Lecture 2 - Bonding in Organic Compounds

Hybridization occurs when there are overlapping s & p bonds In Alkanes (e.g. in CH4 with a Tetrahedral shape)

Alkanes are held together by <u>weak dispersion forces</u> hence the boiling point is <u>lower that any other type of compounds</u>.

The melting points of alkanes increases with the molar mass.

Base on the characteristics of C, a very large number of constitutional isomers can be formed with a small number of Carbon and Hydrogen atoms

sp³ Hybridisation: Alkanes

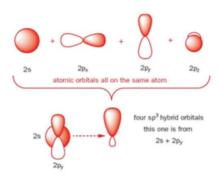
- If the 2s orbital mixes with all three 2p orbitals ...
 - 1 x s + 3 x p \Rightarrow 4 x sp³
 - i.e. 4 x identical orbitals ⇒ forms 4 x single bonds



The total number of s + p = the number of atoms surrounding the Central Atom (C in this example)

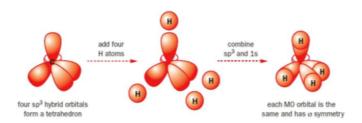
The Hybridization of orbitals start with:

from Clayden et al. - p105a



This results in a hybridized orbital that looks like:

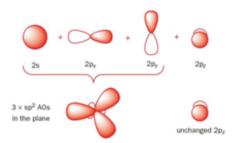
from Clayden et al. - p105b



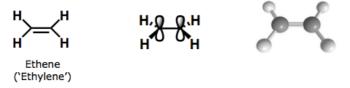
In the Alkenes, the C=C double bonds will result in only 3 bonds around the central C atom (1 C=C bond and 2 H-C bonds) hence the hybridized orbital will be **sp2**

sp² Hybridisation: Alkenes

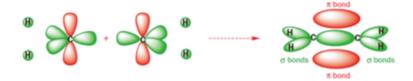
from Clayden et al. - p106a



- If the 2s orbital mixes with only two 2p orbitals ...
 - 1 x s + 2 x p \Rightarrow 3 x sp² (+ 1 x p unhybridised)
 - i.e. 3 x identical orbitals + one different one
 ⇒ forms 3 x single bonds + 1 x double bond

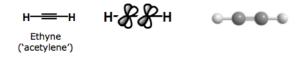


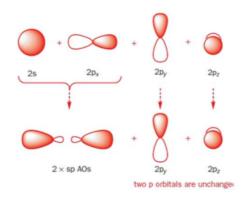
The Resulting Hybridized Orbital will look like:



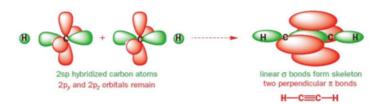
In Alkynes (where there are triple bonds), the hybridized orbital is **sp** (one C=-C bond and one H-C bond)

- If the 2s orbital mixes with only one 2p orbitals ...
 - 1 x s + 1 x p \Rightarrow 2 x sp (+ 2 x p unhybridised)
 - i.e. 2 x identical orbitals + two different ones
 - \Rightarrow forms 2 x single bonds + 2 x double bond





The Hybridized Orbital will look like this



Summary on Hybridization

- Hybridization will always involve S & P.
- There will only be one S in the hybridized orbital since S is the same in all three planes
- The maximum # of P is 3 since there are 3 planes (X, Y and Z)
- The shape of the molecule / around the central atom impacts the hybridisation e.g. the lone pairs should be considered hence if its a tetrahedral shape, the hybridized orbital will be sp3.
- Single bonds are sigma (S)
- Double Bonds are Pi (P)
- Triple Bonds are Sigma & Pi (S & P)
- Alkenes and Alkynes are called unsaturated hydrocarbons (presence of double or triple bonds)
- They are non polar compounds and the only attractive forces are dispersion forces.

Functional Groups – usually are the interesting bits of the molecule

List of Functional Groups include:

For Reference ...
Overview of Functional Groups (I)

ОН	Alcohol	-ol	Propanol
J	Ketone	-one	Butanone
Å,	Aldehyde	-al	Ethanal
√ ОН	Carboxylic Acid	-oic acid	Hexanoic acid
~\\^	Ester	-oate	Methyl butanoate
NH ₂	Amide	-amide	Butanamide

For Reference ...

