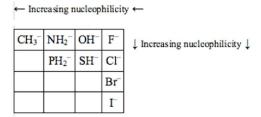
### **General consideration**

# **Nucleophile**

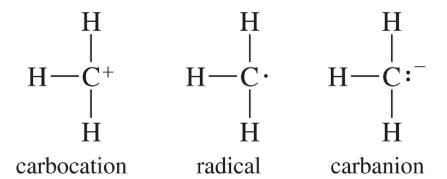
- A nucleophile is a chemical species that donates an electron pair to an electrophile to form a chemical bond in relation to a reaction.
- All molecules or ions with a free pair of electrons or at least one  $\pi$  bond.
- Because nucleophiles donate electrons, they are by definition Lewis bases.



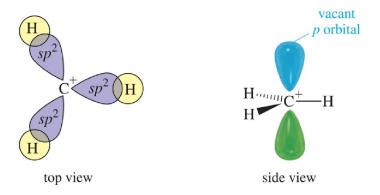
# **General consideration**

# **Electrophile**

- An electrophile is a reagent attracted to electrons.
- Electrophiles are positively charged or neutral species having vacant orbitals that are attracted to an electron rich centers. It participates in a chemical reaction by accepting an electron pair in order to bond to a nucleophile.
- · Because electrophiles accept electrons, they are Lewis acids



# **Carbocations structure**



- Carbon has 6 electrons, positively charged.
- Carbon is  $sp^2$  hybridized with vacant p orbital.

# Intermediates in organic reactions Stability of carbocations

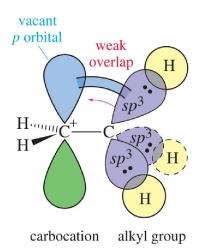
Stability of carbocations

$$3^{\circ}$$
 >  $2^{\circ}$  >  $1^{\circ}$  > methyl

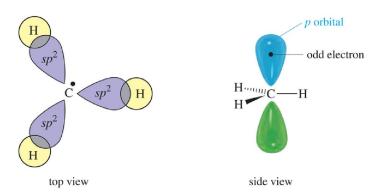
# Stability of carbocations

Stabilized by alkyl substituents in two ways:

- 1. *Inductive* effect: Donation of electron density along the sigma bonds.
- 2. *Hyperconjugation*: Overlap of sigma bonding orbitals with empty *p* orbital.



# **Carbon radicals**



- · Also electron-deficient.
- Stabilized by alkyl substituents.
- Order of stability:
   3° > 2° > 1° > methyl

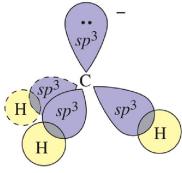
# Stability of carbon radicals

Stability of radicals

$$3^{\circ}$$
  $>$   $2^{\circ}$   $>$   $1^{\circ}$   $>$  methyl Copyright © 2010 Pearson Prentice Hall, Inc.

### **Carboanions structure**

- Eight electrons on carbon: 6 bonding plus one lone pair.
- Carbon has a negative charge.
- Destabilized by alkyl substituents.
- Methyl >1° > 2 ° > 3 °



methyl anion

### **Basicity of carboanions**

- A carbanion has a negative charge on its carbon atom, making it a more powerful base and a stronger nucleophile than an amine.
- A carbanion is sufficiently basic to remove a proton from ammonia.

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Figure: 04\_16-02UN.jpg

Title:

Reactivity of a Carbanion

#### Caption:

Like amines, carbanions are nucleophilic and basic. A carbanion has a negative charge on its carbon atom, however, making it a more powerful base and a stronger nucleophile than an amine. For example, a carbanion is sufficiently basic to remove a proton from ammonia.

#### Notes:

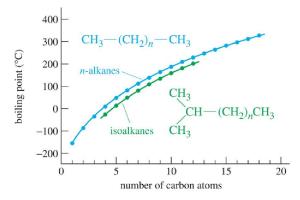
Carbanions are a stronger base than amines, so they can deprotonate amines easily.

General formula  $C_nH_{2n+2}$ 

Contains only C – H and C – C  $\sigma$  bonds.

### **Boiling point**

As the number of carbons in an alkane increases, the boiling point will increase due to the larger surface area and the increased van der Waals attractions.



12

Figure: 03\_03.jpg

#### Title:

Boiling Points of Branched and Unbranched Alkanes

#### Caption:

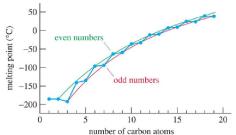
Alkane boiling points. Comparison of the boiling points of the unbranched alkanes (blue) with those of some branched alkanes (red). Because of their smaller surface areas, branched alkanes have lower boiling points than unbranched alkanes.

#### Notes:

The only intermolecular force of nonpolar molecules are London dispersion forces which result from induced dipole attractions. Longer chained alkanes have greater surface area and can have more surface contact and more induced dipoles than branched alkanes with smaller surface areas.

### **Melting point**

- Melting points increase as the carbon chain increases.
- Alkanes with an even number of carbons have higher melting points than those with an odd number of carbons.
- Branched alkanes have higher melting points than unbranched alkanes.



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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

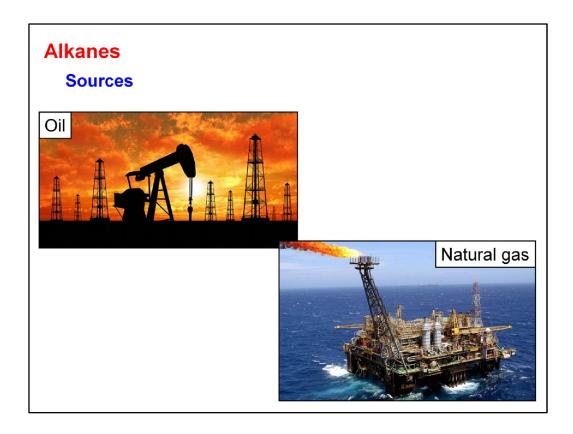
Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:



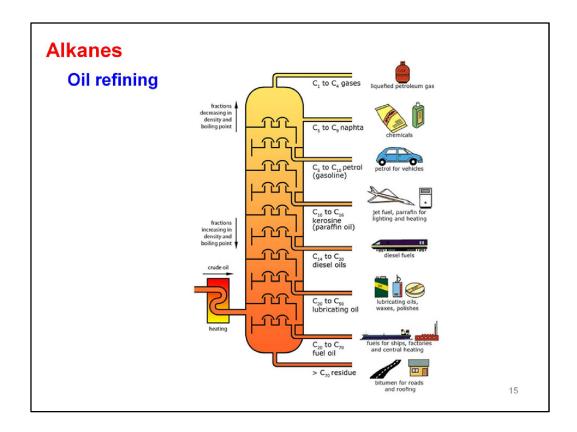
Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:



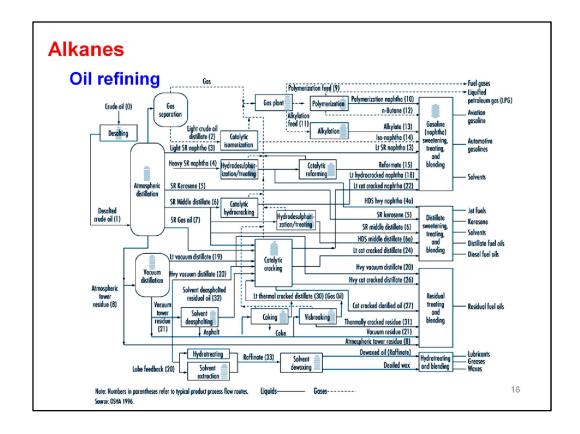
Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:



Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

### Reactivity

### Catalytic cracking

- Long-chain alkane is heated with a catalyst to produce an alkene and shorter alkane.
- Complex mixtures are produced.
- Hydrocracking: with addition of large amounts of H<sub>2</sub>, alkenes are converted into alkanes.
- · Fundamental for fuel production.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

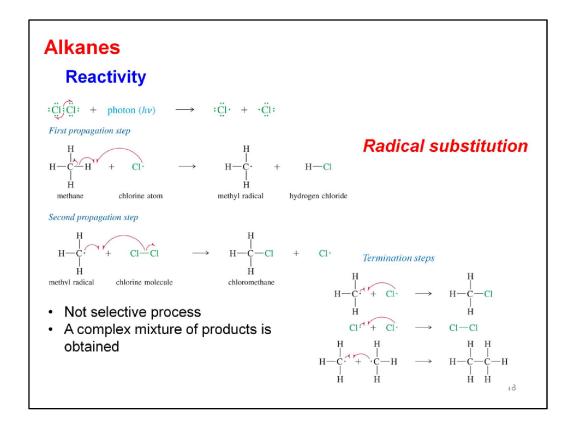
Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:



Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

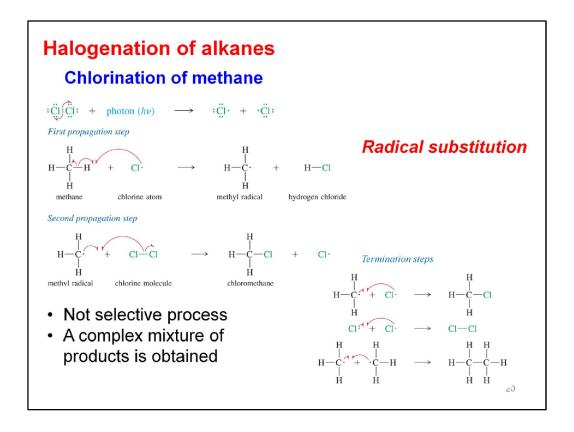
#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

### **Chlorination of methane**

- · Requires heat or light for initiation.
- The most effective wavelength is blue, which is absorbed by chlorine gas.
- Many molecules of product are formed from absorption of only one photon of light (chain reaction).



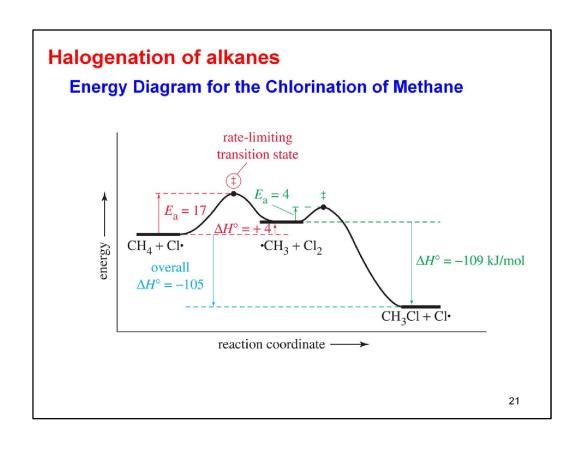
Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:



Rate,  $\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{a}}$  and Temperature

$$X + CH_4 \longrightarrow HX + \cdot CH_3$$

Х	E <sub>a</sub> (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	Rate at 27 °C	Rate at 227 °C
F	5	140000	300000
CI	17	1300	18000
Br	75	9 x 10 <sup>-8</sup>	0.015
I	140	2 x 10 <sup>-19</sup>	2 x 10 <sup>-9</sup>

### **Conclusions**

- With increasing  $E_a$ , rate decreases.
- With increasing temperature, rate increases.
- · Fluorine reacts explosively.
- · Chlorine reacts at a moderate rate.
- · Bromine must be heated to react.
- lodine does not react (detectably).

# **Chlorination of propane**

Initiation: Splitting of the chlorine molecule

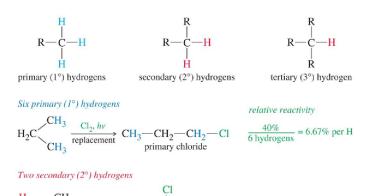
$$Cl_2 + hv \longrightarrow 2 Cl$$

First propagation step: Abstraction (removal) of a primary or secondary hydrogen

Second propagation step: Reaction with chlorine to form the alkyl chloride

or 
$$CH_3$$
— $\dot{C}H$ — $CH_3$  +  $Cl_2$   $\longrightarrow$   $CH_3$ — $CH$ — $CH_3$  +  $Cl$ -
secondary radical secondary chloride (2-chloropropane) 60%

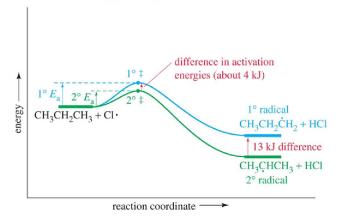
# **Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Hydrogens**



H CH<sub>3</sub>  $\xrightarrow{\text{Cl}_2, hv}$   $\xrightarrow{\text{replacement}}$  CH<sub>3</sub>  $\xrightarrow{\text{CH}}$  CH<sub>3</sub>  $\xrightarrow{\text{CH}}$  CH<sub>3</sub>  $\xrightarrow{\text{Ch}}$  CH<sub>3</sub>  $\xrightarrow{\text{condary chloride}}$  = 30.0% per H

The 2° hydrogens are  $\frac{30.0}{6.67}$  = 4.5 times as reactive as the 1° hydrogens.

# **Chlorination Energy Diagram**



Lower  $E_a$ , faster rate, so more stable intermediate is formed faster.

# **Bromination of Propane**

$$\text{CH}_3-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_3 \ + \ \text{Br}_2 \ \xrightarrow{\textit{hv},\ 125\ ^\circ\text{C}} \ \xrightarrow{\text{CH}_3-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2} \ + \ \text{CH}_3-\text{CH}-\text{CH}_3 \ + \ \text{HBr}$$

#### Relative reactivity

six primary hydrogens 
$$\frac{3\%}{6} = 0.5\%$$
 per H

two secondary hydrogens  $\frac{97\%}{2} = 48.5\%$  per H

The 2° hydrogens are  $\frac{48.5}{0.5}$  = 97 times as reactive as the 1° hydrogens.

