**Some Arrow-Pushing Guidelines (Section 1.14)**

1. Arrows follow electron movement.

2. Some rules for the appearance of arrows
   - The arrow must begin from the electron source. There are two sources:
     a. An atom (which must have a lone pair to give)
     b. A bond pair (an old bond that breaks)
   - An arrow must always point directly to an atom, because when electrons move, they always go to some new atom.

3. Ignore any Spectator Atoms. Any metal atom is always a “spectator”
   - When you have a metal spectator atom, realize that the non-metal next to it must have negative charge

4. Draw all H’s on any Atom Whose Bonding Changes

5. Draw all lone-pairs on any Atom whose bonding changes

6. **KEY ON BOND CHANGES.** Any two-electron bond that changes (either made or broken) must have an arrow to illustrate:
   - where it came from (new bond made) or
   - an arrow showing where it goes to (old bond broken)

7. **Watch for Formal Charges and Changes in Formal Charge**
   - If an atom’s charge gets more positive Þ it’s donating/losing an electron pair Þ arrow must emanate from that atom or one of it’s associated bonds. There are two “more positive” transactions:
     - When an anion becomes neutral. In this case, an arrow will emanate from the atom. The atom has donated a lone pair which becomes a bond pair.
     - When a neutral atom becomes cationic. In this case, the atom will be losing a bond pair, so the arrow should emanate from the bond rather than from the atom.
   - If an atom’s charge gets more negative Þ it’s accepting an electron pair Þ an arrow must point to that atom. Ordinarily the arrow will have started from a bond and will point to the atom.

8. **When bonds change, but Formal Charge Doesn’t Change, A “Substitution” is Involved**
   - Often an atom gives up an old bond and replaces it with a new bond. This is “substitution”.
   - In this case, there will be an incoming arrow pointing directly at the atom (to illustrate formation of the new bond), and an outgoing arrow emanating from the old bond that breaks
4.16 Reactive Intermediates: Stability Patterns

- Shortlived, unstable, highly reactive intermediates
- Normally lack normal bonding

These are tremendously important:
1. They will be the least stable intermediate in any multistep mechanism
2. When formed, they are products of the rate-determining step
3. Factors that stabilize them will speed up reaction rates

Thus it is very important to know their stability patterns!

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Stability Pattern</th>
<th>Electron Deficiency</th>
<th>Reactivity Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carbocations</td>
<td>[\text{C}^\text{+}]</td>
<td>Allylic &gt; 3º &gt; 2º &gt; 1º &gt; methyl &gt; alkenyl (vinyl, aryl)</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Electrophilic/Acidic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon Radicals</td>
<td>[\text{C}\cdot]</td>
<td>Allylic &gt; 3º &gt; 2º &gt; 1º &gt; methyl &gt; alkenyl (vinyl, aryl)</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>Electrophilic/Acidic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbanions</td>
<td>[\text{C}\text{=}\text{C}\cdot]</td>
<td>Allylic &gt; alkenyl (vinyl, aryl) &gt; methyl &gt; 1º &gt; 2º &gt; 3º</td>
<td>Rich</td>
<td>Nucleophilic/Basic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
1. Both carbocations and radicals have the same pattern. So you don’t need to memorize them twice!
2. Carbanions are almost exactly the reverse, except that being allylic is ideal for both.
3. All benefit from resonance (allylic).
4. Cations and radicals both fall short of octet rule. As a result, they are both electron deficient. Carbanions, by contrast, are electron rich.
5. Alkyl substituents are electron donors. As a result, they are good for electron deficient cations and radicals (3º > 2º > 1º > methyl) but bad for carbanions.
6. Alkenyl (vinyl or aryl) carbons are inherently a bit electron poor. This is excellent for carbanions, but terrible for cations or radicals.
Stability/Reactivity/Selectivity Principles

1. **Reactant Stability/Reactivity**: The more stable the reactant, the less reactive it will be. In terms of rates, this means that the more stable the reactant, the slower it will react. (The concept here is that the more stable the reactant, the more content it is to stay as is, and the less motivated it is to react and change into something different)

   **Key note**: Often the “reactant” that’s relevant in this context will not be the original reactant of the reaction, but will be the “reactant” involved in the rate determining step.

   - **Basicity**
     
     ![Basicity Diagram](image)
     
     Why: As anion stability increases from A to D, the reactivity decreases

   - **Nucleophilicity**
     
     ![Nucleophilicity Diagram](image)
     
     Why: As anion stability increases from A to D, the reactivity decreases

   - **Nucleophilicity**
     
     ![Nucleophilicity Diagram](image)
     
     Why: As anion stability increases from A to D, the reactivity decreases

   - **Reactivity toward alkanes via radical halogenation**
     
     \[
     \text{F}_2 > \text{Cl}_2 > \text{Br}_2 > \text{I}_2 \quad \text{because} \quad \text{F}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{Br}^- > \text{I}^- \]
     
     Why: Chlorine is more reactive than bromine because chlorine radical is less stable than bromine radical.

   - **Electrophilicity (Reactivity in } S_N2, \ S_N1, \ E2, \ E1 \text{ Reactions)**
     
     ![Electrophilicity Diagram](image)
     
     Why: As carbon-halogen bond stability increases, the reactivity decreases
2. **Product Stability/Reactivity**: The more stable the product, the more favorable its formation will be. In terms of rates, this means that the more stable the product, the faster the reaction. (The concept here is that the more stable the product, the more favorable it will be to make that product.)

**Key note**: Often the “product” that’s relevant in this context will not be the final product of the reaction, but will be the “product” of the rate determining step.

