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These ICSE Class 10 Chemistry Chapter 2 Chemical Communications Revision Notes will definitely increase your confidence and reduce anxiety expertise. Students can download FREE PDF ICSE Class 10 Chemistry Chapter 2 Chemical Communications Revision Notes and use it to clear all their doubts and inquiries and therefore excel in their exam. Chemical communication Chemical communication is the force of attraction between atoms, which leads to the formation of chemical compounds. Communication arises from the electrostatic force of attraction between the atoms of opposite charges and through the sharing of electrons (in covalent bonds). Atoms lose, acquire or divide electrons to achieve configuration and stability of the octet. The force of gravity is the result of the behavior of external or valence electrons. On the basis of this force, different types of bonds are formed that will have different properties in the joints. The strength of chemical bonds varies considerably, leading to the formation of either strong or primary bonds and weak or Bonds. Strong connections include ion or electrovalent communications, covalent communications and covalent or dative bonds. Weak connections include dipole-dipole interactions and hydrogen bonds. Three main types of atomic bonds: 1. Ion bonds: They are formed due to non-directional interatomic forces and electron transmission. They give a structure of high coordination and there is electrical conductivity at low temperatures. 2. Kovalent bonds: They are formed due to localized (directed) large interatomic forces and the exchange of electrons. They help to form structures of low coordination and low conductivity at low temperatures (for pure crystals). 3. Metal bonds: They are formed by the non-direction of large interatomic forces. Bond's ion or electrovalent bond is a complete transmission of a valence electron between atoms. Ionic bonds arise between metals (electronic donors) and non-metals (electronic receivers) due to the electrostatic force of attraction between positive and negative ions. Ion or electrovalent bonds are formed in conditions of low energy ionization, high affinity of electrons and high lattice energy. Bond's covalent covalent bonds are formed between two or more atoms when they separate electrons. They usually form between atoms of similar electronegativity and can occur between atoms of the same or other kind. Example: Hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen separate 1, 2 and 3 electrons respectively, with similar atoms to form molecules. Carbon and hydrogen electrons are divided by electrons to form hydrocarbons. Covalent bonds can be polar or non-polar. The greater the difference in electronegativity, the greater the polar nature of the molecule. Polar covalent bonds are formed between atoms with differences in electronegativity, such as water and hydrogen chloride. Kovalent bonds have three types: single-valent bonds, double covalent bonds and triple covalent bonds. Coordinated Bonds or Dative Bond Coordination Bonds are also known as dative bonds or co-ordination communication is a type of covalent bond in which two common electrons are supplied by one atom. It is formed by two atoms separating a pair of electrons, where one of the atoms has a lonely pair of electrons. Electrons are attracted to both nuclei. The atom that supplies both electrons is called a donor and the other atom is called a receiver. A single pair is a valence electronic pair without communication or exchange with other atoms. They are located in the outer electronic shell of the atom. Example: Nitrogen has 5 valence electrons, three of which are used to communicate with hydrogen to form ammonia. Nitrogen in ammonia thus has one lonely pair of electrons on the left. When ammonia is combined with hydrogen ion, it forms ammonium ion. Nitrogen is a donor and hydrogen is a taker. ICSE Class 10 Chemistry Chapter 2 Bonding Properties Revision Notes PDF Chemical Link - Chemical Bond Force that holds different atoms in a molecule called Link. Octet Rule atoms of various elements take part in a chemical combination to complete their octet or achieve a noble gas configuration. - Valence Electrons is the most external electron shell that takes part in the chemical combination. Facts presented by Kossel in connection with chemical bonding - In the periodic table, high-energy halogens and high-energy alkaline metals are separated by noble gases. The formation of anion and cation by halogens and alkaline metals is formed by the strengthening of the electron and the loss of the electron, respectively. Both negative and positive ions acquire a noble gas configuration. - Negative and positive