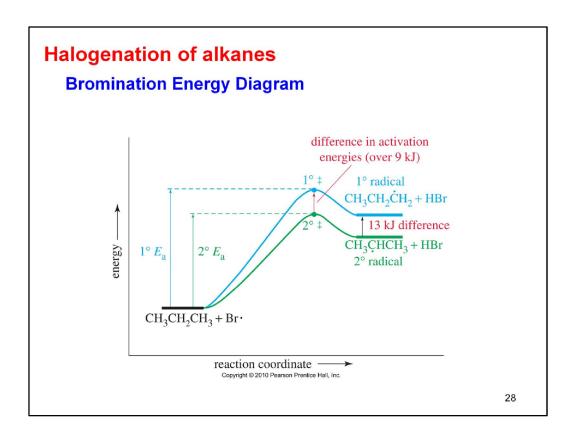


Figure: 04\_10.jpg

Title:

Energy Diagram for the Bromination of Propane

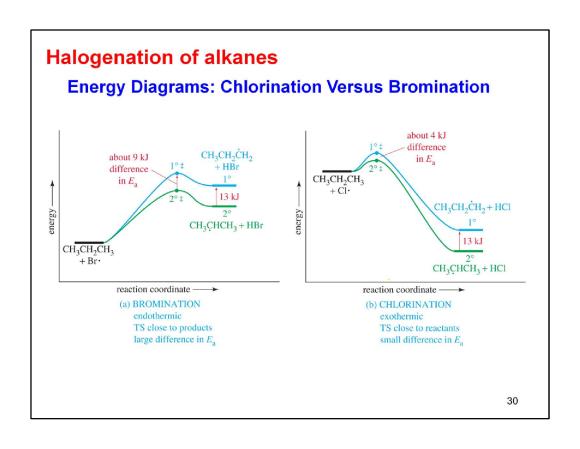
#### Caption:

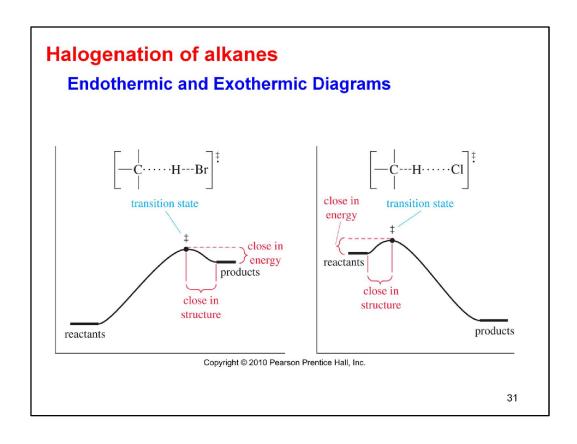
Reaction-energy diagram for the first propagation step in the bromination of propane. The energy difference in the transition states is nearly as large as the energy difference in the products.

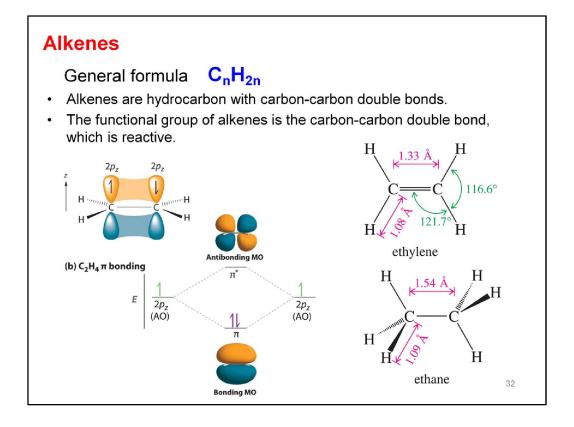
Notes:

### **Hammond postulate**

- Related species that are similar in energy are also similar in structure.
- The structure of the transition state resembles the structure of the closest stable species.
- **Endothermic reaction**: Transition state is product-like.
- Exothermic reaction: Transition state is reactant-like.







Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

### **Alkenes**

### **Physical properties**

- · Low boiling points, increasing with mass.
- · Branched alkenes have lower boiling points.
- Less dense than water.
- · Slightly polar:
  - $-\pi$  bond is polarizable, so instantaneous dipole–dipole interactions occur.
  - Alkyl groups are electron-donating toward the  $\pi$  bond, so may have a small dipole moment.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

### **Alkenes**

### **Polarity and Dipole Moments of Alkenes**

- Cis alkenes have a greater dipole moment than trans alkenes, so they will be slightly polar.
- The boiling point of cis alkenes will be higher than the trans alkenes.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

### **Alkenes**

### **Heat of hydrogenation**

- Combustion of an alkene and hydrogenation of an alkene can provide valuable data as to the stability of the double bond.
- The more substituted the double bond, the lower its heat of hydrogenation.

Figure: 03\_04.jpg

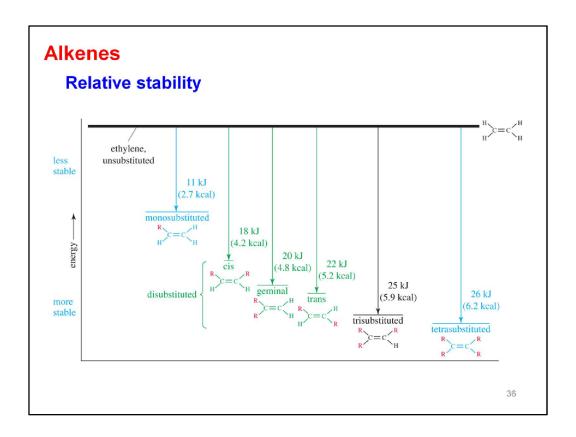
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#### Notes:



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Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## **Alkenes**

## Substituent effect

- Among constitutional isomers, more substituted double bonds are usually more stable.
- Wider separation between the groups means less steric interaction and increased stability.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

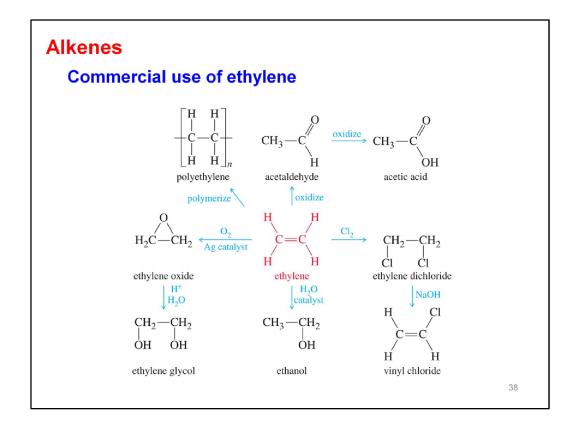


Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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Melting Points of Alkanes

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### Notes:

Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

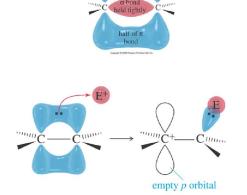
Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

## **Alkenes**

## Reactivity: ELECTROPHILIC ADDITION

- Electrons in  $\pi$  bond are loosely held.
- The double bond acts as a nucleophile attacking electrophilic species.
- Carbocations are intermediates in the reactions.
- These reactions are called electrophilic additions.



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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

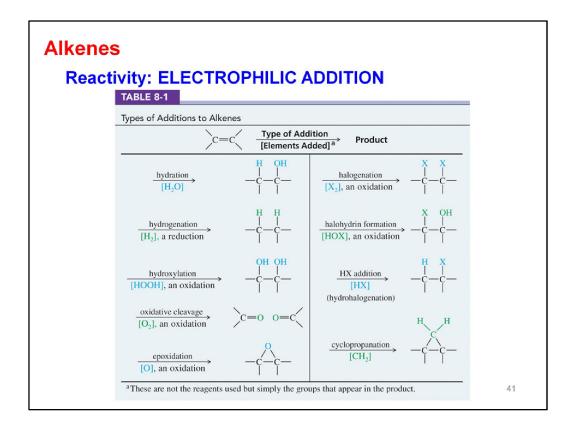


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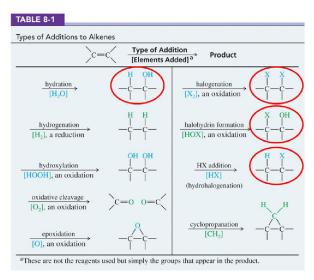
Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

# Types of additions



## **General mechanism**

• Step 1: Pi electrons attack the electrophile.

$$C = C + E^{+} \rightarrow -C - C^{+}$$

$$+ \text{ on the more substituted carbon}$$

• Step 2: Nucleophile attacks the carbocation.

Regioselectivity

# Markovnikov's Rule (extended)

In an electrophilic addition to the alkene, the electrophile adds in such a way that it generates the most stable intermediate.

## Mechanism of addition of HX

Step 1: Protonation of the double bond.

$$CH_{3}-C=C-CH_{3} \iff CH_{3}-C-C-C-CH_{3} + :\ddot{B_{\Gamma}}$$

$$H-\ddot{B_{\Gamma}}: H$$

Step 2: Nucleophilic attack of the halide on the carbocation.

$$CH_{3} - \overset{H}{C} - \overset{H}{C} - CH_{3} + : \overset{..}{Br} : \longrightarrow CH_{3} - \overset{..}{C} - \overset{..}{C} - CH_{3}$$

$$H : \overset{..}{Br} : \longrightarrow CH_{3} + : \overset{..}{Br} : \longrightarrow CH_{3}$$

## Markovnikov's rule

$$\begin{array}{c} CH_{3} \\ CH_{3$$

The acid proton will bond to carbon 3 in order to produce the most stable carbocation possible.

## Free-radical addition of HBr

- In the presence of peroxides, HBr adds to an alkene to form the "anti-Markovnikov" product.
- · Peroxides produce free radicals.
- · Only HBr has the right bond energy.
- The HCl bond is too strong, so it will add according to Markovnikov's rule, even in the presence of peroxide.
- The HI bond tends to break heterolytically to form ions, it too will add according to Markovnikov's rule.

## **Free-radical initiation**

• The peroxide bond breaks homolytically to form the first radical:

· Hydrogen is abstracted from HBr.

## **Propagation steps**

• Bromine adds to the double bond forming the most stable radical possible:

• Hydrogen is abstracted from HBr: tertiary radical (more stable)

## **Anti-Markovnikov stereochemistry**

$$CH_3$$
 $CH_3$ 
 $CH_3$ 

tertiary radical (more stable)

 The intermediate tertiary radical forms faster because it is more stable.

secondary radical (less stable) **not formed** 

# **Hydration of alkenes**

Hydration of an alkene

$$C = C + H_2O \stackrel{H^+}{\Longleftrightarrow} -C - C - C$$
alkene alcohol
(Markovnikov orientation)

- The Markovnikov addition of water to the double bond forms an alcohol.
- Uses dilute solutions of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> or H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> to drive equilibrium toward hydration.

## **Mechanism for hydration**

Step 1: Protonation of the double bond forms a carbocation.

Step 2: Nucleophilic attack by water.

Step 3: Deprotonation to the alcohol.

## **Orientation of hydration**

$$CH_3$$
  $CH_3$   $CH_3$ 

The protonation follows Markovnikov's rule: The hydrogen is added to the less substituted carbon in order to form the most stable carbocation.

2º less stable, not formed

## Rearrangements

## Rearrangement:

- Rearrangements can occur when there are carbocation intermediates.
- A methyl shift after protonation will produce the more stable tertiary carbocation.

# **Addition of halogens**

$$C = C + X_2 \longrightarrow -C - C - X$$

$$(X_2 = Cl_2, Br_2, sometimes I_2)$$
usually anti addition

 $\mathrm{Cl_2},\,\mathrm{Br_2},\,\mathrm{and}$  sometimes  $\mathrm{I_2}$  add to a double bond to form a vicinal dibromide.

Electrophilic addition

Mechanism of addition of halogens

$$C = C + : \ddot{x} - \ddot{x} :$$

$$C = C + : \ddot{x} - \ddot{x} :$$

$$C = C + : \ddot{x} - \ddot{x} :$$

$$C = C + : \ddot{x} - \ddot{x} :$$

$$C = C + : \ddot{x} - \ddot{x} :$$

$$C = C + : \ddot{x} - \ddot{x} :$$

$$Anti = X - \text{tatacks from the back side}$$

$$X - \text{tatacks from the back side}$$

# **Examples of stereospecificity**

trans-2-butene meso-2,3-dibromobutane

back-side attack

# Mechanism of halohydrin formation

$$C = C + : \ddot{X} - \ddot{X}: \longrightarrow -C - C - (X = CI, Br, or I)$$

$$(X = CI, Br, or I)$$

$$halonium ion$$

$$: \ddot{X}: \longrightarrow -C - C - + H_3O^+$$

$$: OH$$

halohydrin Markovnikov orientation

anti stereochemistry

## **Alkynes**

# General formula C<sub>n</sub>H<sub>2n-2</sub>

## **Physical properties**

- · Nonpolar, insoluble in water.
- · Soluble in most organic solvents.
- Boiling points are similar to alkane of same size.
- · Less dense than water.
- · Up to four carbons, gas at room temperature.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

## **Alkynes**

## **Reactivity: ADDITION**

- · Similar to addition to alkenes.
- · Pi bond becomes two sigma bonds.
- Usually exothermic.
- · One or two molecules may add.

Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

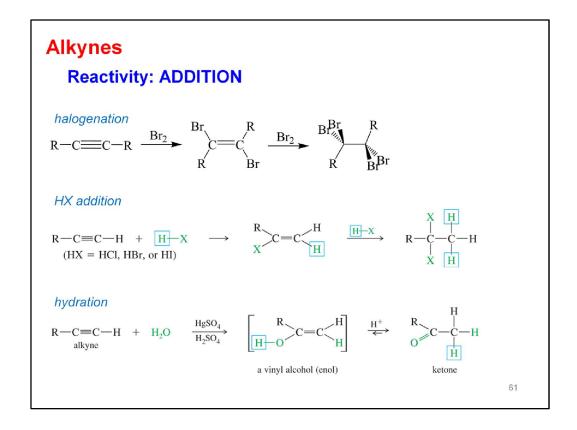


Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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### Notes:

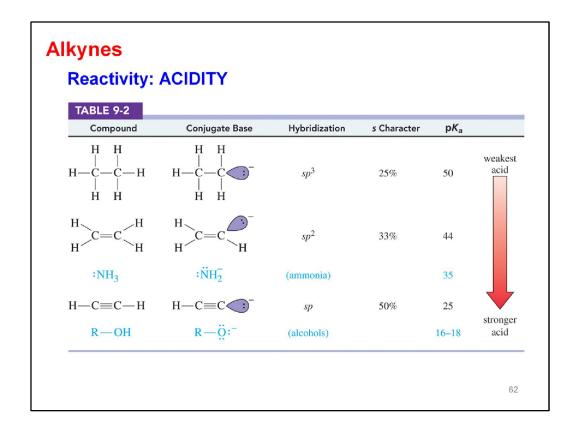


Figure: 03\_04.jpg

#### Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

## **Alkynes**

## **Reactivity: ACIDITY**

 H<sup>+</sup> can be removed from a terminal alkyne by sodium amide, NaNH<sub>2</sub>.

