

## ASSIGNED READINGS:

## TODAY'S CLASS:

- 3.6-3.8 Introduction to organic rxn mechanisms  
 4.1-4.5 Alkene reactions  
 electrophilic addition mechanism  
 carbocation stability & rearrangements

NEXT CLASS: finish Ch.4  
 start Ch.5

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## Organic synthesis: Playing with molecular building blocks

BASIC TYPES OF ORGANIC REACTIONS (...more in Organic II)

## 1. Radical halogenation:

adds a functional group  
 to alkanes (*unreactive!*)



## 2. Substitution:

change to a different  
 functional group



## 3. Elimination:

create a  $\pi$ -bond



## 4. Addition:

use  $\pi$ -bond to add a  
 new functional group



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## Chapter 4: Reactions of Alkenes

### Chapter Goals

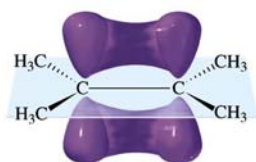
To learn the typical reaction of  $\pi$ -systems: electrophilic addition

- Learn how various electrophiles react with alkenes
- Understand the factors that determine product distribution
- Understand the relative stabilities of carbocations & alkenes
- Begin to think about synthesizing molecules of interest

- 4.1 Addition of hydrogen halides
- 4.2 Relative stabilities of carbocation intermediates
- 4.3 Structure of the transition state
- 4.4 Regioselectivity of electrophilic addition reactions
- 4.5, 4.8 Addition of water & alcohols: acid-catalyzed & others...
- 4.6 Carbocation rearrangements
  
- 4.7 Addition of halogens
- 4.9 Addition of peroxyacids
- 4.10 Addition of borane: hydroboration-oxidation
- 11.3, 11.6 Addition of radicals: relative stabilities of radicals
- 4.12 Addition of hydrogen: relative stabilities of alkenes
- 4.13 Reactions & synthesis

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### 3.6 How alkenes react: electrophilic addition



Electrons in  $\pi$ -bonds are very "exposed"

- not held tightly between nuclei like  $\sigma$ -bond  $e^-$ s
- very polarizable
- quite reactive!

→ alkenes behave as if "electron-rich"

Alkenes react with electrophiles (*i.e.*,  $e^-$  pair acceptors / LEWIS ACIDS)  
• common electrophiles:  $H^+$  (*i.e.*,  $\delta^+$  H's), metal cations, boron compounds...

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## Electrophiles & Nucleophiles

**LEWIS ACIDS** =  $e^-$  pair acceptors

Electrophile  $E^+$  (attracted to  $e^-$ s)

$H^+$  (or  $\delta^+ H$ ) } Empty s orbital  
(or nearly empty)

$\oplus CR_3$  } Empty p orbital

$BR_3$   
 $AlR_3$  } "trivalent elements"  
Empty p orbital

$Zn(II)$   
 $Fe(III)$  } Metal cations:  
Empty orbitals...

React with electron-rich species

**LEWIS BASES** =  $e^-$  pair donors

Nucleophile  $Nu^-$  (attracted to nuclei)

Any species with a lone pair

**Can react in two ways:**

*Same mechanism, different outcome*

**1. As a Brønsted base**

- React with  $\delta^+$  H atoms

**2. As a nucleophile**

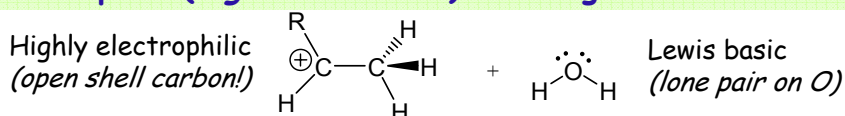
- React with  $\delta^+$  carbon or other non-H atoms

