A hydrogen bond is an intermolecular force (IMF) that forms a special type of dipole-dipole attraction when a hydrogen atom bonded to a strongly electronegative atom exists in the vicinity of another electronegative atom with a lone pair of electrons. Intermolecular forces (IMFs) occur between molecules. Other examples include ordinary dipole-dipole interactions and dispersion forces. Hydrogen bonds are generally stronger than ordinary dipole-dipole and dispersion forces, but weaker than true covalent and ionic bonds.

The evidence for hydrogen bonding

Many elements form compounds with hydrogen. If you plot the boiling points of the compounds of the group 14 elements with hydrogen, you find that the boiling points increase as you go down the group.

![Figure 1: Boiling points of group 14 elemental halides.](image)

The increase in boiling point happens because the molecules are getting larger with more electrons, and so van der Waals dispersion forces become greater. If you repeat this exercise with the compounds of the elements in groups 15, 16, and 17 with hydrogen, something odd happens.

![Figure 2: Boiling points of group 15-17 elemental halides.](image)

Although the same reasoning applies for group 4 of the periodic table, the boiling point of the compound of hydrogen with the first element in each group is abnormally high. In the cases of NH₃, H₂O and HF there must be some additional intermolecular forces of attraction, requiring significantly more heat energy to break the IMFs. These relatively powerful intermolecular forces are described as hydrogen bonds.
Origin of Hydrogen Bonding

The molecules capable of hydrogen bonding include the following:

![Figure 3: The lone pairs responsible for hydrogen bonding in $\text{NH}_3$, $\text{H}_2\text{O}$, and $\text{HF}$](image)

Notice that in each of these molecules:

- The hydrogen is attached directly to a highly electronegative atom, causing the hydrogen to acquire a highly positive charge.
- Each of the highly electronegative atoms attains a high negative charge and has at least one "active" lone pair. Lone pairs at the 2-level have electrons contained in a relatively small volume of space, resulting in a high negative charge density. Lone pairs at higher levels are more diffuse and, resulting in a lower charge density and lower affinity for positive charge.

If you are not familiar with electronegativity, you should follow this link before you go on.

Consider two water molecules coming close together.

![Figure 4: Hydrogen bonding in water](image)

The $\delta^+$ hydrogen is so strongly attracted to the lone pair that it is almost as if you were beginning to form a coordinate (dative covalent) bond. It doesn't go that far, but the attraction is significantly stronger than an ordinary dipole-dipole interaction. Hydrogen bonds have about a tenth of the strength of an average covalent bond, and are constantly broken and reformed in liquid water. If you liken the covalent bond between the oxygen and hydrogen to a stable marriage, the hydrogen bond has "just good friends" status.
Water is an ideal example of hydrogen bonding. Notice that each water molecule can potentially form four hydrogen bonds with surrounding water molecules: two with the hydrogen atoms and two with the oxygen atoms. There are exactly the right numbers of $\delta^+\text{hydrogens}$ and lone pairs for every one of them to be involved in hydrogen bonding.

This is why the boiling point of water is higher than that of ammonia or hydrogen fluoride. In the case of ammonia, the amount of hydrogen bonding is limited by the fact that each nitrogen only has one lone pair. In a group of ammonia molecules, there are not enough lone pairs to go around to satisfy all the hydrogens. In hydrogen fluoride, the problem is a shortage of hydrogens. In water, two hydrogen bonds and two lone pairs allow formation of hydrogen bond interactions in a lattice of water molecules. Water is thus considered an ideal hydrogen bonded system.

More complex examples of hydrogen bonding

The hydration of negative ions

When an ionic substance dissolves in water, water molecules cluster around the separated ions. This process is called hydration. Water frequently attaches to positive ions by co-ordinate (dative covalent) bonds. It bonds to negative ions using hydrogen bonds.

If you are interested in the bonding in hydrated positive ions, you could follow this link to co-ordinate (dative covalent) bonding.

The diagram shows the potential hydrogen bonds formed with a chloride ion, $\text{Cl}^-$. Although the lone pairs in the chloride ion are at the 3-level and would not normally be active enough to form hydrogen bonds, they are made more attractive by the full negative charge on the chlorine in this case.

![Hydrogen bonding between chloride ions and water.](image)

Figure 5: Hydrogen bonding between chloride ions and water.