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 The acetylide ion is a strong nucleophile that can easily do addition and substitution reactions.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

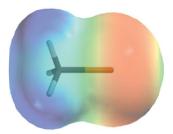
Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

## **Polarity and reactivity**



chloromethane



chloromethane

- Halogens are more electronegative than C.
- Carbon—halogen bond is polar, so carbon has partial positive charge.
- · Carbon can be attacked by a nucleophile.
- · Halogen can leave with the electron pair.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

## Classification

Methyl halides: halide is attached to a methyl group.

CH<sub>3</sub>-Br

 Primary alkyl halide: carbon to which halogen is bonded is attached to only one other carbon.

\_ \_Br

- Secondary alkyl halide: carbon to which halogen is bonded is attached to two other carbons.
- Tertiary alkyl halide: carbon to which halogen is bonded is attached to three other carbon.



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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

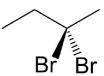
### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

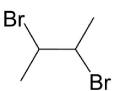
### Notes:

## Classification

 Geminal dihalide: two halogen atoms are bonded to the same carbon.



 Vicinal dihalide: two halogen atoms are bonded to adjacent carbons.



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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

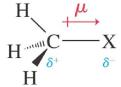
### Notes:

## **Dipole moment**

· Electronegativities of the halides:

 Bond lengths increase as the size of the halogen increases:

· Bond dipoles:



 Molecular dipoles depend on the geometry of the molecule.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

## **Boiling point**

- · Greater intermolecular forces, higher b.p.
  - dipole-dipole attractions not significantly different for different halides
  - London forces greater for larger atoms
- · Greater mass, higher b.p.
- · Spherical shape decreases b.p.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

## Notes:

## Reactivity: NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION

### Nucleophilic substitution

- The halogen atom on the alkyl halide is replaced with a nucleophile (Nuc<sup>-</sup>).
- Since the halogen is more electronegative than carbon, the C—X bond breaks heterolytically and X- leaves.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

#### Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

# Reactivity: NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION

	Nucleo	phile		Product	Class of Product
R—X	+ -:	Ï:	$\longrightarrow$	R—Ï:	alkyl halide
R—X	+ -:	ÖН	$\longrightarrow$	R—ÖН	alcohol
R—X	+ -:	ÖR'	$\longrightarrow$	R−ÖR′	ether
R—X	+ -:	ËН	$\longrightarrow$	r— <u>ё</u> н	thiol (mercaptan)
R—X	+ -:	SR'	$\longrightarrow$	R—ÿR′	thioether (sulfide
R—X	+ :	NH <sub>3</sub>	$\longrightarrow$	$R-NH_3^+ X^-$	amine salt
R—X	+ -:	.;	$\longrightarrow$	$R - \ddot{N} = N^{+} = \ddot{N} : -$	azide
R—X	+ -:	C≡C—R′	$\longrightarrow$	$R-C\equiv C-R'$	alkyne
R—X	+ -:	C≡N:	$\longrightarrow$	R—C≡N:	nitrile
R—X	+ R'	–coö:-	$\longrightarrow$	R'—COO—R	ester
R—X	+ :P	Ph <sub>3</sub>	$\longrightarrow$	$[R-PPh_3]^+$ -X	phosphonium sal

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

#### Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

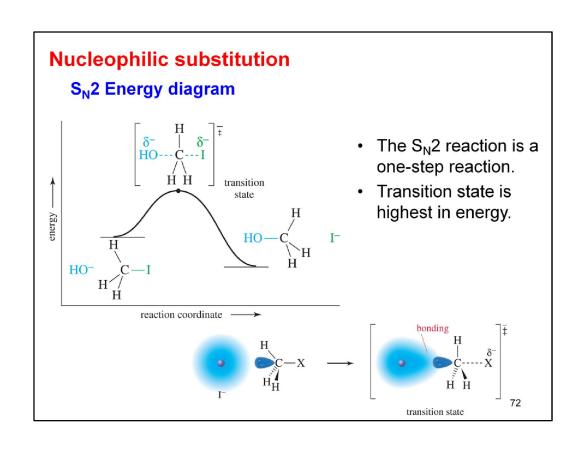
Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

## Notes:

# **Nucleophilic substitution**

# **S<sub>N</sub>2 Mechanism**

- Bimolecular nucleophilic substitution.
- Concerted reaction: new bond forming and old bond breaking at same time.
- · Rate is first order in each reactant.



## S<sub>N</sub>2: Nucleophilic strength

- Stronger nucleophiles react faster.
- Strong bases are strong nucleophiles, but not all strong nucleophiles are basic.

strong nucleophiles	(CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> P:	moderate nucleophiles	: <u>B</u> r:-
	-: <u>ÿ</u> —H		$:NH_3$
	: <u>Ï</u> :-		$CH_3$ — $\ddot{S}$ — $CH_3$
	 (CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> NH		:Ċl:-
	-: C≡N		Ö
	(CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> N∶ H—Ö:⁻		CH₃C̈—Ö:⁻
	H—Ö:-	weak nucleophiles	:Ë:-
	CH₃—Ö:⁻		
			н—ö—н
			СН <sub>3</sub> —Ö—Н
			C11 <sub>3</sub> 11

### **Basicity vs Nucleophilicity**

Basicity

$$B: + H - A \stackrel{K_{eq}}{\longleftrightarrow} B - H + A:$$

Nucleophilicity

- Basicity is defined by the equilibrium constant for abstracting a proton.
- Nucleophilicity is defined by the rate of attack on the electrophilic carbon atom

### **Trends in Nucleophilicity**

 A negatively charged nucleophile is stronger than its neutral counterpart:

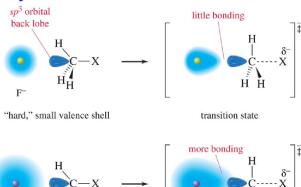
$$OH^{-} > H_{2}O + HS^{-} > H_{2}S + NH_{2}^{-} > NH_{3}$$

· Nucleophilicity decreases from left to right:

$$OH^{-} > F^{-}$$
  $NH_{3} > H_{2}O$ 

 Increases down Periodic Table, as size and polarizability increase:

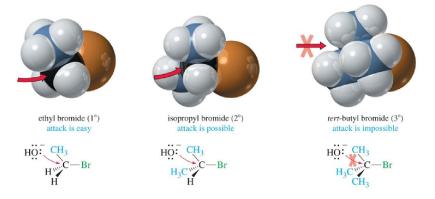
## Polarizability effect



Bigger atoms have a soft shell which can start to overlap the carbon atom from a farther distance.

## S<sub>N</sub>2: Structure of substrate

- Nucleophile approaches from the back side.
- It must overlap the back lobe of the C—X sp<sup>3</sup> orbital.



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 $S_N2$ : Structure of substrate

• Relative rates for S<sub>N</sub>2:

 Tertiary halides do not react via the S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism, due to steric hindrance.

## S<sub>N</sub>2: Leaving group ability

The best leaving groups are:

- Electron-withdrawing, to polarize the carbon atom.
- Stable (not a strong base) once it has left.
- · Polarizable, to stabilize the transition state.

S<sub>N</sub>2: Stereochemistry

 $S_N 2$  reactions will result in an inversion of configuration.

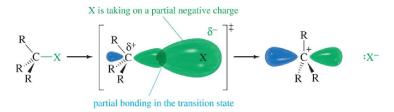
$$\begin{array}{c} H \\ H \ddot{\bigcirc} : \\ CH_3 \\ CH_3 \\ CH_2 \\ (S)\text{-2-bromobutane} \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} H \\ H \ddot{\bigcirc} - C \\ H_3 \\ CH_2 \\ CH_2 \\ CH_3 \end{bmatrix} \\ \stackrel{+}{\mp} \\ H \ddot{\bigcirc} - C \\ H_3 \\ CH_2 \\ CH_3 \\ (R)\text{-2-butanol} \\ \vdots \\ B \ddot{\Gamma} : - C \\ CH_3 \\ CH_2 \\ CH_3 \\ (R)\text{-2-butanol} \end{bmatrix}$$

### **S<sub>N</sub>1 Mechanism**

- The S<sub>N</sub>1 reaction is a unimolecular nucleophilic substitution.
- It is a two step reaction with a carbocation intermediate.
- Rate is first order in the alkyl halide, zero order in the nucleophile.
- · Racemization occurs.

## **S<sub>N</sub>1 Mechanism**

1. Formation of carbocation (rate determining step)

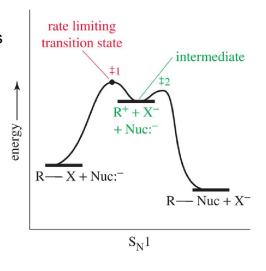


2. The nucleophile attacks the carbocation, forming the product. If the nucleophile was neutral, a third step (deprotonation) will be needed.



## **S<sub>N</sub>1 Energy diagram**

- Forming the carbocation is an endothermic step.
- Step 2 is fast with a low activation energy.



## **S<sub>N</sub>1: Reaction rates**

- Order of reactivity follows stability of carbocations (opposite to S<sub>N</sub>2)
  - 3° > 2° > 1° >> CH<sub>3</sub>X
  - More stable carbocation requires less energy to form.
- A better leaving group will increase the rate of the reaction.

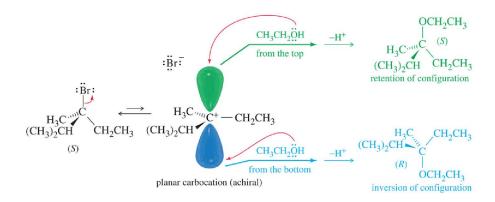
## **S<sub>N</sub>1: Solvation effect**

Polar <u>protic</u> solvent are the best choice because it can solvate both ions strongly through hydrogen bonding.

$$R - \ddot{\ddot{x}} : \iff R^{+} : \ddot{\ddot{x}} : - \\ \text{ionization} \qquad H \qquad \ddot{\ddot{x}} : - \\ R = \ddot{\ddot{x}} : - \ddot{\ddot{x}} : - \\ R = \ddot{\ddot{x}} : - \ddot{\ddot{x}} : - \\ R = \ddot{\ddot{x}} : - \ddot{\ddot{x}$$

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## S<sub>N</sub>1: Stereochemistry



The  $S_N 1$  reaction produces mixtures of enantiomers. There is usually more inversion than retention of configuration.

### **S<sub>N</sub>1: Rearrangements**

- Carbocations can rearrange to form a more stable carbocation.
- Hydride shift: H- on adjacent carbon bonds with C+.
- Methyl shift: CH<sub>3</sub>- moves from adjacent carbon <u>if</u> no hydrogens are available.

# S<sub>N</sub>1 or S<sub>N</sub>2 mechanism?

S <sub>N</sub> 2	S <sub>N</sub> 1
CH <sub>3</sub> X > 1° > 2°	3° > 2°
Strong nucleophile	Weak nucleophile (may also be solvent)
Polar aprotic solvent	Polar protic solvent.
Rate = k[alkyl halide][Nuc]	Rate = k[alkyl halide]
Inversion at chiral carbon	Racemization
No rearrangements	Rearranged products

### Alkyl halides

#### **Reactivity: ELIMINATION**

#### Elimination

- Elimination reactions produce double bonds.
- · The alkyl halide loses a hydrogen and the halide.
- · Also called dehydrohalogenation (-HX).

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

#### Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

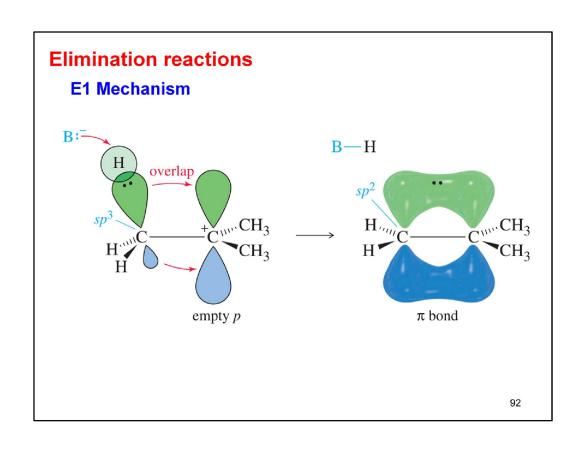
#### Notes:

#### E1 Mechanism

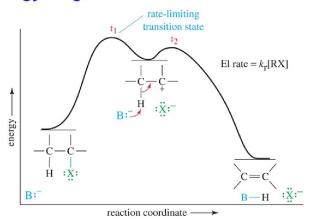
- · Unimolecular elimination.
- Two groups lost: a hydrogen and the halide.
- · Nucleophile acts as base.
- The E1 and  $\rm S_N1$  reactions have the same conditions so a mixture of products will be obtained.

#### E1 Mechanism

- Step 1: halide ion leaves, forming a carbocation.
- Step 2: Base abstracts H<sup>+</sup> from adjacent carbon forming the double bond.



## E1 Energy diagram



The E1 and the  $\rm S_{N}1$  reactions have the same first step: carbocation formation is the rate determining step for both mechanisms.

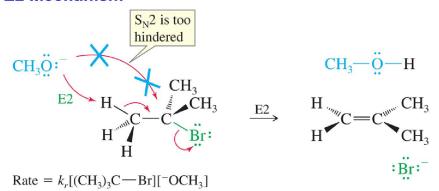
### **Double bond substitution patterns**

- The more substituted double bond is more stable.
- If more than one elimination product is possible, the most-substituted alkene is the major product (most stable).

### **E2 Mechanism**

- Elimination, bimolecular
- · Requires a strong base
- This is a concerted reaction: the proton is abstracted, the double bond forms and the leaving group leaves, all in one step.

