



# Fundamentals of Organic Chemistry

## CHEM 109

*For Students of Health Colleges*

Credit hrs.: (2+1)

*King Saud University*

**College of Science, Chemistry Department**

# Learning Outcomes



*At the end of this chapter, students will be able to:*

- Recognize the importance and definition of organic chemistry.
- Arrange the electrons in atoms.
- Differentiate between ionic and covalent bonds in chemical compounds.
- Identify the hybridization of carbon atom.
- Know dipole moment & inductive effect in chemical compounds.
- Classify the organic compounds according to functional groups.
- Define the types of organic reactions.

# Importance and Definition Organic Chemistry



- The word **Organic** can be a biological or chemical term, in biology it means anything that is living or has lived. The opposite is Non-Organic.
- **Organic chemistry** touches our daily lives. We are made of and surrounded by **organic compounds**.
- **Organic Chemistry** is unique in that it deals with vast numbers of **natural and synthetic** substances that recognized **the element carbon** as the common constituent.
  - **Natural:** The major constituents of living matter e.g. proteins, carbohydrates, fats, nucleic acid (DNA and RNA), enzymes and hormones are **organic**.
  - **Synthetic:** clothing we wear, paper for our books, and petroleum products such as gasoline, oil, tires, rubber, paint, cosmetics, insecticides, medicines, perfume, and plastics.
- In short, **organic chemistry** is more than just a branch of science for the professional chemist or for student preparing to become a physician, dentist, pharmacist, nurse or agriculturist. **It is part of our technological culture.**
- **Organic chemistry** is defined as the study of carbon/hydrogen-containing compounds and their derivatives.

# The Uniqueness of Carbon

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- What is unique about the element **carbon**?
- Why does it form so many compounds?
  - **The answers lie in**
    - The **structure** of the *carbon* atom.
    - The **position** of *carbon* in the periodic table.
- These factors enable it to form strong bonds with
  - other carbon atoms
  - and with other elements (hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, halogens,...etc).
- Each **organic compound** has its own characteristic set of physical and chemical properties which depend on the *structure of the molecule*.

IA	IIA							Zero
H								He
Li	Be		III A	IV A	V A	VIA	VII A	Ne
Na	Mg	B	C	N	O	F		
K	Ca	Al	Si	P	S	Cl		Ar
Rb	Sr	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br		Kr
Cs	Ba	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I		Xe
Fr	Ra	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At		Rn

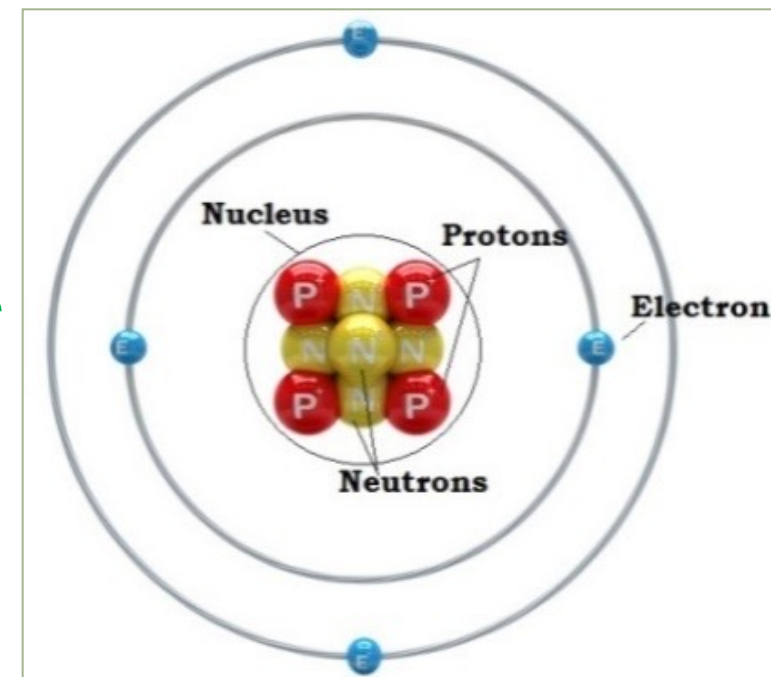
Transition Elements

# Atomic Structure

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- **Atoms** consist of three main particles: **neutrons** (have no charge), **protons** (positively charged) and **electrons** (negatively charged).
  - Neutrons and protons are found in the nucleus.
  - Electrons are found outside the nucleus.

Electrons are distributed around the nucleus in successive *shells* (principal energy levels).

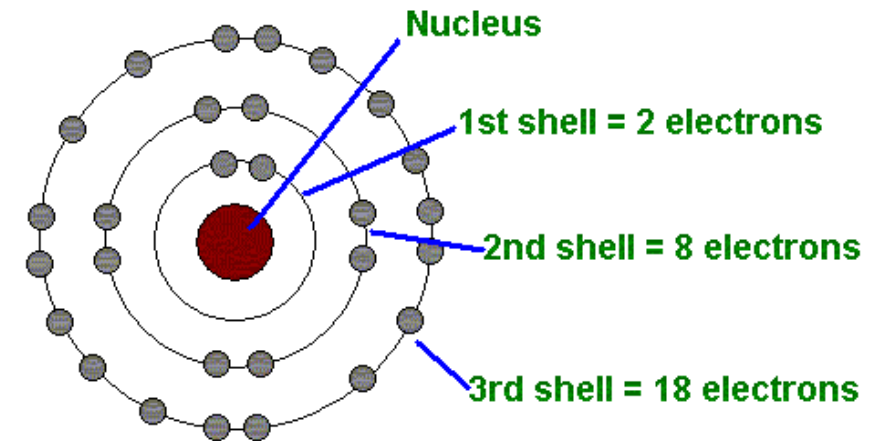


- **Atom** is electrically neutral.
  - i.e. Number of electrons = Number of protons
- **Atomic number** of an element is the number of protons.
- The **atomic weight** is approximately equal to the sum of the number of protons and the number of neutrons in the nucleus