- **Acidity**

  \[
  \text{CH}_3 < \text{NH}_2 < \text{OH} < \text{COOH}
  \]

  Why: Because as the stability of the anion products increases from A to D, the reactivity of the parent acids increase

  \[
  \text{CH}_2\text{Na} < \text{NHNa} < \text{ONa} < \text{COONa}
  \]

- **Reactivity of alkanes toward radical halogenation**

  \[
  \text{H}_3\text{C-CH}_3 < \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3 < \text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3 < \text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3
  \]

  Why: Because as the stability of the radical produced during the rate-determining-step increases, the reactivity of the parent alkane increases

  \[
  \text{1°} < \text{2°} < \text{3°} < \text{3° plus resonance}
  \]

- **S\text{N}1, E1 Reactivity**

  \[
  \text{Br} < \text{CH}_2 \text{Br} < \text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{Br} < \text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{Br}
  \]

  Why: Because as the stability of the cation produced in the rate-determining step increases, the reactivity of the parent halide increases as well

  \[
  \text{1°} < \text{2°} < \text{3°} < \text{3° plus resonance}
  \]
3. **Transition-State Stability/Reactivity**: The more stable the transition state, the faster the reaction will be. (The concept here is that the lower the transition state, the more easily it will be crossed.)

- **S_N2 Reactivity**

  ![Reaction Mechanism](image)

  Why: The pattern reflects the relative stability of the transition states. In the case of 3° versus 2° versus 1°, the issue is steric congestion in the transition state. The transition states for the more highly substituted halides are destabilized. In the case of allylic halides, the transition state is stabilized for orbital reasons, not steric reasons.
1. **Radical Halogenation (Ch. 4)**

**Recognition:** $X_2$, hv

**Predicting product:** Identify which carbon could give the most stable radical, and substitute a Br for an H on that carbon.

**Stereochemistry:** Leads to racemic, due to achiral radical intermediate.

**Mech:** Radical. Be able to draw propagation steps.

![Radical Halogenation Diagram](image)

2. **SN$_2$ Substitution**

Any of a large variety of nucleophiles or electrophiles can work.

**Recognition:**
- A. Anionic Nucleophile, and
- B. 1º or 2º alkyl halide

(3º alkyl halides fail, will give E2 upon treatment with Anionic Nucleophile/Base. For 2º alkyl halides, SN$_2$ is often accompanied by variable amounts of E2.)

**Predicting product:** Replace the halide with the anion nucleophile

**Stereochemistry:** Leads to Inversion of Configuration

**Mech:** Be able to draw completely. Only one concerted step!

![SN2 Substitution Diagram](image)

3. **E2 Reactions.**

**Recognition:**
- A. Anionic Nucleophile/Base, and
- B. 3º or 2º alkyl halide

(1º alkyl halides undergo SN$_2$ instead. For 2º alkyl halides, E2 is often accompanied by variable amounts of SN$_2$.)

**Orientation:** The most substituted alkene forms (unless a bulky base is used, ch. 7)

**Predicting product:** Remove halide and a hydrogen from the neighboring carbon that can give the most highly substituted alkene. The hydrogen on the neighboring carbon must be trans, however.

**Stereochemistry:** Anti elimination. The hydrogen on the neighbor carbon must be trans/anti.

**Mech:** Concerted. Uses anion. Be able to draw completely. Only one concerted step!
4. \(\text{S}_\text{N}1\) Reactions.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Br} & \quad \text{HOCH}_3 \\
\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12} \quad + H-\text{Br} & \quad \text{S}_\text{N}1: \text{resonance}>3^\circ>2^\circ>1^\circ>\text{alkenyl}
\end{align*}
\]

**Recognition:** A. Neutral, weak nucleophile. No anionic nucleophile/base, and
B. 3º or 2º alkyl halide. (Controlled by cation stability).
(1º alkyl halides undergo \(\text{S}_\text{N}2\) instead. For 2º alkyl halides, \(\text{S}_\text{N}1\) is often accompanied by variable amounts of \(\text{E}_1\).)

**Predicting product:** Remove halide and replace it with the nucleophile (minus an H atom!)

**Stereochemistry:** Racemization. The achiral cation intermediate forgets any stereochem.

**Mech:** Stepwise, 3 steps, via carbocation. Be able to draw completely.

5. \(\text{E}_1\) Reactions. 3º > 2º > 1º (Controlled by cation stability)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Br} & \quad \text{HOCH}_3 \\
\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12} \quad + H^+ & \quad \text{E}_1: \ 3^\circ>2^\circ>1^\circ
\end{align*}
\]

**Recognition:** A. Neutral, weak nucleophile. No anionic nucleophile/base, and
B. 3º or 2º alkyl halide. (Controlled by cation stability).
(For 2º alkyl halides, \(\text{E}_1\) is often accompanied by variable amounts of \(\text{S}_\text{N}1\).)

**Orientation:** The most substituted alkene forms

**Predicting the major product:** Remove halide and a hydrogen from the neighboring carbon that can give the most highly substituted alkene. The hydrogen on the neighboring carbon can be cis or trans.

**Stereochemistry:** Not an issue. The eliminating hydrogen can be cis or trans.

**Mech:** Stepwise, 2 steps, via carbocation. Be able to draw completely.

---

Sorting among \(\text{S}_\text{N}2\), \(\text{S}_\text{N}1\), \(\text{E}_2\), \(\text{E}_1\): How do I predict?

**Step 1:** Check nucleophile/base.
- If **neutral**, then \(\text{S}_\text{N}1/\text{E}_1\) \(\rightarrow\) mixture of both
- If **anionic**, then \(\text{S}_\text{N}2/\text{E}_2\).

