Organic Chemistry, Fourth Edition

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Chapter 15 Lecture Outline

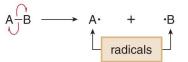
Prepared by Layne A. Morsch The University of Illinois - Springfield

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Radicals

- A small but significant group of reactions involve radical intermediates.
- A radical is a reactive intermediate with a single unpaired electron, formed by homolysis of a covalent bond.
- A radical contains an atom that does not have an octet of electrons.
- Half-headed arrows are used to show the movement of electrons in radical processes.

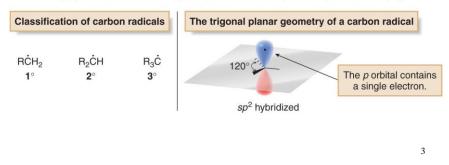
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Structure of Radicals

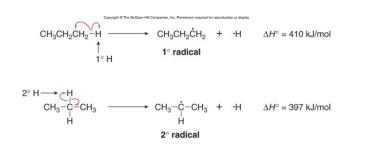
- Carbon radicals are classified as 1°, 2°, or 3°.
- A carbon radical is *sp*² hybridized and trigonal planar, like carbocations.
- The unhybridized *p* orbital contains the unpaired electron and extends above and below the trigonal planar carbon.

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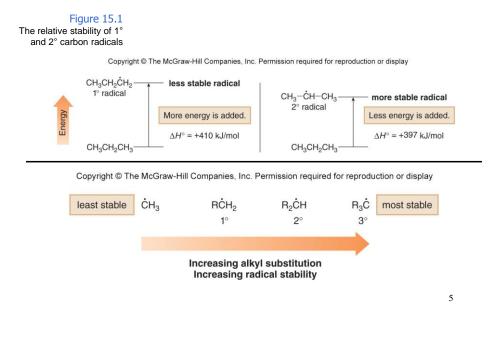


Bond Dissociation Energies

- Bond dissociation energies for the cleavage of C—H bonds are used to measure stability.
- They are determined by calculating the energy needed to break the bond into two radicals.
- Cleaving a stronger bond requires more energy.
- In the example below, the 2° radical is more stable than the 1° radical because less energy is required to produce it.



Stability of Radicals



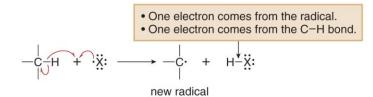
General Features of Radical Reactions

- Radicals are formed from covalent bonds by adding energy in the form of heat (△) or light (*h*v).
- Some radical reactions are carried out in the presence of a radical initiator.
- Radical initiators, such as peroxides of general structure, RO–OR, contain an especially weak bond that serves as a source of radicals.
- Heating a peroxide readily causes homolysis of the weak O–O bond, forming two RO• radicals.
- Radicals undergo two main types of reactions—they react with σ bonds, and they add to π bonds.

Reaction of a Radical X• with a C-H Bond

- A radical X•, once formed, rapidly reacts with whatever is available, usually a stable σ or π bond.
- A radical X• abstracts a hydrogen atom from a C–H σ bond to form H–X and a carbon radical.

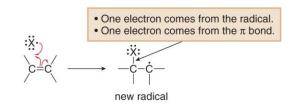
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Reaction of a Radical X• with a C=C Bond

• A radical X• can also add to the π bond of a carbon–carbon double bond.

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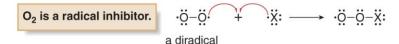


• In either type of radical reaction (with a σ or π bond) a new radical is created.

Inhibition of Radicals by Molecular Oxygen

- Occasionally, two radicals react to form a sigma bond.
- An example is the reaction of a radical with oxygen (a diradical in its ground state electronic configuration).

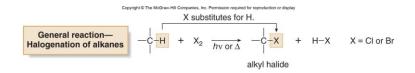
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- Reaction with oxygen causes the reaction to slow down or stop, as X–O–O• radicals are not as reactive as halogen radicals.
- Compounds that prevent radical reactions from occurring are called radical inhibitors or radical scavengers.

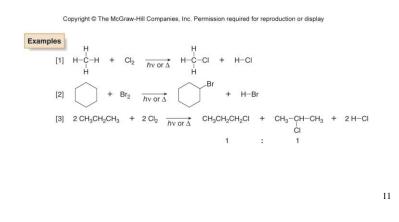
Radical Halogenation of Alkanes

- In the presence of heat or light, alkanes react with halogens to form alkyl halides by a radical substitution reaction.
- Halogenation of alkanes is only useful with Cl₂ or Br₂.
- Reaction with F_2 is too violent, and reaction with I_2 is too slow to be useful.