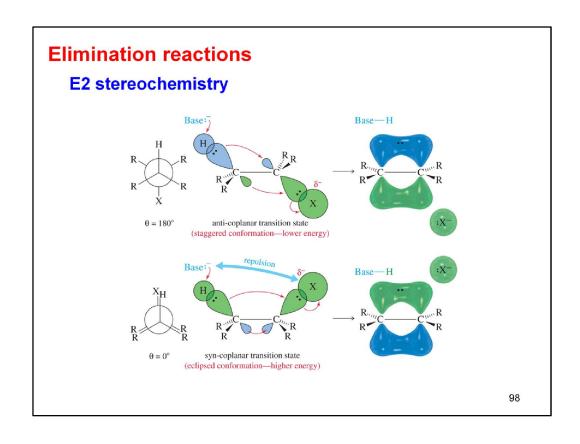
### **E2 Mechanism**



- Order of reactivity for alkyl halides:
   3° > 2° > 1°
- Mixture may form, but Zaitsev product predominates.

### **E2** stereochemistry

- The halide and the proton to be abstracted must be anti-coplanar ( $\theta$ =180°) to each other for the elimination to occur.
- The orbitals of the hydrogen atom and the halide must be aligned so they can begin to form a pi bond in the transition state.
- The anti-coplanar arrangement minimizes any steric hindrance between the base and the leaving group.



#### E1 or E2 Mechanism?

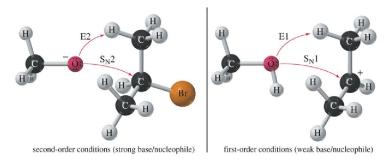
- Tertiary > Secondary
- Base strength unimportant (usually weak)
- Good ionizing solvent
- Rate = *k*[alkyl halide]
- · More substituted product
- No required geometry
- Rearranged products

- Tertiary > Secondary
- · Strong base required
- Solvent polarity not important.
- Rate = *k*[alkylhalide][base]
- More substituted product
- Coplanar leaving groups (usually anti)
- No rearrangements

- Strength of the nucleophile determines order: Strong nucleophiles or bases promote bimolecular reactions.
- Primary halide usually undergo S<sub>N</sub>2.
- Tertiary halide mixture of  $S_N1$ , E1 or E2. They cannot undergo  $S_N2$ .
- High temperature favors elimination.
- · Bulky bases favor elimination.

### **Secondary Alkyl Halides**

- · Secondary alkyl halides are more challenging:
  - Strong nucleophiles will promote S<sub>N</sub>2/E2
  - Weak nucleophiles promote S<sub>N</sub>1/E1
- Strong nucleophiles with limited basicity favor S<sub>N</sub>2.
   Bromide and iodide are good examples of these.



Predict the mechanisms and products of the following reaction.

$$CH_3$$
  $CH_3OH$ 

#### Solution

1-bromo-1-methylcyclohexane

There is no strong base or nucleophile present, so this reaction must be first order, with an ionization of the alkyl halide as the slow step. Deprotonation of the carbocation gives either of two elimination products, and nucleophilic attack gives a substitution product.

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Predict the mechanisms and products of the following reaction.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{Br} \\
 & \text{I} \\
\text{CH}_{3} - \text{CH} - \text{CH}_{2}\text{CH}_{2}\text{CH}_{2}\text{CH}_{3} \\
 & \text{2-bromohexane}
\end{array}$$
NaOCH<sub>3</sub>

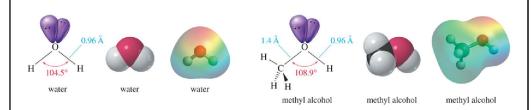
$$\xrightarrow{\text{CH}_{3}\text{OH}}$$

#### Solution

This reaction takes place with a strong base, so it is second order. This secondary halide can undergo both  $\rm S_N 2$  substitution and E2 elimination. Both products will be formed, with the relative proportions of substitution and elimination depending on the reaction conditions.

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#### Structure of water and methanol



- Oxygen is  $sp^3$  hybridized and tetrahedral.
- The H—O—H angle in water is 104.5°.
- The C—O—H angle in methyl alcohol is 108.9°.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

#### Classification

- Primary alcohol: carbon to which OH is bonded is attached to only one other carbon.
- Secondary alcohol: carbon to which OH is bonded is attached to two other carbons.
- Tertiary alcohol: carbon to which OH is bonded is attached to three other carbon.
- · Aromatic (phenol): OH is bound to a benzene ring



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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

#### **Boiling point**

- Alcohols have higher boiling points than ethers and alkanes because alcohols can form hydrogen bonds.
- The stronger interaction between alcohol molecules will require more energy to break them resulting in a higher boiling point.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

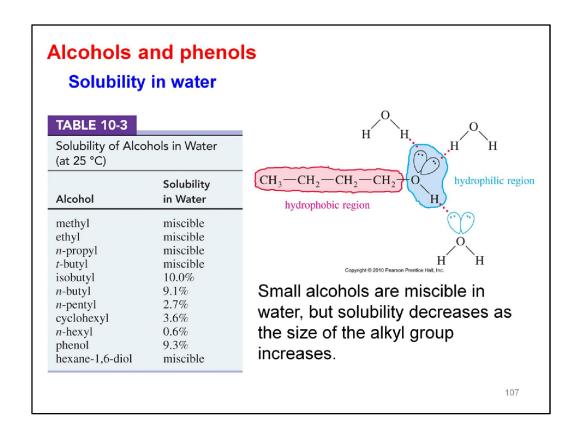


Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

### **Reactivity: ACIDITY**

#### **TABLE 10-4**

Acid-Dissociation Constants of Representative Alcohols					
Alcohol	Structure	K <sub>a</sub>	р <i>К</i> а		
methanol	СН3—ОН	$3.2 \times 10^{-16}$	15.5		
ethanol	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> —OH	$1.3 \times 10^{-16}$	15.9		
2-chloroethanol	Cl—CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> —OH	$5.0 \times 10^{-15}$	14.3		
2,2,2-trichloroethanol	$Cl_3C-CH_2-OH$	$6.3 \times 10^{-13}$	12.2		
isopropyl alcohol	$(CH_3)_2CH$ —OH	$3.2 \times 10^{-17}$	16.5		
tert-butyl alcohol	$(CH_3)_3C$ — OH	$1.0 \times 10^{-18}$	18.0		
cyclohexanol	$C_6H_{11}$ — OH	$1.0 \times 10^{-18}$	18.0		
phenol	$C_6H_5$ —OH	$1.0 \times 10^{-10}$	10.0		
	Comparison with Other Ac	ids			
water	$H_2O$	$1.8 \times 10^{-16}$	15.7		
acetic acid	CH₃COOH	$1.6 \times 10^{-5}$	4.8		
hydrochloric acid	HCI	$1 \times 10^{+7}$	-7		

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

#### Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## Alcohols and phenols

### **Reactivity: ACIDITY**

Phenol is more acidic than aliphatic alcohols due to the ability of aromatic rings to delocalize the negative charge of the oxygen within the carbons of the ring.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

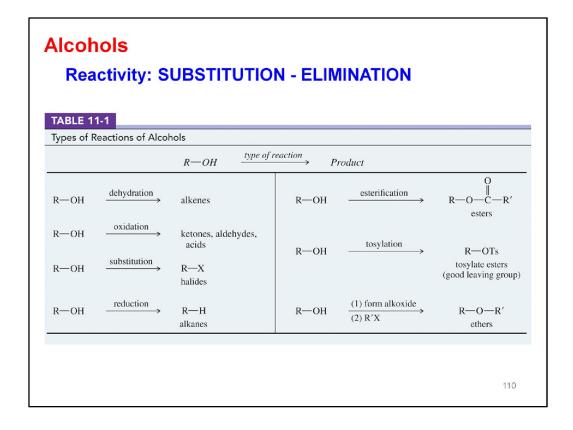


Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

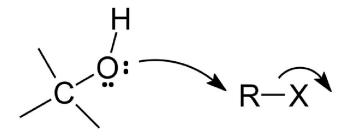
### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

### **Alcohols**

## Reactivity: alcohol as a nucleophile



- ROH is a weak nucleophile.
- RO is a strong nucleophile.
- New O—C bond forms; O—H bond breaks.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

#### Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

### **Alcohols**

### Reactivity: alcohol as an electrophile

$$R - O \stackrel{\xi}{\stackrel{\xi}{\circ}} H + HO \stackrel{\xi}{\stackrel{\xi}{\circ}} S - CH_3 \iff R - O - S - CH_3 + H_2O$$

$$TsOH \qquad alkyl tosylate, ROTs$$

$$p-toluenesulfonic acid \qquad ap-toluenesulfonate ester$$

- OH- is not a good leaving group.
- Protonation of the hydroxyl group converts it into a good leaving group (H<sub>2</sub>O).
- Alcohols can be converted to a tosylate ester.
- · The tosylate group is an excellent leaving group.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

## 

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

### Notes:

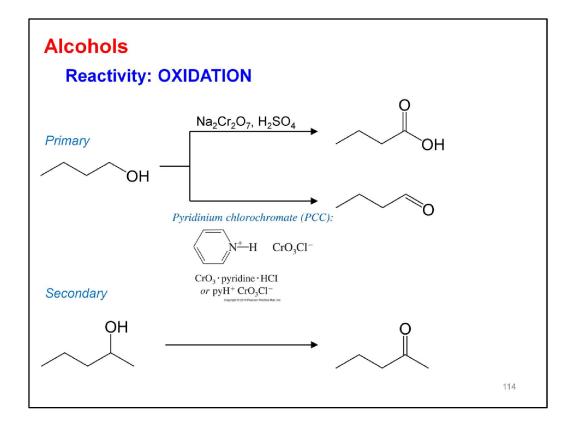


Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

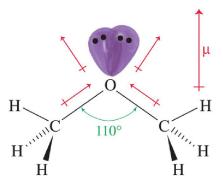
### Notes:

# **General formula**

- Formula is R—O—R' where R and R' are alkyl or aryl.
- Symmetrical or unsymmetrical

# **Structure and polarity**

- Oxygen is  $sp^3$  hybridized.
- Bent molecular geometry.
- C—O—C angles is 110°.
- Polar C—O bonds.
- Dipole moment of 1.3 D.



# **Boiling points**

## Similar to alkanes of comparable molecular weight.

### TABLE 14-1

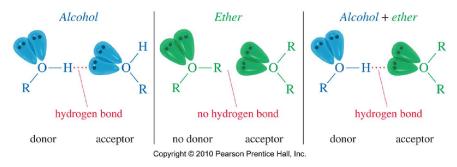
Comparison of the Boiling Points of Ethers, Alkanes, and Alcohols of Similar Molecular Weights

Compound	Formula	MW	bp (°C)	Dipole Moment (D)
water	H <sub>2</sub> O	18	100	1.9
ethanol	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> −OH	46	78	1.7
dimethyl ether	$CH_3 - O - CH_3$	46	-25	1.3
propane	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	44	-42	0.1
<i>n</i> -butanol	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> —OH	74	118	1.7
tetrahydrofuran	$\bigcirc$	72	66	1.6
diethyl ether	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> -O-CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	74	35	1.2
pentane	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>	72	36	0.1

*Note*: The alcohols are hydrogen bonded, giving them much higher boiling points. The ethers have boiling points that are closer to those of alkanes with similar molecular weights.

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## Hydrogen bond acceptor



- Ethers cannot hydrogen-bond with other ether molecules.
- Molecules that cannot hydrogen-bond intermolecularly have a lower boiling point.
- Ether molecules can hydrogen-bond with water and alcohol molecules.

## **Ether complexes**

 Grignard reagents: Complexation of an ether with a Grignard reagent stabilizes the reagent and helps keep it in solution.

 Electrophiles: The ethers nonbonding electrons stabilize the borane (BH<sub>3</sub>).

# Williamson synthesis

$$R - \ddot{\ddot{\bigcirc}} : \overline{\phantom{A}} R' - \ddot{\ddot{\Box}} : \longrightarrow R - \ddot{\ddot{\bigcirc}} - R' + : \ddot{\ddot{\Box}} : \overline{\phantom{A}}$$

The alkoxide is commonly made by adding  $Na,\,K,\,$  or NaH to the alcohol (Section 11-14).

### Examples

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{OH} & & \text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3 \\ & & \text{(2)} & \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OTs} \end{array} & & \text{ethoxycyclohexane} \\ & & \text{OH} & & \text{OCH}_3 \end{array}$$

OH OCH<sub>3</sub>

$$(1) \text{ NaH}$$

$$(2) \text{ CH}_3\text{I}$$
2-methoxy-3,3-dimethylpentane} (90%)

# **Alkoxymercuration–Demercuration Reaction**

$$C = C \qquad \xrightarrow{\text{Hg(OAc)}_2} \qquad \xrightarrow{\text{PROH}} \qquad \xrightarrow{\text{PROH}_4} \qquad \xrightarrow{\text{PROH}_$$

Use mercuric acetate with an alcohol. The alcohol will react with the intermediate mercurinium ion by attacking the more substituted carbon (Markovnikov's rule).

# **Industrial ether synthesis**

- Industrial method, not good lab synthesis.
- If temperature is too high, alkene forms.

$$CH_3CH_2-O-H+H-O-CH_2CH_3 \xrightarrow{H_2SO_4} CH_3CH_2-O-CH_2CH_3$$

### **Autoxidation of ethers**

$$R - O - CH_2 - R' \qquad \xrightarrow{excess \ O_2 \\ ether} \qquad R - O - CH - R' \qquad + \qquad R - O - CH_2 - R' \\ \qquad hydroperoxide \qquad \qquad dialkyl peroxide$$

- In the presence of atmospheric oxygen, ethers slowly oxidize to hydroperoxides and dialkyl peroxides. Both are highly explosive.
- · Precautions:
  - > Do not distill to dryness.
  - > Store in full bottles with tight caps.

