

Benzene Overview

* Electrophilic Substitution

① Halogenation. (Cl_2 or Br_2)

Reagent: Cl_2 (or Br_2) in CCl_4

Conditions: • halogen carrier ($\text{Fe} / \text{FeCl}_3 / \text{FeBr}_3 / \text{AlCl}_3$) \rightarrow all anhydrous (catalyst) • room temperature

Observation: steamy white fumes (HCl / HBr)

$E = \text{Cl}^+$ or Br^+

② Nitration

Reagent: conc. HNO_3 + conc. H_2SO_4 (nitration mixture)
(catalyst)

conditions: reflux at $50-60^\circ\text{C}$

observation: yellow oil is formed (nitrobenzene)

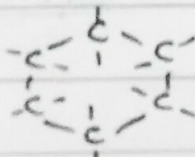
$E = \text{NO}_2^+$

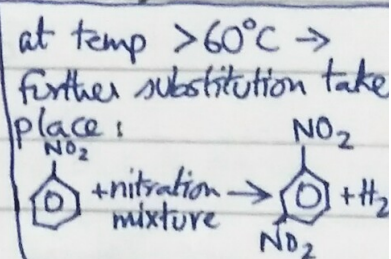
③ Hydrogenation.

reagent: H_2 gas

conditions: • finely divided nickel (catalyst)

• 150°C • 20-200 atm

product:  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_6 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}$



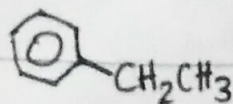
④ Alkylation.

reagents: haloalkane (RX) and AlCl_3 anhydrous (HCl sometimes)

catalyst: $\text{RCl} + \text{AlCl}_3 \rightleftharpoons \text{AlCl}_4^- + \text{R}^+$

$E = \text{R}^+$ (eg: CH_3CH_2^+)

equation: $\text{C}_6\text{H}_6 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{Cl} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C}_2\text{H}_5 + \text{HCl}$

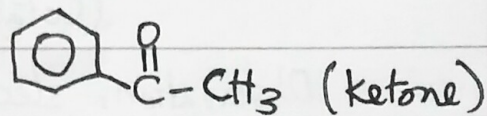
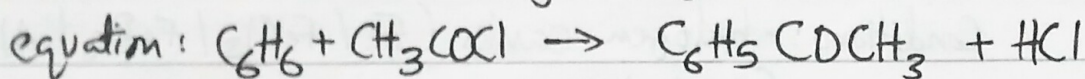
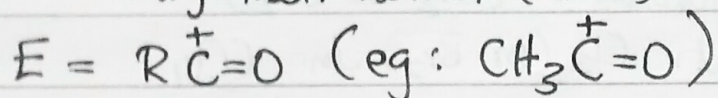


⑤ Acylation

reagents: acylchloride (RCOCl) and anhydrous AlCl_3

conditions: reflux at 50°C

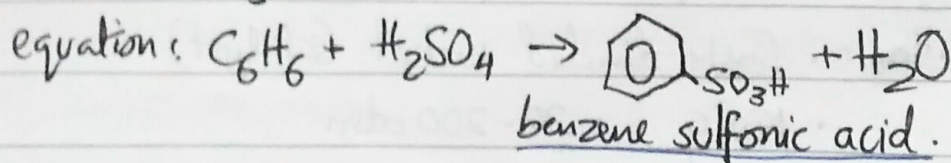
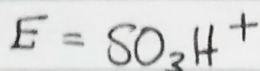
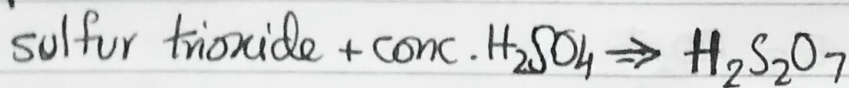
• dry inert solvent (ether)



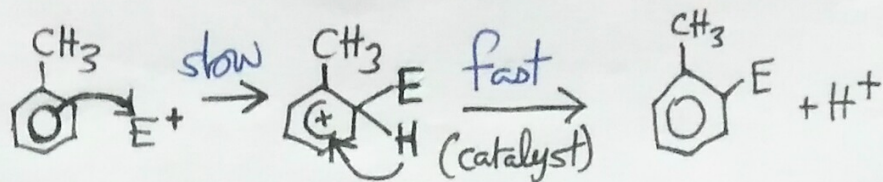
⑥ Sulfonation.

a) heat benzene under reflux with conc. H_2SO_4 for several hours

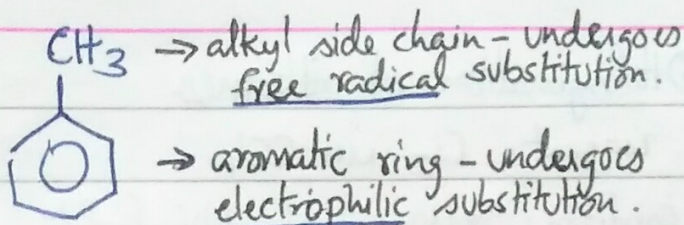
b) warm benzene under reflux with fuming sulphuric acid for 20-30 mins



Mechanism:



Methylbenzene



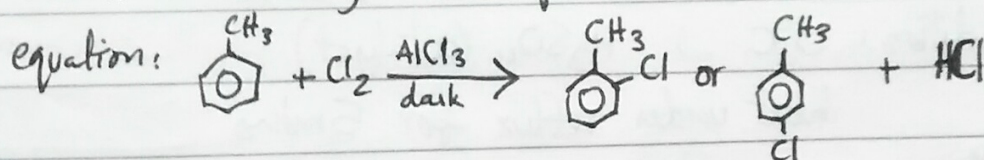
* Electrophilic Substitution & Free Radical

① Halogenation

reagent: Cl_2 in CCl_4

conditions: • halogen carrier as catalyst
• room temperature • dark

observation: steamy white fumes.



Note: electrophilic substitution
• quicker with methylbenzene
• because the methyl group donates electrons into the benzene ring making it more susceptible

② Nitration.

reagent: conc. HNO_3 + conc. H_2SO_4 (catalyst)

conditions: 30°C

observation: yellow oil (nitro) formed.

