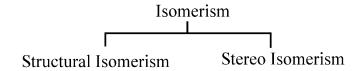
CHAPTER - 10 **REACTION MECHANISM**

ISOMERISM IN ORGANIC COMPOUNDS

Compounds having same molecular formula but different physical and chemical properties are called isomers an the phenomenon is known as isomerism.



- Chain isomerism
- Position isomerism
- Functional isomerism
- Tautomerism
- Metamerism
- · Ring-chain isomerism

- Geometrical isomerism
- Conformational isomerism
- Optical isomerism

STRUCTURAL ISOMERISM

Compounds having same molecular formula, but different structures are called structural isomers

Chain isomerism

This type of isomerism is arise due to the difference in the arrangement of carbon chains

- * Chain isomerism in alkanes
- 1. Butane (2 isomers)

(2 types of mono halogenation products)

$$\overset{1}{\overset{2}{\text{CH}_3}} \overset{2}{\overset{-\text{CH}}{\overset{-\text{CH}_3}{\text{CH}_3}}}$$

Isobutane

2 types of hydrogen atoms

(2 types of monohalogenation products)

2. Pentane (3 isomers)

$$^{1}_{\text{CH}_{3}}$$
 — $^{2}_{\text{CH}_{2}}$ — $^{3}_{\text{CH}_{2}}$ — $^{2}_{\text{CH}_{2}}$ — $^{1}_{\text{CH}_{3}}$

n-pentane

3-types of hydrogen atoms

(3-types of monohalogenation products)

Iso pentane

4-types of hydrogen atoms

(4-types of monohalogenation products)

Neopentane

1-types of hydrogen atom

(Only one mono-halogenation product)

- 3. Hexane (5 isomers)
- 4. Heptane (9 isomers)
- 5. Octane (18 isomers)
- 6. Nonane (35 isomers)
- 7. Decane (75 isomers)

* Chain isomerism in alcohols

$$CH_3$$
— CH_2 — CH_2 — CH_2 — OH & n-butanol

$$CH_3$$
— CH — CH_2 — OH

$$CH_3$$
Isobutanol

* Chain isomerism in alkenes

$$CH_3$$
 — CH_2 — CH = CH_2 & n - butene

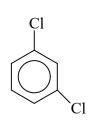
$$CH_3$$
 — C = CH_2 CH_3

Isobutene

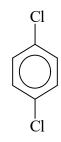
Position isomerism

This type of isomerism is arise due to the difference in the positions of functional groups, substituents or, unsaturation in the carbon chain.

o-dichloro benzene



m-dichloro benzene



p-dichloro benzene

Functional isomerism

Compounds having same molecular formula but different functional groups are called Functional isomers.

i) Alcohol and ether

$$CH_3 - CH_2 - OH$$
 & $CH_3 - O - CH_3$ $[C_2H_6O]$

ii) Carboxylic acids and esters

iii) Aldehydes, Ketones, Unsaturated alcohols and Unsaturated ethers

$$CH_3 - CH_2 - C - H$$
, $CH_3 - C - CH_3$, $CH_2 = CH - CH_2 - OH$, $CH_3 - C - CH_3$, $CH_2 = CH - CH_2 - OH$, $CH_3 - C - CH_3$, $CH_3 - C - CH_$

&
$$CH_2 = CH - OCH_3 [C_3H_6O]$$

vi) Dienes, Allenes and Alkynes

v) Aromatic alcohol, phenols and ethers

$$CH_2OH$$
 OH $O-CH_3$, CH_3 , CH_3 CH_3 CH_3

vi) Primary secondary and tertiary amines

$$\begin{array}{c} CH_3 \\ CH_3 - CH_2 - CH_2 - \overset{\bullet}{N}H_2 \text{, } CH_3 - CH_2 - \overset{\bullet}{N}H - CH_3 & CH_3 - \overset{\bullet}{N} - CH_3 \left[C_3H_9N \right] \\ \text{primary} & Secondary & Tertiary \end{array}$$

vii) Amides and oximes

$$CH_3 - CH_2 - C - NH_2$$
 & $CH_3 - CH_2 - CH = N - OH$ $[C_3H_7NO]$

viii) Nitro alkanes and alkylnitrites

$$CH_3 - NO_2$$
 & $CH_3 - O - N = O$

Nitromethane

Methylnitrite

ix) Cyanides (nitriles) and isocyanides (Carbilamine /Isonitrile)

$$CH_3 - C \equiv N \& CH_3 - N \rightleftharpoons C$$

Tautomerism

This is a special type of functional isomerism in which isomers exist in a dynamic equilibrium.

It arises due to the migration of a hydrogen atom from one poly valent atom to the other within the same molecule with necessary rearrangements for linkages.

