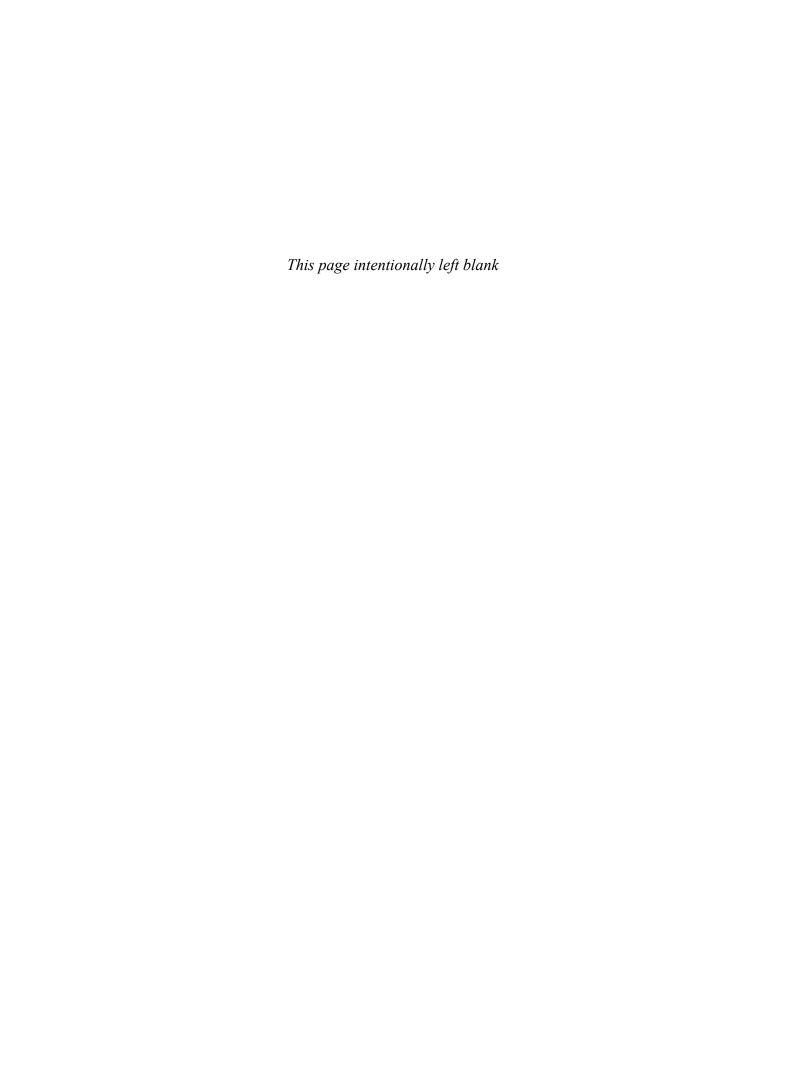


PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS

1 IA																	18 VIIIA
1 H Hydrogen 1.0079	2 IIA	Atomic number→ Symbol → Name (IUPAC) → Carbon				C	IUPAC recommendations→ Chemical Abstracts Service group notation →				13 IIIA	14 IVA	15 VA	16 VIA	17 VIIA	Pelium 4.0026	
3	4		At	omic mas	3 → 12	2.011						5	6	7	8	9	10
LI	Be											В	C	N	0	F	Ne
Lithium 6.941	Berylium 9.0122											Boron 10.811	Carbon 12.011	Nitrogen 14.007	Oxygen 15.999	Fluorine 18.998	Neon 20.180
11	12											13	14	15	16	17	18
Na	Mg		_	_	•	_	•	•	40		40	ΑI	Si	Р	S	CI	Ar
Sodium 22,990	Magnesium 24.305	3 IIIB	4 IVB	5 VB	6 VIB	7 VIIB	8 VIIIB	9 VIIIB	10 VIIIB	11 IB	12 IIB	Aluminum 26.982	Silicon 28.086	Phosphorus 30.974	Sulfur 32.065	Chlorine 35.453	Argon 39.948
19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
Potassium	Calcium	Scandium	Titanium	Vanadium	Chromium	Manganese	Iron	Cobalt	Nickel	Copper	Zinc	Gallium	Germanium	Arsenic	Selenium	Bromine	Krypton
39.098 37	40.078 38	44.956 39	47.867 40	50.942 41	51.996 42	54.938 43	55.845 44	58.933 45	58.693 46	63.546 47	65.409 48	69.723 49	72.64 50	74.922 51	78.96 52	79.904 53	83.798 54
Rb	Sr	Υ	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
Rubidium	Strontium	Yttrium	Zirconium	Niobium	Molybdenum	Technetium	Ruthenium	Rhodium	Palladium	Silver	Cadmium	Indium	Tin	Antimony	Tellurium	lodine	Xenon
85.468 EE	87.62 56	88.906 57	91.224	92.906 73	95.94 74	(98) 75	101.07 76	102.91 77	106.42 78	107.87 79	112.41	114.82	118.71	121.76	127.60	126.90 85	131.29
55		*La	72 Hf		W		_		Pt			81 TI	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Do		86 Dr
Cs	Ba Barium	Lanthanum	Hafnium	Ta Tantalum	Tungsten	Re Rhenium	Os Osmium	lr Iridium	Platinum	Au Gold	Hg Mercury	I I Thallium	PD Lead	Bismuth	Po Polonium	At Astatine	Rn Radon
132.91	137.33	138.91	178.49	180.95	183.84	186.21	190.23	192.22	195.08	196.97	200.59	204.38	207.2	208.98	(209)	(210)	(222)
87	88	89	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118
Fr	Ra	#Ac	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt	Ds	Rg	Cn	Uut	FI	Uup	Lv	Uus	Uuo
Francium (223)	Radium (226)	Actinium (227)	Rutherfordium (261)	Dubnium (262)	Seaborgium (266)	Bohrium (264)	Hassium (277)	Meitnerium (268)	Darmstadtium (281)	Roentgenium (272)	Copernicium (285)	(284)	Flerovium (289)	(288)	Livermorium (293)	(294)	(294)
			58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	
*Lanthanide Series			Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	
Zamilamao Gonos			Cerium 140.12	Praseodymium 140.91	Neodymium 144.24	Promethium (145)	Samarium 150.36	Europium 151.96	Gadolinium 157.25	Terbium 158.93	Dysprosium 162.50	Holmium 164.93	Erbium 167.26	Thulium 168.93	Ytterbium 173.04	Lutetium 174.97	
			90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	
# Actinide Series		Th Thorium 232.04	Pa Protactinium 231.04	Uranium 238.03	Np Neptunium (237)	Pu Plutonium (244)	Am Americium (243)	Cm Curium (247)	Bk Berkelium (247)	Cf Californium (251)	Es Einsteinium (252)	Fermium (257)	Md Mendelevium (258)	No Nobelium (259)	Lr Lawrencium (262)		