→ lower temperature due to electron donating effect of methyl group making benzene more reactive.

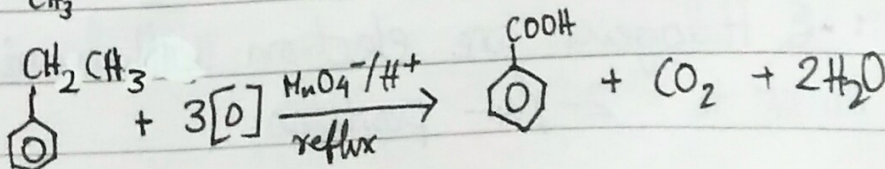
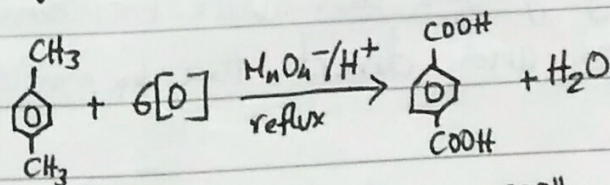
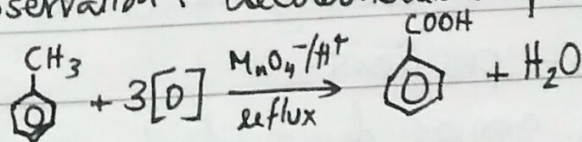
③ Hydrogenation → no change from benzene.

④ Oxidation.

reagent: KMnO_4/H^+ (aq)

condition: reflux

observation: decolourisation: purple → colourless



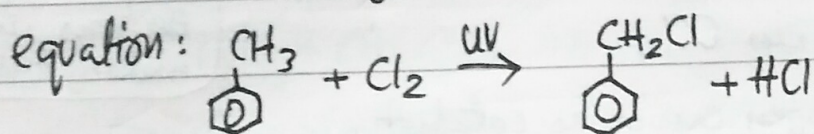
⑤ Halogenation of Alkanes

reagent: Cl_2 in CCl_4

condition: presence of UV light

product: mono-, di-, tri- substituted products.

observation: steamy white fumes.

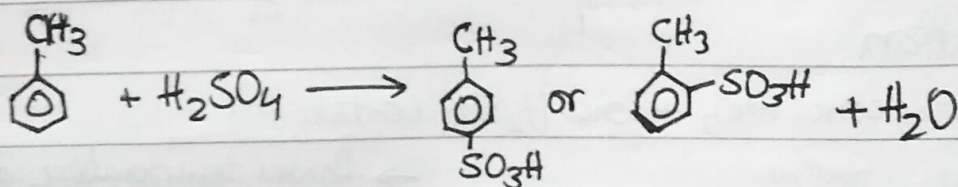


⑥ Sulfonation.

reagent: fuming sulfuric acid ($\text{H}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_7$)

condition: 0°C ; H_2SO_4 (catalyst)

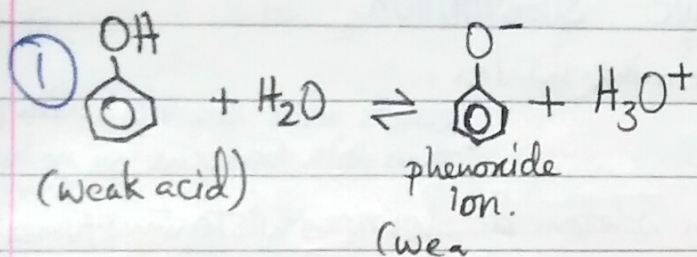
heat under reflux for 5 mins



- Only about 5-10% are the 4-isomer. As the temperature increases proportions of the 4-isomer increases and the 2-isomer decreases.

- * Electron-donating groups activate benzene for electrophilic substitution and usually direct the incoming group to the 2-/4-positions.
- * Electron-withdrawing groups deactivate benzene for electrophilic substitution and direct the incoming group to the 3-position.
- * Exception: • Halogens are electron withdrawing but direct to 2-/4-positions.

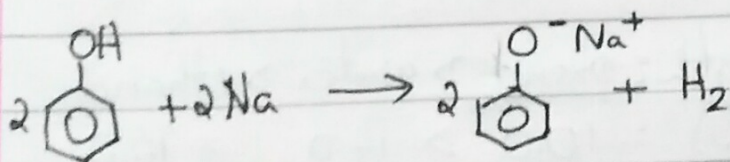
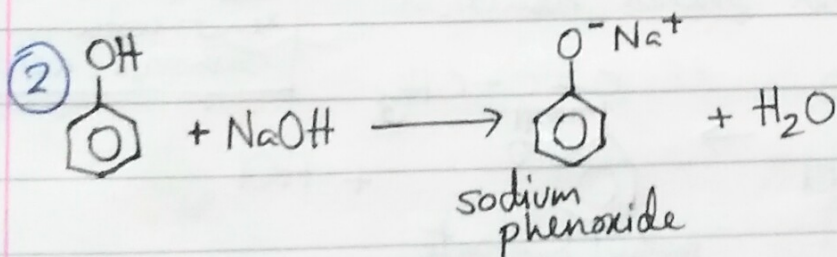
Phenols



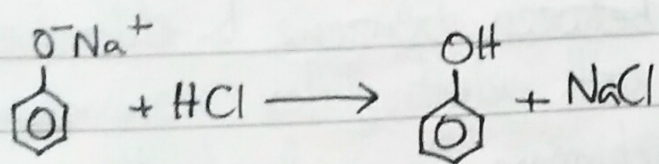
The -ve charge of the phenoxide ion is spread over the whole ion as the lone pairs on the oxygen overlaps with the delocalised π bonding system in the benzene ring.

This reduces the charge density of -ve charge compared to OH- or C2H5O- and so the H+ ions are not very strongly attracted to the phenoxide ion.

Phenol ionises to form a more stable negative ion, so the ionisation of phenol is more likely. Position of equilibrium on right.



• Observation: gas evolved; more vigorous than with ethanol.