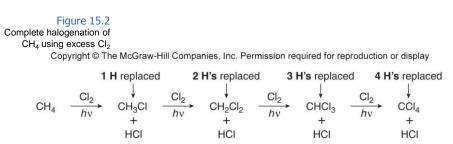
Radical Halogenation of Alkanes

- With an alkane that has more than one type of hydrogen atom, a mixture of alkyl halides may result.
- When a single hydrogen atom on a carbon has been replaced by a halogen atom, monohalogenation has taken place.



Radical Halogenation of Alkanes

- When excess halogen is used, it is possible to replace more than one hydrogen atom on a single carbon with halogen atoms.
- Monohalogenation can be achieved experimentally by adding halogen X₂ to an excess of alkane.



Halogenation of Alkanes—Mechanism

• Three facts about halogenation suggest that the mechanism involves radical, not ionic, intermediates:

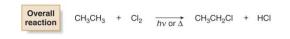
Fact	Explanation
 Light, heat, or added peroxide is necessary for the reaction. 	 Light or heat provides the energy needed for homolytic bond cleavage to form radicals. Breaking the weak O–O bond of peroxides initiates radical reactions as well.
[2] O_2 inhibits the reaction.	• The diradical O ₂ removes radicals from a reaction mixture, thus preventing reaction.
[3] No rearrangements are observed.	 Radicals do not rearrange.

13

Common Steps of Radical Reactions

Radical halogenation has three distinct steps:

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- Initiation: Two radicals are formed by homolysis of a σ bond and this begins the reaction.
- Propagation: A radical reacts with another reactant to form a new σ bond and another radical.
- *Termination:* Two radicals combine to form a stable bond. Removing radicals from the reaction mixture without generating any new radicals stops the reaction.
- This type of mechanism that involves two or more repeating steps is called a chain mechanism.
- The most important steps of any chain mechanism including radical halogenation are the propagation steps which lead to product formation.

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Initiation Step [1] Bond cleavage forms two radicals.	
$:\ddot{G}$ \dot{G} \ddot{G} \ddot{G} \ddot{G} \dot{G} \dot{H} or Δ $:\ddot{G}$ \dot{G} + $\cdot\ddot{G}$ \dot{G}	 Homolysis of the weakest bond in the starting materials requires energy from light or heat.
	 Thus, the CI-CI bond (ΔH° = 242 kJ/mol), which is weaker than either the C-C or C-H bond in ethane (ΔH° = 368 and 410 kJ/mol, respectively), is broken to form two chlorine radicals.
Propagation Steps [2] and [3] One radical reacts and a new radical	is formed.
CH ₃ CH ₂ H + C;: [2] → CH ₃ CH ₂ + H-C; produc	concreting the other radical (CH CH c)
CH ₃ CH ₂ + :ci [∩] ci: ^[3] → CH ₃ CH ₂ -ci: + ·ci	 CH₃CH₂ abstracts a chlorine atom from Cl₂ (Step [3]), forming
product Repeat Steps [2], [3], [2], [3], again and again.	 The CI- radical formed in Step [3] is a reactant in Step [2], so Steps [2] and [3] can occur repeatedly without an additional initiation reaction (Step [1]).
	 In each propagation step, one radical is consumed and one radica is formed. The two products – CH₃CH₂Cl and HCl – are formed during propagation.
Termination Step [4] Two radicals react to form a σ bond.	
:ċi + ;ċi	 To terminate the chain, two radicals react with each other in one of three ways (Steps [4a, b, and c]) to form stable bonds.
$CH_3\dot{C}H_2 + \dot{C}H_2CH_3 \xrightarrow{[4b]} CH_3CH_2-CH_2CH_3$	
CH ₂ CH ₂ + CH ₂ CH ₂ −CH ₂ CH ₂ −CH ₂	

