

Chapter 3

An Introduction to Organic Reactions: Acids and Bases

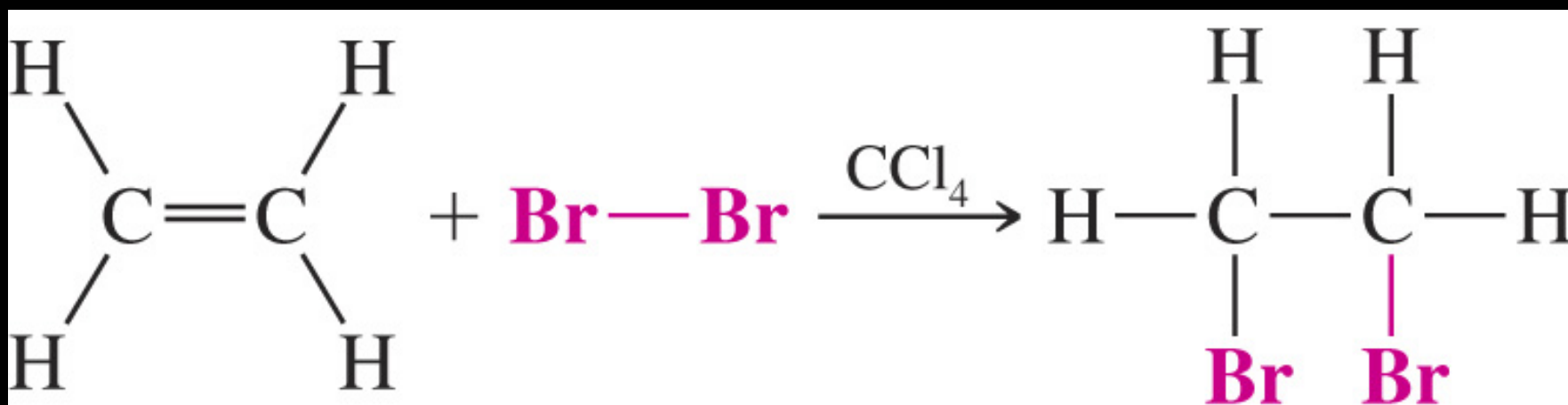
NEPHAR 109 Organic Chemistry
Assist.Prof. Banu Keşanlı

3.1 Reactions and Their Mechanisms

There are four general types of organic reactions

- **Addition Reactions**

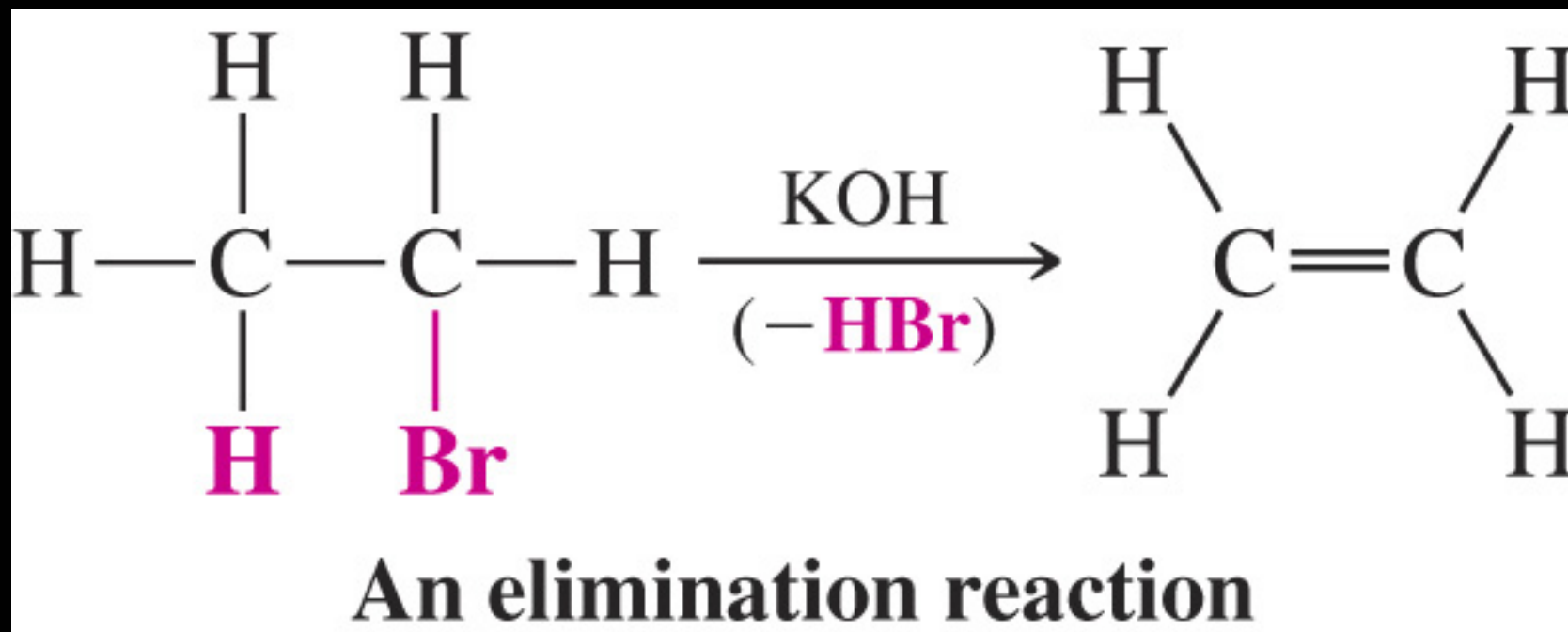
Two reactants add together to form a single new product with no atoms "left over"



An addition reaction

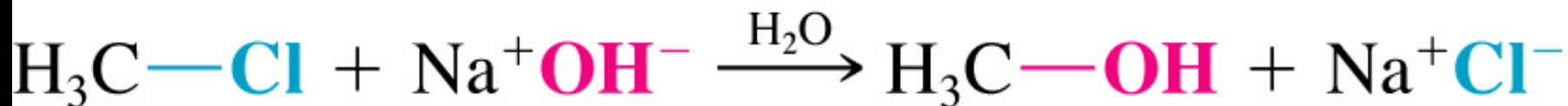
- **Elimination Reactions**

Single reactant splits into two products



- **Substitution Reactions**

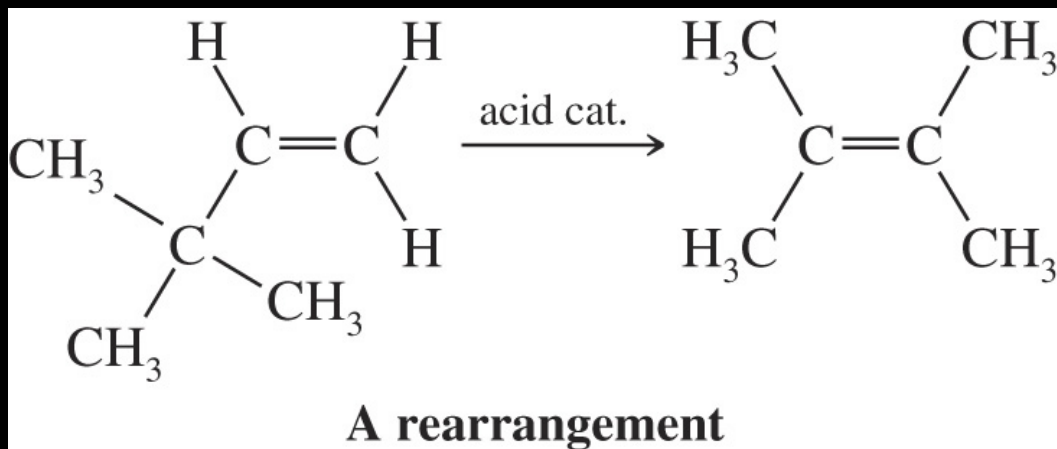
Two reactants exchange parts to give two new products



A substitution reaction

- **Rearrangement Reactions**

Single reactant undergoes a reorganization of bonds and atoms to yield an isomeric product



