

# CHEM 22000 (Organic Chemistry I) Notes

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November 2, 2021

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## Week 1

# The Basics: Bonding and Molecular Structure

### 1.1 Course Information

- 9/28:
- No labs this week.
  - Virtual lab: Watch a video and record data in your notebook; answer embedded quiz questions.
  - Collaborative Learning in Organic Chemistry (CLOC).
    - 2hr Sunday or Monday.
    - Contact Dr. Britni Ratliff (ratliff@uchicago.edu).
    - Pass/Fail grading (based on attendance).
    - You work on problems related to the lecture content under the supervision of someone who's taken the class before.
    - You can opt-in/out on a quarter-by-quarter basis.
  - Review syllabus: Download alternate textbooks, put exam dates in the calendar, add office hours to calendar.
  - Develop an understanding of how structure affects reactivity — mechanistic principles.
  - You don't have to memorize anything, but you have to remember everything.
    - Like learning a language.
      - Vocabulary, grammar (principles), apply to understand and predict.

### 1.2 Defining Organic Chemistry

- **Organic chemistry:** Traditionally, the chemistry of living organisms. Now, the chemistry of carbon compounds.
  - Carbon is of particular import because it can bond with itself, and it can form strong bonds with other elements (e.g., C, O, H, S, N, and P) as well.
  - Carbon is bound in simple molecules (such as CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub>), and highly complex ones (such as proteins, DNA, and RNA).
- Carbon compounds:

- Natural: Sugars, fats, gasoline, hydrocarbons, hormones, natural drugs, peptides, rubber, silk, starch, cotton, etc.
- Synthetic: Dyes, fragrances, soaps, drugs, medicines, plastics, materials, teflon, nylon, etc.
- OChem is a central science that feeds into fields such as biochemistry, molecular biology, molecular medicine, math/theory (e.g., buckyballs), engineering, and physics.

## 1.3 Gen Chem Review

- Today:
  1. Intro (done).
  2. Atomic structure and bonding (review from Gen Chem).
  3. Chemical bonds — octet rule.
  4. Writing Lewis structures.
  5. Formal charges.
- Atomic structure and bonding.
  - Atoms  $\rightarrow$  elements  $\rightarrow$  compounds.
  - Nucleus (protons and neutrons) surrounded by electrons.
  - This year, we'll concern ourselves with the main group elements.
  - Electron configuration:
    - Aufbau principle: Electrons fill orbitals from lowest energy to highest energy.
    - Pauli exclusion principle: 2 electrons/orbital with opposite spin quantum numbers (must pair  $+\frac{1}{2}$  with  $-\frac{1}{2}$ ).
    - Hund's rule: Orbitals with equivalent energy get partially filled first before more electrons are added.
    - Example:  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$  is Na.
  - Valence electrons are key in this class.
- Noble gas configurations and the octet rule.
  - Lewis noticed that there is a special stability associated with a filled outer shell.
  - Thus, we generally have 8 electrons in the filled outer shell.
    - For example,  $\text{Cl} \xrightarrow{+1e^-} \text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Na} \xrightarrow{-1e^-} \text{Na}^+$ .
  - Chemical bonds form because they allow the atoms to achieve a filled octet.
  - Two kinds of bonding: Ionic and covalent.
    - Ionic: Not covered much this year. Lose or gain an electron (forming cations and anions, respectively) to form a filled outer shell. Usually involves a metal and a nonmetal.
    - Covalent: Covered a lot this year. Sharing electrons to satisfy the need for an octet.
    - The atoms involved dictate whether bonding will be ionic or covalent.
  - Electronegativity: The ability of an atom to attract its valence shell electrons.
    - Defined by Pauling, who let  $\text{Li} = 1.0$  and  $\text{F} = 4.0$ .
    - This is a very important concept for understanding bonding and reactivity.
    - EN increases across and up on the periodic table: More protons and a shorter distance away from the nucleus both mean a greater pull on the electrons.
    - Mnemonic (highest to lowest electronegativity): F O Cl N Br I S C H P.

