# LS 2022

Lecture 1: 2022-12-12

### Acidity, basicity, pKa

### Acidity

Let's start with two simple, and probably familiar, definitions:

- An acid is a species having a tendency to lose a proton.
- A base is a species having a tendency to accept a proton.



#### Acidity, basicity, pKa



$$B: + HA \implies BH^{\odot} + A^{\odot}$$

AH is an acid and A<sup>-</sup> is its conjugate base and B is a base and BH<sup>+</sup> is its conjugate acid. That is, every acid has a conjugate base associated with it and every base has a conjugate acid associated with it.

$$H_3N: H_0 \longrightarrow 0$$
  $H_4 + 0$ 

# Approximate pK<sub>a</sub> Values

Table 2.1       Approximate pK <sub>a</sub> Values			
$pK_a < 0$	р <i>К</i> <sub>а</sub> ~ 5	р <i>К</i> <sub>а</sub> ~ 10	р <i>К</i> <sub>а</sub> ~ 15
$ROH_{2}$ protonated alcohol $+OH$ $C$ OH protonated carboxylic acid $H_{3}O^{+}$ protonated water	O R Carboxylic acid	RNH3 protonated amine	R <mark>OH</mark> alcohol H <sub>2</sub> O water

# pН

$$pH = -log [H^+]$$

The pH indicates the concentration of protons in a solution.

The  $pK_a$  the tendency of a compound To lose its proton.

They are not the same!!

Solution	рН
NaOH, 1.0 M	- 14
NaOH, 0.1 M	- 13
Household ammonia	- 12
	— 11
Milk of magnesia	— 10
Borax	- 9
Baking soda Egg white, seawater	- 8
Human blood, tears Milk	- 7
Rain	- 6
Coffee	- 5
Tomatoes	- 4
Cola, vinegar	- 3
Lemon juice	- 2
Gastric juice	- 1
HCl, 1.0 M	- 0

### **The Henderson–Hasselbalch Equation**

$$pK_a = pH + \log \frac{[HA]}{[A^-]}$$

The Henderson–Hasselbalch equation tells us whether (at a given pH) a compound will be in its acidic form (with its proton) or in its basic form (without its proton).

acidic form		basic form		
RCOOH		$RCOO^{-}$	+	$\mathrm{H}^{+}$
ROH	<u> </u>	$RO^{-}$	+	$\mathrm{H}^{+}$
$RNH_3$	$ \longrightarrow$	RNH <sub>2</sub>	+	$\mathrm{H}^{+}$

# Is a Compound Neutral or Charged?



When we talk about pK<sub>a</sub> of amines, we refer to the protonated form, the conjugated acid.

# Is a Compound Neutral or Charged?



Will be the same structure at pH = 0 and pH = 7?

$$pK_a = pH + \log \frac{[HA]}{[A^-]}$$

# A Compound with a $pK_a = 5.2$



# Is a Compound Neutral or Charged?

$$pK_a = pH + \log \frac{[HA]}{[A^-]}$$

acidic form		basic form		
RCOOH		RCOO <sup>-</sup>	+	$\mathrm{H}^{+}$
ROH		$RO^{-}$	+	$\mathrm{H}^{+}$
$RNH_3$	$ \longrightarrow$	$RNH_2$	+	$\mathrm{H}^{+}$

A carboxylic acid is

neutral in its acidic form and charged in its basic form.

An alcohol is neutral in its acidic form and charged in its basic form.

An amine is charged in its acidic form and neutral in its basic form.

### **Amines and Protonated Amines**

 $CH_3NH_2$ methylamine  $pK_a = 40$   $CH_3 \overset{+}{NH_3}$ protonated methylamine  $pK_a = 10.7$ 

Chemists often say things like 'the  $pK_a$  of triethylamine is about 10.' (It's actually 11.0 but 10 is a good number to remember for typical amines). This may surprise you as triethylamine has no acidic hydrogens. What they mean is of course this: 'the  $pK_a$  of the conjugate acid of triethylamine is about 10.'

### Nitrogen compounds as Acids and Bases



The p $K_a$  associated for protonation of piperidine, a typical secondary amine, is about 13. The equivalent p $K_a$  for protonation of pyridine—a compound with a similar heterocyclic structure, but with its lone pair in an sp<sup>2</sup> rather than an sp<sup>3</sup> orbital, is only 5.5: pyridine is a weaker base than piperidine (its conjugate acid is a stronger acid).

Lone pairs with more p character (sp<sup>3</sup> orbitals are 3/4 p, while sp orbitals are 1/2 p) are higher in energy—they spend more time further from the nucleus—and are therefore more basic.