3.3 Cleavage of Covalent Bonds

Homolysis



- Symmetrical bond breaking leading to radical reactions

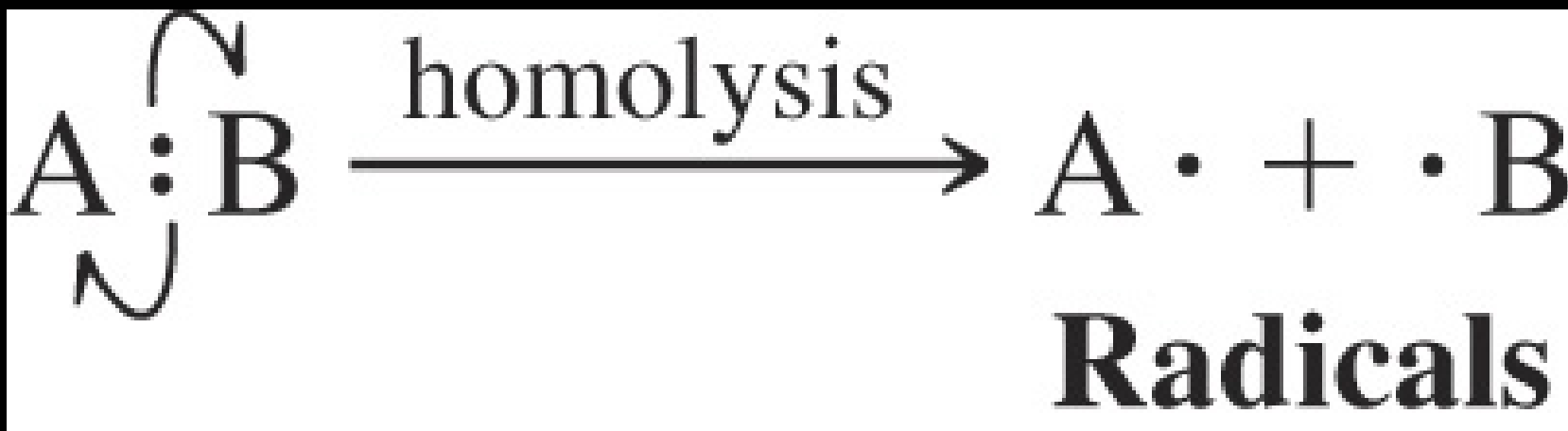
Heterolysis



- Unsymmetrical bond breaking leading to polar reactions

Radical Reactions

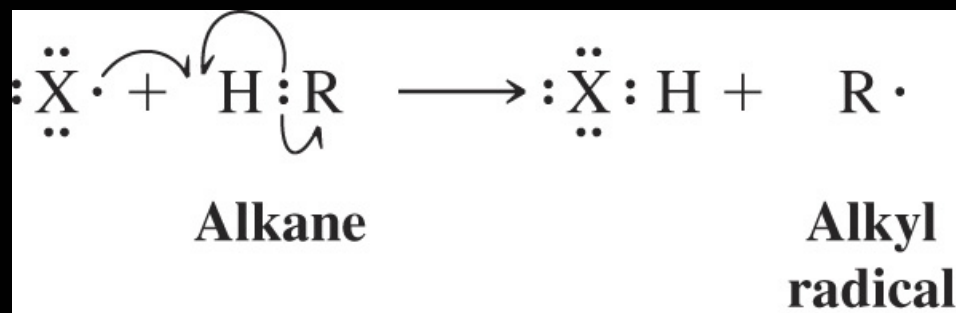
- Homolytic bond cleavage of relatively weak bonds such as O-O or X-X bonds can occur with addition of energy in the form of heat or light leading to the formation of radicals (also called free radicals)
- Radicals are highly reactive, short-lived species
 - Single-barbed arrows are used to show the movement of single electrons



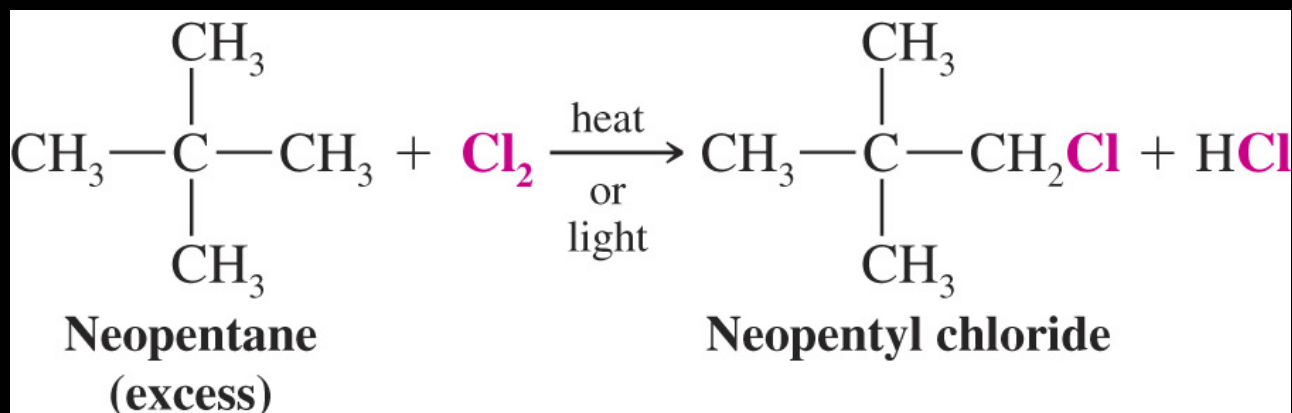
Reactions of Radicals

→ Radicals tend to react in ways that lead to pairing of their unpaired electron

- Hydrogen abstraction is one way a halogen radical can react to pair its unshared electron



Example of a Radical Reaction



➤ **Heterolytic reactions almost always occur at polar bonds**

→ The reaction is often assisted by formation of a new bond to another molecule



Introduction to Acid-Base Chemistry

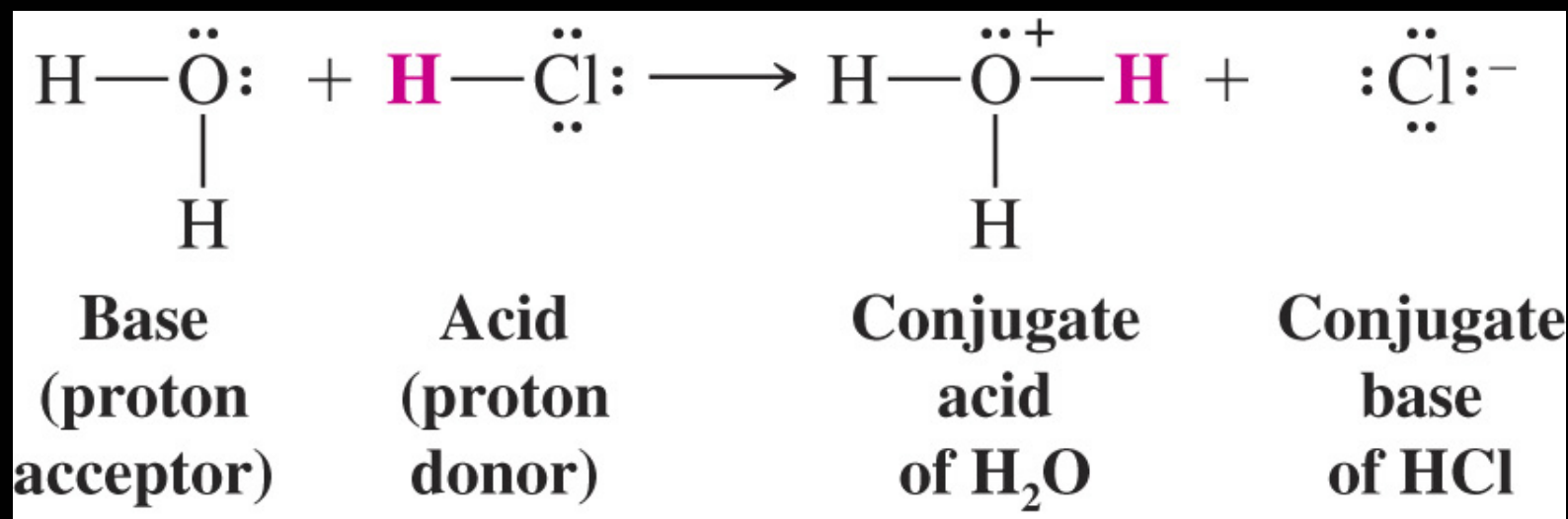
● Brønsted-Lowry Definition of Acids and Bases

Acid: a substance that can donate a proton

Base: a substance that can accept a proton

Example

- Hydrogen chloride is a very strong acid and essentially all hydrogen chloride molecules transfer their proton to water

