

Introduction to Organic Chemistry

HSSP 2010

Lecture 1

Slides modified from MIT 5.12 Organic
Chemistry lecture notes, Spring 2007

Organic chemistry

What: The study of carbon-containing compounds

Why: Pervasive in nature

Chemical foundation of biology

Improve standard of living (medicines, plastics, pesticides . . .)

How: Examine structure and analyze how it governs reactivity

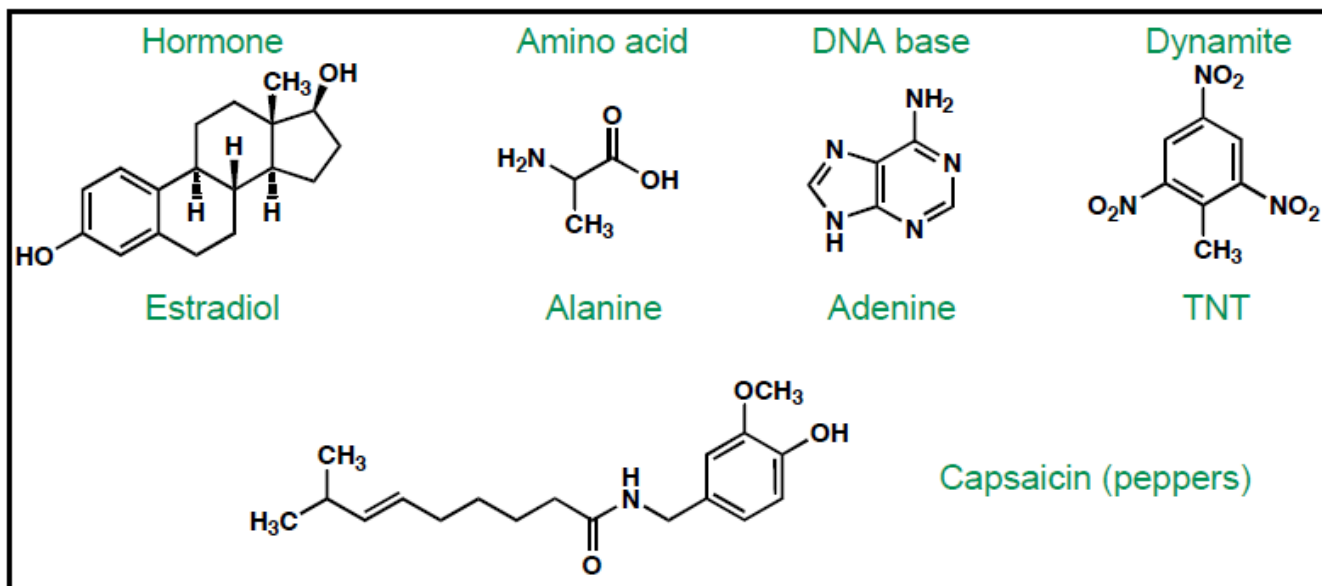
What: Carbon-containing compounds

Middle of second row



Can neither accept or give up electrons easily

Share e⁻ with other carbon atoms - incredible structure diversity!