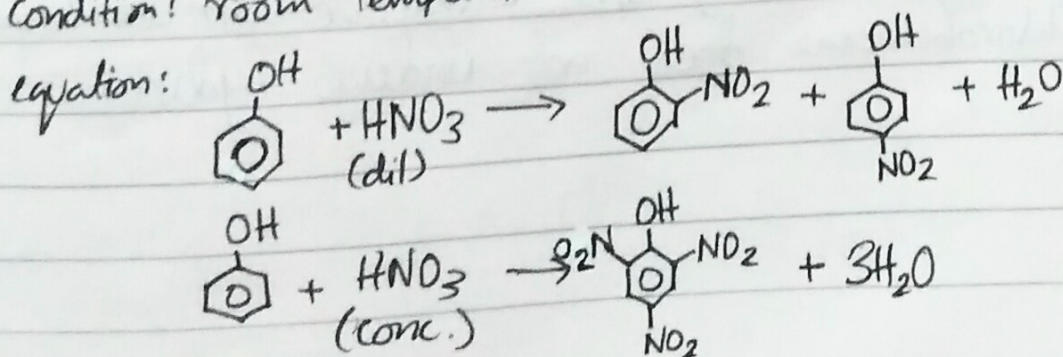


• Phenol is recovered from sodium phenoxide.

③ Nitration. - Electrophilic substitution.

Reagent: HNO3 (H2SO4 is not required)

Condition: room temperature.

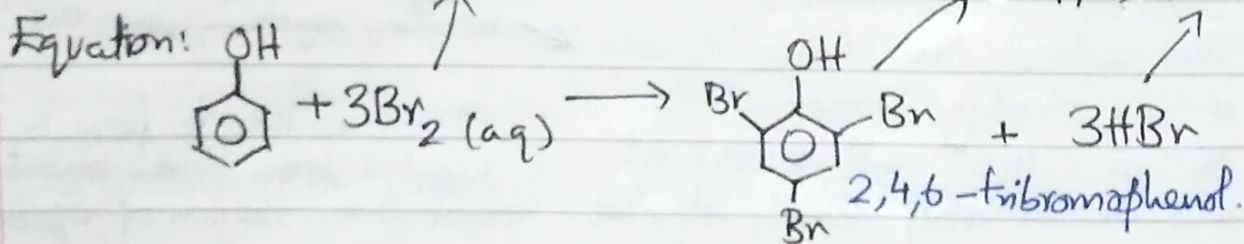


④ Halogenation - Electrophilic substitution.

Reagent: $\text{Br}_2(\text{aq})$ - Bromine water.

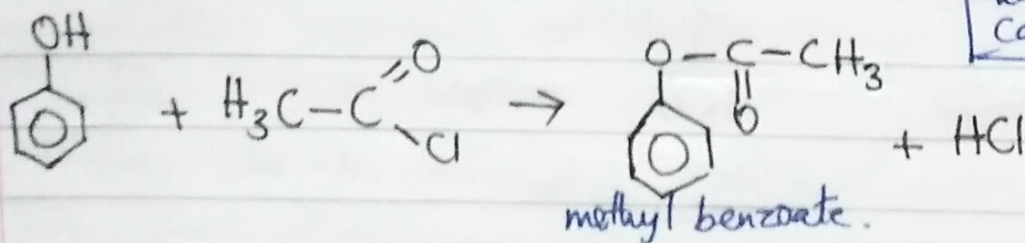
Conditions: room temperature.

Observation: reddish brown solution decolorises; white ppt; steamy fumes



reacts more readily with phenol than with benzene so no halogen carrier

⑤ Acid chloride and phenol reaction.



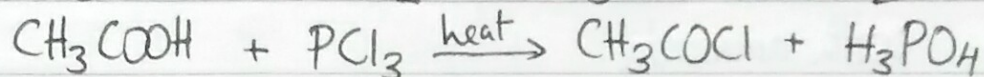
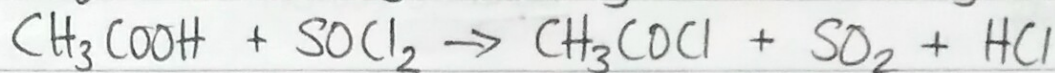
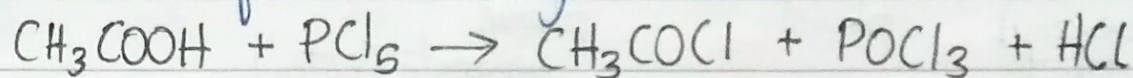
Note: phenol doesn't react with carboxylic acids

* Order of acid strength: phenol > water > ethanol.
pKa (25°C) : 10.0 14.0 16.0

- * Difference in reactivity between benzene & chlorobenzene!
- Chlorobenzene reacts with electrophiles more slowly than benzene as chlorine is a deactivating group
 - Chlorine is more electronegative than carbon so it draws the electrons in the ring towards itself making the ring less attractive for electrophiles.
 - Chlorobenzene does not undergo hydrolysis

Acyl Chlorides (-yl) $R-\overset{\delta+}{C}=\overset{\delta-}{O}-Cl^{\delta-}$ • relatively large +ve partial charge on carbon \rightarrow highly attractive to nucleophile.

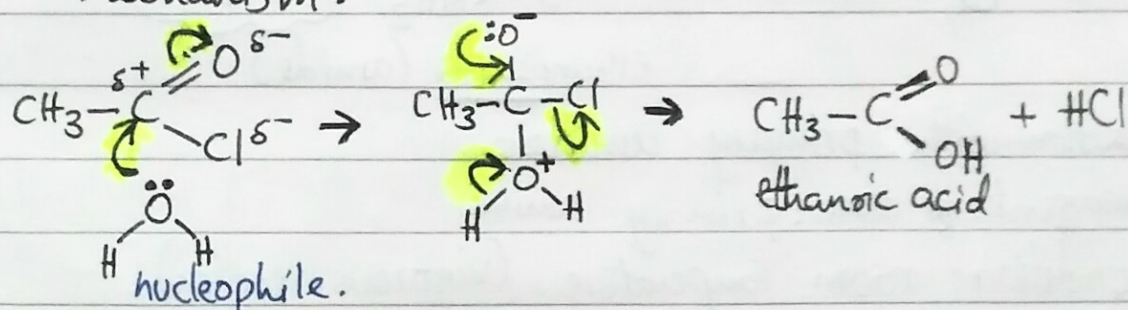
① Formation from carboxylic acids.



