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Physical Organic Chemistry

Thermodynamics and kinetics

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Outline: Isotope effects

- see section 8.1 of A&D
 - experimental approach
 - primary isotope effect
 - secondary isotope effect
 - equilibrium isotope effect
 - solvent isotope effect
 - heavy atom isotope effects

Measurement of an isotope effect

- performed to determine if a bond changes in a certain way during the rate-limiting step
- expressed as a ratio whose numerator is the rate constant measured for the naturally abundant isotope and the denominator is the rate constant measured for the varied isotope
 - e.g. k_H/k_D

Types of isotope effects

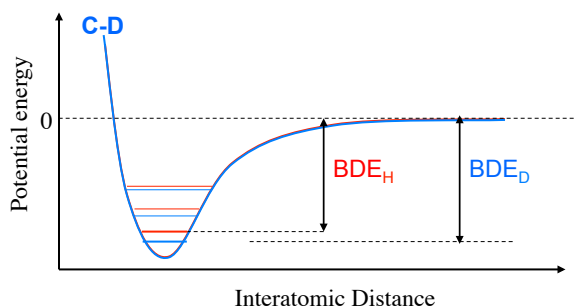
- **kinetic** isotope effects (**kief**): result from a change in the rate constant of a reaction :
 - **normal** effect: ratio > 1
 - **inverse** effect: ratio < 1
 - **primary** isotope effect: when the isotopically substituted bond is cleaved during the rate-limiting step
 - **secondary** isotope effect : attributable to a change of hybridation state, not cleavage of bonds
- **equilibrium** isotope effects: result from displacement of an equilibrium

Origin of isotope effects

- the origin of all isotope effects is a difference in the *frequency of vibrational modes* of a substituted molecule with respect to an unsubstituted molecule
- it is these vibrational modes that principally affect the *shape* of the potential energy well on an energy surface

Zero point energy

- *zero point energy (ZPE)* is the energy level of the vibrational ground state for most molecules at ambient temperature
- the vibrational frequencies of C-D bonds are lower than those of C-H bonds, due to the mass difference
 - therefore, a C-D bond is stronger and more difficult to cleave:



Primary isotope effects

- in general, bonds involving heavier isotopes are more stable and more difficult to break
- the cleavage of a C-D bond can be several fold slower than the cleavage of a C-H bond
- the *degree* of cleavage of the the bond at the transition state is given by the ratio:

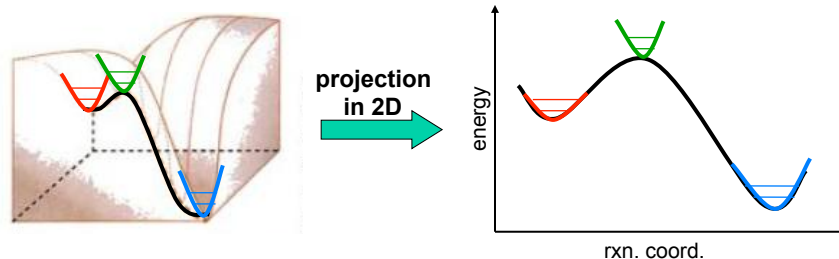
$$\left(\frac{k_{\text{H}}}{k_{\text{D}}} \right)$$

Values of primary isotope effects

- the magnitude depends on the relative mass difference between the two isotopes
 - e.g. H vs D, ^{12}C vs ^{13}C , ^{14}N vs ^{15}N , etc
- *maximum* normal values at 25 °C :
 - H vs D : 6.4 (typically 2-7)
 - H vs T : 13
 - ^{12}C vs ^{13}C : 1.04
 - ^{14}N vs ^{15}N : 1.03
- the value observed experimentally is related to the degree and the linearity of cleavage realised at the TS of the rds
 - 50% transfer, at 180°, gives the maximum effect

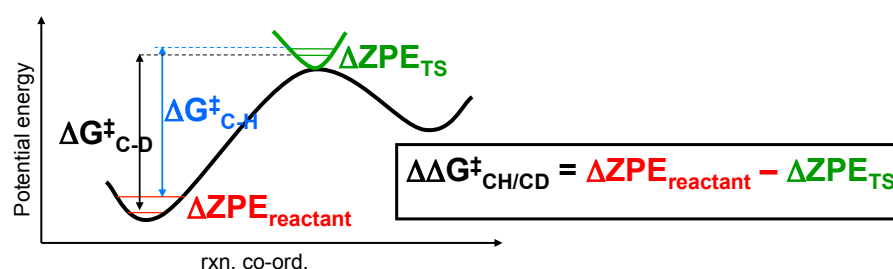
Energy surfaces and isotope effects

- a transition state is found at the *col* of an energy surface
- the *shape* of the col is determined by the *potential energy wells*
 - these, in turn, are determined by the *vibrational states*



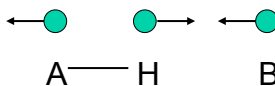
Differences of ZPE

- the magnitude of a primary isotope effect is related to the difference in activation energy of the two reactants
 - this difference is based on the relative difference of the ZPEs of the reactants and the activated complexes :

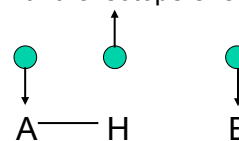


Vibrational modes

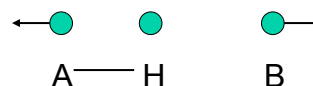
- one particular vibrational mode determines the reaction coordinate for the transfer of a proton:



- whereas other vibrational modes have little to do with the isotope effect :

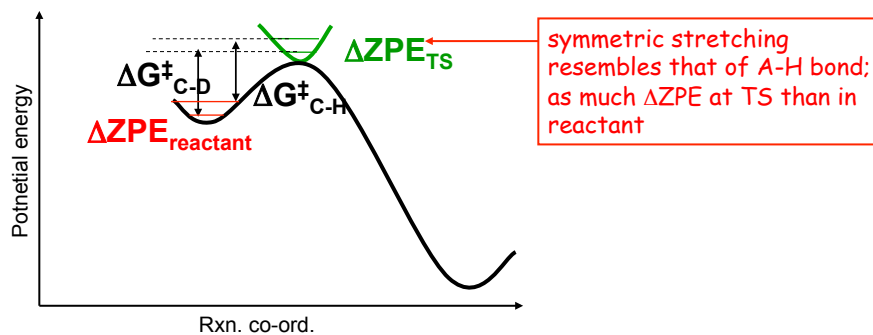


- and one mode is characteristic of the activated complex:



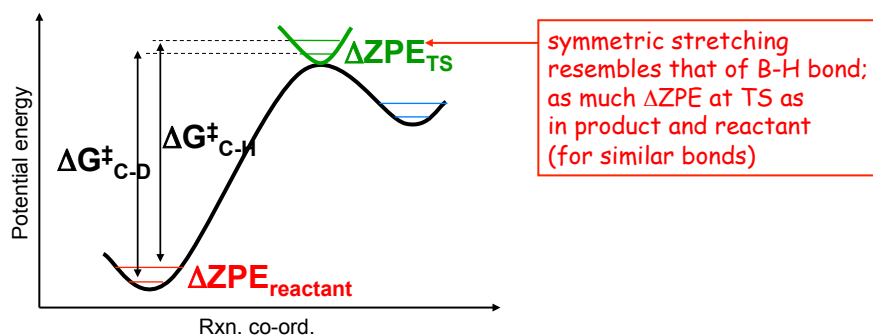
Exothermicity and endothermicity

- the equilibrium constant for a proton transfer affects the magnitude of the isotope effect:
 - for an exothermic equilibrium, the transition state resembles the reactant, A-H
 - little cleavage is achieved at the TS, so little difference of ΔG^\ddagger



Exothermicity and endothermicity

- the equilibrium constant for a proton transfer affects the magnitude of the isotope effect:
 - for an exothermic equilibrium, the transition state resembles the product, B-H
 - B-H almost completely formed, little difference in ΔG^\ddagger

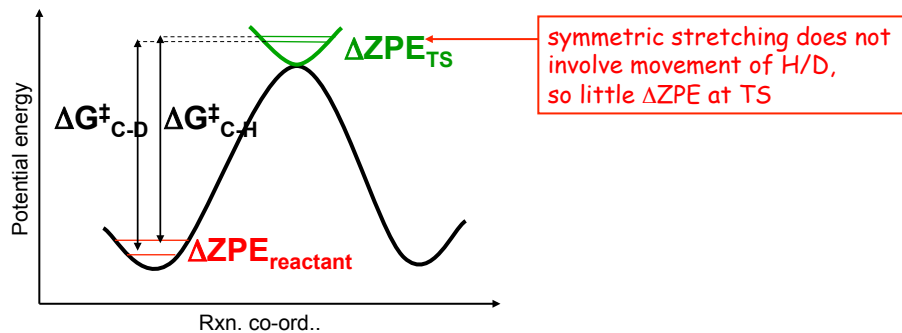


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Exothermicity and endothermicity

