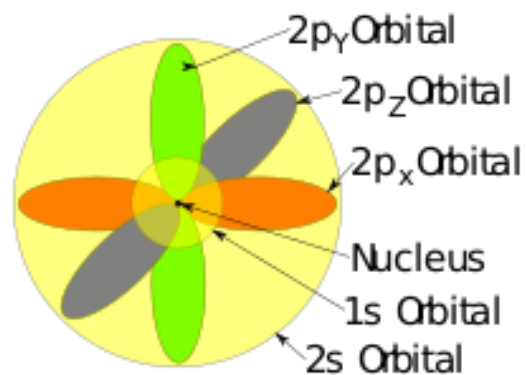


Inorganic Pharmaceutical Chemistry

Pharmaceutical Chemistry

Lecture 1: Atomic and Molecular Structure

Third Stage Semester 1

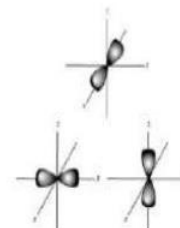


TYPES OF ORBITALS

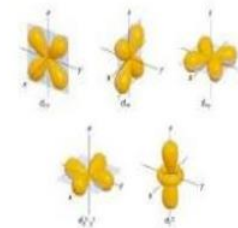
s-orbital
2 electrons



p-orbital
6 electrons



d-orbital
10 electrons



The Periodic Table

0.98	Pauling electronegativity
3	Atomic number
Li	Element
6.941	Atomic weight (¹² C)

1	2.20	2
H		He
1.008		4.003

Group 1		Group 2		d transition elements												Group 13	Group 14	Group 15	Group 16	Group 17	Group 18
3 Li 6.941	0.98	4 Be 9.012	1.57	21 Sc 44.956	22 Ti 47.90	23 V 50.941	24 Cr 51.996	25 Mn 54.938	26 Fe 55.847	27 Co 58.933	28 Ni 58.71	29 Cu 63.546	30 Zn 65.37	31 Ga 69.72	32 Ge 72.59	33 As 74.922	34 Se 78.96	35 Br 79.909	36 Kr 83.80		
11 Na 22.990	0.93	12 Mg 24.305	1.31	39 Y 88.906	40 Zr 91.22	41 Nb 92.906	42 Mo 95.94	43 Tc (99)	44 Ru 101.07	45 Rh 102.91	46 Pd 106.4	47 Ag 107.87	48 Cd 112.40	49 In 114.82	50 Sn 118.69	51 Sb 121.75	52 Te 127.60	53 I 126.90	54 Xe 131.30		
19 K 39.102	0.82	20 Ca 40.08	1.00	57 La 138.91	72 Hf 178.49	73 Ta 180.95	74 W 183.85	75 Re 186.2	76 Os 190.2	77 Ir 192.22	78 Pt 195.09	79 Au 196.97	80 Hg 200.59	81 Tl 204.37	82 Pb 207.19	83 Bi 208.98	84 Po (210)	85 At (210)	86 Rn (222)		
37 Rb 85.47	0.82	38 Sr 87.62	0.95	89 Ac 227.0	104 Rf (261)	105 Db (262)	106 Sg (263)	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Uun	111 Uuu	112 Unb	113 Nh	114 Fl	115 Mc	116 Lv	117 Ts	118 Og		
55 Cs 132.91	0.79	56 Ba 137.34	0.89																		
87 Fr (223)		88 Ra 226.025																			
				58 Ce 140.12	59 Pr 140.91	60 Nd 144.24	61 Pm (147)	62 Sm 150.35	63 Eu 151.96	64 Gd 157.25	65 Tb 158.92	66 Dy 162.50	67 Ho 164.93	68 Er 167.26	69 Tm 168.93	70 Yb 173.04	71 Lu 174.97				
				90 Th 232.04	91 Pa (231)	92 U 238.03	93 Np (237)	94 Pu (242)	95 Am (243)	96 Cm (247)	97 Bk (247)	98 Cf (249)	99 Es (254)	100 Fm (253)	101 Md (253)	102 No (256)	103 Lw (260)				

- Elements on the left and middle are **METALS** (except Hydrogen)
- Elements on the right are **NONMETALS**
- **METALLOIDS** form the narrow stair-step area between metals and nonmetals.
- The last group (18) to the right are **NOBLE GASES**