Energy Changes in Radical Propagation

Figure 15.3

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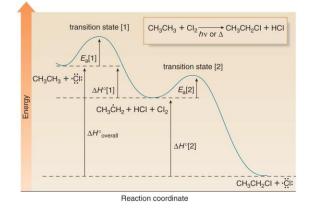
[1]	CH₃CH₂−H ↑	+ ·ċi:		CH₃ĊH₂	+ +	ı–∷ı: ↑	
	bond bro	ken			bond	formed	
	+410 kJ/r	mol			-431	kJ/mol	$\Delta H^{\circ}[1] = -21 \text{ kJ/mol}$
[2]	CH₃ĊH₂	+ :ĊI–ĊI: ↑ bond brok		CH ₃ CH ₂ − ↑ bond fo		·ċı:	
		+242 kJ/m	lol	-339 k	J/mol		$\Delta H^{\circ}[2] = -97 \text{ kJ/mol}$
							$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{overall}} = \Delta H^{\circ}[1] + \Delta H^{\circ}[2]$
				an exoth	ermic r	eaction	→ = -118 kJ/mol

Energy Diagram for Radical Propagation

Figure 15.4

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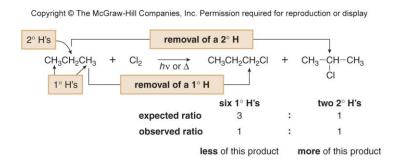
- Because radical halogenation consists of two propagation steps, the energy diagram has two energy barriers.
- The first step is rate-determining because its transition state is at higher energy.
- The reaction is exothermic because ΔH°_{overall} is negative.



17

Product Mixture in Radical Chlorination

- Chlorination of CH₃CH₂CH₃ affords a 1:1 mixture of CH₃CH₂CH₂CI and (CH₃)₂CHCI.
- CH₃CH₂CH₃ has six 1° hydrogens and only two 2° hydrogens, so the expected product ratio of CH₃CH₂CH₂CI to (CH₃)₂CHCI (assuming all hydrogens are equally reactive) is 3:1.



Radical Halogenation of Alkanes

• Since the observed ratio between $CH_3CH_2CH_2CI$ and $(CH_3)_2CHCI$ is 1:1, the 2° C–H bonds must be more reactive than the 1° C–H bonds.

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The weaker the halogenation.	e C−H bond	I, the more readi	ly the hydrog	en atom is r	removed in radical
	-	Increasing C-H	bond strength	1	
strongest C-H bond	CH ₃ -H	H R-C-H	R R−C−H	R ⊢C−H	weakest C-H bond
Alongest of Troond	ong n	H	Ĥ	R	nouliour of the bolid
		1° C−H	2° C-H	3° C−H	
		Increasing ease of	of H abstractio	n	

 Thus, when alkanes react with Cl₂, a mixture of products results, with more product formed by cleavage of the weaker C–H bond than you would expect on statistical grounds.

19

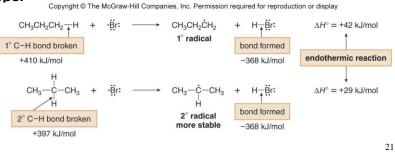
Chlorination vs Bromination

- Although alkanes undergo radical substitutions with both Cl₂ and Br₂, chlorination and bromination exhibit two important differences.
 - 1. Chlorination is faster than bromination.
 - 2. Chlorination is unselective, yielding a mixture of products, but bromination is more selective, often yielding one major product.

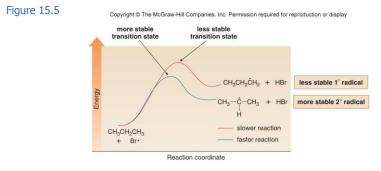
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				1° alkyl halide ↓		2° alkyl halide ↓	
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₃ propane	+	Cl ₂	$\overrightarrow{hv} \text{ or } \Delta$	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CI	+	CH ₃ -CH-CH ₃ CI	Chlorination is fast and unselective.
				1	:	1	
CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₃ propane	+	Br ₂	$\overrightarrow{hv} \text{ or } \overrightarrow{\Delta}$	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ Br	+	CH ₃ -CH-CH ₃ Br	Bromination is slow and selective.
				1%		99%	

Energy of Halogenation

- The differences in chlorination and bromination can be explained by considering the relative energetics of their key propagation steps.
- Calculating ΔH° using bond dissociation energies reveals that abstraction of a 1° or 2° hydrogen by Br• is endothermic.
- However, it takes less energy to form the more stable 2° radical, and this difference is more important in endothermic steps.