- the equilibrium constant for a proton transfer affects the magnitude of the isotope effect:
 - for an isothermal equilibrium, the transition state resembles the reactant as little as it resembles the product
 - little difference in ZPE_{TS} , so large $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger_{CH/CD}$

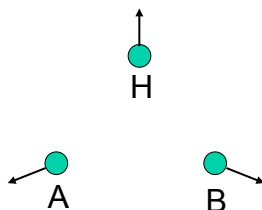


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Non-linear transition states

- for non-linear proton transfers, the bending vibrational modes are more important and even symmetrical stretching implies movement of H/D:



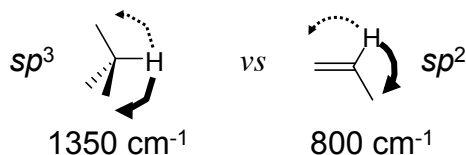
- therefore, there will be as much ΔZPE at the TS as in the reactant, and little $\Delta\Delta G^\ddagger_{CH/CD}$

Secondary isotope effects

- result from the cleavage of bonds *adjacent* to the substituted atoms
- caused by a change in *hybridization* of the atom bearing the isotope, rather than the cleavage of its bond
 - the change of hybridization of carbon from sp^3 to sp^2 is 14 % slower for every deuterium it bears, compared to hydrogen

Vibrations and 2° isotope effects

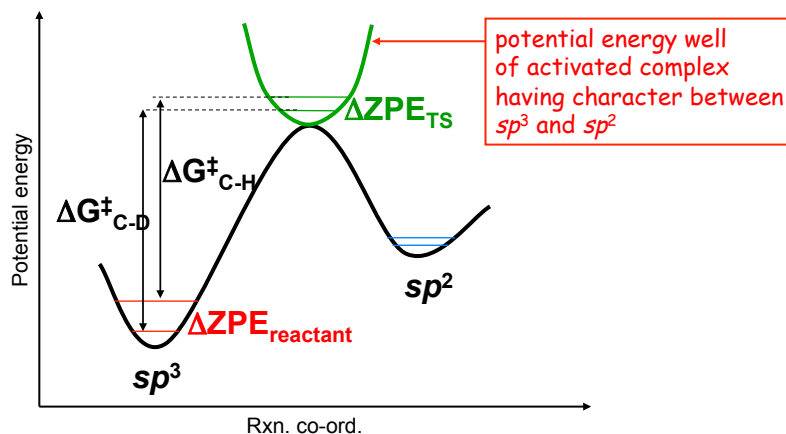
- the most important vibrational mode is the out of plane bending :



- there is less steric hindrance for out of plane bending on a sp^2 carbon
- this vibrational mode is therefore subject to a secondary isotope effect

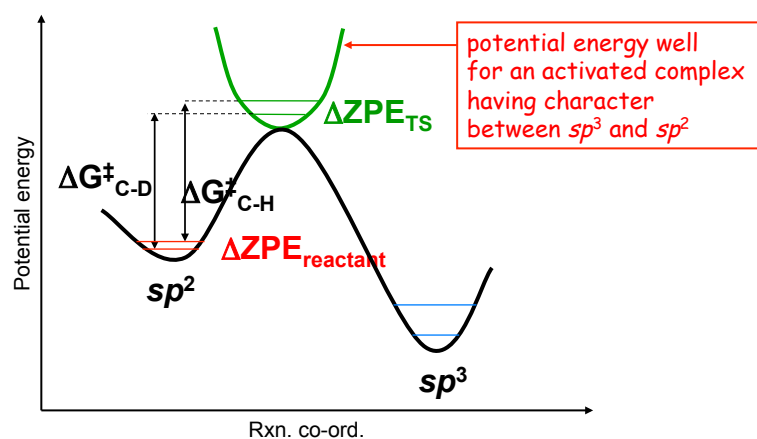
Change of hybridation

- a change of hybridation from sp^3 to sp^2 manifests itself as a *normal* secondary isotope effect:



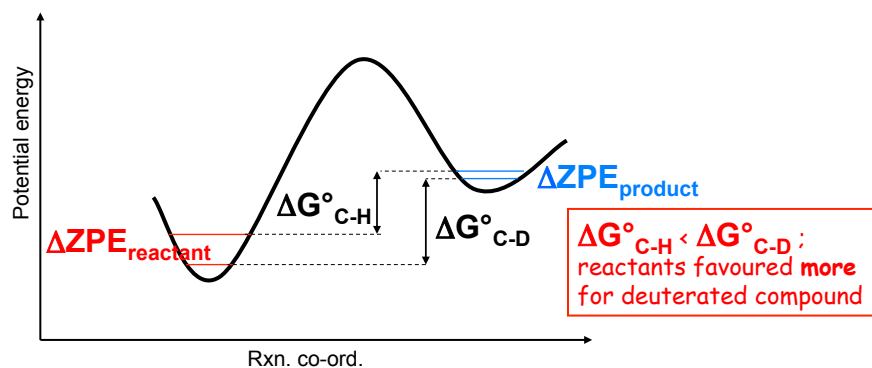
Change of hybridization

- a change of hybridization from sp^2 to sp^3 manifests itself as an *inverse* secondary isotope effect:



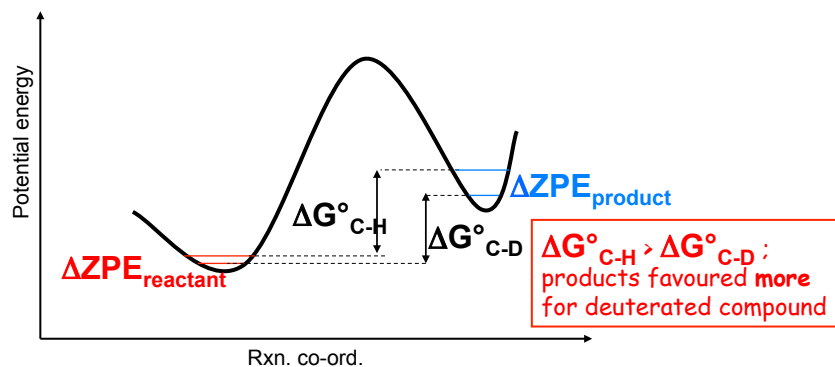
Equilibrium isotope effects

- an equilibrium involving a change of hybridization or bond strength can show a secondary isotope effect, depending on differences in ZPE:



Equilibrium isotope effects

- an equilibrium involving a change of hybridization or bond strength can show a secondary isotope effect, depending on differences in ZPE:

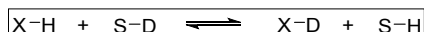


Solvent isotope effects

- measured by comparing the rate of a reaction in H_2O with that of the same reaction in D_2O
- result from proton transfers between electronegative atoms that *accompany* the formation and/or cleavage of bonds at the rds
 - especially if a water molecule is involved in the mechanism!
 - also include primary isotope effects of molecules that exchange protons

Fractionation factors

- the exchange of protons/deuterons can be subject to an equilibrium isotope effect
 - often observed when donor and acceptor atoms are different
 - e.g. N-H vs O-H
- a **fractionation factor**, ϕ , is measured to determine which atom prefers the H or D :
 - consider the solvent exchange equilibrium:



$$K_{\text{eq}} = \phi = \frac{[\text{S-H}][\text{X-D}]}{[\text{S-D}][\text{X-H}]} = \frac{[\text{X-D}]}{[\text{X-H}]} \cdot \frac{[\text{S-H}]}{[\text{S-D}]}$$

for $\phi > 1$, D prefers X
 for $\phi < 1$, D prefers solvent

Values of ϕ

Bond	ϕ
RO-L	1.0
LO ⁻	0.5
RO-L ₂ ⁺	0.69
R ₃ C-L	0.69
R ₂ N-L	0.92
R ₃ N-L ⁺	0.97
RS-L	0.42

- note:
 - L = H or D
 - typically, alcohols do not have a preference for H or D
 - however, bonds with C, N and S prefer H

- fractionation factors can be used to predict solvent isotope effects...