1 H																	18 He
3 Li	4 Be											5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
11 Na	12 Mg											13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr	25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn	31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Zr	41 Nb	42 Mo	43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd	49 In	50 Sn	51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe
55 Cs	56 Ba	57-71	72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W	75 Re	76 Os	77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb	83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn
87 Fr	88 Ra	89-103	104 Rf	105 Db	106 Sg	107 Bh	108 Hs	109 Mt	110 Ds	111 Rg	112 Cn	113 Uut	114 Fl	115 Uup	116 Lv	117 Uus	118 Uuo
57 La	58 Ce	59 Pr	60 Nd	61 Pm	62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb	71 Lu			
89 Ac	90 Th	91 Pa	92 U	93 Np	94 Pu	95 Am	96 Cm	97 Bk	98 Cf	99 Es	100 Fm	101 Md	102 No	103 Lr			

Metal

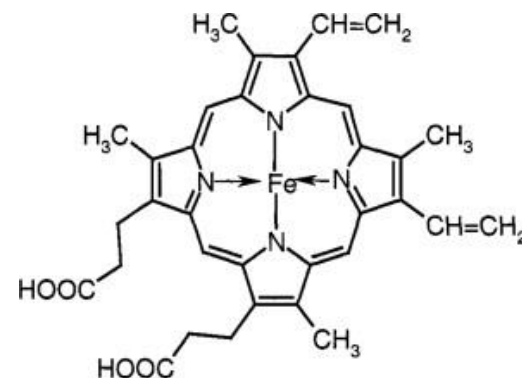
Metalloid

Nonmetal

A metalloid is an element that has properties that are intermediate between those of metals and nonmetals. Metalloids can also be called semimetals.

- **Medicinal inorganic chemistry** can be broadly defined as the area of research concerned with metal ions and metal complexes and their clinical applications.
- Metals such as **arsenic** have been used in clinical studies more than 100 years ago, whilst **silver**, **gold** and **iron** have been involved in 'magic cures' and other therapeutic applications for more than **5000 years**.

- Many metal ions play a vital role in living organisms. Metal ions are also involved in a variety of processes within the human body, such as the oxygen transport or the formation of the framework for our bones.
- **Haemoglobin** is an iron-containing metallo-protein which carries oxygen from the lungs to the various tissues around the human body.



Haemoglobin

- **Calcium** (Ca) ions are a vital component of our bones. Elements such as copper (Cu), zinc (Zn) and manganese (Mn) are essential for a variety of catalytic processes
- Nevertheless, metals are very often perceived as **toxic elements**. Very often, the toxicity of a metal in a biological environment depends on the **concentration** present in the living organism.
- Some metal ions are **essential for life**, but concentrations too high can be highly toxic whilst too low concentrations can lead to deficiency resulting in disturbed biological processes.

Classification of the Elements

Metals

- Lustrous, malleable, ductile, electrically conducting solids at room temperature

Nonmetals

- Often gases, liquids, or solids that do not conduct electricity appreciably

Metalloids

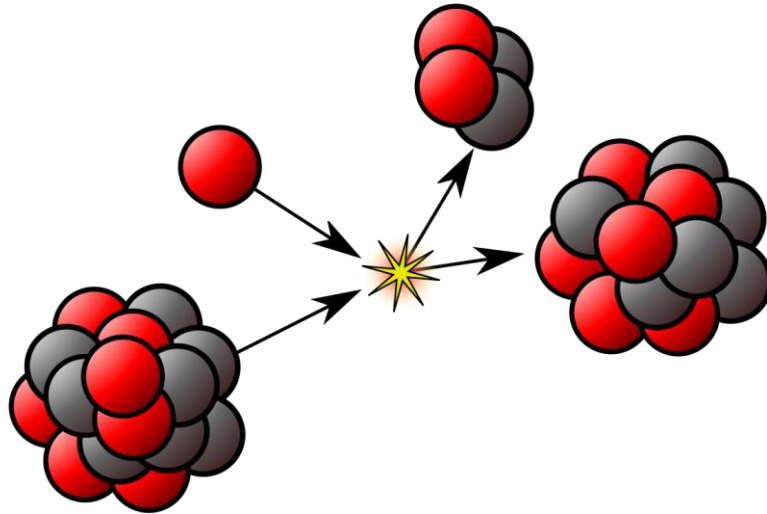
- Elements, alloys or compounds that possess some of the characteristics of metals and some of nonmetals
- Metallic elements combine with nonmetallic elements to give compounds that are typically hard, non-volatile solids
- When combined with each other, the nonmetals often form volatile molecular compounds
- When metals combine (or simply mix together) they produce alloys that have most of the physical characteristics of metals