How: structure and reactivity

Structure - what atoms are present & how they are bonded together

Reactivity - potential of structure to undergo chemical change

If likely - **reactive (unstable)**
If unlikely - **unreactive (stable)**

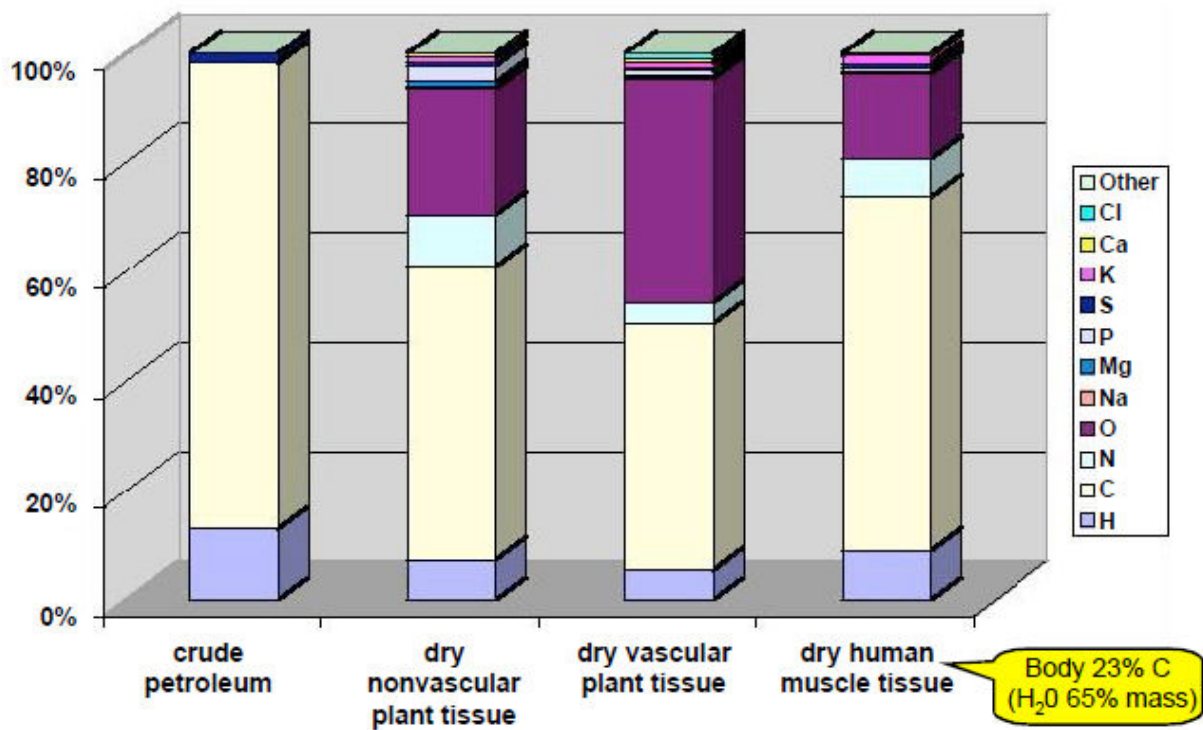


Potential Energy:

- function of position or configuration of components
- if low, compound more stable, change less likely
- if high, compound less stable, change more likely

Atoms of organic molecules

Food we eat, fragrances we smell, colors we see, clothes we wear



Typical drug contains 20-80 atoms (C, H, N, O, F, S, P, Cl, Br, I)

Main atoms in organic chemistry

H																					He
Li	Be											B	C	N	O	F					Ne
Na	Mg											Al	Si	P	S	Cl					Ar
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br					Kr
Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I					Xe

Background review

Chemical bonding

WHY?

Atoms bond together because the resulting molecule is more stable (has less energy) than the individual atoms

Making bonds - energy is released
Breaking bonds - energy is absorbed

HOW?

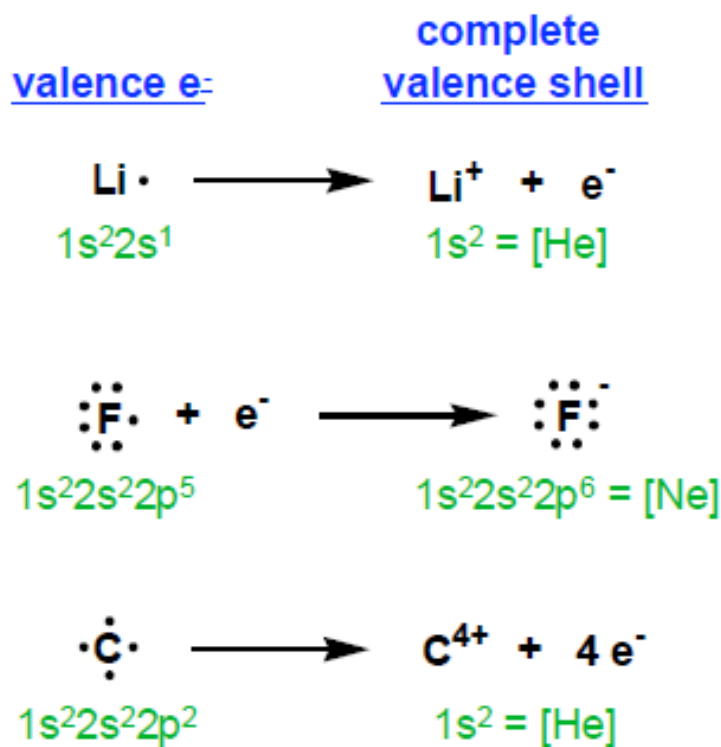
Releasing, accepting, or sharing electrons to gain a **valence** shell octet