# Atomic Structure

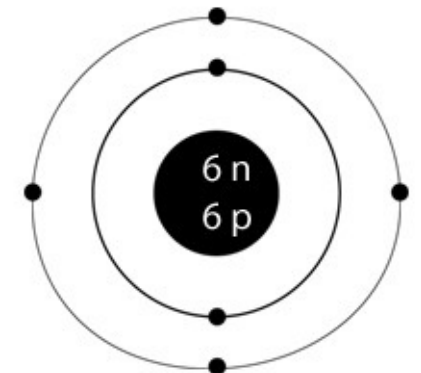
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- **The energy levels** are designated by capital letters (K, L, M, N, ..) or whole numbers ( $n$ ).
- **The maximum capacity of a shell =  $2n^2$  electrons.**  
 $n$  = number of the energy level.
- **For example,** the element carbon (atomic number 6)  
6 electrons are distributed about the nucleus as



Shell	K	L	M	N
Number of electrons	2	4	0	0

Carbon  $^{12}_6\text{C}$

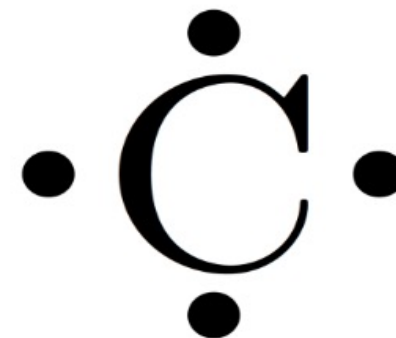


# Atomic Structure

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## Electron-dot structures

- **Valance Electrons** are those electrons located in the *outermost energy level (the valance shell)*.
- **Electron-dot structures**
  - The symbol of the element represents the core of the atom.
  - The valance electrons are shown as dots around the symbol.



**Valance Electrons** are those electrons located in the *outermost energy level (the valance shell)*.

Valence and Covalence of Common Elements

Elements	H·	·C·	·N:	·O:	:F:	:Cl:
Valence	1	4	5	6	7	7
Covalence	1	4	3	2	1	1

# Chemical Bonding

- **In 1916 G.N. Lewis** pointed out that:

*The noble gases were stable elements and he described their lack of reactivity to their having their valence shells filled with electrons.*

- 2 electrons in case of helium.
- 8 electrons for the other noble gases.

- **According to Lewis,**

*in interacting with one another atoms can achieve a greater degree of stability*

by rearrangement of the valence electrons

to acquire the outer-shell structure of the closest noble gas in the periodic table.



# Chemical Bonding



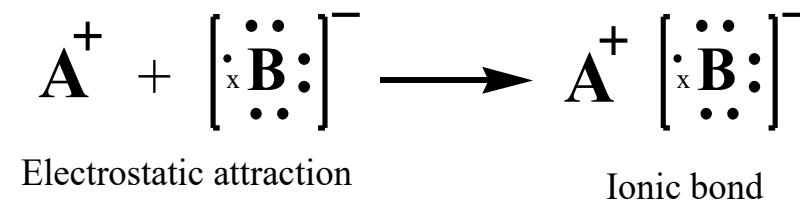
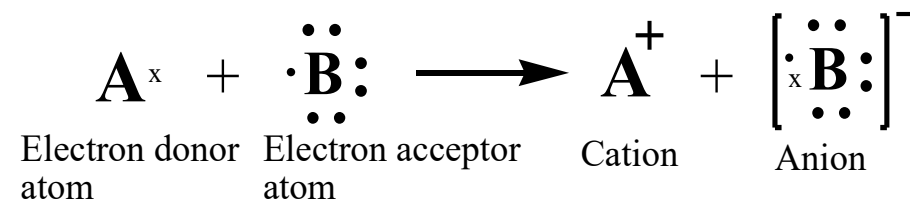
## A) Ionic Bonds

- Elements at the left of the periodic table give up their valance electrons and become +ve charged ions (**cations**).
- Elements at the right of the periodic table gain the electrons and become -ve charged ions (**anions**).

- **Ionic bond**

*The electrostatic force of attraction between oppositely charged ions.*

- The majority of ionic compounds are **inorganic substances**.



# Chemical Bonding

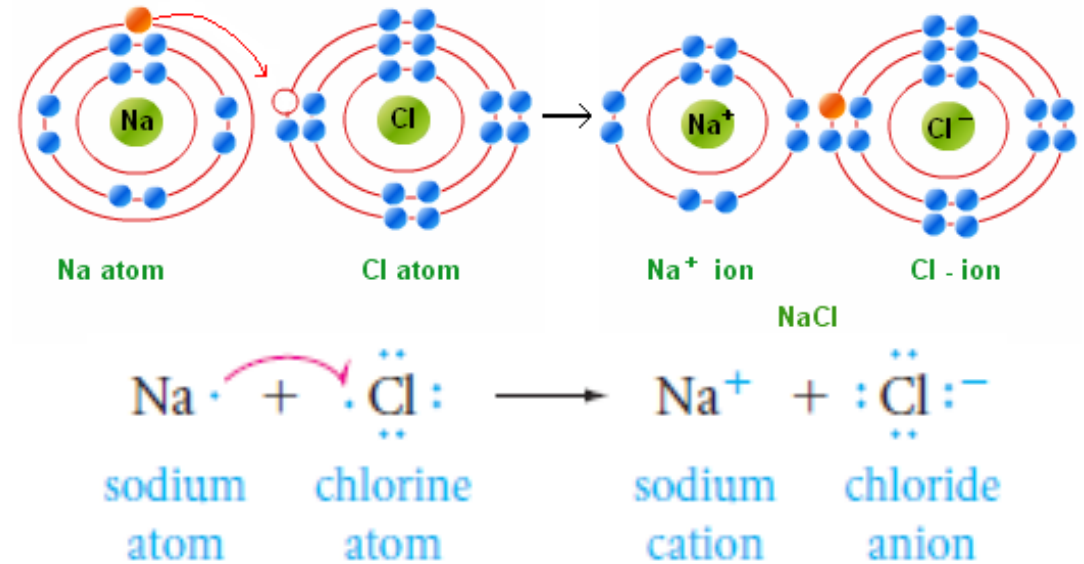
## A) Ionic Bonds

Electronegativity Measures The Ability of An Atom To Attract Electrons

Increasing Electronegativity							
H							
2.1							
Li	Be	B	C	N	O	F	
1	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	
Na	Mg	Al	Si	P	S	Cl	
0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.5	3	
K							Br
0.8							2.8