Electronic Structure of Atoms

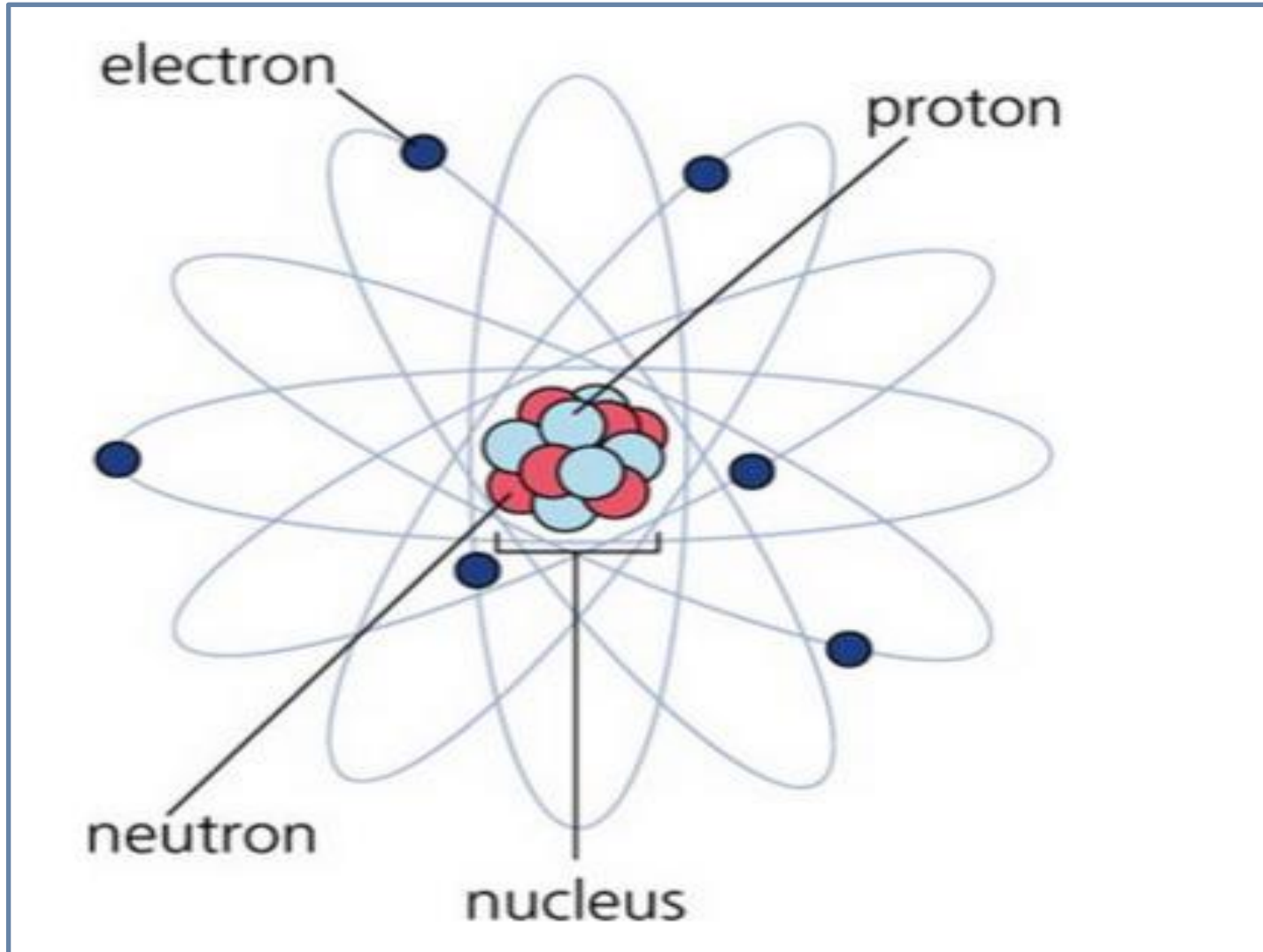
- The fundamental unit of all matter is the **atom**.
- The various chemical and physical properties of matter are determined by its elemental composition.
- Elements are composed of like atoms and their isotopes.
- **Subatomic particle: Any of various units of matter below the size of an atom.**
- To predict the properties of matter, molecules, or elements, it is important to understand the structure of atoms.

