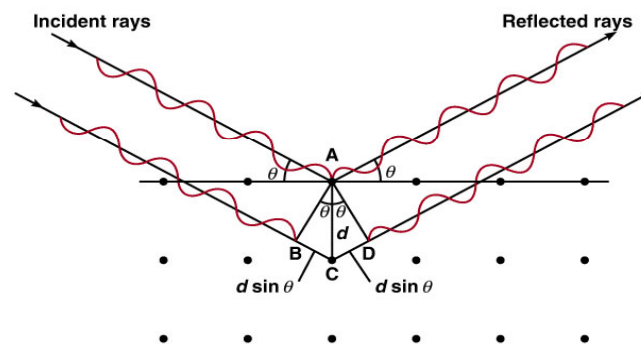
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Chapter 12 Section 3

## X-Ray Diffraction

- Diffraction** is the scattering of light beams from a regular array of points in which the spacings ( $d$ ) between the components are comparable with the wavelength of the light ( $\lambda$ ). The angle of incident / reflection is given by ( $\theta$ ).

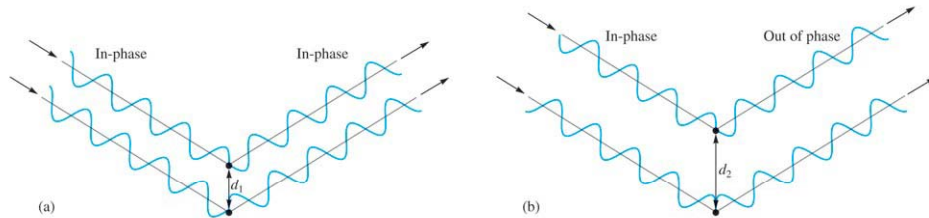


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## X-Ray Diffraction

- X-rays scattered from two different atoms may: (a) reinforce (constructive interference), or (b) cancel (destructive interference) one another.

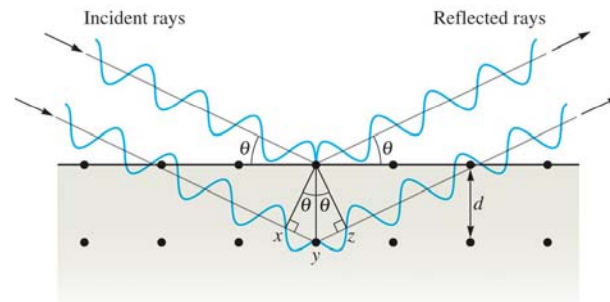


- The difference in distances traveled is an integral number ( $n$ ) of wavelength ( $\lambda$ ).
- The diffraction pattern can be used to determine the interatomic distances.

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## X-Ray Diffraction



$$xy + yz = n\lambda \quad \text{(In-phase light)}$$

$$xy + yz = 2d \sin\theta \quad \text{(From trigonometry)}$$

$$\mathbf{2d \sin\theta = n\lambda} \quad \text{(Bragg Equation)}$$

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## X-Ray Diffraction

A topaz crystal has an interplanar spacing of  $1.36 \text{ \AA}$ . Calculate the wavelength of the X ray that should be used if the  $\theta$  is  $15.0^\circ$ . Assume  $n=1$ .



$$2d \sin\theta = n\lambda$$