1) Keto-enol tautomerism

H O O H

$$CH_2$$
 C $-H$ CH_2 C $-H$

Keto form

 $(\approx 100\%)$ Enol form

(Negligible)

In all the three monocarbonyl compounds listed above, the greater percentage of ketoform is due to the greater strength of C=O π bond (364 kJmol⁻¹) as compared to C=O π bond (254 kJmol⁻¹).

Note: Hydrogen bonding and resonance increases the percentage of enol form

$$CH_{3} \xrightarrow{C} \xrightarrow{C} C$$

$$H \xrightarrow{C} C$$

$$CH_{3} \xrightarrow{C} C$$

$$CH_{3} \xrightarrow{C} C$$

$$CH_{3} \xrightarrow{C} C$$

$$CH_{4} \xrightarrow{C} C$$

$$CH_{5} \xrightarrow{C}$$

Conditions for tautomerism

- 1. Presence of atleast one α hydrogen
- 2. Presence of electronegative elements such as O, N, S,.... with multiple bonds [=C=O, -N=O, =C=S, -C \equiv N, =C=NH]

$$\begin{array}{c} R & O \\ | & | & | \\ C & -C & -H \\ | & | & \\ O & | & \\ & & \\ O & & \\ &$$

Note: Tautomerism is not observed in parabenzoquinone because H-atoms are present on double bonded carbon atoms of the ring.

$$H \longrightarrow H$$

P-benzoquinone

METAMERISM

This type of isomerism is arise due to the unequal distribution of carbon atoms on the either side of the functional group.

Eg: CH₃CH₂OCH₂CH₃ &CH₃OCH₂CH₂CH₃

Note: Metamerism is not observed in the molecule $CH_3 - CH_2 - O - CH_3$

Example for some functional groups showing metamerism are —O—, —NH—,

Note:
$$CH_3$$
 — CH_2 — C — O — CH_3 and CH_3 — C — O — CH_2 — CH_3 are considered as metamers.

Ring Chain Isomerism

1. Alkenes and cycloalkanes

$$CH_3 - CH = CH_2$$
 and \bigcirc (C_3H_6)

2. Alkynes and cycloalkenes

$$CH_3 - C = CH$$
 and $\triangle (C_3H_4)$

3. Unsaturated alcohols and cyclic ethers

$$CH_2 = CH - CH_2 - OH \text{ and } CO$$
 (C_3H_6O)

Note: Other two cyclic isomers possible for the formula (C_3H_6O) are CH_3 and

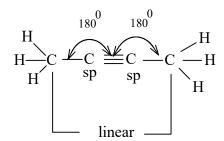
Hybridisation of different types of carbon

- 1. Carbon with 4- σ bonds \rightarrow sp³ hybridisation (No unhybridised 'p' orbitals are present)
- 2. Carbon with $1-\pi$ bond \rightarrow sp² hybridisation (One unhybridised 'p' orbital is present)
- 3. Carbon with $2-\pi$ bonds \rightarrow sp hybridisation (Two unhybridised 'p' orbitals are present)

Note:

- Normal sp³ bond angle $\rightarrow 109^{0}28^{\circ}$ (Total 6 tetrahedral angles are present around an sp³ hybridised 'C')
- Normal sp² bond angle → 120° (Total 3-120° angles are present around an sp² hybridised 'C')
- Normal sp bond angle \rightarrow 180° (2-180° angles)

An sp hybridised carbon and carbons bonded to it are linearly arranged.



Methods for electron transfer in a covalent bond

1. Resonance

When the actual structure of a molecule is represented by the help of more than one electronic arrangement, the molecule said to have resonance.i.e.,delocalisation of π electrons occurs during resonance.

Resonance in different types of systems

1. Resonance involving π – bonds

$$CH_2 \longrightarrow CH \longrightarrow CH_2 \longrightarrow CH$$

2. Resonance involving +ve charge

$$CH_2 = CH$$
 $CH_2 = CH = CH_2$

3. Resonance involving -ve charge

$$CH_2 = CH - CH_2 \longrightarrow CH_2 - CH = CH_2$$

4. Resonance involving lone pair

$$CH_2 = CH \stackrel{\longleftarrow}{\longrightarrow} NH_2 \stackrel{\ominus}{\longleftrightarrow} CH_2 - CH = NH_2$$

5. Resonance involving free radical

$$CH_2$$
 CH_2 CH_2 CH_2 CH_2

 \therefore In the all five cases represented above, resonance involves $\pi - \pi$ conjugation

Resonance effect or Mesomeric effect (R/M - effect)

Polarity produced in a molecule by the interaction between π bonds or between π bond and lone pair of electrons (or non bonding electrons) of an adjacent atom is known as resonance effect or mesomeric effect. There are two types +R or +M and –R or -M.

