





Carbon & The Molecular Diversity of Life

FIRST STAGE-MEDICAL CHEMISTRY

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Carbon: The Backbone of Life

- Living organisms consist mostly of carbon-based compounds
- Carbon is unparalleled in its ability to form large, complex, and diverse molecules
- Proteins, DNA, carbohydrates, and other molecules that distinguish living matter are all composed of carbon compounds





Carbon: Organic Chemistry

- Carbon is important enough to have it's own branch of chemistry called Organic chemistry
- Organic compounds range from simple molecules to colossal ones
- Most organic compounds contain hydrogen atoms in addition to carbon atoms with O, N and P among others thrown in from time to time.





Carbon Skeletons

Each C atom can form a maximum of 4 bonds.

Groups joined by a single bond can rotate, so there are often several different arrangements of a given carbon skeleton that are equivalent:





Carbon has 4 valence electrons, thus makes 4 bonds

- With four valence electrons, carbon can form four covalent bonds with a variety of atoms
- This ability makes large, complex molecules possible
- In molecules with multiple carbons, each carbon bonded to four other atoms has a tetrahedral shape



Tetrahedron





"CNOPS" can combine together to make double and triple covalent bonds

- However, when two carbon atoms are joined by a double bond, the atoms joined to the carbons are in the same plane as the carbons
- Why is this important? Because the shape of a molecule dictates its reactivity, thus its function!





No need to memorize these!

Name and Comment	Molecular Formula	Structural Formula	Ball-and- Stick Model	Space-Filling Model	
(a) Methane CH ₄		н-с-н н		0	
(b) Ethane	C₂H₅	H H H-C-C-H H H H		38	
(c) Ethene (ethylene)	C ₂ H ₄	H C=CH	<u>(2-2)</u>	\mathfrak{T}	

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Carbon Skeletons Vary

- Carbon chains form the skeletons of most organic molecules
- Carbon chains vary in length and shape





Hydrocarbons

- Hydrocarbons are organic molecules consisting of only carbon and hydrogen
- Many organic molecules, such as fats, have hydrocarbon components
- Hydrocarbons can undergo reactions that release a large amount of energy



Fats



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Isomers

- **Isomers** are compounds with the *same molecular formula* but *different structures*, thus *different properties*.
 - Structural isomers have different covalent arrangements of their atoms
 - Cis-trans isomers have the same covalent bonds but differ in spatial arrangements
 - Enantiomers are isomers that are mirror images of each other & rotate light differently







C=C

trans isomer: The two Xs are on opposite sides.







- Enantiomers are important in the pharmaceutical industry
- Two enantiomers of a drug may have different effects
- Usually only one isomer is biologically active
- Differing effects of enantiomers demonstrate that organisms are sensitive to even subtle variations in molecules



Note the mirror imaging

Drug	Condition	Effective Enantiomer	Ineffective Enantiomer
lbuprofen	Pain; inflammation	S-lbuprofen	R-lbuprofen
Albuterol	Asthma	R-Albuterol	Control Contro

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Functional Groups

A few chemical groups are key to the functioning of molecules

- Distinctive properties of organic molecules depend on the carbon skeleton and on the molecular components attached to it
- A number of characteristic groups can replace the hydrogens attached to skeletons of organic molecules



Functional Groups

- Functional groups are the components of organic molecules that are most commonly involved in chemical reactions
- The number and arrangement of functional groups give each molecule its unique properties



here in their non-ionized forms

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Carbonyl

STRUCTURE



EXAMPLE



Acetone



Ketones if the carbonyl group is within a carbon skeleton

Aldehydes if the carbonyl group is at the end of the carbon skeleton

- A ketone and an aldehyde may be structural isomers with different properties, as is the case for acetone and propanal.
- Ketone and aldehyde groups are also found in sugars, giving rise to two major groups of sugars: ketoses (containing ketone groups) and aldoses (containing aldehyde groups).