Subatomic Particles:

- Atoms are composed of a central nucleus surrounded by electrons which occupy discrete regions of space.
- The nucleus is considered to contain two types of stable particles which comprise most of the mass of the atom.
- These particles are "held" within the nucleus by various "nuclear forces."



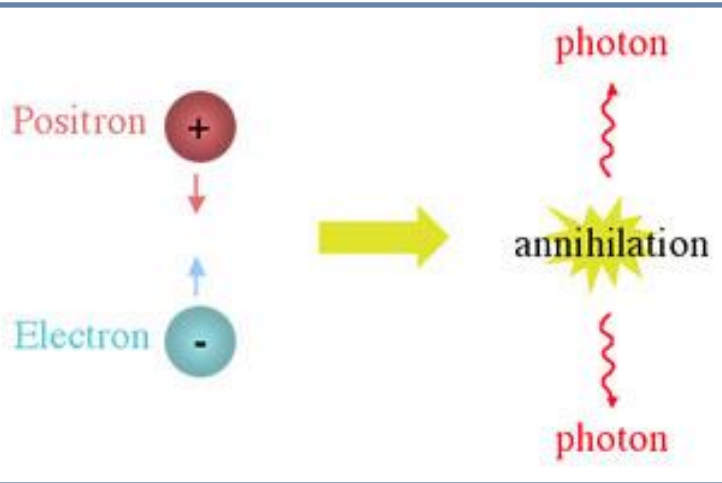
Subatomic Particles:



Positron

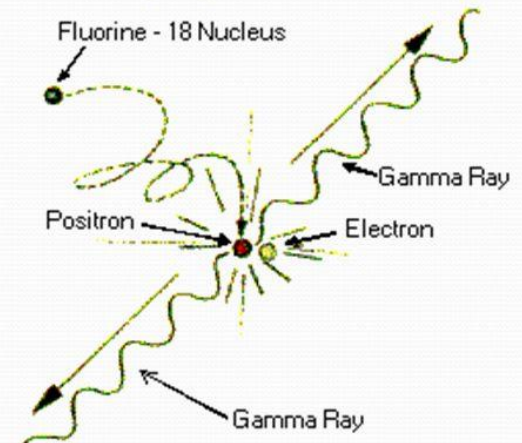
The positron or antielectron is the antiparticle or the antimatter counterpart of the electron. The positron has an electric charge of $+1 e$, a spin of $1/2$ (the same as the electron), and has the same mass as an electron. When a positron collides with an electron, annihilation occurs.

PET Principle: Positrons



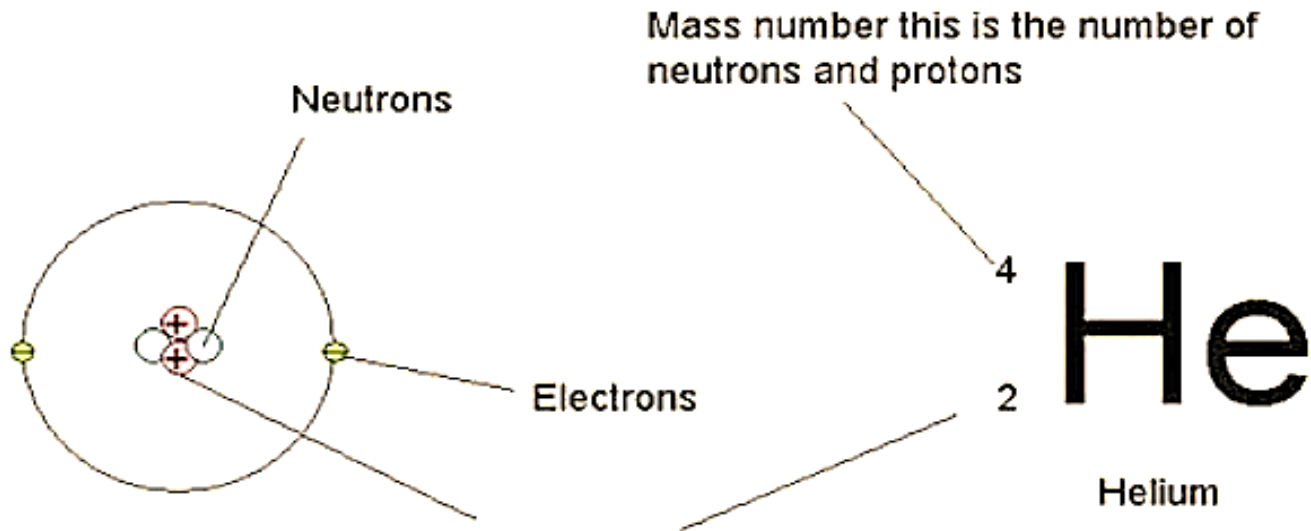
- When a positron meets an electron the collision creates two gamma rays that have the same energy but go in opposite directions. PET detects the gamma rays as they leave the patient's body. The information is fed to a computer and makes a picture.