- Non-polar covalent bonds form when  $\Delta EN < 0.5$ .
- Polar covalent bonds form when  $\Delta EN \approx 0.5 - 1.9$ .
- Exceptions to the octet rule: H wants  $2e^-$ . Be wants  $4e^-$ . B and Al want  $6e^-$ . Molecule has an odd number of electrons (e.g., NO with 11 electrons is stable).
- Lewis structures.
  - General rules/procedure (there are exceptions).
    1. Determine the total number of valence electrons for the molecule. Add electrons for negative charges; remove for positive charges.
    2. Draw a skeleton and join atoms with single bonds. Put the atom that likes to make the most bonds in the center.
    3. Deduct 2 electrons from the count in step 1 for each single bond. Fill outside atoms with lone pair electrons.
    4. The remaining electrons go on the central atom.
    5. If you have too few electrons for every atom to have an octet, use lone pair electrons to convert single bonds to double bonds. We can also use triple bonds.
  - $CH_4$  and  $NH_3$  presented as worked examples.

9/30:

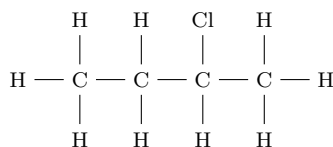
- Today:
  4. Lewis Structures.
  5. Formal charges.
  6. Isomers.
  7. Structural formulas.
  8. Resonance.
  9. Orbitals and bonding.
- Lewis structures:
  - $H_2CO$  (formaldehyde) and  $CH_3COOH$  (acetic acid) presented as worked examples.
- Formal charge determination:
  - If the number of valence electrons does not equal the total number of electrons on an atom, then you will have a formal charge.
  - Rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Formal Charge} &= \text{normal valence } e^- - \text{actual } e^- \\ &= \text{valence } e^- - \left( \text{nonbonding } e^- + \frac{1}{2} \text{bonding } e^- \right) \\ &= \text{valence } e^- - (\text{dots} + \text{lines})\end{aligned}$$

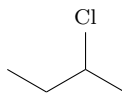
- $CH_3COO^-$  (acetate) has a formal charge of  $6 - 7 = -1$  on its singly bonded oxygen.
- $CH_3NH_3^+$  (methyl ammonium) has a formal charge of  $5 - 4 = +1$  on its nitrogen.
- Exceptions: Open shell Group III central atoms (e.g., B and Al).
  - $BF_3$  acts as a Lewis acid because it wants to grab  $2e^-$  to form an octet.
  - It often acts in acid-base coupling reactions, grabbing a lone pair from an oxygen in an adjacent molecule and bonding through it.

## 1.4 OChem Basics

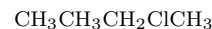
- Isomers:
  - Constitutional isomers: Same molecular formula but different bond connectivities.
  - Acetone vs. 3-propanol, yet both are  $C_3H_6O$ .
- Structural formulas:



(a) Dash structural formula.



(b) Bond line formula.



(c) Condensed formula.

Figure 1.1: Structural formulas.

- **Dash structural formula:** A Lewis structure.
- **Bond line formula:** No C–H's, show a vertex for each carbon, show heteroatoms and heteroatom H's. *Also known as line-angle structure, zig-zag structure.*
- **Condensed formula:** All atoms written out with no bonds or lone pairs.
- **3D representation:** A dash structural/bond line formula with wedges and dashes.
- **Resonance:** When a molecule or an ion can be represented by 2 or more Lewis structures, i.e., two or more structures with the same skeleton connected by different electrons.
  - Resonance structures or resonance contributors.
  - The actual molecule is somewhere between the contributors.
  - $CO_3^{2-}$  presented as a worked example.
  - Guidelines:
    1. Only lone pairs or  $\pi$  electrons move (never move single bonds).
    2. No structure with greater than  $8e^-$  on a 2nd row atom.
    3. The species with the maximum number of octets is the strongest contributor.
    4. Charge on suitable atoms (e.g., negative charge on the atom with the highest electronegativity).
  - Resonance stabilization comes from delocalization. When 2 or more resonance structures, the “real” structure is somewhere in between (the real is more stable than any contributor).
  - $CH_3COO^-$  (acetate),  $CH_2CHCH_2^+$ , and  $(CH_3)_2CO$  presented as worked examples.
  - You can also depict delocalization with a curving dashed bond and  $\delta^-$ 's.

## 1.5 Bonding and Orbital Diagrams

10/5:

- Today:
  9. Orbital theory and bonding.
  10. Methane.
  11. Ethane.
  12. Ethylene.