+R/+M Effect

If the group attached to an unsaturated or conjugated system is electron releasing through resonance., the effects called as +R effect.

$$CH_2 = CH - NH_2$$
 $CH_2 - CH - NH_2$

Examples for some groups showing +R effect : $-\ddot{N}H_2$, $-\ddot{N}H_$

-R/-M Effect

If the group attached to an unsaturated or conjugated system is electron withdrawing through resonance, the effect is called as -R effect.

$$CH_2 = CH - N$$

$$CH_2 - CH = N$$

$$O^{-}$$

$$CH_2 - CH = N$$

$$O^{-}$$

Examples for some groups showing '-R' effect $-NO_2$, -CN, $-SO_3H$, -COOH, -CHO etc.

Applications

1. Aromatic amines are less basic as compared to aliphatic amines, because due to resonance, the lone pair of electrons on nitrogen is delocalised over the aromatic ring and it is therefore less easily available for protonation.

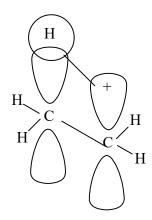
2. Amides are less basic as compared to amines because due to resonance, the lone pair on N in amides are delocalized over the carbonyl group.

3. Phenols are more acidic as compared to alcohol because the phenoxide ion is stabilized by resonance.

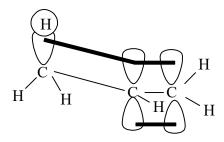
Hyperconjugation (Baker-Nathan effect)

It involves the migration of a C-H $_{\odot}$ -electrons of an alkyl group directly attached to an atom of an unsaturated system or to an atom with an unshared 'p' orbital (free radicles or carbocations)

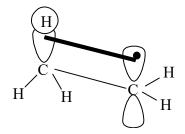
1. Hyperconjugation in carbocation



2. Hyper conjugation in unsaturated system



3. Hyper conjugation in free radicals



 \therefore In all the three cases represented above, hyperconjugation involves $\sigma - \pi$ conjugation. Since there is a carbon-hydrogen bond absent in all the hyperconjugative structures, hyperconjugation is also known as no -bond resonance.

The necessary condition for hyperconjugation is the presence of atleast one α – hydrogen atom. As the number of α – hydrogen atom in an alkyl group increases, its hyper conjugative effect also increases. Therefore hyper conjugative effect of some alkyl group follows the order.

Applications

1. Alkyl groups are ortho-para directing groups for electrophiles on aromatic ring due to hyperconjugation

$$H \xrightarrow{\alpha} C \longrightarrow H$$

2. Shortening of C-C single bond length adjacent to multiple bonds.

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
H \\
\downarrow \\
H \\
3 \\
\downarrow \\
H
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
H^+ \\
C \\
CH \\
CH_2 \\
H
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\Theta \\
CH_2 \\
CH_2 \\
H
\end{array}$$

Due to hyperconjugation $\rm C_2\text{-}C_3$ bond in propene have a partial double bond character.

3. Relative stabilities of alkene

As the number of α -hydrogen atoms possible for an alkene increases, the number of hyperconjugative structures and stability increases

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_2 = \text{CH}_2 < \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} = \text{CH}_2 < \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH} = \text{CH} - \text{CH}_3 < \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3 - \text{CH}_3 \\ \text{no α-hydrogen} & 3\alpha$-hydrogen \\ & 9\alpha$- hydrogen \\ & 12\alpha$- hydrogen \\ \end{array}$$

INDUCTIVE EFFECT (I EFFECT)

The polarisation produced in a σ bond due to the polarisation of an adjacent σ bond is called inductive effect.

-I Effect

If the group attached to the end of a carbon chain is electron withdrawing through inductive effect, the effect is called as -I effect.

$$CH_3 \longrightarrow CH_2 \longrightarrow CH_2 \longrightarrow CH_2 \longrightarrow CI$$

-I effect of some groups follows the order $-\stackrel{+}{NR_3}>-NO_2>-CN>-SO_3H>-CHO>-COOH>-F>-Cl>-Br>-I$

+I Effect

If the group attached to the end of a carbon chain is electron releasing through inductive effect, the effect is called as +I effect.

$$CH_{3} \xrightarrow{\delta\delta\delta} - \begin{array}{c} \delta\delta - \\ CH_{2} \xrightarrow{} CH_{2} \xrightarrow{} CH_{2} \xrightarrow{} O \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} H & H \\ | & | \\ R \rightarrow C \longrightarrow H \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow \\ | & | \\ H & H \end{array}$$

ELECTROMERIC EFFECT (E - EFFECT)