ions are stabilized by electrostatic attraction Example - Modes of chemical combination - By transmission of electrons: Chemical communication, which is formed by the complete transmission of one or more electrons from one atom to another, are called electrovalent communication or ion communication. Electron exchange: A bond formed by an equal distribution of electrons between one or two atoms is called covalent communication. In these connections, electrons are introduced by both. - Coordination: When electrons are inserted by one atom and separated by both, a bond is formed and it is known as a dative communication or coordination. The ion or electrovalent bond of Bond Ionic or Electrovalent is formed by the complete transfer of electrons from one atom to another. It is usually formed between metals and non-metals. It can be said that it is the electrostatic force of attraction that holds together the opposite charged ions. Compounds that are formed by ion or electrovalent bonds are known as electrovalent compounds. For example, (i) NaCl is an electrovalent compound. The NaCl formation is below: Ion Naz has a Ne configuration, while Cl-ion represents the Ar configuration. (ii) Formation of magnesium oxide from magnesium and oxygen. Electrovalency: Electrovalency is the number of electrons lost or produced in the formation of an ion connection or electrovalent communication. Factors influencing the formation of the ion bond (i) ionization enthalpy: As we know that the ionization of enthalpy of any element is the amount of energy needed to remove the electron from the outer shell of an isolated gaseous atom to convert it into a cation. Thus, less ionization enthalpy, easier to form a cation and have a better chance of forming an ion bond. For this reason, alkaline metals have a greater propensity to form an ion bond. For example, when forming a ion Naz 1.E. 496 kJ/mole While in the case of magnesium, it is 743 kJ/mole. Therefore, the formation of positive sodium ion is easier than magnesium. So we can conclude that reduce ionization enthalpy, more ion connections. (ii) Electron receives enthalpy (Electron It is defined as the energy released when an isolated gas atom takes an electron to form an anion. The more negative the electron get enthalpy, the easier it will be to form anion. Consequently, there is an increased likelihood of ion connections. For example. Halogens have a high affinity for electrons. Thus, the formation of anion is very common in halogens. (iii) Lattice energy or enthalpy: Defined as the amount of energy needed to release 1 mole of ion compounds into individual opposite-charged ions. The energy of the ion compound lattice depends on the following factors: (i) The size of the ions: Smaller size, more energy grids. (ii) Charge on ions: more charge, more inter-regional gravity, and therefore higher energy grid. Common characteristics of ion compounds (i) Physical condition: They usually exist as crystalline solids, known as crystal lattice. Ionic compounds do not exist as single molecules like other gaseous molecules such as H₂, N₂, O₂, Cl₂ etc. (ii) Floating and boiling points: Since ion compounds contain high interallic power between them, they generally have high melting and boiling points. (iii) Soluble: they are soluble in polar solvents such as water, but are not dissolved in organic solvents such as benzene, CCl₄etc. (iv) Electrical conductivity: In solid condition they are poor conductors of electricity, but in a molten state or when dissolved in water, they conduct electricity. (v) Ion reactions: Ion compounds produce ions in a solution that gives a very rapid reaction with opposite charged ions. For example, the concept of The Bond-Lewis-Langmuir When a connection is formed between two or more atoms through mutual contribution and exchange of electrons, it is known as covalent bond. If combining atoms are the same, the covalent molecule is known as homoatomic. If they are different, they are known as

heteroatomic molecules. For example, Lewis Representation of Simple Molecules (Lewis Structures) Lewis Point Structure can be written in the following steps: (i) Calculate the total number of valence electrons combining atoms. Each anion means the addition of one electron, and each cation means the removal of one electron. This gives the total number of electrons to be distributed. (iii) Knowing the chemical symbols of the combination of atoms. after placing common pairs of electrons for one connection, the remaining electrons can take into account either multiple connections or as single pairs. It should be noted that the octet of each atom must be completed. Formal charge of polyatomic ions, pure charge charge on ion as a whole, not a specific