Increasing Electronegativity

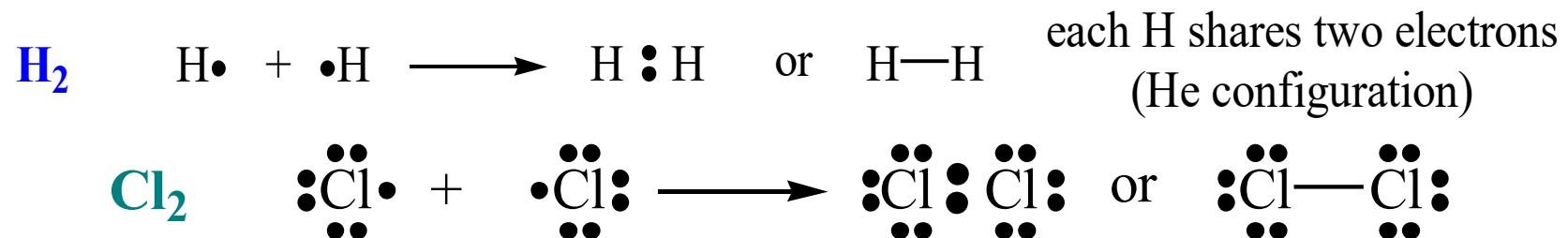
### Example



# Chemical Bonding

## B) Covalent Bonds

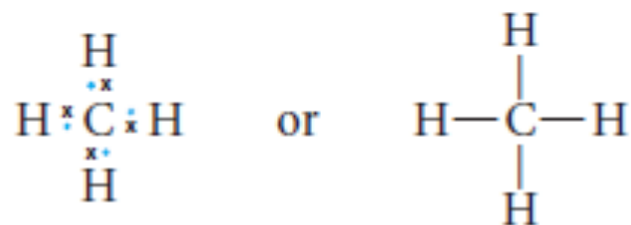
- Elements that are close to each other in the periodic table attain the stable noble gas configuration by sharing valence electrons between them.
- A shared electron pair between two atoms or single covalent bond, will be represented by a dash (-).
- **A covalent bond** involves the mutual sharing of one or more electron pairs between atoms.
- ❖ When the **two atoms are identical or have equal electronegativities**, the electron pairs are shared **equally**



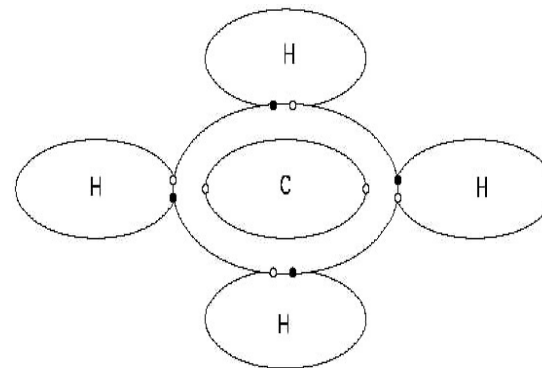
# Chemical Bonding

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## B) Covalent Bonds



methane

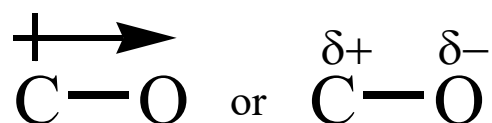


- ❖ When **two unlike atoms**;  
the bonding electrons are no longer shared equally (shared unequally).

### 1) A Polar Covalent Bond

*A bond, in which an electron pair is shared unequally.*

- The more electronegative atom assumes a partial negative charge and the less electronegative atom assumes a partial positive charge.



# Chemical Bonding

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## 2) COORDINATE COVALENT BONDS

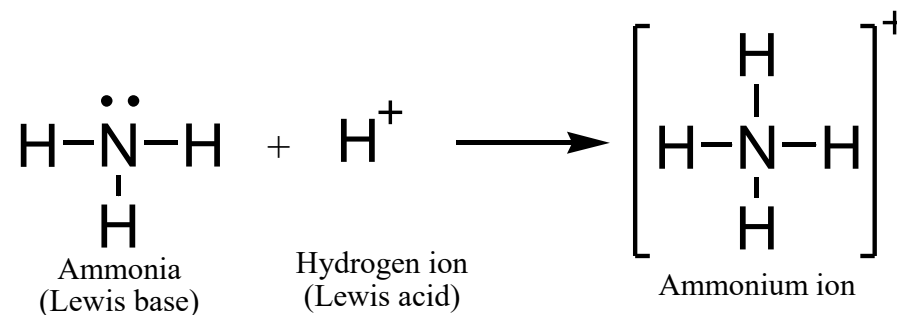
- **Lewis base**

*The species that furnishes the electron pair to form a coordinate covalent bond.*

- **Lewis acid**

*The species that accepts the electron pair to complete its valance shell.*

- **For example;**



# Chemical Bonding

## How Many Bonds to an Atom?

## Covalence Number

The number of covalent bonds that an atom can form with other atoms.

i.e. **the covalence number** is equal to the number of electrons needed to fill its valance shell.

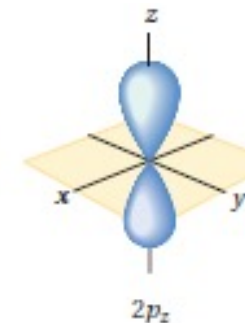
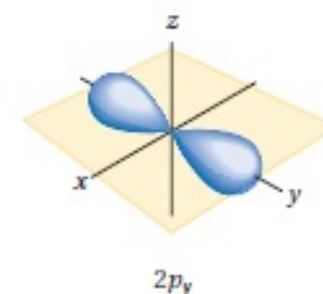
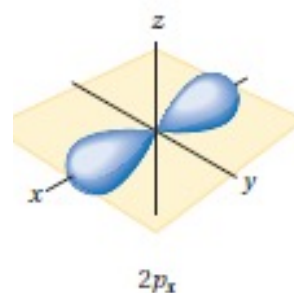
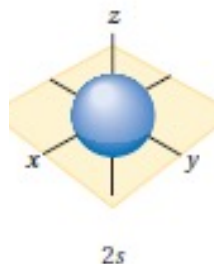
Element	Number of valence electrons	Number of electrons in filled valence shell	Covalence number
H	1	2	1
<b>C</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>4</b>
N	5	8	3
O	6	8	2
F, Cl, Br, I	7	8	1

# Shapes of Organic Molecules: Orbital Picture of Covalent Bonds



## Atomic Orbitals

- An **atomic orbital** represents a specific region in space in which an electron is most likely to be found.
- **Atomic orbitals** are designated in the order in which they are filled by the letters *s*, *p*, *d*, and *f*.
- Examples: *K shell* has only **one 1s** orbital.  
*L shell* has **one 2s** and **three 2p** ( $2p_x$ ,  $2p_y$  and  $2p_z$ ).
- An s orbital is **spherically shaped** electron cloud with the atom's nucleus and its center.
- A p orbital is a **dumbbell-shaped** electron cloud with the nucleus between the two lobes.