Ionic, covalent, polar covalent

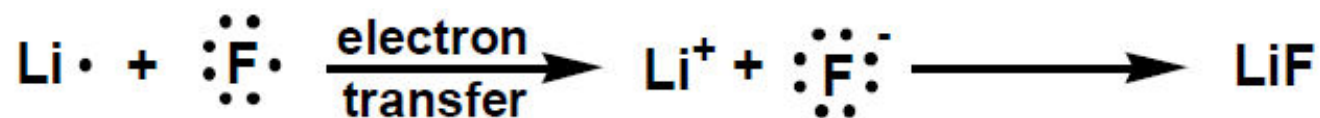
Obtaining valence shell octet

1						
H•	3	4	5	6	7	
Li•	•B•	•C•	•N•	•O•	•F•	
Na•	•Al•	•Si•	•P•	•S•	•Cl•	
					•Br•	
					•I•	

Valence Electrons



Ionic bonding

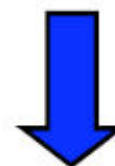


Bond Energy ~138 kcal/mol

									He
Li 1.0	Be 1.6	B 2.0	C 2.6	N 3.0	O 3.4	F 4.0			Ne
Na 0.93	Mg 1.3	Al 1.6	Si 1.9	P 2.2	S 2.6	Cl 3.2			Ar
K 0.82	Ca 1.3	Ga 1.6	Ge 2.0	As 2.2	Se 2.6	Br 3.0			Kr
Rb 0.82	Sr 0.95	In 1.8	Sn 2.0	Sb 2.1	Te 2.1	I 2.7			Xe
Cs 0.79	Ba 0.89	Tl 2.0	Pb 2.3	Bi 2.0	Po 2.0	At			Rn

Electronegativity Trends

- Δ electronegativity > 2
- between metal and nonmetal
- electron transfer, not sharing

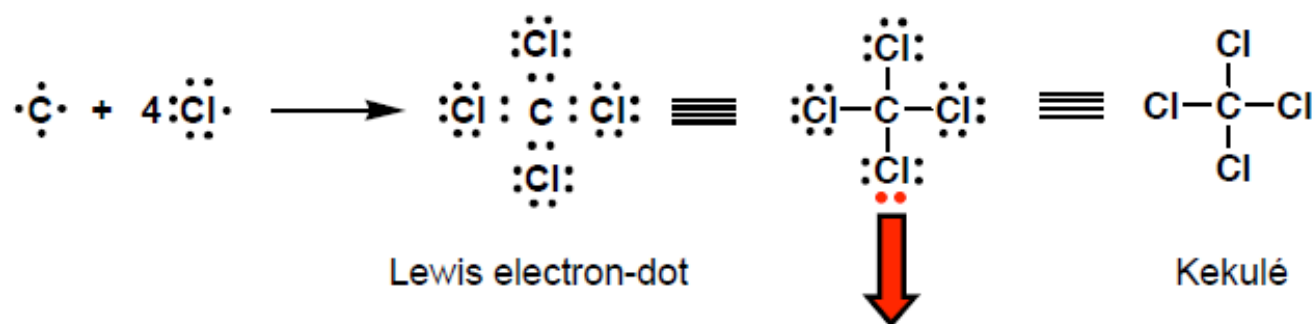


Electrostatic attraction

Covalent bonding

“electron sharing”