TABLE 3.1 RELATIVE STRENGTH OF SELECTED ACIDS AND THEIR CONJUGATE BASES Conjugate Acid Approximate pK_a Base HSbF₆ < -12Strongest acid SbF₆ Weakest base I^- ΗΙ -10 ${\sf HSO_4}^-$ H₂SO₄ -9 HBr -9 Br^{-} HCI -7 CI⁻ C₆H₅SO₃H C₆H₅SO₃⁻ -6.5(CH₃)₂ÖH -3.8 $(CH_3)_2O$ $(CH_3)_2C = \overset{\scriptscriptstyle \perp}{O}H$ -2.9 $(CH_3)_2C = O$ CH₃ŌH₂ CH₃OH -2.5 H_3O^+ -1.74 H_2O HNO_3 -1.4 NO_3^- Increasing base strength CF₃CO₂H 0.18 CF₃CO₂ Increasing acid strength 3.2 C₆H₅CO₂H 4.21 C₆H₅CO₂ $C_6H_5NH_3^+$ 4.63 $C_6H_5NH_2$ CH₃CO₂H 4.75 CH₃CO₂ H_2CO_3 6.35 HCO₃ CH₃COCH₂COCH₃ 9.0 CH₃COCHCOCH₃ NH_4^+ 9.2 NH_3 C₆H₅OH 9.9 C₆H₅O CO₃²⁻ HCO₃ 10.2 CH₃NH₃⁺ 10.6 CH₃NH₂ H_2O 15.7 HO⁻ CH₃CH₂OH 16 $CH_3CH_2O^-$ (CH₃)₃COH 18 (CH₃)₃CO⁻ CH₃COCH₃ 19.2 CH2COCH3 HC≡CH 25 $HC = C^-$ C₆H₅NH₂ 31 $C_6H_5NH^ H_2$ 35 (i-Pr)₂NH 36 $(i-Pr)_2N^ NH_3$ 38 $^{-}NH_{2}$ $CH_2 = CH_2$ 44 $CH_2 = CH^-$ Weakest acid CH₃CH₂ CH₃CH₃ 50 Strongest base







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11_E



In memory of my beloved son, John Allen Solomons. TWGS

For my family. CBF

For Cathy, who has always inspired me. SAS

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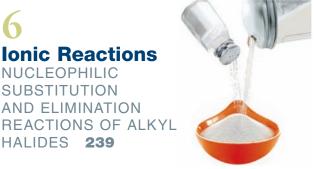
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PREFACE

"IT'S ORGANIC CHEMISTRY!"

That's what we want students to exclaim after they become acquainted with our subject. Our lives revolve around organic chemistry, whether we all realize it or not. When we understand organic chemistry, we see how life itself would be impossible without it, how the quality of our lives depends upon it, and how examples of organic chemistry leap out at us from every direction. That's why we can envision students enthusiastically exclaiming "It's organic chemistry!" when, perhaps, they explain to a friend or family member how one central theme—organic chemistry—pervades our existence. We want to help students experience the excitement of seeing the world through an organic lens, and how the unifying and simplifying nature of organic chemistry helps make many things in nature comprehensible.

Our book makes it possible for students to learn organic chemistry well and to see the marvelous ways that organic chemistry touches our lives on a daily basis. Our book helps students develop their skills in critical thinking, problem solving, and analysis—skills that are so important in today's world, no matter what career paths they choose. The richness of organic chemistry lends itself to solutions for our time, from the fields of health care, to energy, sustainability, and the environment. After all, it's organic chemistry!

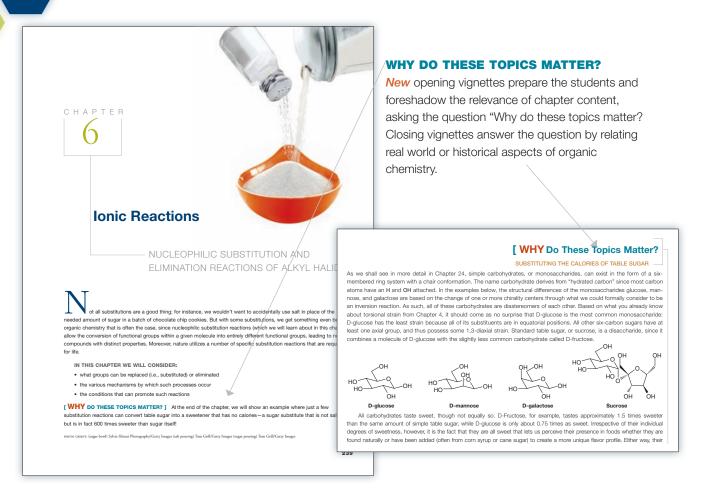
Guided by these goals, and by wanting to make our book even more **accessible to students** than it has ever been before, we have brought many changes to this edition.

NEW TO THIS EDITION

With this edition we bring Scott Snyder on board as a co-author. We're very excited to have Scott join our team. Scott brings a rich resource of new perspectives to the book, particularly in the arena of complex molecule synthesis. Scott has infused new examples and applications of exciting chemistry that help achieve our goals. In addition to adding his perspectives to the presentation of core chemistry throughout the book, Scott's work is manifest in most of this edition's chapter openers and in all of the chapter closers, couched in a new feature called "Why do these topics matter?".

"Why do these topics matter?" is a new feature that bookends each chapter with a teaser in the opener and a captivating example of organic chemistry in the closer. The chapter opener seeks to whet the student's appetite both for the core chemistry in that chapter as well as a prize that comes at the end of the chapter in the form of a "Why do these topics matter?" vignette. These new closers consist of fascinating nuggets of organic chemistry that stem from research relating to medical, environmental, and other aspects of organic chemistry in the world around us, as well as the history of the science. They show the rich relevance of what students have learned to applications that have direct bearing on our lives and wellbeing. For example, in Chapter 6, the opener talks about the some of the benefits and drawbacks of making substitutions in a recipe, and then compares such changes to the nucleophilic displacement reactions that similarly allow chemists to change molecules and their properties. The closer then shows how exactly such reactivity has enabled scientists to convert simple table sugar into the artificial sweetener Splenda which is 600 times as sweet, but has no calories!

Laying the foundation earlier Certain tools are absolutely key to success in organic chemistry. Among them is the ability to draw structural formulas quickly and correctly. In this edition, we help students learn these skills even sooner than ever before by moving coverage of structural formulas and the use curved arrows earlier in the text (Section 3.2). We have woven together instruction about Lewis structures, covalent bonds, and dash structural formulas, so that students build their skills in these areas as a coherent unit, using organic examples that include alkanes, alkenes, alkynes, and alkyl halides. One could say that it's a "use organic to teach organic" approach.



Getting to the heart of the matter quicker Acid-base chemistry, and electrophiles and nucleophiles are at the heart of organic chemistry. Students cannot master the subject if they do not have a firm and early grasp of these topics. In this edition, we cut to the chase with these topics earlier in Chapter 3 than ever before, providing a streamlined and highly efficient route to student mastery of these critical concepts.

Improving a core area: substitution reactions All organic instructors know how important it is for their students to have a solid understanding of substitution reactions. This is one reason our text has proven its lasting value. In this edition we have even further enhanced the presentation of substitution reactions in several ways, including a revised introduction of S_N1 reactions (Section 6.10) through the classic hydrolysis experiments of Hughes, and a newly organized presentation of solvent effects on the rate of substitution reactions.

Striking a strong balance of synthetic methods Students need to learn methods of organic synthesis that are useful, as environmentally friendly as possible, and that are placed in the best overall contextual framework. In this edition we incorporate the Swern oxidation (Section 12.4), long held as a useful oxidation method and one that provides a less toxic alternative to chromate oxidations in some cases. We also restore coverage of the Wolff-Kishner reduction (Section 16.8C) and the Baeyer-Villiger oxidation (Section 16.12), two methods whose importance has been proven by the test of time. The chemistry of radical reactions has also been refocused and streamlined by reducing thermochemistry content and by centralizing the coverage of allylic and benzylic radical substitutions (including NBS reactions) in one chapter (Sections 10.8 and 10.9), instead of distributing it between two, as before. The addition of sulfuric acid to alkenes and the Kolbe reaction have been deleted from the text, since these have little practical use in the laboratory. Toward the inclusion of modern, though mechanistically complex, methods of organic synthesis, we introduce catalytic oxidation methods (e.g., Sharpless and others) in special boxes, and provide coverage of transition metal organometallic reactions (Heck, Suzuki, and others) in Special Topic G.