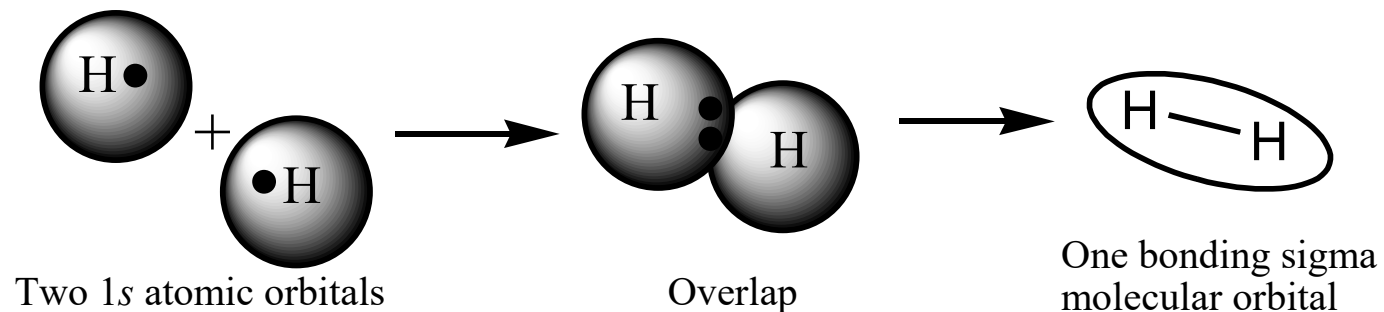


# Shapes of Organic Molecules: Orbital Picture of Covalent Bonds

## Molecular Orbitals

- A covalent bond consists of the overlap between two atomic orbitals to form a **molecular orbital**.
- **Example:**

### Molecular orbital of $H_2$



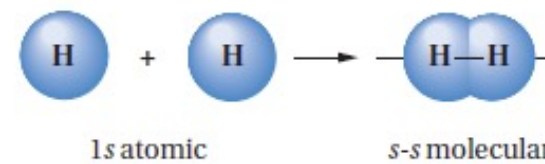


# Shapes of Organic Molecules: Orbital Picture of Covalent Bonds

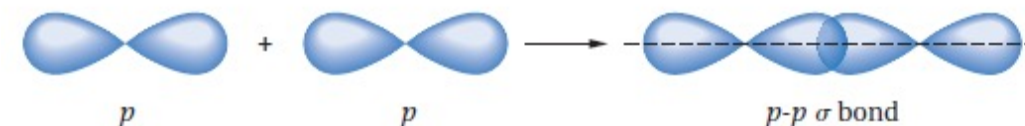
## Molecular Orbitals

○ **Sigma bonds ( $\sigma$  bonds)** can be formed from

➤ The overlap of **two s** atomic orbitals.



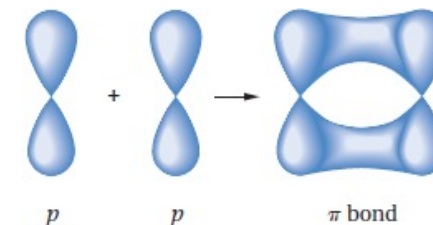
➤ The **end-on overlap** of **two p** atomic orbitals.



➤ The overlap of two an  $s$  atomic orbital with a  $p$  atomic orbital.



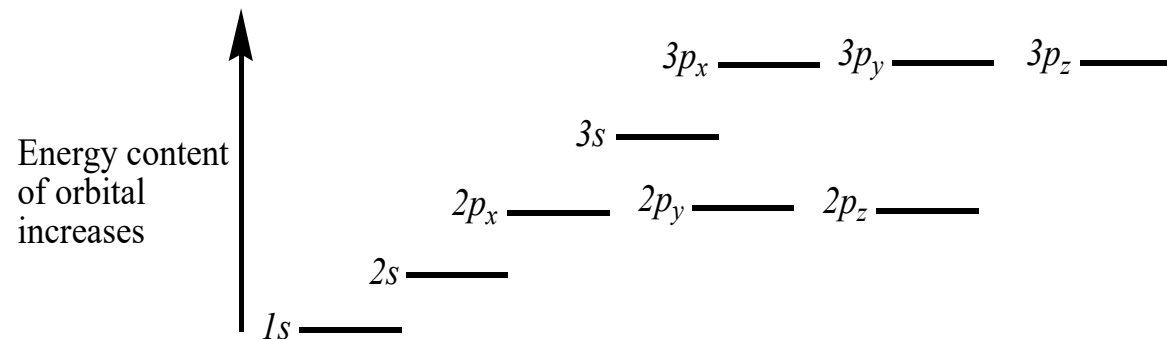
○ **pi bonds ( $\pi$  bonds)** can be formed from the **side-side overlap** between two  $p$  atomic orbitals.



# Shapes of Organic Molecules: Orbital Picture of Covalent Bonds

## Atomic Orbitals

- An energy level diagram of atomic orbitals.

