Reactivity 3.4 HL

IB CHEMISTRY HL













Reactivity 3.4.6 / 3.4.7

Understandings:

- A Lewis acid is an electron-pair acceptor and a Lewis base is an electron-pair donor (3.4.6).
- When a Lewis base reacts with a Lewis acid, a coordination bond is formed. Nucleophiles are Lewis bases and electrophiles are Lewis acids (3.4.7).

Learning outcomes:

- Apply Lewis acid–base theory to inorganic and organic chemistry to identify the role of the reacting species (3.4.6)
- Draw and interpret Lewis formulas of reactants and products to show coordination bond formation in Lewis acid–base reactions (3.4.7).

Linking question(s):

- Reactivity 3.1 What is the relationship between Brønsted–Lowry acids and bases and Lewis acids and bases?
- Structure 2.2 Do coordination bonds have any different properties from other covalent bonds?

Lewis acids and bases

- A Lewis acid is an electron pair acceptor and a Lewis base is an electron pair donor.
- When a Lewis acid and Lewis base react together, the Lewis base donates an electron pair to the Lewis acid.
- A coordination bond is formed between the Lewis acid and the Lewis base.
- Example BF₃ and NH₃ react together to form BF₃NH₃.
- NH₃ acts as a Lewis base by donating an electron pair to BF₃ which acts as a Lewis acid by accepting the electron pair.



 $BF_3 + NH_3 \rightarrow BF_3NH_3$

• The product, BF₃NH₃, is known as an adduct.

Complex ions

- Complex ions consist of a central metal ion bonded to ligands.
- Central metals ions are Lewis acids and ligands are Lewis bases.
- A coordination bond is formed between the central metal ion and the ligands.
- Example in the complex ion shown the central metal ion, Cu²⁺ is the Lewis acid.
- The ligands, H₂O molecules, are Lewis bases.



 $Cu^{2+}(aq) + 6H_2O(I) \rightarrow [Cu(H_2O)_6]^{2+}(aq)$

Nucleophiles and electrophiles

- Nucleophiles are electron-rich species that donate an electron pair thereby acting as Lewis bases.
- Examples include the hydroxide ion, the chloride ion and ammonia.



- Electrophiles are electron-deficient species that accept an electron pair, thereby acting as Lewis acids.
- Examples include boron trifluoride, carbocations, and the copper(II) ion.



Exercises:

- 1) Define an acid and base according to the Lewis theory.
- 2) Explain how ammonia (NH₃) is able to act as a Lewis base.
- 3) State the type of bond formed between a Lewis acid and a Lewis base.

Lewis theory vs Bronsted-Lowry theory

• The definitions of acids and bases for each theory are shown in the table below.

| Bronsted-Lowry theory Lewis theory | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| An acid is a proton donor | An acid is an electron pair acceptor |
| A base is a proton acceptor | A base is an electron pair donor |

- Bronsted-Lowry theory involves the transfer of protons; if there is no transfer of protons taking place, then the reaction cannot be described using Bronsted-Lowry theory.
- All Bronsted-Lowry acids are also Lewis acids and all Bronsted-Lowry bases are also Lewis bases.
- Not all Lewis acids are Bronsted-Lowry acids (BF₃, Cu²⁺).
- The formation of a complex ion can be described using Lewis theory, but not Bronsted-Lowry theory.

Exercise: Explain why the following reaction cannot be described using the Bronsted-Lowry theory of acids and bases.

 $CrCl_3 + 6NH_3 \rightleftharpoons [Cr(NH_3)_6]^{3+} + 3Cl^-$

Understandings:

• Coordination bonds are formed when ligands donate an electron pair to transition element cations, forming complex ions.

Learning outcomes:

• Deduce the charge on a complex ion, given the formula of the ion and ligands present.

Complex ions

- A complex ion consists of a central metal ion (usually a transition metal ion) bonded to ligands by coordination bonds.
- The central metal ion acts as a Lewis acid (electron pair acceptor) and the ligands act as Lewis bases (electron pair donors).
- In the example below, the central metal ion is the Fe²⁺ ion and the ligands are water molecules.
- The ligands are bonded to the central metal ion by coordination bonds.