...either equilibrium :

$$\frac{K_{\text{eq, D2O}}}{K_{\text{eq, H2O}}} = \frac{\prod_i^{\text{prod}} \phi_i^{\text{prod}}}{\prod_j^{\text{react}} \phi_j^{\text{react}}}$$

or kinetic :

$$\frac{k_{\text{D2O}}}{k_{\text{H2O}}} = \frac{\prod_i^{\text{e.t.}} \phi_i^{\text{e.t.}}}{\prod_i^{\text{react}} \phi_i^{\text{react}}}$$

Proton inventory

- if a rate constant is measured as a function of the molar fraction (n) of D_2O in H_2O , the number of protons “in flight” at the TS can be determined

– i.e.: $k_n = k_{H_2O}(1-n) + k_{D_2O}(n) = k_{H_2O}(1-n) + \phi k_{H_2O}(n) = k_{H_2O}(1-n + n\phi)$

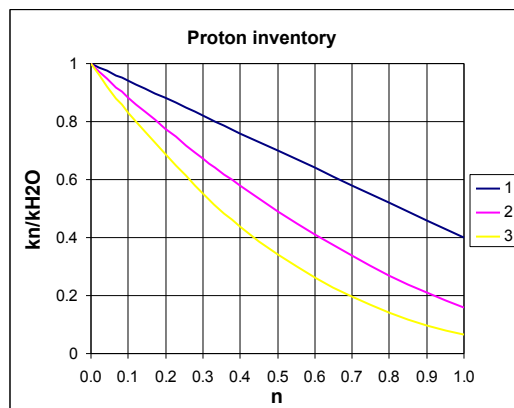
so $\frac{k_n}{k_{H_2O}} = \frac{\prod_i^{e.t.} (1-n + n\phi_i^{e.t.})}{\prod_i^{react} (1-n + n\phi_i^{react})}$ often $\phi \approx 1$,
for N-L and O-L

therefore $\frac{k_n}{k_{H_2O}} = (1-n + n\phi_1^{e.t.})(1-n + n\phi_2^{e.t.})(1-n + n\phi_3^{e.t.})\dots$

where each ϕ represents a fractionation factor for a proton in flight at the TS

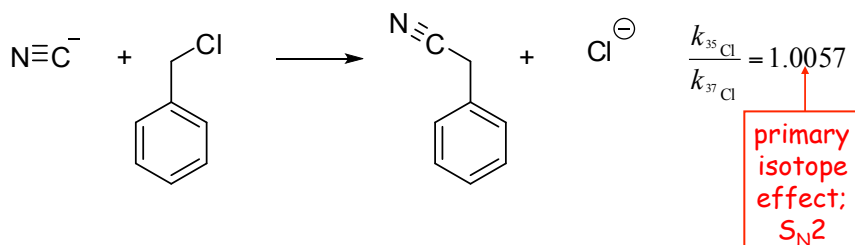
Proton inventory

- the plot of k_n/k_{H_2O} vs n reveals the number of protons in flight
 - i.e., 1 = linear, 2 = quadratic, 3 = cubic



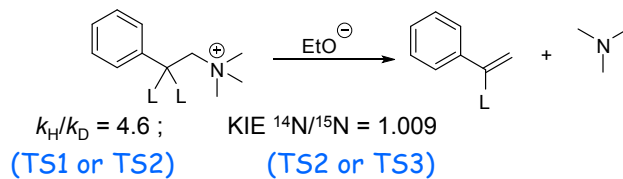
Heavy atom isotope effects

- typically very small (little *relative* mass difference) and difficult to measure
 - often, one measures, by NMR or MS, the proportion of an isotope in the product or in remaining reactant
 - e.g. $^{12}\text{C}/^{13}\text{C}$, $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$, $^{35}\text{Cl}/^{37}\text{Cl}$, etc

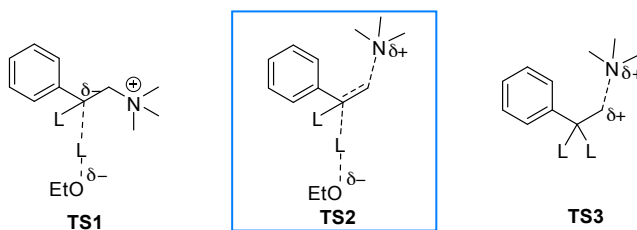


Exercise #1: KIE of elimination

- KIEs were measured for the following elimination reaction:

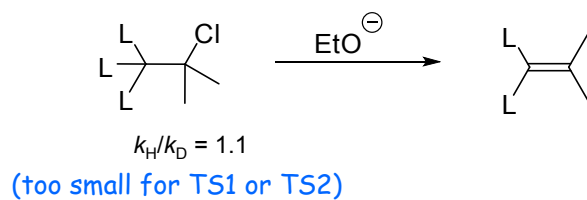


- Which TS is most consistent with these data?

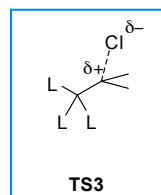
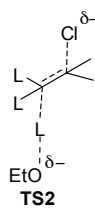
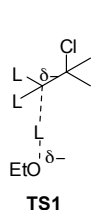


Exerciee #2: KIE of elimination

- KIE was measured for the following elimination reaction:



- Which TS is most consistent with these data?



Outline: Origins of substituent effects

- see section 8.2 of A&D
 - field / dipole effects
 - inductive effects
 - resonance effects
 - polarisability effects
 - steric effects
 - solvation effects

Substituent effects

- variation of the reactivity of a molecule upon variation of a substituent group, normally remote from the site of reactivity
- provide information regarding the activated complex of the rate-limiting TS
- allow a mechanism to be elucidated in detail
 - HOWEVER, caution is required, considering this approach involves the study of many *different* molecules

Linear Free Energy Relationships (LFERs)

- every characteristic of a reactant that stabilises a TS (and thereby favours formation of the activated complex) of the rls will result in the acceleration of the reaction
 - especially the delocalisation of charge (+ve or -ve) developed at the TS of the rls
- these correlations can be quantified by using different scales based on the *electronic* or *steric* nature of the reactants
- these relationships are often linear and referred to as *Linear Free Energy Relationships*, *LFERs*

A useful approximation

- quantity of free energy necessary to change K by one order of magnitude:

$$\Delta G = -RT \ln K$$

$$\Delta G = -2.303 \times RT \log K$$

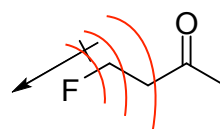
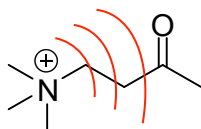
$$\Delta G = 2.303 \times RT \times \text{p}K$$

$$\Delta G = 1.4 \text{ kcal/mol} \times \text{p}K \text{ (at 298 K)}$$

– this is equally valid for $\Delta G_{\text{rxn}} (K_{\text{eq}})$ as for $\Delta G^\ddagger (K^\ddagger, k_{\text{obs}})$

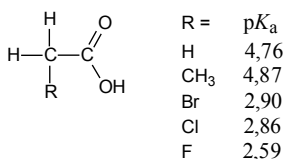
Field effects

- the variation of a substituent can change the magnitude or even the direction of a dipole moment
- a field effect results from the effect of this change, transmitted *through space*, on the site of reactivity
- weaker than an inductive effect
- much weaker than a resonance effect

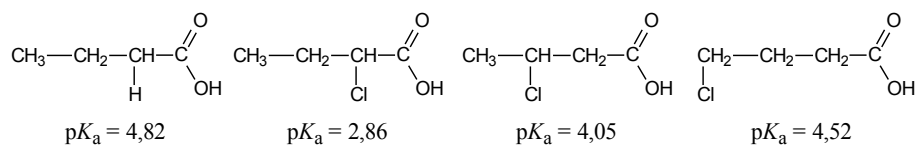


Inductive effect

- the electron donating or withdrawing ability of a given substituent, on the site of reactivity
 - depends on the electronegativity of the substituent

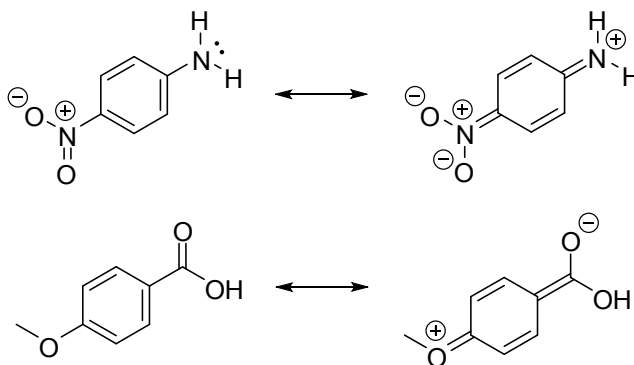


- transmitted via the electron density of connecting σ bonds
- decreases over distance