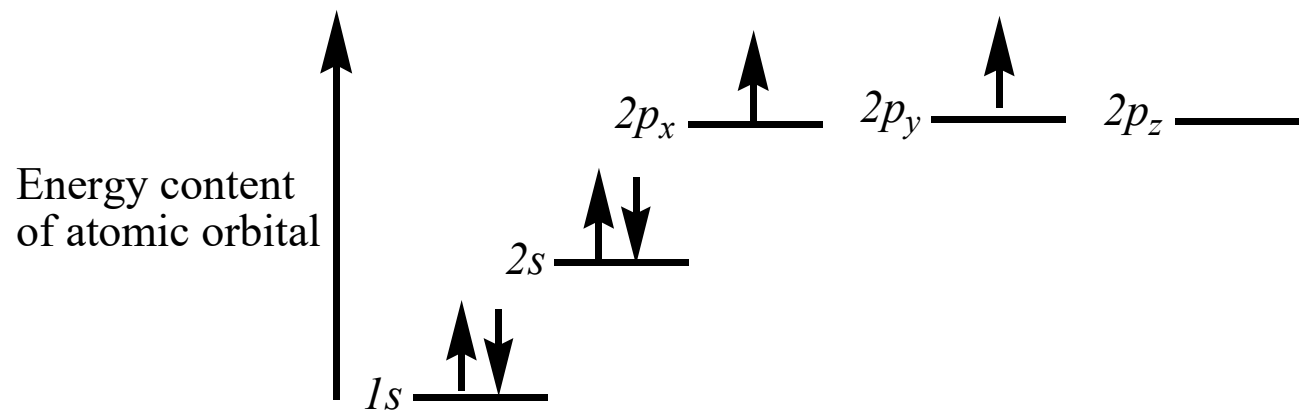


- When filling the atomic orbitals, keep in mind that
  - (1) An atomic orbital contain no more 2 electrons.
  - (2) Electrons fill orbitals of lower energy first.
  - (3) No sub-orbital is filled by 2 electrons until all the sub-orbitals of equal energy have at least one electron.

# Shapes of Organic Molecules: Orbital Picture of Covalent Bonds

## Atomic Orbitals

- The electronic configuration of **carbon** (atomic number 6) can be represented as



Energy level diagram for carbon.



# Bond Energy and Bond Length

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- **A molecule is more stable than the isolated constituent atoms.**

*This stability is apparent in the release of energy during the formation of the molecular bond.*

- **Heat of formation (bond energy)**

*The amount of energy released when a bond is formed.*

- **Bond dissociation energy**

*The amount of energy that must be absorbed to break a bond.*

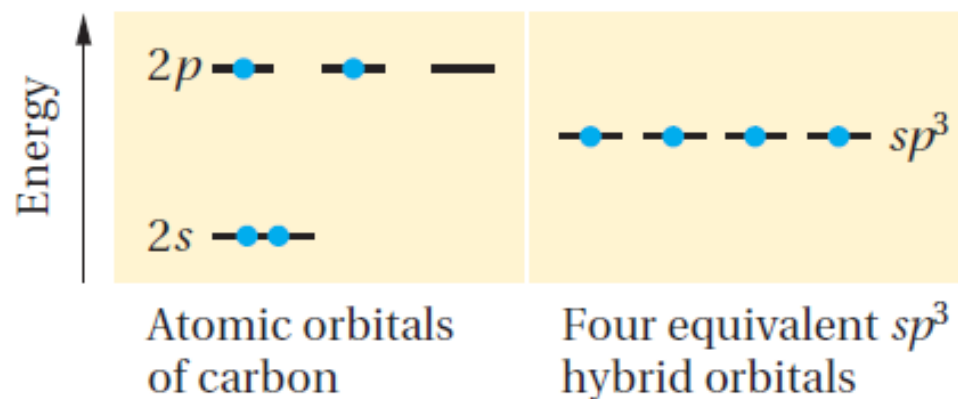
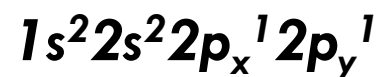
- **Bond length**

*The distance between nuclei in the molecular structure.*

# Hybridization (Alkanes $sp^3$ )

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- The electronic configuration of the isolated or ground-state carbon