# **Epoxides**

# **Cyclic ethers**

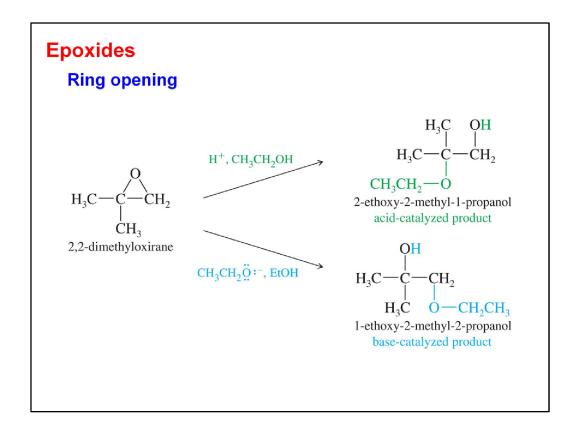
- Epoxides (oxiranes)  $\stackrel{\mathrm{O}}{\underset{\mathrm{H_2C-CH_2}}{\sim}}$
- Oxetanes
- Furans (Oxolanes )
- Pyrans (Oxanes )
- Dioxanes

# **Epoxides**

# **Synthesis**

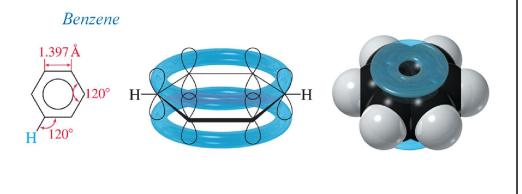
### Reaction with peroxyacids

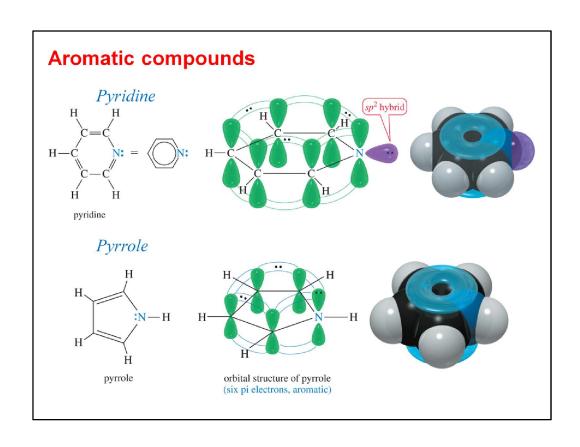
### Halohydrin cyclization

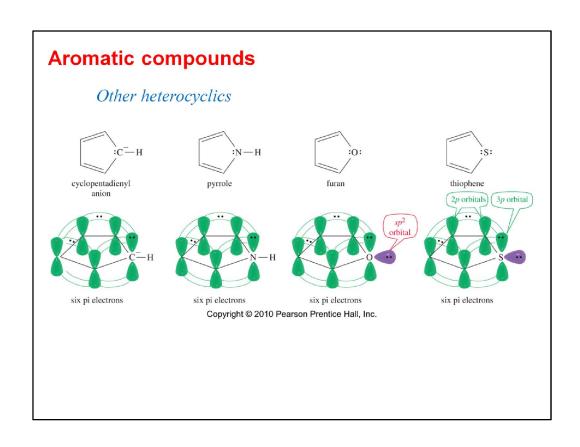


## Hückel's Rule

If the number of pi electrons is (4N + 2) the compound is aromatic (where N is an integer)







## **Physical properties**

- Melting points: More symmetrical than corresponding alkane, pack better into crystals, so higher melting points.
- Boiling points: Dependent on dipole moment, so *ortho* > *meta* > *para*, for disubstituted benzenes.
- Density: More dense than non-aromatics, less dense than water.
- · Solubility: Generally insoluble in water.

# **Reactivity: HALOGENATION**

### **NITRATION**

$$\begin{array}{c|c} & & & \\ \hline & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline & \\$$

## **SULFONATION**

# Reactivity: FRIEDEL-CRAFTS ALKYLATION

## FRIEDEL-CRAFTS ACYLATION

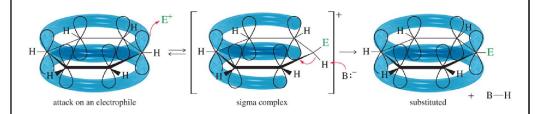
## **General mechanism**

Step 1: Attack on the electrophile forms the sigma complex.

sigma complex (arenium ion)

Step 2: Loss of a proton gives the substitution product.

### Reactivity: ELECTROPHYLIC SUBSTITUTION



- Although benzene's pi electrons are in a stable aromatic system, they are available to attack a strong electrophile to give a carbocation.
- This resonance-stabilized carbocation is called a sigma complex because the electrophile is joined to the benzene ring by a new sigma bond.
- Aromaticity is regained by loss of a proton.

## **Bromination of benzene**

**Bromination of benzene: Step 1** 

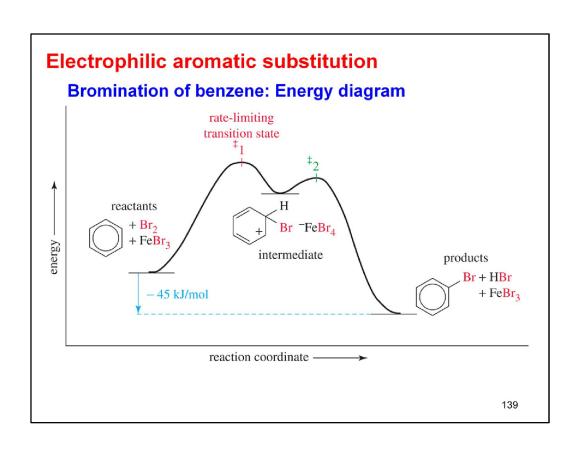
(stronger electrophile than Br<sub>2</sub>)

- Before the electrophilic aromatic substitution can take place, the electrophile must be activated.
- A strong Lewis acid catalyst, such as FeBr<sub>3</sub>, should be used.

Bromination of benzene: Steps 2 & 3

## Step 2: Electrophilic attack and formation of the sigma complex.

## Step 3: Loss of a proton to give the products.



## **Chlorination and Iodination**

- Chlorination is similar to bromination. AlCl<sub>3</sub> is most often used as catalyst, but FeCl<sub>3</sub> will also work.
- Iodination requires an acidic oxidizing agent, like nitric acid, to produce iodide cation.

$$H^+ + HNO_3 + \frac{1}{2}I_2 \longrightarrow I^+ + NO_2 + H_2O$$

### **Nitration of toluene**

- Toluene reacts 25 times faster than benzene.
- The methyl group is an activator.
- The product mix contains mostly *ortho* and *para* substituted molecules.

## **Ortho and Para Substitution**

Ortho attack

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{H} \\ \text{NO}_2 \\ \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{NO}_2 \\ \text{H} \\ \end{array} \longleftrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{NO}_2 \\ \text{H} \\ \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{NO}_2 \\ \text{H} \\ \end{array}$$

Para attack

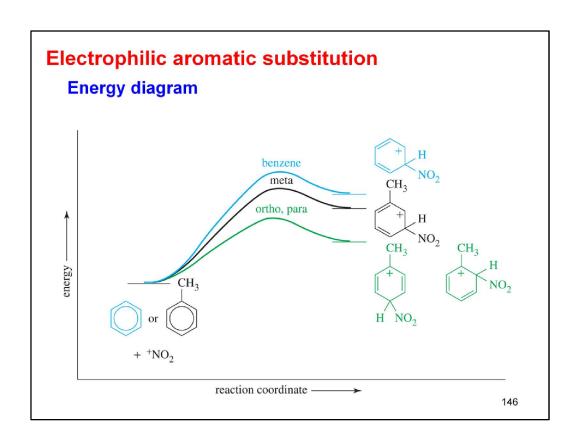
*Ortho* and *para* attacks are preferred because their resonance structures include one tertiary carbocation.

#### **Meta Substitution**

Meta attack

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NO}_2 \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NO}_2 \end{array} \longleftrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NO}_2 \end{array} \longleftrightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NO}_2 \end{array}$$

When substitution occurs at the meta position, the positive charge is not delocalized onto the tertiary carbon, and the methyl groups has a smaller effect on the stability of the sigma complex.



#### **Alkyl Group Stabilization**

- Alkyl groups are activating substituents and ortho, para-directors.
- This effect is called the *inductive effect* because alkyl groups can donate electron density to the ring through the sigma bond, making them more active.

#### **Substituents with Non Bonding Electrons**

Ortho attack

$$\overset{: \ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}{\underset{+}{\text{NO}_2}} \longrightarrow \overset{: \ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}{\underset{+}{\text{NO}_2}} \longleftrightarrow \overset{\overset{\overset{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}}{\underset{+}{\text{NO}_2}} \longleftrightarrow \overset{: \ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}{\underset{+}{\text{N$$

Para attack

Resonance stabilization is provided by a pi bond between the —OCH<sub>3</sub> substituent and the ring.

#### **Substituents with Non Bonding Electrons**

Meta attack

$$\overset{: \ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}{\underset{+}{\text{NO}_2}} \longrightarrow \overset{: \ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}{\underset{+}{\text{NO}_2}} \stackrel{: \ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}{\underset{+}{\text{NO}_2}} \stackrel{: \ddot{\text{O}}\text{CH}_3}{\underset{+}{\text{NO}_2}}$$

Resonance forms show that the methoxy group cannot stabilize the sigma complex in the meta substitution.

#### **Bromination of anisole**

A methoxy group is so strongly activating that anisole is quickly tribrominated without a catalyst.

#### **Bromination of aniline**

- Aniline reacts with bromine water (without a catalyst) to yield the tribromoaniline.
- Sodium bicarbonate is added to neutralize the HBr that is also formed.

#### **Summary of activators**

Groups

$$-\ddot{\odot}:^{-} > -\ddot{N}-R > -\ddot{\odot}-H > -\ddot{\odot}-R > -\ddot{N}-C-R > -R \\ \text{(no lone pairs)}$$

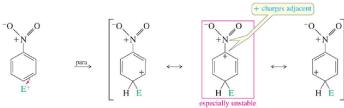
Compounds

#### **Nitration of nitrobenzene**

- Electrophilic substitution reactions for nitrobenzene are 100,000 times <u>slower</u> than for benzene.
- The product mix contains mostly the meta isomer, only small amounts of the ortho and para isomers.

# Ortho and Para Substitution

Para attack

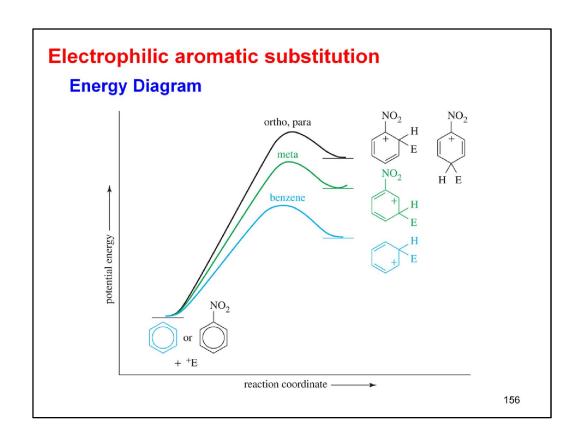


- The nitro group is a strongly deactivating group when considering its resonance forms. The nitrogen always has a formal positive charge.
- Ortho or para addition will create an especially unstable intermediate.

#### **Meta Substitution**

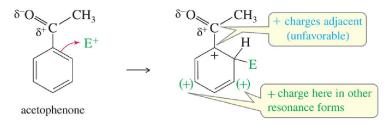
#### Meta attack

• Meta substitution will not put the positive charge on the same carbon that bears the nitro group.



#### Ortho attack of acetophenone

Ortho attack



- In ortho and para substitution of acetophenone, one of the carbon atoms bearing the positive charge is the carbon attached to the partial positive carbonyl carbon.
- Since like charges repel, this close proximity of the two positive charges is especially unstable.

#### Meta attack of acetophenone

#### Meta attack

 The meta attack on acetophenone avoids bearing the positive charge on the carbon attached to the partial positive carbonyl.

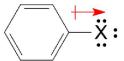
#### **Deactivators and meta-directors**

- Most electron withdrawing groups are deactivators and meta-directors.
- The atom attached to the aromatic ring has a positive or partial positive charge.
- Electron density is withdrawn inductively along the sigma bond, so the ring has less electron density than benzene and thus, it will be slower to react.

#### **Nitration of chlorobenzene**

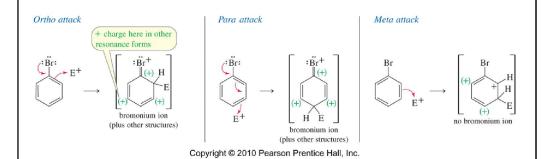
 When chlorobenzene is nitrated the main substitution products are ortho and para. The meta substitution product is only obtained in 1% yield.

**Halogens are deactivators** 

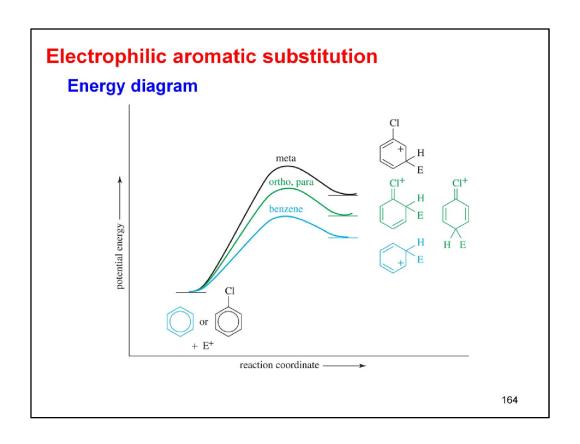


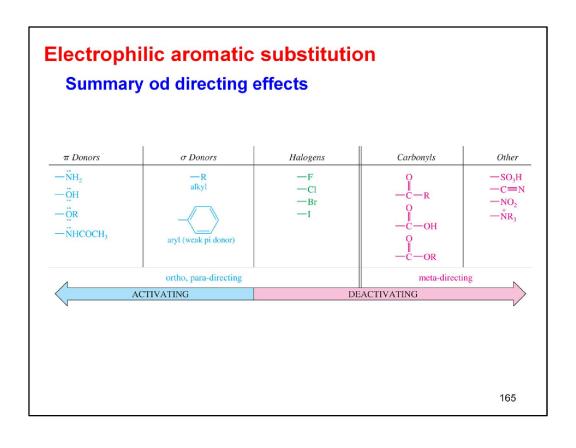
 Inductive Effect: Halogens are deactivating because they are electronegative and can withdraw electron density from the ring along the sigma bond.

#### Halogens are ortho, para-directors



 Resonance Effect: The lone pairs on the halogen can be used to stabilize the sigma complex by resonance.