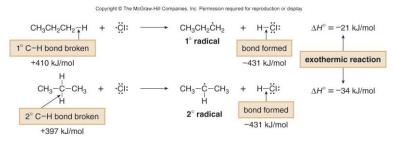
Energy Diagram for Endothermic Reaction—Bromination



- The transition state to form the less stable 1° radical (CH₃CH₂CH₂) is higher in energy than the transition state to form the more stable 2° radical [(CH₃)₂CH²]. Thus, the 2° radical is formed faster.
- Because the rate-determining step is endothermic, the transition state resembles the products.
- The more stable radical is formed faster, and often a single radical halogenation product predominates. 22

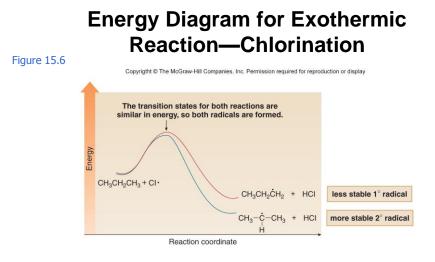
Energy of Radical Formation

• Calculating ΔH° using bond dissociation energies for chlorination reveals that abstraction of a 1° or 2° hydrogen by Cl• is exothermic.



- Since chlorination has an exothermic rate-determining step, the transition state to form both radicals resembles the same starting material, CH₃CH₂CH₃.
- Thus, the relative stability of the two radicals is much less important, and both radicals are formed.

23



• Because the rate-determining step in chlorination is exothermic, the transition state resembles the starting material, both radicals are formed, and a mixture of products results.

Predicting Stereochemistry of Reactions

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Starting material	Result		
Achiral	 An achiral starting material always gives either an achiral or a racemic product. 		
Chiral	 If a reaction does not occur at a stereogenic center the configuration at a stereogenic center is retain in the product. If a reaction occurs at a stereogenic center, 		
	we must know the mechanism to predict the stereochemistry of the product.		

25

Stereochemistry from Achiral Starting Material

• Halogenation of an achiral starting material such as CH₃CH₂CH₂CH₂CH₃ forms two constitutional isomers by replacement of either a 1° or 2° hydrogen.

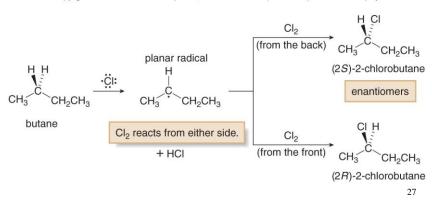
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	new stereogenic center
$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_3 + Cl_2 \xrightarrow{hv}$ butane	$\begin{array}{c} H \\ H $

- 1-Chlorobutane has no stereogenic centers and is thus achiral.
- 2-Chlorobutane has a new stereogenic center, and so an equal amount of two enantiomers must form—a racemic mixture.

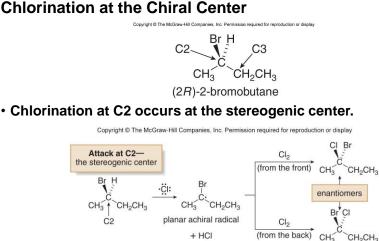
Racemates from Achiral Starting Material

- A racemic mixture results because the first propagation step generates a planar *sp*² hybridized radical.
- Cl₂ then reacts with it from either side to form an equal amount of two enantiomers.

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Stereochemistry from Chiral Starting Material

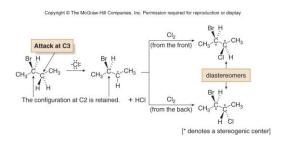


• Radical halogenation reactions at a stereogenic center occur with racemization.

Stereochemistry from Chiral Starting Material

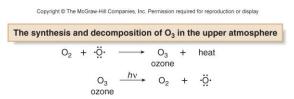
Chlorination Away from the Chiral Center

- Chlorination at C3 does not occur at the stereogenic center, but forms a new stereogenic center.
- Since no bond is broken to the stereogenic center at C2, its configuration is retained during the reaction.
- The trigonal planar *sp*² hybridized radical is attacked from either side by Cl₂, forming a new stereogenic center.
- A pair of diastereomers is formed.

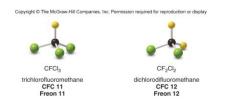


The Ozone Layer and CFCs

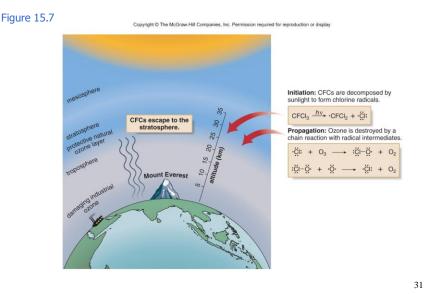
• Ozone is vital to life, and acts as a shield, protecting the earth's surface from harmful UV radiation.