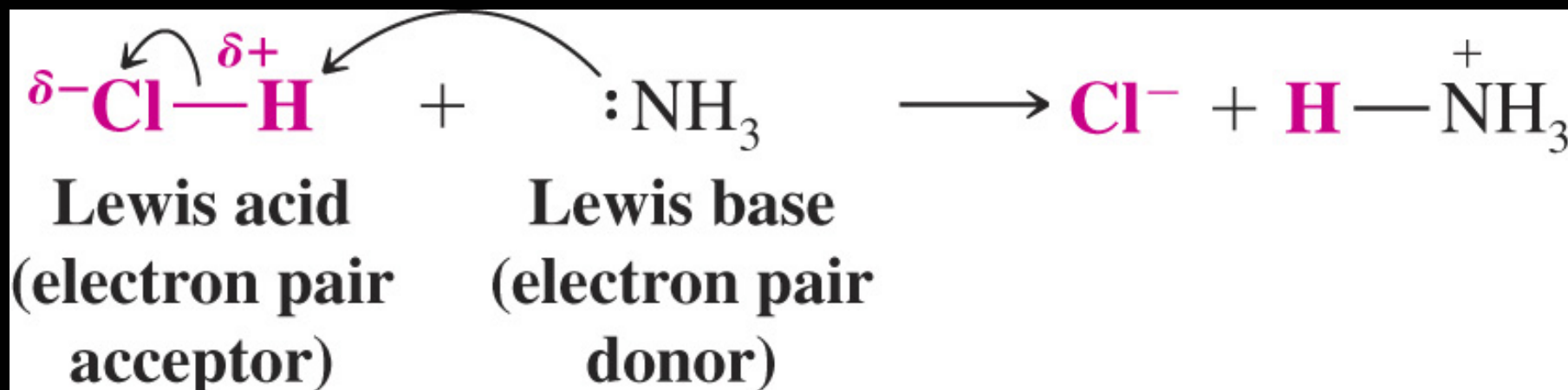


● Lewis Definition of Acids and Bases

Lewis Acid: electron pair acceptor

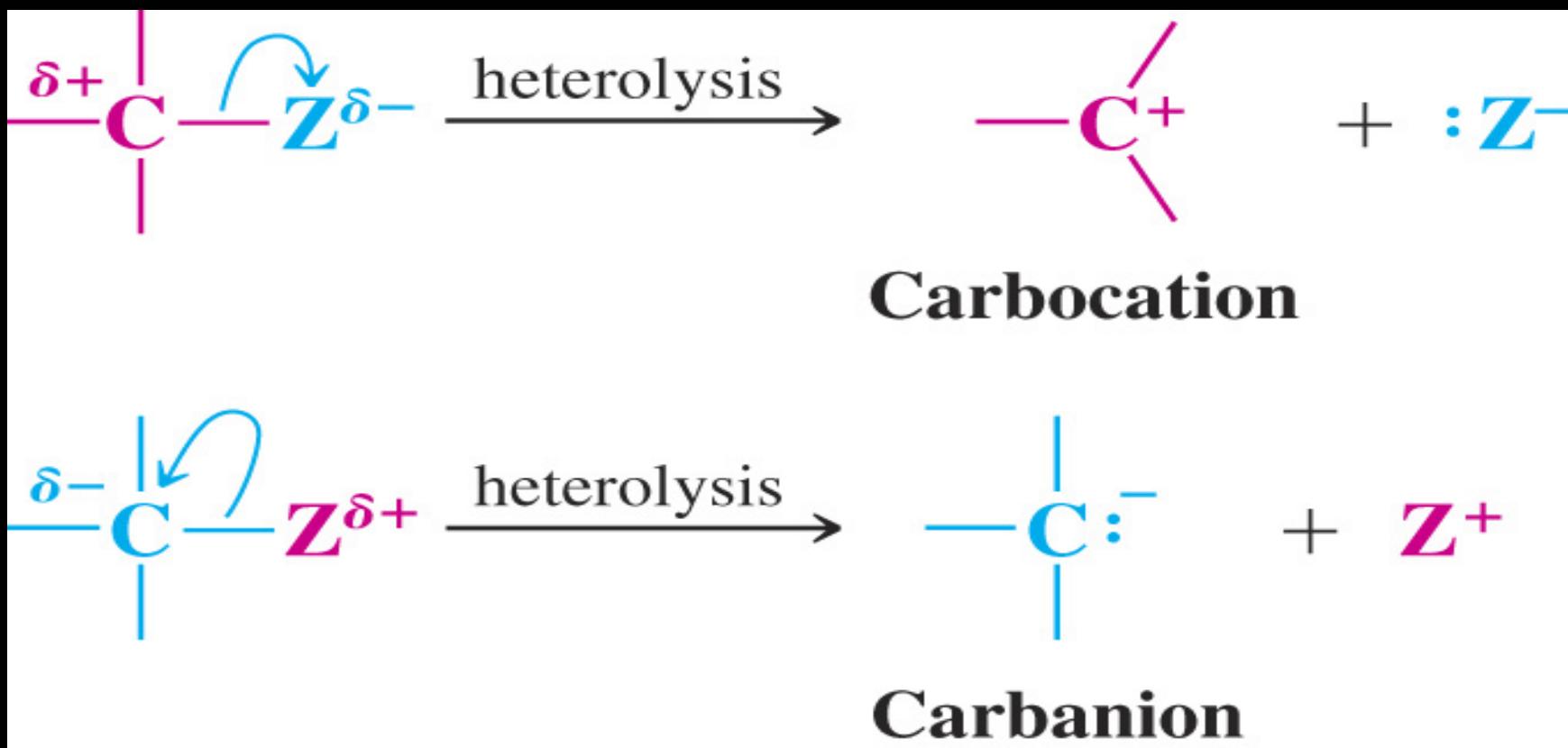
Lewis Base: electron pair donor

➔ Curved arrows show movement of electrons to form and break bonds

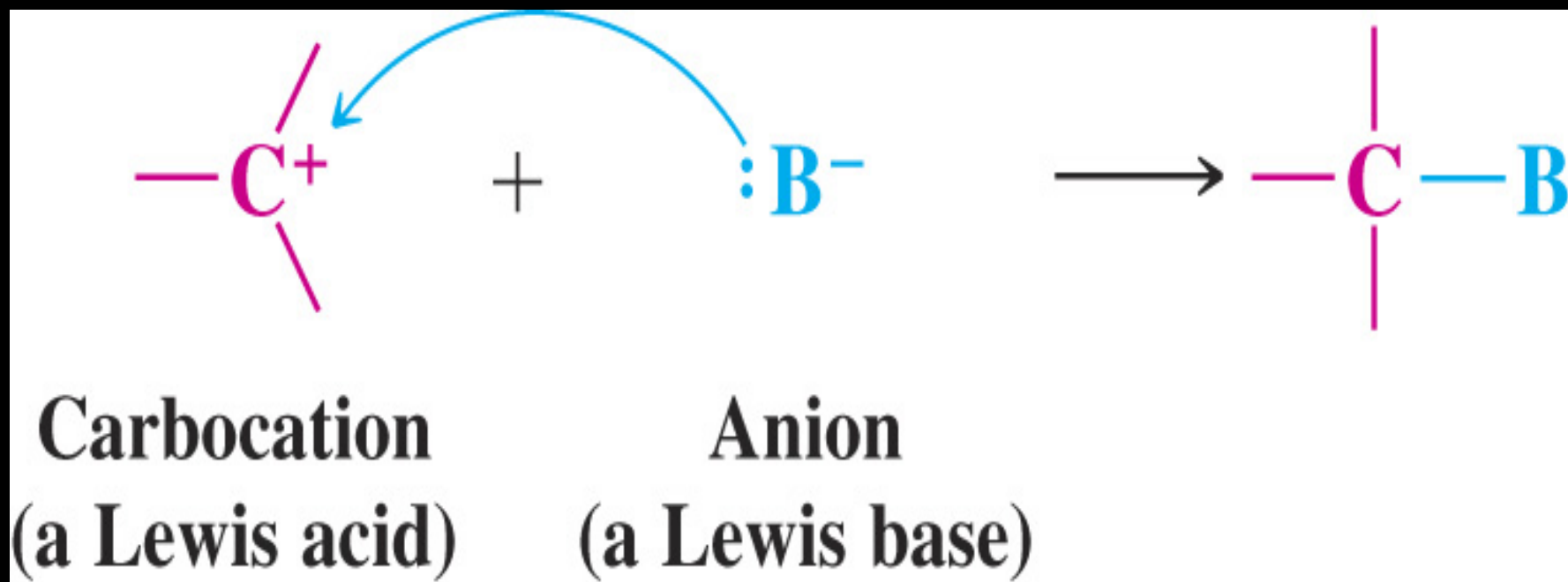


Heterolysis of Bonds to Carbons: Carbanions and Carbocations

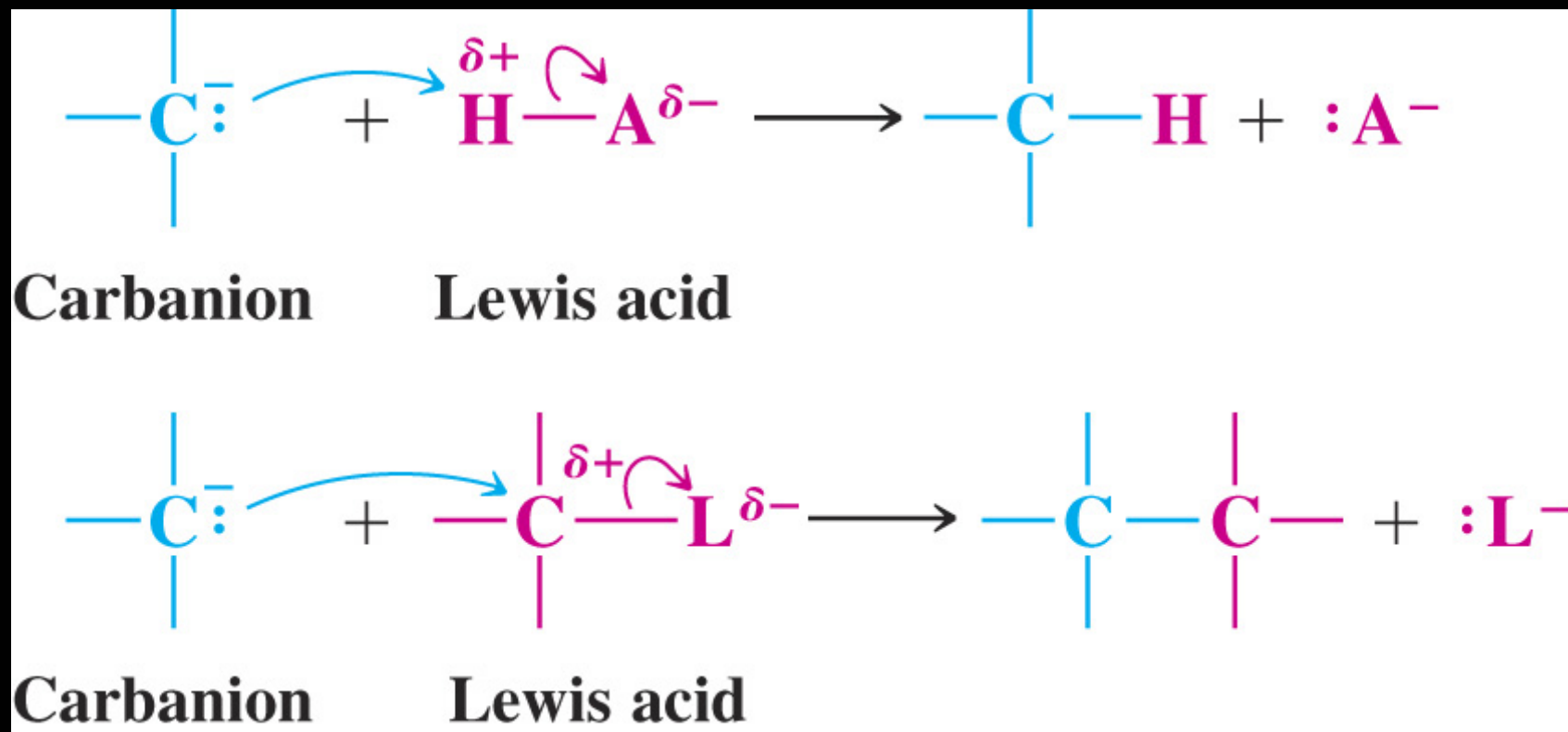
- Reaction can occur to give a carbocation or carbanion depending on the nature of Z



- Carbocations have only 6 valence electrons and a positive charge



- Carbanions have 8 valence electrons and a negative charge



Organic chemistry terms for Lewis acids and bases

Electrophiles (“electron-loving” reagents):
seek electrons to obtain a stable valence shell of electrons

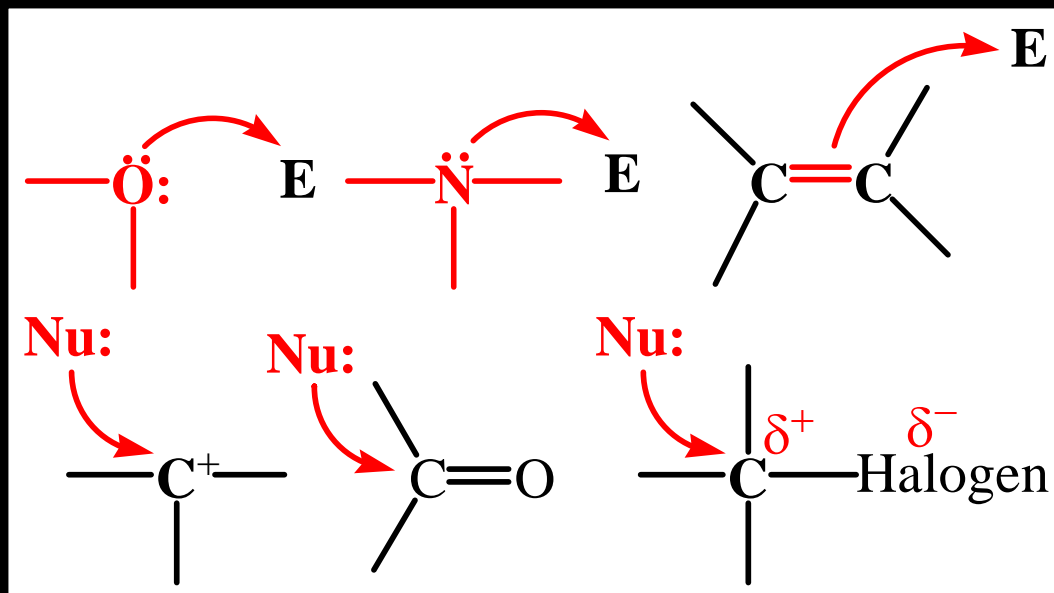
- Are electron-deficient themselves e.g. carbocations

Nucleophiles (“nucleus-loving” reagents):
seek a proton or some other positively charged center

- Are electron-rich themselves e.g. carbanions

Rules for Use of Curved Arrows

- Electrons move from a nucleophilic source (Nu:) to an electrophilic sink (E)



- The nucleophile can be either negatively charged or neutral

(e.g. H₂O, NH₃, OH⁻, Cl⁻, Br⁻, CN⁻)

- The electrophile can be positively charged or neutral

(e.g. H⁺, Cl⁺, Br⁺, I⁺, NO₂⁺, CH₃⁺, alkylhalides)

3.4 The Use of Curved Arrows in Illustrating Reactions

- Curved arrows show the flow of electrons in a reaction
- An arrow starts at a site of higher electron density (a covalent bond or unshared electron pair) and points to a site of electron deficiency

Example: Mechanism of reaction of HCl and water





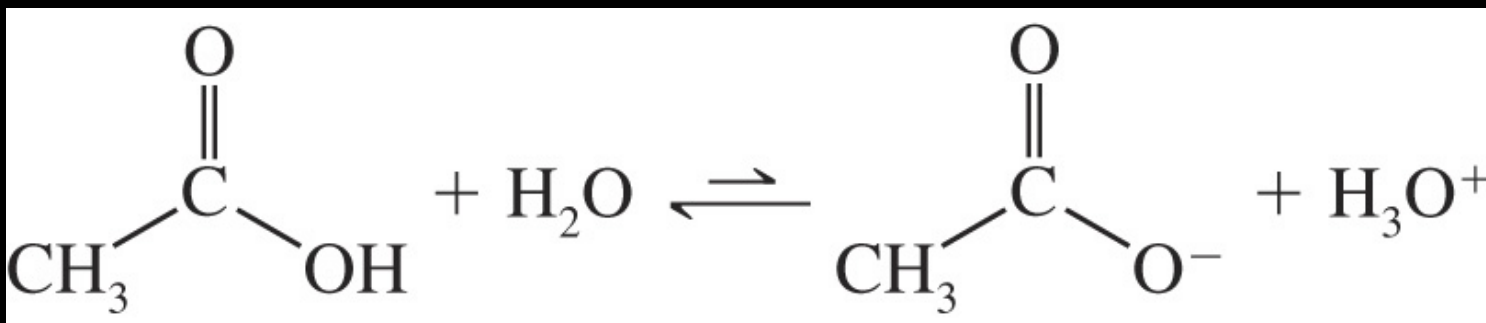
A water molecule uses one of the nonbonding electron pairs to form a bond to a proton of HCl. The bond between the hydrogen and chlorine breaks with the electron pair going to the chlorine atom.

This leads to the formation of a hydronium ion and a chloride ion.

3.5. Strengths of Acids and Bases

- K_a and pK_a

→ Acetic acid is a relatively weak acid and a 0.1M solution is only able to protonate water to the extent of about 1%



→ The equilibrium equation for this reaction is:

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