Positron Emission Tomography

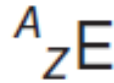


Subatomic Particles:

- The sum of the masses of the protons and neutrons accounts for most of the **atomic mass “weight”** of the element, and the number of protons is equal to the atomic number.



This number lets us know how many protons there are. In a neutral atom this is also the same as the number of electrons.

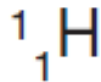


E = element symbol

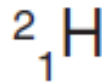
A = number of protons + number of neutrons = mass number

Z = number of protons = number of electrons = atomic number

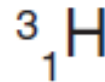
Figure 1.3 Shorthand writing of element symbol



Protium



Deuterium



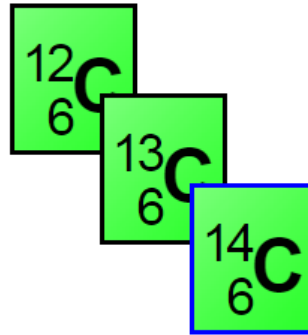
Tritium

Figure 1.4 Isotopes of hydrogen

- *Atoms of the same element can have different numbers of neutrons; the different possible versions of each element are called **isotopes**. The numbers of protons and electrons are the same for each isotope, as they define the element and its chemical behaviour.*
- For example, the most common isotope of hydrogen called protium has no neutrons at all. There are two other hydrogen isotopes: deuterium, with one neutron, and tritium, with two neutrons

Subatomic Particles:

- Isotopic forms of a particular element differ in the number of neutrons, and, therefore, in the atomic mass.
- Do isotopes have the same atomic number?



	protons	neutrons	mass number
^{12}C	6	6	12
^{13}C	6	7	13
^{14}C	6	8	14

Isotopes vs. Allotropes

Isotopes - atoms of the same element with different numbers of neutrons

- different compounds with the same formula

Allotropes - different forms of an element

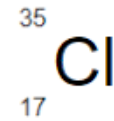
Carbon exhibits both

Isotopes: C-12

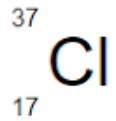
C-13

C-14

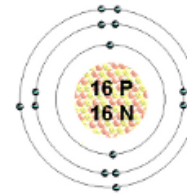
Allotropes: graphite, diamond, and fullerenes



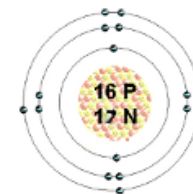
Chlorine-35



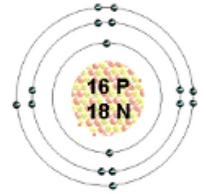
Chlorine-37



32-S

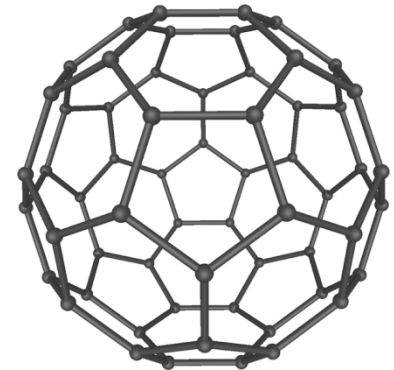


33-S



35-S

THREE OF THE MANY SULFUR ISOTOPES



Heisenberg principle:

- Also known as *Uncertainty principle*.
- Introduced first in 1927, by the German physicist Werner Heisenberg, it states that the more precisely the position of some particle is determined, the less precisely its momentum [mass. Velocity] can be known, and vice versa. (only for small objects like electrons)
- Thus, it is necessary to discuss the "location" of electrons in atoms and molecules in terms of probability.