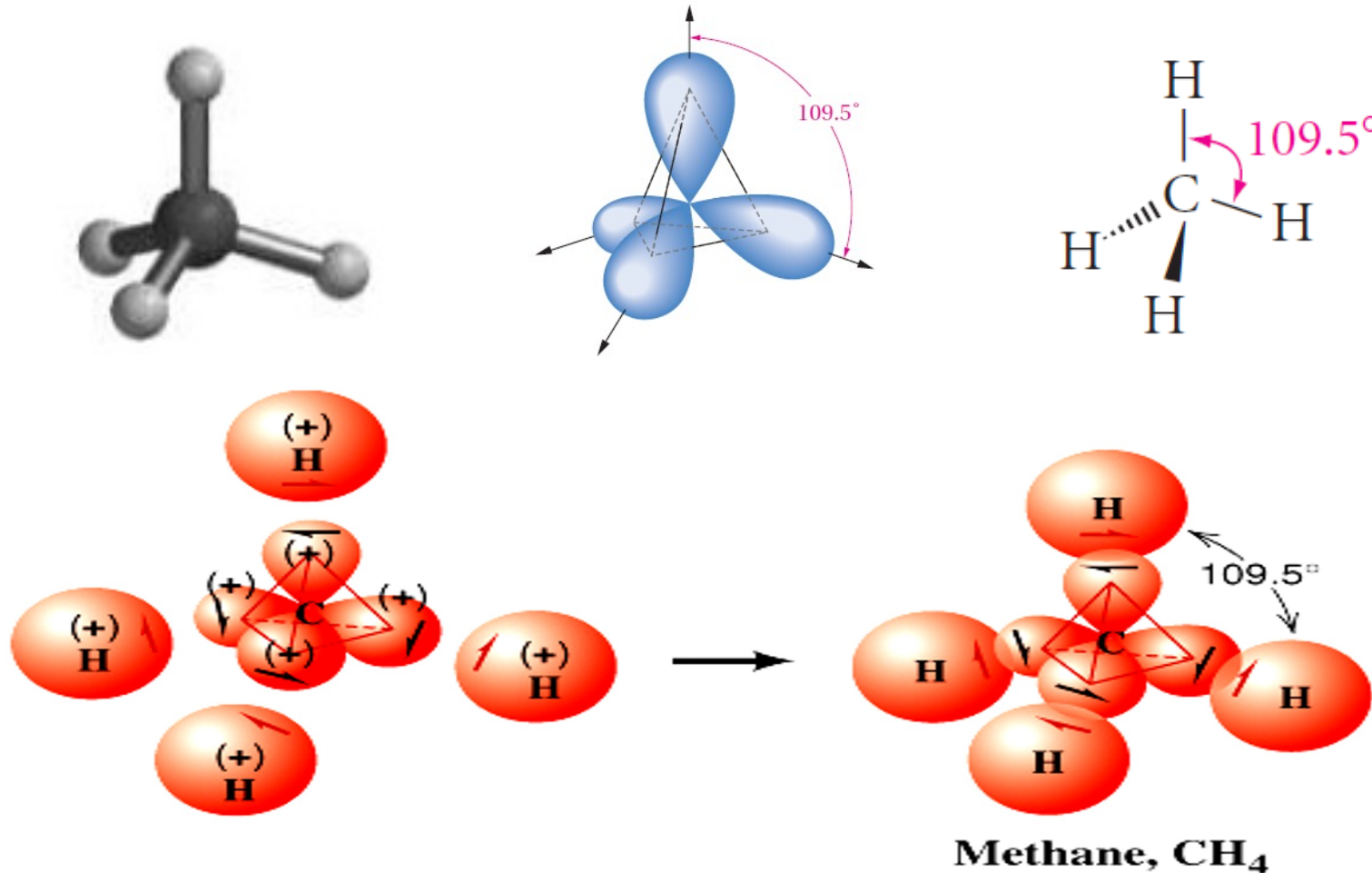


- Mix or combine the four atomic orbitals of the valence shell to form four identical hybrid orbitals, each containing one valence electron.
- In this model, the hybrid orbitals are called  **$sp^3$  hybrid orbitals** because each one has one part  $s$  character and three parts  $p$  character
- Each  $sp^3$  orbital has the same energy: less than that of the  $2p$  orbitals but greater than that of the  $2s$  orbital.

# Hybridization (Saturated Hydrocarbons: Alkanes $sp^3$ )



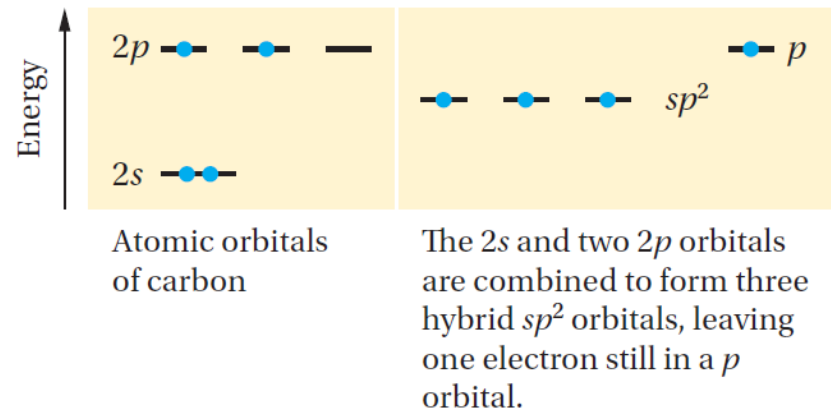
- **Regular tetrahedral with all H-C-H bond angles of  $109.5^\circ$ .**



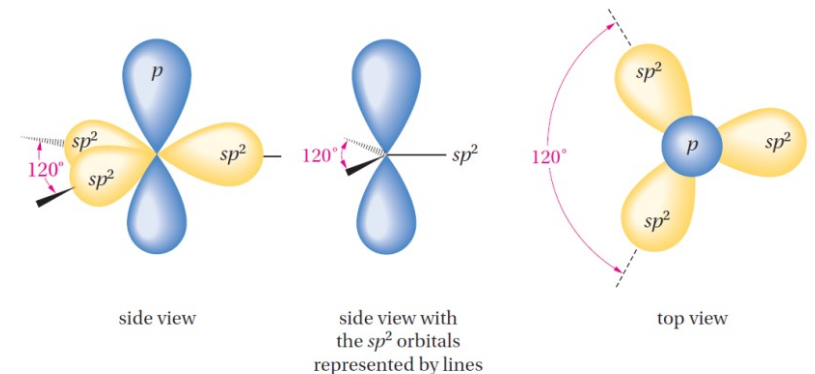
# Hybridization (Unsaturated Hydrocarbons: Alkenes $sp^2$ )

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- Combine only three of the orbitals, to make three equivalent  $sp^2$ -hybridized orbitals (called  $sp^2$  because they are formed by combining one s and two p orbitals)



- Three valence electrons are placed in the three  $sp^2$  orbitals. The fourth valence electron is placed in the remaining 2p orbital, whose axis is perpendicular to the plane formed by the three  $sp^2$  hybrid orbitals