atom. However, charges can be assigned to individual atoms or ions. This is called formal This can be expressed as the limitations of the Octet Rule (j) Incomplete Octet of central atoms: atoms: some covalent compounds of the central atom have less than eight electrons, i.e. has an incomplete octet. For example, Li, Be and B have only 1, 2 and 3 valence electrons. (ii) Odd-electronic molecules: There are certain molecules that have the odd number of electrons the octet rule does not apply to all atoms. (iii) Extended Octe: In many compounds around the central atom there are more than eight valence electrons. It is called an extended octet. For example, other flaws octet Theory (i) Some noble gases, also in combination with oxygen and fluoride, form a number of compounds such as XeF2, XeOF2, etc. (ii) This theory does not take into account the shape of the molecule. (iii) It gives no idea about the energy of the molecule and the relative stability. Bond length is defined as the equilibrium distance between the centers of the nuclei of two cabed atoms. It is expressed in terms of A. Experimentally, it can be defined by X-ray diffraction or electron diffraction method. The angle of communication is defined as the angle between the lines representing the orbits containing the communication - electrons. This helps us in determining the form. This can be expressed to a degree. The angle of communication can be experimentally determined by spectroscopic methods. Bond Enthalpy This is defined as the amount of energy needed to break one mole ties of a certain type to divide them into gaseous atoms. Bond Enthalpy is also known as a dissociation association enthalpy or simple enthalpy connection. Unit communication enthalpy q kJ mol-1 Large talc bond, stronger connection. For example, the H-H enthalpy connection in hydrogen is 435.8 kJ ma-1. The scale of the bonding bond is also linked to the plurality of bonds. The more multifaceted bonds, the more will the enthalpy connection. For example, the bond enthalpy C-C bonds is 347 kJ ma-1 while C and C bonds have 610 kJ ma-1. In polyatomic molecules, the term medium or average enthalpy connection is used. According to Lewis, in the covalent bond, the bond order is given by the number of bonds between the two atoms in the molecule. For example, the order of bonds H2 (H-H) No. 1 Bond about O2 (O and O) No. 2 Bond order N2 (N and N) No. 3 Isolelectron molecules and ions have the same bond orders. For example, F2 and O22- have an order for bonds No. 1. N2, CO and NOZ have an order for bonds No. 3. With the increase in the order of bonds, the bond enthalpy increases and the length of bonds decreases. For example - Resonant structures there are many molecules whose behavior can not be explained by one-lew is the structure, Thor example, Lewis ozone structure presented as follows: Thus, according to the concept of resonance, whenever one structure Lewis can not explain all the properties of the molecule, the molecule is then supposed to have many structures with similar energy. Positions of the cores that bind and pairs of electrons are accepted as canonical canonical a hybrid that accurately describes a molecule. For O3, the two structures shown above are canonical structures and Structure III represents the structure of O3 more accurately. It's also called a resonant hybrid. Some of the resonating structures of some molecules and ions are shown as follows: The polarity of polar and non-polar covalent bonds, non-polar covalent bonds: When atoms connected by covalent bond are the same; H2, O2, Cl2, a total pair of electrons equally attracts two atoms and thus the total electronic pair is equally reliable for both of them. Alternatively, it can be said that it is in the center of bonding atoms. As a result, no poles are developed and communication is called non-polar covalent communication. The corresponding molecules are known as non-polar molecules. For example, Polar Connection: When covalent bonds are formed between different atoms of different electronegaty, the common electronic pair between the two atoms shifts towards highly electro-electro-dependent atoms. For example, in the HCl molecule, because chlorine's eregability is higher compared to hydrogen, so the electronic vapor shifts more towards the chlorine atom, so chlorine gains a partial negative charge (δ-) and the hydrogen atom has a partial positive charge (δ) with the size of the charge just as on chlorination. This covalent bond is called the polar covalent bond. The moment of dipole due to polarity, polar molecules are also known as dipole molecules, and they have a dipole moment. Dipol moment is defined as a product of the value of a positive or negative charge and the distance