However complicated the negative ion, there will always be lone pairs that the hydrogen atoms from the water molecules can hydrogen bond to.
Hydrogen bonding in alcohols

An alcohol is an organic molecule containing an -OH group. Any molecule which has a hydrogen atom attached directly to an oxygen or a nitrogen is capable of hydrogen bonding. Hydrogen bonds also occur when hydrogen is bonded to fluorine, but the HF group does not appear in other molecules. Molecules with hydrogen bonds will always have higher boiling points than similarly sized molecules which don't have an -O-H or an -N-H group. The hydrogen bonding makes the molecules "stickier," such that more heat (energy) is required to separate them. This phenomenon can be used to analyze boiling point of different molecules, defined as the temperature at which a phase change from liquid to gas occurs.

Ethanol, \(\ce{CH3CH2-O-H}\), and methoxymethane, \(\ce{CH3-O-CH3}\), both have the same molecular formula, \(\ce{C2H6O}\).

They have the same number of electrons, and a similar length. The van der Waals attractions (both dispersion forces and dipole-dipole attractions) in each will be similar. However, ethanol has a hydrogen atom attached directly to an oxygen; here the oxygen still has two lone pairs like a water molecule. Hydrogen bonding can occur between ethanol molecules, although not as effectively as in water. The hydrogen bonding is limited by the fact that there is only one hydrogen in each ethanol molecule with sufficient \(\delta^+\) charge.

In methoxymethane, the lone pairs on the oxygen are still there, but the hydrogens are not sufficiently \(\delta^+\) for hydrogen bonds to form. Except in some rather unusual cases, the hydrogen atom has to be attached directly to the very electronegative element for hydrogen bonding to occur. The boiling points of ethanol and methoxymethane show the dramatic effect that the hydrogen bonding has on the stickiness of the ethanol molecules:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boiling Point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ethanol</td>
<td>78.5°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methoxymethane</td>
<td>-24.8°C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hydrogen bonding in the ethanol has lifted its boiling point about 100°C. It is important to realize that hydrogen bonding exists in addition to van der Waals attractions. For example, all the following molecules contain the same number of electrons, and the first two have similar chain lengths. The higher boiling point of the butan-1-ol is due to the additional hydrogen bonding.
Comparing the two alcohols (containing -OH groups), both boiling points are high because of the additional hydrogen bonding; however, the values are not the same. The boiling point of the 2-methylpropan-1-ol isn't as high as the butan-1-ol because the branching in the molecule makes the van der Waals attractions less effective than in the longer butan-1-ol.

### Hydrogen bonding in organic molecules containing nitrogen

Hydrogen bonding also occurs in organic molecules containing N-H groups; recall the hydrogen bonds that occur with ammonia. Examples range from simple molecules like CH₃NH₂ (methylamine) to large molecules like proteins and DNA. The two strands of the famous double helix in DNA are held together by hydrogen bonds between hydrogen atoms attached to nitrogen on one strand, and lone pairs on another nitrogen or an oxygen on the other one.

### Donors and Acceptors

In order for a hydrogen bond to occur there must be both a hydrogen donor and an acceptor present. The donor in a hydrogen bond is usually a strongly electronegative atom such as N, O, or F that is covalently bonded to a hydrogen bond.

The hydrogen acceptor is an electronegative atom of a neighboring molecule or ion that contains a lone pair that participates in the hydrogen bond.

### Why does a hydrogen bond occur?

Since the hydrogen donor (N, O, or F) is strongly electronegative, it pulls the covalently bonded electron pair closer to its nucleus, and away from the hydrogen atom. The hydrogen atom is then left with a partial positive charge, creating a dipole-dipole attraction between the hydrogen atom bonded to the donor and the lone electron pair of the acceptor. This
results in a hydrogen bond. (see Interactions Between Molecules With Permanent Dipoles)

Types of hydrogen bonds

Although hydrogen bonds are well-known as a type of IMF, these bonds can also occur within a single molecule, between two identical molecules, or between two dissimilar molecules.

Intramolecular hydrogen bonds

Intramolecular hydrogen bonds are those which occur within one single molecule. This occurs when two functional groups of a molecule can form hydrogen bonds with each other. In order for this to happen, both a hydrogen donor and a hydrogen acceptor must be present within one molecule, and they must be within close proximity of each other in the molecule. For example, intramolecular hydrogen bonding occurs in ethylene glycol (C\textsubscript{2}H\textsubscript{4}(OH)\textsubscript{2}) between its two hydroxyl groups due to the molecular geometry.