It involves the complete transfer of a π bond to the one of the bonded atom in presence of an attacking reagent

$$C = C \xrightarrow{\text{reagent added}} C - C$$

Since the effect operates only in the presence of an attacking reagent, it is a temporary effect

+E effect

If the electrons of the π -bond are transferred to that atom of the π -bond to which the reagent get finally attached is called +E effect

$$CH_2=CH_2+ H^+ \longrightarrow CH_2^+ \longrightarrow CH_3$$

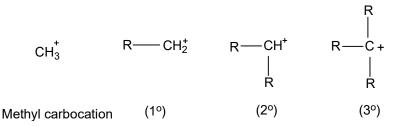
- E effect

If the electrons of the π bond are transferred to that atom of the π -bond other than the one to which the reagent get finally attached is called -E effect.

$$CN + C = 0$$
 NC $C - C - O$

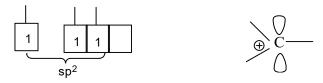
REACTION INTERMEDIATES

Carbocations (carbonium ions): They are intermediate species carrying a positive charge on carbon
 Classification



Structure

In carbocation, carbon is in sp^2 hybridised state. The three half filled sp^2 hybridised orbitals form three σ' bonds. The unhybridised 'p' orbital is unoccupied.



... The carbon in carbocations are associated with 6 electrons in its valence shell

stability

Stability in terms of inductive effect

Electron releasing alkyl groups decreases the magnitude of +ve charge on carbocation through +1 effect and there fore such groups increases their stability.

 \therefore stability of carbocations follows the order 3° > 2° > 1° > CH₃⁺

$$CH_3^{\oplus} < R \rightarrow CH_2^{\oplus} < R \rightarrow CH \leftarrow R$$
 $< R \rightarrow CH \leftarrow R$ $< R \rightarrow CH \leftarrow R$

On the other hand electron withdrawing group increases the magnitude of +ve charge on the carbon by - I effect and there for such groups decreases their stability

$$CH_3 + CH_2^{\oplus} > CF_3 - CH_2^{\dagger}$$

NOTE:

As the 'S' character or electronegativity of carbon bearing the +ve charge increases the stability of carbocation decreases

$$CH_3 - CH_2^{\oplus} > CH_2 = CH^{\oplus} > CH \equiv C^{\oplus}$$

Stability in terms of hyper conjugation

As the number of $\,\alpha\,$ - hydrogen possible for a carbocation increases the number of hyper conjugative structures and therefore stability increases

Stability in terms of resonance

a) Resonance stabilisation of allylic carbocation

$$CH_2 \stackrel{\oplus}{=} CH - CH_2 \stackrel{\oplus}{\longleftrightarrow} CH - CH = CH_2$$

b) Resonance stabilisation of benzylic carbocation

$$CH_2 \oplus$$
 CH_2
 $GH_2 \oplus$
 $GH_$

The magnitude of +ve charge is located at ortho- para positions. There fore electron releasing groups at ortho-para positions increases the stability of benzylic carbocation and electron withdrawing groups at ortho-para positions decreases their stability.

$$CH_{2}^{\bigoplus} > CH_{2}^{\bigoplus} > CH_{2}^{\bigoplus}$$

$$OCH_{3} > NO_{2}$$

As the number of phenyl groups possible for the benzylic carbo cation increases, its resonance stabilisation is also increases.

$$C_6H_5 - CH_2^+ < C_6H_5 - CH^+ - C_6H_5 < C_6H_5 - C^+ - C_6H_5$$

If the positively charged carbon is bonded to a hetero atom carrying lone pair of electrons, the carbocation is stabilised by resonance.

$$CH_3 \longrightarrow CH_2 \longrightarrow CH_2 \leftarrow CH_3 \longrightarrow CH_2 \longrightarrow CH_2$$

$$CF_3 \leftarrow CH_2 < \bigoplus_{C \leftarrow F} CH_2 < \bigoplus_{F \leftarrow F} CH_F$$

$$R - \stackrel{+}{C} = \stackrel{\leftarrow}{0} \longrightarrow R - C = \stackrel{+}{0}$$

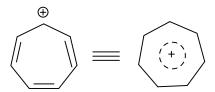
Acylium cation

More stable resonace structure

(Octect all atoms are completed)

NOTE:

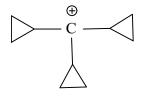
Cycloheptatrienyl cation (Tropylium cation) is more stable than $(C_6H_5)_3$ C⁺



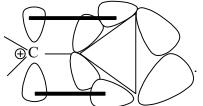
Reason

The carbocation is the resonance hybrid of 7 identical structures and also the cation is aromatic in nature.