React with  $e^-$ -deficient species

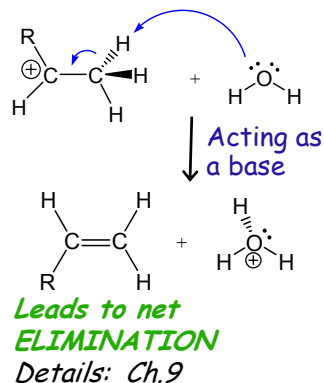
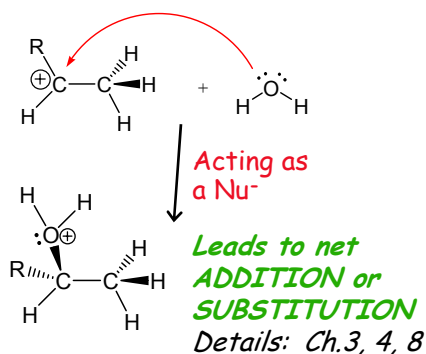
Review Bruice sect. 1.26

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### Electrophile (e.g. carbocation) reacting with Lewis base

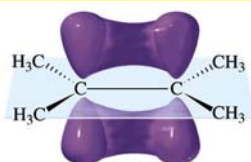


Depending on how the molecules collide & other structural factors (later: basicity, size, accessibility...), the rxn will occur in one of 2 ways:



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## 3.6 How alkenes react: electrophilic addition

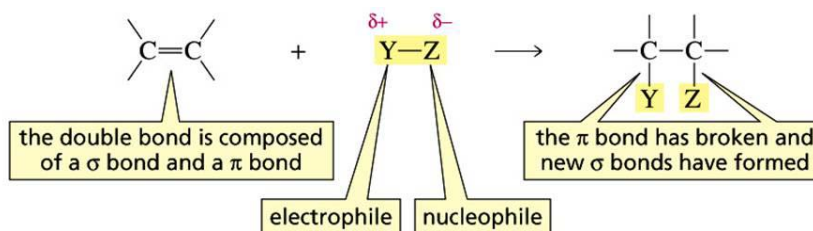


$\pi$ -e<sup>-</sup>s = polarizable & reactive

React with electrophiles...

In ELECTROPHILIC ADDITION reactions:

- an electrophile (a  $\delta^+$  centre) reacts with alkene's  $\pi$ -electrons
- end up with a small molecule "Y-Z" adding across the double bond
- many types of molecules do this, all via similar mechanism (next slide)



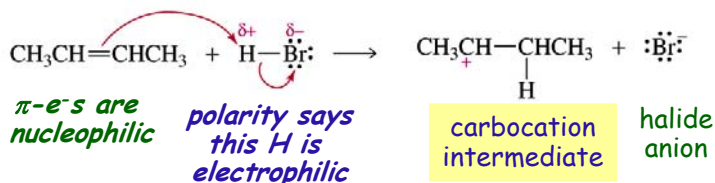
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### General mechanism of electrophilic addition rxns

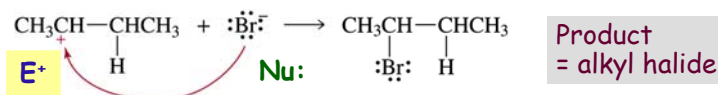
e.g., hydrohalogenation = addition of H-X

(3.6, 4.1)

**STEP 1:**  
alkene  
 $\pi$ -electrons  
attack  
electrophile



**STEP 2:**  
nucleophile  
attacks  
carbocation  
intermediate



- All hydrogen halides react this way with alkenes
  - rxn faster as HX acidity  $\uparrow$   $\Leftrightarrow$  because H is more  $\delta^+$
- Use polar, noncoordinating solvents (i.e., not Nu-ic)
  - $\Rightarrow$  X<sup>-</sup> = the only nucleophile encountered by C<sup>+</sup> int.

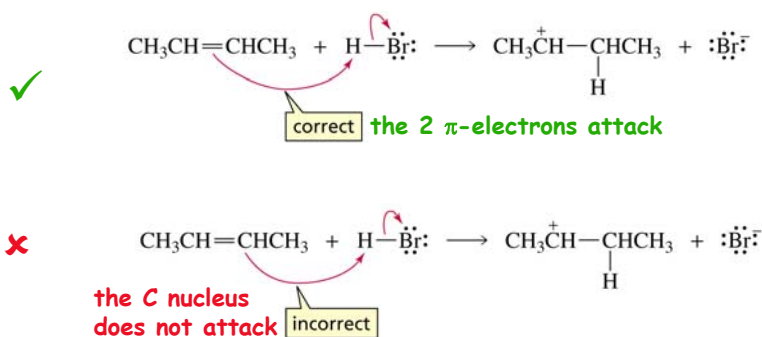
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## Curved arrows always go from Nu: to E<sup>+</sup> (3.6)