→ Dilute acids have a constant concentration of water (about 55.5 M) and so the concentration of water can be factored out to obtain the acidity constant (K_a)

- K_a for acetic acid is 1.76×10^{-5}

$$K_a = K_{eq} [H_2O] = \frac{[H_3O^+][CH_3CO_2^-]}{[CH_3CO_2H]}$$

→ Any weak acid (HA) dissolved in water fits the general K_a expression

- The stronger the acid, the **larger** the K_a

$$K_a = \frac{[H_3O^+][A^-]}{[HA]}$$

→ Acidity is usually expressed in terms of pK_a

- pK_a is the negative log of K_a
- The pK_a for acetic acid is 4.75

$$pK_a = -\log K_a$$

→ The larger the pK_a , the weaker the acid



$$pK_a = 4.75$$

$$pK_a = 0$$

$$pK_a = -7$$

Weak acid

Very strong acid

Increasing acid strength



	Acid	Approximate pK_a	Conjugate Base	
Strongest acid	HSbF_6	< -12	SbF_6^-	Weakest base
	HI	-10	I^-	
	H_2SO_4	-9	HSO_4^-	
	HBr	-9	Br^-	
	HCl	-7	Cl^-	
	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{SO}_3\text{H}$	-6.5	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{SO}_3^-$	
	$(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{OH}^+$	-3.8	$(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{O}$	
	$(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{C}=\text{OH}^+$	-2.9	$(\text{CH}_3)_2\text{C}=\text{O}$	
	CH_3OH_2^+	-2.5	CH_3OH	
	H_3O^+	-1.74	H_2O	
	HNO_3	-1.4	NO_3^-	
	$\text{CF}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}$	0.18	CF_3CO_2^-	
	HF	3.2	F^-	
	$\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}$	4.75	CH_3CO_2^-	
	H_2CO_3	6.35	HCO_3^-	
	$\text{CH}_3\text{COCH}_2\text{COCH}_3$	9.0	$\text{CH}_3\text{COCHCOCH}_3$	
	NH_4^+	9.2	NH_3	
	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{OH}$	9.9	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}^-$	
	HCO_3^-	10.2	CO_3^{2-}	
	CH_3NH_3^+	10.6	CH_3NH_2	
	H_2O	15.7	OH^-	
	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$	16	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{O}^-$	
	$(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{COH}$	18	$(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{CO}^-$	
	CH_3COCH_3	19.2	$^-\text{CH}_2\text{COCH}_3$	
	$\text{HC}\equiv\text{CH}$	25	$\text{HC}\equiv\text{C}^-$	
	H_2	35	H^-	
	NH_3	38	NH_2^-	
	$\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}_2$	44	$\text{CH}_2=\text{CH}^-$	
Weakest acid	CH_3CH_3	50	CH_3CH_2^-	Strongest base