The so far discovered most stable carbocation is



Reason:-



The bent orbitals in cyclopropyl ring release electrons to be vacant 'p'-

orbital of carbocation (σ -conjugation)

Rearrangement of carbocation

Less stable primary and secondary carbocations rearrange to more stable 3° or 2° carbocations through 1, 2 shifts.

RING EXPANSIONS DURING REARRANGEMENT OF CARBOCATIONS

$$CH_3$$
 CH_3
 CH_3

2. Carbanion

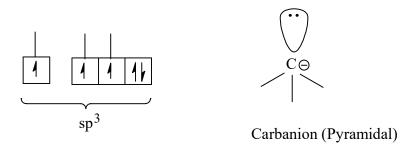
They are intermediate species carrying a negative charge on carbon.

Classification

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & CH_3 & & R & -CH_2 & & R & -CH - R & & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & R & -CH - R & & & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & R & -CH - R & & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & & \\ & (Methyl & & & & \\ & (Methyl$$

Structure

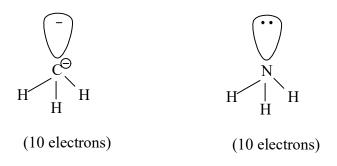
In carbanions, carbon is in sp³ hybridised state. The three half filled sp³ hybridised orbitals form 3σ bonds. 4^{th} sp³ hybridised orbital contains a pair of electrons. But in resonance stabilised carbanions like, allyl, benzyl etc the negatively charged carbon is sp² hybridised.



.. The carbon in carbanion are associated with 8 electrons in its valence shell.

NOTE:

Methyl carbanion and ammonia (NH₃) are iso structural and iso electronic.



Stability

Stability in terms of inductive effect.

Electron releasing group increases the magnitude of -ve charges on carbanion through +I effect and such groups decreases their stability. : The stability of carbanion is in the order.

$$CH_{3}^{-} > 1^{0} > 2^{0} > 3^{0}$$

$$CH_{3} > R - CH_{2} > R_{2} - CH > R_{3} - C$$

On the otherhand electron withdrawing group decreases the magnitude of carbanion through -l effect and such groups increases their stability.

$$CH_3 \rightarrow CH_2 > CF_3 \leftarrow CH_2$$

Stability in terms of resonance

a) Resonance stabilisation of allylic carbanion

$$CH_2 = CH = CH_2$$
 $CH_2 = CH = CH_2$

b) Resonance stabilisation of benzylic carbanion

$$CH_2$$
 CH_2
 CH_2

The magnitude of -ve charge is located at ortho-para positions. Therefore electron withdrawing groups at ortho-para positions increase the stability of benzylic carbanion and electron releasing group at ortho- para positions decreases their stability.

3. Free radicals

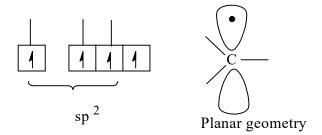
They are neutral electron deficient chemical species carrying an unpaired electron. They are generated as a result of homolytic bond cleavage.

$$C1$$
 $C1$ $C1$ $C1$

Classification

Structure

In free radicals carbon is in sp^2 hybridisation. The three half filled sp^2 hybridised orbitals form 3σ bonds. The unshared electron is present in the unhybridised 'p' orbital.



: The carbon in free radicals are associated with 7e- in their valence shell.

Stability

Stability in terms of hyperconjugation

As the number of α – hydrogen atom possible for a free radical increase, the number of hyperconjugative structures and therefore stability increases. Therefore the stability increases in the order 3° > 2° > 1° > CH₃.

$$\begin{array}{l} \dot{C}\,H_{3} \\ \dot{C}\,H_{3} \\ _{\text{No}\; \alpha-\text{hydrogen}} < CH_{3} - \dot{C}\,H_{2} \\ _{3\alpha-\text{hydrogen}} < CH_{3} - \dot{C}\,H - CH_{3} \\ _{6\alpha-\text{hydrogen}} < CH_{3} - CH_{3} \\ \end{array} \\ = CH_{3} - CH_{3} \\ - CH_{3} - CH_{$$

Stability in terms of resonance

a) Resonance stabilisation of allylic free radical.

$$CH_2$$
 CH_2 CH_2 CH_2 CH_2

b) Resonance stabilization of benzylic free radical.

$$CH_2$$
 CH_2
 CH_2

As the number of phenylic group possible for a benzylic free radical increases the resonance stabilisation is also increases.

$$C_6H_5 - CH_2 < (C_6H_5)_2 - CH < (C_6H_5)_3\dot{C}$$

ELECTROPHILES AND NUCLEOPHILES

Electrophiles are electron loving chemical species (electron deficient)