between charges. The use of dipole moment (j) to determine the polarity of molecules. (ii) When looking for the shapes of molecules. For example, molecules with zero dipole moment will be linear or symmetrical. Those molecules that have asymmetrical shapes will be either bent or angular. (e.g. NH3with μ 1.47 D). (iii) in calculating the percentage of the ionic nature of polar links. Sidgwick and Powell's 1940 Valence Shell (VSEPR) vapour theory offered a simple theory based on the repulsive nature of electron vapors in the valence of atoms. It was further designed by Nyholm and Gillespie (1957). The basic postulates are: (i) The exact shape of the molecule depends on the number of electronic pairs (caped or not connected) around the central atoms. (ii) Pairs of electrons tend to push each other away because they exist around the central atom and electronic clouds are negatively charged. (iii) Electronic couples try to take a position that can minimize the gap between them. (iv) The valent shell is considered a sphere, during the year electronic pairs are placed at the maximum distance. (v) Multiple communication is seen as a single electronic pair and electronic pairing, as single pairs. Bond Valente's theory of valence was introduced by Eitler and London (1927) and developed by Poing and others. It is based on the concept of atomic orbits and the electronic configuration of atoms. Consider the formation of a hydrogen molecule based on the theory of valence-connection. Let the two hydrogen atoms A and B, having their NU and NB nuclei and the electrons present in them, are eA and eB. As these two atoms approach, new attractive and repulsive forces begin to act. (j) The nucleus of one atom is attracted to its electron and the electron of another and vice versa. (ii) Between the electrons of two atoms and the nuclei of two atoms, abhorrent forces arise. Attractive forces tend to bring two atoms closer, while repulsive forces tend to push them apart. The concept of orbital overlap In accordance with the concept of orbital overlap, the covalent bond formed between atoms results in overlapping orbits belonging to atoms that have opposite electron rotations. The formation of a hydrogen molecule as a result of overlapping two atomic orbits of hydrogen atoms is shown in the following figures: The stability of the molecular orbit depends on the degree of overlap of atomic orbitals. The types of orbital overlap, depending on the type of overlapping, covalent bonds have two types known as sigma (σ) and pi (π) bonds. (i) Sigma (σ bond): The Sigma connection is formed from start to finish (in the first direction) of overlapping orbits along the inter-core axis. The ossium overlap, which includes these orbital orbits, consists of three types: s-s-overlapping: In this case, two semi-polished s-orbits are overlapping along the internecine axis, as shown below: s-p overlaps: This type of overlap occurs between semi-polished c-orbiting one atom and half-filled p-orbiting orbits of another atom. P-p overlap: This type of overlap occurs between half-filled p-orbiting two approaching atoms. (ii) pi (π bond): π communication is formed by atomic orbits when they overlap so that their axis remain parallel to each other and perpendicular to the inter-nuclear axis. Orbital is formed from the side overlap or lateral wise overlap. The strength of the Bonds Sigma and pi Bonds Sigma (σ bond) is formed by the blade overlap of atomic orbits, while the π-link is formed by lateral wise overlap. Since the able overlap is more compared to the lateral wise. Thus, sigma bonds are said to be stronger bonds than π bonds. The difference between sigma and n-bonds - hybridization - is the process of mixing orbits with slightly different energies in order to redistribute their energy, leading to the formation of a new set of orbits of equivalent energies and shapes. The main features of hybridization: (i) orbitals take part in hybridization almost the same energy. Energy. The number of hybrid orbits produced is equal to the number of mixed atomic orbits, (iii) the geometry of the covalent molecule can be labeled a type of hybridization. Hybrid orbiters are more efficient in forming stable bonds than clean atomic orbits. Conditions required for hybridization: (i) Orbital valences take part in hybridization. Orbitals involved in hybridization should have almost equal energy. (iii) The promotion of an electron is not a prerequisite until hybridization. In some cases, the filled orbits of the valence shell also participate in hybridization. Types of hybridization: (i) sp hybridization: When one c and one p-orbital hybridize to form two equivalent orbital, orbital is known as sp hybrid orbital, and a type of hybridization