Overview of Functional Groups (II)

^₀ ^	Ether	ether	Diethyl ether
^s^	Sulfide	sulfide (thioether)	Diethyl sulfide
SH	Thiol	-thiol	Ethanethiol
∕NH₂	Amine	Amino- or –amine	Ethyl amine
∕_F CI	Fluoride	Fluoro- or fluoride	Fluoroethane
!	Chloride	Chloro- or -chloride	2-Chlorobutane
Br	Bromide	Bromo- or -bromide	2-Bromobut-2-ene
	Iodide	Iodo- or -iodide	Iodobenzene

- Alkanes are usually joined together by Van der Waals forces, which increase when the size of the alkane increases.
- Their melting and boiling point also increases with size.
- Alkanes are generally inert and liberate a lot of energy in combustion. (reaction with oxygen)
- They are commonly used in fuels (short chain alkanes combust efficiently, long chain alkanes do not)
- Amides have a double bond to oxygen but Amines don't have oxygen

Lecture 3 – Isomerism

Isomers are molecules with the same formula but different structures

The 3 C types of Isomerism are:

- Constitutional Isomers different atom to atom bonding (different nature / sequence of bonds)
 - Stereoisomers different arrangement of groups in space but same nature & sequence in bonding
- **Configurationally Isomers** Conversion of Isomers requires the breaking of bonds and remaking of bonds
 - Diastereoisomers Not Mirror images
 - Enantiomers Non-superimposable mirror images
 - Does not occur at room temperature as a lot of energy is required.
- Conformational Isomers Differences in Isomers are based on a rotation of a single bond. (these tend to be hard to spot esp. where there are a lot of bond rotations)
 - Not normally separated at room temperature

In the example of C2H2BrClO – There are 16 possible different compounds

Isomers would have different properties and behaviours when they form different functional groups.

Double Bond Isomers would be configurational isomers. They have Pi bonds hence the C=C bond rotation will break the pi bond.

• This would require 10X more energy than breaking the sigma bond.

They would be known as Diastereoisomers if both end of the C=C bonds have different groups

Both ends of the C=C bond must have two different groups

$$A \neq B$$
 $\left\{\begin{array}{c} A \\ C = C \\ Y \end{array}\right\}$ $X \neq Y$

(A or B may = X or Y ... see below for an example)

If these conditions are met, two diastereoisomers result

Priority is assigned based on the place of the Periodic table of the atom --> atomic #

Called diastereisomers and labeled Z or E

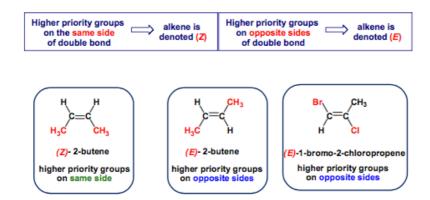
Rules:

- Assign priority to each group on each carbon of C=C
 - The higher the atomic number of the atom attached, the higher the priority
 - If identical atoms attached, work along the chain until the first point of difference, then go by atomic number
- If high priority groups on same side of C=C
 - ⇒ Z double bond (German: zusammen, together)
- If high priority groups on opposite sides of C=C
 - ⇒ E double bond (German: entgegen, opposite)

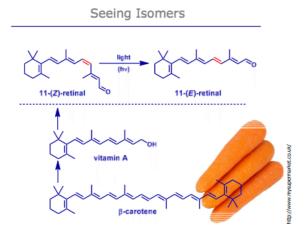
Note: 'diastereoisomer' is often condensed to 'diastereomer'

If it is ZE ZAME it is a Z diasterisomer, since the bonds are on the zame side.

The E double bonds are on different sides



Seeing isomers – light creates a change in the shape of the isomers



Cycloalkanes

Disubstituted Cycloalkanes

Various isomers are possible

Constitutional:

Configurational:

Note - Don't need to have double bonds to have configurational isomerism!

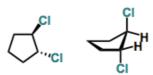
They are consider configurational since you need to break to aromatic ring to change the CI bonding.

Disubstituted Cycloalkanes

cis and trans

- · These structures are diastereoisomers or diastereomers
- · They have different physical and chemical properties
- . The terms cis and trans are used to distinguish them





cis-1,2-dichlorocyclopentane trans-1,2-dichlorocyclopentane

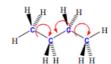
- Cis Same Phase
- Trans Different Phase

Conformational Isomers – rotate around the C-C bonds

Conformational Isomers

Straight chain alkanes

- · Rotation around each C-C bond readily occurs
- · Conformational isomers result

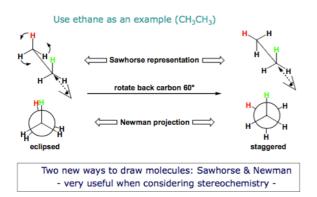


Cyclic alkanes

H H

- Rotation is restricted within a ring
- Since rotation would require atoms to pass through the ring – very high energy barrier

Conformational Isomers

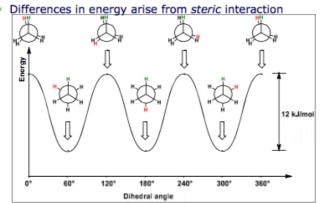


Staggered Newman projection means they are not blocked whereas Eclipsed they are blocked by a bit

The Newman projection is important

Barriers to Rotation

• In 'straight chain' alkanes, rotation about C-C rapid at R.T.