between atoms (2 nonmetals) of similar electronegativity



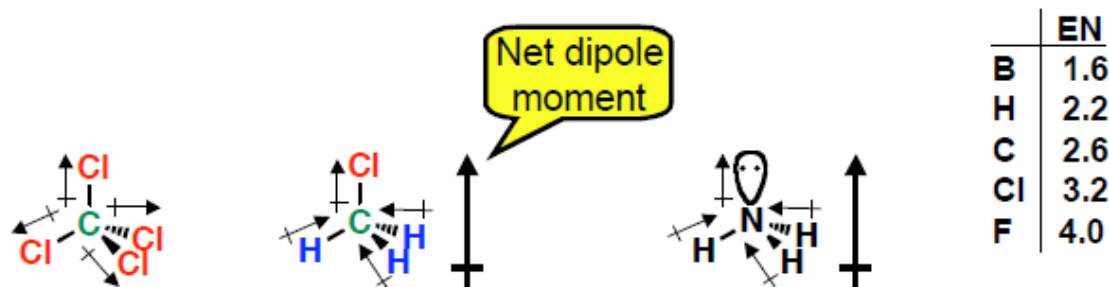
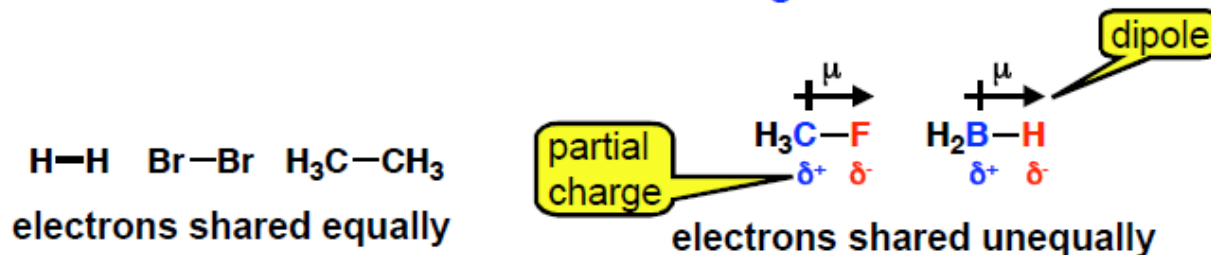
Lone pair

(unshared or non-bonding electron pair)

1 dot = 1 electron
1 bond = 2 electrons

Polar covalent bonding

unequal sharing of electrons between the two atoms in a bond due to a difference in their electronegativities



Electronegativity (EN) - ability of atom to attract the shared electrons in a covalent bond

Inductive effect - shifting of electrons in response to the EN of nearby atoms

Describing covalent bonds

Lewis Structures: represent what covalent bonds are present in a molecule, electron bookkeeping

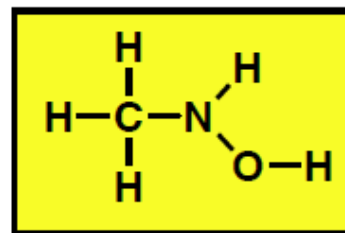
VSEPR Theory: predict relative location of covalent bonds and lone pairs; molecular shape

Lewis dot structures

Example: CH₃NHOH

Step 1. Draw the molecular skeleton; connect the atoms with covalent bonds

From periodic table:
 H wants 1 bond
 C wants 4 bonds
 N wants 3 bonds
 O wants 2 bonds



Step 2. Count the total valence electrons

1					
H•					
Li•	•B•	•C•	•N•	•O•	•F•
Na•	•Al•	•Si•	•P•	•S•	•Cl•
				•Br•	
				•I•	

$$5\text{H} \times \underline{1} = \underline{5}$$

$$1\text{C} \times \underline{4} = \underline{4}$$

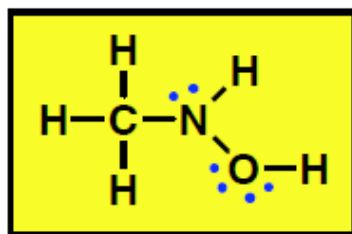
$$1\text{N} \times \underline{5} = \underline{5}$$

$$1\text{O} \times \underline{6} = \underline{6}$$

$$\text{Valence } e^- = 20$$

Lewis dot structures

Step 3. Add electrons to each atom to satisfy the **octet** rule (H requires 2 e⁻)



Step 4. Count the e⁻ in the trial structure and compare to that from Step 2.