Intermolecular hydrogen bonds

Intermolecular hydrogen bonds occur between separate molecules in a substance. They can occur between any number of like or unlike molecules as long as hydrogen donors and acceptors are present in positions where they can interact with one another. For example, intermolecular hydrogen bonds can occur between NH\textsubscript{3} molecules alone, between H\textsubscript{2}O molecules alone, or between NH\textsubscript{3} and H\textsubscript{2}O molecules.
Properties and effects of hydrogen bonds

On Boiling Point

When we consider the **boiling** points of molecules, we usually expect molecules with larger molar masses to have higher normal boiling points than molecules with smaller molar masses. This, without taking hydrogen bonds into account, is due to greater dispersion forces (see Interactions Between Nonpolar Molecules). Larger molecules have more space for electron distribution and thus more possibilities for an instantaneous dipole moment. However, when we consider the table below, we see that this is not always the case.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Molar Mass</th>
<th>Normal Boiling Point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(\text{H}_2\text{O})</td>
<td>18 g/mol</td>
<td>373 K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{HF})</td>
<td>20 g/mol</td>
<td>292.5 K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{NH}_3)</td>
<td>17 g/mol</td>
<td>239.8 K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{H}_2\text{S})</td>
<td>34 g/mol</td>
<td>212.9 K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{HCl})</td>
<td>36.4 g/mol</td>
<td>197.9 K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\text{PH}_3)</td>
<td>34 g/mol</td>
<td>185.2 K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We see that \(\text{H}_2\text{O}\), \(\text{HF}\), and \(\text{NH}_3\) each have higher boiling points than the same compound formed between hydrogen and the next element moving down its respective group, indicating that the former have greater intermolecular forces. This is because \(\text{H}_2\text{O}\), \(\text{HF}\), and \(\text{NH}_3\) all exhibit hydrogen bonding, whereas the others do not. Furthermore, \(\text{H}_2\text{O}\) has a smaller molar mass than \(\text{HF}\) but partakes in more hydrogen bonds per molecule, so its boiling point is higher.

On Viscosity

The same effect that is seen on boiling point as a result of hydrogen bonding can also be observed in the **viscosity** of certain substances. Substances capable of forming hydrogen bonds tend to have a higher viscosity than those that do not for hydrogen bonds. Generally, substances that have the possibility for multiple hydrogen bonds exhibit even higher viscosities.
Factors preventing Hydrogen bonding

Electronegativity

Hydrogen bonding cannot occur without significant electronegativity differences between hydrogen and the atom it is bonded to. Thus, we see molecules such as PH₃, which no not partake in hydrogen bonding. PH₃ exhibits a trigonal pyramidal molecular geometry like that of ammonia, but unlike NH₃ it cannot hydrogen bond. This is due to the similarity in the electronegativities of phosphorous and hydrogen. Both atoms have an electronegativity of 2.1, and thus, no dipole moment occurs. This prevents the hydrogen bonding from acquiring the partial positive charge needed to hydrogen bond with the lone electron pair in another molecule. (see Polarizability)

Atom Size

The size of donors and acceptors can also effect the ability to hydrogen bond. This can account for the relatively low ability of Cl to form hydrogen bonds. When the radii of two atoms differ greatly or are large, their nuclei cannot achieve close proximity when they interact, resulting in a weak interaction.

Hydrogen Bonding in Nature

Hydrogen bonding plays a crucial role in many biological processes and can account for many natural phenomena such as the Unusual properties of Water. In addition to being present in water, hydrogen bonding is also important in the water transport system of plants, secondary and tertiary protein structure, and DNA base pairing.
Plants

The cohesion-adhesion theory of transport in vascular plants uses hydrogen bonding to explain many key components of water movement through the plant's xylem and other vessels. Within a vessel, water molecules hydrogen bond not only to each other, but also to the cellulose chain which comprises the wall of plant cells. Since the vessel is relatively small, the attraction of the water to the cellulose wall creates a sort of capillary tube that allows for capillary action. This mechanism allows plants to pull water up into their roots. Furthermore, hydrogen bonding can create a long chain of water molecules which can overcome the force of gravity and travel up to the high altitudes of leaves.

Proteins

Hydrogen bonding is present abundantly in the secondary structure of proteins, and also sparingly in tertiary conformation. The secondary structure of a protein involves interactions (mainly hydrogen bonds) between neighboring polypeptide backbones which contain Nitrogen-Hydrogen bonded pairs and oxygen atoms. Since both N and O are strongly electronegative, the hydrogen atoms bonded to nitrogen in one polypeptide backbone can hydrogen bond to the oxygen atoms in another chain and visa-versa. Though they are relatively weak, these bonds offer substantial stability to secondary protein structure because they repeat many times and work collectively.

In tertiary protein structure, interactions are primarily between functional R groups of a polypeptide chain; one such interaction is called a hydrophobic interaction. These interactions occur because of hydrogen bonding between water molecules around the hydrophobe that further reinforces protein conformation.

References

Contributors and Attributions

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