Resonance effect

- ability of a substituent to withdraw or donate electron density through π bonds
- important model for explanation of delocalisation of electron density in conjugated systems



Polarisability effect

- the ability of a cloud of electron density to *deform* can affect its reactivity
- a centre that strongly retains its electron density is said to be “hard” whereas a centre whose electron density is more diffuse is said to be “soft”
 - e.g. a thiolate (RS^-) of comparable basicity to an alkoxide (R'O^-) is nevertheless more nucleophilic AND a better leaving group, owing to its greater polarisability

Nucleophilicity

- nucleophilic substitution on a carbonyl or on a phosphate ester (“hard” centres) typically leads to formation of an intermediate
 - TS involves bond formation
 - rate depends simply on the strength (basicity) of the (hard) nucleophile
- nucleophilic substitution on a saturated carbon (a “soft” centre) does not involve an intermediate
 - rather, there are five bonds around the carbon at the TS
 - large, polarisable (soft) nucleophiles react more quickly

Nucleofugality

- the ease of expulsion of a leaving group (its *nucleofugality*) depends strongly on its electronic nature, affected by its protonation state and its basicity
- weak bases (whose conjugate acids have pK_a values below ~ 8.0) are typically very easily expelled

Steric effects

- may strongly affect the probability, and therefore the rate, of a given reaction
- voluminous substituents may prevent a certain angle of a collision, rendering it non-productive
- note that even if steric effects are often treated separately from electronic effects, steric hindrance itself is also the result of the repulsion between clouds of *electron* density

Solvation effects

- a change of solvent may affect the reactivity of a reactant, depending on the nature of this interaction
 - may involve any of the effects described above
 - e.g. change of relative nucleophilicity:
 - in aprotic solvents :
$$\text{F}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{Br}^- > \text{I}^-$$
 - in protic solvents :
$$\text{I}^- > \text{Br}^- > \text{Cl}^- > \text{F}^-$$

Outline: Hammett plots

- see section 8.3 of A&D
 - substituent parameter, σ
 - reaction constant, ρ
 - elucidation of mechanisms
 - deviations from linearity
 - other substituent parameters

Hammett

- **Louis Hammett (1894-1987)**
 - American physical chemist (Columbia)
 - studied the correlation of structure and function
 - credited with inventing the expression “physical organic chemistry”
 - laureate of awards from the National Academy of Science, two Norris Awards, Priestley Medal



Hammett Relation

- Hammett noted that the acidity constants of substituted benzoic acids varied according to the ability of the substituent to donate or withdraw electron density
 - he measured the empirical value corresponding to this capacity (*substituent constant*, σ)
- the rate constants of other reactions may be affected in the same way as the acidity reaction
 - a second parameter can therefore be used for each reaction (*reaction constant*, ρ)

$$\log k_X = \log k_H + \rho \sigma_X$$

reaction

substituent

$$\log \left(\frac{k_X}{k_H} \right) = \rho \sigma_X$$

Substituent constants, σ^0

- constants averaged over several different reactions give a better correlation than those originally observed by Hammett
- these constants can be determined even more distinctly for *meta* vs *para* substituents
 - for certain substituents, these values may vary significantly
 - e.g. for NO_2 , $\sigma_m^0 = 0.71$, whereas $\sigma_p^0 = 0.81$
 - for F , $\sigma_m^0 = 0.34$, whereas $\sigma_p^0 = 0.15$
 - for OMe , $\sigma_m^0 = 0.1$, whereas $\sigma_p^0 = -0.12$

Table of substituent constants

EDG

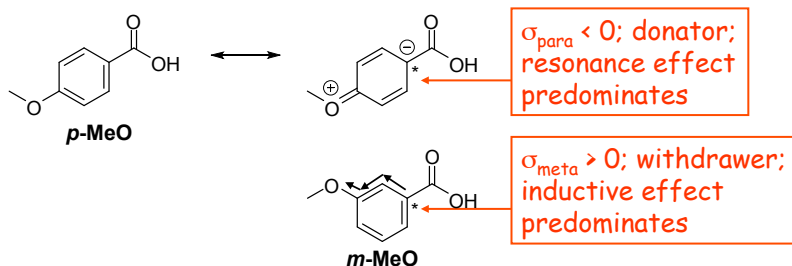
Substituent	σ_{meta}	σ_{para}
NMe_2	-0.10	-0.32
NH_2	-0.09	-0.30
OH	0.02	-0.22
OCH_3	0.1	-0.12
CH_3	-0.06	-0.14
H	0	0
Ph	0.05	0.05
F	0.34	0.15
Br	0.37	0.26
I	0.34	0.28
Cl	0.37	0.34
OCOCH_3	0.39	0.31
CO_2R	0.35	0.44
COCH_3	0.36	0.47
CF_3	0.46	0.53
CN	0.62	0.71
SO_2CH_3	0.64	0.73
NO_2	0.71	0.81

by definition

EWG

σ_{meta} VS σ_{para}

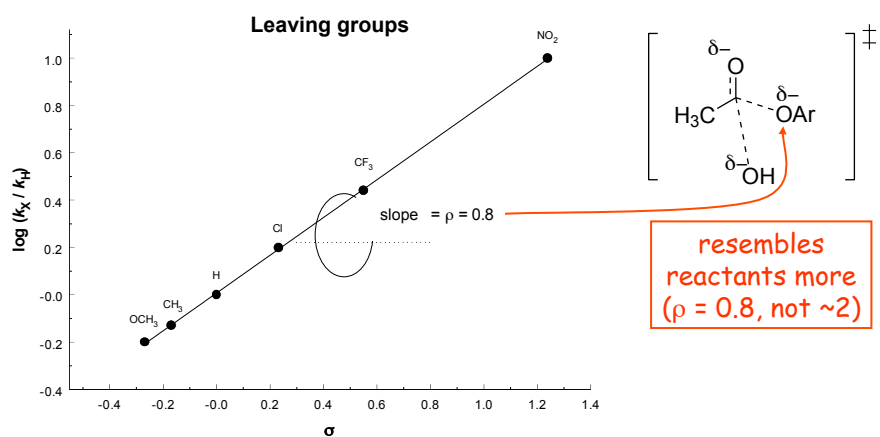
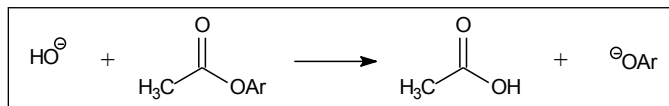
- from this table we note that $\sigma_{\text{para}} > \sigma_{\text{meta}}$ for several substituents
 - this tendency is especially pronounced for oxygenated substituents such as OH and OR
- in the *para* position, substituents can have very strong resonance effects
 - for oxygenated substituents these resonance effects are often in *competition* with inductive effects:



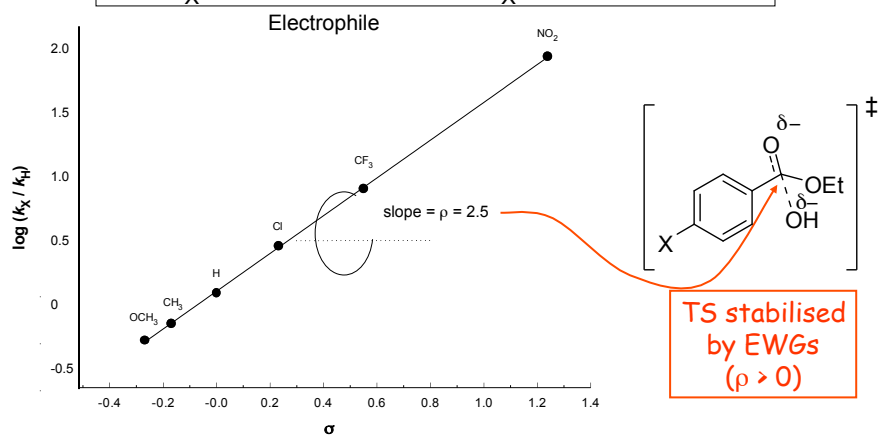
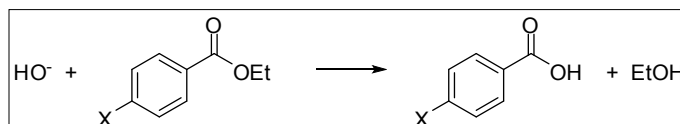
Reaction constant, ρ