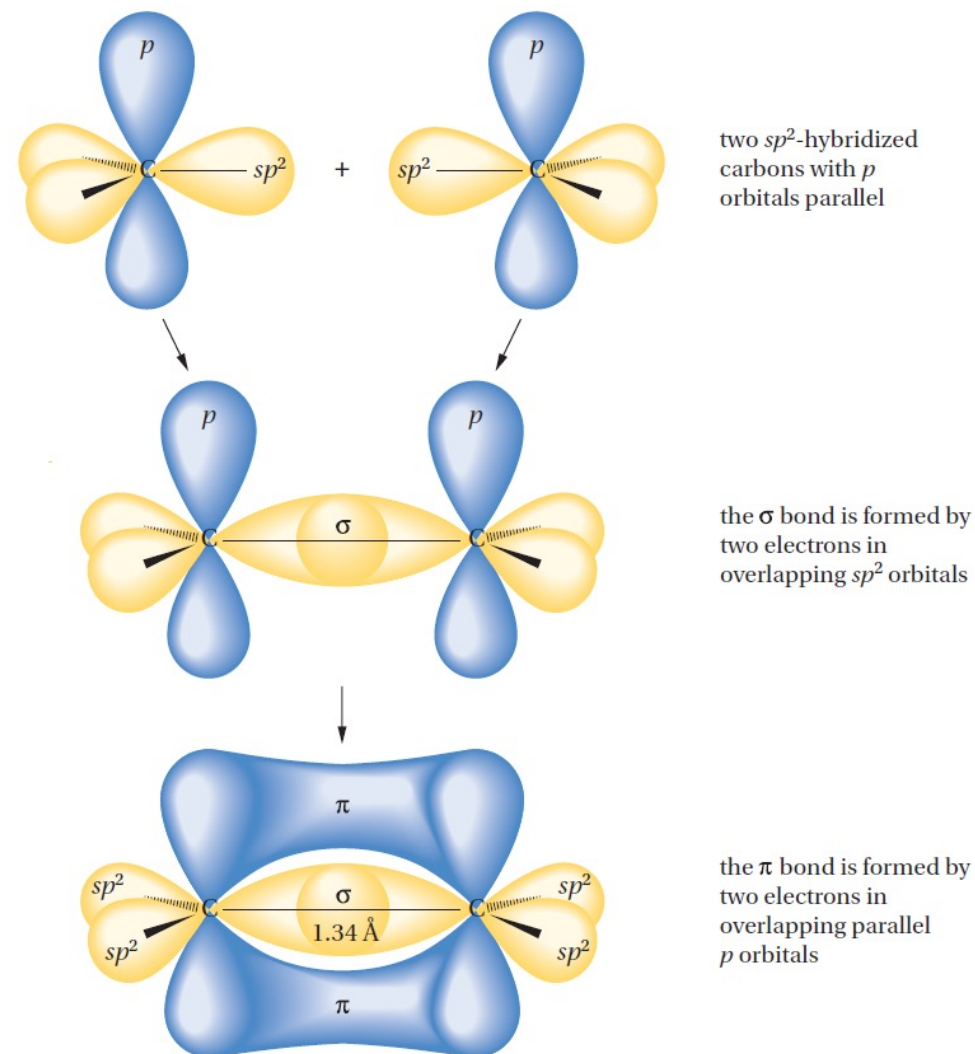


- **A trigonal carbon with bond angles of  $120^\circ$ .**

# Hybridization (Alkenes $sp^2$ )

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Schematic formation of a carbon-carbon double bond. Two  $sp^2$  carbons form a sigma ( $\sigma$ ) bond (end-on overlap of two  $sp^2$  orbitals) and a pi ( $\pi$ ) bond (lateral overlap of two properly aligned  $p$  orbitals).

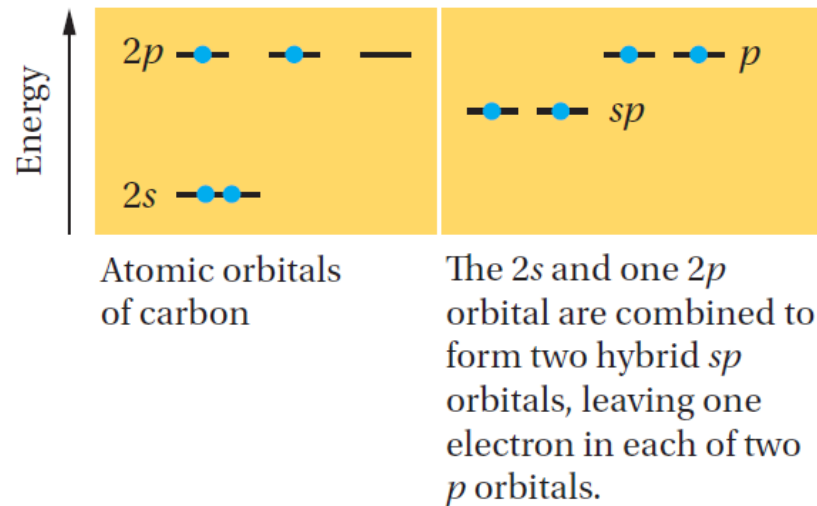




# Hybridization (Unsaturated Hydrocarbons: Alkynes $sp$ )



- The carbon atom of an acetylene is connected to only *two* other atoms. Therefore, we combine the 2s orbital with only one 2p orbital to make two  **$sp$ -hybrid orbitals**



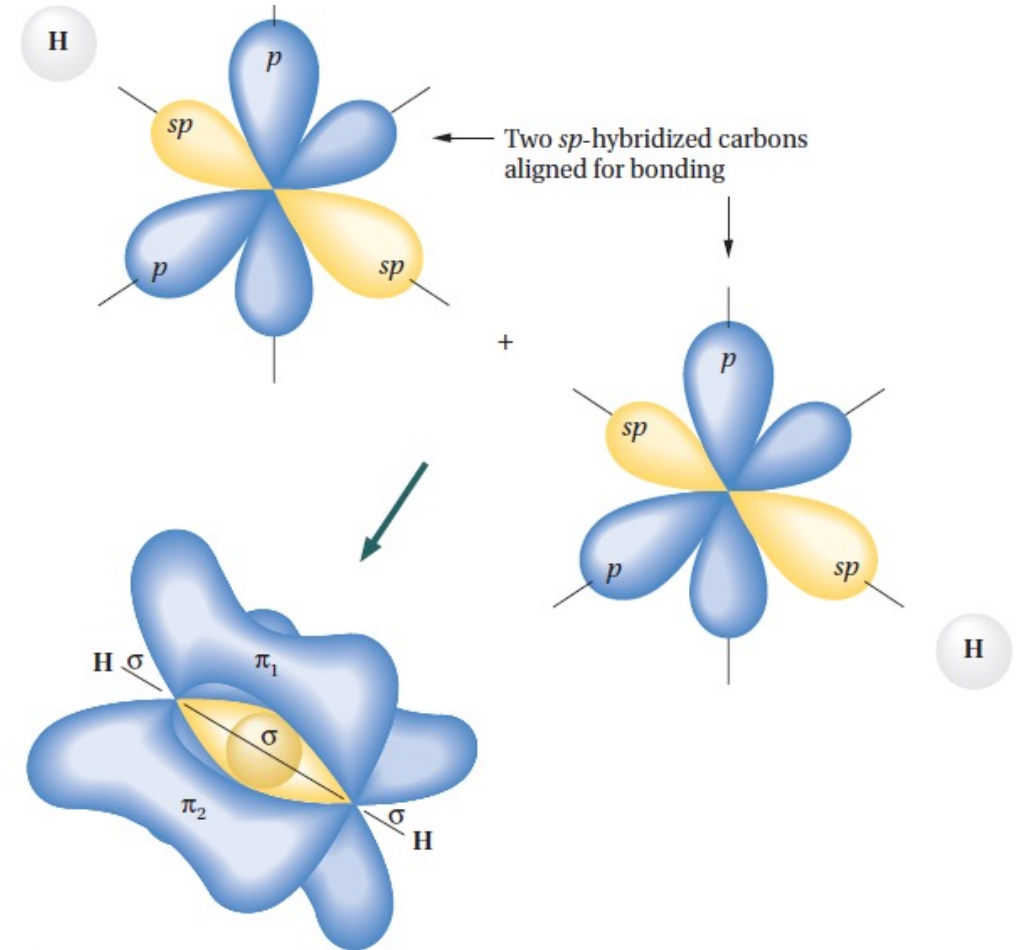
- The angle between the two hybrid orbitals is  **$180^\circ$**

- Linear**



# Hybridization (Alkynes $sp$ )

A triple bond consists of the end-on overlap of two  $sp$ -hybrid orbitals to form a  $\sigma$  bond and the lateral overlap of two sets of parallel-oriented  $p$  orbitals to form two mutually perpendicular  $\pi$  bonds.