Atomic Orbitals

- Atomic orbitals are defined as **discrete volumes of space** about the nucleus that the electrons are placed in.
- The electrons (contained within the boundaries of these orbitals) are described by a set of four numbers called quantum numbers.
- The four quantum numbers set the probability limits within which an electron can be found.
- The **first three** quantum numbers refer to some property of the **space or orbital**, while the **fourth** quantum number describes the **spin** of the electron.

The four quantum numbers

1. The Principal Quantum Number (n).
2. The Suborbital Quantum Number (l).
3. The Magnetic Quantum Number (m_l).
4. The Spin Quantum Number (m_s).

The Principal Quantum Number (n):

- Quantum theory states that electrons in atoms exist in discrete **energy levels**.
- The energy associated with the electron **increases as it location farther from the nucleus**.
- The principal quantum number describes the relative positions of these energy levels and their distance from the nucleus.
- The values of this number are integers (اعداد صحيحه) $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- When $n = 1$ the electron is found in the energy level closest to the nucleus.

The Suborbital Quantum Number(*l*):

- Also called the "angular quantum number," can be any value in the range $0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$.
- The secondary quantum number divides the shells into smaller groups of orbitals called sub shells (sublevels).
- Usually, a letter code is used to identify (*l*) to avoid confusion with (*n*).

<i>l</i> = 0	1	2	3
Letter = s	p	d	f

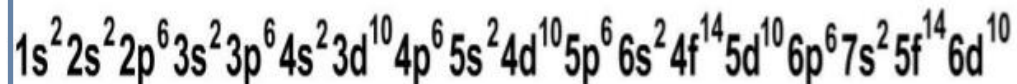
The Suborbital Quantum Number(*l*):

For example: when $n = 1$, (l) can only equal 0; meaning that shell $n = 1$ has only an s orbital ($l = 0$). when $n = 3$, (l) can equal 0, 1, or 2; meaning that shell $n = 3$ has s , p , and d orbitals.

Another example : the sub shell with $n=2$ and (l)=1 is the $2p$ subshell; if $n=3$ and $l=0$, it is the $3s$ subshell, and so on.

The following figure shows the shapes of the s , p , and d orbitals.

The standard electron configuration pattern is as follows:



The Suborbital Quantum Number(l):