13. Acetylene.
  14. Comparison of  $sp^3$ ,  $sp^2$ ,  $sp$  orbitals.
  15. VSEPR Model + Molecular Symmetry.
- Orbital theory and bonding:
    - Defines **atomic orbitals**.
    - Reviews  $s$  and  $p$  orbital shapes, positive and negative regions, and nodes.
    - Energy of orbitals diagram.
    - Phosphorous and sulfur can exceed the octet rule since they have  $d$  orbitals in which to stash extra electrons.
    - Filled with the Aufbau/Pauli Exclusion principles, and Hund's Rule.
    - Goes over bonding energy diagram.
    - Mathematically, we have a Linear Combination of Atomic Orbitals (or LCAO).
      - Electrons are represented as waves; thus, they have  $+$  and  $-$  phases.
      - Opposite phases are destructive; this forms  $\sigma^*$  orbitals.
      - Same phases are constructive; this forms  $\sigma$  orbitals.
    - Goes over MO diagrams.
  - **Atomic orbital:** A space where electrons are likely to be found 95% of the time.
  - **Degenerate** (orbitals): Two orbitals with the same energy.
  - **Chemical bond:** A favorable interaction between 2 atoms, i.e., one that helps to fill the outer orbitals to achieve a noble gas configuration.
  - Bonding in methane:

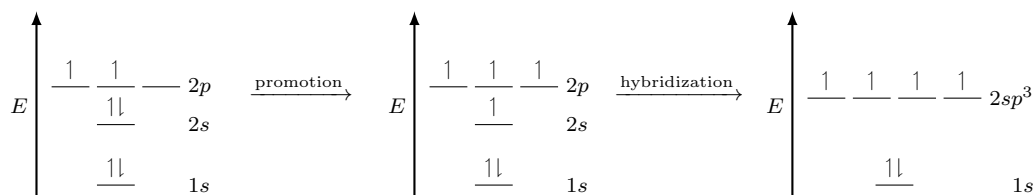


Figure 1.2: Bonding in methane.

- Draws an orbital diagram for carbon.
- Promotes an electron from  $2s \rightarrow 2p_z$ .
- Hybridizes  $2s, 2p_x, 2p_y, 2p_z$  into 4 degenerate  $sp^3$  orbitals of weighted average energy, each containing only 1 electron.
- Links each of these  $sp^3$  electrons to the  $1s$  electron in  $H_2$ , forming  $\sigma$  orbitals.
- The new orbitals adopt a tetrahedral arrangement to be as far apart as possible.
- Bonding in ethane.
  - Two  $sp^3$  electrons combine in a  $\sigma$  orbital; no electrons go into the  $\sigma^*$  MO.
- The structure of ethylene.
  - Side by side overlap of  $p$  orbitals forms a  $\pi$  bond.
  - The angle between the hydrogens in ethylene is slightly less than  $120^\circ$ .

- The bond is slightly shorter than in ethane (greater  $s$  character plus an additional type of bond).
- Features of the C=C double bond.
  - $sp^2$ -hybridized carbons making  $3\sigma$  and  $1\pi$  bond.
  - A  $\pi$  bond is weaker than a  $\sigma$  bond, but still strong.
  - $\sigma_{sp^2-sp^2}$  is stronger than  $\sigma_{sp^3-sp^3}$ .
  - Restricted rotation (hard to twist  $C_2H_2$  by  $90^\circ$ ).
  - cis-trans isomerism as a result of restricted rotation.
  - The  $\pi$  bond acts like a Lewis base with some systems since the  $\pi$  electrons are held relatively weakly. In other words, the  $\pi$ -electrons are exposed.
- Draws an MO diagram for the carbons.
- The structure of acetylene.
  - 2  $\pi$  bonds, 1  $\sigma$  bond.
  - Even greater strength, but not quite as much greater as the  $\sigma_{sp^3-sp^3} \rightarrow \sigma_{sp^2-sp^2}$  difference.