NAME OF COMPOUND

FUNCTIONAL PROPERTIES

Carboxyl

STRUCTURE



Carboxylic acids, or organic acids

NAME OF COMPOUND

 Acts as an acid; can donate an H⁺ because

FUNCTIONAL PROPERTIES

EXAMPLE

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Acetic acid

the

covalent bond between oxygen and hydrogen is



lonized

Nonionize d

• Found in cells in the ionized

form with a charge of 1– and

called a carboxvlate ion.

Amino



O H H C-C-N HO H H

Glycine

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surrounding solution (water, in living organisms): |H⁺ + $-N \rightleftharpoons -+N - H$ H H Nonionized lonized

- Found in cells in the ionized form with
- а

ahawaa a**f 4** i



Phosphate

STRUCTURE

Organic phosphates

NAME OF COMPOUND

• Contributes negative charge to the

FUNCTIONAL PROPERTIES

molecule

of which it is a part (2– when at the end

of

a molecule, as at

left;

1- when located

- Molefially if a chaing of phosphate groups
- have phosphates). the potential to react with water, releasing energy.



EXAMPLE



Glycerol phosphate

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Methyl





ATP: An Important Source of Energy for Cellular Processes

- One phosphate molecule, adenosine triphosphate (ATP), is the primary energy-transferring molecule in the cell
- ATP consists of an organic molecule called adenosine attached to a string of three phosphate groups





Final Thoughts

- The versatility of carbon makes possible the great diversity of organic molecules
- Variation at the molecular level lies at the foundation of all biological diversity



Nucleophilic and Electrophilic Reagents

- reagents that participate in substitution reactions
- Nucleophilic reagents, or nucleophiles, replace the
- leaving group of a molecule and provide a pair of
- electrons for the formation of a new bond. The leaving group
- departs with the pair of electrons that had formed the old
- bond. Such reactions are called nucleophilic substitutions
- . In the following examples of nucleophilic substitution,
- Y is the nucleophile, R is an organic radical, and X is the leaving group:
- $\textbf{Y:}^- \textbf{+} \textbf{RX} \rightarrow \textbf{RY} \textbf{+} \textbf{X}^-$
- $\textbf{Y: + RX} \rightarrow \textbf{RY^+ + X^-}$



Nucleophilic reagents comprise negatively charged ions, including OH⁻, CN⁻, NO₂⁻, OR⁻, RS⁻, NH₂⁻, RCO , and halogen ions neutral molecules with a free pa ir of electrons, for example, H₂O, NH₃, R₃N, R₂S, R₃P , ROH, and RCO₂H; and those organometallic comp ounds (designated RMe), that are capable of forming carban ionsthat is, those in which a bond between a carbon atom and the metal is sufficiently



polarized. Nucleophilic substitution is characteristic mainly of aliphatic compounds. Examples of nucleop hilic substitution include hydrolysis, with the nucleo philes OH and H₂O; alcoholysis, in which the nucleophiles are ROand ROH; acidolysis, with the nucleophiles RCOO and RCOOH; amination, involving such nucleophiles as NH⁻, NH³ , and RNH₂; and cyanation, with the nucleophile CN⁻



Electrophilic reagents, or electrophiles, replace the leaving group of a molecule and act as electron pair acceptors in the formation of a new bond. The leaving group departs as a positively charged species. Electrophilic reagents include positively charged ions, for example, H⁺ and NO₂⁺; neutral molecules with an electron deficiency, for example, SO₃; and highly polarized molecules, for example CH₂CO₂⁻Br⁺



Such polarization is <u>achieved</u> efficiently by complexing with Lewis acids, for example, Hal⁺—Ha $I^{-}A$, R^{+} — $CL^{-}A$, and RCO^{+} — CI^{-} \cdot A, where A = AICI₃, SbCI₅, or BF₃. Substitution reac tions that involve electrophiles are called electrophi lic substitutions. These include the most important reactions of aromatic hydrocarbons, for example, ni tration, halogenation, sulfonation, and Friedel-Craft s alkylation



 $(a-b)^2 = a^2 - 2ab + b^2 \sin b$