Increasing acid strength

Increasing base strength

Predicting the Strengths of Bases

- The stronger the acid, the weaker its conjugate base will be
 - An acid with a low pK_a will have a weak conjugate base
 - Chloride is a very weak base because its conjugate acid HCl is a very strong acid

Increasing base strength



Very weak base
 pK_a of conjugate
acid (HCl) = -7



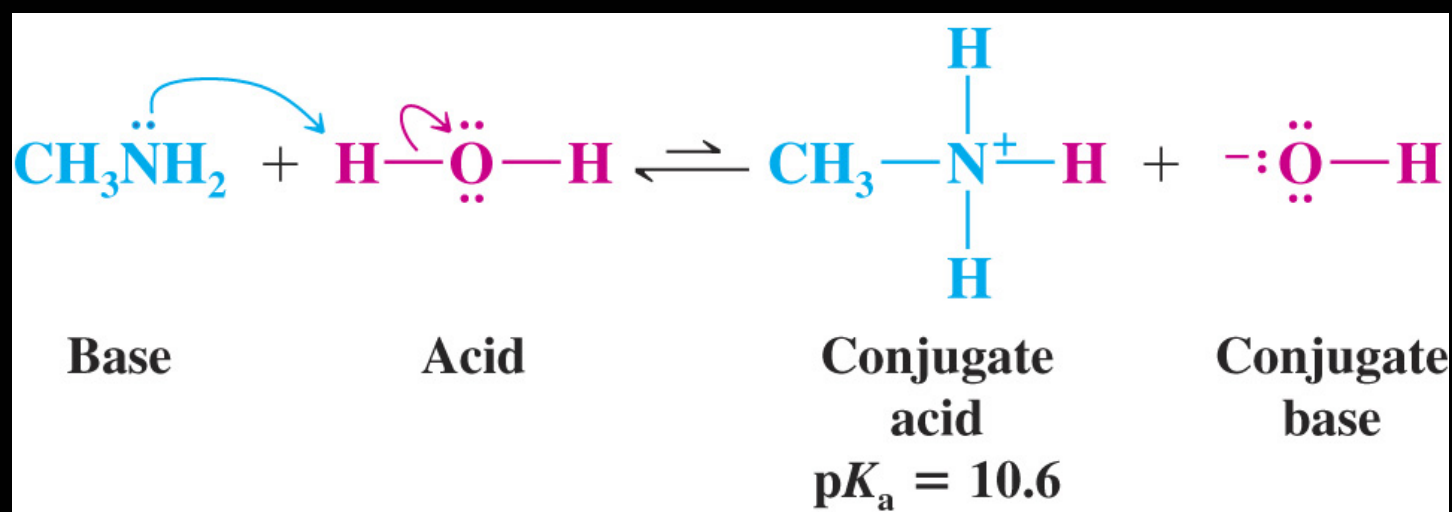
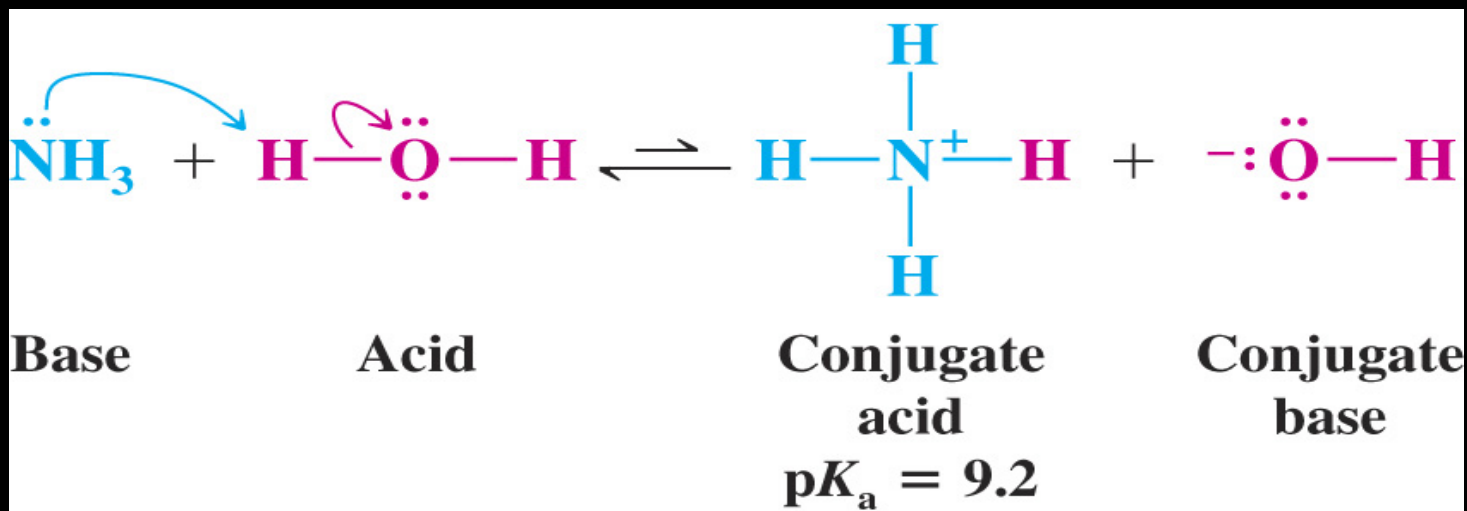
Weak base
 pK_a of conjugate
acid ($\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}$) = 4.75



Strong base
 pK_a of conjugate
acid (H_2O) = 15.7

- Methylamine is a stronger base than ammonia

→ The conjugate acid of methylamine is weaker than the conjugate acid of ammonia



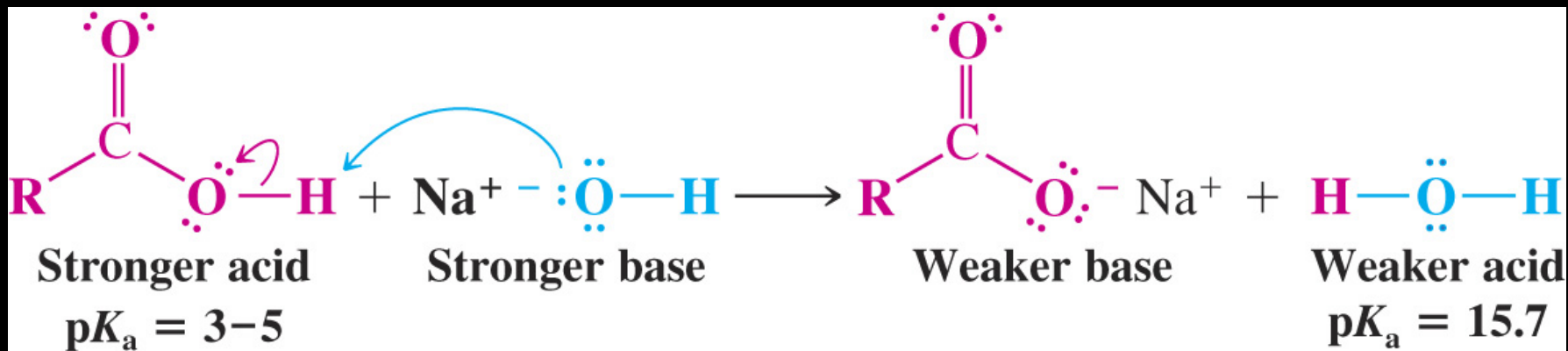
3.6 Predicting the Outcome of Acid-Base Reactions

- Acid-base reaction always favor the formation of the weaker acid/weaker base pair