**Step 2:** If **anionic**, and in the \(\text{S}_\text{N}2/\text{E}_2\), then **Check the substrate**.
- 1º \(\rightarrow\) \(\text{S}_\text{N}2\)
- 2º \(\rightarrow\) \(\text{S}_\text{N}2/\text{E}_2\) mixture. Often more \(\text{S}_\text{N}2\), but not reliable…
- 3º \(\rightarrow\) \(\text{E}_2\)
### 6.16 Comparing $S_N2$ vs $S_N1$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$S_N1$</th>
<th>$S_N2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Nucleophile</td>
<td>Neutral, weak</td>
<td>Anionic, strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Substrate</td>
<td>3º R-X &gt; 2º R-X</td>
<td>1º R-X &gt; 2º R-X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allylic effect…</td>
<td>Allylic Helps</td>
<td>Allylic helps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Leaving Group</td>
<td>I &gt; Br &gt; Cl</td>
<td>I &gt; Br &gt; Cl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Solvent</td>
<td>Polar needed</td>
<td>Non-factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Rate Law</td>
<td>$K[RX]$</td>
<td>$k[RX][\text{Anion}]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Stereochemistry (on chiral, normally 2º R-X)</td>
<td>Racemization</td>
<td>Inversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Ions</td>
<td>Cationic</td>
<td>Anionic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Rearrangements</td>
<td>Problem at times</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.21 Comparing E2 vs E1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>E1</th>
<th>E2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Nucleophile/Base</td>
<td>Neutral, weak, acidic</td>
<td>Anionic, strong, basic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Substrate</td>
<td>3º R-X &gt; 2º R-X</td>
<td>3º RX &gt; 2º RX &gt; 1º RX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allylic effect…</td>
<td>Allylic Helps</td>
<td>Non-factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Leaving Group</td>
<td>I &gt; Br &gt; Cl</td>
<td>I &gt; Br &gt; Cl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Solvent</td>
<td>Polar needed</td>
<td>Non-factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Rate Law</td>
<td>$K[RX]$</td>
<td>$k[RX][\text{Anion}]$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Stereochemistry</td>
<td>Non-selective</td>
<td>Trans requirement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Ions</td>
<td>Cationic</td>
<td>Anionic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Rearrangements</td>
<td>Problem at times</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Orientation</td>
<td>Zaitsev’s Rule: Prefer more substituted alkene</td>
<td>Zaitsev’s Rule: Prefer more substituted alkene (assuming trans requirement permits)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comparing $S_N2$ vs $S_N1$ vs E2 vs E1: How Do I Predict Which Happens When?**

**Step 1:** Check nucleophile/base.
- If **neutral**, then $S_N1/E1 \rightarrow$ mixture of both
- If **anionic**, then $S_N2/E2$.

**Step 2:** If **anionic**, and in the $S_N2/E2$ pool, then **Check the substrate**.
- $1º \rightarrow S_N2$
- $2º \rightarrow S_N2/E2$ mixture. Often more $S_N2$, but not reliable…
- $3º \rightarrow E2$

**Notes:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>R-X</th>
<th>$S_N2$ only</th>
<th>2º R-X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1º R-X</td>
<td>No E2 or $S_N1/E1$ (cation too lousy for $S_N1/E1$; $S_N2$ too fast for E2 to compete)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2º R-X</td>
<td>$E2$ (anionic) or $S_N1/E1$ (neutral/acidic)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3º R-X</td>
<td>No $S_N2$ (sterics too lousy)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixtures common</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ch. 7  Structure and Synthesis of Alkenes

C. E-Z Nomenclature (7-5)
   • Each carbon of an alkene has two attachments.
     1. Identify which of the two attachments on the left alkene carbon has higher priority.
     2. Then identify which attachment on the right alkene carbon has higher priority.
        • “Z” (“zusammen” = “together”): the priority attachments are cis
        • “E” (“entgegen = “opposite”): the priority attachments are trans

When does E/Z apply?
   1. If either alkene carbon has two common attachments, than stereo doesn’t apply
   2. For tri- or tetrasubstituted alkenes (3 or 4 non-hydrogen attachments), E/Z must be used
      if there is stereochemistry
   3. For di-substituted alkenes (one H on each alkene carbon), either E/Z or cis/trans designation can be used

7.7 Alkene Stability Pattern

A. Increasing Substitution (# of non-hydrogens directly attached to alkene carbons) \( \rightarrow \) Increased Stability
     o Alkene carbons are somewhat electron poor due to the inferior overlap of pi bonds.
       (One carbon doesn’t really “get” as much of the other carbon’s electron as is the case in a nice sigma bond).
     o Since alkyl groups are electron donors, they stabilize electron-deficient alkene carbons.
     o Analogous to why electron-donating alkyls give the \( 3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ \) stability pattern for cations and radicals

B. Trans is more stable than cis for 1,2-disubstituted alkenes
   • Why?
     o Steric Reasons
Reaction Mechanisms (see p. 310)

A. Recognizing/Classifying as Radical, Cationic, or Anionic

1. Radical
   - initiation requires both energy (either $hv$ or $\Delta$) and a weak, breakable heteroatom-heteroatom bond
     - Cl-Cl, Br-Br, O-O (peroxide), N-Br, etc..
   
   2 Guides for That are Usually Reliable:
   $hv \rightarrow$ radical mechanism
   peroxides $\rightarrow$ radical mechanism

2. Anionic
   - a strong anion/base appears in the recipe
   - no strong acids should appear in the recipe
   - mechanisms should involve anionic intermediates and reactants, not strongly cationic ones
     - (except for do-nothing spectators like metal cations)
   - The first step in the mechanism will involve the strong anion/base that appears in the recipe

3. Cationic
   - a strong acid/electrophile appears in the recipe
   - no strong anion/base should appear in the recipe
   - mechanisms should involve cationic intermediates and reactants, not strongly anionic ones
     - (except for do-nothing spectators like halide or hydrogen sulfate anions)
   - The first step in the mechanism will involve the acid that appears in the recipe. The last step will often involve a deprotonation step. Often the main step occurs in between the proton-on and proton-off steps

B. Miscellaneous Mechanism Tips

   1. Keep track of hydrogens on reacting carbons
   2. Each step in a mechanism must balance
   3. The types of intermediates involved (cation, anion, or radical) should be consistent with the reaction classification above
      - a. If the reaction is cationic, don’t show anionic intermediates
      - b. If the reaction is anionic, don’t show cationic intermediates
   4. Usually conditions are ionic.
   5. Use a reactive species, whether strong anion or an acid, to start the first step
      - a. If acidic, first step will involve protonation of the organic
      - b. If anionic, the first step will involve the anion attacking the organic.
   6. While it isn’t always easy to figure out what is a good mechanism, you should often be able to eliminate an unreasonable mechanism.
Chapter 7 Reactions and Mechanisms, Review

**E2**
On R-X, Normal Base

\[ \text{Br} \xrightarrow{\text{NaOCH}_3} \text{Br} + \text{H-OCH}_3 \]

Mech:
\[ \text{Br} \xrightarrow{\text{OCH}_3} \text{Br} + \text{H-OCH}_3 + \text{Br}^- \]

**Notes**
1. Trans hydrogen required for E2
2. Zaytsev elimination with normal bases
3. For 3º R-X, E2 only. But with 2º R-X, SN2 competes (and usually prevails)
4. Lots of “normal base” anions.