Maintaining an eye for clarity With every edition we improve the presentation of topics, reactions, and diagrams where the opportunity arises. In this edition some examples include improved discussion and diagrams regarding endo and exo Diels-Alder transition states, the effect of diene stereochemistry in Diels-Alder reactions (Section 13.10B), and improved mechanism depictions for aromatic sulfonation and thionyl chloride substitution.

Resonating with topics in spectroscopy The authors have incorporated new figures to depict shielding and deshielding of alkenyl and alkynyl hydrogens by magnetic anisotropy, and clarified the discussion of shielding and deshielding in NMR chemical shifts (no longer invoking the terms upfield and downfield). The discussion of chlorine and bromine isotopic signatures in mass spectra has been enhanced, and presentation of mass spectrometer designs has been refocused.

Showing how things work A mechanistic understanding of organic chemistry is key to student success in organic chemistry. Mechanisms have always been central to the book, and in this edition the authors have added a mechanistic framework for the Swern and chromate alcohol oxidations (Section 12.4) by presenting elimination of the carbinol hydrogen and a leaving group from oxygen as the common theme.

TRADITIONAL PEDAGOGICAL STRENGTHS

Solved Problems Knowing "where to begin" to solve organic chemistry problems is one of the greatest challenges faced by today's students. By modeling problem solving strategies, students begin to understand the patterns inherent in organic chemistry and learn to apply that knowledge to new situations. In this edition we have added even more Solved Problems. Now over 165 Solved Problems guide students in their strategies for problem solving. Solved Problems are usually paired with a related Practice Problem.

Practice Problems Students need ample opportunities to practice and apply their new found strategies for solving organic chemistry problems. We've added to our rich array of in-text Practice Problems to provide students with even more opportunities to check their progress as they study. If they can work the practice problem, they should move on. If not, they should review the preceding presentation.

SOLVED PROBLEM 3.3

Identify the electrophile and the nucleophile in the following reaction, and add curved arrows to indicate the flow of electrons for the bond-forming and bond-breaking steps.

STRATEGY AND ANSWER: The aldehyde carbon is electrophilic due to the electronegativity of the carbonyl oxygen. The cyanide anion acts as a Lewis base and is the nucleophile, donating an electron pair to the carbonyl carbon, and causing an electron pair to shift to the oxygen so that no atom has more than an octet of electrons.

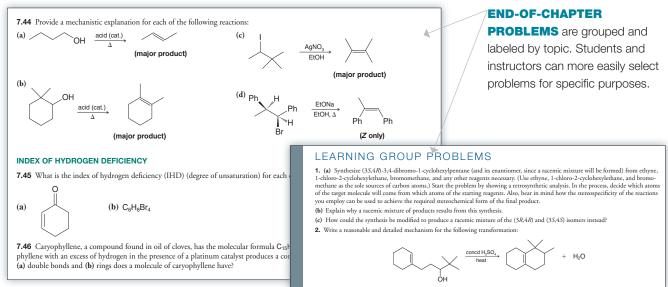
PRACTICE PROBLEM 3.4 Use the curved-arrow notation to write the reaction that would take place between dimethylamine (CH₃)₂NH and boron trifluoride. Identify the Lewis acid, Lewis base, nucleophile, and electrophile and assign appropriate formal charges.

SOLVED PROBLEMS

model problem solving strategies.

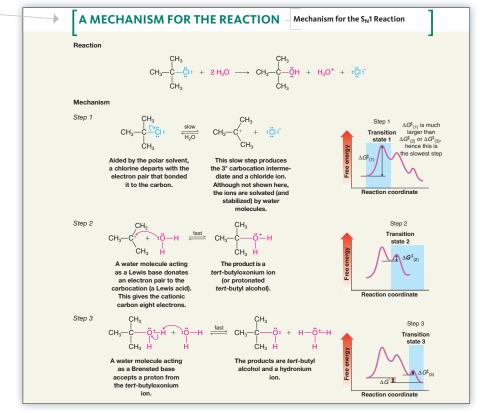
PRACTICE PROBLEMS provides opportunities to check progress.

End-of-Chapter Problems As athletes and musicians know, practice makes perfect. The same is true with organic chemistry. The End of Chapter problems, categorized by topic, provide essential practice for students and help them build mastery of both concepts and skills presented throughout the chapter. Many of the End of Chapter problems are cast in a visual format using structures, equations, and schemes. In addition, we still provide **Challenge Problems** and **Learning Group Problems** to address myriad teaching goals and styles. Learning Group Problems engage students in synthesizing information and concepts from throughout a chapter. They can be used to facilitate collaborative learning in small groups, and can serve as a culminating activity that demonstrates student mastery over an integrated set of principles. Supplementary material provided to instructors includes suggestions about how to orchestrate the use of learning groups.



A Mechanism for the Reaction Understanding mechanisms and the ability to recognize patterns among them is a key component in determining student success in organic chemistry. We provide A Mechanism for the Reaction boxes that show step-by-step details about how reactions take place so that students have the tools to understand rather than memorize organic reactions.

A MECHANISM FOR THE REACTION Stepped out reactions with just the right amount of detail provides the tools for students to understand rather than memorize reaction mechanisms

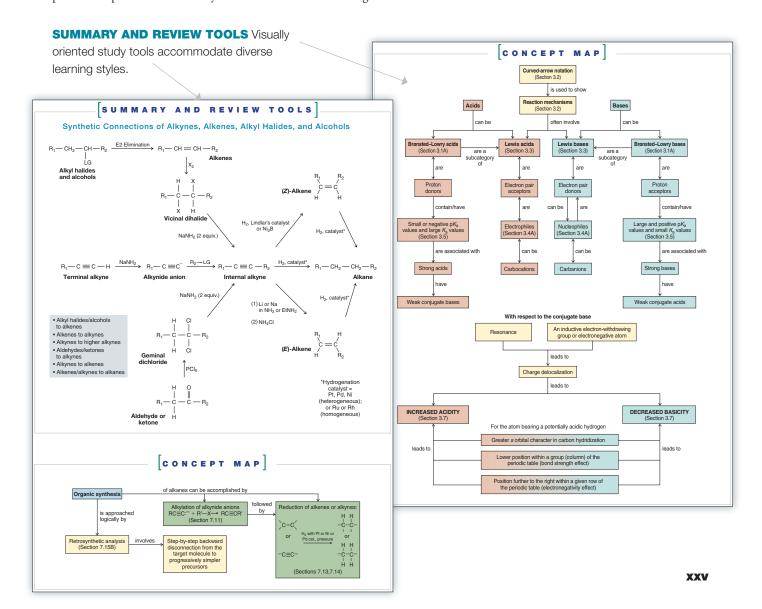


Key Ideas as Bullet Points The amount of content covered in organic chemistry can be overwhelming to students. To help students focus on the most essential topics, key ideas are emphasized as bullet points in every section. In preparing bullet points, we have distilled appropriate concepts into simple declarative statements that convey core ideas accurately and clearly. No topic is ever presented as a bullet point if its integrity would be diminished by oversimplification, however.