20

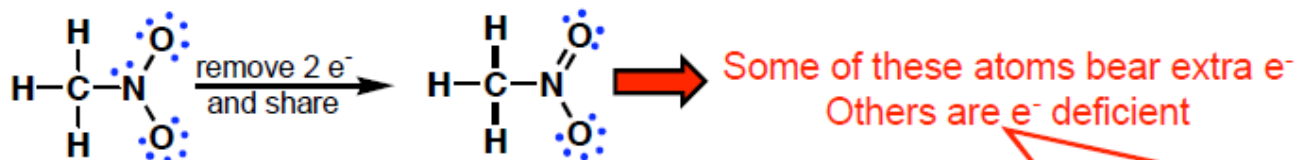
If the numbers are the same, the Lewis e⁻ configuration is satisfactory
(there may be more than one satisfactory structure - we'll discuss this more
during class)



Lewis structures & formal charge

Formal charge - expresses surplus and shortage of e^- localized on individual atoms

Example: CH_3NO_2 (24 valence e^-)

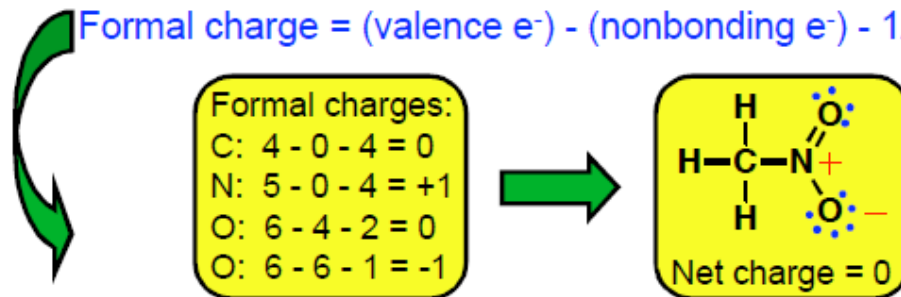


Trial structure
26 valence e^- (need 24)

Remember: $\cdot\dot{\text{C}}\cdot$ $\cdot\dot{\text{N}}\cdot$ $\cdot\ddot{\text{O}}\cdot$ $\text{H}\cdot$

Must determine the **FORMAL CHARGE** of each atom in a valid Lewis structure:

Formal charge = (valence e^-) - (nonbonding e^-) - $1/2$ (shared e^-)

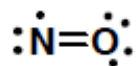


Exceptions to the octet rule

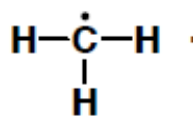
Compounds with a deficiency of valence electrons

(unusually reactive and readily undergo reactions to gain complete octets)

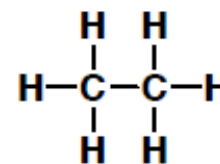
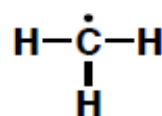
1. Odd number of electrons



Nitric oxide



Methyl radical

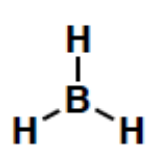


Ethane

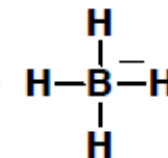
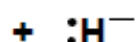
2. Early second-row elements



Beryllium hydride



Borane

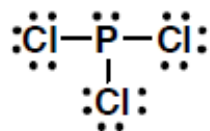


Borohydride

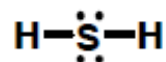
Exceptions to the octet rule

Compounds beyond the second row may have a “valence shell expansion” due to the availability of 3d orbitals

Obeys Octet Rule

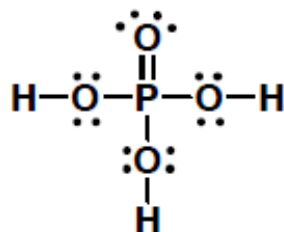


Phosphorus trichloride

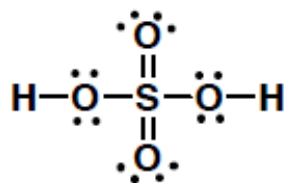


Hydrogen disulfide

Expanded Valence

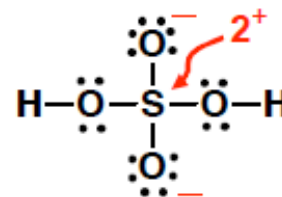
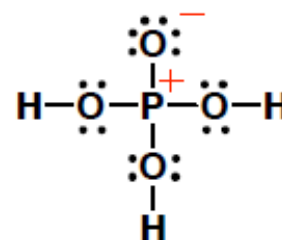