② Hydrolysis (addition-elimination reaction) condensation.

• very fast and vigorous

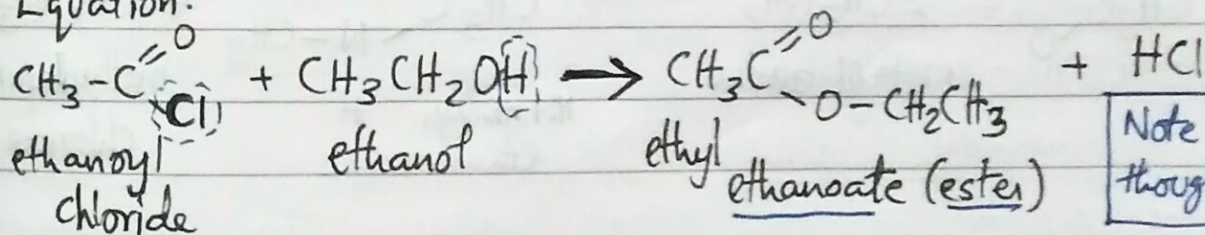
• mechanism:



③ Reaction with alcohol.

condition: room temperature. (vigorous reaction)

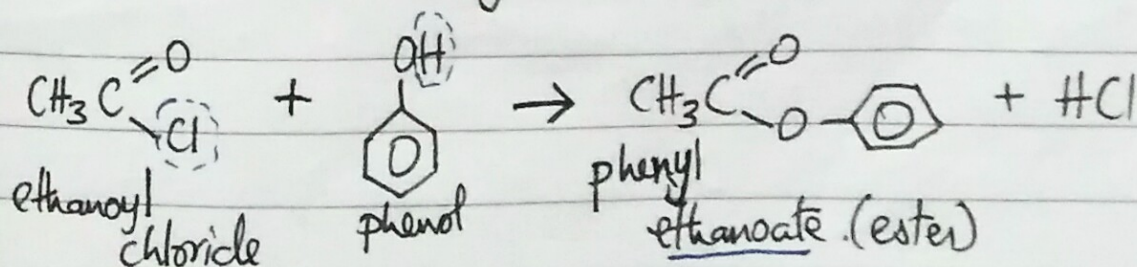
Equation:

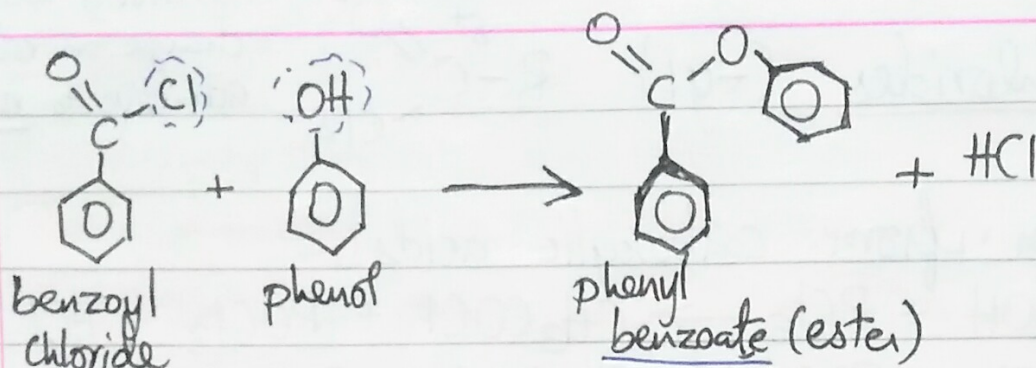


Note: no equilibrium though an ester forms

④ Reaction with phenol.

condition: warming.

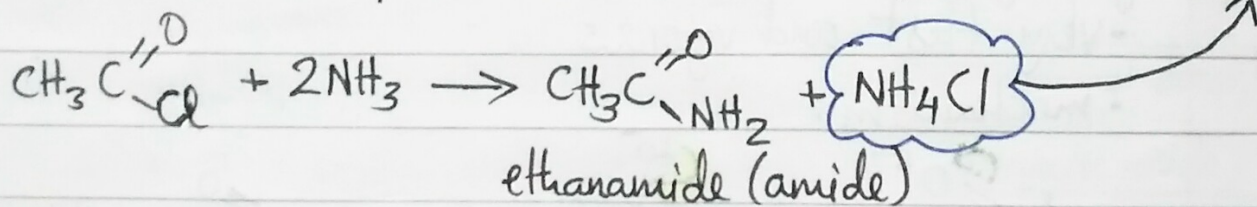




⑤ Reaction with ammonia.

reagent: conc. ammonia.

condition: room temperature (violent reaction; produces lots of ^{white} smoke)

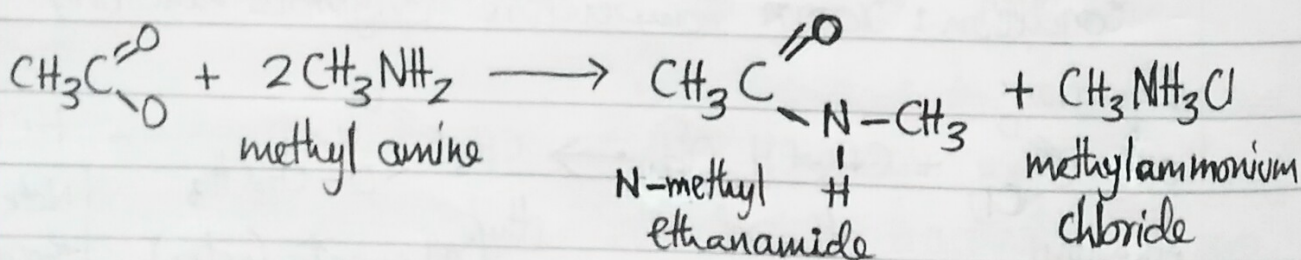


⑥ Reaction with primary amines

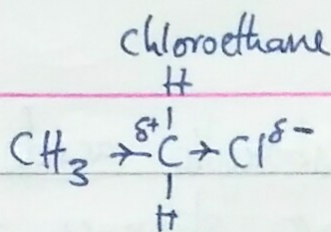
reagent: ~~pr~~ conc. primary amine

condition: room temperature. (vigorous reaction)

product: N-substituted amide



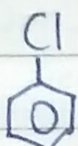
Alkyl Chlorides



- δ^+ on C is smaller than δ^+ of C in COCl_2 .
- less susceptible to nucleophilic attacks than acyl chlorides.