"How to" Sections Students need to master important skills to support their conceptual learning. "How to" Sections throughout the text give step-by-step instructions to guide students in performing important tasks, such as using curved arrows, drawing chair conformations, planning a Grignard synthesis, determining formal charges, writing Lewis structures, and using ¹³C and ¹H NMR spectra to determine structure.

The Chemistry of . . . Virtually every instructor has the goal of showing students how organic chemistry relates to their field of study and to their everyday life experience. The authors assist their colleagues in this goal by providing boxes titled "The Chemistry of. . ." that provide interesting and targeted examples that engage the student with chapter content.

Summary and Review Tools At the end of each chapter, Summary and Review Tools provide visually oriented roadmaps and frameworks that students can use to help organize and assimilate concepts as they study and review chapter content. Intended to accommodate diverse learning styles, these include Synthetic Connections, Concept Maps, Thematic Mechanism Review Summaries, and the detailed Mechanism for the Reaction boxes already mentioned. We also provide Helpful Hints and richly annotated illustrations throughout the text.



COVERAGE

Throughout the book, we have streamlined or reduced content to match the modern practice of organic chemistry, and we have provided new coverage of current reactions, while maintaining our commitment to an appropriate level and breadth of coverage.

- Chapters on carbonyl chemistry that are organized to emphasize mechanistic themes of nucleophilic addition, acyl substitution, and reactivity at the α-carbon.
- Presentation of the important modern synthetic methods of the Grubbs, Heck, Sonogashira, Stille, and Suzuki transition metal catalyzed carbon-carbon bond-forming reactions in a practical and student-oriented way that includes review problems and mechanistic context (Special Topic G).

ORGANIZATION - An Emphasis on the Fundamentals

So much of organic chemistry makes sense and can be generalized if students master and apply a few fundamental concepts. Therein lays the beauty of organic chemistry. If students learn the essential principles, they will see that memorization is not needed to succeed.

Most important is for students to have a solid understanding of structure—of hybridization and geometry, steric hindrance, electronegativity, polarity, formal charges, and resonance—so that they can make intuitive sense of mechanisms. It is with these topics that we begin in Chapter 1. In Chapter 2 we introduce the families of functional groups—so that students have a platform on which to apply these concepts. We also introduce intermolecular forces, and infrared (IR) spectroscopy—a key tool for identifying functional groups. Throughout the book we include calculated models of molecular orbitals, electron density surfaces, and maps of electrostatic potential. These models enhance students' appreciation for the role of structure in properties and reactivity.

We begin our study of mechanisms in the context of acid-base chemistry in Chapter 3. Acid-base reactions are fundamental to organic reactions, and they lend themselves to introducing several important topics that students need early in the course: (1) curved arrow notation for illustrating mechanisms, (2) the relationship between free-energy changes and equilibrium constants, and (3) the importance of inductive and resonance effects and of solvent effects.

In Chapter 3 we present the first of many "A Mechanism for the Reaction" boxes, using an example that embodies both Brønsted-Lowry and Lewis acid-base principles. All throughout the book, we use boxes like these to show the details of key reaction mechanisms. All of the Mechanism for the Reaction boxes are listed in the Table of Contents so that students can easily refer to them when desired.

A central theme of our approach is to emphasize the relationship between structure and reactivity. This is why we choose an organization that combines the most useful features of a functional group approach with one based on reaction mechanisms. Our philosophy is to emphasize mechanisms and fundamental principles, while giving students the anchor points of functional groups to apply their mechanistic knowledge and intuition. The structural aspects of our approach show students what organic chemistry is. Mechanistic aspects of our approach show students how it works. And wherever an opportunity arises, we show them what it does in living systems and the physical world around us.

In summary, our writing reflects the commitment we have as teachers to do the best we can to help students learn organic chemistry and to see how they can apply their knowledge to improve our world. The enduring features of our book have proven over the years to help students learn organic chemistry. The changes in our 11th edition make organic chemistry even more accessible and relevant. Students who use the in-text learning aids, work the problems, and take advantage of the resources and practice available in *WileyPLUS* (our online teaching and learning solution) will be assured of success in organic chemistry.

TEACHING AND LEARNING RESOURCES

WILEYPLUS FOR ORGANIC CHEMISTRY— A Powerful Teaching and Learning Solution



WileyPLUS is an innovative, research-based online environment for effective teaching and learning. WileyPLUS builds student confidence because it takes the guesswork out of studying by providing students with a clear roadmap: what to do, how to do it, if they did it right. Students will take more initiative so instructors will have greater impact on their achievement in the classroom and beyond.

Breadth of Depth of Assessment: Four unique silos of assessment are available to instructors for creating online homework and quizzes and are designed to enable and support problemsolving skill development and conceptual understanding

WILEYPLUS ASSESSMENT

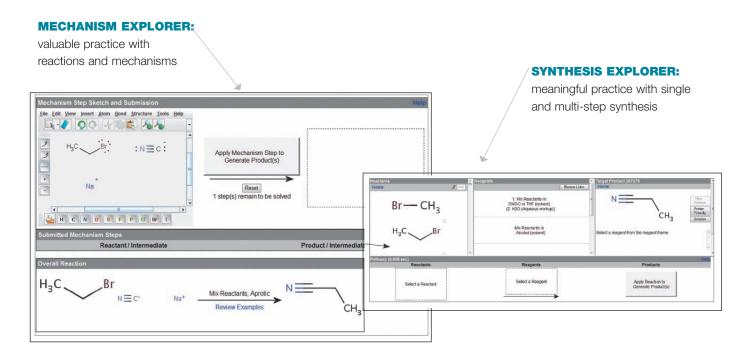
| MEANINGFUL PRACTICE OF MECHANISMS AND SYNTHESIS PROBLEMS (A DATABASE OF OVER 100,000 QUESTIONS)

IN CHAPTER/EOC ASSESSMENT
| 90-100% OF REVIEW PROBLEMS AND END OF CHAPTER (EOC) QUESTIONS ARE CODED FOR ONLINE ASSESSMENT

CONCEPT MASTERY
| PRE-BUIT CONCEPT MASTERY ASSIGNMENTS (FROM DATABASE OF OVER 25,000 QUESTIONS)

TEST BANK
| RICH TESTBANK CONSISTING OF OVER 3,000 QUESTIONS

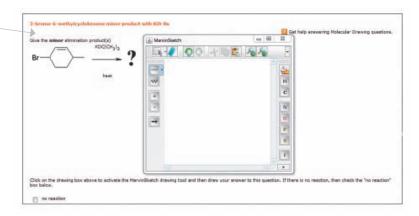
Reaction Explorer Students ability to understand mechanisms and predict syntheis reactions greatly impacts their level of success in the course. Reaction Explorer is an interactive system for **learning and practicing reactions**, **syntheses** and **mechanisms** in organic chemistry with advanced support for the automatic generation of random problems and curved arrow mechanism diagrams.



End of Chapter Problems. Approximately 90% of the end of chapter problems are included in *WileyPLUS*. Many of the problems are algorithmic and feature structure drawing/assessment functionality using MarvinSketch, with immediate answer feedback and video question assistance. A subset of these end of chapter problems is linked to **Guided Online tutorials** which are stepped-out problem-solving tutorials that walk the student through the problem, offering individualized feedback at each step.

Prebuilt concept mastery assignments Students must continously practice and work organic chemistry in order to master the concepts and skills presented in the course. Prebuilt concept mastery assignments offer students ample opportunities for practice, covering all the major topics and concepts within an organic chemistry course. Each assignment is organized by topic and features **feedback for incorrect answers**. These assignments are drawn from a unique database of over 25,000 questions, over half of which require students to draw a structure using MarvinSketch.