[Fe(H₂O)₆]³⁺

- The coordination number of a complex ion is the number of coordination bonds between the ligands and the central metal ion.
- The above complex ion has a coordination number of six as there are six coordinate covalent bonds between the ligands and the central metal ion.

Exercises:

- 1) Describe the structure of a complex ion.
- 2) Determine the coordination number and geometry of the following complex ions.



Ligands

- Ligands are species with lone pairs of electrons that form coordination bonds with a central metal ion (they are Lewis bases electron pair donors).
- Monodentate ligands use only one lone pair of electrons to bond to a central metal ion.

$$I^{-} < Br^{-} < S^{2-} < Cl^{-} < F^{-} < OH^{-} < H_{2}O < SCN^{-} < NH_{3} < CN^{-} \approx CO$$
$$: \overset{\cdots}{CI}: \begin{bmatrix} H - \ddot{O} : \end{bmatrix}^{-} \overset{\cdots}{H} \overset{\cdots}{O} \overset{H - \dot{N} - H}{H} : C \equiv N^{-} : C \equiv O:$$

Exercises:

- 1) Outline what is meant by the term ligand.
- 2) Explain how ligands are also able to act as Lewis bases.

Deduce the charge on a central metal ion

• The table shows the common ions formed by the transition elements together with their oxidation numbers.

| Transition element | Common ions formed | Oxidation number |
|--------------------|---|------------------|
| Chromium | Chromium(II) Cr ²⁺ Chromium(III) Cr ³⁺ | +2 +3 |
| Cobalt | Cobalt(II) Co ²⁺ Cobalt(III) Co ³⁺ | +2 +3 |
| Copper | Copper(I) Cu+ Copper(II) Cu ²⁺ | +1 +2 |
| Iron | Iron(II) Fe ²⁺ Iron(III) Fe ³⁺ | +2 +3 |
| Nickel | Nickel(II) Ni ²⁺ | +2 |

Example 1:



If the ligands are neutral, the charge on the complex ion is the same as the charge on the central metal ion. The central metal ion is the Cu $^{2+}$ ion (oxidation state +2).

Example 2:



If the ligands are negatively charged, subtract the total charge of the ligands from the charge on the complex ion. The central metal ion is the Co^{3+} (oxidation state +3).

Exercise: For each of the complex ions, deduce the charge and oxidation state on the central metal ion.

1) $[Cu(H_2O)_6]^{2+}$



2) $[Fe(OH)_2(H_2O)_4]^+$



3) [Fe(CN)₆]³⁻



4) $[Cr(NH_3)_4Cl_2]^+$



Coordination compounds

- Coordination compounds are composed of a complex ion together with counter ions that cancel out the charge of the complex ion.
- Coordination compounds are neutral (have no overall charge).
- Two examples of coordination compounds are shown below: [Co(NH₃)₆]Cl₃ and K₃[Fe(CN)₆].



Exercise: Determine the charge on the complex ion in the following coordination compounds.

(a) [Fe(H₂O)₆]Cl₃

(b) [Co(NH₃)₅Cl]Cl₂

Understandings:

• Nucleophilic substitution reactions include the reactions between halogenoalkanes and nucleophiles.

Learning outcomes:

• Describe and explain the mechanisms of the reactions of primary and tertiary halogenoalkanes with nucleophiles.

Additional notes:

- Distinguish between the concerted one-step S_N2 reaction of primary halogenoalkanes and the two-step S_N1 reaction of tertiary halogenoalkanes. Both mechanisms occur for secondary halogenoalkanes.
- The stereospecific nature of S_N2 reactions should be covered.

Linking questions:

- Reactivity 2.2 What differences would be expected between the energy profiles for S_N1 and S_N2 reactions?
- Reactivity 2.2 What are the rate equations for these S_N1 and S_N2 reactions?

Nucleophilic substitution reactions

- A nucleophilic substitution reaction (S_N) involves the replacement of an atom, called the leaving group, by a nucleophile.
- Nucleophilic substitution reactions can occur via S_N1 or S_N2 mechanisms.
- S_N1 stands for nucleophilic substitution unimolecular.
- S_N2 stands for nucleophilic substitution bimolecular.
- Primary halogenoalkanes react via the S_N2 mechanism.
- Tertiary halogenoalkanes react via the S_N1 mechanism.
- Secondary halogenoalkanes react via the S_N1 and S_N2 mechanisms.