- measure of the sensitivity of a given reaction to electronic perturbation, on passing from reactants to the TS of the rls
 - $\rho = 1$ for the ionisation of benzoic acid, by definition
 - $\rho > 0$ for reactions accelerated by electron withdrawing groups
 - increase of negative charge at TS
 - $\rho < 0$ for reactions accelerated by electron donating groups
 - increase of positive charge at TS

Hammett: aryl acetate hydrolysis

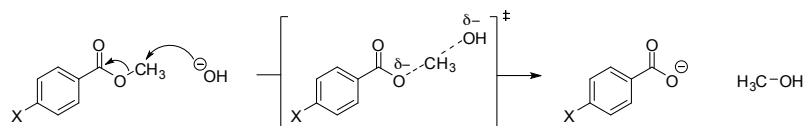


Hammett : ethyl benzoate hydrolysis

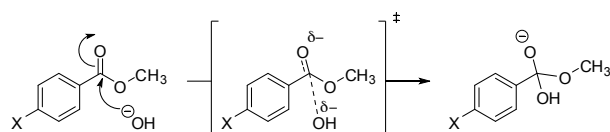


Hammett: methyl benzoate hydrolysis

- two mechanisms are consistent with the observed value of $\rho = 2.23$:
 - attack on the methyl group:



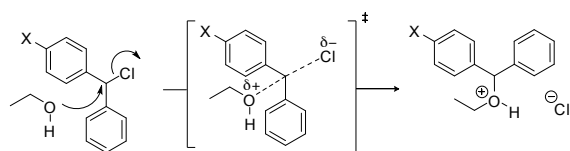
- or attack on the acyl group:



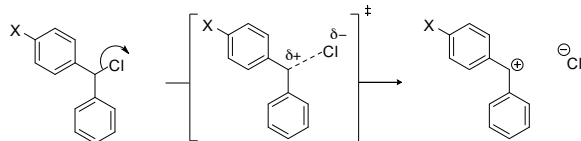
- so the Hammett plot (alone) does not allow us to distinguish between these mechanisms

Hammett: nucleophilic substitution

- only one mechanism is consistent with the observed value of $\rho = -5.09$:
 - consider attack on central carbon in rls ($\text{S}_\text{N}2$):



- compared to departure of chloride in rls (first step of $\text{S}_\text{N}1$):

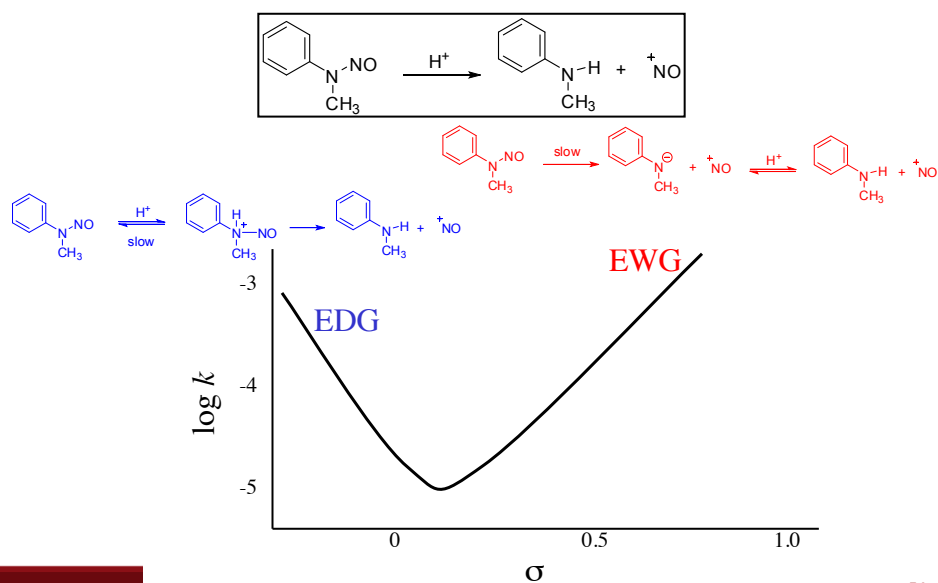


- in this case, the Hammett plot allows the distinction between these two mechanisms

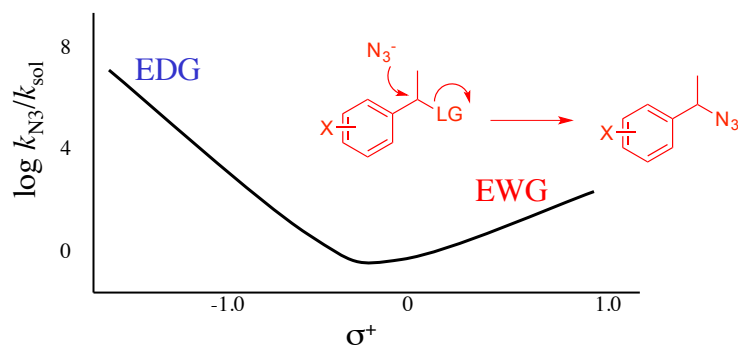
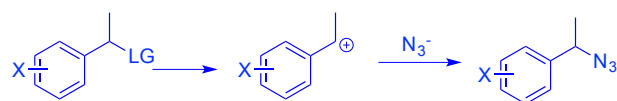
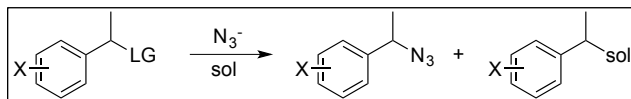
Deviation from linearity of Hammett eqn

- for certain reactants, the lowest energy reaction pathway may *change* upon variation of the substituent
 - especially true if two pathways have similar *degrees* of electronic dependence, but in opposite *directions*
- this manifests itself as an *upward curvature* of the Hammett plot

Example: Upward curving Hammett plot



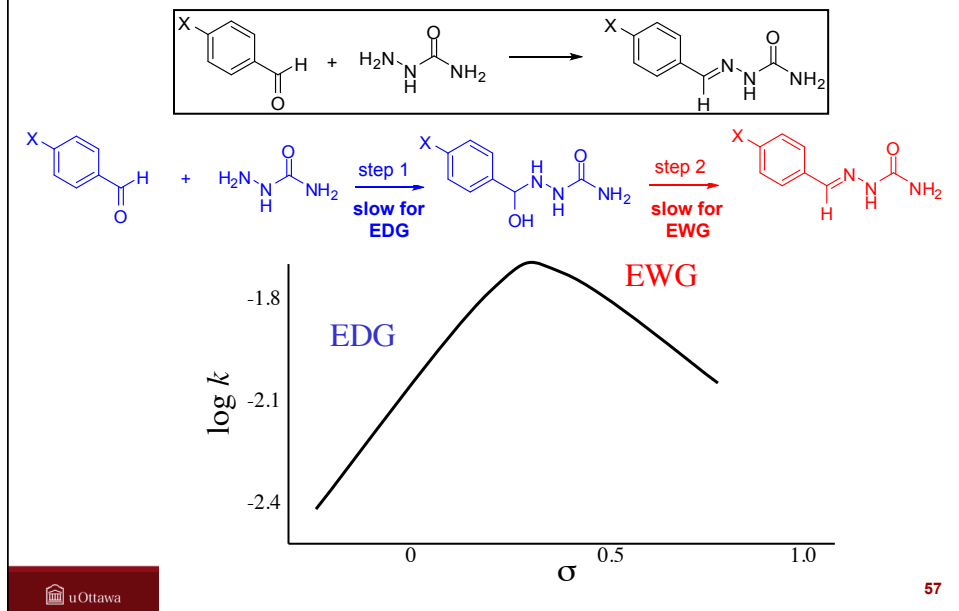
Example: Upward curving Hammett plot



Deviation from linearity of Hammett eqn

- for certain other reactions, the *rate-limiting step* can change upon variation of the substituent
 - this is especially true if two reaction steps have TS that are similar in energy
- this manifests itself as a *downward curving* Hammett plot

Example: Downward curving Hammett plot



Other substituent parameters

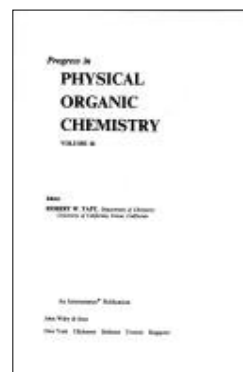
- many other chemists have proposed other complementary substituent parameters
- some of these alternative parameters may be more appropriate for a certain kind of reaction or for a certain type of substituent
- for example:
 - σ_I for isolated inductive effects
 - σ_R isolated resonance effects
 - σ_- for reactions that involved the stabilisation of negative charge by resonance
 - based on the ionisation of phenols
 - σ_+ for reactions that involve the stabilisation of positive charge by resonance
 - based on the formation of a benzylic cation