Because the two H in the staggered form is directly opposite, they kinda cancel each other out hence the energy will be lower!

Lecture 4 – Curly Arrows

- 1. Reaction Types
 - a. Acid Base
 - b. Substitution
 - c. Addition
 - d. Elimination
 - e. Oxidation Reduction
- 2. Nucleophiles & Electrophiles
- 3. Curly Arrows

Acid – Base Reaction

Bronsted acids are proton donors

- electron pair acceptors
- Acid
- -CH, -NH, -OH, -ClH (arranged in increasing electro negativity.)

The pKa scale (which is log10Ka) indicates which is the easiest donor.

Organic acid compounds are identified by the - OH group.

The degree of acidity is related to the stability of the anion.

For organic acids look for -OH group

Carboxylic acids, phenols and alcohols all contain –OH
The degree of acidity is related to the stability of the anion

$$R - \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} - H \qquad \qquad R - \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} : \bigcirc + H^{\oplus} \qquad 1 \text{ in } 1,000,000,000$$

$$\overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} - \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} - H \qquad \qquad \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} : \bigcirc + H^{\oplus} \qquad 1 \text{ in } 100,000$$

$$R - \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} - \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} - H \qquad \qquad R - \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} - \overset{\bullet}{\bigcirc} : \bigcirc + H^{\oplus} \qquad 1 \text{ in } 1,000$$

Note: R = 'rest of molecule'

Organic compounds can have very different acidities.

Reaction may occur in the presence of a strong enough base

	NaNH ₂	NaOH	NaHCO ₃
Alcohol	√	x	X
Phenol	√	✓	x
Carboxylic acid	√	√	√

Very strong base is required to depronate the election. Hence the NaNH2 is the only one that is able to depronate the electrons for alcohols, Phenols & Carboxylic Acid.

- In this list, the NaNH2 is the strongest base.
- NaOH Mid-strength
- NaHCO3 the weakest base (reacts only with the weak acids).
- This is due to how the electrons are distributed.

Substitution Reaction

$$R_R \stackrel{R}{\longleftarrow} CI \stackrel{\Theta}{\longrightarrow} H \longrightarrow R_R \stackrel{R}{\longleftarrow} OH \stackrel{\Theta}{\longrightarrow} CI$$

The OH is substituting the CI

<u>Addition Reaction</u>

This occurs when you have a double bond --> compound is unsaturated. Saturated compounds max out the # of joints.

Elimination Reaction

The Saturated compound becomes unsaturated

Oxidative - Reduction Reaction

Oxidation

- decrease in the number of C-H bonds (net increase)
- increase in the number of C-O bonds (increase the number of bonds with O)

Reduction

- Increase the number of bonds with H (increase the number of C-H bonds)
- Decrease the number of C-O bonds

Curly Arrows

A curly arrow indicates electron pair movement

 A curly arrow starts at the electron pair that moves and ends at the atom to which the electron pair has moved

 An arrow from a bond indicates breaking of that bond; an arrow between two species indicates a bond is formed between the species

Curly Arrow Drawing Conventions

It's important you **can** supply lone pairs on mechanisms to understand what's going on:

...but, we tend not to draw them all in, because we assume they're there (like ${\bf H}'$ s on carbons on organic structures). Typically we:

1) Draw arrows coming from negative charges (if there are any)



2) Temporarily supply one lone pair for the drawing



- This shows where the charge is moving or the moving electron pair.
- Always work in on direction
- Either FROM the lone pair or FROM the negative charge AND towards H+

Curly Arrows Help to Explain Acidity

Difference in acidity results from resonance stabilisation of the anion

The resonance structures are two extremes which the molecule could exist as, the real structure is somewhere in the middle of both resonance structures.

Using Curly Arrows to describe Substitution

The Nucleophile

- attracted to the nucleus which is positive
- are electrons rich hence it is negative
- donates its lone pair of electrons

The Electrophile

- Wants to receive a lone pair of electrons
- Is positively charged/polarized.