PREBUILT CONCEPT MASTERY ASSIGNMENTS



WHAT DO STUDENTS RECEIVE WITH WILEYPLUS?

- The complete digital textbook, saving students up to 60% off the cost of a printed text.
- Question assistance, including links to relevant sections in the online digital textbook.
- Immediate feedback and proof of progress, 24/7.
- Integrated, multi-media resources that address students' unique learning styles, levels of proficiency, and levels of preparation by providing multiple study paths and encourage more active learning.

WILEYPLUS STUDENT RESOURCES

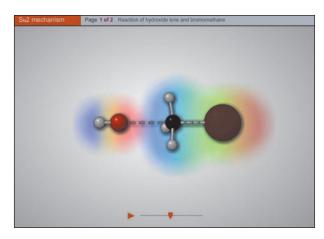
NEW Chapter 0 General Chemistry Refresher. To ensure students have mastered the necessary prerequisite content from general chemistry, and to eliminate the burden on instructors to review this material in lecture, *WileyPLUS* now includes a complete chapter of core general chemistry topics with corresponding assignments. Chapter 0 is available to students and can be assigned in *WileyPLUS* to ensure and gauge understanding of the core topics required to succeed in organic chemistry.

NEW Prelecture Assignments. Preloaded and ready to use, these assignments have been carefully designed to assess students prior to their coming to class. Instructors can assign these pre-created quizzes to gauge student preparedness prior to lecture and tailor class time based on the scores and participation of their students.

Video Mini-Lectures, Office Hour Videos, and Solved Problem Videos In each chapter, several types of video assistance are included to help students with conceptual understanding and problem solving strategies. The video mini-lectures focus on challenging concepts; the office hours videos take these concepts and apply them to example problems, emulating the experience that a student would get if she or he were to attend office hours and ask for assistance in working a problem. The Solved Problem videos demonstrate good problems solving strategies for the student by walking through in text solved problems using audio and a whiteboard. The goal is to illustrate good problem solving strategies.

Skill Building Exercises are animated exercises with instant feedback to reinforce the key skills required to succeed in organic chemistry.

3D Molecular Visualizations use the latest visualization technologies to help students visualize concepts with audio. Instructors can assign quizzes based on these visualizations in *WileyPLUS*.



WHAT DO INSTRUCTORS RECEIVE WITH WILEYPLUS?

- Reliable resources that reinforce course goals inside and outside of the classroom.
- The ability to easily identify students who are falling behind by tracking their progress and
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 automates such tasks as student performance assessment, creating assignments, scoring student
 work, keeping grades, and more.
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ADDITIONAL INSTRUCTOR RESOURCES

All Instructor Resources are available within *WileyPLUS* or they can be accessed by contacting your local Wiley Sales Representative. Many of the assets are located on the book companion site, www.wiley.com/college/solomons

Test Bank Authored by Robert Rossi, of Gloucester County College, Jeffrey Allison, of Austin Community College, and Gloria Silva, of Carnegie Mellon University, the Test Bank for this edition has been completely revised and updated to include over 3,000 short answer, multiple choice, and essay/drawing questions. The Test Bank files, along with a software tool for managing and creating exams, are available online.

PowerPoint Lecture Slides PowerPoint Lecture Slides have been prepared by Professor William Tam, of the University of Guelph, Dr. Phillis Chang, and Gary Porter, of Bergen Community College. The PowerPoint slides include additional examples, illustrations, and presentations that help reinforce and test students' grasp of organic chemistry concepts. An additional set of PowerPoint slides features the illustrations, figures, and tables from the text. All PowerPoint slide presentations are customizable to fit your course.

Personal Response System ("Clicker") Questions A bank of questions is available for anyone using personal response system technology in their classroom. The clicker questions are also available in a separate set of PowerPoint slides.

Digital Image Library Images from the text are available online in JPEG format. Instructors may use these images to customize their presentations and to provide additional visual support for quizzes and exams.

ADDITIONAL STUDENT RESOURCES

Study Guide and Solutions Manual (978-1-118-14790-0)

The Study Guide and Solutions Manual for *Organic Chemistry, Eleventh Edition*, authored by Jon Antilla, of the University of South Florida, Robert Johnson, of Xavier University, Craig Fryhle, Graham Solomons, and Scott Snyder **contains explained solutions to all of the problems in the text**. The Study Guide also contains:

- An introductory essay "Solving the Puzzle—or—Structure is Everything" that serves as a bridge from general to organic chemistry
- Summary tables of reactions by mechanistic type and functional group
- A review quiz for each chapter
- A set of hands-on molecular model exercises
- Solutions to the problems in the Special Topics sections (many of the Special Topics are only available within WileyPLUS)

MOLECULAR VISIONS™ MODEL KITS

We believe that the tactile and visual experience of manipulating physical models is key to students' understanding that organic molecules have shape and occupy space. To support our pedagogy, we have arranged with the Darling Company to bundle a special ensemble of Molecular Visions™ model kits with our book (for those who choose that option). We use Helpful Hint icons and margin notes to frequently encourage students to use hand-held models to investigate the three-dimensional shape of molecules we are discussing in the book.

CUSTOMIZATION AND FLEXIBLE OPTIONS TO MEET YOUR NEEDS

Wiley Custom Select allows you to create a textbook with precisely the content you want, in a simple, three-step online process that brings your students a cost-efficient alternative to a traditional textbook. Select from an extensive collection of content at http://customselect.wiley.com, upload your own materials as well, and select from multiple delivery formats—full color or black and white print with a variety of binding options, or eBook. Preview the full text online, get an instant price quote, and submit your order; we'll take it from there.

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TO THE STUDENT

Contrary to what you may have heard, organic chemistry does not have to be a difficult course. It will be a rigorous course, and it will offer a challenge. But you will learn more in it than in almost any course you will take—and what you learn will have a special relevance to life and the world around you. However, because organic chemistry can be approached in a logical and systematic way, you will find that with the right study habits, mastering organic chemistry can be a deeply satisfying experience. Here, then, are some suggestions about how to study:

- 1. Keep up with your work from day to day—never let yourself get behind. Organic chemistry is a course in which one idea almost always builds on another that has gone before. It is essential, therefore, that you keep up with, or better yet, be a little ahead of your instructor. Ideally, you should try to stay one day ahead of your instructor's lectures in your own class preparations. The lecture, then, will be much more helpful because you will already have some understanding of the assigned material. Your time in class will clarify and expand ideas that are already familiar ones.
- 2. Study material in small units, and be sure that you understand each new section before you go on to the next. Again, because of the cumulative nature of organic chemistry, your studying will be much more effective if you take each new idea as it comes and try to understand it completely before you move on to the next concept.
- 3. Work all of the in-chapter and assigned problems. One way to check your progress is to work each of the in-chapter problems when you come to it. These problems have been written just for this purpose and are designed to help you decide whether or not you understand the material that has just been explained. You should also carefully study the Solved Problems. If you understand a Solved Problem and can work the related in-chapter problem, then you should go on; if you cannot, then you should go back and study the preceding material again. Work all of the problems assigned by your instructor from the end of the chapter, as well. Do all of your problems in a notebook and bring this book with you when you go to see your instructor for extra help.
- **4. Write when you study.** Write the reactions, mechanisms, structures, and so on, over and over again. Organic chemistry is best assimilated through the fingertips by writing, and not through the eyes by simply looking, or by highlighting material in the text, or by referring to flash cards. There is a good reason for this. Organic structures, mechanisms, and reactions