**E2,**
On R-X, Bulky Base

\[ \text{Br} \xrightarrow{\text{NEt}_3 \text{ or } \text{KOC(CH}_3)_3} \text{Et}_3 \text{NH}^+ \text{Br}^- \]

**Notes:**
1. Hoffman elimination with Bulky Bases
2. E2 dominates over SN2 for not only 3º R-X but also 2º R-X
3. Memorize NEt\text{3} and KOC(CH\text{3})\text{3} as bulky bases.

**Acid-Catalyzed E1-Elimination Of Alcohols**

\[ \text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4} \text{H-} + \text{H-OH} \]

**Mech**

\[ \text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4} \text{OH} + \text{HSO}_4^- \]

Protonation

\[ \text{H}^+ \xrightarrow{\text{HSO}_4^-} \text{H} \]

Elimination

\[ \text{H} \xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4} \text{H} + \text{OH}_2 \]

Deprotonation

\[ \text{H} \xrightarrow{\text{HSO}_4^-} \text{H} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \]

**Notes:**
1. Zaytsev elimination
2. Cationic intermediate means 3º > 2º > 1º
3. 3-Step mechanism
**Summary of Alkene Reactions, Ch. 8.**

Memorize Reaction, Orientation where Appropriate, Stereochemistry where Appropriate, and Mechanism where Appropriate.

-all are drawn using 1-methylcyclohexene as a prototype alkene, because both orientation and stereochemistry effects are readily apparent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Stereo</th>
<th>Mechanism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1 | \[
\begin{align*}
\text{HBr} \quad (\text{no peroxides})
\end{align*}
\] | Markovnikov | None | **Be able to draw completely** |
| 2 | \[
\begin{align*}
\text{HBr} \quad \text{peroxides} \\
\text{both cis and trans}
\end{align*}
\] | Anti-Markovnikov | Nonselective. Both cis and trans | **Be able to draw propagation steps.** |
| 3 | \[
\begin{align*}
\text{H}_2\text{O, H}^+
\end{align*}
\] | Markovnikov | None | **Be able to draw completely** |
| 4 | \[
\begin{align*}
1. \text{Hg(OAc)}_2, \text{H}_2\text{O} \\
2. \text{NaBH}_4
\end{align*}
\] | Markovnikov | None | Not responsible |
| 5 | \[
\begin{align*}
1. \text{BH}_3\text{•THF} \\
2. \text{H}_2\text{O}_2, \text{NaOH}
\end{align*}
\] | Anti-Markovnikov | Cis | Not responsible |
| 6 | \[
\begin{align*}
1. \text{Hg(OAc)}_2, \text{ROH} \\
2. \text{NaBH}_4
\end{align*}
\] | Markovnikov | None | Not responsible |
| 7 | \[
\begin{align*}
\text{H}_2, \text{Pt}
\end{align*}
\] | None | Cis | Not responsible |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Stereo</th>
<th>Mechanism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Trans</td>
<td>Be able to draw completely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Markovnikov</td>
<td>Trans</td>
<td>Be able to draw completely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Cis</td>
<td>Not responsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Trans</td>
<td>Be able to draw acid-catalyzed epoxide hydrolysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Cis</td>
<td>Not responsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Not responsible</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: H-bearing alkene carbon ends up as aldehyde.

H-bearing alkene carbon ends as carboxylic acid
Summary of Mechanisms, Ch. 7 + 8.
Alkene Synthesis and Reactions.

1. \[
\text{HBr} \quad \text{(no peroxides)} \]

Note: For unsymmetrical alkenes, protonation occurs at the less substituted alkene carbon so that the more stable cation forms \((3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ)\), in keeping with the product stability-reactivity principle.

2. \[
\text{HBr} \quad \text{peroxides} \quad \text{both cis and trans} \]

Note 1: For unsymmetrical alkenes, bromination occurs at the less substituted alkene carbon so that the more stable radical forms \((3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ)\), in keeping with the product stability-reactivity principle.

Note 2: Hydrogenation of the radical comes from either face, thus cis/trans mixture results.

3. \[
\text{H}_2\text{O, H}^+ \quad \text{OH} \]

Note: For unsymmetrical alkenes, protonation again occurs at the less substituted end of the alkene, in order to produce the more stable radical intermediate \((3^\circ > 2^\circ > 1^\circ)\).
1. Cation intermediate is cyclic bromonium (or chloronium) ion
2. The nucleophile captures the bromonium ion via backside attack - this leads to the trans stereochemistry
3. The nucleophile attacks the bromonium ion at the *more* substituted carbon
   a. There is more + charge at the more substituted carbon
   b. The Br-C bond to the more substituted carbon is a lot weaker
4. Alcohols can function in the same way that water does, resulting in an ether OR rather than alcohol OH.
# Ch. 15 Conjugated Systems

## The General Stabilization Effect of Conjugation (Section 15.1, 2, 3, 8, 9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Conjugated (more stable)</th>
<th>Isolated (less stable)</th>
<th>Notes:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Radicals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Anions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Dienes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ethers</td>
<td>sp², not sp³!</td>
<td>An N or O next to a double bond becomes sp². An isolated N or O is sp³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Amines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Esters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Amides</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very special, chapter 23, all of biochemistry, proteins, enzymes, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Oxyanions (Carboxylates)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very special, chapter 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Carbanions (Enolates)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very special, chapter 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Aromatics</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very special, chapters 16 + 17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conjugation:** Anything that is or can be sp² hybridized is stabilized when next to π bonds.
- oxygens, nitrogens, cations, radicals, and anions