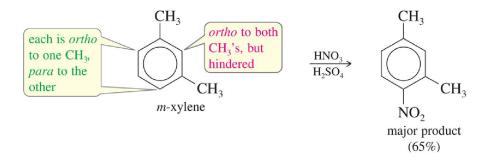


#### Effect of multiple substituents

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{ortho to CH}_3 \\ \text{meta to NO}_2 \\ \text{NO}_2 \\ p\text{-nitrotoluene} \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{NO}_2 \\ \text{NO}_2 \\ \text{major product} \\ (99\%) \\ \end{array}$$

The directing effect of the two (or more) groups may reinforce each other.

#### Effect of multiple substituents



The position in between two groups in Positions 1 and 3 is hindered for substitution, and it is less reactive.

#### Effect of multiple substituents

#### major products obtained

If directing effects oppose each other, the most powerful activating group has the dominant influence.

#### **Problem 1**

Predict the major product(s) of bromination of *p*-chloroacetanilide.

$$CI \longrightarrow \ddot{\ddot{N}} - \ddot{\ddot{N}} - C - CH_3$$

#### Solution

The amide group (-NHCOCH<sub>3</sub>) is a strong activating and directing group because the nitrogen atom with its nonbonding pair of electrons is bonded to the aromatic ring. The amide group is a stronger director than the chlorine atom, and substitution occurs mostly at the positions ortho to the amide. Like an alkoxyl group, the amide is a particularly strong activating group, and the reaction gives some of the dibrominated product.

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#### **Friedel-Crafts alkylation**

- Synthesis of alkyl benzenes from alkyl halides and a Lewis acid, usually AlCl<sub>3</sub>.
- Reactions of alkyl halide with Lewis acid produces a carbocation, which is the electrophile.

#### **Mechanism of Friedel-Crafts alkylation**

Friedel-Crafts alkylation: protonation of alkenes

- · An alkene can be protonated by HF.
- This weak acid is preferred because the fluoride ion is a weak nucleophile and will not attack the carbocation.

Friedel-Crafts alkylation: alcohols and Lewis acids

Formation of the cation

Alcohols can be treated with BF<sub>3</sub> to form the carbocation.

Friedel-Crafts alkylation: limitations

- Reaction fails if benzene has a substituent that is more deactivating than halogens.
- Rearrangements are possible.
- The alkylbenzene product is more reactive than benzene, so polyalkylation occurs.

### Friedel-Crafts alkylation: rearrangements

Ionization with rearrangement gives isopropyl cation

$$CH_{3}-CH_{2}-CH_{2}-CI+AlCl_{3}\iff CH_{3}-\overset{\delta^{+}}{C}-\overset{\delta^{+}}{CH_{2}}-\overset{\delta^{-}}{C}I--\overset{\delta^{-}}{AlCl_{3}} \longrightarrow CH_{3}-\overset{c}{C}-CH_{3}+\overset{-}{-}AlCl_{4}$$

Reaction with benzene gives isopropylbenzene

$$CH_3$$
 $CH_3$ 
 $CH_3$ 

#### **Problem 2**

Devise a synthesis of *p*-nitro-*t*-butylbenzene from benzene.

#### Solution

To make p-nitro-t-butylbenzene, we would first use a Friedel-Crafts reaction to make t-butylbenzene. Nitration gives the correct product. If we were to make nitrobenzene first, the Friedel-Crafts reaction to add the t-butyl group would fail.

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#### **Friedel-Crafts acylation**

- Acyl chloride is used in place of alkyl chloride.
- The product is a phenyl ketone that is less reactive than benzene.

Friedel-Crafts alkylation: mechanism

Step 1: Formation of the acylium ion.

Step 2: Electrophilic attack to form the sigma complex.

$$\begin{array}{c}
O \\
\parallel \\
C^{+} \\
R
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
C \\
H \\
\text{sigma complex}
\end{array}$$

#### Aldehydes and ketones

#### **CARBONYL** structure

		length	energy
R	ketone C=O bond	1.23 Å	745 kJ/mol (178 kcal/mol)
120° C O	alkene C=C bond	1.34 Å	611 kJ/mol (146 kcal/mol)

- Carbon is sp<sup>2</sup> hybridized.
- C=O bond is shorter, stronger, and more polar than C=C bond in alkenes.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

#### Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

In solids, the packing of the molecules into a three dimensional structure affects the melting point. When molecules can pack in neat order avoiding empty pockets the melting point will be higher than when the packing is not ordered. Alkanes with an even number of carbons pack better than those with an odd number of carbons.

#### Aldehydes and ketones

#### **Boiling points**

- Ketones and aldehydes are more polar, so they have a higher boiling point than comparable alkanes or ethers.
- They cannot hydrogen-bond to each other, so their boiling point is lower than comparable alcohol.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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Melting Points of Alkanes

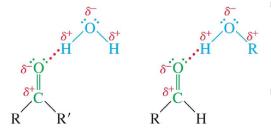
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# Aldehydes and ketones Solubility



- Good solvent for alcohols.
- Lone pair on oxygen of carbonyl can accept a hydrogen bond from O—H or N—H.
- Acetone and acetaldehyde are miscible in water.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## **Industrial importance**

- Acetone and methyl ethyl ketone are important solvents.
- Formaldehyde is used in polymers like Bakelite<sup>®</sup>.
- Flavorings and additives like vanilla, cinnamon, and artificial butter.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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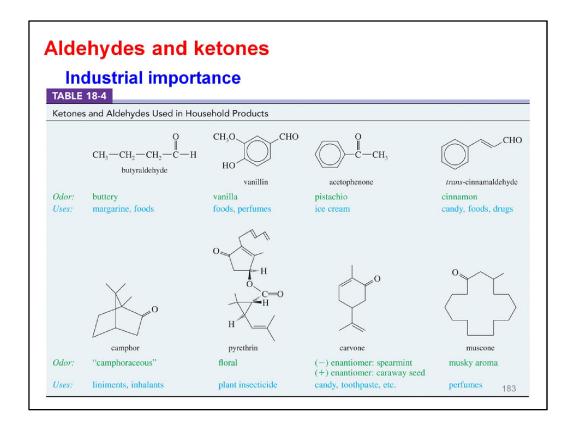


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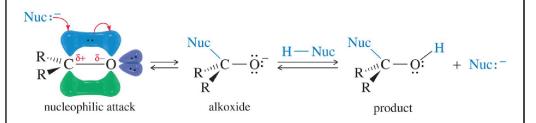
Melting Points of Alkanes

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Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

#### Reactivity: NUCLEOPHYLIC ADDITION



- A strong nucleophile attacks the carbonyl carbon, forming an alkoxide ion that is then protonated.
- Aldehydes are more reactive than ketones.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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Melting Points of Alkanes

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Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## **Reactivity: HYDRATION**

$$R'$$
 $C = O + H_2O \iff R'$ 
 $R = \frac{[hydrate]}{[ketone][H_2O]}$ 
 $K = \frac{[hydrate]}{[ketone][H_2O]}$ 
 $R = \frac{[hydrate]}{[ketone][H_2O]}$ 

#### Example

$$CH_3$$
— $C$ — $CH_3$  +  $H_2O$   $\iff$   $CH_3$ — $C$ — $CH_3$   $K = 0.002$  acetone hydrate

- In an aqueous solution, a ketone or an aldehyde is in equilibrium with its hydrate, a geminal diol.
- With ketones, the equilibrium favors the unhydrated keto form (carbonyl).

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

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Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## **Reactivity: CIANOHYDRIN FORMATION**

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- Attack by cyanide ion on the carbonyl group, followed by protonation of the intermediate.
- HCN is highly toxic.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

#### **Reactivity: IMINE FORMATION**

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ \parallel \\ C \\ \text{ketone or aldehyde} \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} R - \ddot{N}H_2 \\ \text{primary amine} \end{array} \stackrel{H^+}{\Longleftrightarrow} \begin{array}{c} OH \\ -C \\ R - \ddot{N} - H \end{array} \qquad \Longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} C \\ R - \ddot{N} \\ \text{carbinolamine} \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} H_2O \\ \text{mining (Schiff base)} \end{array}$$

- Ammonia or a primary amine reacts with a ketone or an aldehyde to form an imine.
- Imines are nitrogen analogues of ketones and aldehydes with a C=N bond in place of the carbonyl group.
- Optimum pH is around 4.5

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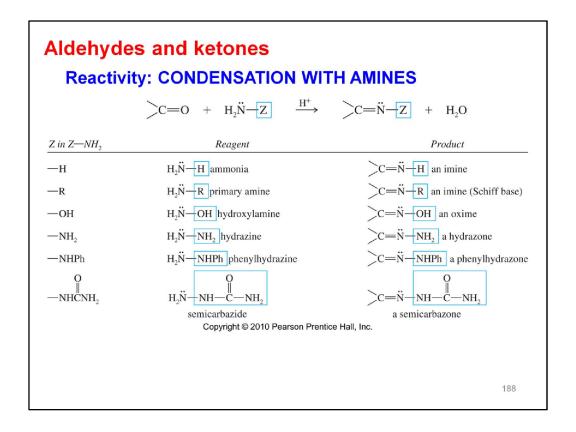


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## **Reactivity: FORMATION OF ACETAL**

- Addition of a diol produces a cyclic acetal.
- The reaction is reversible.
- This reaction is used in synthesis to protect carbonyls from reaction

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## **Reactivity: OXIDATION**

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ R-C-H \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} O \\ \hline (oxidizing agent) \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} O \\ R-C-OH \end{array}$$

Aldehydes are easily oxidized to carboxylic acids.

No reaction on ketones.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## **Reactivity: REDUCTION**

aldehyde or ketone

$$R$$
  $R(H)$   $R$   $R(H)$   $R$   $R(H)$   $R$   $R(H)$   $R$   $R$   $R$ 

NaBH<sub>4</sub> can reduce aldehydes to primary alcohols and ketones to secondary alcohols but not esters, carboxylic acids, acyl chlorides, or amides.

$$R = R(H) \qquad \frac{\text{LiAIH}_4}{\text{ether}} \qquad R = R(H)$$

LiAlH<sub>4</sub> can reduce any carbonyl (aldehydes, ketones, carboxylic acids and derivatives) because it is a very strong reducing agent.

Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

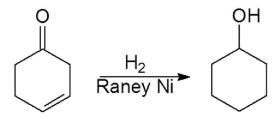
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Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

# **Reactivity: REDUCTION**

## **Catalytic Hydrogenation**



- · Widely used in industry.
- Raney nickel is finely divided Ni powder saturated with hydrogen gas.
- It will attack the alkene first, then the carbonyl.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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Melting Points of Alkanes

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Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## Reactivity: CLEMMENSEN REDUCTION

$$CH_2$$
— $CH_2$ — $CH_3$ — $CH_2$ — $CH_3$ —

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

## **Reactivity: WOLFF-KISHNER REDUCTION**

- Forms hydrazone, then heat with strong base like KOH or potassium tert-butoxide.
- Use a high-boiling solvent: ethylene glycol, diethylene glycol, or DMSO.
- A molecule of nitrogen is lost in the last steps of the reaction.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

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Melting Points of Alkanes

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Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

- Tautomerization is an interconversion of isomers that occur through the migration of a proton and the movement of a double bond.
- Tautomers are not resonance form.

## **Base-catalyzed tautomerism**

- In the presence of strong bases, ketones and aldehydes act as weak proton acids.
- A proton on the a carbon is abstracted to form a resonancestabilized enolate ion with the negative charge spread over a carbon atom and an oxygen atom.
- The equilibrium favors the keto form over the enolate ion.

## **Base-catalyzed tautomerism**

• In acid, a proton is moved from the  $\alpha$ -carbon to oxygen by first protonating oxygen and then removing a proton from the carbon.

#### **Racemization**

- For aldehydes and ketones, the keto form is greatly favored at equilibrium.
- If a chiral carbon has an enolizable hydrogen atom, a trace of acid or base allows that carbon to invert its configuration, with the enol serving as the intermediate. This is called *racemization*.

# Acidity of $\alpha$ Hydrogen

#### Example

The equilibrium mixture contains only a small fraction of the deprotonated, enolate form.

# Acidity of $\alpha$ Hydrogen

Example

When LDA reacts with a ketone, it abstracts the α-proton to form the lithium salt of the enolate.

# Acidity of $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ Hydrogen

TABLE 22-1		
Typical Acidities of Carbonyl Compounds		
Conjugate Acid	Conjugate Base	pK <sub>a</sub>
Simple ketones and esters		
O <sub>0</sub>	O O	
°CH <sub>3</sub> —C—CH <sub>3</sub>	-: CH,—C—CH,	20
acetone	2	
Q.	o o	
"CH3—C—OCH2CH3	O     -: CH,—C—OCH,CH,	24
ethyl acetate	,	
β-dicarbonyl compounds		
Q Q	Q Q	
O O      <sub>B</sub>	O O CH <sub>3</sub> —C—CH—C—CH <sub>3</sub>	9
2,4-pentanedione (acetylacetone)		
o o	o o	
$CH_3$ $CH_3$ $CH_2$ $CH_2$ $CH_3$ $CH_3$ $CH_3$ $CH_3$	O O             	11
ethyl acetoacetate (acetoacetic ester)	on, c on c ongen,	
0 0	0 0	
$ \begin{array}{cccc} O & O \\ \parallel \beta & \parallel \\ CH_1CH_2O - C - CH_2 - C - OCH_2CH_3 \end{array} $	CH CH O—C—CH—C—OCH CH	13
diethyl malonate (malonic ester)	engengo e en e oengeng	1.0
Commonly used bases (for comparison)		
н-о-н	-OH	15.7
water		
CH <sub>3</sub> O—H	CH <sub>z</sub> O <sup>-</sup>	15.5
methanol		
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> O—H	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> O <sup>-</sup>	15.9
ethanol		

# $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ Halogenation of ketones

- When a ketone is treated with a halogen and a base, an  $\alpha$  halogenation reaction occurs.
- The reaction is called **base-promoted**, rather than base-catalyzed, because a full equivalent of the base is consumed in the reaction.

# $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ Halogenation of ketones

- The base-promoted halogenation takes place by a nucleophilic attack of an enolate ion on the electrophilic halogen molecule.
- The products are the halogenated ketone and a halide ion.

# $\alpha$ Alkylation

- Because the enolate has two nucleophilic sites (the oxygen and the  $\alpha$  carbon), it can react at either of these sites.
- The reaction usually takes place primarily at the  $\alpha$ -carbon, forming a new C—C bond.