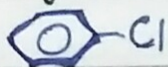
Hydrolysis with water alone is very slow unless under ~~added~~ NaOH(aq) and heat.

Aryl Chloride



chlorobenzene. Does not undergo hydrolysis

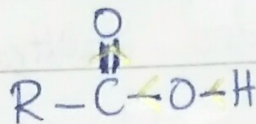
Relative ease of hydrolysis

- * acyl chloride > alkyl chloride > aryl chloride.
- | | | |
|--|----------------------|---|
| $\text{R}-\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}{\text{C}}-\text{Cl}$ | $\text{R}-\text{Cl}$ |  |
| reacts vigorously | reacts very slowly | no reaction. |

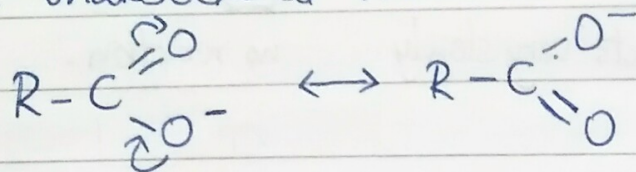
- * This can be found by warming each chloride with NaOH then with excess $\text{HNO}_3(\text{aq})$ and AgNO_3 . Formation of a white ppt is a +ve observation.
- Ethanoyl chloride gives immediate ppt - more vigorous reaction than with water
 - Chloroethane gives ppt after some time

Acidity of carboxylic acids

- * Weak acids but stronger than alcohol & phenol.
- * The O-H bond in the acid is weakened by the C=O group



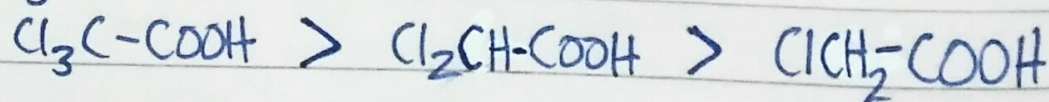
- * Carboxylate ion is stabilised by the delocalisation of electrons around the $-\text{COO}^-$ group. This spreads out the negative charge making the COO^- less likely to bond with an H^+ ion. to reform the undissociated molecule.



- * The strength of a carboxylic acid is affected by the nature of the substituent group which can be either electron-donating or electron-withdrawing.

- * Electron-withdrawing group increases the acid strength of carboxylic acids

- The electron withdrawing reduces the negative charge gathered on the O atom, thus stabilising the COO^- ion and weakening the $-\text{OH}$ bond.
- This improves the readiness of the acid to dissociate.
- Acidity:

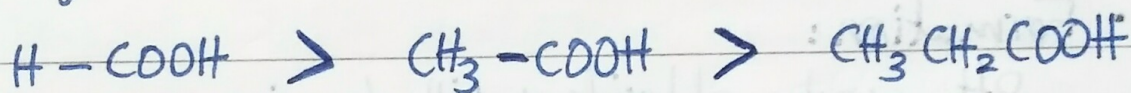


* Electron-donating groups decrease the acid strength of Carboxylic acids

- It intensifies the -ve charge on the O atom making the COO^- ion less stable.

- COO^- ion prefers to associate back with the H^+ ion to form undissociated carboxylic acid molecules.

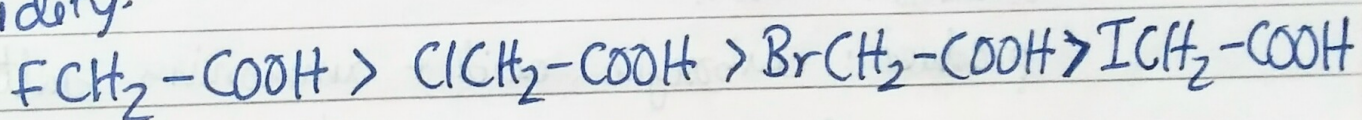
- Acidity:



* Acidity increases with electronegativity of halogen.

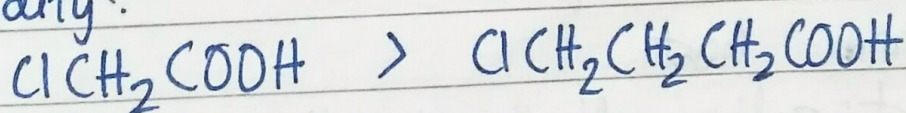
• Electronegativity: $\text{F} > \text{Cl} > \text{Br} > \text{I}$

- Acidity:



* The distance of the substituent group from the carboxyl group increases, acidity decreases

- Acidity:



* The same applies to aromatic acids also. Electron-withdrawing groups $\&$ increase the acidity of the aromatic acids.

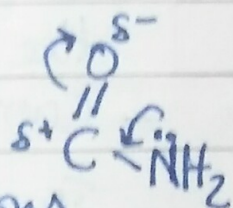
Amides $-\overset{\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}}{\text{C}}-\text{NH}_2$

* Can form hydrogen bonds

- high melting points
- soluble in water.

• Solution of amide - neutral.

- carbonyl group withdraws electrons from N.