• Current research suggests that chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), used extensively as refrigerants and propellants, are responsible for destroying ozone in the upper atmosphere.

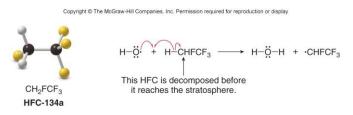


CFCs and the Destruction of the Ozone Layer



Alternatives to CFCs

- The overall result is that $\rm O_3$ is consumed as a reactant and $\rm O_2$ is formed.
- In this way, a small amount of CFC can destroy a large amount of O₃.
- New alternatives to CFCs are hydrochlorofluorocarbons (HCFCs) and hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) such as CH₂FCF₃.
- These compounds are decomposed by HO• before they reach the stratosphere and therefore, they do not take part in the radical reactions resulting in O_3 destruction.

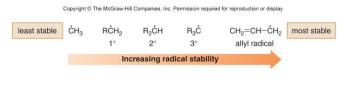


Radical Halogenation at an Allylic Carbon

- An allylic carbon is a carbon adjacent to a double bond.
- · Homolysis of the allylic C-H bond in propene generates an allylic radical which has an unpaired electron on the carbon adjacent to the double bond.

Copyright © The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. Permission required for reproduction or display $CH_2 = CH - CH_2 - H \longrightarrow CH_2 = CH - \dot{C}H_2 + \cdot H \Delta H^\circ = +364 \text{ kJ/mol}$ allyl radical allylic C-H bond

- The bond dissociation energy for this process is even less than that for a 3° C-H bond (91 kcal/mol).
- This means that an allyl radical is more stable than a 3° radical.



Stability of Allyl Radicals

- The allyl radical is more stable than other radicals because the π bond and the unpaired electron are delocalized.
- The "true" structure of the allyl radical is a hybrid of the two resonance structures.
- · Declocalizing electron density lowers the energy of the hybrid, thus stabilizing the allyl radical.

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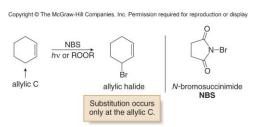
 $\dot{C}H_2 = CH - \dot{C}H_2 \longleftrightarrow \dot{C}H_2 - CH = CH_2$ $\delta^{\cdot} \delta^{\cdot} CH_2 = CH = CH_2$

hybrid

two resonance structures for the allyl radical

NBS—a Radical Bromination Reagent

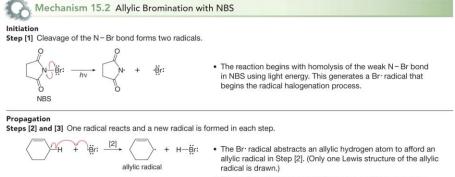
• Because allylic C–H bonds are weaker than other *sp*³ hybridized C–H bonds, the allylic carbon can be selectively halogenated using NBS in the presence of light or peroxides.



- NBS contains a weak N–Br bond that is homolytically cleaved with light to generate a bromine radical, initiating an allylic halogenation reaction.
- Propagation then consists of the usual two steps of radical halogenation.

35

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-Br: + ·Br:

+ :Br Br: _[3]

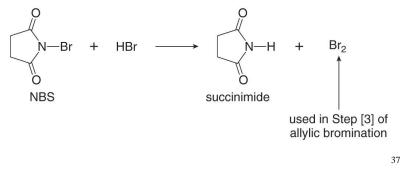
(from NBS)

 The allylic radical reacts with Br₂ in the second propagation step to form the product of allylic halogenation. Because the Brradical formed in Step [3] is also a reactant in Step [2], Steps [2] and [3] repeatedly occur without the need for Step [1].

Formation of Bromine from NBS

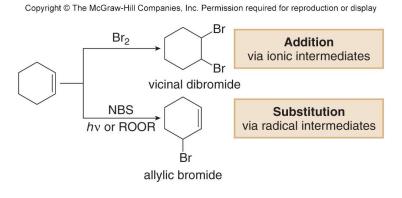
- The HBr formed in Step [2] reacts with NBS to form a low concentration of Br_2 .
- This is then used for halogenation in Step [3] of the mechanism.