### Nitrogen compounds as Acids and Bases





4-dimethylamino pyridine (DMAP)  $pK_aH = 9.2$ 

### Nitrogen compounds as Acids and Bases



Removing a proton from an amine is very difficult as the anion (unfortunately called an 'amide' anion) is very unstable and very basic. The only way to succeed is to use a very strong base, usually an alkyllithium. The 'anion' then has a N–Li bond and is soluble in organic solvents. This example, known as LDA, is commonly used as a strong base in organic chemistry.



### **Carbon Acids**

If you don't see why this is, think about the shapes of an s and a p orbital: the nucleus sits in the node of a p orbital, but in an s orbital the nucleus is in a region of high electron density. The more s character a negative charge has, the closer the electron density is to the nucleus, and the more stable it is.





### **Hybridization Affects Electronegativity**



### **Carbon Acids**



C–H bonds can be even more acidic than those of acetylene if stabilization of the resulting anion is possible by *conjugation*. Conjugation with a carbonyl group has a striking effect. One carbonyl group brings the  $pK_a$  down to 13.5 for acetaldehyde so that even hydroxide ion can produce the anion.

# Why is a Carboxylic Acid a Stronger Acid than an Alcohol?



#### 1. Inductive electron withdrawal



# Why is a Carboxylic Acid a Stronger Acid than an Alcohol?

#### 2. Delocalized electrons



### Substituents Affect the Strength of an Acid



inductive electron withdrawal



### A Substituent's Effect on pK<sub>a</sub> Depends on Distance



#### Acidity, basicity, pKa



# Work up and isolation of a sample

A) Thin layer chromatography (TLC)



B) Separation operation



C) Column chromatography



D) Structure determination

- Melting point
- IR
- MS
- NMR
- X-ray

### Water and Diethyl Ether Form Two Layers

Diethyl ether is less dense than water, so diethyl ether is on top.

Neutral compounds dissolve in diethyl ether.

Charged compounds dissolve in water.



### **Extraction method**



# **Lewis Acids and Bases**

Lewis acid: a species that accepts a share in an electron pair Lewis base: a species that donates a share in an electron pair



All Brønsted acids are Lewis acids. All Brønsted bases are Lewis bases.

# **Lewis Acids and Bases**



# **Lewis Acids and Bases**



# **How Chemists Use the Terms**

"acid" = a proton-donating acid "Lewis acid" = a non-proton-donating acid

All bases are Lewis bases

because they have a pair of electrons they can share.

- Brønsted acids donate protons.
- Brønsted bases accept protons.
  - Lewis acids accept electrons.
  - Lewis bases donate electrons.

# **HSAB**



**Hard Lewis acids** are characterized by small ionic radii, high positive charge, strongly solvated, empty orbitals in the valence shell and with high energy LUMOs. **Soft Lewis acids** are characterized by large ionic radii, low positive charge, completely filled atomic orbitals and with low energy LUMOs. **Hard Lewis bases** are characterized by small ionic radii, strongly solvated, highly electronegative, weakly polarizable and with high energy HOMOs. **Soft Lewis bases** are characterized by small ionic radii, intermediate

**Soft Lewis bases** are characterized by large ionic radii, intermediate electronegativity, highly polarizable and with low energy HOMOs.

# In short, Hard acids and bases are small and non-polarizable, whereas Soft acids and bases are larger and more polarizable.

# HSAB



	Acids	Bases
Hard	H*, Li*, Na*, K*, Be <sup>2*</sup> , Mg <sup>2*</sup> , Fe <sup>3*</sup> , Ca <sup>2*</sup> , Cr <sup>2*</sup> , Cr <sup>3*</sup> , Al <sup>3*</sup> , SO <sub>3</sub> , BF <sub>3</sub>	F <sup>-</sup> , OH <sup>-</sup> , H2O, NH3, CO3 <sup>2-</sup> , NO3 <sup>-</sup> , O <sup>2-</sup> , SO4 <sup>2-</sup> , PO4 <sup>3-</sup> , ClO4 <sup>-</sup>
Borderline	Fe2+, Co2+, Ni2+, Cu2+, Zn2+, Pb2+, SO2, BBr3	NO2", SO32", Br", N3", N2, C6H5N, SCN
Soft	Cu+, Au+, Ag+, Tl+, Hg22+, Pd2+, Cd2+, Pt2+, Hg2+, BH3	H-, R-, CN-, CO, I-, SCN-, R3P, C6H5, R2S

# **HSAB**





# Isomers

Enantiomers can have very different physiological properties.



### A Receptor is a Protein Proteins are Chiral Molecules

Because a receptor is chiral, it binds one enantiomer.

A right-handed glove fits only a right hand.



binding site of the receptor



binding site of the receptor

### The enantiomers of Thalidomide



Thalidomide was developed in west Germany and was first marketed (as Contergan) in 1957 for insomnia, tension and morning sickness during pregnancy.