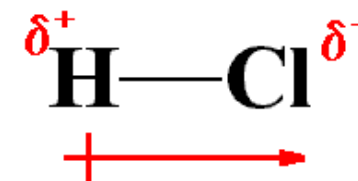


The resulting carbon-carbon triple bond, with a hydrogen atom attached to each remaining  $sp$  bond. (The orbitals involved in the C—H bonds are omitted for clarity.)

# Inductive Effect

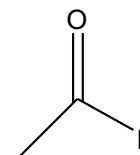
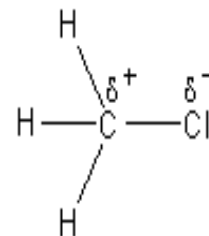
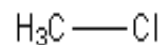
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- **Inductive effect** can be defined as *the permanent displacement of electrons forming a covalent bond (sigma  $\sigma$  bonds) towards the more electronegative element or group.*
- The inductive effect is represented by the symbol, the arrow pointing towards the more electronegative element or group of elements.



(+ I) effect if the substituent electron-donating

(- I) effect if the substituent electron-withdrawing



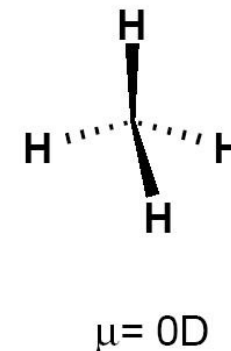
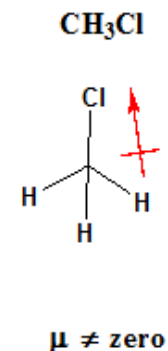
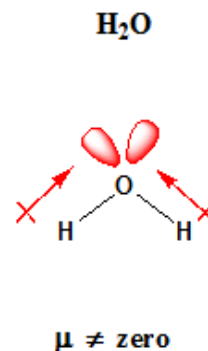
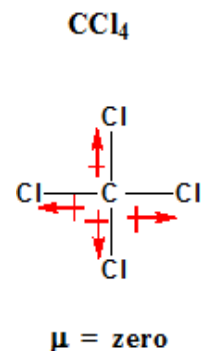
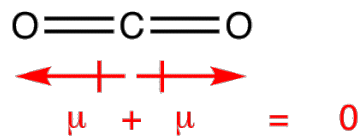
Electron-donating substituents (+I):  $-\text{CH}_3$ ,  $-\text{C}_2\text{H}_5$

Electron-withdrawing substituents (-I):  $-\text{NO}_2$ ,  $-\text{CN}$ ,  $-\text{SO}_3\text{H}$ ,  $-\text{COOH}$ ,  $-\text{COOR}$ ,  $-\text{X}$ ,  $-\text{NH}_2$ ,  $-\text{OH}$ ,  $-\text{OCH}_3$

# Bond Polarity and Dipole Moment ( $\mu$ )

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- **Dipole moment** (depends on the inductive effect).
- A bond with the electrons shared equally between two atoms is called a **nonpolar bond** like in Cl-Cl and C-C bond in ethane.
- A bond with the electrons shared unequally between two different elements is called a **polar bond**.
- The **bond polarity** is measured by its dipole moment ( $\mu$ ).
- **Dipole moment ( $\mu$ )** defined to be the amount of charge separation (  $+\delta$  and  $-\delta$  ) multiplied by the bond length.



# Functional Groups

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**Functional Group** is a reactive portion of an organic molecule, an atom, or a group of atoms that confers on the whole molecule its characteristic properties.

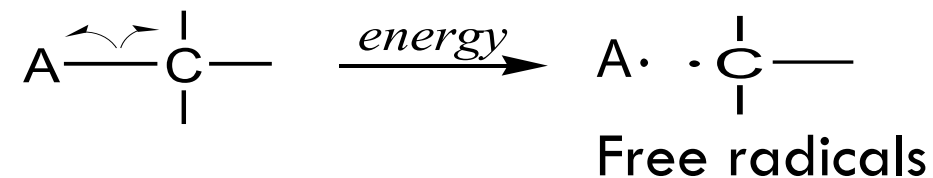
Class	General formula	Functional group	Specific
Alkane	RH	C – C (single bond)	H <sub>3</sub> C – CH <sub>3</sub>
Alkene	R – CH = CH <sub>2</sub>	C = C (double bond)	H <sub>2</sub> C = CH <sub>2</sub>
Alkyne	R – C ≡ CH	C ≡ C (triple bond)	HC ≡ CH
Alkyl halide	RX	-X (X = F, Cl, Br, I)	H <sub>3</sub> C - Cl
Alcohol	R – OH	-OH	H <sub>3</sub> C - OH
Ether	R – O – R'	- C - O - C -	H <sub>3</sub> C – O – CH <sub>3</sub>
Aldehyde	R – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – H	$\text{---} \overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – H	H – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – H, H <sub>3</sub> C – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – H
Ketone	R – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – R	$\text{---} \overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – $\text{---}$	H <sub>3</sub> C – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – CH <sub>3</sub>
Carboxylic acid	R – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OH	$\text{---} \overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OH	H – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OH, H <sub>3</sub> C – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OH
Ester	R – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OR	$\text{---} \overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OR	H – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OCH <sub>3</sub> H <sub>3</sub> C – $\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}$ C – OCH <sub>3</sub>
Amine	R – NH <sub>2</sub>	$\text{---} \overset{\text{I}}{\underset{\text{I}}{\text{C}}} \text{---} \text{NH}_2$	H <sub>3</sub> C – NH <sub>2</sub>

# Notations for bond breaking and bond making



○ A covalent bond can be broken in either two ways,

- Homolytic cleavage.



- Heterolytic cleavage.