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Radical vs Ionic Bromination

- An alkene with allylic C–H bonds undergoes two different reactions depending on the reaction conditions.
 - · Addition and Substitution



Why NBS Favors Substitution Over Addition

A low concentration of Br_2 (from NBS) favors allylic substitution over ionic addition to form the dibromide.

- The Br_2 produced from NBS, present in very low concentrations, must first react with the double bond to form the bridged bromonium ion.
- The bridged bromonium ion must then react with more bromine (in the form of Br⁻) in a second step to form the dibromide.
- If concentrations of both intermediates—the bromonium ion and Br⁻ are low (as is the case here), the overall rate of addition is very slow, and the products of the very fast and facile radical chain reaction predominate.

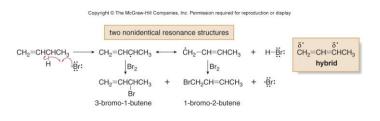
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Regiochemistry of Allylic Halogenation

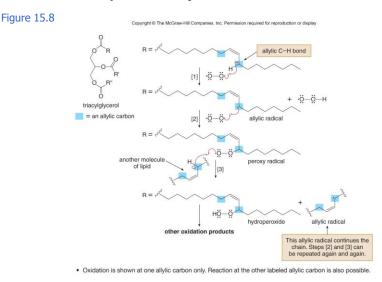
 Halogenation at an allylic carbon often results in a mixture of products.

> Copyright © The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. Permission required for reproduction or display $CH_2=CHCH_2CH_3 \xrightarrow{NBS}_{hv \text{ or ROOR}} CH_2=CHCHCH_3 + BrCH_2CH=CHCH_3$ 1-butene 3-bromo-1-butene 1-bromo-2-butene

• A mixture results because the reaction proceeds by way of a resonance-stabilized radical.



Oxidation of Unsaturated Lipids

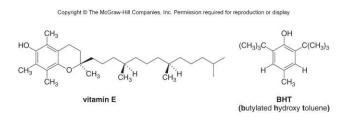


Oils are susceptible to allylic free radical oxidation.

Antioxidants

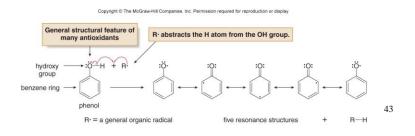
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- An antioxidant is a compound that stops an oxidation reaction from occurring.
- Naturally occurring antioxidants such as vitamin E prevent radical reactions that can cause cell damage.
- Synthetic antioxidants such as BHT—butylated hydroxy toluene—are added to packaged and prepared foods to prevent oxidation and spoilage.
- Vitamin E and BHT are radical inhibitors, which terminate radical chain mechanisms by reacting with the radical.



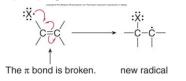
Mechanism of Antioxidant Behavior

- To trap free radicals, both vitamin E and BHT use a hydroxy group bonded to a benzene ring—a general structure called a phenol.
- Radicals (R•) abstract a hydrogen atom from the OH group of an antioxidant, forming a new resonance-stabilized radical.
- This new radical does not participate in chain propagation, but rather terminates the chain and halts the oxidation process.
- Because oxidative damage to lipids in cells is thought to play a role in the aging process, many antiaging formulations contain antioxidants.



General Radical Additions to Alkenes

- Electron rich alkenes react with electron deficient radicals.
- Radicals react with alkenes via radical chain mechanisms consisting of:
 - Initiation, propagation and termination steps

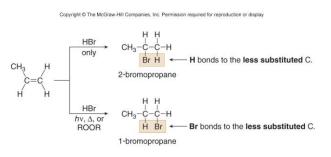


• HBr adds to alkenes to form alkyl bromides in the presence of heat, light, or peroxides.

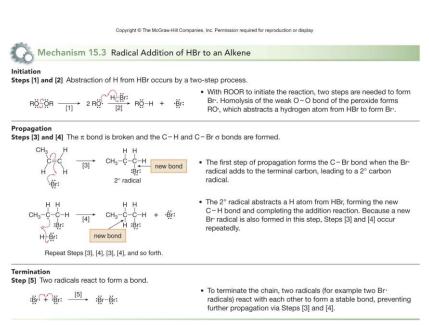


Radical Additions to Alkenes

• The regioselectivity of the addition to unsymmetrical alkenes is different from that for addition of HBr in the absence of heat, light, or peroxides.