The Curly Arrows is drawn in the direction of nucleophile to electrophile. N ----> E

- The electrophile is the reagents that participate in the reactions.
- Name of the reaction is governed by what the organic substance is doing.
- All Nucleophile reaction will work with an electrophile these are a pair reaction.

Lecture 5 – Addition Reaction

In each reaction, there are two reagents that participate in the reactions.

Two types of reagent that participate in reactions

- Electrophiles (seek electron pairs) eg H⁺, HCl, NO₂⁺
- Nucleophiles (donate electron pairs) eg OH⁻, Br⁻, :NH₃

Name of reaction governed by what the organic substrate is doing:

- · Use 'nucleophilic X' if being attacked by a nucleophile
- · Use 'electrophilic X' if organic substrate is attacking an electrophile

The curly arrows move from where the electrons are (-) to where they are not (+)



Electrophile

Seeks a lone pair. Is electron deficient. Nucleophile's arrow goes there.

Donates lone pair. Is electron rich. Arrow starts there.

Addition reactions tend to occur to an alkene as it is unsaturated.

Dominated by weak and accessible π -bond

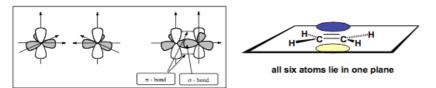
- Electrophiles attracted to the π bond
- Addition occurs with overall replacement of a π bond with a σ bond: energetically favourable



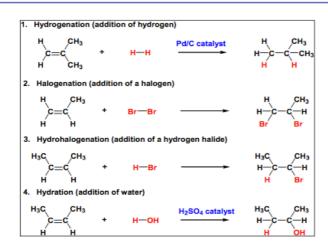
A-B can be H₂, Cl₂, Br₂, HCl, HBr, Hl, H₂O

Reminder:

- A double bond is composed of one σ and one π bond
- \blacksquare The electron density of a π bond is above and below the plane of the double bond
- · Quite reactive towards electrophiles



Alkene Reactions



Note that based on the catalyst used, you can guess the kind of Alkene Reaction.

Mechanism: Hydrohalogenation

Two steps

· An unstable intermediate carbocation is formed

Terminology: We say this is an **electrophilic addition** since the thing that is reacting with the organic starting material is an electrophile

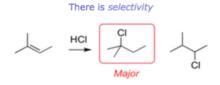
The Carbocation (Carbo-cat-ion) stability is dependent on which C the H connects to in the reaction. The Carbocations are more stable if they have more C attached to it.

The electrophilic addition is more energically favoured as it replaces the pi bond with a sigma bond.

What if there's a Choice? Isomeric Products?

So ... do we get both these products?

One Product is Favoured



The rate limiting step is the generation of the carbocation, which is high in energy. If the carbocation is easier to form, the reaction goes faster.

There are differences in carbocation stability

- Alkyl groups help to spread the positive charge along the bonds
- More substituted cations are more stable

Carbocation Stability

The intermediate in the reaction is a carbocation

- · Carbocations have 6 electrons and a positive charge
- · All carbocations are unstable but not all to the same extent

More stable

Tertiary Secondary Primary (3°)

Tertiary (2°)

Secondary (1°)

H

Less stable

Methyl carbocation

Carbocation Stability - Why?

Alkyl groups help to spread the positive charge a little along the bonds – an *Inductive Effect*



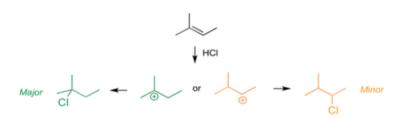
Adjacent C-H bonds donate a little electron density through space – *Hyperconjugation*



Vacant p orbital receives partial donation of electrons from 9 possible C-H bonds vs. only 3 here

Carbocation Stability Governs Major Product

The more stable carbocation forms preferentially. This defines which product is major



This product selectivity is sometimes referred to as Markovnikov's Rule

Markovnikov's Rule – shows that the more stable carbocation is the majority product between the two isomers

Hydrogenation

Catalyst required (e.g. Pd on charcoal) to break strong H–H bond

$$\begin{array}{c|c} & H_2 \\ \hline & Pd/C \\ \hline & \\ & Pd/C \\ \hline \\ & Pd/C \\ \hline \\ & Delivery of H's t \\ same face of \\ \end{array}$$

Mechanism different to electrophilic addition – don't need to know

Alkyne Chemistry Similar

A triple bond is composed of two $\pi\text{-}$ and one $\sigma\text{-}bond$

- \bullet Electrophilic addition occurs to both $\pi\text{-bonds}$
- Same selectivity rules for terminal alkynes

Reaction with Alkynes is similar to Alkene