## 1.6 VSEPR Theory

- 10/7:
- There's a special kind of electronegativity that relates to hybridization: An  $sp$ -hybridized carbon is more electronegative than an  $sp^3$ -hybridized carbon, for instance.
  - VSEPR Model:
    - Electron pairs want to stay as far apart as possible in space.
    - Consider the bonding electrons (number of atoms bound) and nonbonding electrons.
    - Describe shape based on the position of nuclei.
  - Constructs VSEPR table for linear, trigonal planar, tetrahedral, trigonal pyramidal, bent

## Week 2

# Families of Carbon Compounds / Acids and Bases

### 2.1 Families of Carbon Compounds

10/7:

- Hydrocarbons:
  - Alkanes ( $C_nH_{2n+2}$ ) and cycloalkanes  $C_nH_{2n}$ .
  - Alkenes ( $C_nH_{2n}$ ).
  - Alkynes ( $C_nH_{2n-2}$ ).
- Aromatic:
  - Contains a benzene ring.
  - All bonds  $\sim 140$  Å.
  - All carbons  $sp^2$ .
  - Planar.
  - $\pi$  electrons above and below the ring.
  - Special stabilization.
- Covers drawing dipoles.
- Polar and nonpolar molecules:
  - Dipole = distance  $\times$  change between charges.
  - $\mu = r \times Q$
  - $1 \text{ D} = 3.336 \times 10^{-30} \text{ C m}$ .
  - Analyzes molecules by drawing a Lewis structure, drawing a dipole along each bond, and drawing and labeling a net dipole, if applicable.
  - Goes through a number of examples.
  - Acetonitrile is a strong polar solvent.
- **Functional group:** A common arrangement that determines shape, bonding physical and reactivity of organic compounds.
- Families of carbon compounds:
  - Hydrocarbons: Aliphatic, aromatic.
  - Methyl, ethyl, propyl,  $R$  = alkyl groups.

- Phenyl: Ph- or  $\phi$ -.
- Benzyl: Ph-CH<sub>2</sub>-, C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>-, Bn-
- Compounds with R-Z where Z is a heteroatom.
  - If Z is a halogen X, then the halogroup makes it an alkyl halide or haloalkane.
- Alkenyl halide: X- =.
- Aryl halide: Ph-X.
- Alcohols or phenols: R-OH.
- Ether: R-O-R'.
- Amines: NH<sub>2</sub>R, NHRR', NRR'R''.
- Thiols or mercaptols: R-SH.
- Carbonyl group: R-CO-R'.
- Aldehyde: R-COH.
- Ketone: R-CO-R'.
- Carboxylic acid derivatives:
  - Acid: R-COOH.
  - Ester: R-COOR'.
  - Acid chloride: R-COCl.
  - Acid halide: R-COX.
  - Amide: R-CONH<sub>2</sub>.
  - Acid anhydride: R-COOCO-R'.
- Nitrile: R-C≡N.
- Acrylonitrile:  $=-C\equiv N$ .

## 2.2 Discussion Section

- ACS in-text citations should be in superscripts as a list of number with no brackets or parentheses.
- Molecular formulas are C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>O, not C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH or CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH.
- Make a table if you have a lot of data to put in (make it readable!).
- Distillation:
  - We need a boiling chip and stir bar inside the flask.
  - Vapor comes up from a round-bottomed flask, encounters a rubber stopper and gets diverted through a condenser instead.
  - Make use of countercurrent exchange and increase pressure by inflowing water in the gravitationally lower portion of the condenser.
  - Boiling chip is a coarse material with a lot of micropores inside.
  - The surface energy is reduced when the fluid is inside the micropores; within, it can more easily become a gas.
- As the mole fraction  $\chi$  of a substance A increases...
- Raoult's law:
$$P_{\text{total}} = \frac{P_A \chi_A}{P_B \chi_B} = \frac{P_A \chi_A}{P_B (1 - \chi_A)}$$
- Dalton's law: The total pressure is equal to the sum of the partial pressures.

## 2.3 Intermolecular Forces and IR Spectroscopy

10/12:

- Intermolecular forces and physical properties.
- **Boiling point:** The temperature at which the vapor pressure is equal to the pressure of the atmosphere above.
  - The stronger the intermolecular forces, the higher the boiling point.
  - The higher the molecular weight, the higher the boiling point.
- **Melting point:** The temperature at which the crystalline solid and liquid are in equilibrium.
  - The stronger the intermolecular forces, the higher the melting point.
  - The more symmetrical, the higher the melting point.
- Solubility.
- Intermolecular forces.
  - All electrostatic attractions related to bond polarity.
  - 3 types: Dipole-dipole forces, hydrogen bonding, and dispersion forces.
- **Dipole-dipole forces:** Attraction between opposite poles (1 kcal/mol to 3 kcal/mol).
- **Hydrogen bonding:** Dipole-dipole interaction between H-atoms bonded to O, N, F (2 kcal/mol to 10 kcal/mol).
- **Dispersion forces:** Weak ( $< 1$  kcal/mol). Momentary distortion of the electron cloud (temporary dipole). Induces dipoles in surrounding molecules. *Also known as London forces.*
  - Depends on **relative polarizability**.
  - Depends on the surface area of the molecule — more surface area means more distance electrons can spread apart.
- **Relative polarizability:** How far valence electrons are from the nucleus.
- Solubility:
  - For something to be soluble, you need to have favorable forces between them.
  - Ionic compounds are soluble in water, less soluble in polar solvents, and insoluble in nonpolar solvents.
  - Organic compounds:  $< 3$  carbons is soluble, 4-5 carbons is borderline,  $\geq 6$  is insoluble. More soluble in organic solvents.
- Organic solvents:
  - $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$  — methylene chloride.
  - $\text{HCCl}_3$  — chloroform.
  - $\text{H}_3\text{CCOCH}_3$  — acetone.
  - Diethyl ether.
  - THF.
  - Cyclohexane.
- In TLC, the silica gel is very polar, so polar compounds will not move far up the plate. Nonpolar solvents will drag nonpolar compounds up pretty high.
- HOMO and LUMO get closer as conjugation increases.
- IR spectroscopy:

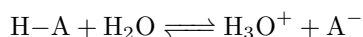
- The frequencies absorbed vary based on the type. Higher stretching frequencies for lighter atoms and stronger bonds.
- IR radiation causes transitions in vibrational modes of bonds.
- The stronger the bond and the lighter the atoms, the faster the vibration of the molecule and the higher the stretching frequency.
- The  $\Delta E$ 's are inherent characteristics of the bonds and nuclei.
- Bonds absorb light of characteristic energy, frequency, and wavelength.
- We usually report IR spectra in terms of the wavenumber  $\bar{\nu}$ .
- The frequencies absorbed can indicate bond types and functional groups in the molecule.
- Anything above 1500 (of wavenumber less than 1500) is called the **fingerprint region** — it may not tell you what a molecule is, but it will tell you if two molecules are the same.
- Sharp peaks at high wavenumbers are characteristic of N–H interactions.
- Make a line at  $3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Things to the right of that indicate aliphatic C–H's. Things to the left indicate  $sp^2$  C–H groups. Things more to the left indicate  $sp$  C–H groups.
- Not all bonds are visible — stretching bands must change the dipole. Thus, for example, the C=H stretch in trans-but-2-ene is not IR active, but the C=H stretch in cis-but-2-ene is IR active.
- If you want to substitute D for H, the peak formerly associated with the R–H bond will move lower.

COMMON ABSORPTIONS	
Aromatic C–C	Two peaks usually in the range of $1500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ to $1600\text{ cm}^{-1}$
C=C	$\sim 1650\text{ cm}^{-1}$
C=O	$\sim 1710\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (shifts to $\sim 1735\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for esters)
C $\equiv$ C	$2100\text{ cm}^{-1}$ to $2300\text{ cm}^{-1}$
C $\equiv$ N	$2100\text{ cm}^{-1}$ to $2300\text{ cm}^{-1}$
C–H (aldehyde)	Two peaks at $2170\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $2810\text{ cm}^{-1}$
$sp^3$ C–H	Just to the right of $3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$
$sp^2$ C–H	Just to the left of $3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$
$sp$ C–H	$\sim 3300\text{ cm}^{-1}$
N–H	$\sim 3300\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (one peak for $-\text{NH}-$ , two peaks for $-\text{NH}_2$ )
O–H (alcohol)	$\sim 3400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (a broad, smooth peak)
O–H (acid)	$\sim 2500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ to $3500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ (a very broad, ugly [not smooth] peak)

Table 2.1: Common IR spectroscopy absorptions.

## 2.4 Acids and Bases

- 10/14:
- **Brønsted-Lowry acid:** A proton donor.
  - **Brønsted-Lowry base:** A proton acceptor.
  - General reaction:



- Does curved-arrow formalism for the above reaction.