"Arrow pushing" illustrates rxn's mechanism: shows where e<sup>-</sup>s are going

- arrows start at e<sup>-</sup> rich centre (bond or lone pair): Nu:
- arrows point to e<sup>-</sup> deficient centre (empty orbital or δ<sup>+</sup> atom): E+

IMPORTANT: see text for examples of correct vs. incorrect arrow usage



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## Rxn coordinate diagram illustrates E of rxn pathway (3.8, 4.3)

Which step here is slower?

- larger ΔG<sup>‡</sup>  
⇒ smaller rate constant, *k*  
⇒ slower rxn
- To speed up rxn: choose solvent that stabilizes ‡<sub>1</sub>

resembles carbocation!

Fig. 3.7: Rxn of 2-butene with HBr

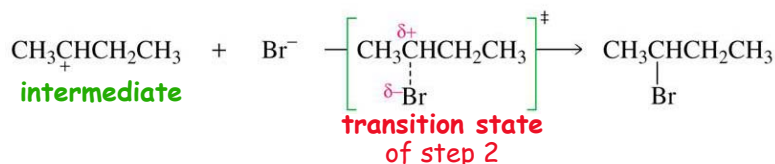
The Hammond postulate:

A rxn's transition state will resemble the species (reactant, product) to which it is energetically closer (*i.e.*, structurally similar)

Note: few slides at end = brief kinetics/thermodynamics review  
BUT: read through Bruice section 3.7 yourselves

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## A closer look at the electrophilic addition mechanism: Transition States (‡) *versus* Intermediate



**Transition state** = the most unstable moment during the reaction step

- some bonds partially broken, other bonds partially formed
- exists so transiently, no other species could collide with it...

**Intermediate** = "stable" species that can collide with other species

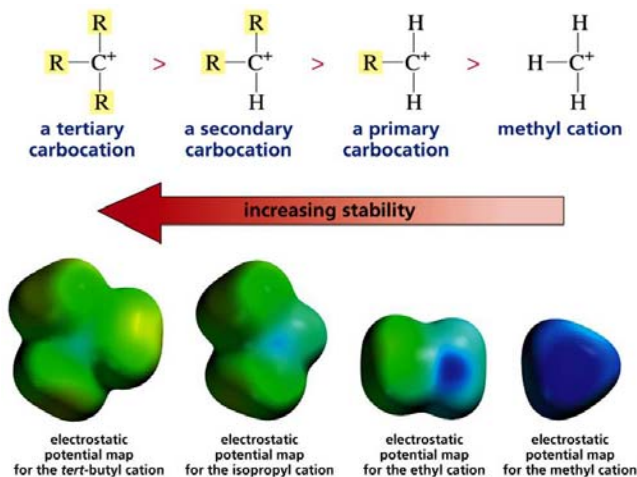
- have only full bonds (no partially formed bonds)
- but if have an open-shell atom (*e.g.*, carbocation) ⇒ very reactive!

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## 4.2 Carbocation stabilities: more stable ⇒ easier to form

Alkyl groups (EDGs)  
stabilize carbocations:

- by decreasing density of + charge at the carbocationic centre



How does this *inductive electron donation* happen?