Phosphoric acid



Sulfuric acid

Dipolar Form (obeys octet)



Bonding patterns

- All atoms have particular bonding patterns that are dependent on the atom's formal charge.
- All of the important bonding patterns in organic chemistry are contained on the following three slides.
- If you are familiar with these bonding patterns, predicting Lewis structures becomes a much simpler task!

Bonding patterns

	# Electron Domains				
	4	3	2	1	0
H				H 	
C	C 	C / \	C C 		
N	N 	N / \	N 		
O	O 	O 			
F	F 				

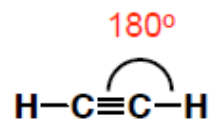
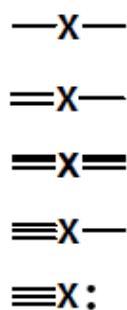
While **Lewis structures** tell you **WHAT** covalent bonds are present in molecule, **VSEPR theory** tells you **WHERE** these bonds are located in relation to one another . . .

VSEPR theory: molecular geometry

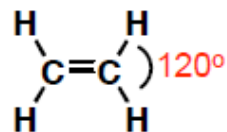
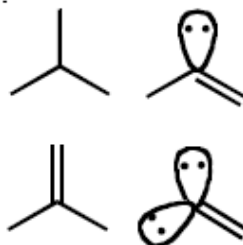
Valence Shell Electron Pair Repulsion Theory (VSEPR)

Electrons repel each other!
Therefore, lone pairs and bonds want to be as far apart as possible.

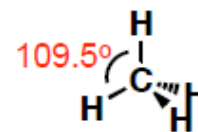
Two e⁻ domains
Linear (180°)



Three e⁻ domains
Trigonal Planar (120°)

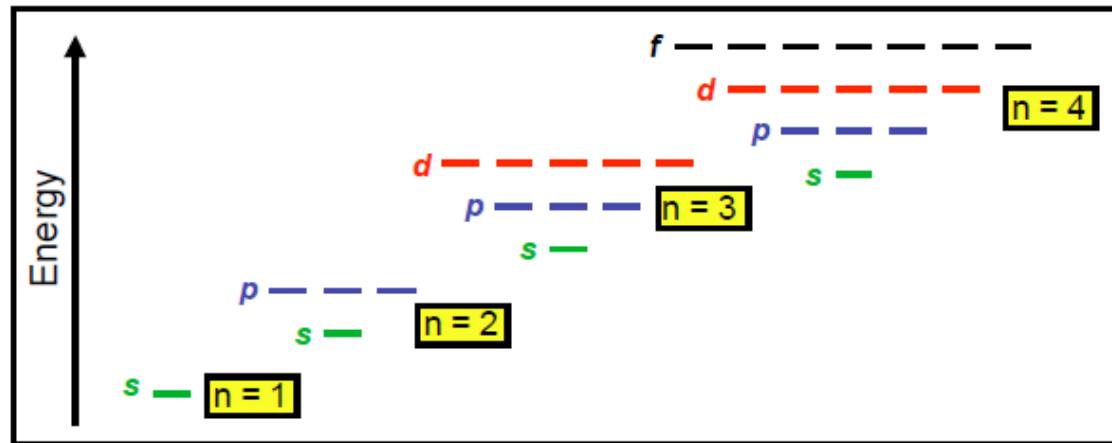


Four e⁻ domains
Tetrahedral (109.5°)