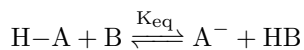
- The reaction equilibrium is given by

$$K_{\text{eq}} = \frac{[\text{A}^-][\text{H}_3\text{O}^+]}{[\text{HA}][\text{H}_2\text{O}]}$$

$$K_{\text{eq}}[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = \frac{[\text{A}^-][\text{H}_3\text{O}^+]}{[\text{HA}]}$$

$$K_{\text{a}} = \frac{[\text{A}^-][\text{H}_3\text{O}^+]}{[\text{HA}]}$$

- Note that  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = 55.5 \text{ M}$ .
- $\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = -\log K_{\text{a}}$  gives numbers that are easier to work with.
  - The larger the  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ , the weaker the acid.
  - The smaller the  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ , the stronger the acid.
- Gives  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ 's and conjugate bases for the strong acids HI, HBr, HCl,  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , and  $\text{HNO}_3$ .
  - Also for the weak acids  $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}$ , HF,
- There is a relationship between acid strength and conjugate base strength.
  - The stronger the acid (lower  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ ), the weaker the conjugate base.
  - The weaker the acid (higher  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ ), the stronger the conjugate base.
- Almost any reaction can be thought of as an acid/base reaction using the Lewis definition.
- Acid-base reaction equilibria:



- Let

$$K_{\text{a}_1} = \frac{[\text{H}_3\text{O}^+][\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]} \qquad K_{\text{a}_2} = \frac{[\text{H}_3\text{O}^+][\text{B}^-]}{[\text{HB}]}$$

- Then

$$K_{\text{eq}} = \frac{K_{\text{a}_1}}{K_{\text{a}_2}}$$

$$\log K_{\text{eq}} = \log K_{\text{a}_1} - \log K_{\text{a}_2}$$

$$= \text{p}K_{\text{a}_2} - \text{p}K_{\text{a}_1}$$

$$K_{\text{eq}} = 10^{\Delta \text{p}K_{\text{a}}}$$

so for any acid-base reaction, the position of the equilibrium can be predicted from the relative  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ 's.

- Factors influencing acidity:
  - Bond strength and size.
    - As bond strength decreases, acidity increases.
    - As size of the conjugate base increases, acidity increases (there is more area over which to delocalize the positive charge).
  - Electronegativity.
    - As electronegativity differences increase, acidity increases.
  - Hybridization.

- $sp$  orbitals are more acidic than  $sp^3$ , with  $sp^2$  in between. This is because the electrons are held closer to the nucleus and are less easily given away.
- Inductive effects.
  - Electronic effects transmitted through bonds.
  - Electron donating or electron withdrawing groups.
  - Stronger electron withdrawing groups create more acidic compounds (the conjugate base is more stable, and the proton more easily dissociates).
  - Falls off with distance.
  - Alkyl groups are electron donating.
- Resonance effects.
  - Pulling a proton off of an alcohol leaves negative charge on the oxygen; pulling a proton off a carboxylic acid group leads to an anion that has resonance (and thus is more stable, so the acid is stronger).
- Solvation effects.
  - Charges that are more accessible (primary vs. tertiary) are more easily solvated and thus have more stable conjugate bases. Thus, an acid that has charges on its conjugate base that are more easily solvated is stronger.

## 2.5 Acids and Bases in Nonaqueous Solutions

- 10/21:
- The strongest base you can have in water is  $\text{OH}^-$ .
    - This is because strong bases (e.g.,  $\text{H}_2\text{N}^-$ ) give you
$$\text{H}_2\text{N}^- + \text{H}-\text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{HO}^- + \text{NH}_3$$
    - Since  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}(\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 16$  and  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}(\text{NH}_3) = 38$ ,  $K_{\text{eq}} = 10^{38-16} = 10^{22}$ .
  - We need a solvent with less acidic protons, e.g., hexane, diethyl ketone.
    - $\text{Li}(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{CH}_3$ , LDA (lithium diisopropylamide), NaH are all very strong bases.
  - **Lewis acid:** Electron pair acceptor.
  - **Lewis base:** Electron pair donor.
  - $\text{AlCl}_3$  has an empty  $p$ -orbital with which it can accept electrons.