- are complex. If you simply examine them, you may think you understand them thoroughly, but that will be a misperception. The reaction mechanism may make sense to you in a certain way, but you need a deeper understanding than this. You need to know the material so thoroughly that you can explain it to someone else. This level of understanding comes to most of us (those of us without photographic memories) through writing. Only by writing the reaction mechanisms do we pay sufficient attention to their details, such as which atoms are connected to which atoms, which bonds break in a reaction and which bonds form, and the three-dimensional aspects of the structures. When we write reactions and mechanisms, connections are made in our brains that provide the long-term memory needed for success in organic chemistry. We virtually guarantee that your grade in the course will be directly proportional to the number of pages of paper that your fill with your own writing in studying during the term.
- **5. Learn by teaching and explaining.** Study with your student peers and practice explaining concepts and mechanisms to each other. Use the Learning Group Problems and other exercises your instructor may assign as vehicles for teaching and learning interactively with your peers.
- **6.** Use the answers to the problems in the Study Guide in the proper way. Refer to the answers only in two circumstances: (1) When you have finished a problem, use the Study Guide to check your answer. (2) When, after making a real effort to solve the problem, you find that you are completely stuck, then look at the answer for a clue and go back to work out the problem on your own. The value of a problem is in solving it. If you simply read the problem and look up the answer, you will deprive yourself of an important way to learn.
- 7. Use molecular models when you study. Because of the three-dimensional nature of most organic molecules, molecular models can be an invaluable aid to your understanding of them. When you need to see the three-dimensional aspect of a particular topic, use the Molecular Visions™ model set that may have been packaged with your textbook, or buy a set of models separately. An appendix to the Study Guide that accompanies this text provides a set of highly useful molecular model exercises.
- **8. Make use of the rich online teaching resources** in *WileyPLUS* and do any online exercises that may be assigned by your instructor.



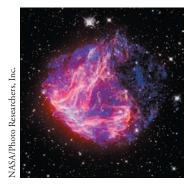
rganic chemistry plays a role in all aspects of our lives, from the clothing we wear, to the pixels of our television and computer screens, to preservatives in food, to the inks that color the pages of this book. If you take the time to understand organic chemistry, to learn its overall logic, then you will truly have the power to change society. Indeed, organic chemistry provides the power to synthesize new drugs, to engineer molecules that can make computer processors run more quickly, to understand why grilled meat can cause cancer and how its effects can be combated, and to design ways to knock the calories out of sugar while still making food taste deliciously sweet. It can explain biochemical processes like aging, neural functioning, and cardiac arrest, and show how we can prolong and improve life. It can do almost anything.

IN THIS CHAPTER WE WILL CONSIDER:

- what kinds of atoms make up organic molecules
- the principles that determine how the atoms in organic molecules are bound together
- · how best to depict organic molecules

[WHY DO THESE TOPICS MATTER?] At the end of the chapter, we will see how some of the unique organic structures that nature has woven together possess amazing properties that we can harness to aid human health.

1.1 LIFE AND THE CHEMISTRY OF CARBON COMPOUNDS—WE ARE STARDUST



Supernovae were the crucibles in which the heavy elements were formed.

Organic chemistry is the chemistry of compounds that contain the element carbon. If a compound does not contain the element carbon, it is said to be *inorganic*.

Look for a moment at the periodic table inside the front cover of this book. More than a hundred elements are listed there. The question that comes to mind is this: why should an entire field of chemistry be based on the chemistry of compounds that contain this one element, carbon? There are several reasons, the primary one being this: **carbon compounds are central to the structure of living organisms and therefore to the existence of life on Earth. We exist because of carbon compounds.**

What is it about carbon that makes it the element that nature has chosen for living organisms? There are two important reasons: carbon atoms can form strong bonds to other carbon atoms to form rings and chains of carbon atoms, and carbon atoms can also form strong bonds to elements such as hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, and sulfur. Because of these bond-forming properties, carbon can be the basis for the huge diversity of compounds necessary for the emergence of living organisms.

From time to time, writers of science fiction have speculated about the possibility of life on other planets being based on the compounds of another element—for example, silicon, the element most like carbon. However, the bonds that silicon atoms form to each other are not nearly as strong as those formed by carbon, and therefore it is very unlikely that silicon could be the basis for anything equivalent to life as we know it.

1.1A What Is the Origin of the Element Carbon?

Through the efforts of physicists and cosmologists, we now understand much of how the elements came into being. The light elements hydrogen and helium were formed at the beginning, in the Big Bang. Lithium, beryllium, and boron, the next three elements, were formed shortly thereafter when the universe had cooled somewhat. All of the heavier elements were formed millions of years later in the interiors of stars through reactions in which the nuclei of lighter elements fuse to form heavier elements.

The energy of stars comes primarily from the fusion of hydrogen nuclei to produce helium nuclei. This nuclear reaction explains why stars shine. Eventually some stars begin to run out of hydrogen, collapse, and explode—they become supernovae. Supernovae explosions scatter heavy elements throughout space. Eventually, some of these heavy elements drawn by the force of gravity became part of the mass of planets like the Earth.

1.1B How Did Living Organisms Arise?

This question is one for which an adequate answer cannot be given now because there are many things about the emergence of life that we do not understand. However, we do know this. Organic compounds, some of considerable complexity, are detected in outer space, and meteorites containing organic compounds have rained down on Earth since it was formed. A meteorite that fell near Murchison, Victoria, Australia, in 1969 was found to contain over 90 different amino acids, 19 of which are found in living organisms on Earth. While this does not mean that life arose in outer space, it does suggest that events in outer space may have contributed to the emergence of life on Earth.

In 1924 Alexander Oparin, a biochemist at the Moscow State University, postulated that life on Earth may have developed through the gradual evolution of carbon-based molecules in a "primordial soup" of the compounds that were thought to exist on a prebiotic Earth: methane, hydrogen, water, and ammonia. This idea was tested by experiments carried out at the University of Chicago in 1952 by Stanley Miller and Harold Urey. They showed that amino acids and other complex organic compounds are synthesized when an electric spark (think of lightning) passes through a flask containing a mixture of these four compounds (think of the early atmosphere). Miller and Urey in their 1953 publication reported that five amino acids (essential constituents of proteins) were formed. In 2008, examination of archived solutions from Miller and Urey's original

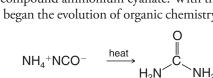
experiments have shown that 22 amino acids, rather than the 5 amino acids originally reported, were actually formed.

Similar experiments have shown that other precursors of biomolecules can also arise in this way—compounds such as ribose and adenine, two components of RNA. Some RNA molecules can not only store genetic information as DNA does, they can also act as catalysts, as enzymes do.

There is much to be discovered to explain exactly how the compounds in this soup became living organisms, but one thing seems certain. The carbon atoms that make up our bodies were formed in stars, so, in a sense, we are stardust.

1.1C Development of the Science of Organic Chemistry

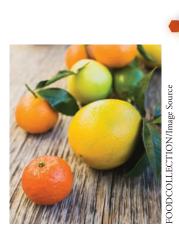
The science of organic chemistry began to flower with the demise of a nineteenth century theory called vitalism. According to vitalism, organic compounds were only those that came from living organisms, and only living things could synthesize organic compounds through intervention of a vital force. Inorganic compounds were considered those compounds that came from nonliving sources. Friedrich Wöhler, however, discovered in 1828 that an organic compound called urea (a constituent of urine) could be made by evaporating an aqueous solution of the inorganic compound ammonium cyanate. With this discovery, the synthesis of an organic compound, began the evolution of organic chemistry as a scientific discipline.