Atomic orbitals

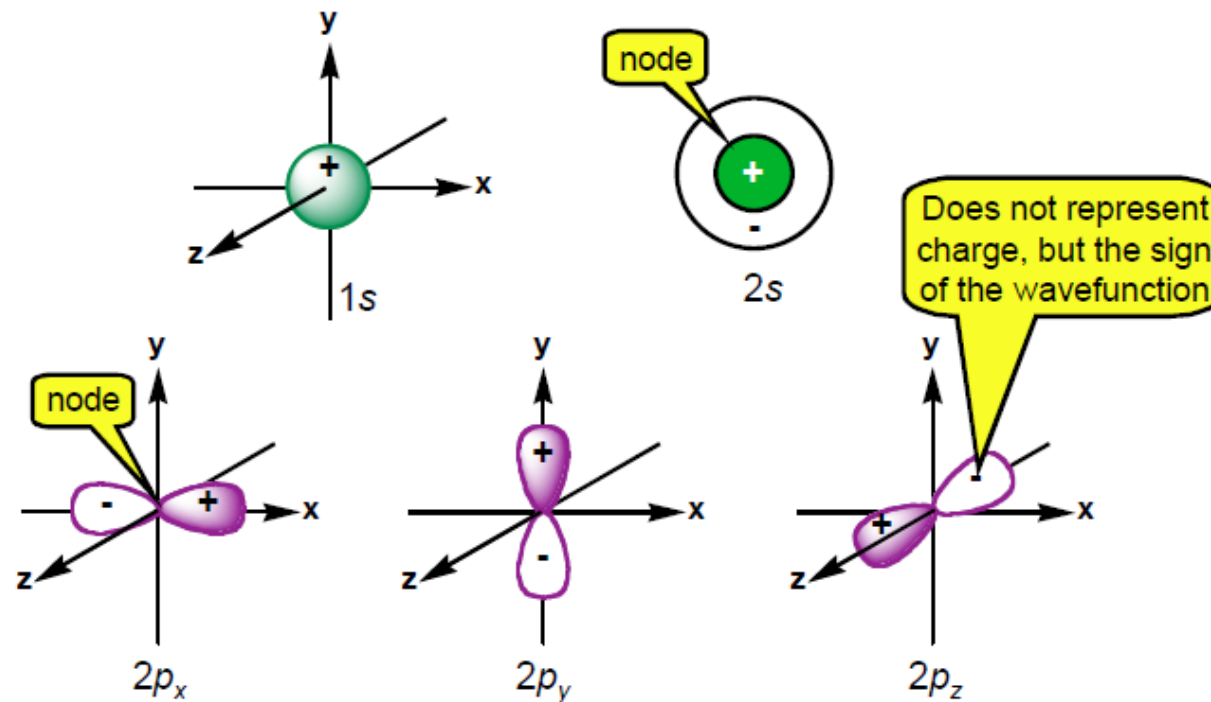
Describes the volume of space where an electron is most likely to be found



Atomic orbitals are described by four quantum numbers

1. Principle, shell (n), - orbital energy, size
2. Azimuthal, subshell (l), - orbital shape (s, p, d, f)
3. Magnetic (m_l)- orbital direction (p_x, p_y, p_z)
4. Spin (m_s) - $+1/2, -1/2$

Atomic orbital shape



s orbitals - spherical, e⁻ held close to nucleus, one sign

p orbitals - two lobes with opposite signs, e⁻ further from the nucleus, node

node - region of space with zero electron density

Electron configuration

Which orbitals contain electrons? How many electrons does each orbital contain?

Aufbau principle - the lowest energy orbitals fill up first (1s, 2s, 2p, 3s, 3p, 4s, 3d, etc.)

Pauli exclusion principle - only two electrons can occupy each orbital, and they must be of opposite spin

Hund's rule - if two or more orbitals of equal energy are available, one e- occupies each will their spins parallel until all orbitals are half-full

Atom	Name of element	Atomic number	1s	2s	2p _x	2p _y	2p _z	3s
H	Hydrogen	1	↑					
He	Helium	2	↑↓					
Li	Lithium	3	↑↓	↑				
Be	Beryllium	4	↑↓	↑↓				
B	Boron	5	↑↓	↑↓	↑			
C	Carbon	6	↑↓	↑↓	↑	↑		
N	Nitrogen	7	↑↓	↑↓	↑	↑	↑	
O	Oxygen	8	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑	↑	
F	Fluorine	9	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑	
Ne	Neon	10	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	
Na	Sodium	11	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑↓	↑