is called sp hybridization. Each of the formed hybrid orbits has 50% s-characer and 50% p-symbol. This type of hybridization is also known as diagonal hybridization. (ii) Hybridization sp2: This type hybridizes one-off and two p-orbital hybridizations to form three equivalent hybridized sp2 orbital stations. All three hybrid orbits remain in the same plane, making an angle of 120. Example. Several compounds in which sp2 hybridization occurs BF3, BH3, BC13 carbon compounds containing double communication, etc. (iii) sp3 hybridization: In this type, one with and three p-orbiting in the valent shell of the atom get hybridized to form four equivalent hybrid orbitals. There is a 25% s-symbol and 75% p-symbol in each sp3 hybrid orbital. Four sp3 orbits are aimed at four-corner tetraedre. The angle between hybrid sp3 orbits is 109.5 degrees. The connection in which sp3 hybridization occurs (CH4). The structures of NH2 and H2O molecules can also be explained by sp3 hybridization. Formation of molecular orbital stations: Linear combination of atomic orbital stations (LCAO) Formation of molecular orbital stations can be explained by a linear combination of atomic orbits. The combination occurs either by adding or by subtracting the wave function, as shown below. The molecular orbit formed by the addition of atomic orbiting stations is called the connection of molecular orbit, while the molecular orbit formed by subtraction of atomic orbits is called antibond molecular orbit. Conditions for a combination of nuclear orbital stations: (1) The unification of nuclear orbital stations should have almost equal energy. (2) The unification of nuclear orbital stations should have the same symmetry with respect to the molecular axis. (3) The unification of nuclear orbital stations should overlap to the maximum extent. Types of molecular orbital sigma (σ) Molecular Orbital: They are symmetrical around the axis of communication. pi (π) Orbits: They are not symmetrical, due to the presence of positive shares above and negative shares below the molecular plane. Electronic configuration and molecular behavior The distribution of electrons between between molecular orbit is called the electronic configuration of a molecule. The stability of molecules and the order of bond bonds is defined as half the difference between the number of electrons present in bonding and anti-bond molecular orbits. Bond Order (B.O.) No. 1/2 Nb-Na Bond Order can be a whole number, faction or even zero. It can also be positive or negative. Nature Bonds: The integral value of ordering bonds for one double and triple bonds will be 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Bond-Length: Bond order is inversely proportional to the length of bonds. Thus, the longer the order of bonds, the less the length of bonds will be. Magnetic Nature: If all molecular orbits have paired electrons, the substance is diamagnetic. If one or more molecular orbits have unpaired electrons, it is paramagnetic, for example, O2 molecules. Communication in some homoyander (diatomic) Molecules (1) Hydrogen Molecule (H2): It is formed as a result of a combination of two hydrogen atoms. Each hydrogen atom has one electron in orbit, so the electronic configuration of the hydrogen molecule means that two hydrogen atoms are bound by one covalent bond. The energy of the hydrogen bond dissociation was found - 438 kJ/mole. Bond-Length 74pm No unspaarable electron is present so it's diamagnetic. (2) Helium Molecule (He2): Each helium atom contains two electrons, so there are four electrons in the He2 molecule. Electrons will be placed in molecular orbits No.1 and o'1s: - Hydrogen electronic non-electronic elements such as nitrogen, oxygen, flour are attached to hydrogen to form a covalent bond, covalent electrons are shifted towards a more electronic atom. Thus, a partial positive charge develops on a hydrogen atom, which forms a connection with another electronegate atom. This bond is known as a hydrogen bond, and it is weaker than the covalent bond. For example, in a HF molecule there is a hydrogen bond between the hydrogen atom of one molecule and the fluoride atom of another molecule. It can be depicted as H-Bonds (j) intermolecular hydrogen bond (ii) intramolecular hydrogen bond. Intermolecular hydrogen: it is formed between two different molecules of the same or different compounds. For example, in HF molecules, water molecules, etc. (ii) Intramolecular Hydrogen Connection: In this type, the hydrogen atom is located between two high-energy F, N, O atoms present in the same molecule. For example, in o-nitrophenol, hydrogen is located between two oxygen atoms. Chemistry notes of the 11th grade

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