Reactions of Substituted Benzene – Continued

How can Basic Brown be synthesized from toluene? (The process of figuring out what starting materials could be used to synthesize a target molecule is known as retrosynthesis).

It is easier to make the bond to the two B rings than it is to make the bond to ring A. The following rings (one of A and two of B) could be used to synthesize basic brown:

These could be synthesized from toluene by the following:

A and B will react with each other spontaneously to form basic brown.
Lecture Outline 3: Alcohols, Ethers, Stereochemistry, Ketones, and Aldehydes

Nomenclature of Alcohols

Alcohols are compounds that have a hydroxyl group (-OH) bonded to a carbon atom (but not a carbonyl C=O). Alcohols can be thought of as organic derivatives of water in which one of the hydrogens is replaced by an organic group: H-O-H versus R-O-H. Alcohols occur widely in nature and have many industrial and pharmaceutical applications. Ethanol is one of the simplest alcohols, finding use as a fuel additive, an industrial solvent, and key ingredient in many beverages (beer, wine etc).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{H}_2\text{C} & \text{C} \text{O} \text{H} \\
\text{Ethanol}
\end{align*}
\]

Naming Alcohols

Alcohols are classified as primary (1°), secondary (2°), or tertiary (3°), depending on the number of organic groups bonded to the hydroxyl bearing carbon.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{primary alcohol (1°)} & \quad \text{secondary alcohol (2°)} & \quad \text{tertiary alcohol (3°)}
\end{align*}
\]

Simple alcohols are named using the IUPAC system as derivatives of the parent alkane, using the suffix \textit{ol}:

1) Select the longest carbon chain containing the alcohol, and derive the parent name by replacing the \textit{-e} ending of the corresponding alkane with \textit{-ol}.
2) Number the alkane chain, beginning at the end closest to the hydroxyl group.
3) Number the substituents according to their position on the chain.

For example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{H}_3\text{C} & \text{OH} & \text{HOH} & \text{HOH} & \text{HOH} \\
\text{methanol} & \text{ethanol} & \text{n-propanol} & \text{2-propanol} & \text{or isopropanol}
\end{align*}
\]

or methyl alcohol
or wood alcohol
If there is more than 1 OH group:
2 OH’s  diol (glycol)
3 OH’s  triol
4 OH’s  tetraol

Some simple and widely occurring alcohols have common names that are accepted by IUPAC. For example:

- ethylene glycol or 1,2-ethanediol (antifreeze)
- glycerol or 1,2,3-propanetriol or propane-1,2,3-triol
- the freezing point is lower if mixed with water
- a precursor to fatty acids (esters)
- is used for lubricants such as KY jelly

You need to know the following structures:

- phenol
- 4-hydroxyphenol or p-hydroxyphenol or hydroquinone
- quinone
- catechol

A more difficult example is the name of the sex pheromone from the silk worm moth shown below.

The longest chain is 16 carbons long, which is a hexadecane. The -e ending is dropped, and replaced with –ol to become hexadecan-1-ol. There are two cis double bonds present at positions 10 and 12. This information allows the compound to be named a 10,12-diene. Putting the overall name together then gives hexadeca-10Z,12Z-dien-1-ol.

This molecule was discovered by Adolf Butenandt in 1959.
The word pheromone comes from pherein (to carry) and horman (excitement)
Physical Properties of Alcohols and Acidity

Look at the following comparisons:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Methanol</th>
<th>Ethane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formula</td>
<td>CH₃OH</td>
<td>CH₃CH₃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molecular Weight (g/mol)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boiling Point (° C)</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>-89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State (at room temp)</td>
<td>liquid</td>
<td>gas</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ethane has almost the same molecular weight as methanol. However, the boiling point is much lower than methanol.

Similarly, propane has approximately the same molecular weight as ethanol, but the boiling point is significant lower than ethanol:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Ethanol</th>
<th>Propane</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formula</td>
<td>CH₃CH₂OH</td>
<td>CH₃CH₂CH₃</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molecular Weight (g/mol)</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boiling Point (° C)</td>
<td>78.5</td>
<td>-44.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why are the boiling points so different?
Answer: Alcohols are polar and able to form hydrogen bonds.