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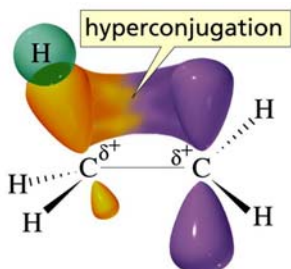
## Hyperconjugation: Partial delocalization of electrons

Can rationalize via inductive stabilization by electron-rich R groups, but orbitals give a more concrete explanation (also applies to radicals)

Consider methyl cation  $\text{CH}_3^+$  ← planar ( $\text{sp}^2$ -hyb. C, empty p-orbital)  
C already bonded to all available e<sup>-</sup>s

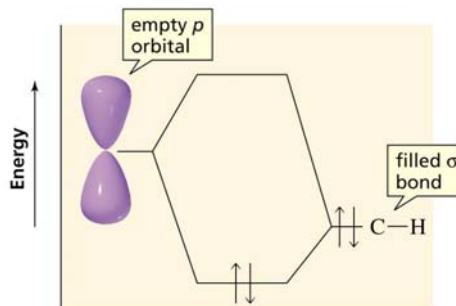
vs. ethyl cation  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2^+$

Can adopt conformation where adjacent  $\sigma$ -bonds line up with empty p-orbital:

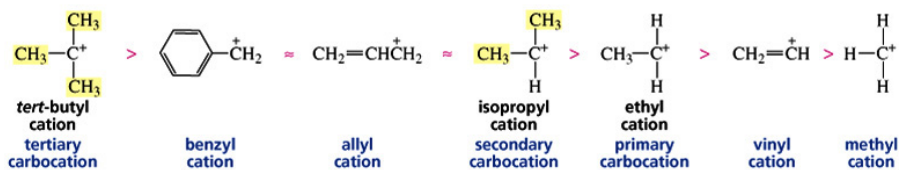


(13) Bruice Fig. 4.1

Fig. 4.2 M.O. diagram showing orbitals on neighbouring C's in an alkyl-substituted carbocation



## Relative stabilities of $\text{C}^+$ s: inductive & resonance effects



← Increasing stability

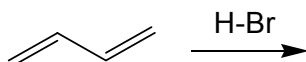
## WHY IS $\text{C}^+$ STABILITY IMPORTANT?

more stable carbocation intermediates form more easily

*i.e.*, lower  $\Delta G^\ddagger$  to reach  $\text{C}^+$ -like  $\ddagger \Rightarrow$  faster rxn via that path

$\Rightarrow$  can predict dominant product if  $\geq 2$  possible

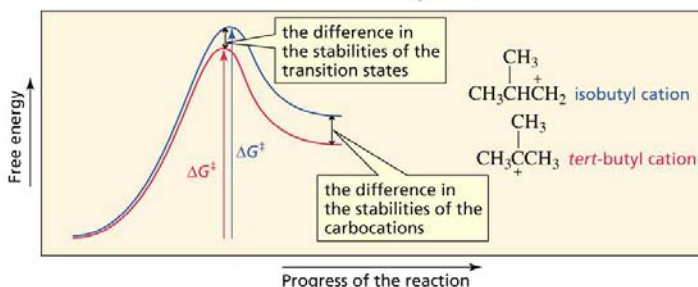
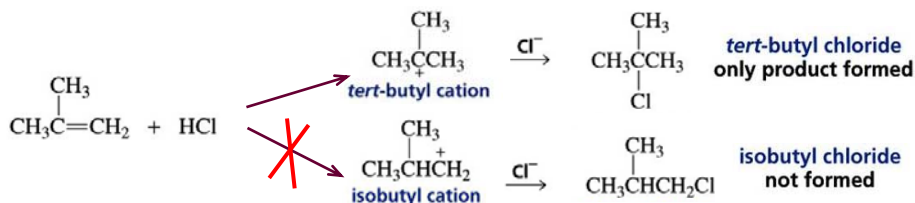
## Ex.: hydrobromination of 1,3-butadiene



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## THUS: Regiochemistry of electrophilic addition (4.4) is determined by carbocation stability

"Regio" refers to the site in the molecule where the rxn takes place  
e.g., if more than C could end up bonded to the electrophile,  
then you must worry about which "regiochemistry" is preferred

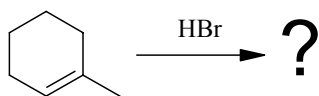


2 constitutional isomers possible as products...  
but only 1 forms  
⇒ reaction is "regioselective"

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## Predicting regiochemistry: Markovnikov's rule

*If  $E^+ = H$ : the H adds to  $sp^2$  C already bonded to larger # of Hs.*



**MARKOVNIKOV ADDITIONS:** when electrophile =  $\delta^+$  H atom

- 1<sup>st</sup> step: H attaches to less highly substituted  $sp^2$  C
- Result: C<sup>+</sup> centre on more highly substituted  $sp^2$  C (more stable)
- Examples: addition of HX, acid-catalyzed addition of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , HOR...