THE CHEMISTRY OF... Natural Products

Despite the demise of vitalism in science, the word "organic" is still used today by some people to mean "coming from living organisms" as in the terms "organic vitamins" and "organic fertilizers." The commonly used term "organic food" means that the food was grown without the use of synthetic fertilizers and pesticides. An "organic vitamin" means to these people that the vitamin was isolated from a natural source and not synthesized by a chemist. While there are sound arguments to be made against using food contaminated with certain pesticides, while there may be environmental benefits to be obtained from organic farming, and while "natural" vitamins may

contain beneficial substances not present in synthetic vitamins, it is impossible to argue that pure "natural" vitamin C, for example, is healthier than pure "synthetic" vitamin C, since the two substances are identical in all respects. In science today, the study of compounds from living organisms is called natural products chemistry. In the closer to this chapter we will consider more about why natural products chemistry is important.



Vitamin C is found in various citrus fruits.

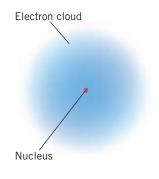
1.2 ATOMIC STRUCTURE

Before we begin our study of the compounds of carbon we need to review some basic but familiar ideas about the chemical elements and their structure.

- The **compounds** we encounter in chemistry are made up of **elements** combined in different proportions.
- **Elements** are made up of **atoms**. An atom (Fig. 1.1) consists of a dense, positively charged *nucleus* containing **protons** and **neutrons** and a surrounding cloud of **electrons**.

Each proton of the nucleus bears one positive charge; electrons bear one negative charge. Neutrons are electrically neutral; they bear no charge. Protons and neutrons have

FIGURE 1.1 An atom is composed of a tiny nucleus containing protons and neutrons and a large surrounding volume containing electrons. The diameter of a typical atom is about 10,000 times the diameter of its nucleus.



An RNA molecule

nearly equal masses (approximately 1 atomic mass unit each) and are about 1800 times as heavy as electrons. Most of the **mass** of an atom, therefore, comes from the mass of the nucleus; the atomic mass contributed by the electrons is negligible. Most of the **volume** of an atom, however, comes from the electrons; the volume of an atom occupied by the electrons is about 10,000 times larger than that of the nucleus.

The elements commonly found in organic molecules are carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, and sulfur, as well as the halogens: fluorine, chlorine, bromine, and iodine.

Each **element** is distinguished by its **atomic number** (**Z**), a **number equal to the number of protons in its nucleus**. Because an atom is electrically neutral, **the atomic number also equals the number of electrons surrounding the nucleus**.

1.2A Isotopes

Before we leave the subject of atomic structure and the periodic table, we need to examine one other observation: the existence of atoms of the same element that have different masses.

For example, the element carbon has six protons in its nucleus giving it an atomic number of 6. Most carbon atoms also have six neutrons in their nuclei, and because each proton and each neutron contributes one atomic mass unit (1 amu) to the mass of the atom, carbon atoms of this kind have a mass number of 12 and are written as ¹²C.

 Although all the nuclei of all atoms of the same element will have the same number of protons, some atoms of the same element may have different masses because they have different numbers of neutrons. Such atoms are called isotopes.

For example, about 1% of the atoms of elemental carbon have nuclei containing 7 neutrons, and thus have a mass number of 13. Such atoms are written ¹³C. A tiny fraction of carbon atoms have 8 neutrons in their nucleus and a mass number of 14. Unlike atoms of carbon-12 and carbon-13, atoms of carbon-14 are radioactive. The ¹⁴C isotope is used in *carbon dating*. The three forms of carbon, ¹²C, ¹³C, and ¹⁴C, are isotopes of one another.

Most atoms of the element hydrogen have one proton in their nucleus and have no neutron. They have a mass number of 1 and are written ¹H. A very small percentage (0.015%) of the hydrogen atoms that occur naturally, however, have one neutron in their nucleus. These atoms, called *deuterium* atoms, have a mass number of 2 and are written ²H. An unstable (and radioactive) isotope of hydrogen, called *tritium* (³H), has two neutrons in its nucleus.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 1.1

There are two stable isotopes of nitrogen, ¹⁴N and ¹⁵N. How many protons and neutrons does each isotope have?

1.2B Valence Electrons

We discuss the electron configurations of atoms in more detail in Section 1.10. For the moment we need only to point out that the electrons that surround the nucleus exist in **shells** of increasing energy and at increasing distances from the nucleus. The most important shell, called the **valence shell**, is the outermost shell because the electrons of this shell are the ones that an atom uses in making chemical bonds with other atoms to form compounds.

• How do we know how many electrons an atom has in its valence shell? We look at the periodic table. The number of electrons in the valence shell (called valence electrons) is equal to the group number of the atom. For example, carbon is in group IVA and carbon has four valence electrons; oxygen is in group VIA and oxygen has six valence electrons. The halogens of group VIIA all have seven electrons.

(e) Ne

PRACTICE PROBLEM 1.2

How many valence electrons does each of the following atoms have?

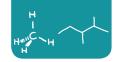
(a) Na

(b) CI

(c) Si

(d) B

(f)



1.3 CHEMICAL BONDS: THE OCTET RULE

The first explanations of the nature of chemical bonds were advanced by G. N. Lewis (of the University of California, Berkeley) and W. Kössel (of the University of Munich) in 1916. Two major types of chemical bonds were proposed:

- **1. Ionic** (or electrovalent) bonds are formed by the transfer of one or more electrons from one atom to another to create ions.
- **2.** Covalent bonds result when atoms share electrons.

The central idea in their work on bonding is that atoms without the electronic configuration of a noble gas generally react to produce such a configuration because these configurations are known to be highly stable. For all of the noble gases except helium, this means achieving an octet of electrons in the valence shell.

- The valence shell is the outermost shell of electrons in an atom.
- The tendency for an atom to achieve a configuration where its valence shell contains eight electrons is called the **octet rule**.

The concepts and explanations that arise from the original propositions of Lewis and Kössel are satisfactory for explanations of many of the problems we deal with in organic chemistry today. For this reason we shall review these two types of bonds in more modern terms

1.3A Ionic Bonds

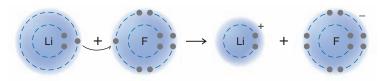
Atoms may gain or lose electrons and form charged particles called ions.

• An **ionic bond** is an attractive force between oppositely charged ions.

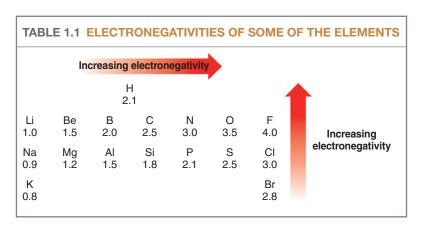
One source of such ions is a reaction between atoms of widely differing electronegativities (Table 1.1).

- Electronegativity is a measure of the ability of an atom to attract electrons.
- Electronegativity increases as we go across a horizontal row of the periodic table from left to right and it increases as we go up a vertical column (Table 1.1).

An example of the formation of an ionic bond is the reaction of lithium and fluorine atoms:



Lithium, a typical metal, has a very low electronegativity; fluorine, a nonmetal, is the most electronegative element of all. The loss of an electron (a negatively charged species)



Helpful Hint

Terms and concepts that are fundamentally important to your learning organic chemistry are set in bold blue type. You should learn them as they are introduced. These terms are also defined in the glossary.