**Notes:**
1. Any atom that can be sp² will be sp² when next to a double bond
2. “Conjugation” is when sp² centers are joined in an uninterrupted series of 3 or more, such that an uninterrupted series of p-orbitals is possible
3. Any sp² center has one p orbital
Organic Chemistry I Review: Highlights of Key Reactions, Mechanisms, and Principles

Impact of Conjugation

4. **Stability:** Conjugation is **stabilizing** because of p-orbital overlap (Sections 15.2, 4, 7)
   - Note: In the allyl family, *resonance = conjugation*

![Conjugation Diagram]

- One p
  - Unstabilized
  - Isolated
- Two p’s
  - π-bond
  - C=C
- Three p’s
  - Allyl type
  - C=O
  - C=N
- Four p’s
  - Butadiene type
  - O=O
  - O=O
  - O=O
  - O=NH₂
  - O=OH
  - O=OR
- Six p’s in circuit
  - Aromatic

5. **Reactivity:** Conjugation-induced stability impacts **reactivity** (Sections 15.4-7)
   - If the **product** of a rate-determining step is stabilized, the reaction rate will go faster (product stability-reactivity principle)
     - Common when allylic cations, radicals, or carbanions are involved
   - If the **reactant** in the rate-determining step is stabilized, the reaction rate will go slower (reactant stability-reactivity principle)
     - Why aromatics are so much less reactive
     - Why ester, amide, and acid carbonyls are less electrophilic than aldehydes or ketones

6. **Molecular shape** (Sections 15.3, 8, 9)
   - The p-orbitals must be aligned in parallel for max overlap and max stability
   - The sp² centers must be coplanar
     - All four sp² carbons must be flat for the p's to align

7. **Bond Length:** Bonds that look like singles but are actually between conjugated sp² centers are **shorter** than ordinary single bonds
   - 1.54 A normal single
   - 1.33 A normal double
   - 1.48 A = Shortened and Strengthened conjugated single
   - Shortened and Strengthened
   - Shortened and Strengthened
   - Shortened and Strengthened
   - In amides, esters, and acids, the bond between the carbonyl and the heteroatom is shortened

8. **Bond Strength:** Bonds that look like singles but are actually between conjugated sp² centers are **stronger** than ordinary single bonds
9. **Bond Rotation Barrier**: Bonds that look like singles but are actually between conjugated have much larger rotation barriers than ordinary single bonds
   - Because in the process of rotating, the p-overlap and its associated stability would be temporarily lost

10. **Hybridization**: Conjugated sp² atoms have both sp² and p orbitals. You should always be able to classify the hybridization of lone pairs on nitrogen and oxygen.
   - **Isolated** oxygens or nitrogens: sp³ atom hybridization, sp³ lone-pair hybridization, and tetrahedral, 109º bond angles
   - **Conjugated nitrogens**: sp² atom hybridization, p lone-pair hybridization (needed for conjugation), and 120º bond angles
   - **Conjugated oxygens**: sp² atom hybridization, one p lone-pair hybridization (needed for conjugation), one sp³ lone-pair, and 120º bond angles

15.2 Diene Stability and the Stability of other Acyclic Systems with 2 Elements of Unsaturation

   **Stability Factors for Simple Dienes**:
   1. Isolated versus Conjugated: Conjugation stabilizes
   2. Substitution: More highly substituted are more stable.

15.4 Stability of Allylic/Benzylic (Conjugated) Cations

   **Stability Factors for Cations**:
   1. Isolated versus Conjugated/Allylic: Conjugation stabilizes
   2. Substitution: More highly substituted are more stable.
      - Conjugation/allylic is more important than the substitution pattern of an isolated cation (i.e. 1º allylic > 3º isolated)

**Allylic Cations, Resonance, Charge Delocalization, and Allylic Symmetry/Asymmetry**

a. \[ \text{\text{CH}_3}\rightleftharpoons\text{CH}_2^+ \quad \text{b.} \quad \text{CH}_2\rightleftharpoons\text{CH}^+ \quad \text{c.} \quad \text{C}_{6\text{H}_5}^+ \]

   - "Benzylic"

1. Two resonance structures each (at least)
2. Charge is delocalized, shared
3. Allylic cations can be symmetric or asymmetric
4. When an allylic cation is asymmetric, it’s helpful to evaluate which form would make a larger contribution to the actual hybrid
   - Cation substitution is more important than alkene substitution
Impact of Allylic Cation Resonance on Reactivity and Product Formation

1. **Rates**: Resonance/conjugation stability enhances rates when cation formation is rate-determining.

2. **Product Distribution**: Product mixtures often result if an allylic cation is asymmetric.
   - The two different resonance structures can lead to different products.
   - When two isomeric products can form from an allylic cation, consider two things:
     1. Which product is more stable?
        - This will impact “product stability control” = “thermodynamic control” = “equilibrium control”
        - To assess product stability, focus on the alkene substitution.
     2. Which resonance form of the cation would have made a larger contribution?
        - This will often favor “kinetic control”, in which a product which may not ultimately be the most stable forms preferentially.

3. **Position of Cation Formation**: When a conjugated diene is protonated, consider which site of protonation would give the best allylic cation.

Sections 15.5, 6 **1,2 vs. 1,4 Addition to Conjugated Dienes: “Kinetic” vs. “Thermodynamic” Control**

**Note**: “Thermodynamic Control” = “Product-Stability Control” = “Equilibrium Control”

- This is when the most stable of two possible products predominates. Either of two factors can cause this:
  - **Transition State**: The most stable product is formed fastest via the most stable transition state (normally true, but not always).
  - **Equilibrium**: Even if the most stable product is not formed fastest, if the two products can equilibrate, then equilibrium will favor the most stable product.