• Formation:

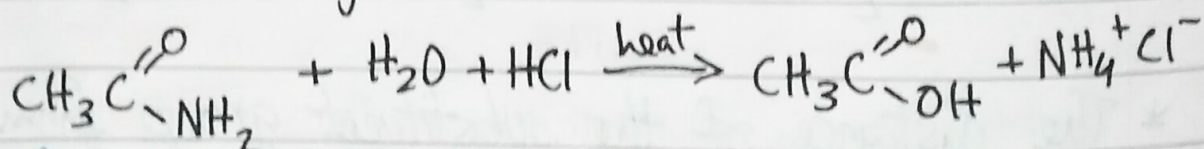
acyl chloride + NH_3 / amine

• Acid hydrolysis

reagent: HCl (dil)

condition: heat

product: carboxylic acid + ammonium salt.

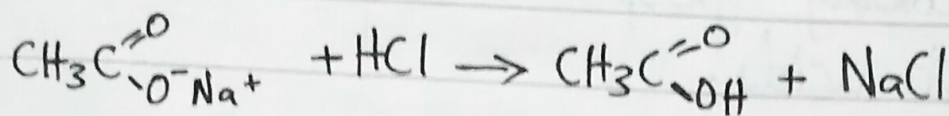
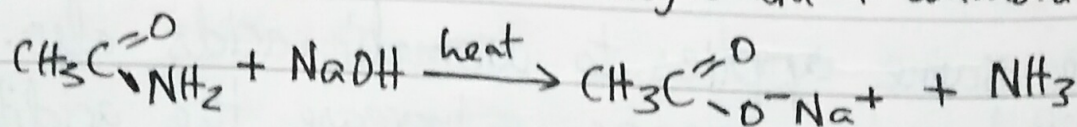


• Alkaline hydrolysis.

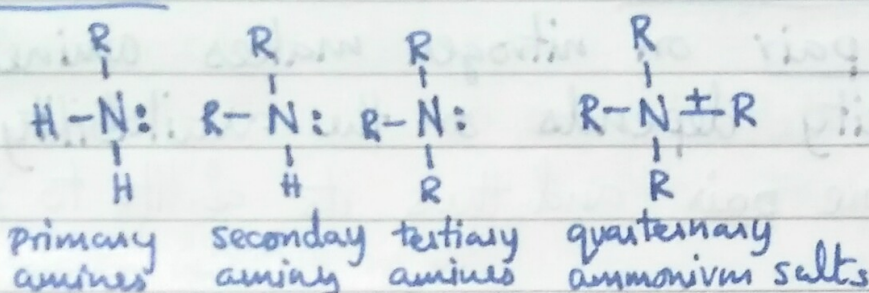
reagent: NaOH (aq)

conditions: heat

product: sodium salt of carboxylic acid + ammonia.



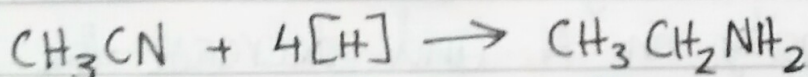
Amines



* Ethylamine formation.

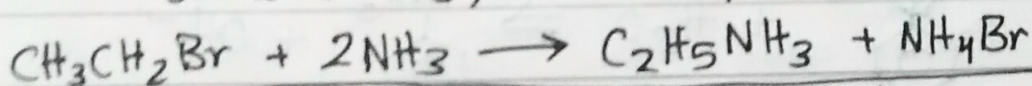
① Reduction of nitrile

Reagent: $LiAlH_4$ in dry ether
or pass H_2 over Ni at $140^\circ C$
or sodium + ethanol.



② Substitution of bromoethane with ammonia.

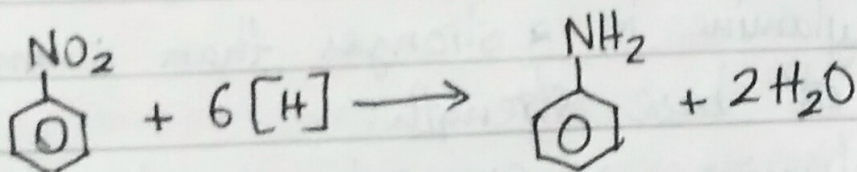
reagent: excess $NH_3(g)$ + alcohol reflux with pressure
or conc. NH_3 , heat and pressure.



NH_3 in excess so that the bromoethane molecule has more chance hitting an ammonia than hitting an amine. This will reduce the formation of secondary amines

* Phenylamine formation

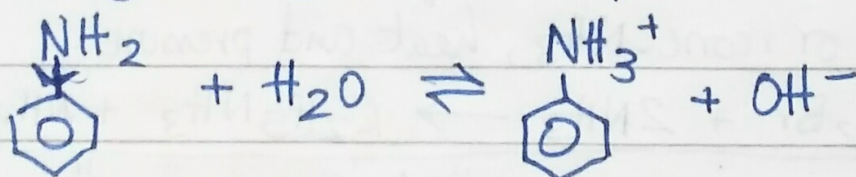
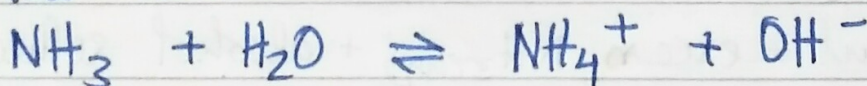
reagent: tin + conc. HCl + reflux.



$LiAlH_4$ can also be used as reducing agent in laboratory.

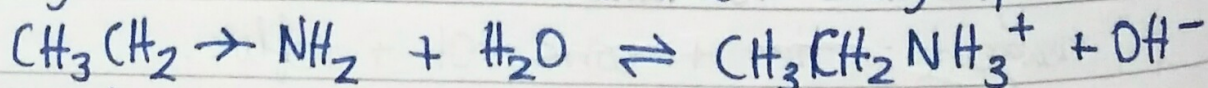
Basicity of Amines

- * The lone pair on nitrogen makes amines basic
- * Their basicity depends on the availability of their lone pair and thus its ability to pick up protons.
- * The greater the electron density on N, the better it is as a base.
- * Strength of amines depend on: availability of the lone pair on N and the stability of its conjugate acid.
- * Electron withdrawing substituents lower the electron density on N and decrease the basicity of the amine.