## Week 3

# Nomenclature and Conformations of Alkanes and Cycloalkanes

### 3.1 Conformers

10/21:

- **Conformational isomers:** Groups connected by single bonds undergo rotation resulting in different molecular conformations. *Also known as conformers.*
  - These are transient states.
- **Conformational analysis:** The process of understanding how the conformation relates to the energy of the molecule.
- Newman projections and the sawhorse model.
- Staggered to eclipsed ethane conformations:  $\Delta E = 12 \text{ kJ/mol}$ .
  - Rate =  $5 \times 10^{10} \text{ Hz}$ .
- **Torsional strain:** Repulsive interactions (steric hindrance) between the clouds of electrons of bonded groups.
- Goes through butane conformations.
  - **Gauche** vs. **anti** methyl groups.
- **Ring strain:** The combination of angle strain and torsional strain in a cycloalkane.
- Puckering of cyclobutane relieves some of the torsional strain.
- Puckering of cyclopentane relieves some torsional strain *and* angle strain.
- Cyclohexane has chair and boat conformations.
  - Goes through Newman projections for each.

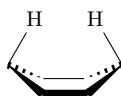


Figure 3.1: Flagpole interactions.

- **Flagpole interaction:** The interaction between the two hydrogens on opposite carbons in cyclohexane that bend toward each other.

- Axial and equatorial positions.
  - In a ring flip, axial and equatorial hydrogens invert.
  - When you have substituents on a ring, you have 1,3-diaxial interactions.
- 10/26:
- Covers disubstituted cyclohexanes and bicyclic/polycyclic alkanes.

## Week 4

# Stereochemistry

### 4.1 Intro to Chirality and Chiral Compounds

10/26:

- Today:
  1. Stereoisomers / chirality center.
  2. Chirality test.
  3. Keeping track of stereoisomers (R/S system).
  4. Physical properties of enantiomers.
  5. Molecules with multiple chirality centers.
  6. Fischer projections.
  7. Meso compounds.
  8. Chiral molecules with no chirality center.
- **Achiral** (object): An object such that it and its mirror image are identical.
- **Chiral** (object): An object such that it and its mirror are nonidentical (cannot be superimposed).
- Single enantiomer drugs is about a \$100 billion industry.
  - Biological molecules are chiral.
- **Stereoisomers**: Same connectivity; different spatial arrangement of groups.
- **Enantiomers**: Non-super-imposable mirror images.
  - E.g., 2-butanol.
- **Diastereomers**: Stereoisomers that are not mirror images of each other.
  - E.g., cis and trans 2-butene.
- **Chirality center**: A tetrahedral carbon that is bonded to four different groups.
- Molecules with one chirality center are chiral and exist as a pair of enantiomers.
- Chirality test: Check for a **plane of symmetry**.
- **Plane of symmetry**: An imaginary plane that bisects the molecule such that the two halves are mirror images of each other.
- Lowest priority group away from you; clockwise 1,2,3 is R; counterclockwise is S.

- Enantiomers have the same boiling and melting point.
  - They are only different when interacting with other chiral substances.
  - They also rotate plane-polarized light different directions.
- **Racemic mixture:** An equimolar mixture of enantiomers.
- **Enantiomeric excess:** The following quantity. *Denoted by ee. Given by*

$$\frac{(\text{moles enantiomer 1}) - (\text{moles enantiomer 2})}{\text{total moles of both}}$$

- $ee = 0$  for a racemic mixture;  $ee = 100\%$  for an enantiomerically pure mixture.
- How many possible stereoisomers?
  - $2^n$  possible ones, where  $n$  is the number of chirality centers.

## Week 5

# Stereochemistry / Reactions of Alkenes

### 5.1 Stereochemistry Nomenclature and Intro to Alkenes

10/28:

- Last time:
  - Chapter 4 (di-substituted cyclohexanes, bicyclic/polycyclic rings).
  - Chapter 5 (stereochemistry, stereoisomers/chirality center, chirality tests [plane/center symmetry], R/S system [nomenclature; a very important survival skill for this class], physical properties of enantiomers, achiral environment: same; chiral environment: different, rotate plane polarized light [left (-) levorotatory, right (+) dextrorotatory, racemic ( $\pm$ ) mixture],  $[\alpha]_D^{25}$  specific rotation, enantiometric excess, Fischer projections [less important]).
- Intro to Guangbin Dong.
- The textbook is only a guide — follow the lecture. Also, if you see discrepancies either with the book or with Piccirilli, bring them up.
- Capital *E* is energy and lowercase *e* is electrons in this class.
- Reading assignment: Chapter 5.12, 5.14, 4.5 (review), 4.17, 7.1-7.4.
- Nongraded homework: 6.39, 5.40, 5.46, 5.48, 7.1, 7.17, 7.18, 30a-d.
- Multiple stereocenters.
- Worked example: Naming (2S,3R)-2-chloro-3-iodobutane.
  - $n = 2$  stereocenters yields at most  $2^n = 2^2 = 4$  stereoisomers.
  - Draws all enantiomers.
- **Diastereomers:** Have at least 2 stereocenters, same formula, same connectivity, but different orientation in space and are not mirror images of each other.
  - Special case: cis/trans isomerism.
- Compounds with 2 stereocenters don't always have 4 stereoisomers.
- Example: Tartaric acid, for which the (2S,3R) compound is superimposable on the (2R,3S) compound. This stereoisomer is a **meso** isomer and not a chiral molecule (there exists a plane of symmetry).
  - Thus, a molecule can be achiral even if it has a chiral center!

- **Meso** (compound): A compound with chiral stereocenters and an internal plane of symmetry.
  - The following compound (two conformers shown) is also meso because the Conformer 2 has the desired plane of symmetry.

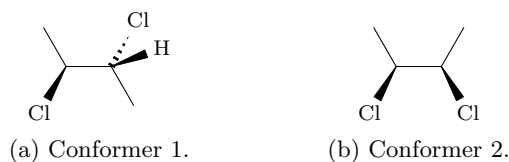


Figure 5.1: Meso compounds.

- **Alkenes:**
  - One of the most important functional groups.
  - Basic industry materials: polyethylene and polypropylene.
  - Biological systems: Fatty acids, vitamins (Vitamin A), drugs/natural products, important building block in other FGs.
- Alkenes have a  $\pi$  bond —  $2s$ ,  $2p_x$ , and  $2p_y$  get hybridized into  $sp^2$  orbitals, and  $2p_z$  forms the  $\pi$  bond.
  - The  $\pi$  bond leads to the enforced coplanar geometry of the alkenes.
  - The bond energy of a C=C bond is significantly greater than that of a C–C bond.
- Alkene cis/trans isomerism.
  - Trans is more stable b/c of steric hindrance.
  - E/Z system.

## Week 6

# Reactions of Alkenes

### 6.1 Alkene Nomenclature and Reactions

11/2:

- Alkene nomenclature.
- Degree of unsaturation, aka hydrogen deficiency.
  - Indicate the sum of the number of rings and  $\pi$  bonds in a molecule simply by examining the formula.
  - Recall for hydrogens and other heteroatoms (e.g., oxygen, nitrogen, halogens, etc.).
- Reactions of alkenes:
  - Important because an understanding of reactions enables us to do syntheses.
  - There are three components in a chemical reaction: The reactants, products, and conditions.
    - We should be able to predict any one of these from the other two.
    - We should also be able to draw the reaction mechanism.
- **Reaction mechanism:** A stepwise description of what happened in the reaction.
  - This involves arrow pushing.
- Know Table 6.1 from the textbook.
- **Hydrohalogenation:** Addition of H-X across a C=C double bond.

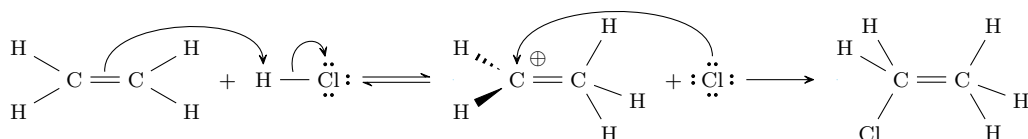


Figure 6.1: Mechanism of hydrohalogenation.

- We add the H to one of the alkene carbons and the X to the other.
- Since H-X likes electrons, it is the **electrophile**.
- If a carbocation is formed, you have an **electrophilic addition reaction**.
- For unsymmetric alkenes, we add the X to the more substituted position since a carbocation will form there during the mechanism and be stabilized by **hyperconjugation**.
  - This is Markovnikov addition.

- **Hyperconjugation:** Adjacent C–H bonding electrons donate electron density into vacant  $p$  orbitals (of  $C^+$ ), thus stabilizing the carbocation.
  - Thus, alkyl groups are considered electron-donating groups because they delocalize positive charges through inductive effects.