→ The weaker acid/weaker base are always on the same side of the equation

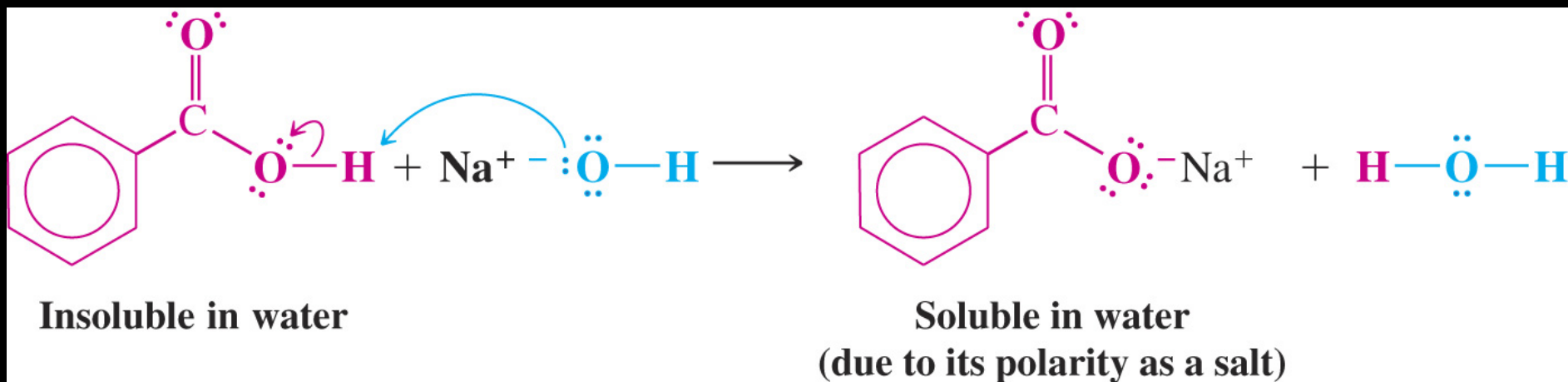
Example

Acetic acid reacts with sodium hydroxide to greatly favor products

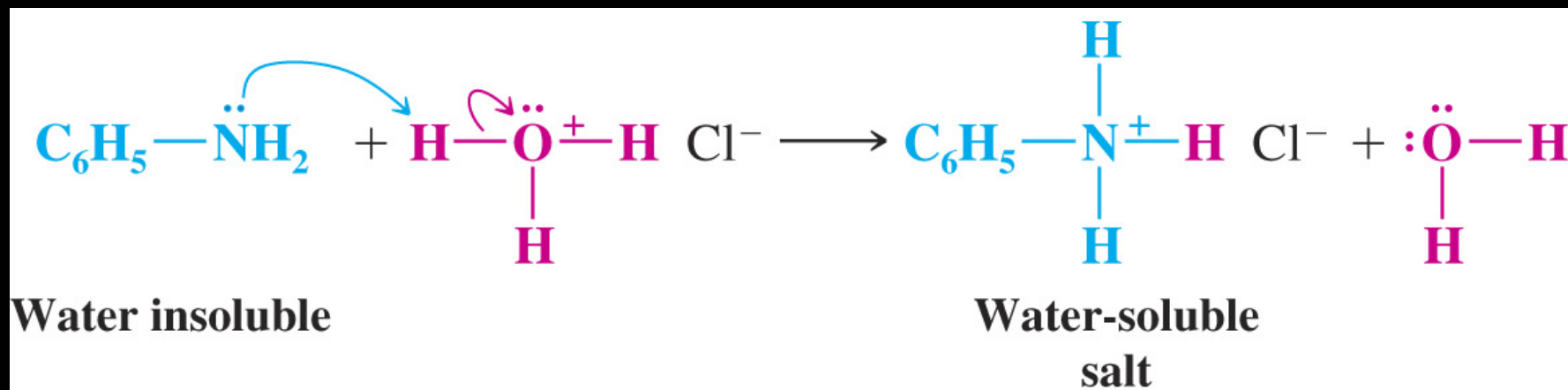


● Water Solubility as a Result of Salt Formation

- Organic compounds which are water insoluble can sometimes be made soluble by turning them into salts
- Water insoluble carboxylic acids can become soluble in aqueous sodium hydroxide



- Water insoluble amines can become soluble in aqueous hydrogen chloride



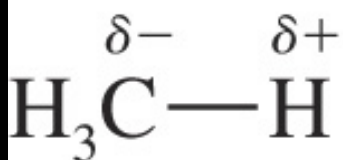
3.7 The Relationship Between Structure and Acidity

- Acidity increases going down a row of the periodic table
- Bond strength to hydrogen decreases going down the row and therefore acidity increases

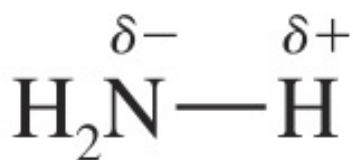
pK_a		A c i d i t y i n c r e a s e s
3.2	H—F	
−7	H—Cl	
−9	H—Br	
−10	H—I	

pK_a		A c i d i t y i n c r e a s e s
15.7	H ₂ O	
7.0	H ₂ S	
3.9	H ₂ Se	

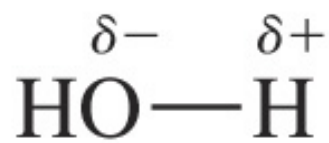
Acidity increases



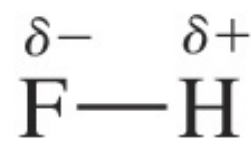
$$\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = 48$$



$$\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = 38$$



$$\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = 15.7$$



$$\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = 3.2$$

Basicity increases

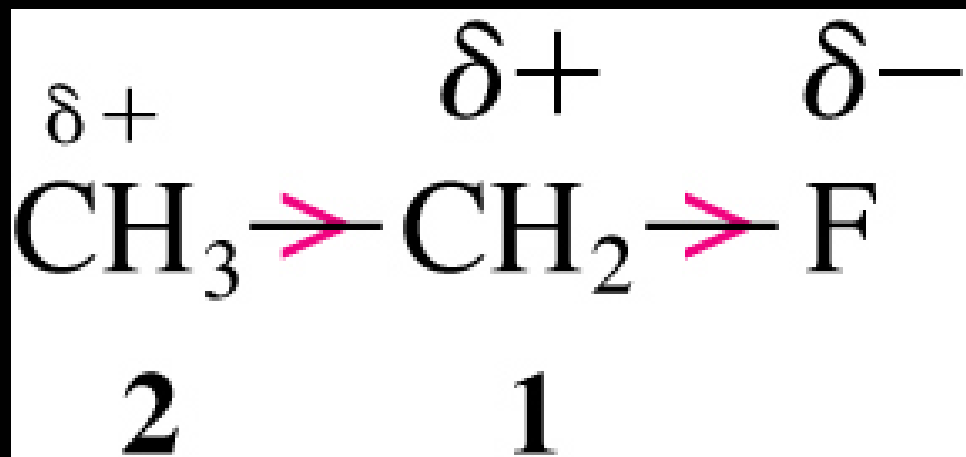


Overview of Acidity Trends

Acidity increases within a given row (electronegativity effect)					Acidity increases within a given column (bond strength effect)
hydride	C (H ₃ C—H)	N (H ₂ N—H)	O (HO—H)	F (F—H)	
pK _a	48	38	15.7	3.2	
			S (HS—H)	Cl (Cl—H)	
			7.0	-7	
			Se (HSe—H)	Br (Br—H)	
			3.9	-9	
				I (I—H)	
				-10	

Inductive Effects

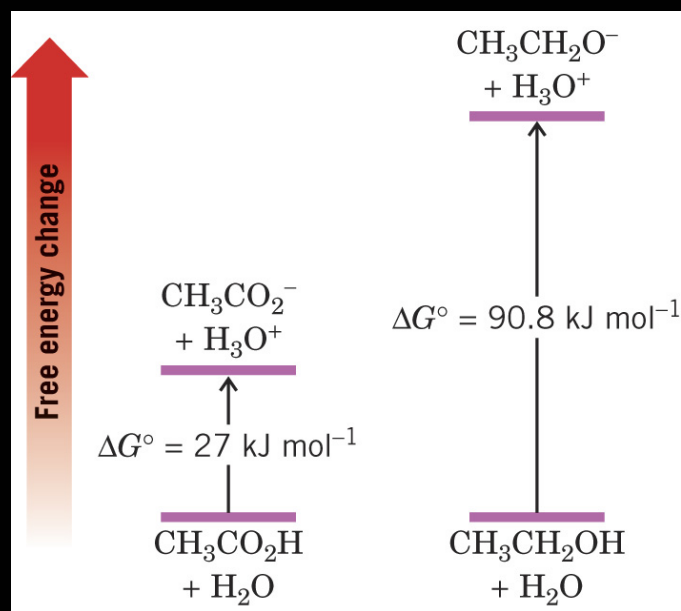
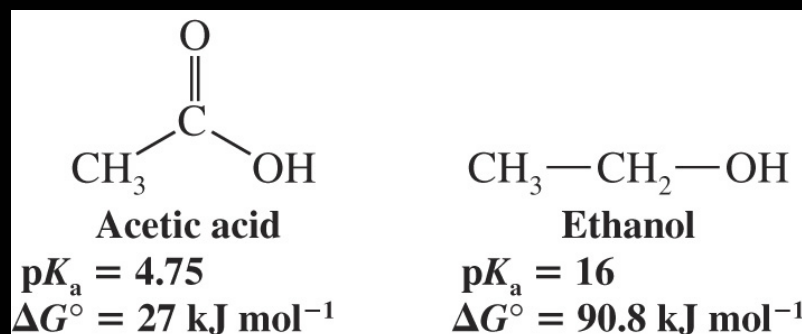
- Electronic effects that are transmitted through space and through the bonds of a molecule
- In ethyl fluoride the electronegative fluorine is drawing electron density away from the carbons
 - Fluorine is an electron withdrawing group (EWG)
 - The effect gets weaker with increasing distance