Eg:
$$\overset{\oplus}{R}$$
, $\overset{\oplus}{H}$, NO_2^{\bigoplus} , NO^+ , $\overset{\oplus}{X}$, (+ve ions)

$$\dot{R}$$
, \dot{R} - \dot{N} , \dot{R} - \dot{N} , \dot{R} - \dot{N} , \dot{R} - $\dot{R$

Nucleophiles are nucleus loving chemical species (electron rich)

Eg:
$$OH^-$$
, NH_2^- , CN^- , R^- , X^- , (-ve ion)

$$H_2 \overset{\bullet}{O}_1$$
, $R \overset{\bullet}{\longrightarrow} \overset{\bullet}{O} H$, $\overset{\bullet}{N} H_3$, $R \overset{\bullet}{\longrightarrow} \overset{\bullet}{N} H_2$,..... (Neutral)

Different types of organic reactions

- 1. Substitution reaction
- a. Electrophilic substitution reaction (S.E. reaction)

The substitution reaction is carried out by an electrophile

Eg: - Electrophilic substitution reaction in benzene

Mechanism

i) Reagent
$$\longrightarrow$$
 E^{\oplus}

The second step is the slowest step and it is therefore the rate determining step

Application

• Benzene and hexadeuteriobenzene gives a particular electrophilic substitution reaction exactly at the same rate, because cleavage of proton is not involved in rate determine step

1. Nitration

$$\begin{array}{c} & & \\ & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Mechanism

i)
$$2 \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{HNO}_3 \longrightarrow \text{NO}_2^+ + 2 \text{ HSO}_4^- + \text{H}_3\text{O}^+$$
(Base)

ii)
$$+ NO_2^+ \xrightarrow{-H^+}$$

2. Sulphonation

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Conc. H}_2\text{SO}_4 \\ \end{array}$$

Mechanism:

i)
$$_{2}$$
 $_{2}$ $_{2}$ $_{3}$ + $_{4}$ $_{4}$ + $_{4}$ $_{3}$ $_{9}$ $_{1}$

Friedel craft's reaction

$$+ RCl$$
 $AlCl_3$

Mechanism:

i)
$$R$$
 — $Cl + AlCl_3$ — $\stackrel{\bigoplus}{R} + AlCl_4$

$$ii) \bigcirc + \stackrel{\oplus}{R} \stackrel{-H^+}{\longrightarrow} \bigcirc$$

Application:-

Benzene with chlorobenzene doesn't give friedel craft's reaction because the phenyl carbocation is highly unstable.

$$+$$
 \longrightarrow No reaction

$$\begin{array}{c}
C1 \\
+ AlCl_3
\end{array}
+ AlCl_4$$
Unstable

Halogenation

$$+ Br_2 \xrightarrow{FeBr_3} + HBr$$

Mechanism:

i)
$$Br_2 + FeBr_3 \longrightarrow Br^+ + FeBr_4^-$$

$$\mathsf{ii)} \qquad \qquad \stackrel{\mathsf{Br}}{\longleftarrow} \qquad \qquad \stackrel{\mathsf{Br}}{\longleftarrow} \qquad \qquad \\$$

Ring activating groups for electrophilic substitution

Electron releasing groups increases the electron density on benzene ring and therefore such groups activate the benzene ring for electrophilic substitution.

Eg: -
$$NH_2$$
, - NHR , - OH , - OR (+R effect)

Alkyl groups (+I and hyperconjugation)

Ring activating effect of – NH_2 group

The magnitude of -ve charge is located at ortho-para positions. :. Ring activating group are ortho-para directing groups or electrophiles

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
NH_2 & NH_2 & NH_2 \\
+ E & -H^+ & E
\end{array}$$
(major)

Ring deactivating groups for electrophilic substitution

Electron withdrawing groups decreases the electron density on benzene ring and therefore such groups deactivates benzene ring towards electrophilic substitution.

Ring deactivating effect of cyanide group

The magnitude of +ve chargee is located at ortho-para positions . . . Ring deactivating groups are meta directing groups for electrophiles

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
C = N \\
+ E^{+} & \xrightarrow{-H^{+}}
\end{array}$$

Anomalous behavior of halogens

Halogens are ring deactivating groups through their strong -I effect. But orthopara directing groups for electrophiles through their weak +R effect. : Halogens are ortho-para directing deactivators. i.e., th reactivity of the ring is controlled by strong -I effect of halogen and orientation of the electrophile is controlled by its weak +R effect.

b. **Nucleophilic substitution reaction**

The substitution reaction carried out by nucleophile.