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(see 4.5)



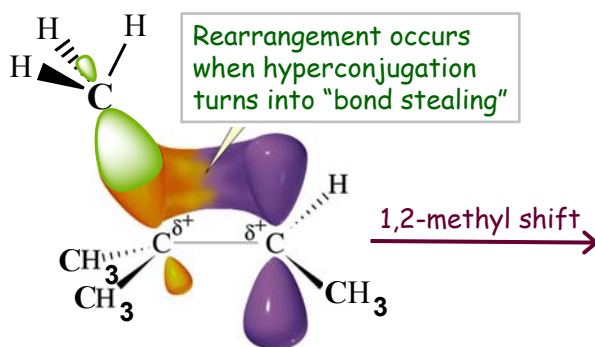
## 4.6 Carbocations rearrange: to form most stable C+ possible

Carbocations = HIGHLY REACTIVE open-shell species  
with 2 options to "solve their problem"...

1.) "search within themselves"  
(always happens first)  
⇒ REARRANGE

OR

2.) "find solace in others"  
(slower - requires collision)  
⇒ REACT WITH A Nu



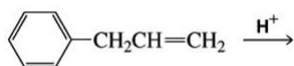
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## Rearrangements = Hydride shift OR alkyl shift

**Mechanism:** bonding pair from **adjacent C** is "stolen" by C+ centre  
⇒ substituent moves onto C+ centre, **leaving behind a more stable C+**

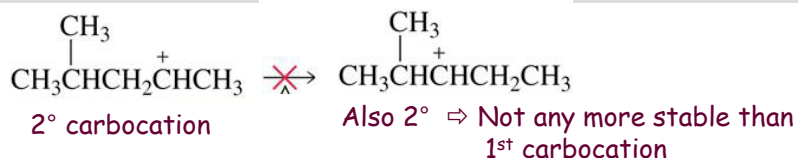


Ex.: hydrobromination of 3-phenylpropene



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## Carbocations do not always rearrange ...



## Carbocation rearrangement can lead to "Ring Expansion" (driven by relief of ring strain)

Keep on the watch for:  
carbocationic centres  
1 bond away from a ring

& then see if the  
ring-expanded product  
has significantly lower  
ring strain or not

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## 4.5 Addition of water & addition of alcohols

*Markovnikov addition: occurs in acid; electrophile = H<sup>+</sup>*

**NET RESULT:** Add H-OH or H-OR across the C=C bond

**MECHANISM:** *electrophile = H<sup>+</sup> (rxn won't happen without acid...)*

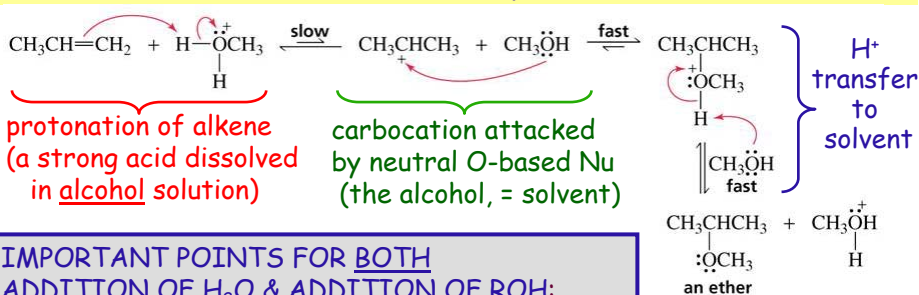
- 1.) strong acid protonates C=C bond  $\Rightarrow$  carbocation intermediate
- 2.) nucleophile (*water or alcohol*) attacks carbocationic centre
- 3.) H<sup>+</sup> transfer to solvent  $\Rightarrow$  neutral alcohol or ether product

Hydration of an alkene:

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product = an ALCOHOL

## Same mechanism for acid-catalyzed addition of alcohols



### IMPORTANT POINTS FOR BOTH ADDITION OF H<sub>2</sub>O & ADDITION OF ROH:

- strong acid required (often written just "H<sup>+</sup>")
- carbocation intermediate (rearrangements, *etc.*)
- solvent acts as nucleophile (H<sub>2</sub>O or ROH)

**DIFFERENCE:**  
product = an ETHER

### WHICH ACID?

- acid's conj. base must be less nucleophilic than water or ROH  
   ⇒ so solvent acts as nucleophile! (solvent = H<sub>2</sub>O or ROH)  
   ⇒ the less basic a species is, the less nucleophilic it is too
- common: H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> / H<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> / H<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> / MeOH, *etc.*
- Not HX: Cl<sup>-</sup>, Br<sup>-</sup> = good Nu's ⇒ get hydrohalogenation

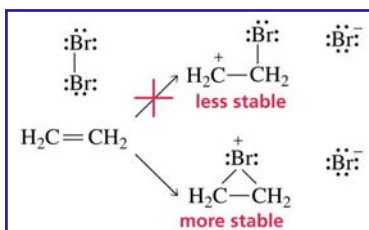
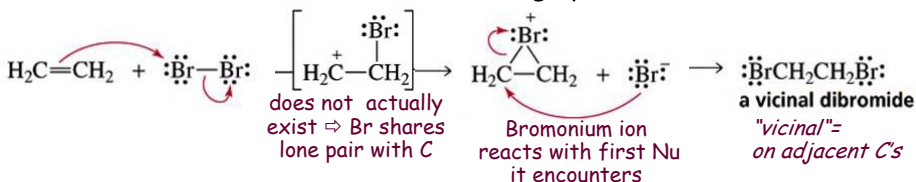
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## 4.7 Addition of halogens: "halogenation"

NET RESULT: Add X-X across the C=C bond ⇒ vicinal dihalide product

MECHANISM: polarizable X-X acts as δ<sup>+</sup>X-δ<sup>-</sup>

- 1.) C=C bond attacks "X<sup>+</sup>" ⇒ cyclic *halonium ion* intermediate
- 2.) nucleophile (X<sup>-</sup>) attacks halonium ion  
   ⇒ X ends up bonded to the more highly substituted C



- Imagine it as if C<sup>+</sup> forms 1<sup>st</sup> (*but not true!*) & then C<sup>+</sup> shares adjacent X's lone pair
- ⇒ Result: no atoms have open valence! much more stable than a C<sup>+</sup>!
- Thus: NO carbocation intermediate  
   ∴ rearrangements do NOT occur.

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## Some details about halogenation of alkenes

- Can we use all the halogens to prepare vicinal dihalides from alkenes?  
 NO:  $\text{Cl}_2$  &  $\text{Br}_2$  are the only synthetically useful halogens  
 $\text{F}_2$  is too reactive (explosive reaction  $\rightarrow$  too dangerous)  
 $\text{I}_2$  rxn thermo. unfavourable (diiodide products unstable)
- Halonium ions are reactive intermediates (but much more stable than  $\text{C}^+$ )  
 react with whichever Nu they encounter first  
 THUS: be sure Nu of interest is most conc. Nu present



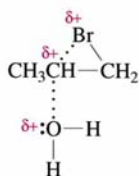
### THIS AFFECTS OUR CHOICE OF SOLVENT:

- If we want a vicinal dihalide: use non-nucleophilic solvent *e.g.*,  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$   
 only Nu the halonium ion sees is  $\text{X}^-$  anion
- If we use a nucleophilic solvent: *e.g.*, water  
 solvent will be Nu present in highest concentration!  
 $\rightarrow$  solvent reacts with halonium ion intermediate  
 $\rightarrow$  useful route to vicinally heterodisubstituted compounds,  
 such as "halohydrins" (next slide)

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## Addition of Halogens in the Presence of Water: "Halohydrin" formation (cmpd with vicinal X & OH)

Why does the Nu attack  
the more substituted C?

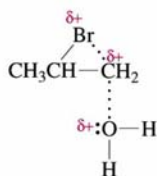


more stable transition state

Resembles the more  
stable carbocation  
(but true  $\text{C}^+$  isn't formed...)