3.10 The Acidity of Carboxylic Acids

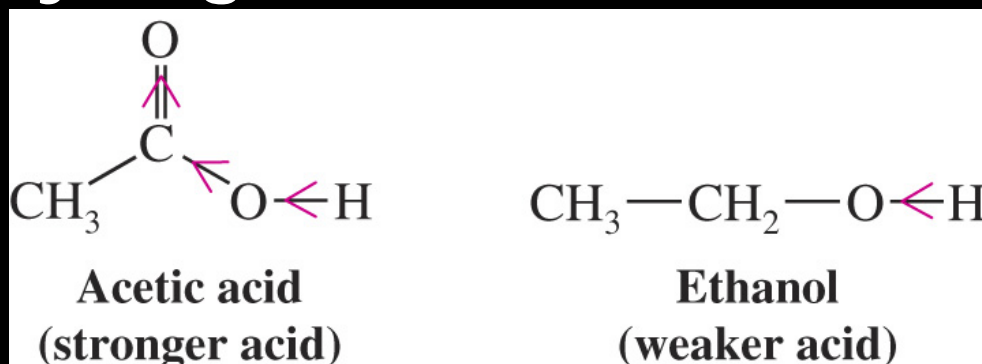
- Carboxylic acids are much more acidic than alcohols

→ Deprotonation is unfavorable in both cases but much less favorable for ethanol

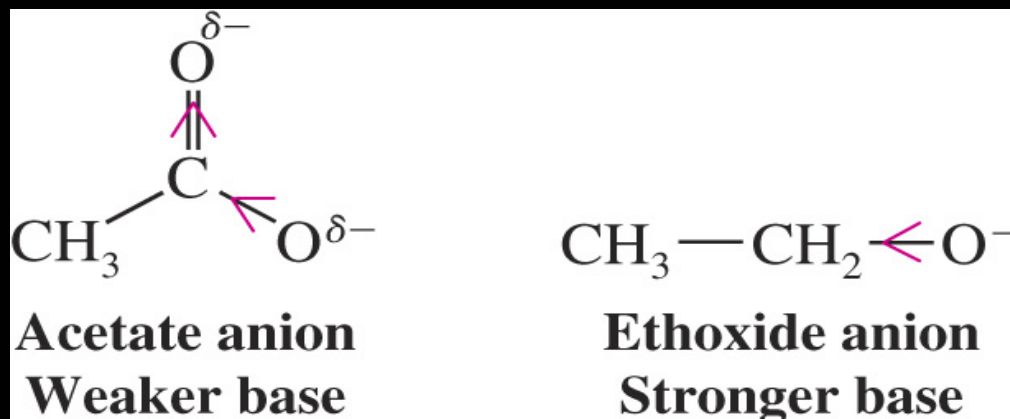


- **Explanation based on inductive effect**

→ In acetic acid the highly polarized carbonyl group draws electron density away from the acidic hydrogen

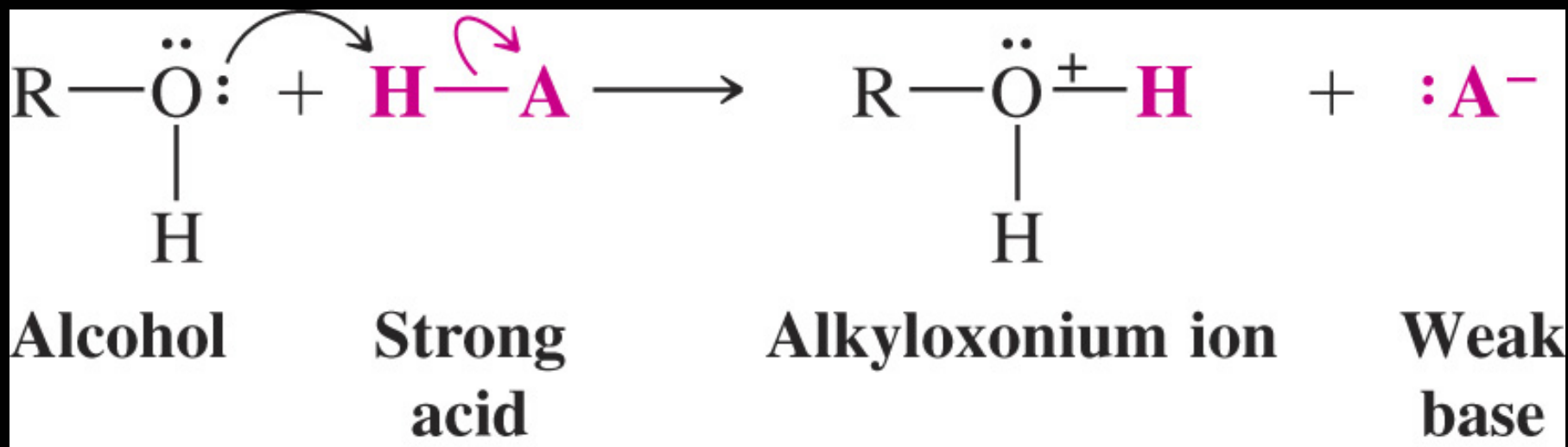


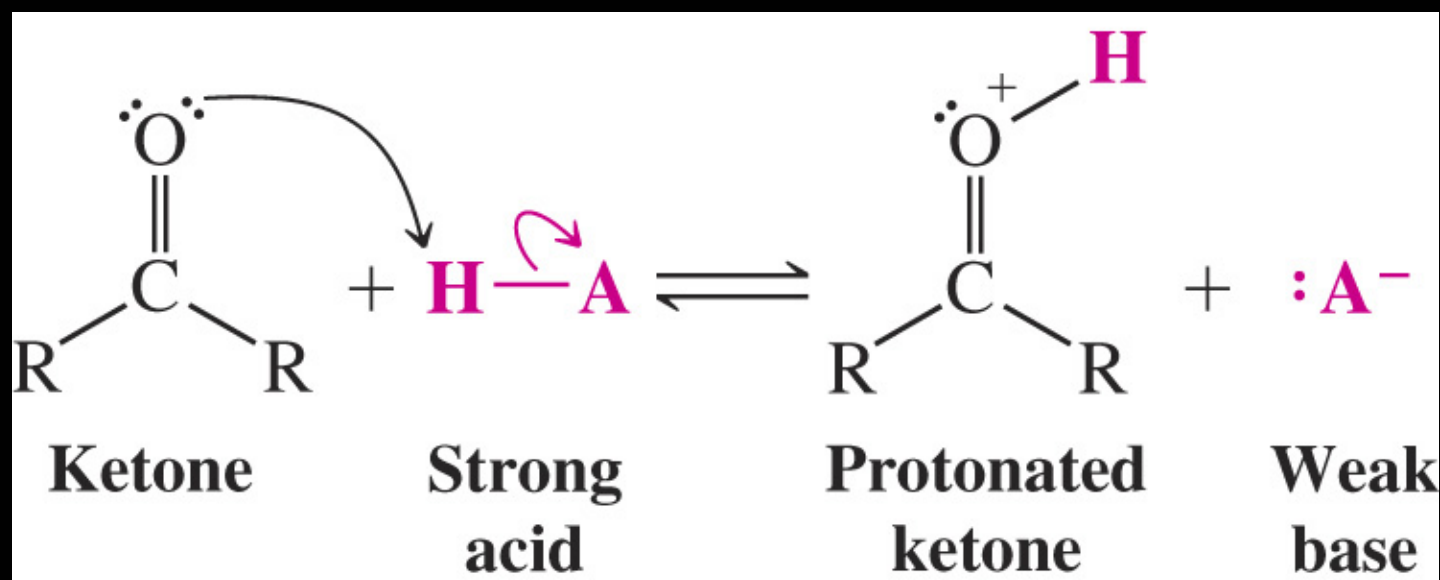
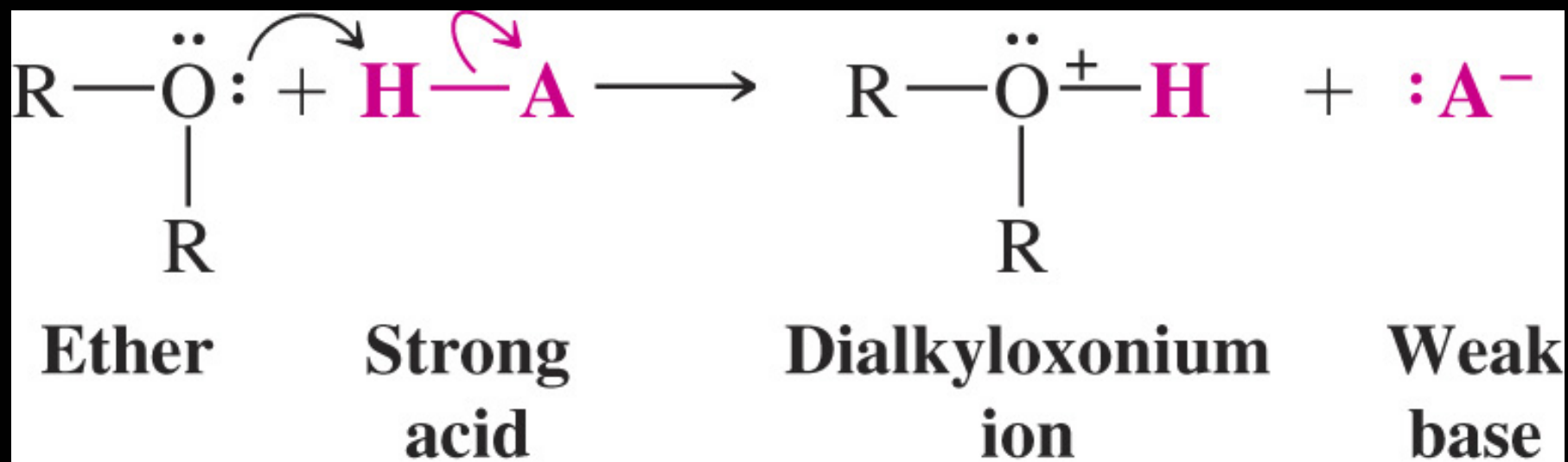
→ Also the conjugate base of acetic acid is more stabilized by the carbonyl group