Mechanism of nucleophilic substitution reaction

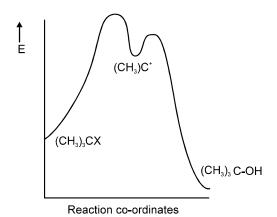
S_N1 mechanism (substitution nucleophilic unimolecular mechanism)

Consider the reaction
$$CH_3$$
 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3

for this reaction can be explained as

1)
$$CH_3$$
 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3

2)
$$CH_3$$
 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3 CH_3



The first step is the slowest step and it is therefore the rate determining step. This step involves only a single reactant molecule. Therefore the mechanism is called as unimolecular.

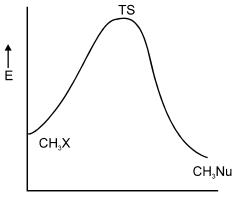
The rate of S_N1 reaction depends upon the stability of the intermediate carbocation formed in the 1st step. Stability of carbo cation follows the order $3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ > CH_3^+$ The reactivity of various alkylhalide towards S_N1 reaction follows the order $3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ > CH_3x$

Note:

Alylic and benzylic carbocations are resonance stabilised. Therefore allylic and benzylic halides easily reacts through S_N^1 reaction even through they are primary halides

$$CH_2=CH$$
 — CH_2 — X — X — CH_2 = CH_2 — CH_2

 $\frac{S_{N} 2 \ \text{Mechanism} \ (\text{Substitution nucleophilic bimolecular mechanism})}{S_{N} 2 \ \text{reaction involves only a single step in which the nucleophile attack from the backside of the step in the backside of the backside of the step in the backside of the backside of the backside of the step in the backside of the backs$ leaving group and as a result we get a 100% inversion product and is called Walden inversion



Reaction co-ordinates

The single step (rate determining step) involves two reactant species. There for the mechanism is known as bimolecular.

Bulky groups sterically retards the backside attack of the nucleophile. As a result, S_N2 reaction in various alkylhalides follows the order

$$CH_{_{\! 3}}-X>1^{\! O}>2^{\! O}>3^{\! O}$$

Note:

Allylic and benzylic halides are also highly reactive towards $S_N 2$ reaction, because the π electrons in allylic and benzylic group helps the cleavage of C-X bonds.

S_N2 reaction at an optically active centre gives a single sterio isomer and its direction of optical activity is unpredictable (may be dextro or laevo)

 \therefore S_N2 reactions are slow in polar protic solvents. The commonly used solvents for S_N2 reactions are polar aprotic solvents such as

D.M.SO
$$\longrightarrow$$
 CH₃ S \Longrightarrow O Dimethyl sulphoxide

D.M.F
$$\longrightarrow$$
 H—C \longrightarrow CH₃

D.M.A
$$\longrightarrow$$
 CH₃ \longrightarrow CH₃ \longrightarrow CH₃ \longrightarrow CH₃ \longrightarrow CH₃

Acetone
$$\longrightarrow$$
 CH_3 $C=0$

S_N1

- Nucleophilic strength unimportant
- > 3°>2°>1°>CH₃-x
- Polar protic solvents
- Rate=K[R-X]
- > Rearrangements are possible

- $S_N 2$
- Nucleophiles with high nucleophilicity
- > CH₃x>1°>2°>3°
- Weakly polar (aprotic)solvents
- Rate =K[R-X] [Nu-]
- Rearrangement is not possible

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
 & O \\
\hline
CI + R - O - S \\
\hline
CI
\end{array}$$

$$\longrightarrow RC1 + SO_2$$

Free radical Substitution Reaction

Substitution reaction is carried out by a free radical

$$\textbf{Eg: } \textbf{CH}_{4} + \textbf{CI}_{2} \xrightarrow{\quad \textbf{hv} \quad} \textbf{CH}_{3} \textbf{CI} + \textbf{CH}_{2} \textbf{CI}_{2} + \textbf{CHCI}_{3} + \textbf{CCI}_{4}$$

Mechanism

i)
$$\stackrel{\longleftarrow}{Cl} \xrightarrow{h\nu} 2 \stackrel{\stackrel{\longleftarrow}{Cl}}{Cl}$$
 Initiation

ii)
$$\dot{C}1 + CH_4 + \longrightarrow \dot{C}H_3 + HC1$$

iii) $\dot{C}H_3 + Cl_2 \longrightarrow CH_3C1 + \dot{C}1$ Propagation

iv)
$$\dot{C}H_3 + \dot{C}1 \longrightarrow CH_3C1$$

v) $\dot{C}H_3 + \dot{C}H_3 \longrightarrow CH_3 - CH_3$ Termination

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CI} \\ | \\ \\ \text{CH}_{3} \text{---} \text{CH}_{2} \text{----} \text{CH}_{3} + \text{CI}_{2} \xrightarrow{\text{hv}} \text{CH}_{3} \text{----} \text{CH}_{3} + \text{CH}_{3} \text{----} \text{CH}_{2} \text{----} \text{CI} \\ \text{(Major)} \end{array}$$