The (+) isomer has stronger sedative properties, but the commercial drug was racemic (contained 1:1 mixture of (+) and (-) isomers). At that time no one knew that the (-) isomer was a teratogen – a compound that causes congenital deformations -.
# Isomers

Isomers are compounds that have the same molecular formula but different structures.



# **Different Conformations**

Different conformations (conformers) of a compound cannot be separated.

#### **Different Conformations**



# **Different Configurations**

Compounds with different configurations can be separated.

**Different Configurations** 



Cis-trans isomers have different configurations.

# **Chiral Molecules**

A chiral molecule has an asymmetric center. An asymmetric center is an atom that is attached to **four different groups**.





# **Enantiomers**

Definition: Molecules that are nonsuperimposable mirror images of each other are called enantiomers.



The two stereoisomers are called enantiomers. Enantiomers are different compounds: they can be separated.

# **Chiral and Achiral Molecules**



A chiral compound has a nonsuperimposable mirror image.

An achiral compound has a superimposable mirror image. (it and its mirror image are identical molecules).

# **How to Draw Enantiomers**

#### **Perspective formulas**



perspective formulas of the enantiomers of 2-bromobutane

1.- Two of the bonds center in the plane (adjacent to each other)

2.- One bond as a solid wedge protruding forward out of the paper

3.- The fourth bond as a hatched wedge extending behind the paper

It is solid and hatched wedges must be adjacent to each other
It is solid wedge must be below the hatched wedge

# **How to Draw Enantiomers**

#### **Fischer projections**



- 1.- Horizontal lines represent the bonds that project out of the plane toward the viewer
- 2.- Vertical lines represent the bonds that extend back from the plane away from the viewer
- 3.- The carbon chain is usually drawn vertically, with C-1 at the top

# **Cahn-Ingold-Prelog**



Vladimir Prelog with R.S. Cahn and Sir Christopher Ingold, who proposed the CIP system for the unambiguous specification of stereoisomers. Shown at the 1966 Burgenstock Conference (I to r: Cahn, Ingold, Prelog).

**Robert Sidney Cahn** (1899–1981), born in London, England, received an M.A. from Cambridge University and a doctorate in natural philosophy in France. He edited the Journal of the Chemical Society (London) from 1949 to 1963.

**Sir Christopher Ingold** (1893–1970), born in Ilford, England, was a professor of chemistry at Leeds University (1924–1930) and at University College, London (1930–1970). In 1958 he was knighted by Queen Elizabeth II.

**Vladimir Prelog** (1906–1998) was born in Sarajevo, Bosnia. In 1929 he received a Dr. Ing. degree from the Institute of Technology in Prague, Czechoslovakia. He taught at the University of Zagreb from 1935 until 1941, when he fled to Switzerland just ahead of the invading German army. He was a professor at the Swiss Federal Institute of Technology (ETH). For work that contributed to an understanding of how living organisms carry out chemical reactions, he shared the 1975 Nobel Prize in Chemistry with John Cornforth

Assign relative priorities to the four groups CIP (Cahn-Ingold-Prelog) system.

1.- Rank the group (or atoms) bonded to the asymmetric center in order of priority (the higher the atomic number, the higher the priority).

2.- The group (or atom) with the lower priority (4) has to be bonded by a hatched wedge (pointing behind).

!! If the group (or atom) with priority (4) is not bonded by a hatched wedge:

- Interchange group (4) with the group that is bonded by a hatched wedge



3.- Draw an arrow in order of decreasing priority,  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3$ !! Arrow pointing clockwise = (*R*), rectus (right)

Arrow pointing counterclockwise = (S), sinister (left)

#### **Draw an arrow from 1 to 2 to 3.**



If the lowest priority group is on a hatched wedge, then

clockwise = R and counterclockwise = S

If the lowest priority group is not on a hatched wedge, switch a pair so it is on a hatched wedge.

#### Then, name the new compound.





If the lowest priority group is on a vertical bond, then

clockwise = R and counterclockwise = S



If the lowest priority group is on a horizontal bond, then

counterclockwise = R and clockwise = S

# Stereochemistry

#### **Chiral compounds with no stereogenic centres**

some biaryl compounds,

such as the important bisphosphine below, known as BINAP, exist as two separate enantiomers because rotation about the green bond is restricted.



Axial chirality: an axis about which a set of substituents is held in a spatial arrangement that is not superposable on its mirror image.

Organometallic Compounds

# Carbon Can Be an Electrophile or a Nucleophile



Carbon is an electrophile when it is attached to an electron-withdrawing group.



Carbon is a nucleophile when it is attached to a metal.