Outline: Other “LFERs”

- see section 8.4 of A&D
 - Taft parameters
 - nucleophilicity and nucleofugality
 - Swain-Scott parameters

Taft

- **Robert W. Taft** (1922 – 1996)
 - American professor of physical organic chemistry
 - one of the founders of the University of California, Irvine (UCI) in 1965
 - studied substituent effects, acidity and basicity

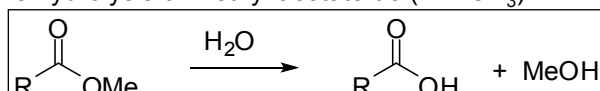


Taft Parameters

- the parameters developed by Hammett take account of:
 - field effects
 - inductive effects
 - resonance effects
 - but NOT steric effects**
- in response, Taft developed different parameters that take account of the *polar* nature of a substituent (inductive effects and field effects) and of its *steric* nature
 - σ^* = Taft's polar substituent parameter
 - E_s = Taft's steric parameter

Taft Parameters

- reference reaction* is the hydrolysis of methyl acetate de ($R = CH_3$) :



- steric parameter* is measured for the acid hydrolysis reaction, where the polarity of the substituent does not influence the rate

$$\log\left(\frac{k_s}{k_{\text{CH}_3}}\right) = E_s$$

- polarity parameter* is measured for the difference between the acid (A) and base (B) hydrolysis reactions

adjustment factor
to make σ^* the same
magnitude as the
Hammett σ value

$$\sigma^* = \frac{1}{2.48} \left[\log\left(\frac{k}{k_0}\right)_B - \log\left(\frac{k}{k_0}\right)_A \right]$$

Taft Equation

- takes account of the sensitivity of a given reaction to polar effects (ρ^*) and steric effects (δ) :

$$\log \left(\frac{k_s}{k_{\text{CH}_3}} \right) = \rho^* \sigma^* + \delta E_s$$

R Group	E_s	σ^*
H	1.24	0.49
CH ₃	0	0
Et	-0.07	-0.10
<i>i</i> Pr	-0.47	-0.19
<i>t</i> -Bu	-1.54	-0.30
CH ₂ Ph	-0.38	0.22
Ph	-2.55	0.60

by definition

Nucleophilicity et nucleofugality

- nucleophilicity and basicity involve the donation of electron density to an electrophile
 - good bases are often good nucleophiles
- nucleofugality and acidity involve acceptance of electron density from a substrate
 - good leaving groups (nucleofuges) are often the conjugate bases of good acids
- good nucleophiles are often poor leaving groups and vice versa
 - BUT there are exceptions!

Solvation

- solvation masks a nucleophile and decreases its reactivity
 - nucleophiles are typically more reactive in solvents that are polar, but *aprotic*
- nucleophiles having an adjacent electronegative atom can be orders of magnitude more reactive (known as the α effect)
 - partially related to ground state destabilisation
 - partially related to a decrease in reactant solvation

Polarisability, basicity and solvation

- in general, nucleophilicity increases on descending a column of the periodic table
 - this tendency is due to polarisability
- HOWEVER, in polar *aprotic* solvents, anions are not well solvated, such that nucleophilicity increases with basicity on ascending a column of the periodic table

Shape of a nucleophile

- steric hindrance decreases nucleophilicity
- linear nucleophiles are typically better than expected on the basis of their basicity
 - e.g.: NC^- , N_3^-

Swain

- **C. Gardner Swain (1917–1988)**
 - Professor of Chemistry, MIT
 - studied physical organic chemistry and reactions mechanisms
 - focussed on nucleophilic reactivities, solvent effects, substituent effects, isotope effects
 - developed nucleophilicity scale (in 1953) with graduate student, Carleton Scott



Swain-Scott Parameters

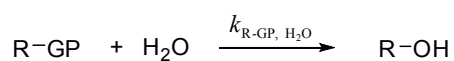
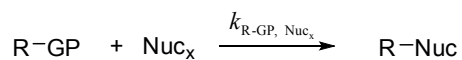
- developed to create a LFER of nucleophilicity
- current reference reactions:



$$\log \left(\frac{k_{\text{CH}_3\text{-I}, \text{Nuc}_x}}{k_{\text{CH}_3\text{-I}, \text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) = n_x$$

for
each
Nuc

- for a reaction of interest:



$$\log \left(\frac{k_{\text{R-GP}, \text{Nuc}_x}}{k_{\text{R-GP}, \text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) = s n_x$$

for
each
rxn



Values of n_x

- index of effective nucleophilicity, relative to water
 - NB: note *log* scale!

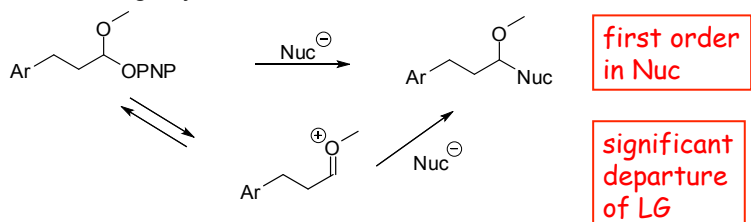
Nucleophile	n_x	$\text{p}K_a$ conj. acid
PhS^-	9.92	6.52
I^-	7.42	-10.7
NC^-	6.70	9.3
Et_3N	6.66	10.7
CH_3O^-	6.29	15.7
Br^-	5.79	-7.77
N_3^-	5.78	4.74
PhO^-	5.75	9.89
Aniline	5.70	4.58
PhSH	5.70	-
Pyridine	5.23	5.23
Cl^-	4.37	-5.7
CH_3CO_2^-	4.3	4.75
F^-	2.7	3.45
H_2O	0.0	-1.7
CH_3OH	~0.0	-1.7

70

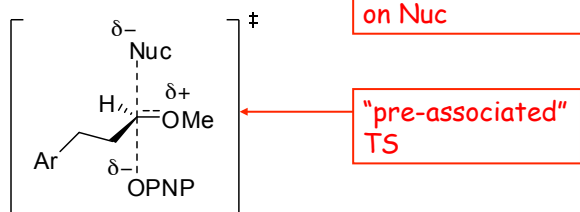


Example of Swain-Scott parameters

- the following reaction was studied for its dependence on nucleophilicity and nucleofugality:



- slope of Swain-Scott plot, $s = 0.18$



Outline: Brønsted Relationships

- see section 8.5 of A&D
 - β_{nuc}
 - β_{LG}
 - acid-base catalysis

Brønsted

- **Johannes Brønsted** (1879-1947)
 - Danish physical chemist (Copenhagen)
 - studied protonic theory of acid-base reactions (as did Lowry)
 - acid-base catalysis



Brønsted catalysis law

- Brønsted noted that the rate constants for reactions catalysed by a general acid (having a proton *in flight* in the rate limiting transition state) are proportional to the acidity constants of the general acids :

$$k_{\text{obs}} \propto K_{\text{a}}^{\alpha} \quad \boxed{\log k_{\text{obs}} = \alpha \cdot \log K_{\text{a}} = -\alpha \cdot \text{p}K_{\text{a}}}$$

and for general bases :

$$k_{\text{obs}} \propto K_{\text{b}}^{\beta} \quad \boxed{\log k_{\text{obs}} = \beta \cdot \log K_{\text{b}} = -\beta \cdot \text{p}K_{\text{b}}}$$

- Brønsted plots ($\log k$ vs $\text{p}K$) have slopes between 0 and 1:
 - slope of 0 : no proton transfer in rds
 - slope of 1 : proton already transferred before rds
 - intermediate slope: *proportional with charge developed at TS of rds*

Brønsted-type plots

- correlation of rate constants with the acidity of *parent compounds* of different fragments of reactants:
 - $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ of conjugate acids of **nucleophiles**
 - slope β_{nuc}
 - $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$ of conjugate acids of **leaving groups**
 - slope β_{lg}

β_{nuc}

- for the reaction of a series of nucleophiles having similar electronic and steric structure, the rate constant can be related to the basicity of the nucleophile:

$$\log(k) = \beta_{\text{Nuc}} \log(K_{\text{b}}) + \log(C)$$

$$\boxed{\log(k) = \beta_{\text{Nuc}} \text{p}K_{\text{a}} + \log(C')}$$

- β_{nuc} is a measure of the sensitivity of the reaction to the basicity (nucleophilicity) of the nucleophile
- β_{nuc} is thus related to the charge developed on the nucleophile at the TS and therefore to the degree of bond formation