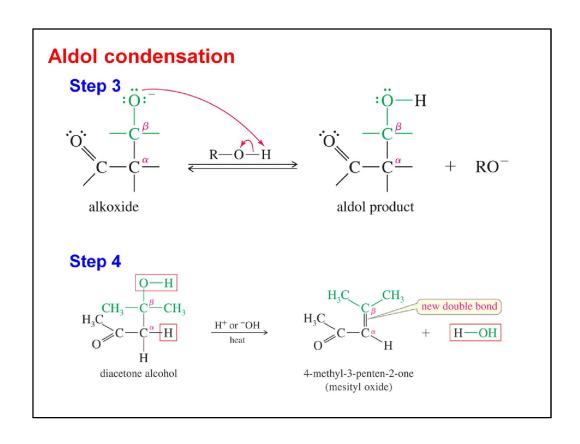
## **Aldol condensation**

The aldol condensation

- Under basic conditions, the aldol condensation involves the nucleophilic addition of an enolate ion to another carbonyl group.
- When the reaction is carried out at low temperatures, the  $\beta$ -hydroxy carbonyl compound can be isolated.
- Heating will dehydrate the aldol product to the  $\alpha \beta$  unsaturated compound.

# Aldol condensation Step 1

$$:\ddot{O} \qquad \qquad C - \ddot{C} \qquad + \quad -OH \iff \boxed{ \begin{array}{c} :O \\ \\ :O \\ \end{array}} \qquad C - \ddot{C} \qquad \longleftrightarrow \qquad C = C \boxed{ \\ + \quad H_2O \\ \end{array}$$
 enolate ion



# **Aldol condensation**

## **Crossed aldol condensation**

Enolate of ethanal adds to propanal

Enolate of propanal adds to ethanal

$$\begin{array}{cccc} O & OH \\ CH_3-C-H & \Longleftrightarrow & CH_3-C-H \\ CH_3-CH-CHO & CH_3-CH-CHO \end{array}$$

Self-condensation of ethanal

Self-condensation of propanal

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & & \text{OH} \\ & & & \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2 - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ & & \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2 - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ & & \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} - \text{CHO} \end{array}$$

# **Aldol condensation**

# Successful aldol condensation

Successful only if one carbonylic compounds has no H in  $\alpha$  position

#### **Biological activity of amines**

- · Dopamine is a neurotransmitter.
- · Epinephrine is a bioregulator.
- Niacin, Vitamin B<sub>6</sub>, is an amine.
- · Alkaloids: nicotine, morphine, cocaine
- · Amino acids

- The alkaloids are an important group of biologically active amines, mostly synthesized by plants to protect them from being eaten by insects and other animals.
- Many drugs of addiction are classified as alkaloids.

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Figure: 03\_04.jpg

Title:

Melting Points of Alkanes

#### Caption:

Alkane melting points. The melting point curve for *n*-alkanes with even numbers of carbon atoms is slightly higher than that for alkanes with odd numbers of carbons.

#### Notes:

#### Classification

• Primary (1°): Has one alkyl group bonded to the nitrogen (RNH<sub>2</sub>).

NH<sub>2</sub>

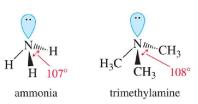
• Secondary (2°): Has two alkyl groups bonded to the nitrogen (R<sub>2</sub>NH).

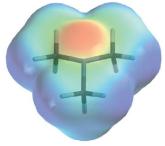
N H

• *Tertiary (3°)*: Has three alkyl groups bonded to the nitrogen (R<sub>3</sub>N).

• Quaternary (4°): Has four alkyl groups bonded to the nitrogen and the nitrogen bears a positive charge (R<sub>4</sub>N<sup>+</sup>).

## **Structure of amines**





electrostatic potential map for trimethylamine

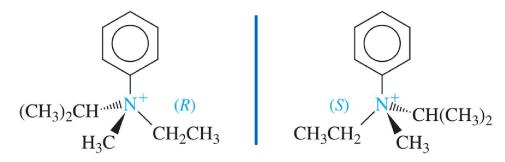
- Nitrogen is sp<sup>3</sup> hybridized with a lone pair of electrons.
- The angle is less than 109.5°.

## Interconversion of chiral amines

$$\begin{array}{c} sp^3 \text{ orbital} \\ \\ W \\ \text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3 \\ \\ (R) \text{-ethylmethylamine} \end{array} \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} p \text{ orbital} \\ \\ H \\ \hline \\ CH_2\text{CH}_3 \\ \\ CH_2\text{CH}_3 \\ \\ CH_2\text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} H \\ \hline \\ CH_3 \\ \\ CH_2\text{CH}_3 \\ \\ CH_2\text{CH}_3 \\ \\ \end{array}$$

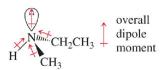
Nitrogen may have three different groups and a lone pair, but enantiomers cannot be isolated due to inversion around N.

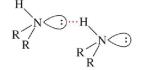
## Chiral quaternary ammonium salts

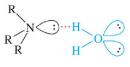


- Quaternary ammonium salts may have a chiral nitrogen atom if the four substituents are different.
- Inversion of configuration is not possible because there is no lone pair to undergo nitrogen inversion.

## **Boiling points**







1° or 2° amine: hydrogen bond donor and acceptor

3° amine: hydrogen bond acceptor only

- N—H less polar than O—H.
- Weaker hydrogen bonds, so amines will have a lower boiling point than the corresponding alcohol.
- Tertiary amines cannot hydrogen-bond, so they have lower boiling points than primary and secondary amines.

### Solubility and odor

- Small amines (< 6 Cs) are soluble in water.
- All amines accept hydrogen bonds from water and alcohol.
- · Branching increases solubility.
- · Most amines smell like rotting fish.

NH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>NH<sub>2</sub> 1,5-pentanediamine or cadaverine

### **Basicity of amines**

 Lone pair of electrons on nitrogen can accept a proton from an acid.

Reaction of an amine as a proton base

- · Aqueous solutions are basic to litmus.
- Ammonia p $K_b = 4.74$
- · Alkyl amines are usually stronger bases than ammonia.
- Increasing the number of alkyl groups decreases solvation of ion, so 2° and 3° amines are similar to 1° amines in basicity.

#### **Base-dissociation constants**

R—N: 
$$H$$
 + H—O—H  $\stackrel{K_b}{\longleftarrow}$  R— $\stackrel{H}{\stackrel{\downarrow}{\stackrel{\downarrow}{\longrightarrow}}}$  H + OH
$$K_b = \frac{[RNH_3^+][-OH]}{[RNH_2]} \qquad pK_b = -\log_{10}K_b$$

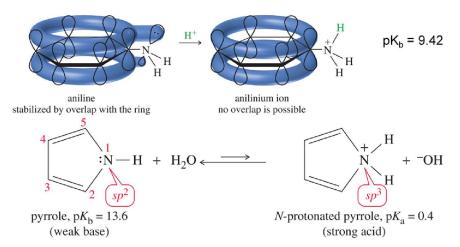
- An amine can abstract a proton from water, giving an ammonium ion and a hydroxide ion.
- The equilibrium constant for this reaction is called the base-dissociation constant for the amine, symbolized by K<sub>h</sub>.

### Alkyl groups stabilization of amines

H-N: 
$$H$$
 +  $H_2O$   $\Longrightarrow$   $H$  +  $H_2O$   $\Longrightarrow$   $H$  +  $H_3C$   $\Longrightarrow$   $H_3C$   $\Longrightarrow$   $H$  +  $H_4C$   $\Longrightarrow$   $H$  +  $H$  +

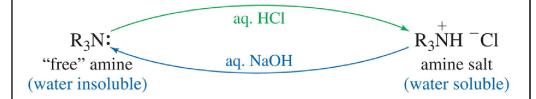
Alkyl groups make the nitrogen a stronger base than ammonia.

### **Resonance effect**



When protonated, stabilization by aromatic stabilization is lost.

### **Ammonium salts**

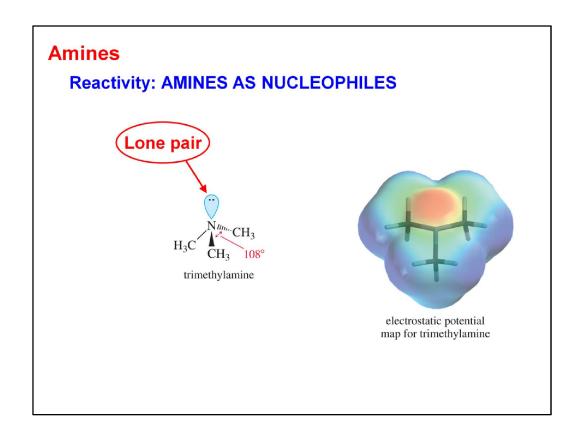


- · Ionic solids with high melting points.
- · Soluble in water.
- · No fishy odor.
- Amines purifications takes advantage of formation of ammonium salts.

### **Ammonium salts**

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} H & CH_3 &$$

- Cocaine is usually smuggled and "snorted" as the hydrochloride salt.
- Treating cocaine hydrochloride with sodium hydroxide and extracting it into ether converts it back to the volatile "free base" for smoking.



# Reactivity: CONSENSATION WITH CARBONYL

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ \downarrow \\ C \\ R \\ R' \\ \text{ketone or aldehyde} \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} Y \\ Y - \ddot{N}H_2 \\ \rightleftharpoons \\ C \\ R \\ C \\ R' \\ \text{carbinolamine} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} Y \\ \rightleftharpoons \\ R' \\ R' \\ \text{carbinolamine} \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} Y \\ \downarrow \\ R \\ R' \\ \text{derivative} \end{array}$$

Y = H or alkyl gives an imine (Schiff base)

Y = OHgives an oxime Y = NHR

### **Reactivity: ALKYLATION**

#### **NOT SELECTIVE**

Even if just one equivalent of the halide is added, some amine molecules will react once, some will react twice, and some will react three times (to give the tetraalkylammonium salt).

**Reactivity: ALKYLATION** 

# Examples of useful alkylation

Exhaustive alkylation to form the tetraalkylammonium salt.

Reaction with large excess of  $\mathrm{NH}_3$  to form the primary amine.

$$ightharpoonup Br 
ightharpoonup NH_3 exc. 
ightharpoonup NH_2$$

# Reactivity: HOFMANN ELIMINATION

- A quaternary ammonium salt has a good leaving group—a neutral amine.
- Heating the hydroxide salt produces the least substituted alkene.

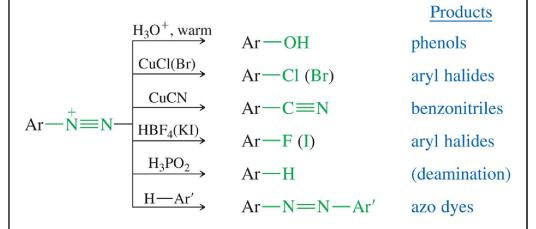
### **Reactivity: FORMATION OF DIAZONIUM SALTS**

$$R-NH_2 + NaNO_2 + 2 HCI \rightarrow R-N=N CI^- + 2 H_2O + NaCI$$

$$R-\stackrel{+}{N}\equiv N$$
  $\longrightarrow$   $R^+$  +  $N\equiv N$ 

- Primary amines react with nitrous acid (HNO<sub>2</sub>) to form dialkyldiazonium salts.
- The diazonium salts are unstable and decompose into carbocations and nitrogen.

### Reactivity: REACTIONS OF ARENEDIAZONIUM SALTS



By diazotizing an amine, an aromatic position can be converted into a wide variety of functional groups.

# Synthesis: REDUCTIVE AMINATION

### Primary amines

### Secondary amines

# Synthesis: REDUCTIVE AMINATION

### Tertiary amines

### **Synthesis: ACYLATION - REDUCTION**

### Primary amines

#### Secondary amines

#### Tertiary amines

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ R - C - C1 \\ \text{acid chloride} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{c} C \\ \text{secondary} \\ \text{amine} \end{array}} \begin{array}{c} O \\ R - C - \vec{N}R'_2 \\ N, N - \text{disubstituted} \end{array} \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{c} (1) \text{ LiAlH}_4 \\ (2) \text{ H}_2 O \end{array}} \begin{array}{c} R - CH_2 - \vec{N}R'_2 \\ 3^\circ \text{ amine} \end{array}$$

# Synthesis: REDUCTION OF NITRO COMPOUDS

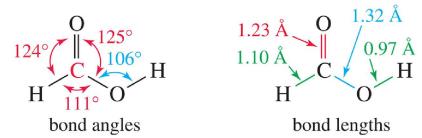
$$\begin{array}{ccc} R - NO_2 & \xrightarrow{H_2/\text{catalyst}} & R - NH_2 \\ & & & \\ & & \text{catalyst} = Ni, \, Pd, \, \text{or} \, Pt \\ & & \text{active metal} = Fe, \, Zn, \, \text{or} \, Sn \end{array}$$

#### Examples

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & \\ & & \\$$

# Synthesis: REDUCTION OF NITRILES

### **Structure of COOH group**



- The  $sp^2$  hybrid carbonyl carbon atom is planar, with nearly trigonal bond angles.
- The O—H bond also lies in this plane, eclipsed with the C=O bond.
- The  $sp^3$  oxygen has a C—O—H angle of 106°.

# **Structure of COOH group**

- Carbon is  $sp^2$  hybridized.
- Bond angles are close to 120°.
- O—H eclipsed with C=O, to get overlap of  $\pi$  orbital with orbital of lone pair on oxygen.

Physical properties: Boiling point

$$R-C$$
 $O \cdot \cdot \cdot H-O$ 
 $C-R$ 
 $O-H \cdot \cdot \cdot O$ 

hydrogen-bonded acid dimer

Higher boiling points than similar alcohols, due to the formation of a hydrogen-bonded dimer.

### **Physical properties: Melting point**

- Aliphatic acids with more than 8 carbons are solids at room temperature.
- Double bonds (especially cis) lower the melting point. The following acids all have 18 carbons:
  - Stearic acid (saturated): 72°C
  - Oleic acid (one cis double bond): 16°C
  - Linoleic acid (two cis double bonds): -5°C

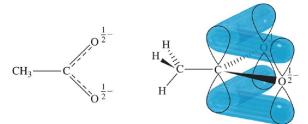
### **Solubility**

- Water solubility decreases with the length of the carbon chain.
- With up to 4 carbons, acid is miscible in water.
- Very soluble in alcohols.
- Also soluble in relatively nonpolar solvents like chloroform because the hydrogen bonds of the dimer are not disrupted by the nonpolar solvent.