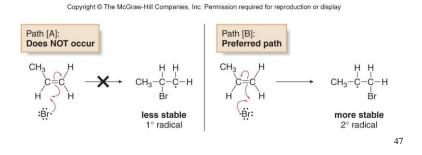


• The addition of HBr to alkenes in the presence of heat, light, or peroxides proceeds via a radical mechanism.



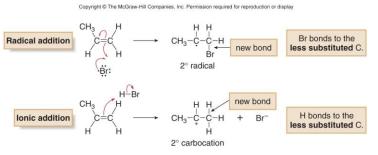
Regiochemistry of Radical Addition to Alkenes

- In the first propagation step, the addition of Br• to the double bond, there are two possible paths:
 - 1. Path [A] forms the less stable 1° radical.
 - 2. Path [B] forms the more stable 2° radical.
- The more stable 2° radical forms faster, so Path [B] is preferred.



Radical vs Ionic Addition of HBr

- Depending on the reaction conditions, a different species initially reacts with the *p* bond accounting for the difference in regioselectivity.
 - Radical addition involves initial attack by a bromine radical.
 - Ionic addition involves initial attack by a proton.



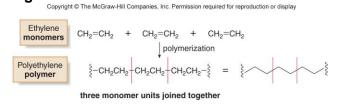
Energy Changes of Radical HBr Addition

- HBr adds to alkenes under radical conditions, but HCl and HI do not, due to differences in bond dissociation energies.
- Both propagation steps for HBr addition are exothermic, so propagation is exothermic (energetically favorable) overall.
- For addition of HCI or HI, one of the chain propagating steps is quite endothermic, and thus too difficult to be part of a repeating chain mechanism.

Figure 15.9	Copyright © The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc. Permission requ	ired for reproduction or display
	[1] $CH_2 = CH_2 + \dot{B}r: \longrightarrow \dot{C}H_2CH_2 = Br$ π bond broken +267 kJ/mol -285 kJ/mc	
	[2] ĊH ₂ CH ₂ -Br + H− <u>B</u> r: → H−CH ₂ CH ₂ Br + bond broken bond formed +368 kJ/mol −410 kJ/mol	-ğr: ΔH ² [2] = -42 kJ/mol
	an exothermic rea	$\Delta H^{\circ}_{\text{overall}} = \Delta H^{\circ}[1] + \Delta H^{\circ}[2]$ action \longrightarrow = -60 kJ/mol 49

Polymers and Polymerization

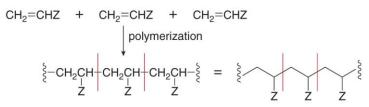
- Polymers are large molecules made up of repeating units of smaller molecules called monomers.
- They include biologically important compounds such as proteins and carbohydrates, as well as synthetic plastics such as polyethylene, polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and polystyrene.
- Polymerization is the process of joining together of monomers to make polymers.
- For example, joining ethylene monomers together forms the polymer polyethylene, a plastic used in milk containers and plastic bags.



Polymers from Ethylene Derivatives

- Many ethylene derivatives having the general structure CH₂=CHZ are also used as monomers for polymerization.
- The identity of Z affects the physical properties of the resulting polymer.
- Polymerization of CH₂=CHZ usually affords polymers with Z groups on every other carbon atom in the chain.

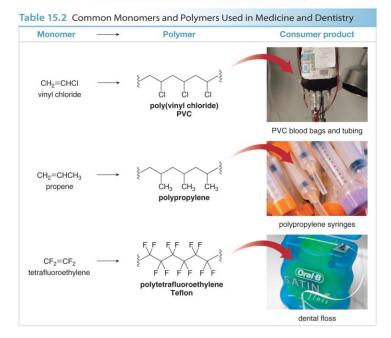
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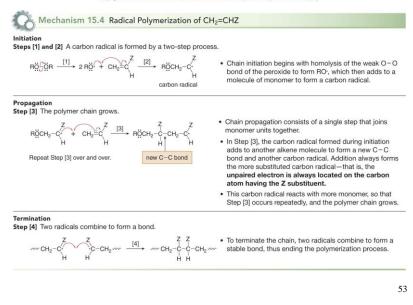
three monomer units joined together

51

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Radical Polymerization

 In radical polymerization, the more substituted radical always adds to the less substituted end of the monomer, a process called head-to-tail polymerization.