![Diagram of alcohol molecule]

Alcohols are strongly associated with each other both through dipole-dipole attraction (weaker intermolecular force) and hydrogen bonding (a stronger intermolecular force). The presence of the electronegative oxygen atom polarizes the bonds, and produce dipole moments. The basic oxygen atoms also form partial bonds to the acidic hydroxyl hydrogens of another molecule (shown as dotted line in the figure above). Together, these factors raise the boiling points of alcohols far above their parent alkanes, with the hydrogen bonding being the most significant and powerful factor.
Review from previous term, there are **three** fundamental non-covalent bonding forces:

1. Hydrogen bonding (occur with hydrogen attached directly to electronegative atoms such as O, N, or halogen). Linus Pauling described this.
2. Dipole-dipole interaction
3. London dispersion forces (temporary dipole interactions, which is the basis for hydrophobic forces). This is comparatively a weak intermolecular force on a per atom basis, but large hydrophobic (non-polar) sections of molecules interact strongly and can overcome hydrogen bonding between two atoms in the same molecules.

**Physical Properties:**

1. The polarity of alcohols make them quite soluble in (or miscible with) water if the number of carbons on the alcohol is less than 4. Butanol and higher alcohols are still soluble in water, but no longer infinitely miscible (completely soluble at all concentrations)
2. The melting point and boiling point for an alcohol is higher than its parent alkane (as seen from our comparison above).
3. The density of alcohol is less than 1 g/cm$^3$ (and hence less than water. If the given alcohol is not miscible with water (Carbons >4), it will be floating on top of water)

**Acidity**

Let’s review some basic definitions

$$\text{H} \text{--A} \xrightleftharpoons{} \text{H}^+ + \text{A}^-$$

**conjugate acid** **conjugate base**

HA is the conjugate acid of A$^-$, and A$^-$ is the conjugate base of HA.

The equilibrium constant, or acidity constant, $K_a$, for this reaction can be expressed as:

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

For example: the dissociation of methanol

$$\text{H}_3\text{C} \text{--O} \text{--H} \xrightarrow{} \text{H}^+ + \text{CH}_3\text{O}^-$$

$$K_a = \frac{[\text{H}^+][\text{CH}_3\text{O}^-]}{[\text{CH}_3\text{OH}]} = 10^{-16}$$

The oxygen of the OH group in methanol is partially negative charged and the hydrogen is partially positively charged. The O-H bond is easy to break and it can break spontaneously. When methanol with OH is put in a solution of methanol with O-D (deuterium), the hydrogen will exchange rapidly against deuterium.

By analogy with pH, we can define a quantity p$K_a$, which is often used.

$$\text{p}K_a = -\log K_a$$
Generally, the stronger the acid, the lower the pK\textsubscript{a}.

The pK\textsubscript{a} value for methanol is 16, for water is 15.7 (know these values). Since the pK\textsubscript{a} value of water is less than methanol, the dissociation of methanol is harder than water and water is a stronger acid than methanol.

Remember that the pK\textsubscript{a} and pK\textsubscript{w} for water are not the same.

\[ K_w = [H^+][OH^-] \]
\[ K_a = [H^+][OH^-]/(H_2O) \]

Examples:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{H}_3\text{C} - \text{H} \\
\text{Methane}
\end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
\text{H}^+ \\
+ \\
\text{CH}_3^-
\end{array}
\]

The pK\textsubscript{a} value of methane is about 45. It is not acidic.

What happens when we replace the carbon with nitrogen, a heteroatom?

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{H} \\
\text{N} - \text{H} \\
\text{ammonia}
\end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c}
\text{H}^+ \\
+ \\
\text{NH}_2^-
\end{array}
\]

The pK\textsubscript{a} value of ammonia is 36, which is 9 orders of magnitude (10\textsuperscript{9}) more acidic than methane. This is because the nitrogen atom is more electronegative than carbon and able to stabilize the negative charge better. However, ammonia is still a very weak acid. The acidity of ammonia (NH\textsubscript{3}) should not be confused with the acidity of the ammonium ion (NH\textsubscript{4}\textsuperscript{+}) which has a pK\textsubscript{a} of 9.26.