Regiochemistry:

the OH ends up on the  
more highly substituted C  
(as usual: electrophile bonds  
to the C with more H's on it)



less stable transition state

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## What products would these reaction conditions yield?

Ask yourself:

1) What is the electrophile?

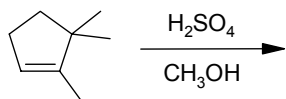
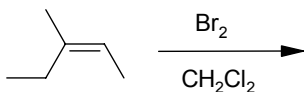
*π-bond attacks E's δ<sup>+</sup> atom...  
...& E ends up on least substituted C*

2) Does a carbocation result?

*If yes: form most stable cation possible*  
• 1<sup>st</sup>: via regiochemistry of E addition  
• 2<sup>nd</sup>: via rearrangement(s)

3) What is the nucleophile?

*Nu reacts with electrophilic carbon  
(of highest concentration) (be sure to check if solvent is nucleophilic!)*



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## ASSIGNED READINGS

### BEFORE NEXT LECTURE:

**Read:** rest of Ch.2

**Practice:** drawing cyclohexane & ring flipping

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Next 3 slides:

## Kinetics / thermodynamics review

see Bruice section 3.7

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### 3.7 Thermodynamics and kinetics: REVIEW

#### THERMODYNAMICS

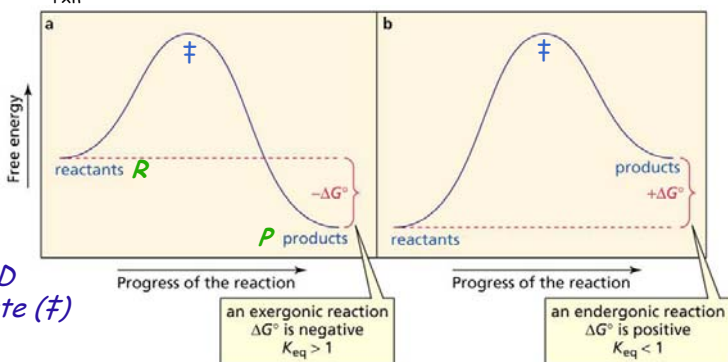
- recall:  $\Delta G^\circ = \Delta H^\circ - T\Delta S^\circ$   
and  $\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K_{eq}$

So: what will our rxn mixture be like when it reaches EQUILIBRIUM:

- large, negative  $\Delta G^\circ_{rxn}$ : product-favoured
- large, positive  $\Delta G^\circ_{rxn}$ : reactant-favoured

- Enthalpy relates to stabilization due to bonds  
 $\Delta H^\circ$  estimated using bond energies (formed - broken...)
- Entropy relates to disorder  
 $\Delta S^\circ$  estimated by comparing degree of movement (P - R)

**Fig. 3.3**  
Reaction coordinate diagrams: show free E of reactants, products, AND transition state ( $\ddagger$ )



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**But: Thermodynamics alone says nothing about reaction rates**  
Do we have sufficient thermal energy for rxn to reach eqm?

**KINETICS:** rxn rate depends on temperature, because of E barrier

Reaction rate = (rate constant) × (concentration dependence)

1<sup>st</sup> order: rate =  $k[\text{reactant}]$

2<sup>nd</sup> order: rate =  $k[\text{reactant}]^2$  or rate =  $k[\text{reactant A}][\text{reactant B}]$   
depends on the reaction's mechanism...

Activation energy,  $E_a$ : also depends on the mechanism!