# Carbon Can Be an Electrophile or a Nucleophile



CH<sub>3</sub>Li organometallic compound CH<sub>3</sub>Cl alkyl halide

# Carbon Can Be an Electrophile or a Nucleophile





# Electronegativities



IA	IIA			IB	IIB	IIIA	IVA	VA	VIA	VIIA
Н 2.1										
Li 1.0	Be 1.5					B 2.0	C 2.5	N 3.0	0 3.5	F 4.0
Na 0.9	Mg 1.2					Al 1.5	Si 1.8	P 2.1	S 2.5	Cl 3.0
K 0.8	Ca 1.0	Co 1.7	Ni 1.7	Cu 1.8	Zn 1.7	Ga 1.8	Ge 2.0			Br 2.8
		Rh 2.4	Pd 2.4	Ag 1.8	Cd 1.5		Sn 1.7			I 2.5
					Hg 1.5		Pb 1.6			

<sup>a</sup>From the scale devised by Linus Pauling

### Many Metals Can Be Used to Make Organometallic Compounds

An organometallic compound contains a carbon-metal bond.



Organomagnesium and organolithium compounds are two of the most common organometallic compounds.

# Nomenclature

### Name the alkyl group, then the metal.

CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>Li **butyllithium**  CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>MgBr ethylmagnesium bromide (CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>Cd dipropylcadmium  $(CH_3CH_2)_4Pb \\ \textbf{tetraethyllead} \\$ 

# Organomagnesium Compounds



#### **More on making Grignard reagents**

The reaction takes place not in solution but on the surface of the metal, and how easy it is to make a Grignard reagent can depend on the state of the surface—how finely divided the metal is, for example. Magnesium is usually covered by a thin coating of magnesium oxide, and Grignard formation generally requires 'initiation' to allow the metal to come into direct contact with the alkyl halide. Initiation usually means adding a small amount of iodine or 1,2-diiodoethane,

# The Synthesis of a Grignard Reagent is Carried Out in an Ether Solvent



The solvent provides electrons so that magnesium can complete its octet.

# Organolithium Compounds



# Deprotonation



# Halogen-metal exchange

![](_page_63_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_63_Figure_2.jpeg)

#### Organomagnesium and Organolithium Compounds React as if They Were Carbanions

 $CH_3CH_2$ —MgBr reacts as if it were  $CH_3\dot{C}H_2$  <sup>+</sup>MgBr ethylmagnesium bromide

reacts as if it were

![](_page_64_Picture_4.jpeg)

phenyllithium

### Organomagnesium and Organolithium Compounds Will React with a Proton of an Acidic Group

 $\begin{array}{rclcrcl} CH_3MgBr &+ & H_2O \iff CH_4 &+ & HOMgBr \\ CH_3MgBr &+ & CH_3OH \iff CH_4 &+ & CH_3OMgBr \\ CH_3MgBr &+ & NH_3 \iff CH_4 &+ & H_2NMgBr \\ CH_3MgBr &+ & CH_3NH_2 \iff CH_4 &+ & CH_3NHMgBr \\ CH_3MgBr &+ & HC \equiv CH \iff CH_4 &+ & HC \equiv CMgBr \end{array}$ 

# When the Grignard reagent reacts with a proton, it forms an alkane.

# **Transmetallation**

2.5 1.2 = 1.3 2.5 1.5 = 1.0  $2 \operatorname{CH_3CH_2MgCl} + \operatorname{CdCl_2} \longrightarrow (\operatorname{CH_3CH_2)_2Cd} + 2 \operatorname{MgCl_2}$ ethylmagnesium chloride

An organometallic compound will undergo transmetallation (metal exchange) if a less polar carbon–metal bond will be formed.

> The more polar the carbon–metal bond, the more reactive the organometallic compound.

# Organometallics in action

#### Fenarimol

Fenarimol is a fungicide that works by inhibiting the fungus's biosynthesis of important steroid molecules. It is made by reaction of a diarylketone with an organolithium derived by halogen-metal exchange.

![](_page_67_Figure_3.jpeg)

### Organocuprates

![](_page_68_Figure_1.jpeg)

Organocuprates are also called Gilman reagents.

# The Alkyl Group of an Organocuprate Replaces a Halogen

**C-C bond forming reactions (coupling reactions)** 

![](_page_69_Figure_2.jpeg)

A coupling reaction joins two CH-containing groups.

# The Alkyl Group of an Organocuprate Replaces a Halogen

**C-C bond forming reactions (coupling reactions)** 

A coupling reaction joins two CH-containing groups.

![](_page_70_Figure_3.jpeg)

# The Reaction of an Organocuprate with Ethylene Oxide

An Organocuprate is a Nucleophile

$$(CH_{3}CH_{2})_{2}CuLi + H_{2}C - CH_{2} \longrightarrow CH_{3}CH_{2}CH_{2}CH_{2}O^{-} \xrightarrow{HCI} CH_{3}CH_{2}CH_{2}CH_{2}OH + CH_{3}CH_{2}Cu + Li^{+}$$

#### The alcohol has two more carbons than the alkyl group of the organocuprate.