**Kinetic Control**: If the less stable of two possible products predominates.

- This will always require that for some reason the less stable product forms via a better transition state (transition-state stability/reactivity principle). Common factors:
  - Charge distribution in an allylic cation or radical. The position of charge in the major resonance contributor may lead to one product, even though it may not give the most stable product.
  - Proximity of reactants. In an H-X addition to a diene, often the halide anion is closer to one end of the allylic cation than the other, resulting in “1,2 addition” over “1,4 addition”.
  - Steric factors. With a bulky E2 base, for example, the transition state leading to what would be the more stable Zaitsev alkene has steric problems, so it gives the Hoffman alkene instead.

**15.7 Allylic/Benzylic Radicals**

Stability Factors for Radicals:
1. Isolated versus Conjugated/Allylic: Conjugation stabilizes.
2. Substitution: More highly substituted are more stable.
   - Conjugation/allylic is more important than the substitution pattern of an isolated cation.

Impact of Radical Resonance on Reactivity and Product Formation

1. **Rates**:
2. **Product Distribution**: Product mixtures often result if an allylic radical is asymmetric.
3. **Position of Radical Formation**
Section 15.10  $S_N2$ on Allylic, Benzylic Systems Are Really Fast

Ex.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{NaOCH}_3 \\
\quad \quad 10 \text{ hours} \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \quad \text{H} \\
\text{OCH}_3
\end{array} \\
\text{Slow, and contaminated by competing E2}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \quad \text{H} \\
\quad \quad 15 \text{ min} \\
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Br} \quad \text{H} \\
\text{OCH}_3
\end{array} \\
\text{Fast and Clean}
\end{array}
\]

Why? Because the backside-attack transition-state is stabilized by conjugation!
(Transition state-stability-reactivity principle).

1. Neither the product nor the reactant has conjugation, so it’s hard to see why conjugation should apply
2. However, in the 5-coordinate T-state the reactive carbon is sp$^2$ hybridized
   - the nucleophile and the electrophile are essentially on opposite ends of a temporary p-orbital.
3. That transient sp$^3$ hybridization in the transition-state is stabilized by $\pi$-overlap with the adjacent p-bond.
4. This stabilization of the transition-state lowers the activation barrier and greatly accelerates reaction
Section 15.11 The Diels-Alder Reaction. The Reaction of Conjugated Dienes (Dienes) with Electron-Poor Alkenes (Dienophiles) to make Cyclohexenes.

Quick Overview Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th><strong>Diene</strong></th>
<th><strong>Dienophile</strong></th>
<th><strong>heat</strong></th>
<th><strong>Product</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>s-cis diene conformational requirement: The diene must be locked or be able to single-bond rotate its way into the “s-cis” conformation in order to react</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Rate Factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Concerted Mechanism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Orbital Picture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Product Prediction Highlights</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Rate Factors
   1. Dienophile
      - activated by electron withdrawing groups (“W” or “EWG”) for electronic reasons
   2. Diene:
      - Deactivated by substituents that make it harder or less stable to exist in the s-cis conformation. This is true when a diene alkene has a Z-substituent.
      - Steric factors equal, activated somewhat by electron donating groups (“D” or “EDG”)

4. Concerted Mechanism
   All bond making and breaking happens at once:
   - 3 π-bonds break
   - 2 σ-bonds and 1π-bond form
   The diene is really the "nucleophile" (HOMO)
   The dienophile is really the "electrophile" (LUMO)

5. Orbital Picture

6. Product Prediction Highlights
   - Try to match up the 4 diene and 2 dienophile carbons with the product
     - The product double bond will be between C2 and C3 of the diene
   - Substituents are spectators
   - 1,4/1,2 Rule: when asymmetric dienes react with asymmetric dienophiles
     - Match δ- end of nucleophilic diene with δ+ end of electrophilic dienophile
   - For disubstituted dienophiles:
     - cis-substituents end up cis, and trans-substituents end up trans
A. The General Diels-Alder Reaction

1. **Electronics**: The diene HOMO reacts with the dienophile LUMO
   - Effectively the diene is the nucleophile and the dienophile functions as the electrophile
2. The dienophile usually **needs an electron-withdrawing attachment** ("W") (at least one)
   - This makes the dienophile more electrophilic
   - **Electron Withdrawing Groups to Memorize**:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carbonyls</th>
<th>Others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\delta^-$</td>
<td>CN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>NO$_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\delta^+$</td>
<td>SO$_3$H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>CF$_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C=O</td>
<td>C=N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-OR</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-NH$_2$</td>
<td>$\delta^+$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Keys**:
  - The atom that is connected to the alkene has $\delta^+$ charge
  - Anything with a double-bond to a heteroatom tends to have this
    - $\delta^+ \ C=O, \ C\equiv N, \ N=O, \ S=O$

B. **Predicting Products When the Diene or the Dienophile (or both) is Symmetric**

1. Always make a cyclohexene 6-ring product
2. Number the diene from 1-4, and identify those four carbons in the product ring.
3. A double bond in the product will always exist between carbons 2 and 3.
4. Any substituents on the diene or dienophile are spectators: they will be attached to the same carbons at the end.
   - Beware of cyclic dienes
   - Beware of dienes that are drawn in their zigzag s-trans form, but could react following rotation into an s-cis form

C. **Stereochemistry**: For Cis- or Trans- **Disubstituted Dienophiles**

- Both carbons of a disubstituted dienophile usually turn into stereocenters.
1. **Cis in $\rightarrow$ cis out**: If two substituents on the dienophile are cis to begin with, they will still have a cis relationship on the product cyclohexene
2. **Trans in $\rightarrow$ trans out**: If two substituents on the dienophile are cis to begin with, they will still have a cis relationship on the product cyclohexene

- **Note**: this is for the **dienophile only**. The diene alkenes may also have substitution such that one or both diene double bonds are cis or trans, but the “cis-in-cis-out” guideline does not apply to the diene.
D. Structural Factors for Dienes