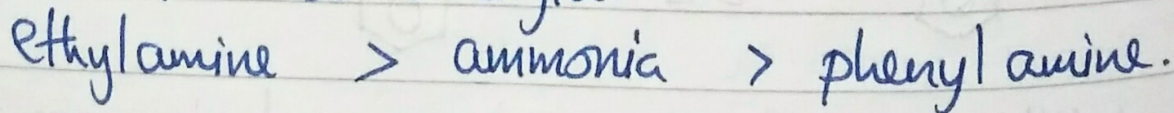
\therefore Phenylamine is weaker than ammonia.

- * Electron donating substituents increase the electron density on N and increase the basicity of the amine



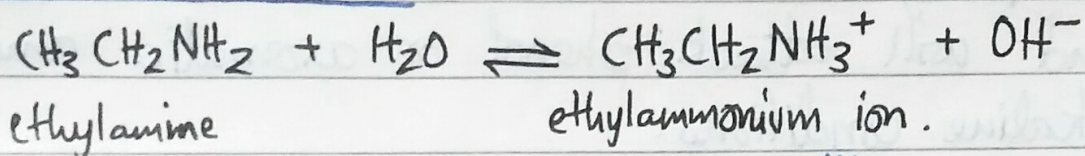
\therefore Ethylamine is stronger than ammonia.

- * Order of base strength:

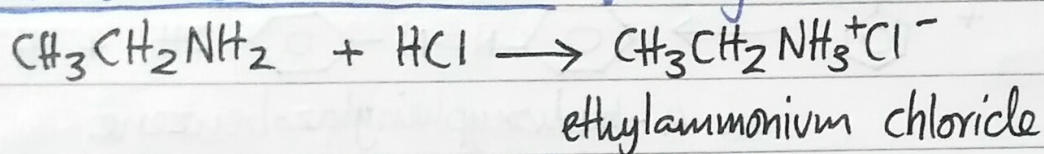


Amines Reactions

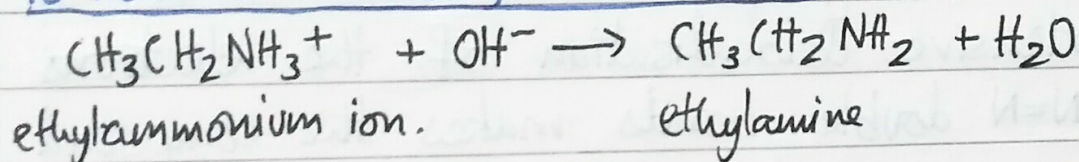
① Amines in water.



② Amines dissolve in acids forming salts



③ To liberate amines, add alkali

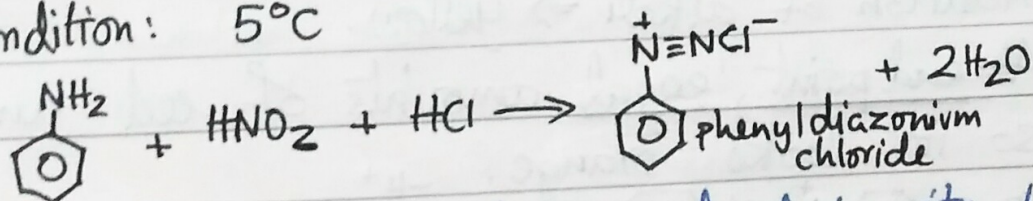


Phenylamine Reactions

① Formation of Diazonium Salt (Diazotisation)

reagent: HNO_2 in situ ($\text{NaNO}_2 + \text{HCl}$)

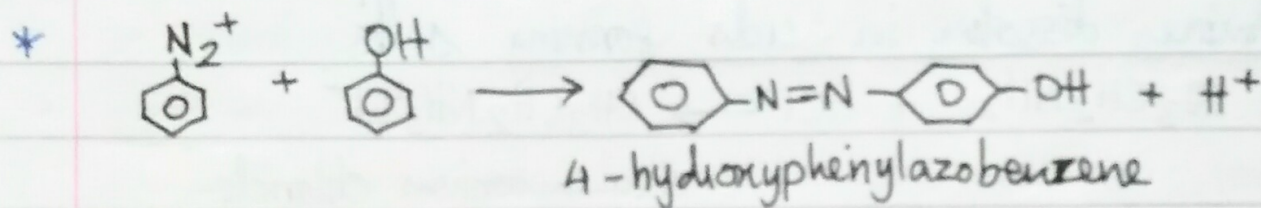
condition: 5°C



- HNO_2 is unstable and is produced in situ by reaction of NaNO_2 and dil. HCl
- the diazonium ion salt is unstable and will decompose readily at higher temperatures giving off N_2 gas. So the reaction mixture must be kept below 10°C
- At low temperatures, the delocalisation of the diazonium ion π bond electron over a benzene ring stabilises phenyldiazonium.

Coupling Reaction

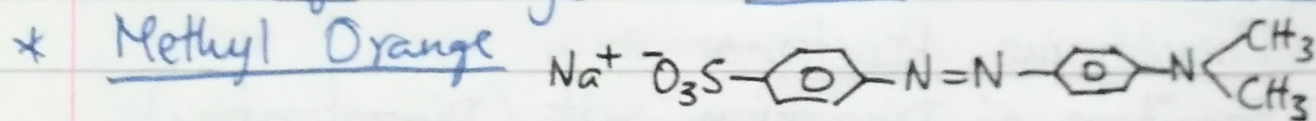
* The phenyldiazonium ion behaves as an electrophile and will attack phenol or aromatic amines in alkaline conditions.



* -N=N- azo group

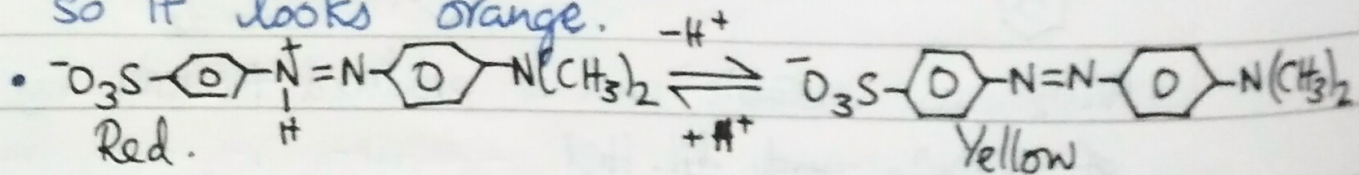
* The extensive delocalisation of the electrons via the N=N double bonds makes the compound stable.