Helpful Hint

We will use electronegativity frequently as a tool for understanding the properties and reactivity of organic molecules. • Ions form because atoms can achieve the electronic configuration of a noble gas by gaining or losing electrons.

The lithium cation with two electrons in its valence shell is like an atom of the noble gas helium, and the fluoride anion with eight electrons in its valence shell is like an atom of the noble gas neon. Moreover, crystalline lithium fluoride forms from the individual lithium and fluoride ions. In this process negative fluoride ions become surrounded by positive lithium ions, and positive lithium ions by negative fluoride ions. In this crystalline state, the ions have substantially lower energies than the atoms from which they have been formed. Lithium and fluorine are thus "stabilized" when they react to form crystalline lithium fluoride.

We represent the formula for lithium fluoride as LiF, because that is the simplest formula for this ionic compound.

Ionic substances, because of their strong internal electrostatic forces, are usually very high melting solids, often having melting points above $1000\,^{\circ}$ C. In polar solvents, such as water, the ions are solvated (see Section 2.13D), and such solutions usually conduct an electric current.

• Ionic compounds, often called **salts**, form only when atoms of very different electronegativities transfer electrons to become ions.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 1.3

Using the periodic table, which element in each pair is more electronegative?

(a) Si, O

(b) N, C

(c) Cl, Br

(d) S, P

1.3B Covalent Bonds and Lewis Structures

When two or more atoms of the same or similar electronegativities react, a complete transfer of electrons does not occur. In these instances the atoms achieve noble gas configurations by *sharing electrons*.

- **Covalent bonds** form by sharing of electrons between atoms of similar electronegativities to achieve the configuration of a noble gas.
- Molecules are composed of atoms joined exclusively or predominantly by covalent bonds.

Molecules may be represented by electron-dot formulas or, more conveniently, by formulas where each pair of electrons shared by two atoms is represented by a line.

• A dash structural formula has lines that show bonding electron pairs and includes elemental symbols for the atoms in a molecule.

Some examples are shown here:

1. Hydrogen, being in group IA of the periodic table, has one valence electron. Two hydrogen atoms share electrons to form a hydrogen molecule, H₂.

 H_2 $H \cdot + \cdot H \longrightarrow H \cdot H$ usually written H - H

2. Because chlorine is in group VIIA, its atoms have seven valence electrons. Two chlorine atoms can share electrons (one electron from each) to form a molecule of Cl₂.

$$C|_2$$
 $:\ddot{C}|_1 + \dot{C}|_2 \longrightarrow :\ddot{C}|\dot{C}|_2 = usually \text{ written } :\ddot{C}|-\ddot{C}|_2$

3. And a carbon atom (group IVA) with four valence electrons can share each of these electrons with four hydrogen atoms to form a molecule of methane, CH₄.

Two carbon atoms can use one electron pair between them to form a **carbon–carbon single bond** while also bonding hydrogen atoms or other groups to achieve an octet of valence electrons. Consider the example of ethane below.

These formulas are often called **Lewis structures**; in writing them we show all of the valence electrons. Unshared electron pairs are shown as dots, and in dash structural formulas, bonding electron pairs are shown as lines.

- **4.** Atoms can share *two or more pairs of electrons* to form **multiple covalent bonds**. For example, two nitrogen atoms possessing five valence electrons each (because nitrogen is in group VA) can share electrons to form a **triple bond** between them.
 - N_2 :N::N: and as a dash formula :N \equiv N:

Carbon atoms can also share more than one electron pair with another atom to form a multiple covalent bond. Consider the examples of a **carbon–carbon double bond** in ethene (ethylene) and a **carbon–carbon triple bond** in ethyne (acetylene).

5. Ions, themselves, may contain covalent bonds. Consider, as an example, the ammonium ion.

Consider the following compounds and decide whether the bond in them would be ionic or covalent.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 1.4

- (a) KCI
- (b) F₂
- (c) PH₃
- (d) CBr₄

1.4 HOW TO WRITE LEWIS STRUCTURES

Several simple rules allow us to draw proper Lewis structures:

- Lewis structures show the connections between atoms in a molecule or ion using only the valence electrons of the atoms involved. Valence electrons are those of an atom's outermost shell.
- 2. For main group elements, the number of valence electrons a neutral atom brings to a Lewis structure is the same as its group number in the periodic table.

Helpful Hint

The ability to write proper **Lewis structures** is one of the most important tools for learning organic chemistry.

Carbon, for example, is in group IVA and has four valence electrons; the halogens (e.g., fluorine) are in group VIIA and each has seven valence electrons; hydrogen is in group IA and has one valence electron.

- 3. If the structure we are drawing is a negative ion (an anion), we add one electron for each negative charge to the original count of valence electrons. If the structure is a positive ion (a cation), we subtract one electron for each positive charge.
- **4.** In drawing Lewis structures we try to give each atom the electron configuration of a noble gas. To do so, we draw structures where atoms share electrons to form covalent bonds or transfer electrons to form ions.
 - a. Hydrogen forms one covalent bond by sharing its electron with an electron of another atom so that it can have two valence electrons, the same number as in the noble gas helium.
 - **b.** Carbon forms four covalent bonds by sharing its four valence electrons with four valence electrons from other atoms, so that it can have eight electrons (the same as the electron configuration of neon, satisfying the octet rule).
 - c. To achieve an octet of valence electrons, elements such as nitrogen, oxygen, and the halogens typically share only some of their valence electrons through covalent bonding, leaving others as unshared electron pairs.

The following problems illustrate the rules above.

SOLVED PROBLEM 1.1

Write the Lewis structure of CH₃F.

STRATEGY AND ANSWER:

1. We find the total number of valence electrons of all the atoms:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 4 + 3(1) + 7 = 14 \\ \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ C & 3H & F \end{array}$$

2. We use pairs of electrons to form bonds between all atoms that are bonded to each other. We represent these bonding pairs with lines. In our example this requires four pairs of electrons (8 of the 14 valence electrons).

3. We then add the remaining electrons in pairs so as to give each hydrogen 2 electrons (a duet) and every other atom 8 electrons (an octet). In our example, we assign the remaining 6 valence electrons to the fluorine atom in three non-bonding pairs.



PRACTICE PROBLEM 1.5 Write the Lewis structure of (a) CH₂Fl₂ (difluoromethane) and (b) CHCl₃ (chloroform).

SOLVED PROBLEM 1.2

Write a Lewis structure for methylamine (CH₃NH₂).

STRATEGY AND ANSWER:

1. We find the total number of valence electrons for all the atoms.

2. We use one electron pair to join the carbon and nitrogen.

$$C-N$$

- **3.** We use three pairs to form single bonds between the carbon and three hydrogen atoms.
- **4.** We use two pairs to form single bonds between the nitrogen atom and two hydrogen atoms.
- **5.** This leaves one electron pair, which we use as a lone pair on the nitrogen atom.

Write the Lewis structure of CH₃OH.

PRACTICE PROBLEM 1.6

5. If necessary, we use multiple bonds to satisfy the octet rule (i.e., give atoms the noble gas configuration). The carbonate ion (CO₃²⁻) illustrates this:



The organic molecules ethene (C_2H_4) and ethyne (C_2H_2) , as mentioned earlier, have a double and triple bond, respectively:

$$C = C$$
 and $H - C = C - H$

SOLVED PROBLEM 1.3

Write the Lewis structure of CH₂O (formaldehyde).

STRATEGY AND ANSWER:

1. Find the total number of valence electrons of all the atoms:

2. (a) Use pairs of electrons to form single bonds.



(continues on next page)