Primary halogenoalkane Secondary halogenoalkane Tertiary halogenoalkane



S_N1 mechanism

- The S_N1 mechanism is a two-step mechanism that involves the formation of a carbocation intermediate.
- The first step involves the heterolytic bond fission of the C-X bond.
- In the second step, the nucleophile bonds with the carbocation.



- The carbocation is stabilised by the electrons from the carbon atoms in the alkyl groups, which is known as the (positive) inductive effect.
- The bulky alkyl groups prevent the nucleophile from attacking on the opposite side to the leaving group, known as steric hindrance.
- S_N1 reactions begin with a single enantiomer and result in the production of a racemic mixture containing equal amounts of two enantiomers. A racemic mixture is known as being optically inactive.
- The S_N1 mechanism is unimolecular; the rate-determining step (the slowest step) depends on the concentration of the halogenoalkane only.
- Example rate expression:

rate = k[halogenoalkane] rate = k[C(CH₃)₃Br]

Energy level profile for S_N1 mechanism



S_N2 mechanism

- The $S_N 2$ mechanism is a one-step mechanism that involves the formation of an unstable transition state.
- The nucleophile attacks from the opposite side of the leaving group which is known as a backside attack.
- The C-X bond undergoes heterolytic bond fission.



- In the transition state, the nucleophile and leaving group are both weakly bonded to the carbon atom.
- The backside attack by the nucleophile causes inversion of the atoms around the carbon atom (the S_N2 mechanism is stereospecific).
- The S_N2 mechanism is bimolecular; the rate of reaction depends on both the concentration of the halogenoalkane and the nucleophile.
- Example rate expression:

rate = *k*[halogenoalkane][nucleophile] rate = *k*[CH₃CH₂Cl][OH⁻]

Energy level profile for $S_N 2$ mechanism



Transition state

• Transition state with both the nucleophile and leaving group weakly bonded to the carbon atom.



Understandings:

• The rate of the substitution reactions is influenced by the identity of the leaving group.

Learning outcomes:

• Predict and explain the relative rates of the substitution reactions for different halogenoalkanes.

Additional notes:

- Different halogenoalkanes should include RCI, RBr and RI.
- The roles of the solvent and the reaction mechanism on the rate will not be assessed.

Linking questions:

• Structure 3.1 Why is the iodide ion a better leaving group than the chloride ion?

Leaving group and rate of S_N reactions

- The rate of reaction of a nucleophilic substitution reaction depends on the leaving group.
- The strength of the carbon-halogen bond decreases as the radius of the halogen atom increases.
- As the substitution reaction involves breaking this bond, iodoalkanes are the most reactive and fluoroalkanes are the least reactive.
- Example three halogenoalkanes are shown below, iodomethane, chloromethane and bromomethane.



- The fastest rate of reaction would occur with iodomethane because the iodide ion has the largest ionic radius and is the best leaving group.
- The rate of reaction is as follows:

$$CH_3I > CH_3Br > CH_3CI$$

Iodoalkanes (RI) > bromoalkanes (RBr) > chloroalkanes (RCI

Exercise: Arrange the following halogenoalkanes in order of rate of reaction (fastest first).



Understandings:

• Alkenes readily undergo electrophilic addition reactions.

Learning outcomes:

• Describe and explain the mechanisms of the reactions between symmetrical alkenes and halogens, water and hydrogen halides.

Electrophilic addition reactions

- The carbon-to-carbon double bond in an alkene is a region of high electron density.
- This makes the C=C bond attractive to electrophiles.
- When an electrophile reacts with a symmetrical alkene, there is only one possible product.
- Example when HCl reacts with but-2-ene, only one product, 2-chlorobutane, is produced.



Reaction with HBr



- The H-Br bond undergoes heterolytic fission producing H⁺ and Br⁻.
- The H⁺ bonds with the carbon atom of the C=C bond which results in the formation of a carbocation intermediate.
- The Br⁻ ion bonds with the carbocation, producing bromoethane.