* The orange azodye is stable and does not fade



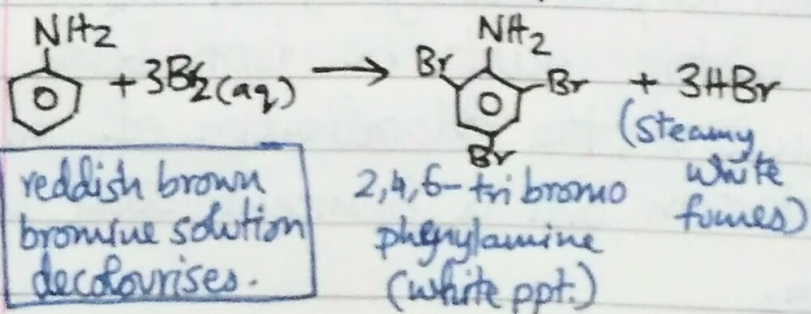
- Addition of acid \Rightarrow red
- Addition of alkali \Rightarrow yellow.

At end point, equal amounts of red and yellow so it looks orange.



② Phenylamine with Br₂(aq)

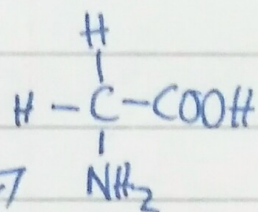
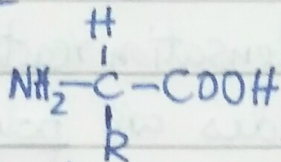
Condition: room temperature.



- NH₂ is ring activating group; 2,4-directing effect
- Nitrogen's lone pair gets drawn into ring of electrons
- Enhanced delocalisation makes benzene more attractive to electrophile attack.

Amino Acids

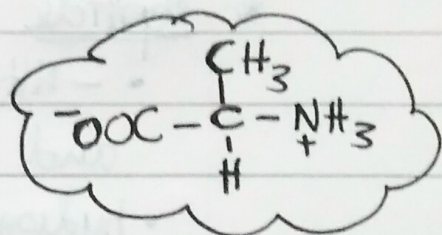
- * Compounds containing $-NH_2$ and $-COOH$ groups
- * 2-amino-carboxylic acids



- * All amino acids (except aminoethanoic acid) contain a chiral carbon.

* Zwitter ions

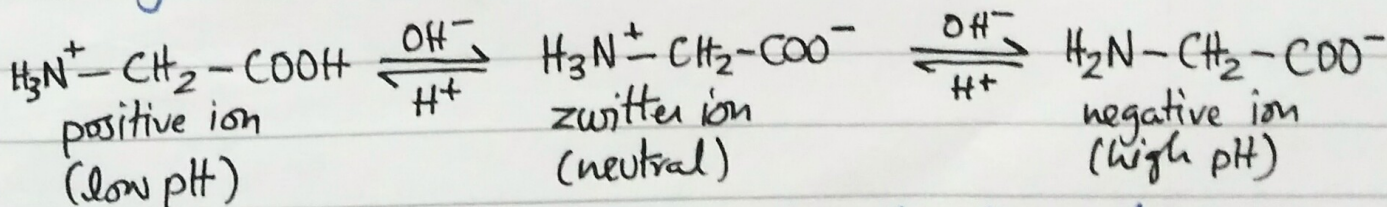
- dipolar ion
- proton from $COOH$ moves to NH_2
- amino acids exist as zwitterions at a certain pH called the isoelectric point



- Produces increases inter-molecular forces (strong electrostatic forces of attraction between ions)
- Melting and boiling points are higher.
- Amino acids are soluble in water but insoluble in non-polar solvents.

* Acid/base Properties of amino acids

- Amino acids behave as buffer solution, where pH remains almost unchanged when small amounts of H^+ or OH^- is added.
- They can exist in 3 forms based on the pH of solution:



- This principle is used to separate them during electrophoresis.

* Formation of peptides & polypeptides

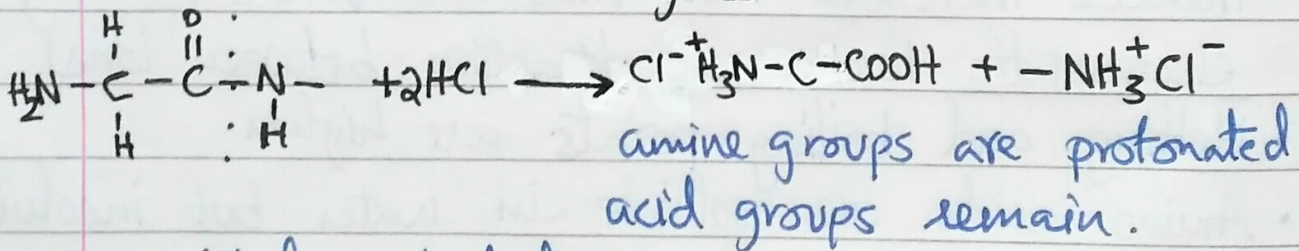
- peptide link: $\begin{array}{c} \delta^+ \\ \text{---C---N}^{\delta^-} \\ || \quad | \\ \text{O} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$
- condensation reaction.
- peptides are polyamides
- many amino acids joined together \rightarrow polypeptide.

* Proteins

- ---NH_2 group at left-hand end (N-terminal) and ---COOH group at right-hand end (C-terminal)
- hydrogen bonds exist between chains in the protein.
- Acid hydrolysis

reagent: heat with dil. mineral acid

condition: use enzymes.



• Alkaline hydrolysis

reagent: heat with NaOH(aq)

condition: use enzymes.