Based on pK\textsubscript{a} values, is oxygen more or less electron withdrawing than nitrogen?
Answer: Oxygen is more electron withdrawing. It has lower pKa value, able to stabilize the negative charge more.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>pK\textsubscript{a}</th>
<th>Less acidic</th>
<th>More acidic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>methane</td>
<td>CH\textsubscript{4}</td>
<td>46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ammonia</td>
<td>NH\textsubscript{3}</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>water</td>
<td>HOH</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hydrofluoric acid</td>
<td>HF</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recall from last term, **the stability of the conjugate anion determines the acidity of a compound**. The more stabilized the anion is, more acidic the molecule is.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>pKa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>methanol</td>
<td>H$_3$C-OH</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ethanol</td>
<td>CH$_3$-CH$_2$-OH</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>isopropyl alcohol</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tert-butanol</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Structure" /></td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What do these pK$_a$ values mean in reactions?

\[
\text{isopropanol} \quad \text{\textstrok{H}} \quad \text{\textstrok{O}} \quad \text{isopropoxide} \quad \text{H}^+ \\
\]

Isopropanol dissociates to from isopropoxide anion and a proton. However, the dissociation constant is $1 \times 10^{-18}$. Most of the molecules exist in the isopropanol form and only one part in $10^{18}$ is ionized. The equilibrium for this reaction lies far to the left.

There are two alkyl groups attached to the central carbon bearing oxygen in isopropanol. The alkyl groups (methyls) donate electron density to that carbon (an inductive effect) that is already next to a negative charged center (O$^-$$^\text{(aq)}$). Since negative charges repel each other, the anion is less stabilized. Therefore, the anion is even less likely to form (less stabilized than if the alkyl groups (methyls) in isopropanol were missing.

Methanol (pK$_a$ 16) is 100 times ($10^2$) more acidic than isopropanol, since it has only hydrogens (a less donating group) attached to the carbon bearing the negative oxygen in the corresponding anion.

\[
\text{methanol} \quad \text{\textstrok{H}} \quad \text{\textstrok{O}} \quad \text{\textstrok{O}} \quad \text{H}^+ \\
\]

For tert-butanol (tert-butyl alcohol), there are three alkyl groups (methyls) that donate electron density to the carbon next to a negative charged group (inductive donation of electrons destabilizes the anion). Therefore, it is less likely to dissociate (pK$_a$ 19) and the molecule is even less likely to ionize (less acidic).
Consider the example below:

Where does the equilibrium lie in the above reaction?
Answer: It lies far to the right.

The reaction of a stronger base (tert-butoxide) and a stronger acid (methanol) to a weaker base (methoxide) and weaker acid (tert-butanol) is very fast.

Example:

Phenol has a $pK_a$ value of 10 (given this information, you should immediately recognize that it is more much acidic (about 6 orders of magnitude) than water ($pK_a$ 15.7) and methanol ($pK_a$ 16) since it has lower $pK_a$ value). As phenol is more acidic, this means that its conjugate anion is more stable. The phenoxide anion is stabilized through resonance (shown above). It has 4 resonance forms, and therefore, more ability to spread the negative charge and be stabilized.

Where does the equilibrium lie for ionization of phenol to phenoxide and a proton ($H^+$) ?

Answer: It lies far to the left (not ionized). Even though phenol is $10^6$ more acidic than water, its $pK_a$ of 10 tells you that the acidity constant is $10^{-10}$ or that only one part in $10^{10}$ is ionized, the rest exists as phenol with H attached to oxygen.

Equilibriums will lie to the side with the weaker acid and weaker base
Example:

Stronger acid

\[
\text{OH} \quad + \quad \text{NaOH} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{反应方向}} \quad \text{O}^- \quad + \quad \text{Na}^+ \quad \text{H}_2\text{O}
\]

Stronger base

Weak base

Weak acid

Acidity of other alcohols

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>$pK_a$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cyclohexanol</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenol</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Chlorophenol</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Nitrophenol</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-Nitrophenol</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,4-Dinitrophenol</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picric acid</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next class, we will rationalize some of these $pK_a$ values.