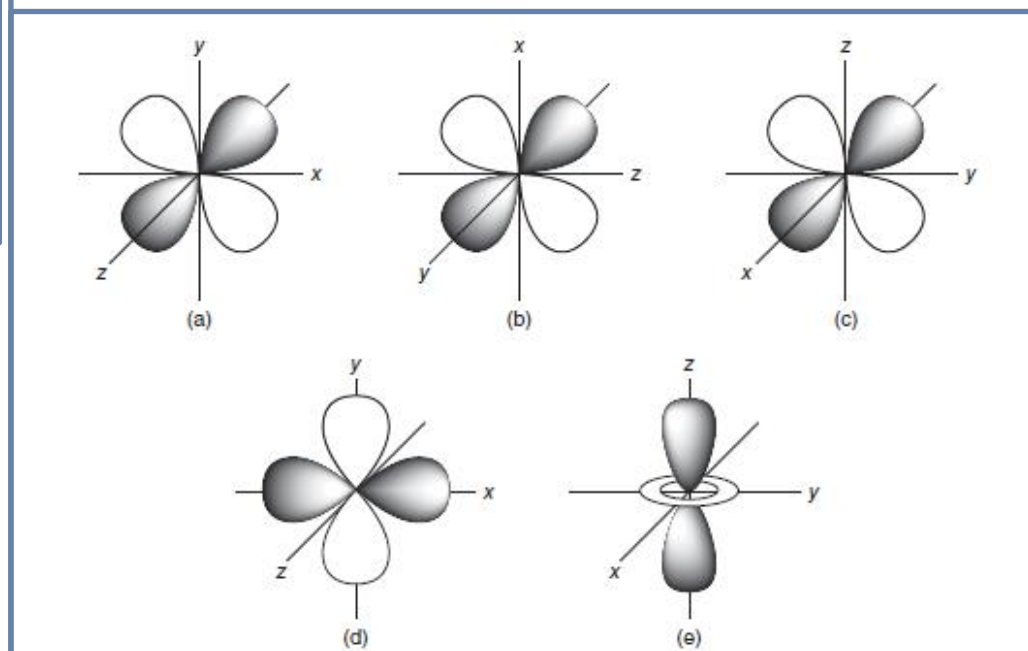
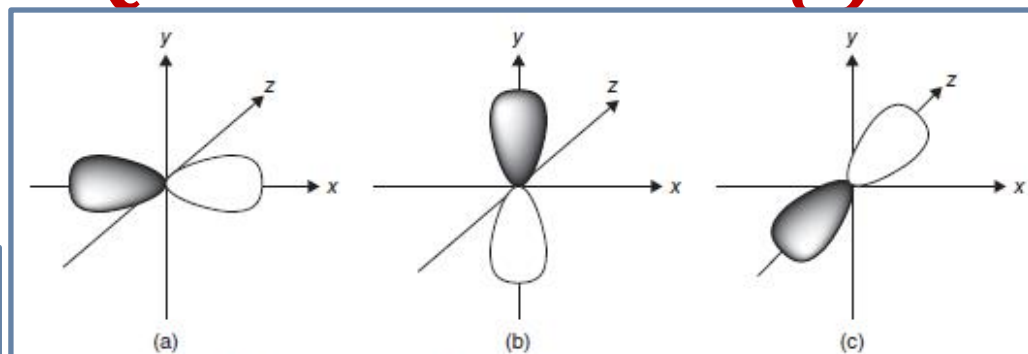
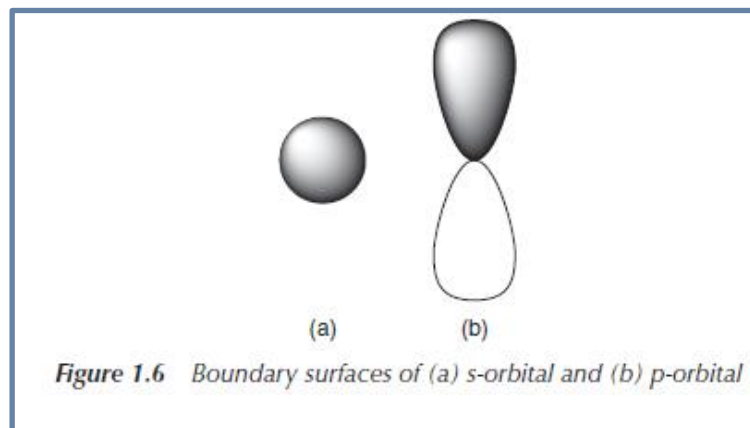
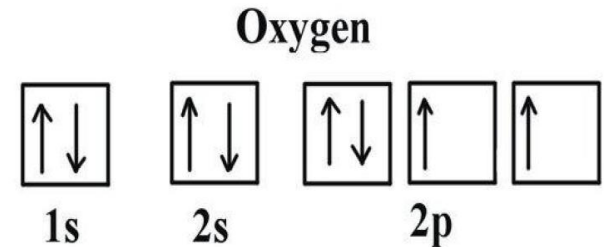


Figure 1.8 Boundary surfaces of five d orbitals: (a) d_{xy} , (b) d_{xz} , (c) d_{yz} , (d) $d_{x^2-y^2}$ and (e) d_{z^2} [10] (Reproduced with permission from [10]. Copyright © 2009, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.)

The Magnetic Quantum Number (m_ℓ):

- Basically, this number describes the spatial orientation of the orbital.
- The allowed values are restricted by the value of (l) and can be positive or negative integer:
- (l) = 0, 1, 2, 3 Where $s=0$, $p=1$, $d=2$, $f=3$
- $m_\ell = (-3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, +3)$
- $s = 0$
- $p = (-1, 0, +1)$ e.g. m_ℓ for oxygen = -1
- $d = (-2, -1, 0, +1, +2)$
- $f = (-3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, +3)$



s – 1 orbital

p – 3 orbitals (x, y, z)

d – 5 orbitals ($xy, yz, xz, x^2 - y^2, z^2$)

f – 7 orbitals ($y^3 - 3yx^2, 5yz^2 - yr^2, x^3 - 3xy^2, zx^2 - zy^2, xyz, 5xz^2 - 3xr^2, 5z^3 - 3zr^2$)

The Spin Quantum Number (m_s):

- *Specifies the orientation of the spin axis of an electron.*
- *The spin quantum number describes the direction the electron is spinning in a magnetic field either clockwise or counter clockwise.*
- *Only two values are allowed: $+1/2$ or $-1/2$.*
- *For each subshell, there can be only two electrons, one with a spin of $+1/2$ and another with a spin of $-1/2$.*