1. s-cis (cisoid) diene conformational requirement (p 682): The diene must be locked “s-cis” or be able to single-bond rotate it’s way into the “s-cis” (cisoid) conformation in order to react

```
\[
\text{"transoid" or "s-trans" -relative to the single bond}
\]

\[
\text{can't react} \quad \text{can react}
\]

\[
\text{"cisoid" or "s-cis" -meaning that it's "cis" relative to the single bond}
\]

\[
\text{even though the single bond is capable of rotation}
\]

F. Predicting Products When Both Diene and Dienophile are Asymmetric (****) (15-11B)

**If either component is symmetric, you don’t have structural isomer issues.**
- If both ends of diene are the same, it doesn’t matter which adds to which end of dienophile
- If both ends of dienophile are the same, it doesn’t matter which adds to which end of diene

**If both components are asymmetric: two structural isomers are possible; one dominates.**

****** A 1,2 or 1,4 relationship is always preferred over a 1,3 relationship, if possible ******

- Although ortho/meta/para terms don’t really correctly apply to cyclohexenes, many students remember this is an “ortho/para preferred” rule, to avoid number confusion
Ch. 16 Aromatic Compounds

16.1,2 Structure and Unique Properties of Benzene

\[ \text{C}_6\text{H}_6 \]

2 Resonance Structures

Notes on Pictures and Structural Features

1. All 6 carbons are sp\(^2\), with one p orbital each
2. 120° angles, so all 6 carbons and each of their attached hydrogens are all co-planar.
3. Perfectly flat.
4. Perfect 120° angles, no angle strain whatsoever
5. Complete symmetry
6. Each C-C bond is equal in length and strength
7. Each C-C bond is longer than a normal double but shorter than a normal single bond

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normal Bond Lengths:</th>
<th>C-C: 1.54A</th>
<th>C=C: 1.34 A</th>
<th>Benzene CC: 1.39A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

• “1.5” bonds, as we see from resonance.

1. Molecular Orbital for Benzene

- All and only the bonding molecular orbitals are completely filled. Special stability
- But how can you know what the molecular orbitals will look like for other rings?

Frost Diagram/Polygon Rule: For a complete ring of sp\(^2\) centers,

1. Draw the ring/polygon with a vertex down, basically inside what would be a circle
2. Each apex represents a molecular orbital
3. A horizontal line through the middle of the ring provides the non-bonding reference point
4. Populate the MO’s as needed depending on how many π-electrons are available

Molecular Orbital Rules for a cyclic π-system:

1. If all and only bonding molecular orbitals are occupied → good (“aromatic”)
2. If any nonbonding or antibonding MO’s are occupied, or if any bonding MO’s are not completely occupied → bad, poor stability (“antiaromatic”)

• Below nonbonding line → bonding
• Above nonbonding line → antibonding
• On nonbonding line → nonbonding
16.5, 6, 7 Aromatic, Antiaromatic, Nonaromatic. **Huckel’s Rule:** For a planar, continuous ring of p-orbitals, (sp² all around):

- If the number of π-electrons = 2, 6, 10 etc. (4N + 2) → AROMATIC, STABILIZED
- If the number of π-electrons = 4, 8, 12 etc. (4N) → Anti-aromatic, destabilized

- Why: the 4N+2 rule always goes with favorable Frost diagrams: bonding and only bonding MO’s are always filled.

- Generality: Huckel’s Rule applies for cycles, bicycles, ionic compounds, and heterocycles.
  a. Cycles (one-ring)  b. Polycycles (2 or more)  c. Ionic rings  d. Heterocycles

**Keys to Recognizing Aromatic or Not:**

1. Do you have an uninterrupted sp² ring?
2. Apply Huckel’s Rule: Do you have 2, 6, 10 etc. π electrons?
3. Applying Huckel’s Rule requires that you can accurately count your π-electrons. Be able to count:
   - Anions: contribute 2 π-electrons
   - Cations: contribute 0 π-electrons
   - Heteroatoms (O or N): can provide 2 π-electrons if it helps result in aromatic stability.

16.8 Aromatic Ions

3 common, important Aromatic Ions

15.2 Heterocyclic Aromatics. Memorize 3.

**Pyridine**  **Pyrrrole**  **Furan**

**Nitrogens: Atom hybridization, Lone-Pair hybridization, and Basicity**

- Amine nitrogens are normally basic, but not when the N-lone pair is p-hybridized
- Rule: If a nitrogen lone pair is p (used in conjugation) → nonbasic
- Nitrogen lone-pair basicity: sp³ > sp² >>> p

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situations</th>
<th>N-Atom</th>
<th>N-Lone Pair</th>
<th>N-Basicity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Isolated</td>
<td>sp³</td>
<td>sp³</td>
<td>Normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Double Bonded</td>
<td>sp²</td>
<td>sp²</td>
<td>Normal (a little below, but not much)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Conjugated (not itself double bonded, but next to a double bond)</td>
<td>sp²</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>Nonbasic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p-lone pairs are less basic because conjugation stability in the reactant is lost upon protonation.
16.13 AROMATIC NOMENCLATURE

1. **Memorize** Special Names.
   - Six Special Monosubstituted Names You Must **Memorize**

   ![Toluene](image1.png) ![Phenol](image2.png) ![Aniline](image3.png) ![Benzoic Acid](image4.png) ![Nitrobenzene](image5.png) ![Anisole](image6.png)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Toluene</th>
<th>Phenol</th>
<th>Aniline</th>
<th>Benzoic Acid</th>
<th>Nitrobenzene</th>
<th>Anisole</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Toluene" /></td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Phenol" /></td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Aniline" /></td>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Benzoic Acid" /></td>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Nitrobenzene" /></td>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="Anisole" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Mono-substituted benzenes, if not one of the special memory names: use “benzene” as core name

3. Di- or polysubstituted aromatics
   a. If one of the “special” memory names can be used, use that as the core name and number with the special substituent on carbon 1.
   b. Special Terms:
      - "ortho" or o- 1,2 relationship
      - "meta" or m- 1,3 relationship
      - "para" or p- 1,4 relationship
5 Major Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution Reactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reaction</th>
<th>Activating/Deactivating</th>
<th>Ortho/Para Or Meta Directing</th>
<th>Book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Deactivating</td>