Reaction with bromine, Br₂



- The Br-Br bond undergoes heterolytic fission producing Br- and Br+.
- The Br⁺ ion bonds to one of the carbon atoms of the C=C bond forming a carbocation intermediate.
- The Br⁻ ion bonds with the carbocation producing 1,2-dibromoethane.

Reaction with water (acid catalysed)



- The O-H bond of the electrophile (H₃O⁺) undergoes heterolytic fission.
- The H⁺ bonds to the carbon of the C=C bond.
- A water molecule bonds with the carbocation forming a protonated ethanol molecule.
- The protonated ethanol molecule loses a proton to form ethanol and a hydronium ion.

Understandings:

• The relative stability of carbocations in the addition reactions between hydrogen halides and unsymmetrical alkenes can be used to explain the reaction mechanism.

Learning outcomes:

• Predict and explain the major product of a reaction between an unsymmetrical alkene and a hydrogen halide or water.

Markovnikov's rule

- Markovnikov's rule can be used to predict the major product when a hydrogen halide reacts with an unsymmetrical alkene.
- When an unsymmetrical alkene such as propene reacts with hydrogen bromide, there are two possible products.



- Markovnikov's rule states that when an unsymmetrical alkene reacts with a hydrogen halide or water, the hydrogen bonds to the carbon that is already bonded to the greatest number of hydrogen atoms.
- The major product of the reaction is 2-bromopropane.



- The product formed depends on the stability of the carbocation.
- Carbocations are stabilised by electron-donating alkyl groups, which is known as the positive inductive effect.
- The more substituted the carbocation (the more alkyl groups bonded to the carbon with the positive charge), the greater the stability.
- The order of stability is: 1° < 2° < 3°



Increasing stability

• When propene reacts with hydrogen bromide, the major product is 2-bromopropane because it involves the formation of a secondary carbocation which is more stable than a primary carbocation.



Secondary carbocation

Reaction of propene with water



- The O-H bond of the electrophile (H₃O⁺) undergoes heterolytic fission.
- The H⁺ bonds to the carbon of the C=C that is bonded to the greatest number of hydrogen atoms.
- A water molecule bonds with the carbocation forming a protonated ethanol molecule.
- The protonated ethanol molecule loses a proton to form ethanol and a hydronium ion.

Exercise: The full structural formula of an unsaturated hydrocarbon (compound X) is given below.



- (a) State the IUPAC name of compound X.
- (b) State the type of reaction that compound X undergoes with hydrogen bromide (HBr).
- (c) State and explain the major product in the reaction of compound X with HBr.
- (d) Describe, using a diagram, the reaction between compound X and HBr using curly arrows to represent the movement of electron pairs.

Understandings:

• Electrophilic substitution reactions include the reactions of benzene with electrophiles.

Learning outcomes:

• Describe and explain the mechanism of the reaction between benzene and a charged electrophile, E⁺.

Additional notes:

• The formation of the electrophile will not be assessed.

Linking questions:

- Structure 2.2 What are the features of benzene, C₆H₆, that make it not prone to undergo addition reactions, despite being highly unsaturated?
- Reactivity 3.1 Nitration of benzene uses a mixture of concentrated nitric and sulfuric acids to generate a strong electrophile, NO₂⁺. How can the acid/base behaviour of HNO₃ in this mixture be described?

Nitration of benzene

- Benzene reacts with a mixture of concentrated nitric acid (HNO₃) and concentrated sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) in an electrophilic substitution reaction.
- The products of the reaction are nitrobenzene ($C_6H_5NO_2$) and water.

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

- The mixture of concentrated nitric acid and concentrated sulfuric acid is known as a nitrating mixture.
- The sulfuric acid protonates the nitric acid, which then loses a molecule of water to form the nitronium ion, NO₂⁺.

$$HNO_3 + 2H_2SO_4 \rightarrow NO_2^+ + H_3O^+ + 2HSO_4^-$$

Reaction mechanism



- NO₂⁺ is a strong electrophile and is attracted to the delocalised π electron cloud in the benzene molecule.
- It forms a bond using the π electrons to produce a carbocation intermediate.
- The C–H bond undergoes heterolytic fission with both bonding electrons used to reform the arene ring.
- The H⁺ reacts with the HSO₄⁻ to reform the sulfuric acid catalyst.

REACTIVITY 3.4 HL