### **Acidity**

- A carboxylic acid may dissociate in water to give a proton and a carboxylate ion.
- The equilibrium constant *K*<sub>a</sub> for this reaction is called the acid-dissociation constant.
- The acid will be mostly dissociated if the pH of the solution is higher than the pK<sub>a</sub> of the acid.

### **Acidity**



The delocalization of the negative charge over the two oxygens makes the acetate ion more stable than an alkoxide ion.

# Acidity: effect of substituents

The magnitude of a substituent effect depends on its distance from the carboxyl group.

### **Acidity: effect of substituents**

- Electron-withdrawing groups enhance the acid strength and electron-donating groups decrease the acid strength.
- Effects are strongest for substituents in the ortho and para positions.

# **Acidity: effect of substituents**

### TABLE 20-4

Values of  $K_a$  and p $K_a$  for Substituted Carboxylic Acids

Acid	K <sub>a</sub>	pK <sub>a</sub>
F <sub>3</sub> CCOOH	$5.9 \times 10^{-1}$	0.23
CÍ₃CCOOH	$2.3 \times 10^{-1}$	0.64 stronger acids
CI,CHCOOH	$5.5 \times 10^{-2}$	1.26
O <sub>2</sub> N—CH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$2.1 \times 10^{-2}$	1.68
NCCH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$3.4 \times 10^{-3}$	2.46
FCH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$2.6 \times 10^{-3}$	2.59
CICH₂COOH	$1.4 \times 10^{-3}$	2.86
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CHClCOOH	$1.4 \times 10^{-3}$	2.86
BrCH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$1.3 \times 10^{-3}$	2.90
ICH₂COOH	$6.7 \times 10^{-4}$	3.18
CH <sub>3</sub> OCH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$2.9 \times 10^{-4}$	3.54
HOCH₂COOH	$1.5 \times 10^{-4}$	3.83
CH3CHCICH3COOH	$8.9 \times 10^{-5}$	4.05
PhCOOH	$6.46 \times 10^{-5}$	4.19
PhCH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$4.9 \times 10^{-5}$	4.31
CICH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$3.0 \times 10^{-5}$	4.52
CH₃COOH	$1.8 \times 10^{-5}$	4.74
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> COOH	$1.5 \times 10^{-5}$	4.82

# **Synthesis**

### Oxidation

$$\begin{array}{c} R(alkyl) \\ \hline Z \\ an \ alkylbenzene \\ (Z \ must \ be \ oxidation-resistant) \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} Na_2Cr_2O_7, \ H_2SO_4, \ heat \\ \hline or \ KMnO_4, \ H_2O, \ heat \\ \hline Z \\ a \ benzoic \ acid \\ \end{array}$$

# **Synthesis**

Hydrolysis of nitriles

- Basic or acidic hydrolysis of a nitrile (—CN) produces a carboxylic acid.
- The overall reaction, starting from the alkyl halide, adds an extra carbon to the molecule.

# **Synthesis**

 $Grignard + CO_2$ 

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
Br & MgBr \\
\hline
 & ether
\end{array}$$

$$O = C = O$$

$$C = O - MgBr$$

$$C = O$$

- Grignard reagent react with CO<sub>2</sub> to produce, after protonation, a carboxylic acid.
- This reaction is sometimes called "CO<sub>2</sub> insertion" and it increases the number of carbons in the molecule by one.

# Reactivity: NUCLEOPHILIC ACYL SUBSTITUTION

Nucleophilic acyl substitution

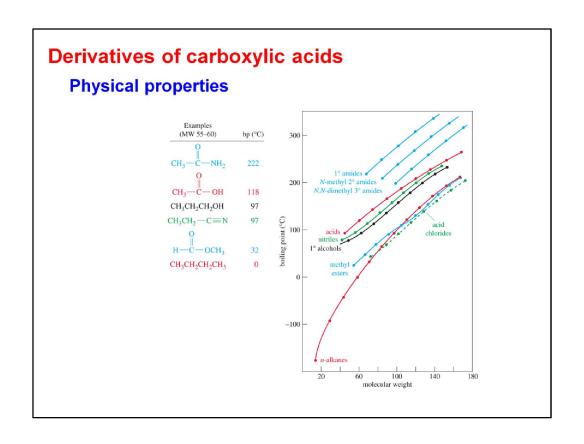
$$\overset{\cdot \circ}{0}$$
 $\parallel$ 
 $R-C-X + Nuc$ :
 $\longrightarrow$ 
 $R-C-Nuc + :X$ 

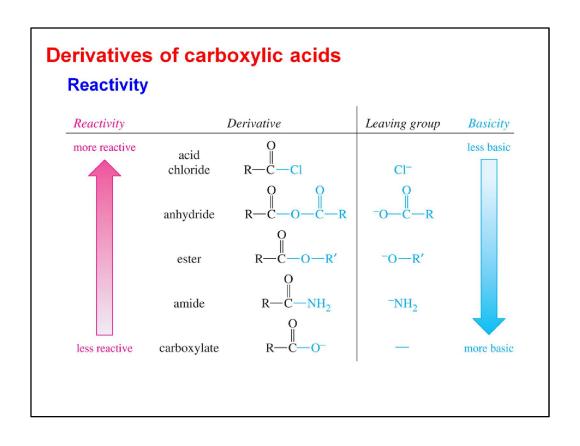
 Carboxylic acids react by nucleophilic acyl substitution, where one nucleophile replaces another on the acyl (C=O) carbon atom.

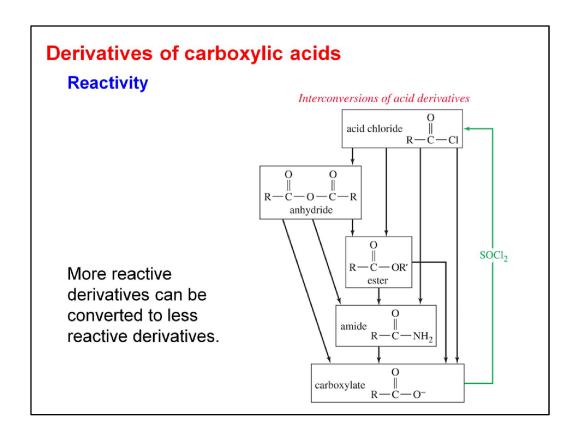
# 

# Derivatives of carboxylic acids

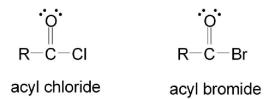
- All the derivatives can be converted to the carboxylic acid by acidic or basic hydrolysis.
- Esters and amides are commonly found in nature.







### **Acyl halides**



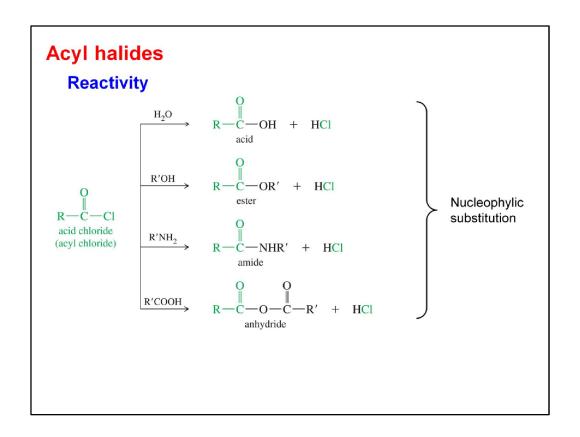
- Also called *acyl halides*.
- These are more reactive than carboxylic acids, so they are used to synthesize other acid derivatives such as esters and amides.
- Used in the Friedel–Crafts acylation to make acylbenzenes.

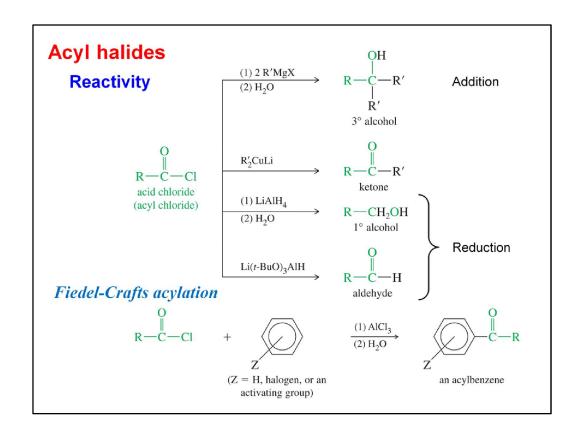
### **Acyl halides**

#### **Synthesis**

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ R-C-OH \end{array} \xrightarrow{\begin{array}{c} O \\ \parallel \\ Cl-S-Cl \end{array}} \begin{array}{c} O \\ \parallel \\ R-C-Cl \end{array} \\ + SO_2 + HCI \\ \text{(gaseous products)} \end{array}$$

- The best reagent for converting carboxylic acids to acid chlorides is thionyl chloride (SOCl<sub>2</sub>) because it forms gaseous by-products that do not contaminate the product.
- Thionyl chloride reaction produces SO<sub>2</sub>.





### **Anhydrides**

#### **Synthesis**

#### Examples

- The most generalized method for making anhydrides is the reaction of an acid chloride with a carboxylic acid or a carboxylate salt.
- Pyridine is sometimes used to deprotonate the acid and form the carboxylate.

#### **Esters**

#### **Fisher esterification**

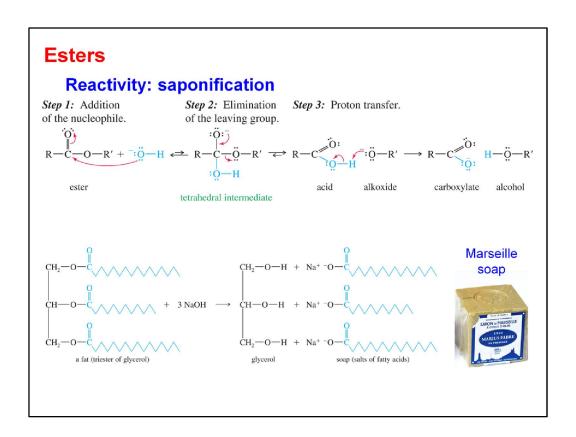
$$R = C - OH + R' - OH \iff R = C - O - R' + H_2O$$

$$Examples$$

$$CH_3 = C - OH + CH_3CH_2 - OH \iff K_{eq} = 3.38 \iff CH_3 = C - O - CH_2CH_3 + H_2O$$

$$COOCH_3 \iff COOCH_3$$

- Reaction of a carboxylic acid with an alcohol under acidic conditions produces an ester.
- Reaction is an equilibrium, the yield of ester is not high.
- To drive the equilibrium to the formations of products, use a large excess of alcohol or remove H<sub>2</sub>O from the reaction.



### **Esters**

# **Reactivity: Transesterifaction**

### $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ Halogenation of esters

#### Hell-Volard-Zelinsky (HVZ) Reaction

$$R-CH_{2}-C-OH \xrightarrow{Br_{2}/PBr_{3}} R-CH-C-Br \xrightarrow{H_{2}O} R-CH-C-OH + HBr$$

- The HVZ reaction replaces a hydrogen atom with a bromine atom on the alpha-carbon of a carboxylic acid (α-bromoacid).
- The acid is treated with bromine and phosphorus tribromide, followed by hydrolysis.

#### $\alpha$ Halogenation of esters

### Hell-Volard-Zelinsky (HVZ) Reaction

### **Aldol condensation**

#### **Claisen condensation**

$$\begin{array}{c} R-CH_{2}-C-OR' \\ R'O-C-\overset{\circ}{C}H-R \\ O \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} R-CH_{2}-\overset{\circ}{C}\overset{\circ}{O}R' \\ R'O-C-CH-R \\ O \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} R-CH_{2}-\overset{\circ}{C}\overset{\circ}{O}R' \\ R'O-C-CH-R \\ O \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} R-CH_{2}-\overset{\circ}{C}\overset{\circ}{B} \\ R'O-C-\overset{\circ}{C}H-R \\ O \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} R+CH_{2}-\overset{\circ}{C}\overset{\circ}{B} \\ R'O-C-\overset{\circ}{C}H-R \\ O \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} R+CH_{2}-\overset{\circ}{C}\overset{\circ}{B} \\ R'O-C-\overset{\circ}{C}H-R \\ O \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} R+CH_{2}-\overset{\circ}{C}\overset{\circ}{B} \\ R'O-C-\overset{\circ}{C}H-R \\ O \end{array} \longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} R+CH_{2}-\overset{\circ}{C}\overset{\circ}{B} \\ R'O-C-\overset{\circ}{C}H-R \\ R'O-\overset{\circ}{C}H-R \\ R'O-\overset{$$

 The Claisen condensation results when an ester molecule undergoes nucleophilic acyl substitution by an enolate.

#### **Amides**

#### **Structure**

- Amides are the product of the reaction of a carboxylic acid with ammonia or an amine.
- Not basic because the lone pair on nitrogen is delocalized by resonance.
- The C—N bond has double-bond character: rotation is not allowed. The 6 atoms lie on the same plane.

#### **Amides**

#### Classification

- 1° amide has one C—N bond (two N—H).
- 2° amide or N-substituted amide has two C—N bonds (one N—H).
- 3° amide or *N*, *N*-disubstituted amide has three C—N bonds (no N—H).

### **Amides**

### Reactivity

$$\begin{array}{c} O \\ R-C-NHR' \\ \text{amide} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} H_2O \\ H^+ \text{ or } -OH \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} R-C-OH \\ \text{acid} \end{array} + R'NH_2 \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Hydrolysis} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} (1) \text{ LiAlH}_4 \\ (2) \text{ } H_2O \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} R-CH_2NHR' \\ \text{amine} \end{array} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Reduction} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} O \\ R-C-NH_2 \\ 1^\circ \text{ amide} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} Br_2, -OH \\ (Hofmann \text{ rearr.}) \end{array} \begin{array}{c} R-NH_2 \\ 1^\circ \text{ amine} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} CO_2^- \\ 1^\circ \text{ amine} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \text{Elimination} \\ Dehydration \end{array}$$

# **Nitriles**

# Reactivity