- E needed to reach ‡ (some bonds *partially* broken, others forming...)
- E of collided reactants must exceed  $E_a$  for rxn to occur

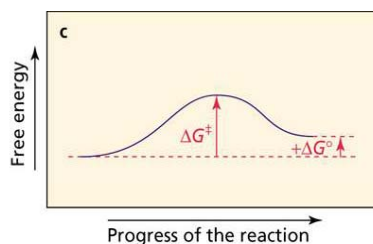
Arrhenius' equation:  $k = Ae^{-E_a/RT}$

- $E_a$  is a purely enthalpic quantity: considers bond strengths only
- the A term includes entropic factors

To include entropic factors in one term:

"free energy of activation",  $\Delta G^\ddagger$

$$\Delta G^\ddagger = \Delta H^\ddagger - T\Delta S^\ddagger$$



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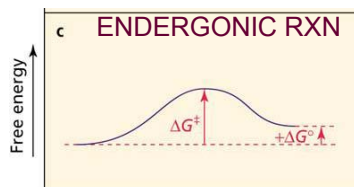
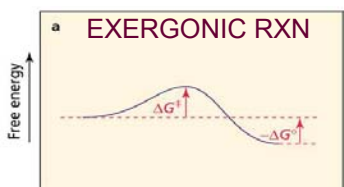
### Why this information is useful to an organic chemist

Because rxn rates depend on "getting over the energy barrier":

- anything that stabilizes rxn's transition state will make rxn faster
- choose solvent that interacts better with ‡ ⇒ lower ‡'s E ⇒ ↓  $\Delta G^\ddagger$

If both the forward & reverse rxns are "thermally accessible":

- system can reach equilibrium (steady state with  $\text{rate}_{\text{fwd}} = \text{rate}_{\text{rev}}$ )



**IMPORTANT:** Composition of rxn mixture AT EQUILIBRIUM depends on relative thermodynamic stabilities of reactants vs. products.

**At equilibrium, the more stable species will dominate. WHY?**

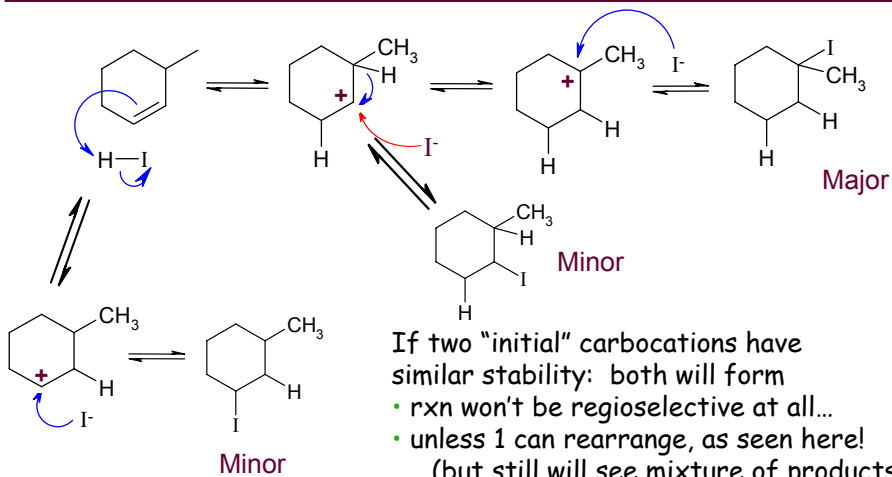
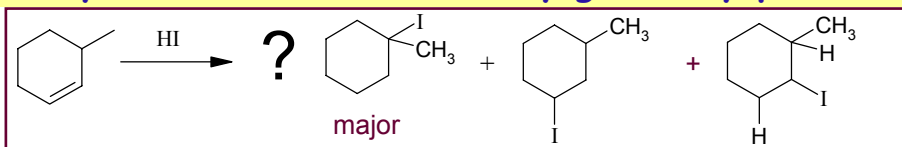
- Consider an exergonic rxn: products more stable than reactants  
IMPLIES: lower activation barrier for fwd rxn vs. reverse rxn
  - ⇒ rate constants:  $k_{\text{fwd}} > k_{\text{rev}}$
  - ⇒ rate faster in forward direction until build up large [product]
  - ⇒ by the time  $\text{rate}_{\text{fwd}} = \text{rate}_{\text{rev}}$ , have more products than reactants

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## Extra example: C<sup>+</sup> rearrangements

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Many intermediate C<sup>+</sup>s  $\Rightarrow$  may get many products



If two "initial" carbocations have similar stability: both will form

- rxn won't be regioselective at all...
- unless 1 can rearrange, as seen here! (but still will see mixture of products)

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