β_{lg}

- for the reaction of a series of substrates having similar electronic and steric structure, the rate constant can be related to the acidity of the conjugate acid of the leaving group:

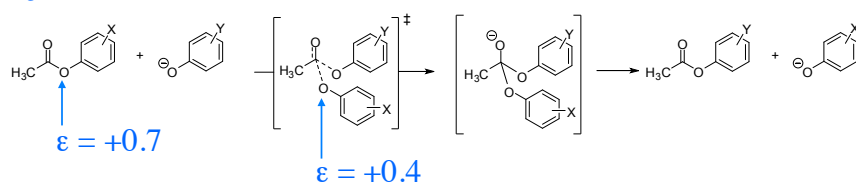
$$\log(k) = \beta_{lg} pK_a + \log(C)$$

- β_{lg} is a measure of the sensitivity of the reaction to the acidity of the conjugate acid (nucleofugality) of the leaving group
- β_{lg} is thus related to the charge developed on the leaving group at the TS and therefore to the degree of bond cleavage

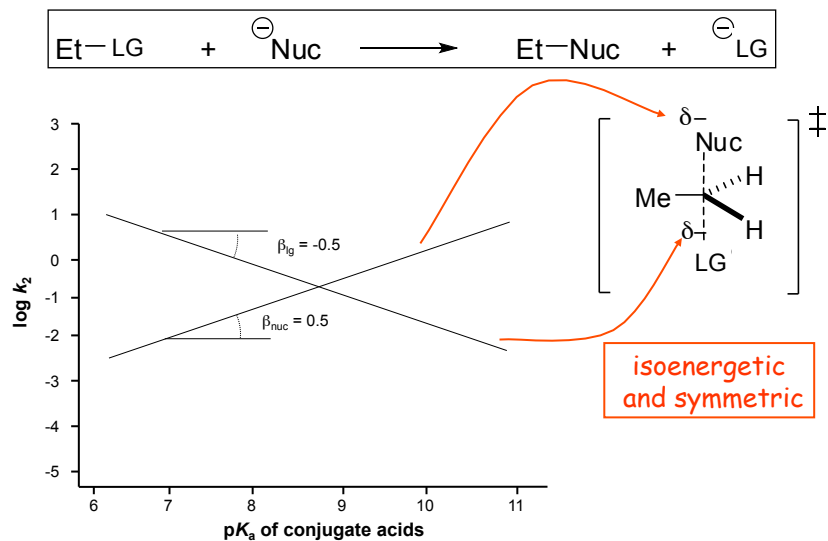
Slopes of Brønsted-type plots

- the value of the slope of a Brønsted-type plot can only very rarely be *directly* related to the degree of bond formation or cleavage
 - the slope β must also be known for the equilibrium constant of the reaction as well as for the rate constant
 - the *effective relative charge*, ϵ , must also be known for the reactants and the products

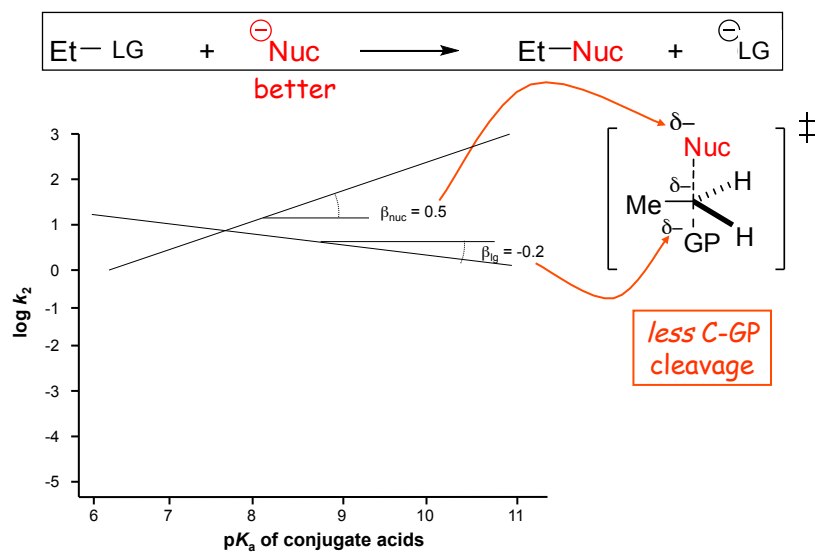
$$\beta_{lg} = -0.3 \quad \beta_{nuc} = +0.6$$