Mechanism:

The reactivity of various hydrogen atom towards free radical substitution reaction depends up on the stability of the intermediate free radical generated. The stability of free radical follows the order 3°>2°>1°. ... The reactivity of various hydrogen atoms towards free radical substitution reaction follows the order 3°>2°>1°:

Addition Reaction

1. Electrophilic addition reaction

The addition reaction is initiated by an electrophile

Eq:
$$CH_2 = CH_2 + HX \longrightarrow CH_3 - CH_2 - X$$

Mechanism:

i)
$$HX \longrightarrow H^+ + X^-$$

ii)
$$CH_2 \stackrel{+}{=} CH_2 + H^+ \longrightarrow CH_2 \stackrel{+}{---} CH_3$$

iii)
$$CH_3 - CH_2^{\dagger} + X^{-} \longrightarrow CH_3 - CH_2 - X$$

Application:

$$CH_3$$
— CH = CH_2 + HBr — CH_3 — CH_2 — CH_2 — Br + CH_3 — CH — CH_3
 Rr

(Major) (Markovnikov's rule)

Mechanism:

$$CH_{3} \longrightarrow CH_{2} \longrightarrow CH_{3} \longrightarrow C$$

Note:

The addition of HBr (not other HX) to an unsymmetrical alkene in presence of a peroxide takes place against Markonikov's rule and is called the anti-Markovnikov's addition or peroxide effect or Kharasch effect.

$$CH_3$$
— CH = CH_2 + HBr $\xrightarrow{Peroxide}$ CH_3 — CH_2 — CH_2 — Br

Mechanism:

$$C_6H_5$$
 $C_6H_5 + CO_2$

iii)
$$C_6H_5 + HBr \longrightarrow C_6H_6 + Br$$

iv)
$$CH_3$$
 CH_2 \dot{E} CH_2 \dot{E} CH_3 CH_3 CH_4 \dot{E} CH_5 $CH_$

Note: Presence of electron withdrawing groups on unsaturated carbon gives anti- markonikov's addition

$$(CF_3)$$
— CH = $CH_2 + HCl$ \longrightarrow CF_3 — CH_2 — CH_2 Cl

Mechanism:

$$CF_{3} \longrightarrow CH_{2} \longrightarrow CH_{2} \longrightarrow CF_{3} \longrightarrow CH_{2} \longrightarrow C$$

Nucleophilic addition reaction

The addition reaction is initiated by a nucleophile

$$\begin{array}{c|c} O & OH \\ \parallel & \parallel \\ R - C - H + HCN \longrightarrow R - C - H \text{ (Cyano hydrin)} \\ \parallel & \downarrow \\ CN \end{array}$$

Mechanism:

1) HCN
$$\longrightarrow$$
 H⁺ + CN⁻

Note:

Free radical addition reaction

The addition reaction is initiated by a free radical

Eg:-
$$CH_3$$
 — CH = CH_2 + HBr $\xrightarrow{Peroxide}$ CH_3 — CH_2 — CH_2 — Br

ELIMINATION REACTION

This type of reaction involves the loss of 2 atoms or groups, occurs from the same or adjacent atoms leading to the formation of a multiple bond or its any equivalent.

α – Elimination reaction;

The loss of two atoms or groups occurs from the same atom

β – Elimination reaction:

The loss of two atoms or groups occurs from two adjacent atoms.

1. Dehydration of alcohols

$$CH_3$$
— CH — CH_2
 CH_3 — CH — CH_2
 CH_3 — CH — CH_2
 CH_3 — CH — CH_2

Mechanism

$$CH_{3} - CH - CH_{2} + H^{+} \longrightarrow CH_{3} - CH \xrightarrow{\Theta} CH_{2} \xrightarrow{-H_{2}O} CH_{3} - CH \xrightarrow{\Theta} CH_{2}$$

$$CH_{3} - CH = CH_{2}$$

$$CH_{3} - CH = CH_{2}$$

2. Dehydrohalogenation reaction

The reaction involves alkoxide ion $(R-O^-)$ as the reagent . $R-O^-$ is bulkier nucleophile and a strong base. Therefore it prefer to attack the β hydrogen and produce the corresponding elimination product.

Note:

Saytzseff's Rule

In a dehydrohalogenation reaction, the more substituted alkene will be the major product

Reason: More substituted alkenes have a more number of α hydrogen atoms and it is therefore stabilised by hyperconjugation.

Note:

The dehydroflourination reaction is against Saytzsett's rule and is known as Hofmann's elimination

Reason : The C–F bond strength is greater than C–H bond length. Therefore the more acidic β -hydrogen will be eliminated in the first step