<td>Ortho/Para</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Deactivating</td>
<td>Meta</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Activating</td>
<td>Ortho/para</td>
<td>17.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Deactivating</td>
<td>Meta</td>
<td>17.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Deactivating</td>
<td>Meta</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The halides are unique in being deactivating but ortho/para directing. All other o/p-directors are activating, and all other deactivating groups are m-directors. Mech required.

The product can be reduced to Ar-NH₂ by Fe/HCl or Sn/HCl. Nitration/Reduction provides an effective way to introduce an NH₂ group. Reduction converts m-directing NO₂ group into an o/p-directing NH₂ group. Mech required.

a. Restricted to 3º, 2º, or ethyl halides. 1º halides suffer carbocation rearrangements.
b. Since product is more active than starting material, polyalkylation is often a serious problem.
c. Fails with strongly deactivated benzenes. Mech required.

The product can be reduced to -CH₂R by Zn(Hg)/HCl.

a. The product can be reduced to -CH₂R by Zn(Hg)/HCl.
b. The acylation-reduction sequence provides an effective way to introduce a 1º alkyl group.
c. Reduction converts meta-directing acyl group into an ortho/para-directing alkyl group. Mech required.

The sulfonl group is a useful para-blocking group, since it can later be removed upon treatment with H₂O/H⁺. No mech required.
5 Major Aromatic Support Reactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activation/Deactivation</th>
<th>Ortho/Para</th>
<th>Meta</th>
<th>Book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Activating</td>
<td>Ortho/Para</td>
<td>19.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduction converts meta-director into an ortho-para director.</td>
<td>Fe, Sn, or several other reducing metals can work.</td>
<td>No mech required.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Activating</td>
<td>Ortho/Para</td>
<td>17.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clemmensen reduction converts meta-director into an ortho-para director.</td>
<td>Acylation (#4) followed by Clemmensen Reduction (#7) is the standard method for introducing a 1º alkyl group. (Direct alkylation with a 1º alkyl halide, reaction #3, fails due to cation rearrangement problems...)</td>
<td>No mech required.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Deactivating</td>
<td>Meta</td>
<td>17.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sulfonyl group is a useful and reversible para-blocking group, since it can be temporarily put on (reaction 5) but then can be removed later upon treatment with H₂O/H⁺ (reaction 8).</td>
<td>The sulfonation/other reaction/desulfonation sequence is crucial for clean ortho-substitution of an o/p director.</td>
<td>No mech required.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxidation converts ortho/para-director into a meta-director.</td>
<td>Side alkyl chains longer than methyl can also be oxidized to benzoic acid in the same way, although more time and heat is required.</td>
<td>For test purposes, just writing KMnO₄ will be OK. But the real reaction requires a basic solution for the KMnO₄ to work, so an acidic workup step is actually required to isolate the neutral carboxylic acid.</td>
<td>No mech required.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bromination occurs via free-radical mechanism.</td>
<td>It is selective for substitution at the benzylic position because the benzylic radical intermediate is resonance-stabilized.</td>
<td>Note: keep distinct Br₂/FeBr₃ from Br₂/peroxides!</td>
<td>“NBS” is N-bromosuccinimide, which functions just like Br₂/peroxides, but is much more convenient and cleaner because it avoids competing reactions caused by lots of Br₂ and HBr.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 17.1 Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution

**General Mechanism for Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution**

E-X \[
\text{E}^+ \quad \text{Lewis or protic acid} \\
\text{electrophile formation} \\
\text{electrophil} \\
\text{addition} \\
\text{[resonance structures]} \\
\text{-H}^+ \quad \text{deprotonation} \\
\text{aryl} \\
\text{+ charged product}
\]

**Three Resonance Structures for Every Electrophilic Aromatic Substitution**

Additions to Substituted Benzenes. The Effect of Substituents on Reactivity Rates and the Position of Substitution. (17.4, 5, 6)

Three Issues
1. Activators versus Deactivators
2. Electron Donors versus Electron Withdrawing Groups
3. Ortho-Para directors versus Meta Directors

Fact: The rate determining step is the cation addition step
   - The transition state much resembles the carbocationic product of that step
   - What’s good for the cation is good for the reaction rate (product stability-reactivity principle)

Cation stabilizers = **electron donors** \( \rightarrow \) good for cations \( \rightarrow \) good for rates = **activators**
Cation destabilizers = **electron withdrawers** \( \rightarrow \) bad for cations \( \rightarrow \) bad for rates = **deactivators**

4 Classes of Substituents: Memorize! (Sections 17-6-8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Donating?</th>
<th>Memorize the list</th>
<th>Activating/Deactivating</th>
<th>Directing Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OH, OR, NH(_2), NHR, NR(_2)</td>
<td>Strong Activators</td>
<td>Ortho/para directors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R, Ar</td>
<td>Weak Activators</td>
<td>Ortho/para directors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cl, Br</td>
<td>Weak Deactivators</td>
<td>Ortho/para directors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbonyl, NO(_2), CN, SO(_3)H</td>
<td>Strong Deactivators</td>
<td>Meta directors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Halogens are a special case that are ortho-para directors despite being deactivating

Otherwise, the following pattern is general:

- Activator = ortho-para director (and vice versa, with exception of halides)
- Meta director = deactivator (and vice versa, with exception of halides)
Rules for Additions to Disubstituted/Polysubstituted Aromatics (17.9)
1. Effects are additive if both direct to the same spot
2. If there is a conflict of interest, the more activating group controls the outcome
   ■ You need to know the relative activating/deactivating strengths!
3. Steric considerations: if two substituents have a 1,3 (meta) relationship, addition in between
   (to give a 1,2,3 relationship) is prohibitively slow for steric reasons