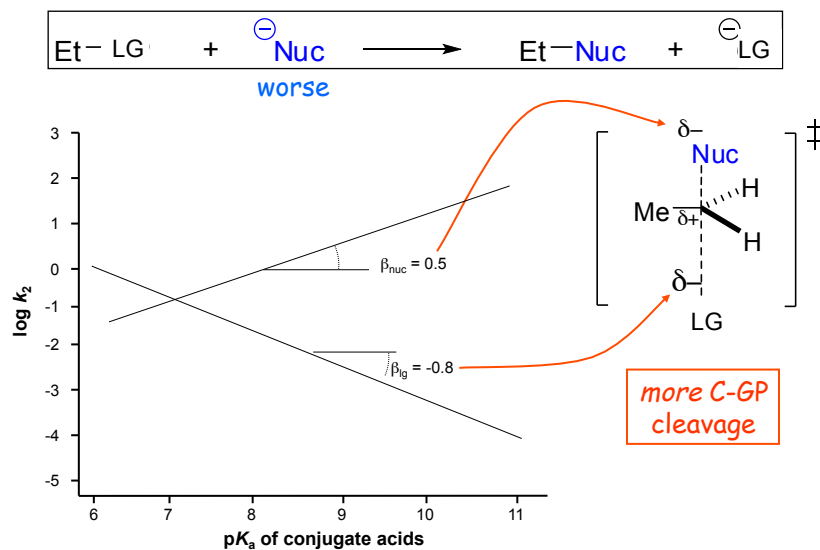
Brønsted-type plot



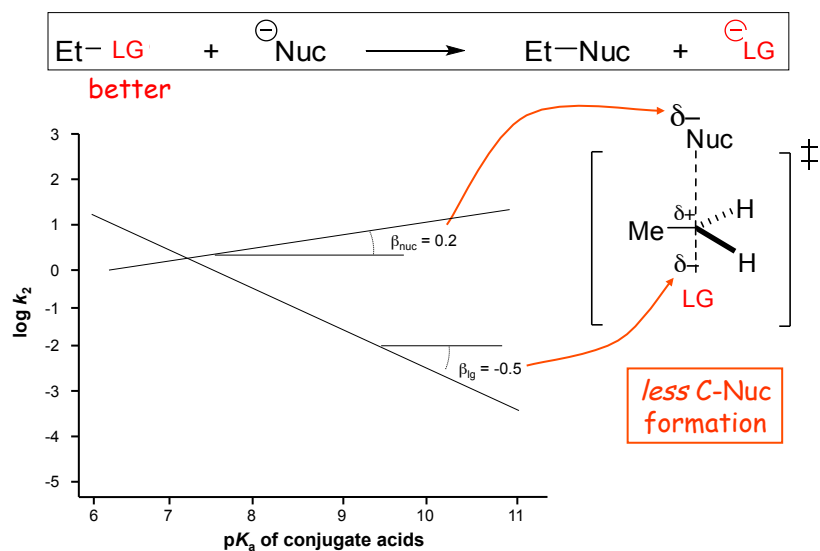
Brønsted-type plot



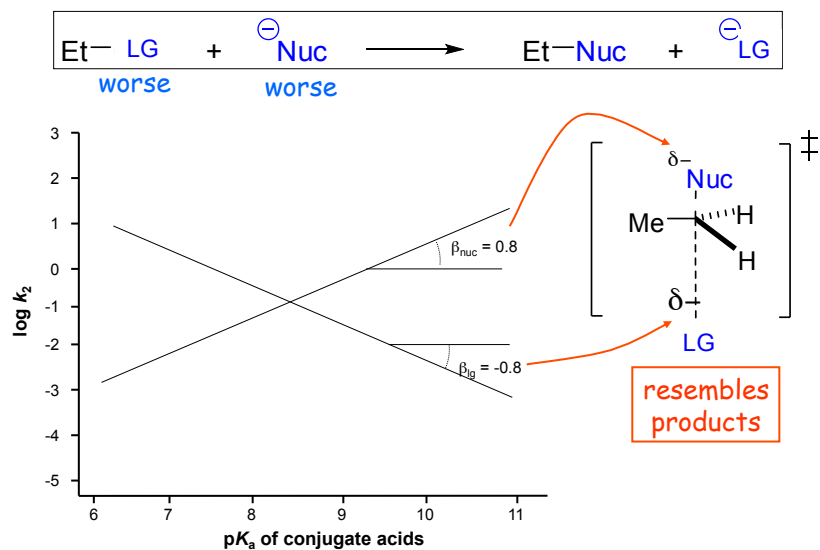
Brønsted-type plot



Brønsted-type plot



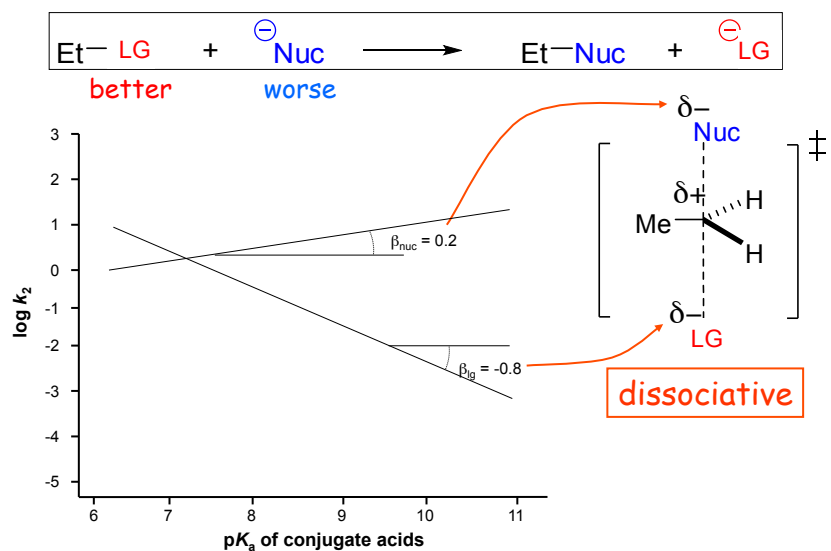
Brønsted-type plot



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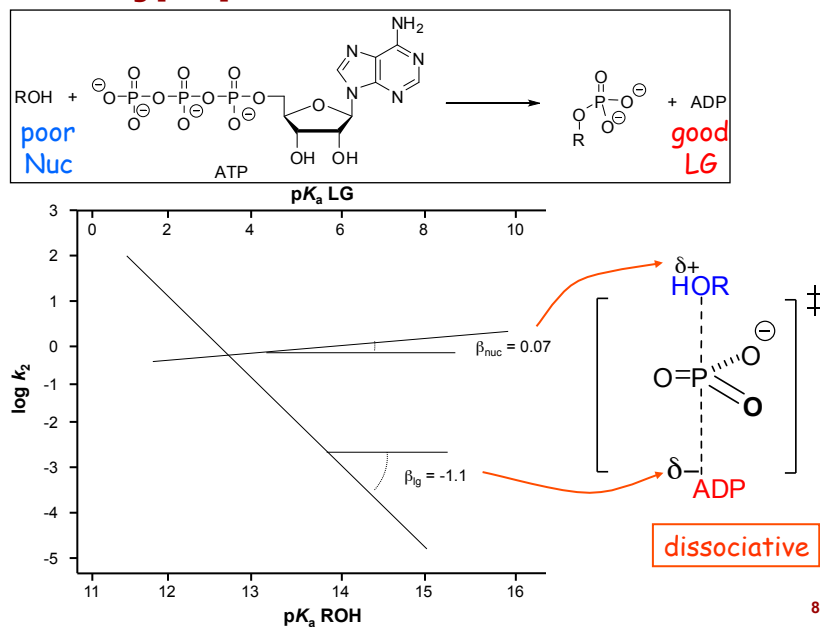
Brønsted-type plot



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Brønsted-type plot



Outline: “LFERs”

- see section 8.6 of A&D
 - mathematical considerations
 - thermodynamic considerations
 - enthalpy/entropy compensation

Mathematics of LFERs

- the relative influence of a substituent is fairly constant, from one reactin to another
 - but... why???
- consider the effect of a substituent on ΔG_{rxn} :

$$\Delta G_{\text{ref}} = -2.303RT \log(K_{\text{ref}}) \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta G_X = -2.303RT \log(K_X)$$

$$\text{so} \quad \Delta G_{\text{ref}} - \Delta G_X = 2.303RT \log(K_X/K_{\text{ref}})$$

$$\text{and} \quad C_X = \log(K_X/K_{\text{ref}})$$
- we then measure its effect for a new, but **similar** reaction:

$$C'_X = \log(K'_X/K'_{\text{ref}})$$
 and the ratio $Q = C'_X / C_X$ tells us the sensitivity of this reaction
- whence the general equation:

$$\log(K'_X/K'_{\text{ref}}) = QC_X$$

and by analogy,

$$\log(k'_X/k'_{\text{ref}}) = QC_X$$

Thermodynamic considerations

- empirically, we find that these relations are often linear, **for similar reactions**
- under these conditions, where $\Delta\Delta G' = Q\Delta\Delta G$, one could also write:

$$(\Delta\Delta H' - T\Delta\Delta S') = Q(\Delta\Delta H - T\Delta\Delta S)$$
- for this relationship to be linear, one of the following must be true:
 - $\Delta\Delta H' = \Delta\Delta H$, by coincidence, and the values of $\Delta\Delta S$ and $\Delta\Delta S'$ are linearly proportional, OR
 - $\Delta\Delta S' = \Delta\Delta S$, by coincidence, and the values of $\Delta\Delta H$ and $\Delta\Delta H'$ are linearly proportional, OR
 - the values of ΔH and ΔS are linearly proportional for the two reactions
- this last condition is in fact the most common
 - represents *entropy/enthalpy compensation*

Enthalpy/entropy compensation

- this phenomenon is easily explained on considering examples of steric effects and solvation effects:
 - steric effect:
 - for a reaction involving nucleophilic attack, a substrate having more steric hindrance at the TS will have a higher ΔH^\ddagger
 - but since the nucleophile and solvent molecules will be more distant and bound less tightly at the transition state, ΔS^\ddagger will be less negative
 - solvation effect:
 - for an S_N2 reaction, the polar activated complex is stabilised in a polar solvent, so ΔH^\ddagger is smaller
 - but since the development of charge at the TS will lead to solvent molecules being bound more tightly, ΔS^\ddagger is equally more negative

Summary of LFERs

- Table 8.6, A&D

Table 8.6
A Summary of the Most Common LFERs Used*

LFER	Substituent constant	Reference reaction	Used to study	Reaction constant and its meaning relative to the reference reaction
Hammett	σ	Ionization of benzoic acid	Inductive effects	$\rho > 1$, more sensitive $0 < \rho < 1$, less sensitive $\rho = 0$, not sensitive $\rho < 0$, positive charge created
Hammett	σ^-	Ionization of phenol	Resonance in addition to induction	Same as above
Hammett	σ^+	Ionization of phenyldimethyl chloromethane	Resonance in addition to induction	Same as above
Taft	E_s	Hydrolysis of methyl esters	Steric size	$\delta > 1$, more sensitive $\delta < 1$, less sensitive
Grunwald-Winstein	Y	Ionization of <i>t</i> -BuCl in 80:20 EtOH/H ₂ O	Ionizing power of solvent	$m > 1$, more sensitive $m < 1$, less sensitive
Swain-Scott	n	S_N2 reaction of methyl iodide in water	Nucleophilicity	$s > 1$, more sensitive $s < 1$, less sensitive
Bronsted	pK_a	Acidity in water	Nucleophilicity	$\beta_{\text{HOC}} > 1$, more sensitive $\beta_{\text{HOC}} < 1$, less sensitive
Bronsted	pK_a	Acidity in water	Leaving group departure	$\beta_{\text{LG}} > -1$, more sensitive $\beta_{\text{LG}} < -1$, less sensitive
Bronsted	pK_a	Acidity in water	Acid catalysis	$\alpha > 1$, more sensitive $\alpha < 1$, less sensitive
Bronsted	pK_a	Acidity in water	Basic catalysis	$\beta > 1$, more sensitive $\beta < 1$, less sensitive

*Not all of the LFERs discussed in the text are included in Table 8.6. Only those most likely to be encountered in modern research are included.