3.12 Organic Compounds as Bases

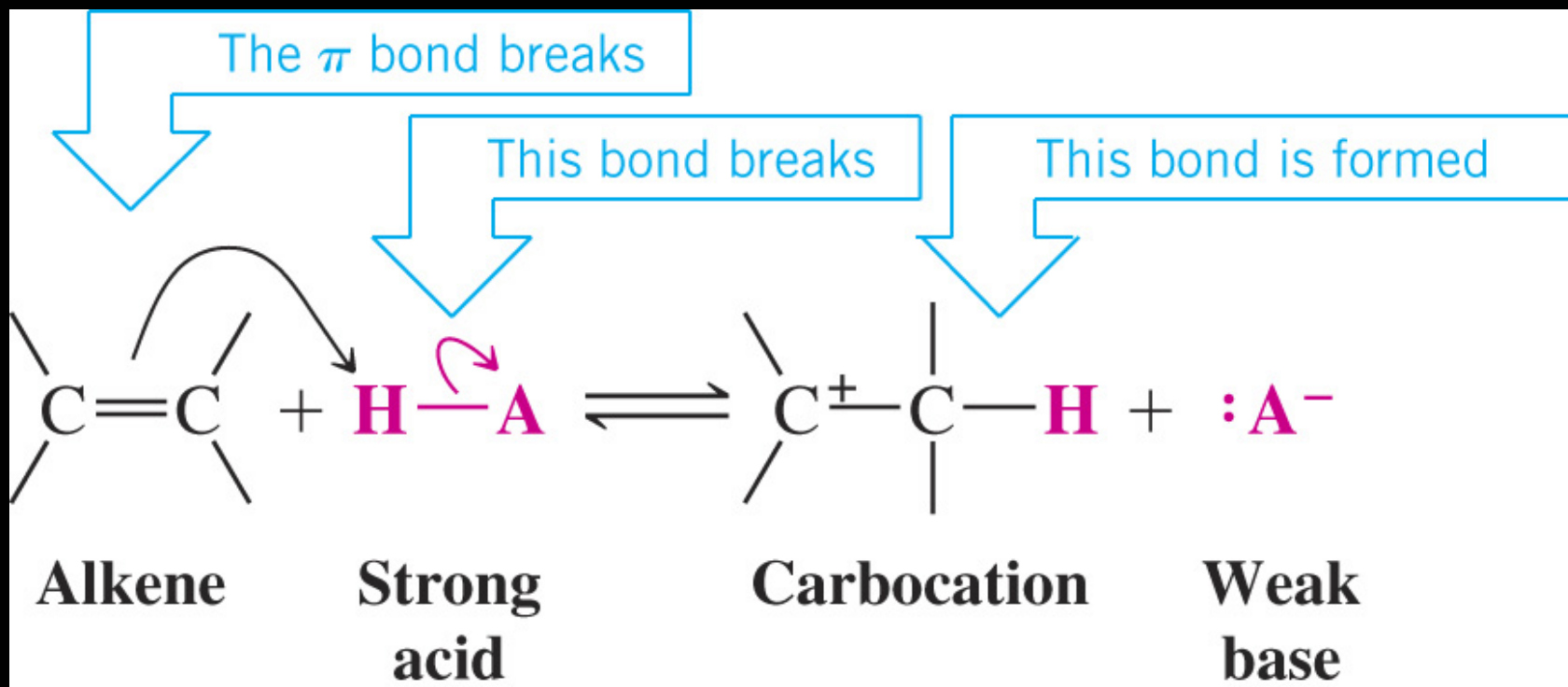
→ Any organic compound containing an atom with a lone pair (O,N) can act as a base





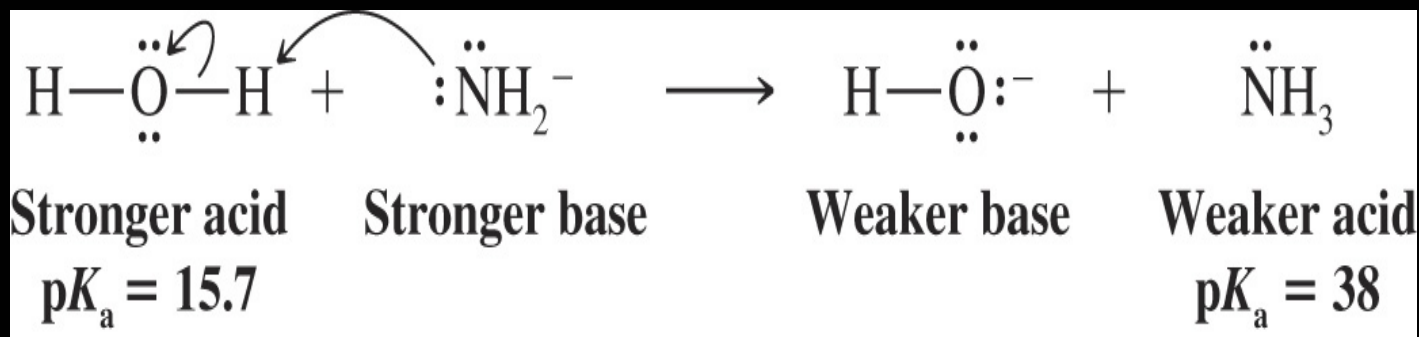
→ π electrons can also act as bases

- π electrons are loosely held and available for reaction with strong acids

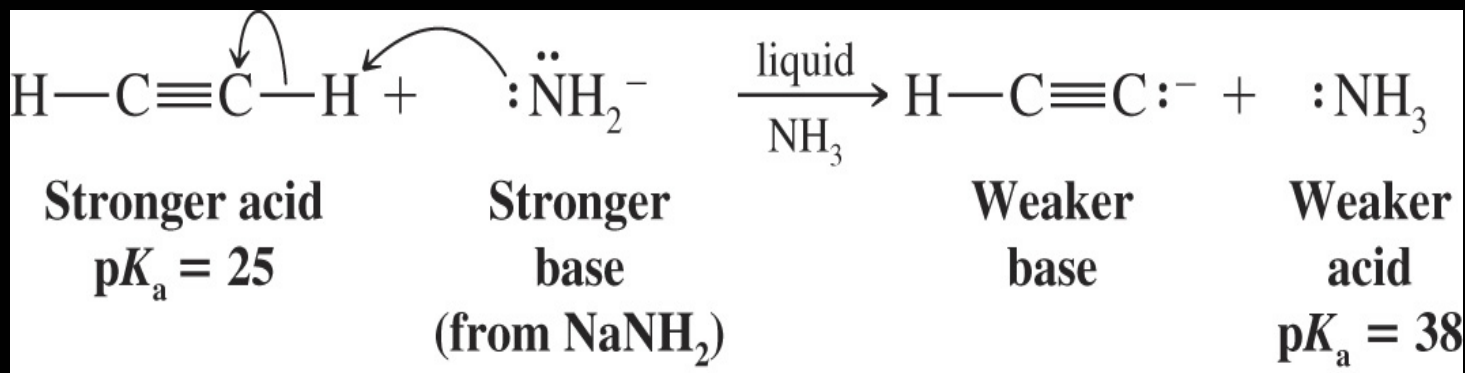


3.14 Acids and Bases in Nonaqueous Solutions

- Water has a leveling effect on strong acids and bases
- Any base stronger than hydroxide will be converted to hydroxide in water



- Sodium amide can be used as a strong base in solvents such as liquid NH_3



→ Alkyl lithium reagents in hexane are very strong bases

- The alkyl lithium is made from the alkyl bromide and lithium metal

